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An analysis of stance and voice in research articles across Chinese and British cultures, using the Appraisal Framework

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AN ANALYSIS OF STANCE AND VOICE IN RESEARCH ARTICLES ACROSS CHINESE AND BRITISH CULTURES, USING THE APPRAISAL FRAMEWORK

XU XIAOYU (PHD STUDENT)

COVENTRY UNIVERSITY

MAY 2017

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XU XIAOYU (PHD STUDENT)

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ABSTRACT

Scholars from Mainland China are increasingly publishing in the medium of English, in order to gain visibility and credibility worldwide. However, the visibility of Chinese scholars in the Social Sciences is strikingly low. Due to the holistic, interpretative, reiterative nature of knowledge in the Social Sciences, writers have to work harder to establish personal credibility through claim-making negotiations, sharing sympathetic understanding and promoting tolerance in their readers (Becher, 1994; Becher & Trowler, 2001; Hyland, 2000). This thesis investigates differences in stance and voice style between scholars from Mainland China and Britain so as to derive new information which might be useful to novice researchers in the Social Sciences (particularly applied linguistics) who intend to publish internationally.

A corpus of 30 research articles in applied linguistics was analysed in terms of Appraisal Theory (Martin & White 2005), theory of context (Xu & Nesi, 2017) and genre analysis (Swales 1990, 2004), using the UAM Corpus Tool (O'Donnell 2011). Findings from this analysis suggest that both the Chinese and the British authors are aware of the need to argue for their own opinions and maintain good relationships with their readers, but choose contrasting ways to realize these same purposes. Generally the Chinese authors try to maintain writer-reader relationships by avoiding explicit attitudinal evaluation of the work of others, while the British authors try to maintain writer-reader relationships by toning down or only evoking stance. The Chinese authors argue for their own positions by reinforcing their explicit attitudes, adding multiple references, sharpening the completion of tasks and construing claims as unquestioned, whereas the British authors argue for their own positions by explicitly evaluating people and phenomena. Because the statistically significant differences in stance and voice strategies revealed in this thesis indicate differences between Chinese and British scholars' argumentative styles, they suggest the need for a new way of perceiving Chinese ethnolinguistic impact on research writing, and might also inform the teaching of academic writing in the social sciences.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

List of Tables **viii**

List of Figures **x**

List of Abbreviations **xiii**

Chapter 1. Introduction **14**

1.1 Research background 14

1.1.1 The dominance of English in academia *14*

1.1.2 Neutrality and academic writing *15*

1.1.3 The challenges encountered by Chinese academics in the soft disciplines *17*

1.1.4 The imperative for cross-cultural studies of RAs *18*

1.2 Hypothesis 19

1.3 Research purpose 24

1.4 Research significance 24

1.5 Outline of the study 25

Chapter 2. Theoretical background **28**

2.1 What are stance and voice 28

2.2 Applied Linguistic theories 31

2.2.1 Appraisal within SFL *32*

2.2.2 SFL and ESP Genre analysis *38*

2.3 Voices in contexts 45

2.3.1 A comparison of different approaches to the analysis of context *45*

2.3.2 Aspects of the new theoretical framework *57*

2.4 Conclusion 67

Chapter 3. Literature review **68**

3.1 Academic writing 69

3.1.1 Academic writing in practice *69*

3.1.2 Academic writing in a research sense *71*

3.2 Studies of stance and voice across language/cultures 78

3.2.1 Variations in student writing across languages/cultures *78*

3.2.2 Variations in research articles across languages/cultures *85*

3.3 Studies of stance and voice across evaluative contexts 94

3.4 Studies of generic features in research articles 98

3.5 Research questions 101

Chapter 4. Methodology **104**

4.1 Discourse analysis vs. corpus methods 104

4.1.1 The nature of the current study *104*

4.1.2 Qualitative approach *105*

4.1.3 Quantitative approach *106*

4.1.4 The kinds of approach adopted in the current study *106*

4.2 Corpus creation 106

4.2.1 A rationale for the design of the current corpus *106*

4.2.2 The practical process of corpus creation *110*
4.2.3 UAM CorpusTool *113*
4.3 A description of the corpus 116
4.4 The annotation system 117
4.4.1 Marking schemes *118*
4.4.2 Inter-coder reliability *120*
4.5 Methods of analysis 122
4.5.1 Statistical test *122*
4.5.2 Pilot study *122*
4.5.3 Final corpus queries *124*

Chapter 5. Analysis One: Generic strategies using appraisal markers **128**
5.1 Expression of Attitude 129
5.1.1 Expression of inscribed Attitude *130*
5.1.2 Expression of evoked Attitude *136*
5.1.3 Polarity of attitudinal meaning *139*
5.2 Expression of Graduation 141
5.2.1 Grading inscribed Attitude *143*
5.2.2 Graduation evoking attitudinal meaning *145*
5.3 Expression of Engagement 158
5.4 Other items 165
5.5 Conclusion 167

Chapter 6. Analysis Two: voicing values across contexts **170**
6.1 Construction of Attitudinal meaning across contexts 171
6.1.1 Debater voice construed with Attitude *174*
6.1.2 Advisor voice and Observer voice construed with Attitude *185*
6.2 Construction of Graduation across contexts 190
6.2.1 Debater voice construed with inscribed Graduation *192*
6.2.2 Advisor voice and Observer voice construed with inscribed Graduation *195*
6.2.3 Debater voice construed with attitudinal meaning evoked by Graduation *198*
6.2.4 Advisor voice and Observer voice construed with attitudinal meaning evoked by Graduation *203*
6.3 Construction of Engagement across contexts 208
6.4 Conclusion 218

Chapter 7. Analysis Three: Construction of stance and voice throughout moves **223**
7.1 Co-articulating stance in Introduction Move 1 – Establishing a Territory 224
7.2 Co-articulating stance in Introduction Move 2 – Establishing a niche 232
7.3 Co-articulating stance in Introduction Move 3 – Occupying a niche 239
7.4 Co-articulating stance in Conclusion Move 1 – Contextualising the study 246
7.5 Co-articulating stance in Conclusion Move 2 – Consolidation of results 250
7.6 Co-articulating stance in Conclusion Move 3 – Limitation of the study 259
7.7 Co-articulating stance in Conclusion Move 4 – Further research suggested 263
7.8 Engagement patterns for particular purposes 267
7.9 Conclusion 279

Chapter 8. Conclusion **286**

8.1 Major findings 286
8.2 Research contributions 289
8.2.1 Contributions to cross-cultural studies *289*
8.2.2 Theoretical contribution *291*
8.2.3 Contribution to the studies of academic writing in general *292*
8.3 Research implication 293
8.3.1 Research implications for pedagogy in academic literacy *293*
8.3.2 Research implications for linguistic justice in the international academia *296*
8.4 Research limitations 299
8.5 Further research 300
References **304**

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1: Linguistic features of Stance and Voice 31
Table 3.1: Summary of Gray and Biber's explicitness level in grammatical stance devices 89
Table 3.2: Similarities between five organizational patterns for Discussion sections (Arabic numeral = a move; *= a step) 100
Table 4.1: Selected articles 112
Table 5.1: Idiomatic metaphors 138
Table 5.2: Types of multiple references 151
Table 5.3: Realizations of Infusion in a process 153
Table 5.4: Verbal processes and material processes 154
Table 5.5: Realizations of Phase: reality of the process 155
Table 5.6: Soften markers 157
Table 5.7: Sharpen markers 158
Table 5.8: Realizations of Entertain 162
Table 5.9: Engagement Keywords in both sub-copra 165
Table 6.1: Distribution of Attitude markers across contexts (N/A = no occurrence or equal density in the two sub-corpora; C = higher density in the Chinese sub-corpus; B = Higher density in the British sub-corpus; + = weak significance; ++ = medium significance; +++ = high significance; red colour= categories identified in Chapter 5 that need to be scrutinized across contexts) 173
Table 6.2: Dis/Inclination – Debater voice 175
Table 6.3: Dis/Satisfaction – Debater voice 176
Table 6.4: Capacity – Debater voice 178
Table 6.5: Propriety – Debater voice 179
Table 6.6: Tenacity – Debater voice 181
Table 6.7: Reaction – Debater voice 182
Table 6.8: Composition – Debater voice 183
Table 6.9: Social valuation – Debater voice 185
Table 6.10: Attitude in Advisor voice 188
Table 6.11: Attitude in Observer voice 190
Table 6.12: Distribution of Graduation markers across contexts (N/A = no occurrence or equal density in the two sub-corpora; C = higher density in the Chinese sub-corpus; B = Higher density in the British sub-corpus; + = weak significance; ++ = medium significance; +++ = high significance) 192
Table 6.13: Pre-modification intensifier – Debater voice 194
Table 6.14: Infusion in attitudinal attributes – Debater voice 195
Table 6.15: Pre-modification intensifier – Advisor voice 196
Table 6.16: Inscribed Graduation in Observer voice 197
Table 6.17: Non-specific numeration in Debater voice 200
Table 6.18: Space in the Debater voice 202
Table 6.19: Non-specific numeration: Advisor voice 205

Table 6.20: Space: Advisor voice 207
Table 6.21: Evoked Graduation in Observer voice 208
Table 6.22: Engagement markers' function on the propositional level 210
Table 6.23: Co-occurrence of Entertain and other Appraisal markers 212
Table 6.24: Other combinations of Engagement 216
Table 7.1: Describing others' findings 268
Table 7.2: Commenting on their own studies 268
Table 7.3: Giving research implications 269
Table 7.4: Establishing a gap 269
Table 7.5: Interpreting the results of their own studies 270
Table 7.6: Offering different opinions against prior research 278
Table 7.7: Debater voice across moves (Each number is a t-score; Blue = higher density in the Chinese sub-corpus; Red = Higher density in the British sub-corpus; - = No significance; + = weak significance; ++ = medium significance; +++ = high significance 280
Table 7.8: Advisor voice across moves (Each number is a t-score; Blue = higher density in the Chinese sub-corpus; Red = Higher density in the British sub-corpus; - = No significance; + = weak significance; ++ = medium significance; +++ = high significance) 281

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: Language, register and genre (Martin & Rose 2003: 254) 40
Figure 2.2: Overall organisation of research paper (Hill et al., 1982: 334) 41
Figure 2.3: CARS model (Swales 2004: 203-232) (*=not only optional but less fixed in their order of occurrence than the others; PISF=Probably in Some Fields, but unlikely in others) 43
Figure 2.4: Hunston's interactive plane and autonomous plane 46
Figure 2.5: Interrelation between the evaluation systems of Hunston and Thetela 51
Figure 2.6: Thetela's Research-Oriented Evaluation (ROE) 52
Figure 2.7: Interrelations between the three distinctions discussed in Hunston (2000), Thetela (1997) and Hood (2000) 57
Figure 2.8: Thetela's and Hood's perception about the nature of contexts 64
Figure 2.9: The actual nature of contexts 64
Figure 3.1: Relations between genres and disciplines (Bhatia, 2002) 77
Figure 3.2: Cultural thought patterns in inter-culture education (Kaplan, 1966: 21) 78
Figure 4.1: The current corpus in the UAM CorpusTool 113
Figure 4.2: Multiple schemes 114
Figure 4.3: Scheme editing 114
Figure 4.4: Annotation window 115
Figure 4.5: Statistics window 115
Figure 4.6: Search window 116
Figure 4.7: Explore window 116
Figure 4.8: Appraisal marking scheme 119
Figure 4.9: Context marking scheme 120
Figure 4.10: Move marking scheme 120
Figure 4.11: The interface for comparisons across subsets 123
Figure 4.12: key features examination 124
Figure 5.1: Appraisal types 129
Figure 5.2: Inscribed Attitude Types 130
Figure 5.3: Judgement types 131
Figure 5.4: Social esteem types and Social sanction types 132
Figure 5.5: Appreciation types 133
Figure 5.6: Affect types 135
Figure 5.7: Idioms 136
Figure 5.8: Polarity of Attitude 139
Figure 5.9: Inscribed and evoked Graduation 142
Figure 5.10: Grading inscribed Attitude 143
Figure 5.11: Force types (inscribed) 144
Figure 5.12: Intensification types 144
Figure 5.13: Graduation types (evoked attitudinal meaning) 146

Figure 5.14: Force types (evoked attitudinal meaning) 146
Figure 5.15: Quantification types (evoked attitudinal meaning) 147
Figure 5.16: Extent types (Evoked attitudinal meaning) 148
Figure 5.17: Scope types (evoked attitudinal meaning) 148
Figure 5.18: Amount types (evoked attitudinal meaning) 149
Figure 5.19: Types of multiple references 150
Figure 5.20: Intensification types (evoked attitudinal meaning) 152
Figure 5.21: Enhancement type (evoked attitudinal meaning) 153
Figure 5.22: Focus type (Evoked attitudinal meaning) 154
Figure 5.23: Fulfilment types (evoked attitudinal meaning) 155
Figure 5.24: Softened and sharpened Focus 157
Figure 5.25: Engagement 159
Figure 5.26: Heteroglossia 160
Figure 5.27: Contract and Expand types 161
Figure 6.1: Appraisal across contexts 171
Figure 6.2: Attitude across contexts 172
Figure 6.3: Dis/Inclination in Debater voice 174
Figure 6.4: Capacity in Debater voice 177
Figure 6.5: Propriety in Debater voice 178
Figure 6.6: Reaction in Debater voice 181
Figure 6.7: Composition in Debater voice 183
Figure 6.8: Social valuation in Debater voice 184
Figure 6.9: Attitude in Advisor voice 186
Figure 6.10: Attitude in Observer voice 189
Figure 6.11: Graduation across contexts 191
Figure 6.12: Inscribed Graduation in Debater voice 193
Figure 6.13: Inscribed Graduation in Advisor voice 195
Figure 6.14: Inscribed Graduation in Observer voice 197
Figure 6.15: Evoked Graduation in Debater voice 198
Figure 6.16: Evoked Graduation in Advisor voice 203
Figure 6.17: Evoked Graduation in Observer voice 208
Figure 7.1: Debater voice in Introduction Move 1 – Establishing a territory 225
Figure 7.2: Advisor voice in Introduction Move 1 – Establishing a territory 226
Figure 7.3: Observer voice in Introduction Move 1 – Establishing a territory 226
Figure 7.4: Debater voice in Introduction Move 2 – Establishing a niche 233
Figure 7.5: Advisor voice in Introduction Move 2 – Establishing a niche 234
Figure 7.6: Observer voice in Introduction Move 2 – Establishing a niche 234
Figure 7.7: Debater voice in Introduction Move 3 – Presenting the present work 241
Figure 7.8: Advisor voice in Introduction Move 3 – Presenting the Present Study 242
Figure 7.9: Observer voice in Introduction Move 3 – Presenting the Present Study 242

Figure 7.10: Debater voice in Conclusion Move 1 – Contextualizing the study 247
Figure 7.11: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 1 – Contextualizing the study 248
Figure 7.12: Observer voice in Conclusion Move 1 – Contextualizing the study..... 248
Figure 7.13: Debater voice in Conclusion Move 2 – Consolidation of results 252
Figure 7.14: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 2 – Consolidation of results 253
Figure 7.15: Observer voice in Conclusion Move 2 – Consolidation of results..... 253
Figure 7.16: Debater voice in Conclusion Move 3 – Limitation of the study..... 260
Figure 7.17: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 3 – Limitations of the study 261
Figure 7.18: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 3 – Limitations of the study 261
Figure 7.19: Debater voice in Conclusion Move 4 – Further research suggested 264
Figure 7.20: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 4 – Further research suggested 265
Figure 7.21: Observer voice in Conclusion Move 4 – Further research suggested..... 265

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

EAP	English for Academic purposes
EGAP	English for General Academic purposes
ESAP	English for Specific Academic purposes
ESP	English for Specific purposes
FD	Field of Domain
FR	Field of Research
RA	Research Article
ROE	Research-Oriented Evaluation
TOE	Topic-Oriented Evaluation

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

This Chapter provides the background of the thesis and the rationale for my topic; it refers to the challenges encountered by Chinese academics in the soft disciplines, and the differences between Chinese and Western national cultures, as argued in the prior research. Based on this research, I arrive at a hypothesis regarding the stance and voice taken by Chinese academics in their research articles. This chapter also explains the significance of this investigation and provides an outline of the thesis contents.

1.1 Research background

1.1.1 The dominance of English in academia

English has been the lingua franca across the globe for decades, and its dominance is still increasing rapidly as globalization speeds up. One domain of its application is academia which promotes dialogues among academics worldwide to build on each other's ideas and research and push forward the frontiers of knowledge. On the one hand, the adoption of one language, English, in academia has diminished the barriers caused by the use of multiple languages. On the other hand, the adoption of English puts pressure on non-Anglophone scholars because of the need to publish in a language other than their mother tongue. International publications by non-native English-speaking scholars are significantly fewer than those by native English speakers (Mauranen *et al.*, 2010; Swales, 2004), despite the estimation that non-native English speaking academics now outnumber native English speaking academics, several times over. Some studies have found that Chinese academics' submissions to international journals have greatly increased in the past 20 years (Thomson Reulers, 2012; Royal Society, 2011), and China is just behind the United States in terms of article submissions, according to figures in a recent study (SCImago, 2014). Most of these submissions are not accepted, however. Although it is not clear how they define 'Chinese' and 'American', the World Bank (2012), claims that in their data, only 6% of all research article publications in English are written by Chinese academics compared to 29% by

American academics. Although it is hard to prove the underlying reasons for this, differences in Anglophone and non-Anglophone academic writing styles have been detected by many researchers, some of whom have suggested that some non-Anglophone features are influenced by first language and national cultures (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Canagarajah, 1996, 2002; Curry & Lillis, 2004; Flowerdew, 1999, 2000; Mauranen, Pérez-Llantada, & Swales, 2010; Pennycook, 1994; Tardy, 2004; Salager-Meyer, 1997; Swales, 1990, 2004). This thesis joins the research debate by seeking evidence of cultural variation in academic discourse which may have some effect on the interpretation of meaning. This study aims to provide insights to support Chinese scholars from non-English language backgrounds who write research articles in English, and to bridge gaps of understanding in academic communications in a globalised academia.

1.1.2 Neutrality and academic writing

According to many researchers (e.g., Hyland, 2005; Gray & Biber, 2012; Mauranen & Bondi, 2003a), the discourse of research articles has traditionally been perceived as objective, faceless and impersonal, and mainly focussing on conveying factual information. Many philosophers of science have argued, however, that research, even of the most scientific kind, provides a less reliable basis for proof than commonly supposed. Popper (1994), for example, has pointed out a problem of 'induction' – no amount of confirming observations can verify a universal generalization. Hawking (1993) also noted that although there are theories to describe many scientific observations, we can never know what reality really is, independent of these theories. Although Einstein (1923) excluded mathematics from the sciences that suffer from this problem, he argued that, generally speaking, science is debatable and is in constant danger of being falsified by newly discovered facts. Therefore, researchers offer probabilities and uncertainty rather than proof. Among all possible interpretations, writers guide readers to a particular interpretation based on their own research data, but readers always have the option of holding a different point of view. To convince the readers, the writer relies on "textual practices for producing agreement", and thus the attention is shifted to "the ways that academics argue their claims" (Hyland, 2005:

195). Academics produce texts that not only plausibly represent an external reality, but also have the primary purpose of persuading the reader and the community to accept knowledge claims (Hunston, 1993, 1994; Hyland, 2005; Charles, 2006, 2007).

Over the past three decades or so, many applied linguists have come to realize the persuasive nature of academic research writing. Writers spontaneously seek "to offer a credible representation of themselves and their work by claiming solidarity with readers, evaluating their material … acknowledging alternative views … negotiate[ing] social relations" (Hyland, 2005: 173), and constantly adjust the "network of consensual knowledge in order to accommodate those claims" (Hunston, 1994:192). Although some researchers (e.g. Biber and Finegan, 1989) have found less evidence of certain stance markers in academic writing than in spoken registers and other written registers, they also suggest that academic writing has its own peculiar persuasion repertoire which is worthy of further investigation.

This change in perceptions of academic discourse may have been influenced by Bakhtin's (1981) claim that all language (and the thoughts which language contains and communicates) appears as dialogical. That is to say, everything we ever say always exists both in response to things that have been said before and in anticipation of things that will be said in response to it. All language is dynamic, relational and engaged in a process of endless redescriptions of the world. Bakhtin's dialogism functions through what Bakhtin called heteroglossia, defined as the coexistence of various styles of speech within the "language" of a single speaker — "another's speech in another's language, serving to express authorial intentions but in a refracted way" (1981:324). In academic writing, the style can be the speech of the author, the speech of narrators, the speech of critics, or the speech of participants. One way to realize heteroglossia is through polyphony, i.e. multi-voices, which is another idea proposed by Bakhtin (1984). He explained that it is the unfinalizability of individuals and relationships between the self and others that creates true polyphony. This means that truth cannot be held within a single mind or expressed by 'a

single mouth'; on the contrary, it requires mutual addressivity, engagement, and commitment to the context of a real-life event to distinguish truth from untruth.

In academic discourse, polyphony is realized by way of references to other sources. Writers position themselves in the community through selectively assimilating the discourse of others and making it their own, a process commonly regarded as being realized through citation and intertextuality. This mutual addressivity then realizes the author's final rhetorical aim to persuade the audience, and "become part of the field's literature and consequently of its deliberation" (Fløttum, 2012: 221).

As discussed in the beginning of this chapter, with the Anglicization of the academic world, mastering English for Research Purposes (ERP) is becoming more crucial than ever for scholars who intend to publish papers in influential and international journals. This holds for Chinese academics as it does for scholars from all parts of the world. Successful research writing requires not only the higher cognitive skills, namely, analysis, synthesis and evaluation (Bloom *et al*., 1956), but also the interpretation and use of a range of rhetorical strategies (Paul, 2000). It is not an easy task for academics to write in their mother tongues, but even more attention and effort is needed to write research in another language, especially in a language which belongs to an entirely different language family, as is the case with Chinese in relation to English. The prior research suggests that interpreting stance and establishing a stance has been a particular difficulty for Chinese researchers operating in the medium of English (Li & Flowerdew, 2007). As a first step towards helping Chinese scholars to publish internationally, it is worth finding out more about ways of expressing stance preferred by Chinese scholars and by others.

1.1.3 The challenges encountered by Chinese academics in the soft disciplines

The situation faced by Chinese academics writing in English varies from discipline to discipline, however. Although English is the preferred language in every research field on a global scale (Ammon, 2006), more hard scientists than humanists and social scientists publish in the medium of English (Cargill & O'Connor, 2006; Li & Flowerdew, 2007), and the

Chinese share of hard science publications is much larger than their share of humanities and social science publications.

Zhao and Quan (2016) report that, according to the Web of Science database, approximately 4% of the research articles published in the journal *Cell, Nature and Science* in 2013 were authored or co-authored by Chinese academics. Similar estimations also apply to other journals listed in other science databases such as the Science Citation Index, Engineering Index, and the Index to Scientific & Technical Proceedings. On the other hand, Fang (2015) found that research articles authored or co-authored by Chinese academics and listed in the Social Science Citation Index for 2013 accounted for less than 0.2%. Some of these publications were even found in translated journals from a Western academic publisher that ''selects and translates what are considered important papers from existing Chinese journals'' (Agelasto & Adamson, 1998: 67). Similar estimations also apply to humanities databases such as the Arts and Humanities Citation Index. The visibility of Chinese academics in the humanities and the social sciences is strikingly low (Yang, 2003), although Fang (2015) has pointed out that the Chinese share has increased by a large measure in the past decade. Research articles written by Chinese academics in the soft disciplines are therefore particularly in need of examination, in order to help Chinese scholars make a more proportionate contribution to the advancement of these disciplines.

1.1.4 The imperative for cross-cultural studies of RAs

Over the past three decades, numerous studies have investigated how culture interrelates with language, and how L1 culture may influence the written rhetorical patterns of a language (Kaplan, 1966, 1988; Connor, 2004; Mauranen, 1993a; Leki, 1995; Hyland, 2013). However, research into cross-cultural issues has undergone a journey, with many debates and conceptual changes regarding what 'language culture' means, and to what extent it impacts on academic writing. The differences in the writing produced by different nationalities were first ascribed solely to differences in L1 language cultures (Kaplan, 1966), but were later also ascribed to other factors, as generic and disciplinary views developed

(Swales, 1999, 2004). Accordingly, the methods of cross-cultural studies have changed to a large degree. Researchers have called for more rigorous approaches to investigating the transfer of L1 rhetorical patterns to L2 writing, and are now tending to aim for greater comparability by narrowing their focus to one specific aspect of language culture. Before this big change, much of the research, including that which focussed on the research writing of Chinese academics, suffered from methodological problems. The findings from these earlier cross-cultural studies will be evaluated in more detail in the literature review (Chapter 3).

1.2 Hypothesis

Many prior studies have identified aspects of the Chinese national culture that may influence the rhetorical style of Chinese research writing. The most mentioned aspect is probably the 'Confucius culture', which holds a time-honoured view of language as a tool for conveying knowledge, rather than as a medium for partaking in knowledge construction. In the Confucius culture, truth and knowledge are seen as self-evident rather than things that are constructed through discussion and argument. For example, Confucius declared that "I transmit but do not innovate; I am truthful in what I say and devoted to antiquity" (述而不作，信而好古) (Lau, 1983: 57), and "it is enough that the language one uses gets the point across" (辞达而已矣) (Lau, 1983: 159) (although at the time (somewhere between 475 BC and 221 BC) when Confucius offered these thoughts, he was himself being innovative rather than transmitting knowledge). The claims of Confucius have led over time to the epistemological beliefs that "verbal debate and argumentation are not meaningful tools for understanding truth and reality", as Peng and Nisbett (1999: 747) note. Such beliefs have conceivably changed Chinese writing practices and encouraged a style that is less in need of engaging rhetorically with alternative viewpoints and voices, or constructing knowledge by building on different opinions (Bloch & Chi, 1995). The most prominent, time-honoured sources are normally unquestioned, and are passed on as the absolute truth.

Similar ideas were noted by the founder of philosophical Taoism, Laozi. If the point made by Confucius can be interpreted as an exhortation to "use descriptive language exclusively to convey knowledge", the ideas of Laozi can then be interpreted as an exhortation "not to use language to convey knowledge at all". For example, Laozi declared that "abstaining from speech marks him who is obeying the spontaneity of his nature" (希言自然) (Mu, 2001: 21), and that "the person who has knowledge does not speak; the person who speaks does not know the truth" (知者不言，言者不知) (Mu, 2001: 28). According to this view, even a teacher "carries wordless teaching" (行不言之教) (Mu, 2001: 2). Language is not only seen as useless in connecting perceptions and reality, but even harmful to the connections between humans and nature. The ancient Chinese philosophers after Confucius and Laozi all followed these concepts regarding the role of language, and hence developed these ideas into national beliefs. Perceiving knowledge and truth through meditation (悟) has thus become the preferred way of gaining wisdom. This perception of language is embedded in the ancient philosophers' view of the world as a holistic and integrated entity. Their dialectical thinking led to their preference for harmony rather than dividedness. Analysing things into parts or extremes was seen as unnatural, rather, a mechanism of self-control and autonomous actions was thought of as ideal for a universe which is inherent in things and demands no investigation (Xue & Meng, 2007). Hence, before the 20th century, the discourse of written knowledge in the Chinese language did not develop a systematic way of defining concepts, explicitly explaining new ideas, or building new arguments on the basis of prior knowledge (Deng, 2014). In fact, classical Chinese is written in a poetic way that focusses on sense perception and aesthetic construction, offering readers diverse interpretations in order to evoke deep and wise thinking. In part this style is achieved is by omitting words when a reference to them is understood, and by switching the parts of speech of characters. Deng (2014) suggests that this characteristic of classical Chinese was an obstacle to the progress of science and the development of a scientific community in ancient China, because it hindered analytical and inductive thinking which requires the division of things into components. In the West, in contrast, language has long been seen as

an important link between perceptions and reality, and the relationship between language and the real world, and ways of using language to describe reality, have been extensively discussed since the ancient Greek period. Such discussions have generated many philosophical theories of discourse such as Ontology (what entities exist or may be said to exist) and Logos (i.e., 'λόγος', referred to as 'reasoned discourse' by Aristotle). The understanding of the nature of language enabled Western talents to make concepts explicit, as well as to discuss, develop and organize knowledge using established communicative norms within an established knowledge system.

Since the establishment of the Vernacular Chinese Movement in the early 20th century, Chinese written language has gradually embraced Western linguistic norms and developed ways of expression that are more explicit, precise and logical than in classical Chinese. However, Chinese academics have only experienced this change for a century, compared to some 3000 years of development in logical reasoning and argument in Western academia. The modern Chinese language is still seen by many researchers as a language which weaves information into the cultural and situational context of communicative events. Hall (1976) proposed the concept of high- and low-context cultures to differentiate cultures in which substantial information is found beyond words and cultures that seek information in verbal codes. Hall categorized Chinese culture as a high-context culture where hints and intuition have a great role to play in conversation and writing. The culture of English-speaking countries, on the other hand, was categorized as a low-context culture that avoids the assumption of shared knowledge. At the same time, listeners/readers respond to texts differently in different cultures. Within the Chinese culture, listeners/readers have to resort to their background knowledge for an accurate interpretation of what the speaker/writer intends to express. This phenomenon is also highlighted in the typology proposed by Hinds (1990), which distinguishes "writer-responsible" languages from "reader-responsible" languages. The responsibility here refers to the duty to ensure successful communication between the writer and the reader. Chinese is categorised by Hinds as a typical reader-responsible language, while English is categorised as a typical writer-responsible language.

Even now in China, speakers and writers use the idiom “it can only be sensed but not be explained” (只可意会不可言传) when they fail to explain abstract ideas clearly, thus appealing to the intuition of their audiences.

Therefore, it is hypothesized that the present study will find evaluation, arguments and engagement to be less prominent in Chinese academics’ research articles than in native English speakers’ research articles, and that the study will find that opinions and positions are expressed by Chinese academics in a more implicit and indirect manner.

If the Chinese academics choose to evaluate less, this may also be due to the trend towards ‘scientism’ in modern China. The Chinese government desires to strengthen the country and regain its power in the world, and it believes that science has the power to transform society and is the only valuable source of knowledge (Pakulski, 2009; Hua, 1995). However, the Chinese research establishment also tends to hold the old view of science as being absolute and objective, whereas in Anglophone research communities there is an increasing awareness of “the inherent involvement of language in knowledge construction” (Hu & Wang, 2014) and “the constructive effects discourse has upon social identities, social relations and systems of knowledge and belief” (Fairclough, 1992: 12), as mentioned in 1.1.2. Although scientism originated in the West and has been criticised as a “Euro-American disease” (Needham, 2004: 78) that ignores the human agency in knowledge-making and the extensive engagement with diverse knowledge claims (Baert & Rubio, 2009), it seems that Chinese academia remains committed to this view.

Another thread of research has focused particularly on the social relations within societies across cultures, and has described China as a ‘collective’ society. Hofstede (2010) measured collectivism according to the extent to which people’s self-image is defined in terms of “I” or “we”, and compared the degree of collectivism in China and the United Kingdom. His data indicates that compared to people in British society, people in Chinese society defined themselves in terms of “we”, and take care of each other in exchange for loyalty. For example, the Chinese depend on each other to a large degree; less powerful members in

the Chinese research community are very likely to accept that power is distributed unequally. This is linked to the low level of 'indulgence', meaning that Chinese academics may have the perception that their actions are restrained by the unequal social norms, and therefore may tend to avoid cynicism and pessimism. It could be that for this reason they are less likely to criticise academics who have greater power.

Hofstede's (2010) findings accord with 'face culture' in China, widely referred to in cross-cultural studies. Some researchers argue that the general philosophical belief in the importance of harmony has resulted in the avoidance of face-threatening acts such as public confrontation and criticism of alternative ideas or behaviours. Lustig and Koester (2010: 67) suggest that in China, "saving face and maintaining interpersonal harmony are so highly valued that it would be catastrophic to confront another person directly". Hu and Wang (2014) argue further that such values prevent face-threatening discursive practices and negative speech acts in Chinese research articles, and that Chinese academics are unlikely to contest alternative knowledge claims, or criticize shortcomings in research conducted by other people. This might be in contrast with Anglophone cultural practices, especially in the soft sciences which value an epistemologically critical stance toward established knowledge and encourage building on prior research in adversarial terms; Anglophone research communities seem to have a strong preference for attaining knowledge via reasoned discourse in interpersonal communications (Tweed & Lehman, 2002; Peng & Nisbett, 1999; Bodde, 1991: Hu & Cao, 2011). The norms and practices of both cultures are "constructed bit by bit from nursery school through college" and become second nature (Nisbett, 2003: 74).

Given what has been said about Chinese collectivism and face culture, I hypothesise that in the data of the present study, Chinese academics will tend to avoid negatively evaluating alternative propositions. Rather, the writer-reader relationship will be carefully managed to avoid threats to face.

The epistemological tendency to be less critical in China may also be strengthened by the Chinese political environment. To avoid rebellions against the communist regime, critical thinking is generally discouraged, and people are encouraged to share one political voice. This inevitably undermines attempts to encourage criticality in schools; there is no mention of critical thinking in the school syllabus and little practice in the evaluation of diverse opinions, particularly in the soft subjects (Fairbrother, 2003).

All in all, on the basis of the findings relating to cultural background noted in the prior research, I hypothesise that in my data, Chinese academics will tend to be less evaluative, argumentative, critical, assertive, engaging, explicit and negative than Anglophone academics. If the results of the present study are not in line with this hypothesis, however, or if the results are in line with the hypothesis in some respects but not in others, the ethnolinguistic cultural impact suggested in the prior research will need to be reinterpreted.

1.3 Research purpose

This thesis investigates stance markers and patterns in research articles across Chinese and English cultures, focusing particularly on the soft discipline of applied linguistics. It aims to discover the extent to which Chinese academics living in China differ from native Anglophone academics in addressing the international research community. It also aims to discover the extent to which these differences are caused by ethnolinguistic culture, independent of other factors that may impact on persuasive style. As there have been claims about the kinds of cultures in China that may influence Chinese writing styles in general, this study aims to test hypotheses drawn from these prior studies.

1.4 Research significance

This study seeks to contribute to an understanding of the discourse of research articles written by Anglophone academics as well as Chinese academics, focusing on the construal of evaluative and communicative stance. It will not only search for discursive features but will also consider the social and historical reasons for Chinese and British writing

behaviours. This contribution to the knowledge base of cross-cultural studies in academic writing responds to calls from EAP (English for Academic Purposes) practitioners, and will indicate possible new directions for literacy development in relation to English research writing (Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011; Hood, 2010), particularly to help those who are not only second language writers but also novice researchers. The results reported in this study can not only provide pedagogical input into EAP teaching materials, but also help international journal editors and reviewers to provide research-based suggestions to Chinese submitters if they are strongly influenced by their national culture in their research writings. Chinese scholars are increasingly pressured to publish in international English-medium journals, and my research might help them to become more active in contributing knowledge and building international relationships. It may also help Anglophone writers to understand the purposes behind some discursive features in Chinese academics' research articles, building a bridge for mutual understanding.

From a methodological point of view, the current study contributes to the development of certain stance theories and research methods by testing them on new data. Future studies will be able to draw on the way the prior theories and methods have been adapted to the current context and the way different methods have been combined to obtain conclusive evidence.

1.5 Outline of the study

Following this Introduction, Chapter 2 provides the theoretical background to notions of stance and voice, including the linguistic repertoires and theories that model language in human interaction. It focuses on three models that particularly fit the research purpose of the present study: Appraisal (Martin & White, 2005; Hood 2004), Genre analysis (Martin & Rose 2003; Swales 1990, 2004), and research and real world contexts (Thetela 1997; Hunston 2000; Hood 2004). Chapter 2 also proposes a new framework for research and real world contexts, building on the prior research.

Chapter 3 discusses prior studies that have applied these theories and repertoires to examine stance and voice across registers, disciplines, genres and languages/cultures. It particularly focuses on cross-cultural studies of stance and voice in academic writing. The strengths and weaknesses in the design of these studies are evaluated, and the studies with the most appropriate methods are selected for further discussion. The findings from these studies are also linked to the results I expect to obtain from the current data. Three research questions are proposed at the end of this chapter.

Chapter 4 sets out the methodology to test the hypothesis and to address the research questions given in Chapter 1 and Chapter 3. The strengths and weaknesses of the prior research discussed in Chapter 3 are taken into account when selecting the data appropriate to my research aims. The chapter also explains my analytical methods, based on the theoretical background discussed in Chapter 2.

Chapter 5 takes the first step in the data analysis and addresses the first research question. It explores individual evaluative items within the Appraisal system, including the way explicit attitudes are expressed, how feelings and phenomena are graded and the way they are amplified, or categories are blurred, and how writers address their audience. It presents the common preferences of the Chinese and British authors, as well as the characteristic preferences in each set of texts. The chapter discusses the findings with reference to the prior research, and identifies Appraisal features that should be analysed further.

Chapter 6 takes the second step in the data analysis and addresses the second research question. It shifts focus from the construal of stance at a local level to the voicing of values across contexts, particularly the context of *research world*. It first presents how each type of Appraisal marker is distributed across contexts in the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus. It then shows how certain kinds of evaluative expressions collaborate to characterise a particular voice in each context and how the voices are constructed differently in the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus. It then identifies those evaluative voicing features that need further analysis across moves.

Chapter 7 takes the third step of the data analysis and addresses the third research question. It investigates how Appraisal strategies and voicing strategies discovered in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 co-articulate with one another across the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus and realise their communicative purposes. The analysis unfolds across a sequence of moves in the introduction section (Establishing a Territory, Establishing a Niche, and Presenting the Current Work) and conclusion (Contextualising the Study, Consolidation of Results, Limitations of the Study, and Further Research Suggested). At the end of the chapter, I will discuss all the findings in terms of the findings and claims from prior studies.

Chapter 8 draws final conclusions from the findings presented in the previous chapters. It summarises the contributions this study makes to the understanding of research discourse and cultural influences, as well as the theoretical contributions it makes to the field of Systemic Functional linguistics (SFL), genre analysis and context analysis. It also discusses the implications of the research for EAP practitioners and journal editors. Finally, this chapter briefly discusses research limitations and makes some suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER 2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Prior research has provided a number of linguistic repertories and linguistic theories that model language, particularly with regard to human interaction. This chapter sets off from an overview of the theories that are generally relevant to and broadly define stance and voice, and narrows down to three models, Appraisal (Martin & White, 2005; Hood 2004), Genre analysis (Martin & Rose 2003; Swales 1990, 2004) and research and real world contexts (Thetela 1997; Hunston 2000; Hood 2004) that are especially useful for revealing interactive characteristics in Chinese academics' research articles. In the demonstration of the last model (i.e., research and real world contexts), I also propose a new framework that is built on the prior research and intend to contribute to the theory.

2.1 What are stance and voice

The dialogic, heteroglossic and polyphonic nature of academic language has attracted linguists from various fields who have examined it with a myriad of methods. These primarily relate to metadiscourse theory (Bondi, 2012; Hyland, 1998), systemic functional linguistics (Martin & White, 2005; Hood, 2004), multidimensional analysis (Biber, 1988), discourse analysis (Hyland, 1998), corpus linguistics (Hyland, 2008), the classical rhetoric tradition (Gross and Chesley, 2012) and reader-response (Tardy, 2012). Depending on the methodological treatment, dialogic behavior has been analysed in terms of 'footing' (Goffman, 1981), 'intensity' (Labov, 1984), 'evidentiality' (Chafe & Nichols, 1986), 'affect' (Ochs, 1989), 'point of view' (Simpson, 1993), 'hedging' (Hyland, 1998), 'positioning' (Harré and van Langenhove, 1999), 'evaluation' (Hunston and Thompson, 2000) and 'appraisal' (Martin, 2000; Martin & White, 2005). All of these can be subsumed under the umbrella term *stance* (Biber & Finegan, 1989; Biber, 2006; Jaffe, 2009). The focus in different studies has varied from self-mention to all expressions of personal opinion (Sancho Guinda & Hyland, 2012), and from self-attribution to unattributed expressions of writer's stance (Bondi, 2012).

In order to understand how writers endeavour to present themselves, evaluate others' work and communicate with readers, some researchers have expanded their investigative scope to also consider author identity (Elbow, 1994, 2007), author presence (Jeffery, 2007; Petric´, 2010; Gea-Valor, 2010), authenticity (Stewart, 1972; Jeffery, 2007), style (Elbow, 1994, 2007), and expertise and experience (Matsuda and Tardy, 2007, 2009), as well as stance. These aspects of stance can be subsumed under the umbrella term *voice*. The focus of voice can be shrunk to varieties of the author's voice – the perspective, evaluation, and ideological positioning of his/her contributions in reaction to others' voices. This is labelled as the author's 'personal stamp' (Elbow, 1994), 'signature' (Martin and White, 2005) or 'idiolect' (Coulthard, 2008).

Most researchers agree or imply that stance is an aspect of voice. Taking a reader perspective, voice is to do with the visibility, impression, and identity of the author, while stance is "the writer's rhetorically expressed attitude to the propositions in a text" (Hyland, 2012: 134) which contributes to the impression of the writer in the text (Thompson, 2012). In this study I will proceed in accordance with these general perceptions of stance and voice.

On account of the slippery and abstract notions of voice, many researchers (Tardy, 2012; Matsuda, 2001; Thompson, 2012) have presumed that the reader's impression derives from the particular combination of the ways in which both discursive and non-discursive features are used, rather than from a particular set of specific linguistic features. Because of this they have relied heavily on the reader-approach (collecting readers' impressions of the texts as evidence) to identify in the text covert voice aspects such as expertise and knowledge. Although there is no denying that the reader-approach facilitates the understanding of aspects contributing to a complex impression, I argue that studies of the impression made by texts, in terms of such qualities as breadth of knowledge, clarity and complexity, are incomplete if they do not consider the lexicogrammar. If prior linguistic analyses have not entirely revealed the covert aspects of stance and voice, this is probably because we do not yet know what lexicogrammatical features indicate these aspects, rather than because there are no such features.

Indeed, it is not always an easy task to identify the linguistic realizations of stance and voice in a text, as acknowledged in Hunston's (2004) title – 'Counting the uncountable'. In the literature, different studies by different researchers have provided a myriad of paradigms, each with its own focus and approaches. Table 2.1 synthesises the types of stance and voice feature that have been identified by linguists, in an attempt to look beyond differences in terminology which might obscure similarities in meaning.

Common terms	**Potential realizations**	**Gloss**	**Source**
affect judgement appreciation attitude	honestly, in truth, fortunate, enjoy, happily, unnatural, embarrasses, sadly	positive or negative personal feelings, emotions, evaluations and attitudes	Ochs and Schieffelin, 1989; Biber and Finegan, 1988,1989; Martin & White, 2005; Hunston, 1994
modality evidentiality hedging/boosting status engagement	impossible, without doubt, will, uncertain, assume, perhaps, maybe, might, should	the status of knowledge, level of certainty, doubt, actuality, precision, and limitation	Chafe, 1986; Biber and Finegan, 1988, 1989; Hyland, 1996,1998,1999,2000; Hunston 1993 Martin & White, 2005
author presence reader pronouns	I/me, my, inclusive we/our (writer + reader), exclusive we/our (writer), one, reader/reviewer	personal pronouns, possessive determiners, indefinite pronouns, nominal phrases, visibility of the author/reader	Hyland,1996,1998,1999,2000; Fløttum,2012
shell noun signaling noun general noun anaphoric noun labeling noun	problem, solution, question, hypothesis;	a noun that encapsulates a proposition	Schmidt 2000 Flowerdew 2003 Haliday & Hasan 1976 Francis, 1986 Gray and Biber, 2012; Thompson, 2012
reporting verbs /nouns projecting sources	argue, demonstrate, claim, suggest, believe, state	sources are introduced into the text by the writer and realized in the grammar through mental or verbal processes	Martin & White 2005; Hyland 2005 Chafe, 1986; Biber & Finegan, 1988, 1989
disclaim negation counterclaim adversative conjunctions	not, no, however, but, while	signal a relation between co-texts	Martin & White, 2005 Haliday & Hasan 1976

directives questions metadiscourse	see table X, assume that…, It is … to …, Why? Are there …?	cross-reference, modals of obligation, imperatives, questions	Hyland,1996,1998,1999,2000
intensity graduation	very, really, fully, super, too, rather	enhance and give additional emotional context to the word it modifies	Labov, 1984 Martin & White, 2005
singular human	Swales (2004) suggests that…		Martin & White, 2005; Coffin, 2009
a group of humans	Hyland (2012) and Martin and White (2005) examined ….; 40 percent of Australians believe that…;		Martin & White, 2005; Coffin, 2009
non-human	The City Council holds that…		Martin & White, 2005; Coffin, 2009
Non-integral	Academic writing has been … (Hyland, 2005)	exclude the author's name in the sentence	Swales, 1990
Integral	Swales (2004) suggests that…	includes the author's name in the sentence	Swales, 1990
Insert	Swales (2004:36) suggests that "……"	direct quotations	Martin & White, 2005;
Assimilation	Swales (2004) suggests that …….	paraphrase	Martin & White, 2005;
that-clause	the fact that…; …suggest that…; it is possible that …	complement clause; complement clauses with communication verbs; extraposed complement clauses	Biber *et al.,* 1999
stance adverbials	in fact, obviously…		Gray & Biber 2012
stance noun + prepositional phrase	a fact of, hope for, the importance of		Biber *et al*., 1999

Table 2.1: Linguistic features of Stance and Voice

2.2 Applied Linguistic theories

In this study, analysing any single type of repertory in Table 2.1 alone may not be sufficient to reveal the construction of choices that realise a particular writer-reader relationship. For

example, if Chinese culture requires a more implicit style, as the stereotype suggests, Chinese researchers may not use many positive/negative and engaging markers that explicitly help readers understand the authors' opinions or logic, and may use more intensifiers that implicitly evoke attitudinal orientations. Analysing different types of repertories and how they co-articulate in the construction of voices will allow for such cultural differences, and should lead to more valid conclusions.

For such a study, a systematic model of stance and voice resources is essential. Among the prior theories, it seems that Appraisal theory (Martin & White, 2005) within a broader model of Systemic Functional linguistics (Halliday 1985, 1994, Martin 1992, Halliday and Matthiessen 1999) is the most suitable one, as it synthesises the essential types of stance resources and reflects the social context in which the meanings in the text are functionally construed.

2.2.1 Appraisal within SFL

Systemic Functional linguistics (SFL) was developed by Michael Halliday, and draws on J. R. Firth's notion of 'system' as a point of departure, modelling language as a socio-semiotic system (Halliday and Matthiessen 1999: 602):

> Language has evolved as part of our own evolution. It is not arbitrary; on the contrary, it is the semiotic refraction of our own existence in the physical, biological, social and semiotic modes. It is not autonomous; it is itself part of a more complex semiotic construct – which …… can be modelled in stratal terms such that language as a whole is related by realization to a higher level of context (context of situation and of culture). This contextualization of language, we suggested, was the critical factor which made it possible to relate language to other systems -&- processes, both other semiotic systems and systems of other kinds.

In other words, when sociological aspects of language are accounted for, language is no longer a form of knowing but a form of doing, something that reflects but also constructs contexts of human interaction.

Within SFL theory, the social realities are functionally construed in the content plane of a natural language (Hjelmslev, 1975) through three distinct modes of meaning – ideational, interpersonal and textual. The ideational metafunction is concerned with the construal of

experiences that reflect on the world. It can be realised in forms such as transitivity to construe what's going on (e.g., who's doing what to whom, where, when, why and how). The interpersonal metafunction is concerned with the intersubjectivity of language that enacts interpersonal relations through the negotiation of attitudes, and can be realised in forms such as mood and modality. The textual metafunction is concerned with the organization of ideational and interpersonal meaning whereby information is structured into theme and rheme, new and given.

On the basis of the three functional complementarities, Martin and White (2005: 34) developed an interpersonal system referred to as Appraisal, which intends to "flag the existence of a wide array of resources that are used to negotiate group identity and so co-operate with Appraisal and negotiation in the realization of tenor relations". The 'wide array of resources' of Appraisal takes into account many kinds of stance and voice resources listed in Table 2.1, such as affect, modality, evidentiality, hedging/boosting, engagement, projecting sources and intensity. They are regionalised into three interacting domains in the Appraisal model: Attitude, Graduation and Engagement. Compared to the other models that consider only one or two types of stance and voice resources, the Appraisal model enables the current study to reach conclusions about the holistic stance and voice strategies taken by the Chinese academics and to be conclusive about how language culture influences the writing style. The Appraisal model also focuses on stance and voice functions instead of grammar or any prelist of words, on the basis that the semantic and pragmatic functions of a word vary according to contexts and do not fit perfectly with grammatical features. It seems, therefore, that Appraisal is the most suitable model for the identification of stance and voice features in the current study. The three domains, Attitude, Graduation and Engagement, in the Appraisal model will be introduced.

Attitude is a system of meanings for mapping the expression of feelings. It reflects and emphasizes our 'positive' or 'negative' emotions (Affect), Judgements on human behaviours (Judgement), and assessment of objects or artefacts (Appreciation) (Martin & White, 2005:

42). Academic discourse mostly involves choices of Appreciation whereby researchers react to things (Reaction) using positive words such as *notable* and *interesting*, or negative words such as *difficult* and *plain*. Researchers may also comment on the Composition of things applying positive words like *balanced, symmetrical, logical, clear, precise* and *detailed*, or negative assessment like, *irregular, uneven* and *flawed*. Probably the most common subtype applied in academic discourse is Social valuation. Its positive realisations can be lexical items such as *profound, deep, innovative, original, creative, timely, landmark, exceptional, unique, authentic, valuable, worthwhile, appropriate, helpful* and *effective*. Negative valuation items include *shallow, reductive, insignificant, derivative, conventional, overdue, common*. Academic discourse may also involve uses of Judgement that deal with either positive or negative assessments of human behaviour by reference to a system of social norms. Researchers may use positive words related to social esteem, such as *robust, powerful, sound, experienced, productive, competent, careful, reliable, constant, flexible, accommodating,* and negative ones such as *unpredictable, dated, obscure, slow, unsuccessful, undependable, distracted*. In the area of social sanction, we very often see positive words like *credible, direct, good, ethical, modest*, and negative ones like *inappropriate*.

Within the category of Engagement, language resources for quoting and reporting voices external to those of the author are brought together. The dialogic function of language modelled in Appraisal is built on Bakhtin's (1981) concept of Heteroglossia, by which the speaker/writer presents the current position with recognition of dialogistic alternatives. Martin and White (2005) also put forth a contrastive phenomenon, Monoglossia, to refer to the cases when bare assertions take place. This is presented as "taken-for-granted" and has often been characterized as "intersubjectively neutral, objective or even 'factual'" without recognizing alternative positions (Martin & White, 2005: 99) (e.g. *The banks have been greedy*). In contrast, Heteroglossic options overtly reference other voices by means of projection (e.g. *The chairman of the consumers association has stated that the banks are being greedy*), modality (e.g. *The banks may have been greedy*) or concession (e.g. *There is*

the argument though that the banks have been greedy). These utterances are presented as currently at issue, or up for discussion. Within the dialogic engagement system, White (2003) also further considered the degree to which an utterance makes allowances for dialogically alternative positions and voices. Dialogic Expansion is the term used when greater degrees of dialogic exchange occur, while dialogic Contraction is concerned with closing down the interchange of other views. There are sub-systems under each term.

Under the heading of 'Expansion', Entertain is a semantic domain by which the writer makes assessments of likelihood via modal auxiliaries (e.g., *may, might, could, must*), modal adjuncts (e.g., *perhaps, probably, definitely*), or modal attributes (e.g., *it's possible that…, it's likely that…*), circumstances of the *in my view* type, and certain mental verb/attribute projections (e.g., *I suspect that…, I think, I believe, I'm convinced that, I doubt*). It also includes evidence/appearance-based postulations (e.g., *it seems, it appears, apparently, the research suggests …*) and *I think* when it is used to present uncertainty. Attribution deals with those formulations that "disassociate the proposition from the text's internal authorial voice by attributing it to some external source" (Martin & White, 2005: 111). It is usually achieved by means of communicative process verbs (e.g., *…said…*), mental processes (e.g., *believe, suspect*), nominalizations of these processes (e.g., *belief, assertion*), or adverbial adjuncts (e.g., *according to*).

There are overlaps between Entertain and Attribution especially when it comes to mental process verbs. Martin and White (2005) argue that given a context, however, the two categories are easy to distinguish in that "Entertain values present in the internal voice of the writer as the source (e.g. *I believe, in my view*) while Attribution values present some external voice (e.g. *many Australians believe, in Dawkin's view*)" (Martin & White, 2005; 112). The latter also includes 'hearsay' where no specific source is specified (e.g., *there is an argument that, it is said that, reportedly*).

There are two categories under the Attribution system. Acknowledge refers to those locutions where there are no evaluative comments on a proposition. That is to say, the

authorial voice is in a neutral position. This is mostly conveyed by reporting verbs such as *describe, argue, say, report, state, declare, announce, believe, demand* and *think*. By contrast, a distance position not only reveals the rhetorical effect of detaching the authorial voice from responsibility for what is being reported, but also "marks explicitly the internal authorial voice as separate from the cited, external voice" (Martin & White, 2005: 113), for example by using the word *claim*.

Under the heading of Contraction, there are also two categories, Disclaim and Proclaim. Disclaim is realized by means of direct rejection or not replying, which can be further classified into Deny (negation) using words such as *not* and *no*, and Counter (countering a proposition which would have been expected in its place) using words such as *even though* and *surprisingly*. Proclaim refers to locutions where dialogic alternatives are "confronted, challenged, overwhelmed or otherwise excluded" through authorial interpolation, emphasis or intervention (Martin & White, 2005: 118). To be specific, the sub-category Concur involves formulations which overtly announce the addresser as agreeing with some text's putative addressee, and is conveyed via locutions such as *of course, naturally, not surprisingly, admittedly, certainly* and *I accept that*. Endorsement has to do with the authorial voice which construes the external source as correct, valid, undeniable or maximally warrantable. The realizations include *show, prove, demonstrate, find, point out* and *show that*, which are described in the literature as 'factivity' (Kiparksy & Kiparsky 1979). Pronounce involves authorial emphases or explicit authorial interventions or interpolations such as *the facts of the matter are that…, the truth of the matter is that…, we can only conclude that…, really, indeed*. Justify, the latest sub-category added to the Appraisal theory homepage (White, n.d.), signals that a proposition is justified when reasons are given, and flags the proposition as contentious and requiring justification with words such as *because, since,* and *the reason for*.

The third major sub-system of meaning within the Appraisal system is Graduation, which is concerned with up-scaling and down-scaling. Martin and White (2005) argue that both

Attitude and Engagement are gradable. For example, the Attitudinal meaning *problematic* can be down-scaled as *a bit problematic* or up-scaled as *very problematic*. The Engagement value *it is likely* can be up-scaled as *it is very likely*, or down-scaled as *it is just likely*. Ideational meaning can also be graded to evoke an attitudinal orientation. For example, *studies* can be up-scaled as *many studies* or down-scaled as *few studies*. The distinction between the Graduation of explicit Attitude and Evoked attitudinal meaning by Graduation seems not to be well-differentiated in Martin and White (2005) but is made distinct in Hood (2004) who focusses particularly on academic discourse. Therefore, I draw on Hood's scheme as the theoretical basis for the sub-system of Graduation.

Explicit Attitude, also called Inscribed Attitude, can be graded in terms of its Force or Focus. When Inscribed Attitude is graded in terms of its Force, it can be Intensified by different forms such as Intensification in an intensifier (e.g., *very important*), Intensification through infusion in attitudinal attributes (e.g., *crucial*), Intensification through infusion in an abstraction (e.g., *advantage*), and Intensification through repetition (e.g., *colorful, racy and witty*). Inscribed Attitude can also be Quantified by different forms such as Quantifying through pre-modification of a nominalized quality (e.g., *greater competence*) and Quantifying through an attitudinally infused process (e.g., *alleviated*). It can also be Enhanced using circumstances of manner (e.g., *carefully*). When Inscribed Attitude is graded in terms of its Focus, its prototypicality and precision can be graded, as in *true happiness* or *real stupidity*, for example.

In contrast, non-attitudinal terms can be graded to evoke an implicit attitude. As with Inscribed Graduation, non-attitudinal terms can also be graded in terms of their Force or Focus. When non-attitudinal terms are graded in terms of Force, they can be Intensified (e.g. *reinforce understanding*). Their Amount can be Quantified by different forms such as Quantification through non-specific numeration (e.g., *many studies*), Quantifying as a specific number (e.g., *240 mature undergraduates*), Quantifying through multiple references (e.g., *Leech 1966; Tannen 1982, 1985; Vestergaard & Schroder 1985*), Infusing processes as

amount (e.g., *broadened* the understanding). Their Extent can be Quantified with regards to Time (e.g., *in the early 1980s, more recent studies*) and Space (e.g., *in general, specific*). They can also be Enhanced by different forms such as Enhancement infused in process (e.g., *compared, experimented*), Enhancement as a circumstance (e.g., *together as a whole*) and Enhancement through repetition (e.g., *he excluded…used…weighted*). When the Focus of non-attitudinal terms is graded, these terms can be graded for Authenticity (e.g., *truly communicative*), Specificity (e.g., *particularly*) and Fulfillment. Fulfillment can be realized by different forms such as Infusion in material processes (e.g., *fill the gap*), Nominalisations of infused processes (e.g., *problem-solvers*), Conation in the verbal group (e.g., *attempts to*), Nominalised conation (e.g., *no attempt to*), Phase: reality of the process (e.g., *claims, suggested*), Nominalisations of phase: reality (e.g., *apparently*) and Circumstantially (e.g., *bit by bit*).

Parts of Appraisal theory have been applied in many previous studies that have shown its great applicability in teasing out how academics and student writers select and configure various types of Appraisal device, construing their stance and voice to reflect and create certain contexts across different disciplines or cultures (Hu & Wang 2014). The applications of Appraisal theory will be discussed more fully in Chapter 3.

2.2.2 SFL and ESP Genre analysis

It is widely accepted that apart from individual differences in language use, different types of text represent different social activities, created by specific social groups with specific purposes and ways of interaction (Swales 1990; Mauranen 1993a; Martin 1992; Fairclough 2003; Bhatia 2004). These different types of text are generally referred as genres. The genre being examined in this study is the research article.

When they produce research articles, the ethnolinguistic characteristics of Chinese writers may be constrained by the shared characteristics of the genre. Therefore, ethnolinguistic characteristics should be distinguished from generic features, and ethnolinguistic characteristics should be taken into account in order to understand the construction of this

genre. There are, however, two widely applied but somewhat different approaches to genre analysis, one within Systemic Functional linguistics (SFL) (e.g., Cope & Kalantzis 1993; Christie 1992, 1999, 2002; Martin 1985, 1993, 2002) and one within English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (e.g., Bhatia 1993, 1994; Hyon 1996; Samraj 2002; Swales 1990, 2004).

As introduced in 2.2.1, theorists within SFL attempt to model the relationship between language and social context. Some have also proposed two levels of context, register (context of situation) and genre (context of culture) (Martin 1992b; Eggins 1994). Register is seen from the perspective of language, and thus is the most concrete situation that reflects the metafunctional language variables of ideational, interpersonal and textual in three variables of field, tenor and mode (Eggins 1994; Christie & Martin 1997; Martin 1984, 1985, 1992, 1999). Field refers to "activity sequences that are oriented to some global institutional purpose" (Martin & White 2005: 27) and explains "what is actually taking place" (Martin 1993: 145). Tenor deals with the status and roles of participants (Eggins 1994: 52). Mode is concerned with the channelling of communication and with the texturing of information flow (Martin & White, 2005: 28).

During the 1980s, the functional variations of language were pushed beyond register to the more instantiated level of genre as "a staged, goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture" (Martin 1984: 25). For example, the spoken register can be instantiated into spoken genres such as greetings, service encounters, casual conversations, arguments etc. The relationship between genre, register and language within SFL is presented in Figure 2.1.

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Contrastively, ESP theorists started off by drawing attention to the existence of discourse communities, and agreed that a discourse community is a group of people or a nucleus of members who share certain conventions such as goals, specific specialities, professional judgements and language-using practices, to achieve communication in a defined context (Bizzell 1992; Kuhn 1970; Herzberg 1986). The notion of genre was developed by Swales (1981, 1990, 2004) who delineated the boundaries by proposing four criteria. According to Swales, in general discourse community members share

1. a broadly agreed set of common public goals
2. mechanisms for intercommunication
3. participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback
4. discoursal expectations that have developed and continue to develop

This is to say, genre is "a class of communicative events, the members of which share a set of communicative purposes" (Swales 1990: 58). These shared conventions within the discourse community have helped "to shape the way genre is structured and the choices of content and style it makes available" (Hyland 2002: 115).

The research article in English is described by Bazerman (1984) as a genre that has developed over centuries in terms of length, references, syntactic and lexical features, non-verbal material and organization. Several studies have taken the overall organization of research articles as a point of departure for analysis. For example, Hill *et al* (1982) analysed a psychology RA and proposed a "hourglass" model for the overall organization of a research paper (see Figure 2.2). They suggested that "research papers make the transition from the general field or context of the experiment to the specific experiment by describing an inadequacy in previous research that motivates the present experiment" (1982: 335), and that papers then continue alone along a particularised path, moving from specific findings to wider implications in discussion. West (1980) and Heslot (1982) specifically give a name to the general organization of RAs: the Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion (IMRD) structure which is widely referred to nowadays.

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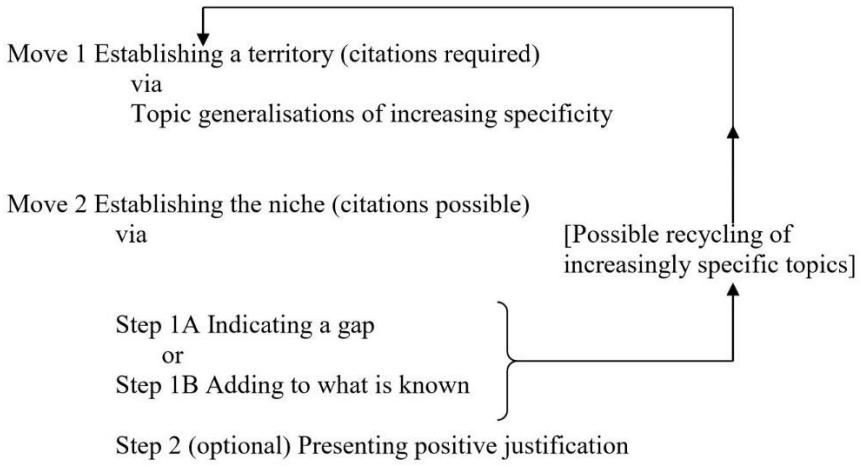
Figure 2.2: Overall organisation of research paper (Hill et al., 1982: 334)

Swales (1990) proposed the Create a Research Space (CARS) model which builds on this prior research and focuses particularly on the textual construction of Introduction sections of RAs, through move analysis. As he explained (1990: 142)

> This model captures a number of characteristics of RA introductions: the need to re-establish in the eyes of the discourse community the significance of the research field itself; the need to situate the actual research in terms of its significance; and the need to show how this niche in the wider ecosystem will be occupied and defended.

Swales (2004) identified three moves (see Figure 2.3). Each move is a segment of text that realises a particular communicative purpose and contributes to the overall communicative purpose of the text. Move 1 establishes a territory through demonstrating a general area of research or a specific topic to be important, critical, interesting, problematic or relevant, via a review of the literature. Move 2 Establishes a 'niche' for the current research by indicating a specific gap in the previous research or adding to what is known, and optionally presenting positive justification. Move 3 announces the present work, optionally presenting research questions or hypotheses, clarifying definitions and summarising methods. In some discourse communities, researchers may also announce principal outcomes, state the value of the present research or outline the structure of the paper.



Move 3 'Presenting the present work' (citations possible) via
- Step 1 (obligatory) Announcing present work descriptively and/or purposively
- Step 2* (optional) Presenting research questions (RQs) or hypotheses
- Step 3* (optional) Definitional clarifications
- Step 4* (optional) Summarising 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

Figure 2.3: CARS model (Swales 2004: 203-232) (*=not only optional but less fixed in their order of occurrence than the others; PISF=Probably in Some Fields, but unlikely in others)

The original CARS model implied that the researcher could only occupy a research space by establishing the centrality of the research topic and/or identifying knowledge gaps relating to the prior research. In a later study, however, Samraj (2002:10) examined Conservation Biology research article introductions in terms of the CARS model, and pointed out that the author's own research was sometimes justified through claims about the state of the environment and environmental problems in the real world, rather than claims about research centrality and research gaps.

In this thesis, I have therefore identified two distinct, although interwoven, types of context for evaluative resources in academic writing: the real world being studied, and the research world that studies the real world. These two types are illustrated via the word 'ignore' in Example 2.1 (where it relates to the real world) and Example 2.2 (where it relates to the research world).

Example 2.1

Some students ignored the photocopies while some others analyzed them either individually or in groups.

Example 2.2

Academic literacies research that ignores the nature of the texts themselves misses an important source of insights into literacy practices, …

Intuitively, the word 'ignore' in Example 2.1 is much less relevant to the writer's rhetorical purposes and construction of stance and voice than the word 'ignore' in Example 2.2. If a text applies a large number of evaluative resources of the type in Example 2.1, an analysis of this text might wrongly conclude that the writer is being Judgemental unless the level of relevance to the writer's rhetorical purposes is taken into account. Therefore, it is not enough simply to count the total number of occurrences of evaluative resources in a text; resources at different levels of relevance to the construction of stance must be counted and analysed separately. These levels of relevance are highly associated with the context (in the research or the real world), so context is an important consideration when examining the way a particular evaluation resource functions in a text.

Although briefly mentioned by Samraj (2002), the contrast between 'real world' and 'research world' evaluation contexts has been examined more extensively in a number of other studies relating to evaluation, such as those of Sinclair (1981), Thetela (1997), Hunston (2000) and Hood (2004). These studies have contributed to our understanding of the way evaluation differs from context to context, and have been widely applied to the analysis of academic texts (see for example, Atai & Falah 2009; Cava 2013; Millán 2012; Shaw 2003; Wu 2008). The studies do not, however, systematically consider the purposes of evaluation within specific moves, in specific genres, and this leads to some inherent problems with the analysis. In the next section (2.3), I will compare and contrast the different types of contexts discussed by Hunston (2000), Thetela (1997) and Hood (2004) in order to identify those aspects of the theory that require further development and clarification. I will also propose an improved theoretical framework that resolves some of the ambiguities of the previous systems, bearing in mind the role context plays within the move structure of the research article.

2.3 Voices in contexts

2.3.1 A comparison of different approaches to the analysis of context

To begin with, we will look at the distinction between the interactive plane and autonomous plane, first introduced as a concept by Sinclair (1981) and then adopted by Hunston (2000).

2.3.1.1 INTERACTIVE PLANE VS. AUTONOMOUS PLANE

In Sinclair's model (1981) all sentences can function simultaneously on both the interactive plane, on which the writer informs the reader about the structure of the text, and the autonomous plane, on which the writer informs the reader about its content. Hunston (2000: 183) pointed out that the key distinction between the two planes lies in what is being evaluated – "a discourse act in the discourse itself (interactive) or something else (autonomous)". Hunston's approach is illustrated in Example 2.3. The interactive plane is in **bold**, and the autonomous plane is <u>underlined</u>.

Example 2.3

> **[1] Right now a new <u>wave of anti-sect paranoia is sweeping the world</u>. [2] All <u>ruling bodies</u>, <u>political parties and the media</u> seem unanimous in <u>their suspicion and hostility towards sects</u> and any <u>group of people labelled a 'sect' are automatically viewed with prejudiced eyes.</u> [3] After the disorder of the Solar Temple, the French Government <u>drew up a list</u> of more than <u>150 groups</u> which they <u>considered to be dangerous</u> and <u>a report on the phenomenon</u>. [4] They are now investigating these groups looking for evidence of 'coercion', exploitation', and 'mental destabilisation'. [5] More <u>alarming</u> is the attention the report pays to the dangers of 'breaking away from the references normally acknowledged by society'. [6] Does that rule out alternative medicine, education, clothing and toothpaste?**

Hunston argued that, on the interactive plane, sentence [1] is an averred assessment which is supported by evidence in sentences [2] and [4]. Sentences [3] and [4] are averred

accounts of events which are evaluated in sentence [5] as 'alarming'. Sentence [5], an averred assessment, is supported by implied evidence in sentence [6]. In this way, an argument is gradually built up. On the autonomous plane, 'anti-sect paranoia' is labelled as 'sweeping' in sentence [1]. 'Ruling bodies, political parties and the media' are labelled negatively as suspicious, hostile and 'prejudiced' in sentence [2], and so on. However, Hunston's criteria for plane identification involve other perspectives such as attribution/averral, and different types of statement (of fact, interpretation, assessment, assumption and recommendation). She suggested that 'attribution' presents the ideas of other people, and attaches different levels of credence to different pieces of information. When a given idea is attributed, the responsibility of the writer decreases and is delegated to the attribute. Hunston also considered the status of the statement, taking into account the variable alignment of 'world', the truth-value of which is evaluated by the writer, and 'statement', assumed for the moment to be true rather than argued. Figure 2.4 is my attempt to summarize the ideas Hunston expresses in her research, showing the ways in which rhetorical choices are made.

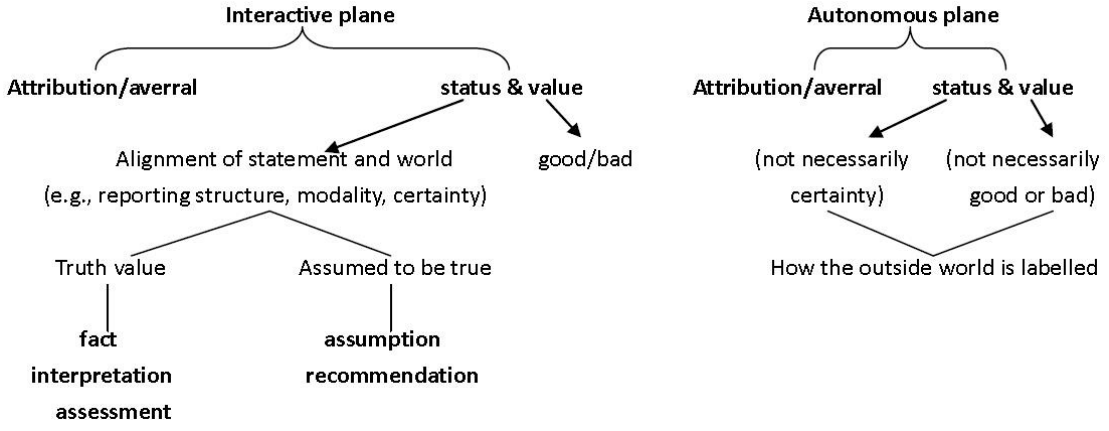


Figure 2.4: Hunston's interactive plane and autonomous plane

Hunston (2000: 198) claimed that the advantage of analyzing text at the level of planes is that it "demonstrates the interaction between the world of the text and the world outside it". However, the additional examination of attribution/averral and the status of statements,

although important for the study of evaluation, mean that it is not always clear what is relevant solely to planes of discourse rather than the other perspectives. It therefore hinders analysis of the ways the autonomous and interactive planes interact.

In Hunston's system of analysis the two planes function in parallel rather than being mutually exclusive. As Hunston (2000: 183) argues, "every sentence in a text operates on each plane simultaneously, although some sentences draw attention to their status on the interactive plane more explicitly than others". She explained further that "if we take sentence [1.1]….. as a claim … which is evaluated in subsequent sentences, we are seeing sentence [1.1] from the point of view of the writer-as-text-constructor", but "if we take sentence [1.1] as a comment on certain things other than this discourse, including other discourses, we are seeing it from the point of view of writer-as-informer". Thus, in her annotation, every sentence is on the interactive plane and all parts marked as autonomous are also marked as interactive, so a considerable amount of the text functions on both planes. There is no denying that the overlap within Hunston's framework serves a purpose; it allows for the fact that one text (or one sentence, or one word) can simultaneously pertain to both the real and the research world. However, Hunston's approach fails to reveal the interesting complementarity between real and research world resources. This complementarity deserves investigation as it can shed light on the ways evaluation is achieved. For example, writers might intentionally focus on the real or the research world context in order to better establish a niche for their own investigations, and it would be easier to compare these two different evaluative roles if it was impossible for any stretch of text to belong in both worlds.

2.3.1.2 Research-Oriented Evaluation (ROE) vs. Topic-Oriented evaluations (TOE)

Thetela (1997) provided a simpler and more straightforward distinction between research and real world contexts, but only considered evaluations and evaluated entities where positive or negative attitudes are made explicit (in other words those that are positively or negatively 'inscribed'). She called evaluations directly related to the research discourse and

its purpose 'research-oriented evaluations' (ROE), and evaluations related to the real world being investigated 'topic-oriented evaluations' (TOE). This notion is illustrated in Example 2.4 extracted from Thetela's paper (1997: 104–105), where ROE is in **bold**, and TOE is underlined.

Example 2.4

(1) Evidence from laboratory studies is, as usual, **much less rich or ambiguous.** (2) **There is evidence** that the middle-aged have difficulty with laboratory problem-solving tasks (Rabbitt, 1974). (3) From the beginning of psychometrics, it was recognized that test scores change sharply during the lifespan, and early standardizations of tests took this into consideration by 'age-weighting' scores of individuals aged 50 and over to estimate equivalents for their young-adult 'IQs'... (4) Recent laboratory studies of complex tasks **tend to confirm, but also strongly qualify**, these signs of very early change. (5) For example Rabbitt, Barneji and Szemanski (1989) gave individuals, aged from 18 to 36 years, 5 h of training on a complicated interactive video game, and found that average performance fell with chronological age even when the effects of variance associated with IQ scores and with previous experience at video games had been partialled out. (6) The **interest** of this result lies not in the demonstration of an 'early age-effect' but rather in the precise nature of the change observed: (7) **there was no evidence** that an age of between 18 and 36 affected the rate at which individuals improved with training, but because older individuals performed less well, during their very first sessions of practice, and learned the game no faster than their juniors, they still lagged behind when training was stopped. (8) **The importance** of this result is that it shows that age may affect the levels of performance that people attain at any point during an unusually prolonged experiment, but without also altering the rate at which they learn a complex skill.

In terms of ROE, entities in this text such as ‘evidence from laboratory studies’, ‘recent laboratory studies of complex tasks’ and ‘this result’ are inscribed with the evaluations ‘much less rich or ambiguous’, ‘tend to confirm but also strongly qualify’ and ‘interest’ respectively. In terms of TOE, entities such as ‘test scores’, ‘tasks’ and ‘interactive video game’ are evaluated as ‘sharply’ ‘complex’ and ‘complicated’ respectively. In some cases, evaluation is inscribed through entity choice, for example in the case of ‘evidence’ and ‘difficulty’, which serve both as a topic-oriented evaluation and as evaluated entities.

ROE and TOE are mutually exclusive, unlike Hunston’s autonomous and interactive planes. They are therefore much more distinct. This is because Thetela took a narrower view of the interactive plane, leaving out what is being investigated and focusing solely on the investigation itself. In Thetela’s analysis, the writer therefore functions only as an observer of the research.

The distinction between Hunston’s annotation and Thetela’s is illustrated in Example 2.5 and Example 2.6, where the same excerpt has been annotated according to the two different systems. In Example 2.5, Hunston identifies Sentence [1] as an averred assessment which is supported by the evidence in sentence [2]. Therefore, both sentences are on the interactive plane although both of them include the real world being investigated. (The interactive plane is in **bold**, the autonomous plane is underlined.)

Example 2.5

[1] Right now a new wave of anti-sect paranoia is sweeping the world. [2] All ruling bodies, political parties and the media seem unanimous in their suspicion and hostility towards sects and any group of people labelled a 'sect' are automatically viewed with prejudiced eyes.

However, according to Thetela’s system, Sentences [1] and [2] should be annotated as follows, with TOE elements underlined. No ROE is found.

Example 2.6

> [1] Right now a new wave of anti-sect paranoia is sweeping the world. [2] All ruling bodies, political parties and the media seem unanimous in their suspicion and hostility towards sects and any group of people labelled a 'sect' are automatically viewed with prejudiced eyes.

Thetela's key criterion for distinguishing between TOE and ROE is the idea that with ROE it is the researcher who performs the evaluation, whereas a positive or negative TOE is something that the researcher simply reports, and is "neither good or bad in itself" (Thetela 1997: 105). Positively or negatively evaluated topics are both equally interesting and worthy of investigation, however.

Broadly speaking, Thetela's ROE is the same concept as Hunston's interactive plane, in that in both cases it marks instances where the writer interacts with the reader. Hunston was interested in the role of evaluation in persuasive discourse generally, however, whereas Thetela was solely concerned with evaluation in research articles, and because of this was able to narrow the scope of her analysis. The writer of a research article engages with the research community, and the research community judges the research process when they read the research article. The writer's purpose is therefore to negotiate the perspective "from which the research should be judged" (Thetela 1997: 105). However, although Thetela differed from Hunston in that she paid greater attention to the research process specifically, she retained Hunston's view of the constructive role played by interactive discourse, in that ROE contributes to a global evaluation.

As well as regarding the writer as a research observer, community communicator and discourse constructor (through his or her use of ROE), Thetela also specified the role of the writer as a real world observer (through his or her use of TOE). TOE entities are evaluated and described in research papers, but they neither constitute the research itself nor contribute to the research purpose. The interrelation between Hunston and Thetela's distinctions are represented in Figure 2.5.

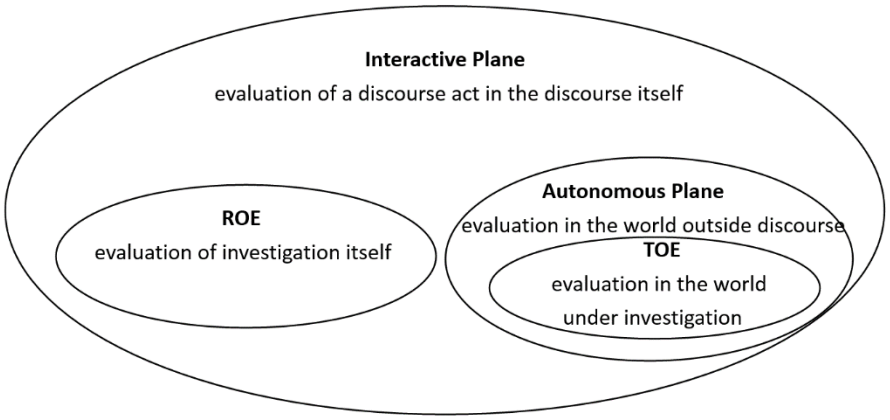


Figure 2.5: Interrelation between the evaluation systems of Hunston and Thetela

Thetela thought of ROE, the research process proper, as consisting of two types, process and product. Her idea of research process related to how the research is done, and how it is reported and interpreted with reference to its usefulness and reliability. She related research product, on the other hand, to the results of the research, generally reported and interpreted with reference to significance and certainty. The evaluation of usefulness and significance, which is called 'worthiness' by Thetela, can be achieved using linguistic items such as 'useful'; 'important', 'remarkable' and 'interest'. The evaluation of certainty and reliability, which is called 'fixedness' by Thetela, can be achieved using linguistic items such as 'possible' and 'obvious'. It is possible to express Thetela's whole system diagrammatically, as in Figure 2.6.

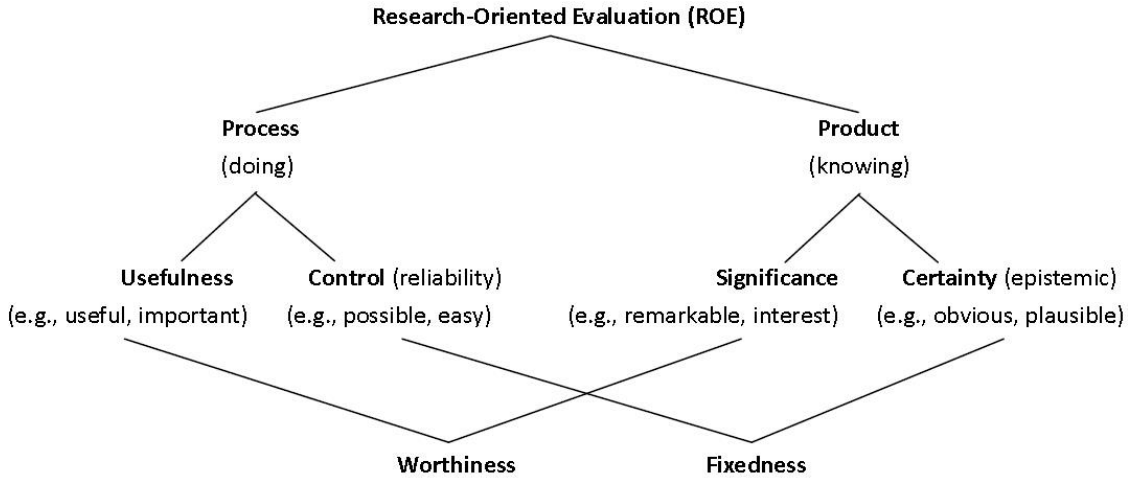


Figure 2.6: Thetela's Research-Oriented Evaluation (ROE)

Although there are clear criteria for breaking ROE down in this way, Diagram 3 is incomplete because the categories of process and product do not cover all possible types of ROE. In a research article, for example, a niche (i.e. a gap) usually needs to be established before reporting and interpreting the research process, in order to justify the need for the research (Swales 1990, 2004). Evaluating this gap is not the same as evaluating methods or findings, however, and therefore the evaluation of the gap does not belong in either the process or product categories. This is where Thetela's system runs into difficulty.

Typically, in experimental research a niche is identified either by evaluating the prior research (or lack of prior research) (ROE) or by evaluating the real world being investigated (TOE). However, although Thetela (1997: 105) claimed that when evaluating the real world (TOE) "both good or bad performances are equally interesting topics worth investigating", when a niche is identified in the real world (for example the fact that vocabulary is often ignored, as in Example 2.7 below), the evaluation has to be negative in order to justify the research. Therefore, good or bad performances in the real world are sometimes not equally interesting topics worth investigating. This problem also arises in other cases, for example when the writer identifies and evaluates the possible impact of the research (as in Example 2.8). That is to say, in practice ROE and TOE overlap rather than being mutually exclusive.

Example 2.7

Unfortunately, vocabulary is often ignored and students are bogged down with a dilemma of guessing words in the EFL teaching context. (Purpose: establishing a research gap)

Example 2.8

Although provisional, our model has implications for pedagogy. First of all, the role of L2 vocabulary listening comprehension achievement is important information for teachers. (Purpose: identifying possible impact)

2.3.1.3 The Field of Research (FR) vs. the Field of Domain (FD)

To refer to the evaluation of activities that are the focus of the writer's study, Thetela used the term Topic Oriented Evaluation (TOE), and Hood (2004) used the term 'Field of Domain' (FD), when Hood's 'Field of Research' (FR) was somewhat different from Thetela's notion of Research Oriented Evaluation (ROE), however. ROE only considers the process and product of the investigation, but FR constructs a more exhaustive set of research activities, including the identification of research issues (an example of this might be 'establishing a research gap') and the interpretation of findings and outcomes (an example of this might be 'identifying possible impact'). Text 3 (extracted from Hood 2004: 105) illustrates her notions of FR, in **bold**, and FD, underlined. Example 2.9 comes from an applied linguistics research article, although Hood also analyzed other types of academic text.

Example 2.9

Harris (1940) in the United States found evidence to suggest that younger students tended to obtain better degree results. **Similar findings have been made in Britain by Malleson (1959), Howell (1962), Barnett and Lewis (1963), McCracken (1969) and Kapur (1972), in Australia by Flecker (1959) and Sanders (1961), in Canada by Fleming (1959), and in New Zealand by Small (1966). However, most of these**

> **studies were based on samples of students who were generally aged between seventeen and twenty-one and the correlation techniques employed meant that the relationship between age and performance really only concerned this narrow age band. As such, the results probably suggest** that bright children admitted early to higher education fare better than those whose entry is delayed while they gain the necessary qualifications. **This view is supported by Harris (1940) who discovered** that the relationship between age and performance disappeared **when he controlled for intelligence. Other studies have shown** that those who gain the necessary qualifications and then delay entry for a year or two are more successful than those who enter directly from school **(Thomas, Beeby and Oram 1939; Derbyshire Education Committee 1966).**

Hood's FR and FD categories, like Thetela's ROE and TOE, can be applied to texts independently of any broader analytical approach. For example, they can be incorporated into Systemic Functional linguistics, but can equally well be used with other methods of discourse analysis. Hood, like Thetela, is concerned with the categorization of entities and their ascribed evaluations, but, like Hunston, this is not her sole concern.

Hood's extension of linguistic boundaries requires more criteria to identify parts of the discourse that Thetela had ignored. For this purpose, Hood identified certain lexical items typical of FR or FD in her sample texts. For example, 'produced', 'found', 'discovered', 'identified', 'achieved', 'findings', 'results', 'evidence', 'answer', etc. were words associated with FR, while 'students', 'performance', 'better', 'worse', etc. were words associated with the FD. Lexis is not always a reliable indicator, however, as lexical meaning can vary according to context. For example, the 'results' of a language exam for students might refer to an FR context or an FD context, depending on whether they were treated as the results of the writer's study or simply as evidence from the real world. Similarly, the FD-associated word 'performance' might refer to prior research performance, in which case it should be categorized as FR.

In order to explain the relationship between clauses constructive of FD and clauses constructive of FR, Hood also proposed a new way of considering projection, drawing both on 'grammatical' projection (Halliday 1994) and 'metaphorical' projection (Christie 1997). In Hood's terms, FD and FR are connected through a range of congruent and non-congruent realizations, where 'sayers' or 'sensers' project 'locutions' or 'ideas' (Halliday 1994). For example, although Hood associated 'suggest', 'discover' and 'show' with FR, she associated the locutions or ideas that sayers or sensers suggested, discovered or showed with FD.

As Hunston (2000) and Thetela (1997) pointed out, the distinction between research and real worlds is made with reference to discourse rather than to grammar, and is thus often open to interpretation. For example, I argue that in Example 2.10 below (where Hood marked FR in **bold** and FD as underlined), although 'social actions and interaction' and 'organizations of the conversations' belong to the real world which is being investigated, the rest of the sentence assesses the methodology of the research itself. According to this interpretation, it should be analyzed as in Example 2.11.

Example 2.10

In this sense, all aspects of social actions and interaction can also be examined by looking at the organizations of the conversations **(Heritage, 1989).**

Example 2.11

In this sense, all aspects of social actions and interaction **can also be examined by looking at** the organizations of the conversations **(Heritage, 1989).**

In some cases, Hood's system encounters another difficulty in that the two categories (FR and FD) are no more mutually exclusive than in Thetela's system. In Example 2.7, for example, the evaluation 'vocabulary is often ignored' constructs simultaneously in both the FD and the FR. This kind of evaluation is of the activity being investigated (which is a feature of FD), but also serves to justify the necessity of the writer's own research (which is a feature of FR).

Hood herself also noticed that some entities can fit in both fields. She argues that entities such as 'conclusion', 'relationship', 'effects', and 'similarities' are observations of phenomena in the FD, but also present aspects of the FR. In the course of coding, Hood chose between FD and FR by identifying the dominant field in the co-text. In Example 2.12, she considered the underlined words to be constructing in the FR, for example, while in Example 2.13, she considered the underlined words to be constructing in the FD.

Example 2.12

Of the many who have looked at the relationship between age and performance at universities, none has as yet produced a definite answer to the question …

Example 2.13

…the results have indicated that the relationship between age and performance is not a linear one

Although in Example 2.12, Hood considered 'the relationship between age and performance at universities' as FR, her decision does not change the fact that this part of the sentence is related to the real world activities being investigated. This method of identification is not entirely in line with Hood's definitions for the two fields, and thus may be difficult to replicate.

The interrelations between the three systems created by Hunston (2000), Thetela (1997) and Hood (2000) are illustrated in Figure 2.7. The conceptual perspective of the interactive plane is larger than that of ROE and FR in that it accounts for the interactive construction evident in every sentence in the text, while ROE and FR only account for the investigation itself, which is only referenced in some parts of the text. FR is larger than ROE in the diagram because FR functions in projecting relations, representing not only every situation that is being evaluated but also all the situations that are not being evaluated, whereas ROE is merely concerned with ascribed evaluations and the entities they evaluate. The autonomous plane and TOE, on the other hand, are presented within the larger category of FD, because FD functions in projecting relations representing not only every situation that is

being evaluated but also the situations that are not being evaluated. The linguistic realizations on the autonomous plane also function on the interactive plane, but this does not necessarily happen the other way round. For this reason, the autonomous plane is placed within the interactive plane in Figure 2.7. As noted previously, there are overlaps between ROE and TOE, and between FR and FD, although Thetela and Hood both claimed that their systems were mutually exclusive. This is the biggest problem with their context categorization systems.

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Figure 2.7: Interrelations between the three distinctions discussed in Hunston (2000), Thetela (1997) and Hood (2000)

The ambiguities of the three systems created by Hunston (2000), Thetela (1997) and Hood (2004) can be summarized as follows: inconsistent conceptual perspectives, non-mutually exclusive categories, and insufficient identification criteria. Building on the prior approaches, these ambiguities will be addressed in the new framework outlined below.

2.3.2 Aspects of the new theoretical framework

In order to build a valid theoretical framework, three issues need to be resolved:

1) the overlap between the two contexts (real world and research world) identified in the prior research needs to be accounted for in some way

2) 'context' needs to be defined with respect to evaluative resources within academic texts

3) criteria need to be set for the identification of each context.

In what follows, these issues are discussed with reference to extracts from research articles in applied linguistics.

2.3.2.1 THE OVERLAP BETWEEN THE TWO CONTEXTS

Probably the easiest way to cope with the overlap between resources is to group them into a third 'hybrid' category. However, the problem of the overlap between Hunston's research world and real world contexts cannot be resolved simply by creating a third 'hybrid' category for elements that belong in both contexts, because such a category would result in the fragmentation of propositions (sentences) that in their entirety construe the interaction context. Hunston (2000: 203) presented her sample text as being entirely on the interactive plane, although large parts could also be judged to function on the autonomous plane. In Example 2.14 (the first two sentences from this text), for example, she identified interactivity in the way Sentence [2] provided evidence for Sentence [1]. However, if we isolate those parts of these sentences which function simultaneously on both planes, and treat them as belonging to a hybrid category, only a few fragments such as 'Right now a new', 'All', 'seem unanimous in' and 'and any' remain on the interactive plane. These are so fragmentary that it is no longer possible to construe any interaction.

In Example 2.14 the interactive plane is in *italics*, the possible hybrid category is in **bold.** No items on the autonomous plane have been identified.

Example 2.14

[1] *Right now a new* **wave of anti-sect paranoia is sweeping the world***.* [2] *All* **ruling bodies, political parties and the media** *seem unanimous in* **their suspicion and hostility towards sects** *and any* **group of people labelled a 'sect' are automatically viewed with prejudiced eyes.**

Unlike Hunston's system, the overlapping resources encountered by Thetela's system and Hood's system can be grouped into a new context. For example, the evaluative items, 'ignore' and 'important', in Example 2.7 and Example 2.8 can be categorized as a hybrid context without causing any new problems. Therefore, three contexts will be considered in the new framework instead of two.

2.3.2.2 DEFINING 'CONTEXT' WITH RESPECT TO EVALUATIVE RESOURCES

My intuition about the existence of real world contexts and research world contexts in investigative discourse is supported by the fact that any investigation must include two components: the question of *how* to investigate (in other words the investigative process), and the question of *what* to investigate (in other words the matter being investigated). Thetela (1997) and Hood (2004) associate the question of *how* to investigate with the research world, and the question of *what* to investigate with the real world. This categorization is sometimes problematic, however, because what to investigate might, in fact, be associated with the real world or the research world, given that it is possible to investigate either real world or theoretical matters. Indeed, it is possible to regard theory in a research article as pertaining to both what is being investigated and the method of investigation. Thus in Example 2.15, taken from an introduction to an applied linguistics research article, the 'academic literacies research' relates to theory, and the claim that it 'ignores something' constructs an argument which will be used to justify the selection of a better method of investigation (thereby evaluating investigative processes).

Example 2.15

> Academic literacies research that ignores the nature of the texts themselves misses an important source of insights into literacy practices.

In the context of the research world, any positive or negative evaluation has to be in line with the argument the writer is constructing, for example in order to align or distance readers, and/or to establish a research gap. That is to say, the writer takes full responsibility

for choosing a particular evaluation. In Example 2.16, taken from an introduction to an applied linguistics research article, 'well-established' (underlined) can be categorized as an evaluation of 'PPP', the research world topic under investigation:

Example 2.16

PPP is well-established in mainstream ELT methodology but has attracted a lot of criticism.

In Example 2.17, Example 2.18 and Example 2.19, also taken from research article introductions, the underlined segments also evaluate research world topics, but in these cases the research world manifests itself in references to prior research (Stone's work in Example 2.17, the current research ('this article') in Example 2.18, and the development of a contrasting train of thought (Example 2.19).

Example 2.17

Stone (2003) found that, over time, ….., which suggested that …….

Example 2.18

This article is a step toward bridging this divide, offering insight into both ….

Example 2.19

However, we wondered whether …..

Unlike references to the research world, which can relate to the matter under investigation or the process of investigation, references to the real world can only concern the matter under investigation, in the manner illustrated in Example 2.20 and Example 2.21. Example 2.20, taken from the results section of a research article, is more straightforward in this respect. The evaluation (in this case manifested through the word 'ignore') does not serve to support the writer's concluding argument that the teacher should take actions to help those students who had a negative attitude towards independent learning. The writer is simply observing a real world situation, and had no influence over what the learners did or

did not do. A negative evaluation does not change the legitimacy of the investigation, or the relationship between writer and reader.

Example 2.20

Some students ignored the photocopies while some others analyzed them either individually or in groups.

Every evaluation is of course subjective, and other members of the research community may still query the writer's claim that 'some students ignored the photocopies'. However, a researcher's evaluation of a real world situation is more likely to be arguable in terms of whether it is true or false, whereas the researcher's choice of evaluation of the investigation itself is more likely to be arguable in terms of whether it is supported by valid reasoning.

Although it seems that the evaluation of real world situations does not help to forward arguments in research articles, there may be exceptions to this. Example 2.21 (from a research article introduction) refers to a real world context in the same way as Example 2.20, but it plays a different role – that of 'establishing a niche' for the current research by identifying a problem that the researcher can help to resolve.

Example 2.21

Unfortunately, vocabulary is often ignored and students are bogged down with a dilemma of guessing words in the EFL teaching context.

A negative evaluation is a typical means of justifying current research; for example Swales' Move 2 in research article introductions, 'Establishing a Niche', indicates limitations to the existing state of knowledge through the use of adversatives and various forms of negation (Swales 1990:154–5). Similarly, if the writer decides to focus on a real world phenomenon as a justification for the current research, this phenomenon is likely to be presented in a negative light, so that the writer's research contribution can be presented as a way of improving the situation. The positivity or negativity of the evaluation matters to the

argument, regardless of whether the evaluated entity belongs in the real or the research world.

Conversely, evaluations in the conclusions to research articles tend to be positive, as they relate to the writer's contribution to the research field and/or the effect of the research on the real world. In the case of Example 2.22, taken from the concluding section of a research article, the current real world situation (with double underlining) is negatively evaluated, but a predicted future real world situation (with single underlining) is evaluated positively.

Example 2.22

> This research uncovers the areas of persistent challenge to EFL learners across different proficiencies, e.g., (correct) use of conjunctions and flexible manipulation of lexical elaboration, which may merit heed of many EFL teachers and they can frame their future teaching and inquiries to help learners overcome these weaknesses.

This kind of positive evaluation of a future outcome is more likely to pertain to the real world than the research world. It relates to impact, defined by the UK Economic and Social Research Council as ''the demonstrable contribution that excellent research makes to society and the economy'.[1]

Real world entities do not need to be tangible. Anything that can be evaluated, and which is not a research procedure, theory or framework, can be regarded as falling into the 'real world' category. Thus abstract concepts such as 'relationships' can be considered as pertaining to the real world, and can be given value in order to create a 'research space' for the writer. Swales' examples of Move 1 ('Establishing a Territory') (1990, 2004) include these kind of abstract real world concepts, especially as a means of claiming centrality (Step 1). In Example 2.23, taken from the introduction to a research article, 'the relationship between ideology, context of culture, context of situation and language' is evaluated

[1] http://www.esrc.ac.uk/research/evaluation-and-impact/what-is-impact/

positively as an 'appealing area' and is a kind of 'topic generalization', Step 2 of Move 1 (Swales 1990: 141).

Example 2.23

> Systemic functional linguistics offers a number of different models of the relationship between ideology, context of culture, context of situation and language, and research on modeling of context continues (Hasan, 2009). Indeed, context of situation as a construct has been criticized by those within and outside SFL for being vague and indeterminate (Bowcher, 2010, p77). Nevertheless, it is an intuitively appealing area of research.

Thus, linguistic resources pertaining to the real world represent situations that happen/exist, have happened/existed, are happening/existing, or can happen/exist in the real world. In Example 2.20 the evaluation of the real world entity (learner behaviour) did not serve to support the writer's argument, but in other examples the writers take responsibility for their evaluations and use them to create a research space (Example 2.21 and Example 2.22) or predict impact (Example 2.23).

Evaluations of the real world can serve the writer's purpose as a means of negotiation with the research community. This is achieved by aligning the writer with the reader or with prior researchers, or by distancing the writer from the reader or the prior research, and by creating a research space, or predicting positive research impact. The work of Thetela and Hood, however, assigns a negotiating function only to the evaluation of entities in the research world, and conversely treats real world evaluations as non-negotiable. Thus, I argue that Thetela and Hood's contextual framework, illustrated in Figure 2.8, should be adjusted to take into account the negotiable aspects of real-world evaluation, as in Figure 2.9.

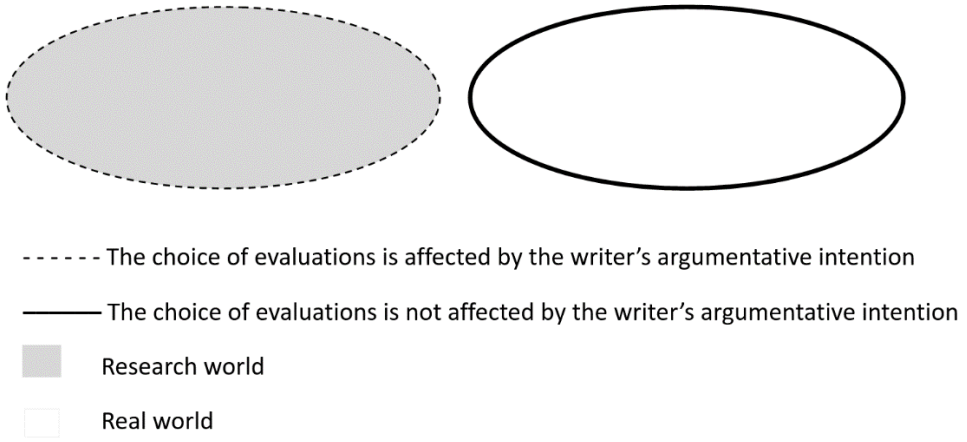

Figure 2.8: Thetela's and Hood's perception about the nature of contexts

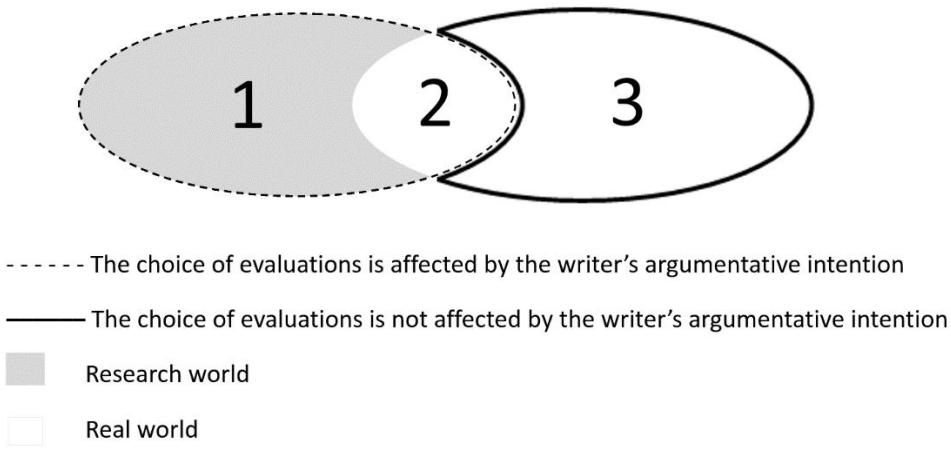

Figure 2.9: The actual nature of contexts

Figure 2.9 identifies not two but three distinct contexts:

1) Context 1 refers to the research world (the investigation process) where the choice of evaluation is affected by the writer's argumentative intention (-real +argumentative intention). (See previous Examples 2.15, 2.16, 2.17, 2.18, 2.19)

2) Context 2 is the new category, referring to real world situations where the choice of evaluation is affected by the writer's argumentative intention. (+real +argumentative intention). (See previous Examples 2.21, 2.23)

3) Context 3 refers to real world situations where the choice of evaluation is not affected by the writer's argumentative intention. (+real -argumentative intention). (See previous Example 2.20)

RA writers switch between the contexts while constructing a text and accordingly play different social roles reflected by their choice of evaluation in different contexts. Writers construct roles for themselves in Context 1 as debaters who negotiate the investigation process with the research community, in Context 2 as advisors who negotiate the real world issues and ways of improving the real world with the research community, and in Context 3 as observers who describe real world situations that they assume to be non-arguable in the view of the research community.

2.3.2.3 CRITERIA NEED TO BE SET FOR THE IDENTIFICATION OF EACH CONTEXT

In Example 2.24, 'according to' and 'essential' are identified as evaluative items, following Martin and White (2005).

Example 2.24

> According to the framework of test method facets (Bachman, 1990), genre is an essential element in the input test takers receive.

The next step is to identify in which world (research or real world) 'according to' and 'essential' function as evaluations. What I have termed the 'research world' is related to the investigative process, whereas what I have termed the 'real world' is related to anything being investigated that has happened/is happening/can happen/can exist in the real world. It is not difficult to distinguish them. In Example 2.24, 'according to' is a reference to the research world and 'essential' is a reference to the real world.

The third step is to identify whether the real world evaluation 'essential' is affected by the writer's argumentative intention (i.e. Context 2). However, intuition alone is not sufficient for identification; there needs to be some systematic way of testing the function in order to avoid individual variations in interpretation. One way of doing this is to replace any positive evaluation with a negative evaluation, or replace any negative evaluation with a positive evaluation, and see what effect this has on the meaning of the text. For example, in Example 2.24, 'genre', as an element in the input test takers receive, is evaluated as 'essential', and if we replace 'essential' with 'useless', a negative evaluation, this will undermine the writer's effort to justify the importance of examining genre. Therefore, 'essential' should be classed as Context 2.

Example 2.25 illustrates how a paragraph is marked up using the criteria given above. References to Context 1 are **in bold**, references to Context 2 are <u>double underlined</u>, and references to Context 3 are <u>single underlined</u>.

Example 2.25

> This study is also **potentially relevant** to the creation of equivalent versions of tests. This application is <u>particularly important</u> in view of the trend of allowing students to choose between two or more tests or tasks in one test administration (e.g., Michigan English Language Assessment Battery (MELAB); di Gennaro, 2009; Plakans, 2009), which has received research attention (e.g., Hamp-Lyons & Kroll, 1996; Hamp-Lyons & Mathias, 1994; Peretz & Shoham, 1990; Polio & Glew, 1996). The present study **found** that <u>different</u> genres elicited <u>different</u> performances from examinees, and their task performances conflicted with their perceptions of task difficulty. These findings **might** have effects on test reliability, validity and fairness. Hence, these findings call for attention from test writers who **might** <u>want</u> to use <u>different</u> text types when designing equivalent summary writing tasks in a test.

Inevitably there will still be some degree of subjectivity in this procedure, because a writer's purpose is always open to interpretation.

2.4 Conclusion

This Chapter has examined various definitions of stance and voice provided in the prior literature. It has also introduced and evaluated existing theories (i.e., Appraisal theory, Genre analysis and research/real world contexts) that are particularly relevant to the analysis of the current topic. A few defects have been identified in prior studies examining the research/real world distinction, and accordingly a more practical model of contexts has been proposed with details of approaches to its application. The utility of the theories discussed in this chapter will be further evaluated in Chapter 3.

CHAPTER 3. LITERATURE REVIEW

Throughout the development of stance and voice theories from the perspective of lexico-grammar (e.g., Biber et al. 1999), meaning (e.g., Hyland, 2005) and social context (e.g., Martin & White, 2005) (as discussed in Chapter 2), there have been studies that have applied these theories and repertories to the examination of stance and voice in academic writing. However, this examination depends on some understanding of the nature of academic discourse, and hence this chapter first discusses the literature in this regard. In the discussion, many prominent factors apart from ethnolinguistic culture that may affect linguistic choices in academic writing are identified, for example in relation to discipline and genre. This discussion will have an impact on the research design of the current study presented in Chapter 4. This chapter then focuses on the literature relating to cultural variations in academic writing in particular, ranging from studies of general academic writing to studies of the genre that will be analysed in the current study, the research article. In my review of the literature relating to ethnolinguistic culture and research articles, I examine studies of RAs written by Chinese and non-Chinese academics in comparison with Anglophones. The kinds of stance and voice features discussed in these studies include moves, reporting verbs, discourse markers, personal pronouns, attitudinal markers, and engagement markers. Throughout the review, the research design and findings from these studies are evaluated for implications for the current thesis. The insufficiency of the prior research is also noted, for example in relation to ethnolinguistic cultural factors such as language proficiency, academic experience, audience size and the kinds of language being compared. This chapter then focuses on the literature that has considered evaluative contexts and generic features in the examination of stance and voice, identifying the need to take these two perspectives into account in the current study. At the end of the chapter I will present my own research questions.

3.1 Academic writing

3.1.1 Academic writing in practice

Due to the dramatically increasing number of non-native English speakers who pursue higher education in English teaching and learning contexts all over the globe, there has been a huge demand for academic learning and teaching materials that support the academic literacy of EFL learners. However, in actual EAP teaching practice, materials for English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) are prevalent as opposed to materials for English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP). EGAP aims to teach language usage and practices common to all EAP situations, whereas ESAP deals with the specific needs of students in particular disciplines (Blue, 1988; Bailey,2014). There are a great many popular academic writing textbooks that treat academic discourse as EGAP, such as Bachman (1986), Jordan (1990), Adamson (1993), Hamp-Lyons and Heasley (2006), Swales and Feak (2012), Sword (2012) and Day (2013). In terms of stance and voice, these textbooks generally suggest, for example, that the style of academic writing should be made more formal than that of other registers by avoiding referring to the writer as 'I' or the reader as 'you', avoiding subjective and personal expressions such as rhetorical questions, and using appropriate negative forms (e.g., *no, little, few*).

In some teaching contexts, these EGAP textbooks may well be chosen for economic reasons; if there are not enough students in any single discipline, or if teachers are not willing or able to put extra effort and time into disciplinary resources (Flowerdew, 2006). They may also be useful in giving a general impression of academic writing to novices who do not immediately need to produce academic texts. However, it is not clear whether the textbooks are based on any rigorous research, nor is it always clear what the authors and editors themselves mean by 'academic writing'. As some researchers (e.g., Bhatia, 2002) have argued, although some of the textbooks are extremely successful commercially, the academic core they claim is often assumed, and advice is given on the basis of the authors' lifelong experience, perspectives and insights, rather than on the basis of investigative findings. Moreover, the

few textbooks that are based on investigative findings may not always be very suitable for classroom use. Although there are aspects of language use that are common to many academic fields, all authentic academic texts have a certain degree of discipline specificity. Therefore, if EGAP courses draw on authentic texts these have to come from a range of academic sources rather than those of specific interest to the learners.

Thus, although EGAP textbooks may seem to offer quick solutions, they may not be pedagogically effective in practice as their overgeneralized advice may not apply in every practical case. For example, first person pronoun use can vary across disciplines. Research has found that in some disciplines and genres the frequency of 'I' can be 30 times higher than in others (Hyland, 2002). This means that suggestions regarding the use of 'I' given in some of the textbooks mentioned above can be misleading, depending on the students' disciplines and writing tasks.

A similar situation is found in the Chinese market, where only a few instructive books concerning research writing are available. Some of these books offer RA writing strategies without considering differences across disciplines (e.g., Song, 2014; Wang & Zhu, 2006; Winkler & McCuen-Metherell, 2008). Song (2014) and Wang and Zhu (2016) in particular do not draw on findings from any kind of linguistic analysis. Moreover, only a limited number of books focus on the sciences, social sciences or humanities, and these are not discipline-specific, but look at disciplinary writing in broad terms, for example, general scientific papers (e.g., Day, 2007) or general humanities and social sciences research writing (e.g., Chapman, 2012). There are very few books which teach students how to write research papers in a particular discipline, and those that do tend to focus more on research methods rather than on research writing strategies (Wen *et al*., 2004, for example, focusses on strategies and methods in applied linguistics research). It is also unclear whether the linguistic suggestions given are in any way research-based. They may not be accurate or adequate to meet the needs of speakers of other languages studying specific disciplines.

3.1.2 Academic writing in a research sense

Some of the research into academic writing is well-known, such as the multidimensional analyses conducted by Douglas Biber. Biber (1988) used the Lancaster-Olso-Bergen Corpus of British English (known as the LOB Corpus) to compare 'academic prose' with another 16 writing genres such as press reportage, official documents, general fiction and personal letters. By this means he was able to establish a set of linguistic features strongly associated with published academic texts. In Biber *et al*. (1999), conversation, fiction, news, and 'academic prose' are analysed from the perspective of stance. The stance markers of personal attitudes and estimates of likelihood, expressed through impersonal stance devices (e.g., modal verbs, stance adverbials, extraposed complement clauses, etc.), were found to be surprisingly prevalent in academic writing, though first person involvement was generally rare. These findings suggest that the impression of academic rhetorical objectivity given in the kind of textbooks discussed in 3.1.1 is broad-brush, and that there is a need for further investigation of stance and voice features in academic discourse.

Biber (1988) and Biber *et al*. (1999) certainly offered a more rigorous investigation of characteristics of academic writing than the textbooks. The term 'academic prose', however, still suggests a very generalised interpretation of writing, which does not take into account variation across genres, disciplines or levels of expertise. The academic prose corpora used by Biber (1988), Biber et al. (1999) consisted solely of published learned and scientific texts.

Essentially, what has been claimed by some researchers as constituting academic writing is actually mostly research writing, with no allowances made for disciplinary differences. In fact, the distributions of linguistic features vary in different genres such as research articles, student essays and undergraduate textbooks, and across the disciplines. I will elaborate this point, mainly from the perspective of stance and voice, in sections 3.1.2.1 and 3.1.2.2.

3.1.2.1 VARIATION ACROSS DISCIPLINES

First of all, there can be a huge difference in stance and voice strategies among the disciplines. The most prominent and widely acknowledged differences are between soft and

hard disciplines. Soft (e.g., Sociology, linguistics, Art and Design) and hard (e.g., mathematics, physics, chemistry) disciplines are terms used to compare academic fields on the basis of perceived methodological rigor (testability and quantifiability), accuracy, objectivity, consensus and the speed of progression of the field (Lemons 1996; Rose 1997; Fanelli 2010; Fanelli & Glänzel 2013). On a continuum from soft to hard, the nature of knowledge toward the 'hard' end of the continuum is considered to be cumulative, atomistic and concerned with universals, quantities, and simplification, resulting in discovery/explanation, whereas disciplines toward the 'soft' end of the continuum are considered to be reiterative, holistic, concerned with particulars, qualities, complications; resulting in understanding/ interpretation (Becher 1994, Becher and Trowler 2001). Accordingly, in the hard sciences the facts tend to speak for themselves, and researchers can often rely on numbers or formulae to support their arguments. Writers in soft disciplines cannot report with the same confidence in shared assumptions and have to work harder to establish personal credibility through claim-making negotiations, spelling things out, sharing sympathetic understandings, and promoting tolerance in readers (Hyland 2000). This is partially the reason why writing articles in English in the soft disciplines, including applied linguistics, is particularly hard for second language academics.

Biglan (1973) further distinguished between pure disciplines (that are more theoretical) and applied disciplines (that are more practical). In applied disciplines, more real world situations are involved, and thus in applied research articles there might be more evaluative markers irrelevant to argument, or more evaluative markers of real world entities that serve the argument. This difference between pure and applied disciplines also means that the differentiation of stance and voice markers between the research and real world is critical, particularly in applied disciplines. As the current thesis examines the discipline of applied linguistics, it is necessary to take into account the contexts of research and real worlds. This point will be developed further in the review of studies regarding evaluative contexts (see 3.3.).

The characteristic argumentative nature of hard and soft disciplines discussed above has been discussed in a range of studies that examine stance and voice realizations such as hedges/boosters, self-mention, rhetorical questions and reporting verbs. Hyland (2005) analysed metadiscourse in a corpus of 240 research articles (30 from each of eight disciplines in the sciences, engineering, social sciences, and humanities), enhanced by data from interviews with academics in the same disciplines. Hyland found that research articles in the 'soft' disciplines such as philosophy, marketing, sociology and applied linguistics applied some 75% more interactional markers than those in 'hard' disciplines such as engineering and science. These markers include hedges and boosters that convey more explicit recognition of alternative voices, self mentions that claim authority by expressing their convictions, emphasising authors' contribution, or seeking recognition for their work, reader pronouns that appeal to scholarly solidarity and emphasise mutual, discipline-identifying understandings between writer and reader, and questions that invite readers to think and lead them towards the arguments that follow. These more discursive features indicate that 'soft' disciplines prefer explicitly involved and personal positions (Hyland & Bondi, 2006), while 'hard' disciplines often downplay their personal role to suggest that results would be the same whoever conducted the research (Hyland & Bondi, 2006).

Hood (2011) analysed projecting sources such as mental or verbal processes, nominalized processes, bracketing and naming practices in research articles from a number of disciplines, and found that the voices of scientists were the least visible. Although sources were agentive in the clause structure of science articles, they were semiotic rather than human. The voices of cultural studies researchers in the humanities, on the other hand, were made highly visible through the projection of researcher voices, specific human sources that were elaborated or made integral to the flow of discourse. Social scientists were in the middle ground. Hood suggests that these differences can be placed on a continuum from weak to strong, according to Maton's view of social relations (2007, 2009). Science is at the weak end where social relations de-emphasize attitudes and dispositions, while humanities is at the strong end where the attitudes and dispositions of knowers are

emphasised. Hood's results are in line with earlier studies by Biber (1988), MacDonald (1992) and North (2005) which found that 'soft' disciplines exhibit more concrete participants, particularly in subject position, and more interpersonal orienting themes.

There is a line of research that examines citation across disciplines. For example, Nesi (2014) examined the British Academic Written English corpus (BAWE) which consists of student writing. She found that Social Science students cited the most. Nesi also found more frequent use of discourse verbs in the Social Sciences, more frequent use of research verbs in the Life Sciences, and only research verbs in the Physical Sciences. She argued that this is due to the experimental focus of Sciences. However, in Nesi's comparison the genre types in different disciplines were not controlled. Similarly, Hu and Wang (2014) examined reporting verbs in a corpus of 42 RAs, with equal numbers from a 'soft' discipline, applied linguistics, and a 'hard' discipline, general medicine. They found that applied linguists adopted more *distance reporting verbs, insertion, insertion + assimilation,* and *integral* citations but fewer *assimilation* and *non-integral* citations than the medical academics did. Citation in the applied linguistics RAs was also found to involve more non-factive, mental/textual reporting verbs (as in Hyland, 2002), including *argue, claim, explain, note, point out, propose, state, suggest, think, hold, and discuss,* while research and factive verbs were used in general medicine. Again, Hu and Wang suggest that this difference is a result of greater concern with subjectivity in applied linguistics RAs, and greater concern with factual information in medical RAs.

These studies have provided evidence of different stance and voice strategies across disciplines. However, some of them could have been more rigorous in their methods. For example, although both Hyland (2005) and Hood (2011) selected research articles as their data so that the variable of genre was controlled when comparing the disciplines, neither researcher used statistical evidence to support their conclusions. Moreover, Hood's research did not include key information about her corpus, including the number and length of the texts, and the proportion in each subcategory. Also, as Sheldon (2013: 57) has argued, in Hyland's study hedges, boosters, epistemic modalities and authorial presence are looked

at in an isolated way, and "have tended to draw attention to linguistic devices without systematically mapping the discourse semantics of the texts". To consider context at a discourse level, Sheldon recommends the use of Appraisal theory, and particularly the subsystem of engagement that "systematically accommodates linguistic accounts of different possibilities of stance".

Nevertheless, all these studies have shown that stance and voice strategies are typically influenced by disciplinary culture, indicating that any cross-cultural study of academic writing needs to control for this variable. For example, if RAs written by Chinese writers from hard disciplines were compared with RAs written by British writers from soft disciplines, the Chinese writers might be found to use fewer hedges and boosters, self-mentions and mental/textual reporting verbs, which would fit the hypothesis that Chinese academics are less evaluative and engaging. It would, however be wrong to attribute this to cultural influence without taking into account the fact that hard disciplines are less evaluative than soft disciplines. It is for this reason that this study has selected just one discipline for its analysis of stance and voice.

3.1.2.2 VARIATION ACROSS GENRES

There can also be big differences in the use of stance and voice markers across genres. Although many EAP practitioners refer to Swales' genre analysis (1990, 2004) when teaching EAP to university students, some researchers have noted the purposes of university student writing and professional research writing are considerably different. As discussed in 2.2.2, researchers generally have a persuasive purpose (Swales 1990, 2004). In contrast, students, as Nesi (2014) suggests, may be less prone to refute an original theory or argument, identify a niche in the literature, or convince the reader of the importance of their claims. Instead, their priority is to demonstrate their understanding of new knowledge and the development of their critical and research skills. Nesi (2014: 20) found a preference for textual verbs (e.g., *state* and *write*) instead of 'mental' verbs (e.g., *think* and *believe)* or 'research' verbs (e.g., *find* and *demonstrate*) in integral citations, indicating that "student writers are keen to

demonstrate knowledge of the claims made by their courses". Hood (2004) also found similar evidence in her research but with no statistical test. Using Appraisal theory, she compared four introductory sections from published applied linguistics research articles (varying in length from approximately 650 to 1200 words) and six introductory sections from Hong Kong undergraduate student applied linguistics dissertations (varying in length from approximately 450 to 1700 words). The stance strategies were much less consistent in student texts than in published texts, as student writers at times missed important opportunities to signal alignment to the putative readers. At the same time, when taking a stance, student writers were more inclined to argue on emotional and ethical grounds (i.e., using more Reaction markers) whereas the research writers preferred to encode explicit attitude as valuation, in a more impersonal manner (i.e., using more Appreciation markers).

The less persuasive nature of student writing as compared to published academic writing is revealed in a comparison of results from the BAWE corpus (Nesi and Gardner 2012) and the LOB corpus (Biber 1988). Both studies ran the same multidimensional analysis with reference to the dimensions identified by Biber (1988). Dimension 4 – Persuasive - is the one most relevant to stance and voice, and is characterised by infinitives, suasive verbs (e.g., *agree, ask, insist*), conditional subordination, split auxiliaries, and modals expressing prediction, necessity and possibility. The published academic texts in the LOB corpus had a neutral score on Dimension 4, whereas the student texts in the BAWE corpus had a negative score, becoming more negative as they progressed through the levels of study (first and second year students -1.4; third year students -1.5; masters students -2.0). This suggests that students who move on to produce research articles for publication will have to acquire more persuasive writing strategies.

Nesi and Gardner (2012) also ran a multidimensional analysis across their 13 genre families of university student writing using Biber's 1988 dimensions, and found considerable differences across genres. At the same time, there were variations across disciplines within each of these genres.

It can be argued that genres and disciplines are related in three ways (Bhatia, 2002; see Figure 3.1): some genres and systems of genres are typically associated with certain disciplines, and some genres typically overlap a range of disciplines; there are cases where on the surface there appear to be striking similarities in terms of textual features, but in fact there is very little overlap in terms of functional domains, disciplinary uses, and pedagogic values.

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Coventry University.

Figure 3.1: Relations between genres and disciplines (Bhatia, 2002)

Genres and disciplines are two different perspectives on language learning, teaching, and research. However, a great many of the studies of stance and voice across language/cultures have not taken the nature of academic discourse into consideration, leading to some misinterpretation of findings. Their methodological defects will be in explained in the discussion in 3.2.

3.2 Studies of stance and voice across language/cultures

3.2.1 Variations in student writing across languages/cultures

A large number of cross-linguistic studies have suggested that there is considerable interference from native language culture when non-native English speakers write in English (Connor, 1996; Fox, 1994; Kaplan, 1966; Leki, 1995; Hyland, 2013). It is relatively easy to identify differences in rhetorical strategies, including stance and voice, across cultures, although it is probably impossible to prove the actual cause of these differences.

The most well-known research into cross-cultural variation is probably Kaplan's (1966) study of contrastive rhetoric, which argued that thought patterns are not universal but have evolved out of culture, and that each language has its own unique rhetorical conventions. Kaplan analyzed over 600 student compositions to study the ways in which native rhetorical structures may influence efforts in second language writing. The results indicated that, in English, it is considered desirable to separate one's thoughts clearly by means of paragraphing. To be specific, a paragraph is understood to describe only one topic or one aspect of a topic, and "coherence is the quality attributed to the presentation of material in a sequence which is intelligible to its reader" (1966: 4) (see Figure 3.2). Kaplan claimed that oriental writers take an indirect approach which develops paragraphs by "turning and turning a widening gyre" around a subject but never looking at it directly. In this case the discourse is developed in terms of what things are not, rather than what they are. Semitic languages, according to Kaplan (1966), are generally organized as a series of parallelisms, whereas Romance and Russian writing styles are typically digressive.

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Figure 3.2: Cultural thought patterns in inter-culture education (Kaplan, 1966: 21)

However, Kaplan's research has been criticized a great deal, for example by Mohan and Lo (1985), Scollon (1997), Kachru (2000), and Kaplan himself (1996). The biggest problem is that neither of the two most important perspectives, genre and discipline as discussed in 3.1.2, are taken into account in Kaplan (1966). Each of the native rhetorical structures is simply drawn from the analysis of foreign students' compositions. As a result, factors such as generic characteristics and disciplinary characteristics are likely to be misinterpreted as purely sociocultural factors. Conner (2011) also argued that Kaplan's contrastive rhetoric was ethnocentric because he used a straight line to represent the structure of paragraphs written according to the Anglo-American tradition. In fact Anglo-American paragraph writing might sometimes be a closer fit to Kaplan's oriental model, as for example in Swales' CARS model (1990, 2004) in which steps recur until the purpose of the move is realised. Moreover, the English language proficiency level of the students in Kaplan's data was not checked, and in any case they may not have been good writers in their first language.

The concept of contrastive rhetoric has since been broadened to include smaller cultures (e.g., disciplinary, classroom), and also embraces different approaches such as error analysis, textual analysis, genre analysis, corpus analysis and ethnographic analysis (Connor, 2002; Connor, 2003). A large number of studies since Kaplan (1966) have looked at learner corpora. For example, in Chuang and Nesi's experiment (2006), the use of articles was found to be the most salient problem in Chinese pre-sessional students' academic writing, including missing definite articles, redundant definite articles and missing 'a'/'an'. These findings confirmed a number of previous studies (Milton 2001 and Papp 2004: 13). The second prominent problem identified by Chuang and Nesi concerned the use of prepositions. One widely accepted reason for difficulty with article and preposition use is that the article and preposition systems in English are extremely complex, whereas some other languages such as Chinese do not have any article system at all and have far fewer prepositions. Chinese students' mistakes may be due to L1 interference, or they may simply be due to the complexity, or uniqueness, of the systems that they are trying to master.

Petch-Tyson (1998) examined writer-reader visibility (e.g., first/second person pronouns) in

the International Corpus of Learner English (ICLE). She took ICLE data from four different language and cultural backgrounds, French, Dutch, Swedish and Finnish, and compared this to a reference corpus of writings by American students. She found that learner writers code themselves in the discourse more explicitly than native-speaker students, with more interpersonal involvement. Petch-Tyson suggests that this is culturally induced and due to differences in persuasive strategies. In terms of differences between western and far eastern languages/cultures, McCrostie (2006) examined author presence in 333 argument essays written by Japanese students studying English. This corpus was compared with the results from Petch-Tyson's (1998) study, and, like the European students, Japanese students were also found to have a more visible writer-reader relationship compared to the American students. In particular, the expression '*I think*' was often used in the writing by Japanese English learners as a means of prefacing the author's opinion. In contrast, American students preferred to use 'I + past tense verb' to recount personal experience and provide support for the essay's argument. This difference may not really be the effect of culture, however, as many preferences among second language learners are probably due to inadequate English language resources and understandings of essay conventions expected.

There have also been studies of Chinese students' rhetorical patterns (e.g., Matalene 1985; Fagan & Chang, 1987; Cai 1993; Wong 1992), and many of them have suggested that the patterns in Chinese learners' writing might be influenced by the organizational patterns of the Chinese four-part model or the eight-legged essay model. The eight-legged essay was the organizational pattern prescribed by the old imperial exams, and seems to reflect imperial concerns to recruit academically-minded people to local official posts, rather than politicians. It was formulated around a rigid and artificial structure including *'pot'* 破题 (opening), *'chengti*' 承题 (amplification), *'qijiang*' 起讲 (preliminary exposition), *'qigu*' 起股 (first argument), *'xugu*' 续股 (second argument), '*zhonggu*' 中股 (third argument), '*hougu*' 后股 (final argument), and '*dajie*' 大结 (conclusion) (Cai 1993: 6). Such a task was

believed by the imperial palace to be a good way to test knowledge of Chinese Classical literature and the ability to use classical allusions and idioms. However, the restricted pattern and topics were increasingly criticised as artificial and a hindrance to writers' creativity. The eight-legged essay model is no longer used in writing examinations and communicative occasions in modern China, and it is therefore unlikely that contemporary Chinese students are influenced by this pattern. In fact, the prior research does not provide experimental evidence of any eight-legged essay features in Chinese EFL students' compositions.

The Chinese four-part model, on the other hand, originated as a poetry genre after many ancient poets proposed that good Chinese poetry should include four moves. It has four sections: *qi* 啓 (preparing the reader for the topic), *cheng* 承 (introductions and development of topic), *zhuan* 转 (a turning away from the main topic), and *he* 合 (the summary). Even today, the four-part model is still seen in writing lessons in Chinese schools as a classroom genre[2]., not to train children to write poetry, but to train them to write essays: the intention is to help students organize their ideas. This writing model is similar to the classroom 5-paragraph essay genre used in American schools today which consists of Introduction (a thematic overview of the topic; similar to *qi* 啓), Narration (a review of the background literature to orient the reader to the topic; similar to *cheng* 承), Affirmation (the evidence and arguments; similar to *cheng* 承), Negation (the evidence and arguments against the thesis; similar to *zhuan* 转), and Conclusion (summary of the argument; similar to *he* 合). The American 5-paragraph essay has been criticised as an artificial genre without a communicative purpose; it may distort the purpose of writing by forcing students to fit the content of their essays into 'neat little boxes' (Nunnally, 1991), and "dissuade students from practicing the rhetorical analysis necessary for them to become critical thinkers" (Wesley,

[2] http://www.hhxx.com.cn/xiaoxue/si/yuwen/4574.html

2000: 58). The four-part model may have the same disadvantages for modern Chinese school teaching, and may also be used as a model for writing in English.

Citation behaviours have also been analysed, for example, by Shi (2004) who compared the summaries and opinion writing of 39 first-year undergraduates (native English speakers) from an American university and 48 third-year undergraduates from an Chinese university. Shi found that the Chinese students borrowed more words when summarising, but often failed to credit their sources, preferring to copy them directly and use 'I believe'. Shi suggested that this behaviour was influenced by their first language and the type of writing task set in schools, although how citation behaviour can be influenced by the writers' first language is not explained. Some researchers have suggested that copying among Eastern students is linked to the belief that statements which are obviously true can be treated as common knowledge, no longer belonging exclusively to the original writer/sayer (Pecorari 2001). It is also possible that in Eastern learning culture good students do not challenge but faithfully copy and produce what is correct, as claimed by Cortazzi and Jin (1997) and Ballard (1996). This issue links back to the discussion in Chapter 1 about Confucius philosophy and the role of language as a means of passing on knowledge: –knowledge should be conveyed 'as it is' without further evaluation. In today's Chinese schools, uncritically acknowledging and directly quoting opinions expressed in the ancient literature is still taught as a technique to support one's own point. However, it is usually enough to give the name of the sayer/writer or simply point out that the source is 'ancient people', normally followed by the reporting verb 'say'. Therefore, it may not be true to claim that when a statement is seen as common knowledge by Chinese writers, it no longer thought of as belonging to the original writer/sayer. This uncritical reproduction of source material is not only applied in writing, but also in conversation. Even today, a person who is able to draw on classic literature to make their own points is usually seen as educated. The Chinese habit of quoting directly from their sources, and only for the purpose of supporting their own arguments, may influence the way that they write academic English.

Some metadiscourse markers seem to perform a stance function in texts, and differences in

their use by Chinese and native English-speaking students have been investigated extensively. The findings from these studies should generally be interpreted with caution, however. Leedham and Cai's (2013) research on Chinese undergraduates' academic writing in the BAWE corpus showed that linking adverbials such as *'besides', 'in other words', 'meanwhile', 'what's more', 'on the other hand', 'nevertheless', 'last but not least'* and *'in the long run'* (described as positive linking adverbials) are used more often by Chinese students than by British students, even where no substantial logicality existed. Almost all uses were in sentence-initial position. Leedham and Cai explained these findings as being the result of several factors: culture differences, translation equivalents, the impact of L1 syntax on L2 writing, and the preference for using familiar and safe chunks. Leedham and Cai (2013) noted the model texts used in English language teaching materials in China contained the linguistic features, such as sentence-initial positioning of linking adverbials, that the Chinese contributors to the BAWE corpus typically produced, and that Chinese students were required to memorize connectives separately from the information structure of the texts; this might prevent them from learning their appropriate use in context. Field and Yip (1992) also found overuse of cohesive ties such as '*on the other hand', 'moreover',* and *'furthermore',* and misuse of '*besides'* among Hong Kong secondary/high school students compared with Australian students. Lee and Chen's (2009) corpus-based study of Chinese English majors found misuse of '*besides',* and overuse of '*make', 'can',* and *'according to'* in Chinese students' dissertations compared to native English students. Bolton, Nelson and Hung (2002) also examined the differences in the use of connectors between Hong Kong university students and British students. Their corpus-based research found that Hong Kong students use more items such as '*so', 'and', 'also', 'thus'* and *'but'* while British students use more items such as '*so', 'therefore', 'thus',* and *'furthermore'.* In this research, the metadiscourse markers *'nevertheless', 'but'* and *'according to'* are relevant to stance and voice, as is the modal verb *'can'* Both *'nevertheless'* and *'but'* signal counterclaims, which are probably one of the easiest ways to develop an argument. '*Can*' is classified as 'Entertain' in Appraisal theory, and is used to signal the certainty of a claim and provide space for alternative claims. '*Can*' is generally the first of the English modal verbs to be

taught in Chinese schools, and is probably also the most widely used modal verb in Chinese students' English compositions in school. This might explain why '*can*' was commonly used in the research data discussed above. '*According to*', (overused by Chinese writers in Lee and Chen's data) is treated as a realisation of Acknowledge in Appraisal theory. Thus, as discussed previously, the overuse of '*according to*' might be another feature that conforms to the Chinese philosophical idea of conveying knowledge. It should be noted, however, that the way English is taught in China also inevitably has some impact on the writing of Chinese learners of English.

There are also studies that compare Chinese writing in Chinese and Chinese writing in English. For example, Liu and Thompson (2009) conducted a case study comparing argumentative essays written by a Chinese student in English and Chinese, using Appraisal theory. They found that the Chinese essay contained fewer Affect items, and more Appreciation than Judgement, and hypothesised that this was due to the student's relatively high level of Chinese language proficiency and the difference between Western and traditional Chinese writing rhetoric. However, this study suffers a methodological problem shared by much of the research that compares Chinese texts with English texts. The problem lies in the way words are counted in the Chinese language. For example, Liu and Thompson asked the participant to write a 500 word English composition, and a Chinese composition on the same topic with the same number of characters. Apparently, Liu and Thompson perceived every Chinese character as a word. However, the marked-up Appraisal items are based on meaning bundles, and hence may comprise more than one character. Because of this inconsistency in the method of counting words, the percentage of Appraisal markers in the Chinese text might have been too low. Thus, the frequency of Affect items in the Chinese text may actually have been higher than in the English text rather than lower, and the frequency of Appreciation even higher than the high frequency calculated by Liu and Thompson. Thus, we can only be sure that in Liu and Thompson's data, the Chinese participant had a strong preference for Appreciation markers. This is unlikely to be due to a lack of preference for Appreciation in Western rhetoric traditions, as Liu and Thompson

suggested, because there does not seem to be any ethnolinguistic reason why Chinese writers should use more Appreciation than Westerners. Moreover, Liu and Thompson's claim is not in line with Confucius' ideas of writing, because Appreciation is a form of evaluation, and evaluation was in general discouraged by Confucius. The greater use of Appreciation in this participant's writing in Chinese might suggest that the writer was more proficient in Chinese writing. However, Liu and Thompson's study is an individual case study, and hence is hard to make any generalization.

Because the variation across genres, disciplines, language proficiency levels, and lexical systems has been neglected in the studies discussed above, it is not clear if their results regarding differences in stance and voice are really due to cultural differences. The findings may or may not be applicable to this thesis. Problems with research design and the interpretation of results reflect methodological issues in intercultural studies, which have not yet been entirely addressed.

3.2.2 Variations in research articles across languages/cultures

A number of relatively rigorous studies relating to cultural perspectives in academic writing have investigated the discourse of research articles, as with this sort of data it is possible to control for the variables of genre and discipline, and to some extent language proficiency.

3.2.2.1 RAs written by Non-Chinese academics in comparison with Anglophone RAs

Many studies of research articles have focused on academic culture, and have examined rhetorical and evaluative variation in research articles across languages, particularly European languages (e.g., Danish, Finnish, Norwegian, French, German, Russian, Spanish, Italian, Bulgarian). Considering English as the Lingua Franca in academia, most of the studies have taken British English or American English as a reference for their analysis of a particular culture.

First person pronouns are the most researched aspect of stance and voice in this type of study, probably because personal pronouns are easy to identify using corpus methods. For

example, Shaw (2003) examined three sets of published economics articles from the same journals: ten articles by Danes in Danish, ten by the same set of Danes in English, and ten Anglo articles in English. He found that the Anglophone writers used significantly more first-person pronouns to ascribe interpersonal status compared to Danes writing in Danish, and that these first person pronouns were normally associated with the active voice (e.g., *in section 6 we analyse X*). Vassileva (2000) compared linguistics articles in European continental languages (e.g., French, German, Russian and Bulgarian) with English, and found about three times more occurrence of *I/we* in English articles. Sanderson (2008) also revealed in her study that British and US-Americans were more likely than German scholars to refer to themselves and address the imagined readers. Molino (2010) compared 30 single-authored Italian RAs and 30 single-authored English RAs from 10 linguistics journals, and found that English RAs used more personal forms. These prior studies seem to suggest that the preference for personal pronouns is a feature of native English academic culture and also international academic culture regardless of the authors' own backgrounds. If this is a new trend in English academic culture, the change may be due to the expanding readership of English RAs. If so, Chinese academics may also be developing a preference for personal pronouns, due to the expanding number of researchers who contribute RAs to the research community. This is a possibility that I can explore in the research reported in this thesis.

The structure of research articles from different academic cultures has been considered by some researchers. Mauranen (1993a) and Fløttum et al (2006) found that Anglo-Americans usually start their papers with their main points, whereas the Finnish, French and Norwegian writers prefer to reserve them for the end. Mauranen and Fløttum et al interpreted this feature of English scientific style as an indicator that English writers were more explicit. Shaw (2003) found that Danish writers were less inclined to construct a 'gap' move and 'a narrative of research' than Anglo writers. He argues that this may be due to the different type of audience; Danish economics journals are likely to target a local science community, where colleagues know each other well and therefore do not need to construct

profiles for themselves. Shaw also noticed that the readers of the Danish articles included practitioners who were interested in real world rather than research issues, and that this might have contributed to the shaping of the writing style. It seems reasonable to conclude that the type, size and scope of the readership influences the generic features of research articles. This aspect should also be considered in the analysis of national cultural characteristics.

Some researchers have made a more detailed examination of stance and voice, for example in terms of writer-reader engagement. Salager-Meyer et al (2003) and Salager-Mayer and Alcaraz Ariza (2004) compared negative appraisals in medical articles written by French/Spanish and native English writers. They proposed two types of criticism: overt criticism where the writer takes full responsibility for the credibility of the propositional content, and covert criticism where the writer modulates their claims using hedging or removing human agency. The researchers found that French and Spanish writers tended to be more direct, overtly critical and authoritarian than their English-speaking counterparts. Sheldon (2013) also found Spanish writers to be more direct. She analysed the moves and Appraisal features of 18 RAs in Spanish, 18 RAs in English by Spanish-speaking scholars and 18 RAs by English L1 speakers, from the field of applied linguistics. She found that in critical moves, Spanish writers used more Contract (e.g., Deny, Pronounce, Endorsement) to close down dialogic space, while the English L1 counterparts used more Expand resources. Like Shaw (2003), Sheldon attributed the different writing conventions to the smaller size of the Spanish academic community. To Spanish writers, the writing style is probably more likely to be influenced by the size of the research community rather than the influence from the first language. Although Western countries may have slight differences in their ethnolinguistic cultures, their academic culture is one that has gradually developed over the centuries from common cultural roots, intercommunicating through Latin, French, German and finally English. The overt criticism and personal stance used in the RAs of non-British European academics might reasonably be interpreted as the result of the smaller and more specific type of audience.

In the interpretation of these findings, the prior research has often referred to 'direct' as opposed to 'indirect' cultures and languages, and 'explicit' as opposed to 'implicit' cultures and languages. However, there seems to be no consensus about what constitutes explicitness and directness. Taking a different perspective, it can also be said that the prior research has enriched our understanding of explicitness and directness, and reflects the complexity of these aspects in actual texts. In Biber *et al* 's terms (1999: 986-996), explicitness refers to whether or not the stance device provides overt grammatical devices to signal the presence of stance. For example, complement clauses, especially that-clauses (e.g., the fact that…), explicitly express stance through their grammatical structure – 'fact' is the first component with the dedicated function of expressing personal stance, and the 'that-clause' is a proposition framed by that stance. At the opposite extreme, simple (value-laden) word choice involves only a single proposition, without any grammatical structure to signal the presence of stance. In this case, according to Biber *et al.*, the existence of stance can only be inferred from an evaluative adjective, main verb or noun. However, not all lexical items in academic prose are evaluative; most attributive adjectives are descriptive or classificatory rather than evaluative, for example. This means that interpretation depends on the addressee's ability to recognize and understand value-laden words based on context and shared background. Among grammatical stance devices, there is variation in the extent to which they explicitly attribute a stance directly to the speaker/writer. According to Gray and Biber (2012) the most overt expression is first person subject, while modal and semi-modal verbs, expressions which attribute stance evaluations to the addressee or a third person, and complement clauses controlled by communication verbs are less explicit. I display Gray and Biber's categories of grammatical stance devices in Table 3.1.

Explicitness	**Grammatical stance device**	**Example**
explicit	complement clause (especially that-clauses)	the fact that…
	first person subject	we know that; we are not surprised also to find…
	stance adverbials	in fact; obviously…
less explicit	extraposed complement clauses	it is possible that …
	second or third person	…famers worried that…; you

		know that…
	modal (and semi-modal) verbs	might; has to…
	stance noun + prepositional phrase	a fact of; hope for; the importance of
Implicit	complement clauses with communication verbs	…suggest that…
	simple word (value-laden word) choice	One of the *best* indications is …

Table 3.1: Summary of Gray and Biber's explicitness level in grammatical stance devices

Hood (2012) interprets explicitness/directness rather differently. In her examination of the introductions of RAs she adopted inscribed attitude and invoked attitude, two notions from Appraisal theory, to refer to "explicit positive or negative values" (p. 53) and "indirectly encoded [values]" (p.56) respectively. She found that when reporting on the object of study (background, rationale, choice of focus or topic), academics prefer inscribed attitudinal expression, functioning to align readers with the worthiness of the object of study. In contrast, reports on the literature (categories of scholarship and descriptions of specific studies) are much more likely to be construed through resources of graduation, a choice invoking attitude, such as "*many* [+ force: quantity] researchers", "In *attempting* [focus: completion] to", "to uncover *a number of* [force: quantity] *broader* [force: scope] issues". Hood interpreted the choice of graduation resources rather than inscribed attitude as a means by which "experiential meanings are made relative and in the process are given a subjective orientation" (p. 59), and thought that it intentionally avoided a dichotomous positioning of contributions in the literature as either on the side of 'good' or 'bad'. Findings from another two studies (Hood, 2004, 2010) show that when inscribing attitudes in the evaluation of scholarship, academics display a strong preference for Appreciation (the less personal category of Attitude), rather than Affect or Judgement, especially in negative evaluation, while positive evaluation is more likely to be a polarized inscription.

Fløttum (2012), however, interprets explicitness/directness in terms of polyphony. Reported speech and bibliographical references are relatively explicit polyphony, while resources such as negation (*not*), contrast (*while*), and concessive relation (*but*) are implicit polyphony. The negation *not* sometimes "points to an 'opponent' to whom the refuted point of view is

attributed“, whereas the concessive *but* sometimes *“*points to a source whose point of view is accepted” (Fløttum 2012, p. 226). In other cases, such as when *not* follows *while* in a sentence, the refuted point can be attributed before *but*. Fløttum refers to Mauranen’s (1993) research on cultural differences in academic rhetoric, which suggested that Anglo-Americans usually start their papers with main points, in a way considered explicit, whereas Finns prefer to reserve them for the end, in a way considered implicit.

Thus the prior research can be seen to discuss explicitness/directness from a variety of different points of view. It is not surprising that some researchers have come to the conclusion that non-native English writers are more direct (e.g., Sheldon 2013; Salager-Meyer et al 2003) while others have come to the conclusion that native English writers are more direct (e.g., Mauranen 1993a; Fløttum et al 2006). Therefore, when comparing one’s own findings to findings from the prior research, it is crucial to be aware of how each researcher has defined directness and explicitness. In the current study, directness is expected to be reflected in the use of explicit Attitude, Graduation of explicit Attitude, Contract, and personal pronouns.

3.2.2.2 RAs written by Chinese academics in comparison to Anglophone RAs

In addition to studies of differences in academic language and culture across European languages, there has been some investigation of the differences between RAs written by Chinese writers and Anglophone writers. Wu and Zhu (2014) looked at self-mention, in terms of the ‘detached self’ (e.g., it can be argued that), ‘individual self’ (e.g., I, my) and ‘collective self’ (e.g., we, our) in 45 English RAs and 45 Chinese RAs. Detached self was found to be used in both English and Chinese RAs to distance writers from the text and the reader. However, individual self was preferred by the English writers as a means to construct the text, argue and evaluate, whereas collective self was preferred by the Chinese writers when performing the role of researchers. This is quite different from the findings regarding the use of personal pronouns in European compared with Anglophone RAs (see previous discussions of Shaw (2003), Vassileva (2000), Sanderson (2008) and Molino (2010) in 3.2.2.1).

Both individual self and collective self were found to be less prominent in European academics' RAs compared to Anglophone academics' RAs, whereas only individual self was less prominent in Chinese academics' RAs compared to Anglophone academics' RAs. This cannot be explained by the suggestion that the use of personal pronouns is a current trend in English academic writing. Chinese collective culture is probably the influential factor.

Another thread of studies has examined moves in English RAs written by Chinese academics. Taylor and Chen (1991) compared Chinese Physical Science RAs written in English and in Chinese, and found that the texts in Chinese omitted a summary of the literature, and preferred a simple organizational structure. However, Taylor and Chen did not provide more detailed evidence of the structure. Loi (2010), however, has provided convincing evidence that Chinese writers are ethnolinguistically less explicit. He compared 20 RA introductions written in Chinese by Chinese authors and 20 English RA introductions written by Anglo writers, all from the discipline of psychology. He found Chinese writers in general used Move 2 less frequently (i.e., Establishing a niche), particularly Move 2 Step 4 (reviewing the literature/findings of previous research). Like Bloch and Chi (1995), Taylor and Chen (1991) and others, Loi found that the Chinese writers cited less, and did not usually discuss the limitations of particular pieces of prior research; as a result the niche they created was less clear. Loi also found a total absence of Move 2 Step 3 (i.e., counter-claiming) in Chinese introductions, and a preference for Move 2 Step 2 instead (i.e., raising a question). Loi interpreted this as evidence of Chinese writers' avoidance of strong research claims, an indication that Chinese RA introductions are less explicit than English RA introductions. Loi also found that Move 3 Step 4 (i.e., introducing the research hypothesis) was totally absent in the Chinese RAs, and interpreted this to mean that Chinese writers were less explicit, due to the fact that China is a high-context language culture. He pointed out that although the Chinese RAs were different from the English RAs, this had nothing to do with eight-legged writing style as claimed by prior researchers such as Cai (1993) (see discussion of Cai (1993) in 3.2.1).

Hu and Wang (2014) examined differences in citation in RAs written in Chinese by Chinese writers and English RAs written by Anglo writers, all from the field of applied linguistics. They applied some categories of the Appraisal framework that involve reporting verbs, and integrated this simplified system with the concept of integral/non-integral citations. They found that Chinese writers made less use of *acknowledge, contest* (i.e., disagree), *insertion* (i.e., direct quotation), *assimilation* (i.e., paraphrasing), and *non-integral* citations, but greater use of *integral* citations than the English writers. In the discussion of citing behaviours of Chinese students in 3.2.1, I argued, based on the findings of Shi (2004), that under the influence of Confucius ideology Chinese writers may be more likely to use Acknowledge markers and direct quotation. The findings in Hu and Wang (2014) point in the opposite direction, however. It is difficult to tell which tendency is more widespread, especially as Hu and Wang's study (2014) ignored the different lexical systems in Chinese and English. However despite this problem, the results in Hu and Wang (2014) do seem to reflect the Chinese cultural belief that "verbal debate and argumentation are not meaningful tools for understanding truth and reality" (Peng and Nisbett, 1999, p.747) because truth and knowledge are believed to be self-evident (Bodde, 1991). Hu and Wang also believed that Chinese culture emphasizes the maintenance of harmonious interpersonal relationships within the community and the avoidance of face-threatening acts such as public criticism.

Hu and Wang's methodology was also somewhat problematic, as they do not provide adequate justification for their modification of the Engagement system within Appraisal theory. Martin and White's Engagement scheme provides writers with "the means to present themselves as recognising, answering, ignoring, challenging, rejecting, fending off, anticipating or accommodating actual or potential interlocutors and the value positions they represent" (2005: 2). It should not be confused with the *attitude* perspective, which deals with the writers' positive or negative evaluation of entities, happenings and states-of-affairs (Martin & White, 2005). For example, Example 3.1 is a *positive valuation* in terms of *attitude*,

but a *bare assertion* in terms of *engagement, while* Example 3.2 is a *negative valuation* in terms of *attitude* but a *bare assertion* in terms of *engagement*.

Example 3.1

In this regard, an analytic framework developed by Coffin (2009) is a useful starting point.

Example 3.2

One limitation of the Hirsh and Nation study was that the texts used were novels written for teenagers and adolescents.

Both of these two examples were used by Hu and Wang (2014), but they take both Example 3.1 and Example 3.2 to be examples of contest. In fact, dialogic contraction means "closing down the space for dialogic alternatives" (Martin & White, 2005: 103) rather than a monologue with a negative valuation. Thus, their modified scheme is at odds with the basic criteria of dialogic engagement.

So far, the analyses of the ethnolinguistic characteristics of stance and voice markers in RAs by Chinese writers have been relatively lacking in rigour. The methodological issues in these prior studies need to be addressed before the current research is conducted. Some researchers, such as Fløttum (2012), have suggested going back to the fundamental question: what are the cultures that may influence discourse? This is still difficult to answer, but first, we need to accept that texts are produced in contexts influenced by a multitude of factors. So far, a few variables have been widely acknowledged, such as disciplinary culture (Biglan, 1973; Becher, 1981, 1994, 2001), generic culture (Swales, 1990, 2004; Bhatia, 1993; Mauranen, 1993; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Marin & Rose, 2008), L1 educational (classroom) culture (Connor, 2002; Leedham & Cai, 2013), L1 ethnolinguistic culture (Chuang and Nesi, 2006; Milton, 2001; Papp, 2004). Apart from these cultures, writers' academic experience, language proficiency, and the type of audience they target may also influence their

discourse. I argue that to examine one culture, researchers need to control the other variables as far as possible.

It is also necessary to ask another question: what is meant by culture in the current study? In a narrow sense, culture in this study refers to L1 ethnolinguistic culture. In a broad sense, it also includes L1 educational writing culture. Other cultures and factors should be controlled in order to examine the kind of culture I intend to examine.

A third question is: what aspects can really be contrasted? Due to differences in linguistic systems across languages, it is not always straightforward whether a language theory that is developed by analysing one language can also be used effectively in examination of another language. For example, Appraisal theory was developed with reference to English, and how the Chinese language fits the categories is a necessary concern. The calculation of frequencies of each type of stance marker is another concern. It would facilitate matters to address these concerns by looking at texts written in English by L2 writers, rather than texts written in their L1 language.

Research that systematically addresses the above issues will be able to produce results that are more comparable and also more relevant to the study of cultural variation. Thus, I put forth my first research question: How do Chinese academics construct their stance and voice in applied linguistics RAs?

3.3 Studies of stance and voice across evaluative contexts

As mentioned in Chapter 2, counting the total occurrences of stance and voice markers does not show how many of them are closely relevant to arguments. Since this study aims to analyse stance and voice to reveal argumentative strategies, evaluative context is a necessary consideration. Moreover, the prior literature suggests that applied disciplines involve the real world more than theoretical disciplines do (see section 3.1.2.1). Since the current study examines applied linguistics RAs, the distinction between Advisor and Observer voice is crucial.

Many studies of stance and voice in research articles have adopted the theories of contexts put forward by Thetela (1997), Hunston (2000) or Hood (2004). Some researchers have applied these theories for the purpose of filtering out evaluations of the real world, and have focussed on evaluations that are more relevant to arguments in research articles. For example, Atai and Falah (2009) compared the ROE (research-oriented evaluations) in 80 Applied Linguistic Research Articles written in English by native English speakers and native Persian speakers. They found that the native English writers were in general more evaluative than native Persian writers in discussion sections, and that the native English writers and the Persian writers also preferred different evaluative items to realise the same evaluative purpose. For instance, to express the value of usefulness, English writers preferred to use *important* and *evidence* while native Persian speakers prefer to use *reliable* and *substantial.* Similarly, Cava (2013) examined ROE in a corpus of 1035 science abstracts, so as to investigate the collocational behaviour of particular words relevant to research processes such as *analysis/es, data, evidence/s, finding/s, investigation/s, method/s, methodology/ies paper/s, procedure/s, research/es, result/s, study/ies, and theory/ies*. She found some frequent patterns such as *analyses + show /provide /give /propose /allow; rigorous /efficient /comprehensive /detailed /important /novel /new + analysis; stable + accurate; robust + efficient; data + comprehensive /important /invaluable /sufficient /consistent /relevant /systematic /critically + important*.

Wu (2008) compared statement types and their associated linguistic expressions on the interactive plane in high-rated and low-rated tertiary-level English argumentative essays. She found that high-rated writers used certain statement types (e.g., statements of opinion to support the writer's purpose: *This is a classic example of how language evolved and changed to suit the environment and social context of that time*) to reinforce the importance of evidence provided in an argument. Low-rated writers preferred different types of statement (e.g., statements of opinion to specify meaning: *This meant that greater vocabulary was needed to cater to this increase in demand for English words*) that do not explicitly provide evidence for arguments. By focusing on the research world, these studies

managed to focus on evaluative features that are more relevant to argument construction. Considering the evaluative context can also help the current study to focus on Appraisal markers that are more relevant to arguments.

Some other researchers have applied theories of contexts to examine both research world and real world contexts. Millán (2012) compared the distribution of attitudinal markers in ROE and TOE in 72 RAs across three disciplines (applied linguistics, business management and food technology) and across language cultures (English and Spanish). He found more ROE but less TOE in Business Management than in Food Technology, and more ROE but less TOE in Food Technology than in applied linguistics, which suggest that Business management is the most argumentative of the three disciplines. Millán also found that Spanish RAs applied both ROE and TOE more in applied linguistics and Food Technology, but less in Business Management than English RAs, which indicates that Spanish academic culture in Business management is less evaluative than the English academic culture in Business management. Shaw (2003) adopted both Thetela's (1997) notion and Hunston's (2000) notion of contexts to investigate how Danish language culture influences rhetoric, and specifically evaluation, in economics articles written by Danish writers. He compared three sets of published RAs from the same journals: Danish RAs, English RAs written by Danish writers, and English RAs written by international authors. He found some Danish norms in terms of use of the gap move, where he argues that ROE and the autonomous plane are dominant.

The studies presented above indicate that the distribution of argumentative features across evaluative contexts can vary across disciplines, levels of study and culture. Supposedly, the distribution can also vary across genre, academic proficiency and the way English is taught. Therefore, it would be interesting to examine the differences of distribution across evaluative contexts between RAs written by Chinese and Anglophone writers.

Hood (2004) applied her notion of FD and FR to investigate the role of evaluations in different contexts. She found a large number of implicit markers of Attitude (e.g.,

Graduation evoking Attitude) associated with FR and functioning to maximise a small number of explicit markers of Attitude through prosodic extension. On the other hand, she also argued that explicit Attitude is an important evaluative resource for constructing the FD as a contested field of knowledge. Explicit Attitude in FD is generally coded when two entities are compared, or two propositions are compared to illustrate the different possibilities in the real world. Hood argued that sometimes this explicit Attitude is amplified by Graduation to construct a more compelling argument in FD. Hood also argued that FD and FR unfold through projection: Attitude encoded in higher-level Themes is likely to be reiterated in lower-level Themes, and attitude encoded in lower-level New is likely to be consolidated in higher-level New. She claims that this interaction corresponds with the orientation of the text to FD or FR. This suggests that in the current study, the proportions of evaluative contexts in applied linguistics articles is also an interesting aspect to explore, to contribute to the understanding of this discipline.

Although these studies adopted the prior theories of contexts to take into account the distinction between the more argumentative-oriented research world and the less-argumentative-oriented real world contexts, the problems with the prior theories of contexts (see discussions in 2.3.1) are reflected in these studies. For example, Shaw (2003) was interested in distinguishing between the Interactive and autonomous planes, but had to face the problem of overlap between them, and the problem of identification of linguistic features on the interactive plane. He tried to solve these problems by narrowing down the interactive plane to evaluations of propositions, and broadening the autonomous plane to include evaluations of entity, so that the two planes did not overlap. The identification, therefore, is more at the grammatical level than the functional level, and causes disparity in the process of identification. For example, '*a great deal of research*' is considered to be on the autonomous plane, but is clearly not evaluating a real world entity in accordance with Hunston's notion of the autonomous plane. Although some other studies such as Millán (2012) seem not to notice or suggest the problem of overlap, the methodological problems in the theories they applied still affect the validity of their conclusions. Although studies only

concerned with the research world (e.g., Atai & Falah, 2009; Cava, 2013; Wu, 2008) have managed to focus on the evaluative markers that are the most relevant to arguments, they seem not to be aware that evaluations of real world entities can also be relevant to arguments. Thus when they argue that one set of data is more evaluative than another the validity of their claims can be called into question.

This leads to the second research question of the current study: How do Chinese academics voice values across contexts in applied linguistics RAs?

3.4 Studies of generic features in research articles

The evaluative items function not only on a local level within certain evaluative contexts, but also serve the macro construction of arguments. Although a consideration of evaluative contexts enables me to focus on the parts of the discourse most relevant to the development of arguments, the kinds of argumentative purpose certain stance and voice markers serve in the RAs are still not clear. It is necessary to understand how Appraisal markers in the current study serve the purpose of each move in the RAs.

As discussed in 2.2.2, Swales' widely accepted concept of research community (1990, 2004) refers to researchers within an interactive space where research articles promote their ideas, address other community members, and develop writing conventions. Swales first developed move analysis to examine the generic organization of research article introductions; this led to the CARS model that has been widely applied in genre analysis. However, some other researchers have used move analysis to identify moves specific to their own data. For example, Li and Ge (2009) and Nwogu (1997) examined Medical research papers and found that introductions are organized into three moves: presenting background information, reviewing related research and presenting new research, and Samraj (2002) examined moves in Wildlife Behavior and Conservation Biology RAs, with results that seem to suggest that the discussion of prior research takes place not only in Move 1 (establishing the territory), but also in other moves. This action might therefore best

be treated as a freestanding sub-step that can be applied in the realization of any step in the introduction. However, these are minor differences from Swales' CARS model.

Apart from the Introduction section, the Discussion/Conclusion section is also seen as central to the RA, as it normally addresses the research space created in the introduction, and is a similarly difficult section to produce (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Dubois, 1997; Dudley-Evans, 1995; Gosden, 1992; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988). Swales (1990) argues that the Discussion section is not consistent across different journals, making the identification of moves somewhat difficult. The section can be labelled as a discussion, a conclusion or even part of a results section or an implications and applications section. Nevertheless, many researchers have tried to identify the moves in Conclusion sections across different disciplines (see table 3.2).

Field of work	Author	Contextualization	Consolidation/evaluation of Results	Further research
Neuroscience	Belanger 1982		1) Summarizing results 2) What research suggests	3) Further question
Medicine	Nwogu (1997)		1) Highlighting overall research outcome 2) Explaining specific research outcomes *Stating a specific outcome *Interpreting the outcome *Indicating significance of the outcome *Contrasting present and previous outcomes *Indicating limitations of out comes	3) Stating research conclusions *Indicating research implications *Promoting further research
Computer science	Posteguillo (1999)	1)Background information	2) Statement of results 3) (Un)expected outcomes 4) Reference to previous research 5) Explanation 6) Exemplification 7) Deduction of hypothesis	8) Recommendations for further research
Social sciences	Lewin et al. (2001)	1)Report accomplishment	2) Evaluate congruence of findings 3) Offer interpretations	
Biochemistry	Kanoksilapatham (2005)	1) Contextualization of the study *Describing established knowledge *Presenting generalizations, claims, deductions, or research gaps	2) Consolidation/ evaluation of results * Restating methodology (purposes, research questions, hypotheses restated, and procedures) *Stating selected findings *Referring to previous literature *Explaining differences in findings *Making overt claims or generalizations *Exemplifying	3) Limitations of the study 4) Further research suggested

Table 3.2: Similarities between five organizational patterns for Discussion sections (Arabic numeral = a move; *= a step)

Although the five ways of organising the Discussion section involve different numbers of moves and steps with different names, they can all fit into three core moves: Contextualising, Consolidation/Evaluation of Results and Further Research, which are most similar to Kanoksilapatham's moves. Therefore, the four moves in Kanoksilapatham (2005) with regard to conclusion sections and the three moves in Swales' CARS model with regard to introduction sections are applicable to the current study.

Most of the prior research into RA moves has only concentrated on move structure (Brett 1994; Holmes 1997; Lim 2006; Postequillo 1999; Williams 1999). Very few studies have focused on particular linguistic features across moves. The most examined feature is probably the choice of tense. For example, Li and Ge (2009) and Nwogu (1997) found that in medical research discourse, the past tense is mostly associated with moves such as describing the data collection procedure, describing the experimental procedure, and describing the data-analysis procedure, and that the present tense is most associated with moves such as presenting background information and indicating consistent observations. The past, the present, and the present perfect are all associated with explaining specific research outcomes. How stance and voice are generally distributed across moves and serve argumentative purposes has not yet been fully investigated.

It is thus crucial in the current study to understand what kind of purposes the stance and voice strategies serve. This leads to the third question of the current study: What characteristic construction of stance and voice (using Appraisal markers) across moves is applied by Chinese academics in applied linguistics RAs?

3.5 Research questions

The prior research discussed in this chapter suggests that the style of stance and voice construction in academic writing can be shaped by a number of variables, including disciplinary culture (Biglan, 1973; Becher, 1981, 1994, 2001; Hu and Wang 2014; Hyland 2005; Hood 2004, 2011; Nesi 2014), generic culture (Swales, 1990, 2004; Bhatia, 1993; Mauranen, 1993; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Marin & Rose, 2008; Thompson 2012; Guinda 2012),

L1 educational (classroom) culture (Connor, 2002; Leedham & Cai, 2013; Field & Yip 1992; Lee & Chen 2009), writers' academic experience (e.g., Eason, 1995; Kaminura and Oi, 1997), the type of audience (Sheldon, 2013; Shaw, 2003; Wu & Zhu, 2014), L1 ethnolinguistic culture (Shaw 2003; Vassileva 2000; Sanderson 2008; Molino 2010; Mauranen 1993a; Fløttum et al 2006; Salager-Meyer et al 2003; Sheldon 2013), and language proficiency (e.g., Wu 2008).

Some studies have also provided insights into linguistic repertories that have been used in the construal of stance and voice in academic writing, whether from a narrow perspective such as first person pronouns (e.g., Hyland 1996, 1998, 1999, 2000; Fløttum 2012), hedging (e.g., Chafe 1986; Biber and Finegan, 1988, 1989; Hyland, 1996, 1998, 1999, 2000), inscribed attitude (e.g., Ochs and Schieffelin 1989; Biber and Finegan 1988, 1989; Hunston 1994) and moves (e.g., Swales 1990, 2004), or from a more systematic perspective (e.g., Biber et al. 1998; Martin & White 2005).

In the past decade, there also seems to be a clear trend towards methodological reform in this field, shifting from exclusive discourse analysis towards more integrated and rigorous methods using corpus linguistics and statistical tests (e.g., Nesi & Gardner 2012; Shi 2004; Bolton, Nelson & Hung 2002; Leedham & Cai 2013; Li & Ge 2009; Hu and Wang 2014), whether with bigger corpora (e.g., Hyland 2005; Nesi & Gardner 2012; Adel & Garretson 2006; Fløttum et al 2006; Simpson-Vlach & Ellis 2010) or with smaller ones (e.g., Hu and Wang 2014; Hood 2011; Samraj 2002).

However, it can be said that, so far, there has not been enough research into the way stance and voice are construed within the Chinese academic culture, especially in the soft disciplines. The few studies that have examined how Chinese academics in the soft disciplines construct their arguments seem to suffer from a few methodological problems:

1) the variables that may have impact on the style of stance and voice are not controlled (e.g., Kaplan 1966; Matalene 1985; Fagan & Chang, 1987; Cai 1993; Wong 1992; Shi 2004; Bolton, Nelson & Hung 2002)

2) no statistical test is applied (e.g., Taylor & Chen 1991; Cai, 1993; Loi, 2010)

3) no systematic analytical scheme is applied (e.g., Wu & Zhu 2014; Loi 2010; Hu and Wang 2014)

4) Some real world evaluations that do not serve arguments are counted the same as argumentative features (e.g., Shi, 2004)

5) Words- in the RAs written in Chinese are not counted consistently (e.g., Liu and Thompson 2009; Hu and Wang, 2014)

The distribution of stance and voice markers across evaluative contexts and moves has also been neglected in the prior research, although distribution is of crucial importance for the examination of stance and voice.

Therefore, in this study, in response to the issues listed above and the hypothesis given in Chapter 1, I will address the following research questions:

Question 1

How do Chinese academics construct their stance and voice in applied linguistics RAs?

Question 2

How do Chinese academics voice values across contexts in applied linguistics RAs?

Question 3

How do Chinese academics construct stance and voice across moves in applied linguistics RAs?

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

This chapter sets out the methodology of this study to test the hypothesis proposed in Chapter 1 and address the research questions given in Chapter 3. Two methods that are available to linguistic analysis, namely, discourse analysis and corpus methods, are first compared, and their suitability for the current study is discussed. Based on the strengths and weaknesses of the prior research discussed in Chapter 3, this chapter then focuses on the creation of a corpus for the current study, including a rationale for the corpus design and the method of corpus compilation. The rationale discusses issues such as the kinds of text selected, the size of the corpus, and the RA sections to examine. The process of compiling the corpus involved data collection, data cleaning and text conversion. The process of annotation, and of inter-coder reliability testing are then discussed. Finally, the steps towards addressing each research question are described.

4.1 Discourse analysis vs. corpus methods

Traditionally, there are two types of research methods, qualitative and quantitative. In the field of corpus-linguistics, McEnery and Wilson (1993: 62) identified qualitative research as a method with "no attempt to assign frequencies to the linguistic features which are identified in the data", whereas quantitative research is identified as a method to "classify features, to count them, and even to construct more complex statistical models in an attempt to explain what is observed". However, as Schmied (1993) has observed, a stage of qualitative research is often a precursor for quantitative analysis, and a quantitative result may need to be qualitatively understood.

4.1.1 The nature of the current study

In human language, ambiguity inevitably occurs, either by accident or through the deliberate intent of language users. This is particularly so in terms of stance and voice resources –they are realized through a very wide variety of grammatical forms (Martin & White 2005: 10); and are highly context-dependent (Hunston 2011: 12-19). Marking up

Appraisal resources can be a very complex and subjective task. The framework itself is a 'basic draft of categories' (Hommerberg & Don 2015) rather than 'a definitive model of evaluation that can be applied to any kind of text in a mechanical way' (Fuoli & Hommerberg 2015).

Certain expressions can realise different evaluative meaning in different contexts. For example, firm decisions have to be made as to whether Attribute markers such as *argue* are placed in the category of Acknowledge or the category of Distance. This depends on the co-texts; decisions about any "fuzzy set" like this, or about other delicate variations in the data, can only be made if the data is qualitatively analysed (Schmied, 1993). In this study, therefore, linguistic items and phenomena cannot be classified according to hard-and-fast, mutually exclusive categories without close examination of the contexts in which they occur. In order to find and classify each stance marker, or to identify examples of a particular stance type, it is necessary, in the current study, to manually annotate each text.

4.1.2 Qualitative approach

However, taking qualitative research as the exclusive method may hinder the transparency, reliability and replicability of analysis (Fuoli & Hommerberg 2015). Findings made from a few samples cannot be extended to a wider population with any degree of certainty. Similarly, the specific findings from qualitative research cannot be tested to discover whether they are statistically significant or more likely to be due to chance. By contrast, a quantitative corpus analysis can show a precise picture of the frequency of a particular phenomenon, and confirm whether it reflects the general behaviour of a language or is merely a chance occurrence. Quantitative corpus research not only allows for findings to be generalized to a larger population but also allows direct comparisons between different corpora (McEnery and Wilson, 1993).

4.1.3 Quantitative approach

However, taking quantitative research as the exclusive method may sacrifice the level of detail and the coverage of phenomena that can be accounted for (Flowerdew 2005). For example, many prior studies (e.g., Biber & Finegan 1989; Conrad & Biber 2000; Hyland 2005) only focus on a pre-set list of attitudinal markers with a restricted range of language forms, to ensure that all the items on their lists have only one meaning.

4.1.4 The kinds of approach adopted in the current study

Therefore, neither qualitative methods nor quantitative methods alone are sufficient for the current study. This study will therefore employ a multi-method approach, combining both qualitative (discourse analysis) and quantitative (corpus methods) perspectives to examine the same phenomenon. As McEnery and Wilson (1993: 63) pointed out, a combined method can not only provide greater richness and precision, but also provide statistically reliable and relatively generalizable results.

4.2 Corpus creation

4.2.1 A rationale for the design of the current corpus

Having decided on the general approach, the next phase was to set the criteria for corpus creation. Hunston (2002: 26) suggested that what matters is "whether a corpus is suited or not suited to a particular purpose", and "what the corpus is going to be used for and what is available", rather than whether it is good or bad in itself. Thus, decisions were made based on the purpose of this thesis. For example, as discussed in Chapter 3, in order to test ethnolinguistic culture, other factors such as disciplinary culture, generic culture, topic, audience size and the writers' own language proficiency and academic experience had to be controlled.

4.2.1.1 THE KIND OF RAS SELECTED TO COMPARE WITH RAS PRODUCED BY CHINESE ACADEMICS

First of all, to investigate the argument style of Chinese scholars I needed to see whether this style differed from the style of scholars educated in the English-speaking world. For this reason, I collected data from writers who had been educated in Britain and were working in Britain.

4.2.1.2 THE KIND OF TEXTS SELECTED TO REPRESENT RAS PRODUCED BY CHINESE ACADEMICS

There was a choice to be made between English RAs written by Chinese researchers and Chinese RAs written by Chinese researchers. It was decided that English RAs published in good international journals written by Chinese and British writers would be compared in this study, for four reasons:

1) Both groups aim at the same type of audience, which is international. This avoids the variable of audience size that can impact on argument style, as noted in prior research on cultural variation (e.g., Shaw 2003; Wu & Zhu 2014; Sheldon 2012).

2) Publication in good international journals might serve as a sort of guarantee that the RAs by Chinese writers had reached an acceptable level of English. Selecting these RAs could therefore help control the variable of language proficiency.

3) Some cross-linguistic research has applied the Appraisal framework to different languages (e.g., Hu & Wang, 2014). However, although it would be interesting to use this method, its reliability remains in doubt because the Appraisal framework has only been designed for discourse analysis in English (Martin & White, 2005) and is not yet ready to be simultaneously applied to different language families.

4) As discussed in Chapter 3, it is not appropriate to directly compare Chinese texts with English texts, as the two different language systems have different lexical and grammar rules and meaning construction. There can also be issues regarding the way words should be counted. Also, there is as yet no annotation software that is able to parse Chinese words.

Therefore, English RAs written by Chinese academics and English RAs written by British academics were judged to be more comparable.

4.2.1.3 THE CHOICE BETWEEN USING AN EXISTING CORPUS VS. COMPILING A NEW CORPUS

It would be more convenient to use an existing corpus for this research, but there are very few corpora of research articles which are publicly available, and none which entirely meet the requirements for my study. For example, the Corpus of Research Articles (CRA) developed in the Research Centre for Professional Communication in English at Hong Kong Polytechnic University (2008), contains 780 English articles written by international scholars in 39 disciplines, including applied linguistics, but is not annotated for the background of the writer. For this thesis, the identity of Chinese writers should be carefully investigated since a large number of Chinese academics have an overseas educational background which may affect their writing to some extent. Also, many home-grown Chinese scholars co-write papers with western academics to avoid linguistic challenges in English. Consequently use of the CRA might have prevented me from controlling the influence of the Chinese educational experience. Therefore, the CRA was not suitable for a study which required background information about home-grown Chinese and British writers.

Copyright issues also often prevent the use of pre-existing corpora. Publishers are naturally unwilling to make their articles publicly available through a research resource, because they are commercial products. Thus, corpus compilers "must observe copyright law and the rights of individuals to confidentiality under privacy legislation" (Kennedy, 1998: 77).

For these reasons I created a new corpus of my own, including a Chinese sub-corpus with RAs that were exclusively produced by home-grown Chinese academics. Fortunately, information concerning the PhD degrees of published writers is usually revealed on the Internet. I selected Chinese writers who had studied for their PhDs in China and were also currently working in China. Similarly, British RAs were only chosen if their writers had been awarded their PhDs in the UK and if they mainly worked in the UK.

4.2.1.4 A DECISION ON THE SIZE OF THE CORPUS

It is impossible to discover the exact number of RAs in the field of applied linguistics, written by Chinese researchers in the medium of English and published in international journals. However, Hunston (2002: 28) points out that "'being representative' inevitably involves knowing what the character of the 'whole' is". For this reason, I conducted a pilot check on Chinese contributions to a small number of international applied linguistics journals, to see what the distribution of such articles might be like. Pilot checks are useful for finding out the proportion of a particular category in a collection of texts (Kennedy, 1998: 72). It was found that during 2012 and 2013 only five RAs had been written solely by home-grown Chinese writers in *Applied linguistics, English for Academic Purposes,* and *English for Specific Purposes* (three popular journals in applied linguistics, with impact factors of 1.833, 0.796 and 0.953 respectively). Due to the paucity of RAs in international applied linguistics journals written by writers with a background in China, as revealed by the pilot check, a very small corpus was compiled with 15 RAs in each sub-corpus.

4.2.1.5 A DECISION ON THE SELECTION OF SECTIONS OF RAS

As explained in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, only Introduction and Conclusion sections were included in the data. There was, however, some variation in heading style across the different research articles; for example, the 'introduction' might or might not include the 'literature review', and the 'discussion' section might or might not subsume a 'summary' or 'conclusion'. For this reason, the boundaries of sections were not decided on the basis of the headings, but with reference to the organizational structure, identified through close reading. Inter-coder tests were conducted to check the reliability of this identification procedure. Further details of the procedure will be provided in section 4.4.2.

4.2.2 The practical process of corpus creation

4.2.2.1 COLLECTION OF RAS

ScienceDirect (http://www.sciencedirect.com) was used for data selection. This is a website operated by the Anglo-Dutch publisher Elsevier, containing 2500 journals in Physical Sciences and Engineering, Life Sciences, Health Sciences, Social Sciences and Humanities. After logging in, 'applied linguistics' was input in the 'search all fields' column, which yielded 23365 articles. To refine the results, 'Journal' and period from '2010' to '2015' was ticked, which left 7915 articles, listed in groups of 25 per page. The authors' names were then checked one by one in order to pick out the Chinese names. For each name, the email address of the author, when provided, were noted. The name and email pair were then used as the key words for tracking down the author's background on Google. Having identified a Chinese RA on a certain topic, a search for British RAs on the same topic was conducted, as well as a background check of the authors. Topic matching and background checks were prioritised, but every effort was also made to match the journals and the journal issue numbers. Moreover, multiple articles by the same author (s) were not chosen for the corpus, to avoid the influence of individual stylistic features. The selected articles are shown in Table 4.1. The Chinese corpus comprises 28160 words while the British corpus comprises 25298 words.

Chinese RAs	British RAs:
Gao, Y. (2011). Cognitive linguistics–Inspired empirical study of Chinese EFL teaching. *Creative Education*, *02*(04), 354–362.	Elwood, J. A., & Bode, J. (2014). Student preferences vis-à-vis teacher feedback in university EFL writing classes in Japan. *System*, *42*, 333–343.
Yang, X. (2010). Intentional forgetting, anxiety, and EFL listening comprehension among Chinese college students. *Learning and Individual Differences*, *20*(3), 177–187.	Lamb, T. (2011). Fragile Identities: Exploring Learner Identity, Learner Autonomy and Motivation through Young Learners' Voices. *The Canadian Journal of Applied linguistics*, *Special Issue 14*(2), 68–85.
Wen, W. (2014). Assessing the roles of breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge in Chinese EFL learners' listening comprehension. *Chinese Journal of Applied linguistics*, *37*(3), 29–56.	Vandergrift, L., & Baker, S. (2015). Learner variables in Second language listening comprehension: An exploratory path analysis. *Language Learning*, *65*(2), 390–416.
Liu, H. (2010). Dependency direction as a means of word-order typology: A method based on	MacDonald, M. C. (2013). How language production shapes language form and

dependency treebanks. *Lingua*, *120*(6), 1567–1578.	comprehension. *Frontiers in Psychology*, *4*, 226.
Lei, L. (2012). Linking adverbials in academic writing on applied linguistics by Chinese doctoral students. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *11*(3), 267–275.	McNamara, T. (2015). Applied linguistics: The challenge of theory. *Applied linguistics*, *36*(4), 466–477.
Chen, Y. (2015). Developing Chinese EFL learners' email literacy through requests to faculty. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *75*, 131–149.	Murray, N. (2012). English as a lingua franca and the development of pragmatic competence. *ELT Journal*, *66*(3), 318–326.
Hou, Z. (2015). A critical analysis of media reports on China's air defense identification zone. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *198*, 194–201.	Mills, T. A., Lavender, R., & Lavender, T. (2015). "Forty is the new twenty": An analysis of British media portrayals of older mothers. *Sexual & Reproductive Healthcare*, *6*(2), 88–94.
Wei, L. (2012). Construction of seamless English language learning Cyberspace via interactive text messaging tool. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *2*(8), 1590–1596.	Coffin, C., Hewings, A., & North, S. (2012). Arguing as an academic purpose: The role of asynchronous conferencing in supporting argumentative dialogue in school and university. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *11*(1), 38–51.
Cheng, C. (2014). A Contrastive study of English and Chinese book reviews on linguistics: Perspective of Attitudinal meanings. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *4*(5), 1009–1016.	Sealey, A. (2015). Book reviews and forum contributions in applied linguistics—Continuity and change. *Applied linguistics*, *36*(4), 478–487.
Liu, B. (2013). Effect of first language on the use of English discourse markers by L1 Chinese speakers of English. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *45*(1), 149–172.	Jones, C., & Carter, R. (2014). Teaching spoken discourse markers explicitly: A comparison of III and PPP. *International Journal of English Studies*, *14*(1), 37–54.
Xin, T. (2010). Mainstream discourse and the construction of public understanding of women's employment. *Social Sciences in China*, *31*(2), 135–149.	Cameron, D. (2010). Sex/gender, language and the new Biologism. *Applied linguistics*, *31*(2), 173–192.
Li, J. (2014). Examining genre effects on test takers' summary writing performance. *Assessing Writing*, *22*, 75–90.	Gardner, S. (2012). Genres and registers of student report writing: An SFL perspective on texts and practices. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *11*(1), 52–63.
Yang, W., & Sun, Y. (2012). The use of cohesive devices in argumentative writing by Chinese EFL learners at different proficiency levels. *linguistics and Education*, *23*(1), 31–48.	Charles, M. (2011). Adverbials of result: Phraseology and functions in the Problem–Solution pattern. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *10*(1), 47–60.
Chien, C., Kao, L., & Wei, L. (2008). The role of Phonological awareness development in Young Chinese EFL learners. *Language Awareness*, *17*(4), 271.	Moyle, M. J., Heilmann, J., & Berman, S. S. (2013). Assessment of early developing Phonological awareness skills: A comparison of the preschool individual growth and development indicators and the Phonological awareness and literacy Screening–PreK. *Early Education & Development*, *24*(5), 668–686.
Liu, B., Wang, Z., & Jin, Z. (2010). The effects of punctuations in Chinese sentence comprehension: An ERP study. *Journal of Neurolinguistics*, *23*(1),	Mackenzie, N. M., Scull, J., & Bowles, T. (2015). Writing over time: An analysis of texts created by year One students. *The Australian Educational*

66–80.	*Researcher*, *42*(5), 567–593.

Table 4.1: Selected articles

Although I intended to match the topics of the articles, it was not possible to perfectly match all the titles of article pairs in Table 4.1 a. For example, although in the first pair, Gao (2011) and Elwood and Bode (2014) are paired because they are both relevant to EFL teaching, the former is about classroom teaching, while the latter investigates how teachers give feedback as part of a teaching method. Moreover, each of them has an additional focus, Gao (2011) on cognitive linguistics and Elwood and Bode (2014) on student preferences.

4.2.2.2 DATA CLEANING AND TRASFORMATION

All the PDF documents were converted to plain text using the freely available software 'PDF to Text Batch Convert Multiple Files 7.0' (http://download.cnet.com/Convert-Multiple-PDF-Files-To-Text-Files-Software/3000-2088_4-75741772.html). The formatting was then manually modified, and only Introduction and Conclusion sections were kept in the data. To improve the representativeness, this study also followed Hu and Wang (2014) by removing the following parts: a) the front matter (i.e., titles, authors, institutes and abstracts), b) figures, tables, captions, footnotes, and c) the back matter (i.e., acknowledgments, endnotes, author notes, references, and appendixes). The chosen parts were then converted to plain text. The 30 RAs were imported into the UAM CorpusTool (version 3.0), a free-download program for annotating each text in a corpus at multiple levels (O'Donnell, 2011). The imported corpus was displayed in the UAM CorpusTool as in Figure 4.1. I will explain the functions of UAM CorpusTool in the next section, 4.2.3.

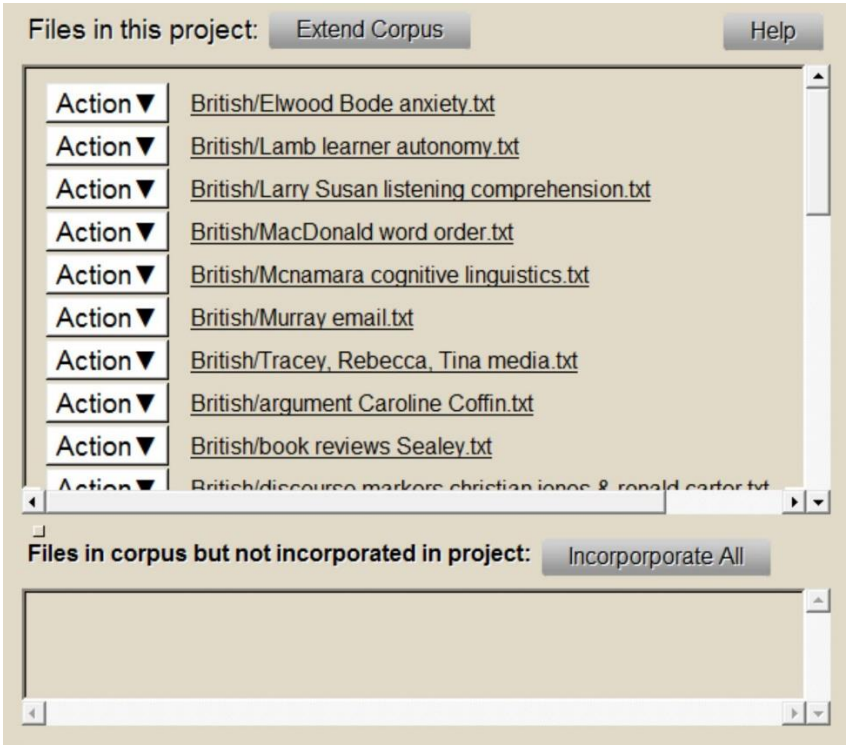


Figure 4.1: The current corpus in the UAM CorpusTool

4.2.3 UAM CorpusTool

The UAM CorpusTool offers multiple functions to facilitate manual annotation. Here I will only introduce a few of the functions that were used in the current study. The software provides an interface to edit annotating schemes. It allows multiple schemes which are built into the software (see Figure 4.2), and also allows each scheme to be edited in a separate interface (see Figure 4.3).

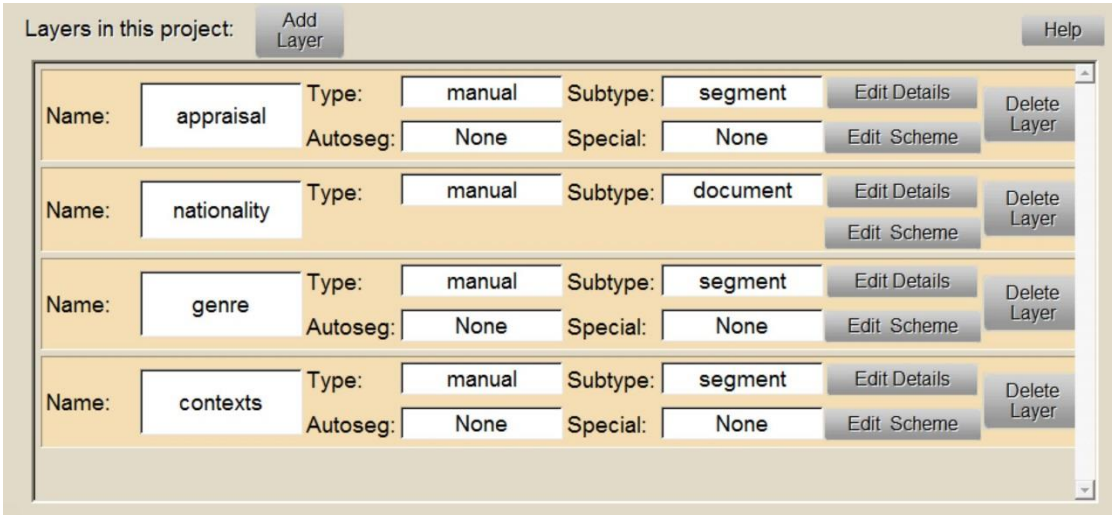


Figure 4.2: Multiple schemes

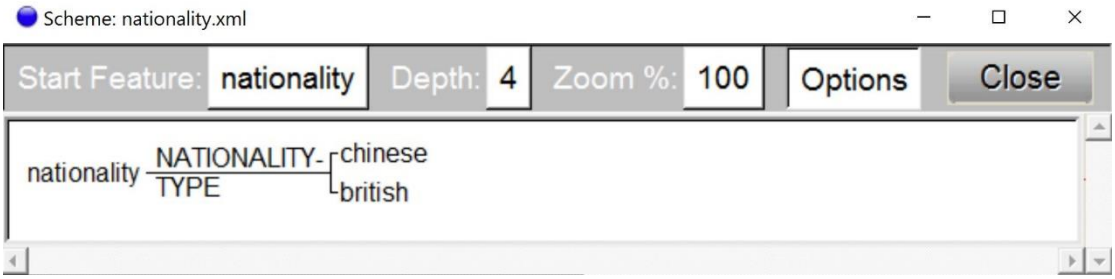


Figure 4.3: Scheme editing

Once the marking scheme has been built up, the software provides an annotation window for each file and each layer (see Figure 4.4). Once an item is identified, one can create a green segment and assign appropriate categories in the marking schemes to the selected segment.

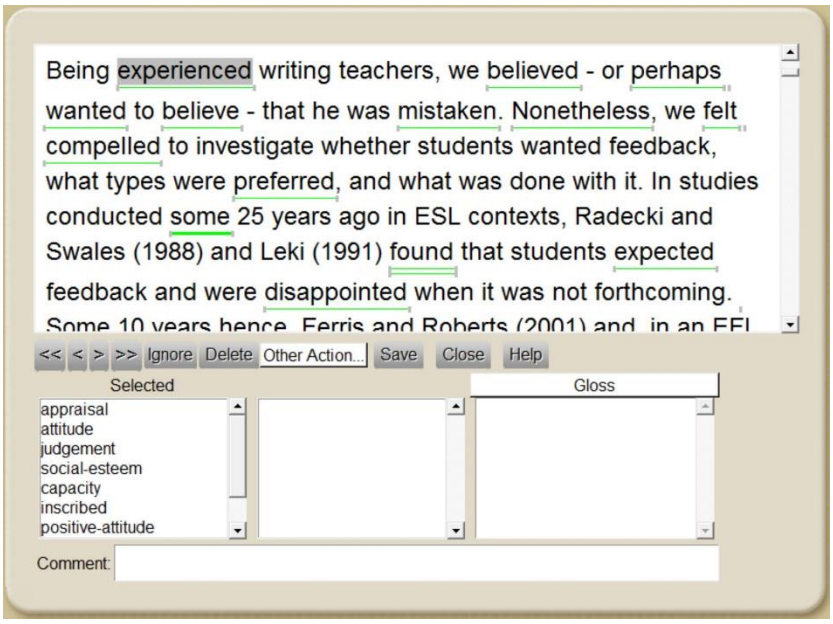


Figure 4.4: Annotation window

The annotated data can be analysed in the statistics window (see Figure 4.5). It offers four kinds of analysis: descriptive statistics of feature tagging of a file, a sub-corpus or the corpus; contrastive statistics of feature tagging of any two subsets of the corpus; general text statistics providing basic information about the corpus, including word-counts, lexical density, average segment length; word propensity providing a key word list of a given sub-corpus in comparison with the rest of the corpus.

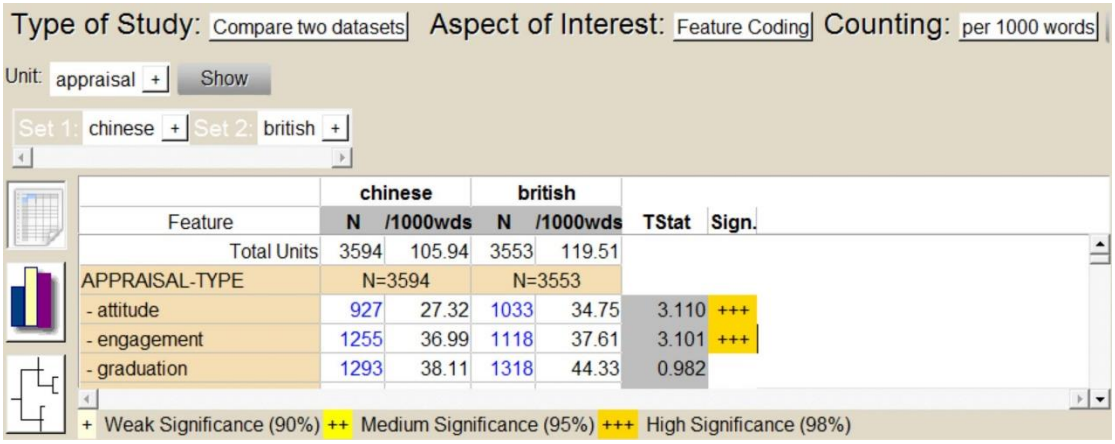
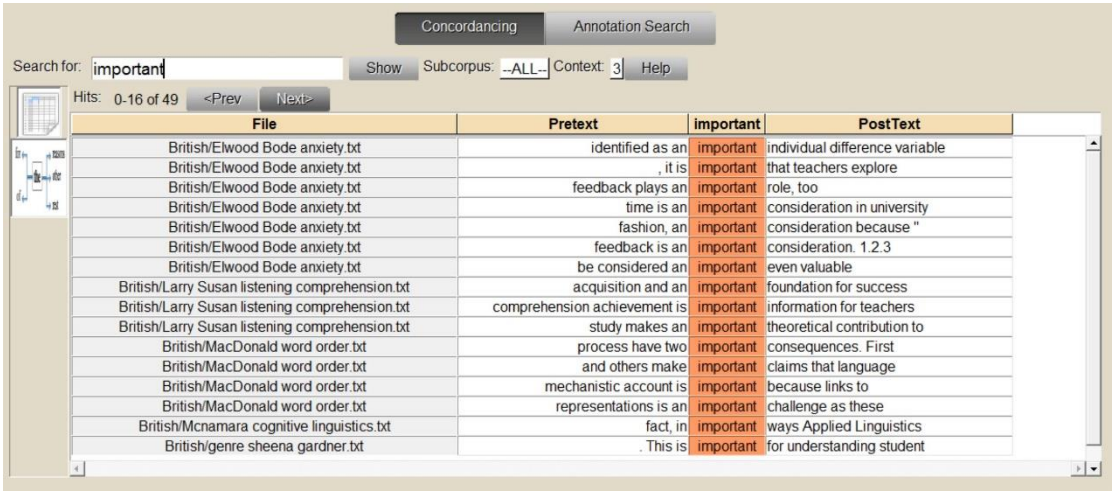


Figure 4.5: Statistics window

In order to search particular words or categories, UAM offers a search window (see Figure 4.6). The user makes a choice between an annotation search (for categories) and a concordancing search (for words). UAM also supports Corpus Query Language.



File	Pretext	important	PostText
British/Elwood Bode anxiety.txt	identified as an	important	individual difference variable
British/Elwood Bode anxiety.txt	, it is	important	that teachers explore
British/Elwood Bode anxiety.txt	feedback plays an	important	role, too
British/Elwood Bode anxiety.txt	time is an	important	consideration in university
British/Elwood Bode anxiety.txt	fashion, an	important	consideration because "
British/Elwood Bode anxiety.txt	feedback is an	important	consideration. 1.2.3
British/Elwood Bode anxiety.txt	be considered an	important	even valuable
British/Larry Susan listening comprehension.txt	acquisition and an	important	foundation for success
British/Larry Susan listening comprehension.txt	comprehension achievement is	important	information for teachers
British/Larry Susan listening comprehension.txt	study makes an	important	theoretical contribution to
British/MacDonald word order.txt	process have two	important	consequences. First
British/MacDonald word order.txt	and others make	important	claims that language
British/MacDonald word order.txt	mechanistic account is	important	because links to
British/MacDonald word order.txt	representations is an	important	challenge as these
British/Mcnamara cognitive linguistics.txt	fact, in	important	ways Applied Linguistics
British/genre sheena gardner.txt	. This is	important	for understanding student

Figure 4.6: Search window

The software also offers a window for exploring keyness (see Figure 4.7).

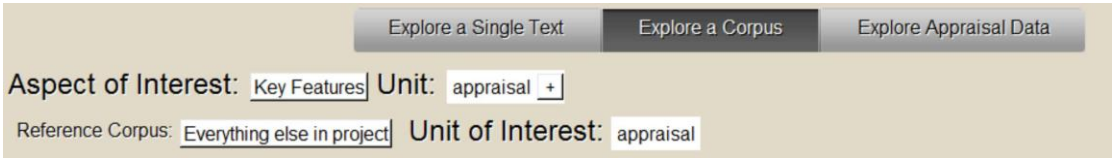


Figure 4.7: Explore window

4.3 A description of the corpus

Some researchers (e.g., de Haan, 1992) have argued that the ideal corpus size is highly dependent on the specific phenomenon being investigated. Biber (1993: 223) also pointed out that sample size may not be the most important consideration in selecting a representative sample; rather, “a thorough definition of the target population and decisions concerning the method of sampling are prior considerations”. He suggested two types of criteria for text selection, external and internal criteria. External criteria are situational considerations such as the boundaries of the target population (i.e., what texts are included

and excluded from the population). In this study, only applied linguistics RAs produced by home grown Chinese writers and home grown British writers are included, in order to represent the ethnolinguistic aspects of research writing in applied linguistics. Having established these external criteria, text-internal lexicogrammatical features could be identified. Different linguistic features can be differently distributed within texts or across texts. For example, McEnery and Wilson (2001: 154) suggested that the higher the frequency of the feature one wishes to investigate, the smaller the corpus can be. Stance markers are very frequent in Introduction and Conclusion sections of the RAs, so it could be argued that they were present in sufficient numbers to represent typical usage in applied linguistics RAs generally.

Moreover, representativeness could be achieved with far fewer texts than would be needed for a general corpus because the corpus was specialized, and focused on only one discipline, one genre, and two nationalities. As Atkins *et al.* (1992: 1-16) argued, "the more highly specialized the language to be sampled in the corpus, the fewer will be the problems in defining the texts to be sampled".

4.4 The annotation system

As discussed in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3, three perspectives need to be examined to answer the research questions. To answer the first research question (i.e., How do Chinese academics construct their stance and voice in applied linguistics RAs?), stance markers in the data were annotated using Appraisal Theory (Martin & White, 2005). To answer the second research question (i.e., How do Chinese academics voice values across contexts in applied linguistics RAs?), contexts in the data were annotated using the theory of contexts (Xu & Nesi, 2017). To answer the third research question (i.e., How do Chinese academics construct stance and voice across moves in applied linguistics RAs?), moves in the data were annotated using the CARS model (Swales, 1990, 2004) and by drawing on other move structures (e.g., Kanoksilapatham, 2005).

4.4.1 Marking schemes

The UAM CorpusTool allows users to manually set up as many layers of marking scheme as required. Thus, three independent marking schemes were manually edited under the function of 'layers' (see Figure 4.8, Figure 4.9 and Figure 4.10). In principle, Appraisal markers are evaluative items at the clausal level, but Monoglossia is the only type of feature that involves the annotation of entire sentences. When a sentence does not include any heteroglossic markers, the sentence is monoglossic. Therefore, I decided to annotate Monoglossia at sentence level.

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Figure 4.8: Appraisal marking scheme (Martin & White, 2005; Hood, 2004)

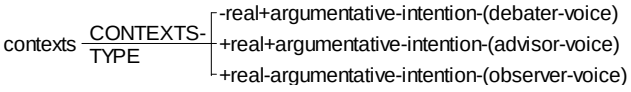


Figure 4.9: Context marking scheme

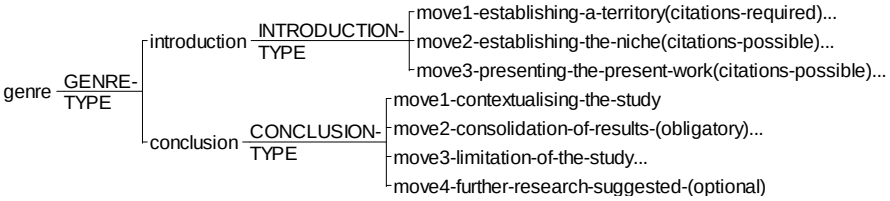


Figure 4.10: Move marking scheme

4.4.2 Inter-coder reliability

Since stance and voice are subjective perspectives which cannot be automatically identified by any software available at the moment (as explained in 4.1), the texts in the corpus were annotated manually. To minimise the possibility that subjective judgements might hinder the transparency, reliability and replicability of the study, inter-coder reliability methods were implemented. Spooren and Degand (2010) suggested two critical strategies to improve inter-coder reliability:

1) Double coding. Two coders annotate the entire corpus independently. After completion, a meeting is arranged for the coders to identify areas of disagreement and discuss until they reach a full consensus.

2) Partial overlap between two or more coders. Part of the data is double coded and disagreements are reconciled, while the remainder is coded by one person. The inter-coder agreement is counted on the double-coded sample so as to improve the quality of the single-coded data.

If there is no second coder and one coder has to code all, the validity of coding can be improved by using an intra-coder reliability test. The coder can annotate the data and repeat the process after a period of time (e.g., six months), so that the degree of agreement

among the repeated tests performed by the single annotator can be calculated and the quality of the single-coded data can be improved.

In the current study, marking up one text using the three marking schemes took two working days per person; coding the entire corpus therefore took three months of full-time work. It would have been impossible to find another coder both capable of annotating the corpus using the Appraisal framework, and available for this length of time, so the double coding option was rejected. One-coder-does-all was the most doable option. However, given the context-and-co-text based nature of the task, decisions made by only one coder on all data are very likely to be biased, even if intra-coder reliability is applied. Therefore, on top of intra-coder reliability, this study also adopted option 2 for inter-rater reliability: partial overlap between two or more coders.

The annotation and inter-rater reliability testing process followed four steps:

1) Coder One annotated one RA according to the three schemes in two working days.

2) Since one text requires two working days (16 hours) to be annotated, eight two-hour meetings were arranged for Coder Two to verbally code the same text. Approximately 85% of the classification made by Coder Two were the same as Coder One's, and we therefore considered the rate of inter-coder agreement to be approximately 85%. The two coders discussed every evaluative item that had been assigned a different Appraisal category by the second coder and reached consensus on all Appraisal categories.

3) Coder One annotated the rest of the data based on the new, more specific category descriptions. When Coder One encountered any doubt over any particular feature, a discussion with Coder Two was set up and solutions were agreed by both coders.

4) After six months, the corpus was annotated again by Coder One to ensure that there was no inconsistency in the coding.

4.5 Methods of analysis

4.5.1 Statistical test

The log-likelihood test is a popular test of statistical significance for checking word-frequency differences in corpora, and has been favoured by many corpus linguists because of its widespread implementation in corpus linguistics tools such as WordSmith Tools (Scott, 2004) and Wmatrix (Rayson, 2003). The test has, however, been criticized because it is only concerned with word frequency but not word dispersion. Word frequency refers to the rate at which a particular word occurs in a given corpus. The log-likelihood test only extracts keywords that occur with a higher absolute frequency in the study corpus than in a reference corpus. Thus, the results can be biased if frequent words occur in only one or a few of the corpus files (Paquot & Bestgen 2009). In contrast, the t-test is considered more reliable by Paquot and Bestgen (2009). It takes account of the number of corpus sections in which as word occurs, and is sensitive to evenness of distribution. The t-test is provided in the UAM CorpusTool, so a one-tailed t-test was run on the data to evaluate the significance of the results. Also, the frequencies of all the features were normalized to 1000 words to facilitate comparison.

4.5.2 Pilot study

Initially a pilot study of eight RAs was conducted, for the purpose of testing the applicability and effectiveness of my analytical schemes, and familiarising myself with the functions of the UAM Corpus Tool.

1) All 30 files, which had been given names including nationality information, were uploaded into the UAM CorpusTool. At the prompt 'compare two datasets', the program does not recognize the name of each folder unless the names of the sub-corpora have been included in the coding scheme. Therefore, the marking scheme had to be modified according to the UAM setting to permit sub-corpus comparisons. For this study I added a fourth marking

scheme relating to nationality (see Figure 4.2 and Figure 4.3 above), so that the two nationalities could be selected from the 'statistics' interface (see Figure 4.5 above).

2) When applying queries for research question 3 (How do Chinese academics construct stance and voice across moves in applied linguistics RAs?), there were two potential ways to compare the Appraisal markers in a particular Context within a particular move, across the Chinese and the British sub-corpora). The interface without input categories is presented in Figure 4.11. The two choices of input categories are shown in a. and b.

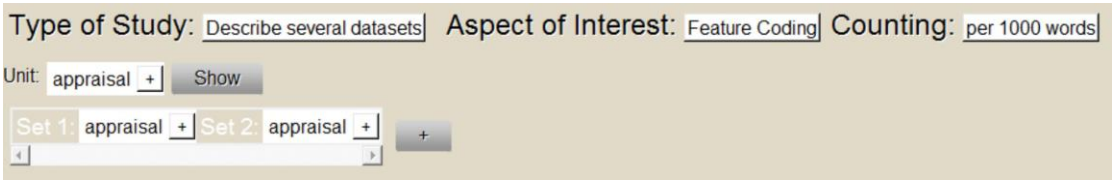


Figure 4.11: The interface for comparisons across subsets

a. Unit: appraisal

   Set 1: Chinese + **in segment (input the same category of Context)** + in segment (input any category of Move)

   Set 2: British + **in segment (input the same category of Context)** + in segment (input any category of Move)

b. Unit: appraisal + **in segment (input the same category of Context)**

   Set 1: Chinese + in segment (input any category of Move)

   Set 2: British + in segment (input any category of Move)

The two options are very similar, but UAM CorpusTool is not able to process option a. Therefore, option b. was chosen.

4) An examination of keywords across the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus, in a particular Appraisal category, in a particular Context, within a particular move, would have provided useful data to help answer Research Question 3 (How do Chinese academics construct stance and voice across moves in applied linguistics RAs?). This would have to be done in the explore window (see Figure 4.12), and the only query that would have been capable of providing this information is as follows:

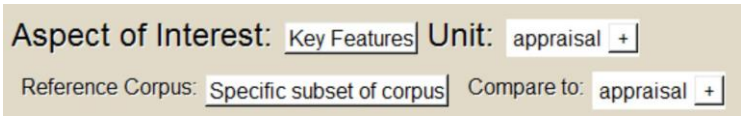


Figure 4.12: key features examination

Unit: (input any category of the Appraisal framework) + in segment (input any category of Context) + in segment (input any category of move) + in segment Chinese

Reference Corpus: Specific subset of corpus

Compare to: (input the same category of the dialogic engagement) + in segment (input the same category of Context) + in segment (input any category of move) + in segment British

However, the UAM CorpusTool was not able to process this query, and therefore it was not possible to examine keywords across moves.

4.5.3 Final corpus queries

Finally, the two datasets were compared quantitatively, using the functions of the UAM Corpus Tool, in an attempt to answer my research questions. The steps were operated in the Statistics window (refer to Figure 4.5), the Search window (refer to Figure 4.6) or the Explore window (refer to Figure 4.7).

The following steps were taken to answer Question 1: How do Chinese academics construct their stance and voice in applied linguistics RAs?

Step 1 compared the use of Appraisal markers across the Chinese and British sub-corpora.

Statistics window

Type of Study: Compare two datasets

Aspect of Interest: Feature coding

Counting: per 1000 words

Unit: appraisal

Set 1: Chinese

Set 2: British

Step 2 compared keywords in each Appraisal category across the two sub-corproa.

Explore window

Explore a Corpus

Aspect of Interest: Keywords

Unit: (input any category of the Appraisal framework) + in segment Chinese

Reference Corpus: Specific subset of corpus

Compare to: (input the same category of the dialogic engagement) + in segment British

Step 3 Retrieved instances of a particular Appraisal category.

Search window: (input any category of Appraisal framework) + containing string anywhere (input any stance marker)

The following steps were taken to answer Question 2: How do Chinese academics voice values across contexts in applied linguistics RAs?

Step 1 compared the Appraisal markers in a particular Context across the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus.

Statistics window

Type of Study: Compare two datasets

Aspect of Interest: Feature coding

Counting: per 1000 words

Unit: appraisal

Set 1: Chinese + in segment (input any category of Context)

Set 2: British + (input the same category of Context)

Step 2 examined keywords for a particular Appraisal category in a particular Context across the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus.

Explore window

Explore a Corpus

Aspect of Interest: Keywords

Unit: (input any category of the Appraisal framework)+ in segment (input any category of Context) + in segment Chinese – Reference Corpus: Specific subset of corpus

Compare to: (input the same category of the dialogic engagement) + in segment (input the same category of Context) + in segment British

Step 3 Retrieved instances of a particular Appraisal category in a particular Context.

Search window: (input any category of Appraisal framework) + in segment (input any category of Context) + containing string anywhere (input any stance marker)

The following steps were taken to answer Question 3: How do Chinese academics construct stance and voice across moves in applied linguistics RAs?

Step 1compared the Appraisal markers in a particular Context within in a particular move across the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus.

Statistics window

Type of Study: Compare two datasets

Aspect of Interest: Feature coding

Counting: per 1000 words

Unit: appraisal + in segment (input the same category of Context)

Set 1: Chinese + in segment (input any category of Move)

Set 2: British + in segment (input any category of Move)

Step 2 Retrieved instances of a particular Appraisal category in a particular Context.

Search window: (input any category of Appraisal framework) + in segment (input any category of Context) + containing string anywhere (input any stance marker)

Step 3 Identified clustered Engagement patterns. The process is given as follows.

Click on a particular file

Select a category of Engagement

Assign a colour to this category

Click 'Add'

Select a second category of Engagement

Assign a colour to the category

Keep adding until all the categories are colour coded

Save text

The identification was then conducted by quickly glancing over each saved file. When coloured items clustered within two or three lines of words, they were noted.

Note that instances of the analyses are given in Chapter 7.

CHAPTER 5. ANALYSIS ONE: GENERIC STRATEGIES USING APPRAISAL MARKERS

This Chapter addresses the first research question of the current study: How do Chinese academics construct their stance and voice in applied linguistics RAs? In this analysis, I only explore evaluative words as individual items within the Appraisal system, and their role as contributors to the construction of stance in the research articles in this study. In other words, I will only analyse the number of occurrences of each Appraisal subcategory, and I will not consider the co-construction between Appraisal, context and genre (that is, what are being appraised and how the prosodic process unfolds through time). The kinds of Attitude are first investigated to see how explicit evaluations are expressed. The kinds of Graduation are then examined to see the way feelings and phenomena are graded and the way they are amplified, or categories are blurred. The writer's commitment and voices with respect to alternative voices and positions can also be graded, but in a different way - Engagement. This is the last focus of the chapter, investigating the kinds of engaging strategies undertaken by academics to align or disalign themselves with actual or potential responders. While presenting and discussing each focus, the common preferences in choices of evaluation across the Chinese authors' texts and the British authors' texts are presented as well as the characteristic preferences in each set of texts. It is possible that the sum of occurrence of some Appraisal categories is not sufficient to draw conclusions about characteristic strategies. These categories will undergo further analysis across contexts in the next chapter.

An overall comparison of the two sets of texts in terms of the frequency the three main categories of Appraisal, namely, Attitude, Engagement and Graduation, is given in Figure 5.1. In general the British authors not only apply more Appraisal markers than their Chinese counterparts, but also more evaluative markers in every subsystem, particularly in Attitude and Graduation. The differences in the number of Attitude makers and Engagement markers are highly significant. This Figure gives the first impression that the British authors are more

evaluative and dialogic. However, data within each Appraisal subcategory need to be scrutinized as each of them can reflect a particular evaluative strategy. That is to say, some subcategories may occur with higher numbers in the Chinese data, contrary to the overall impression.

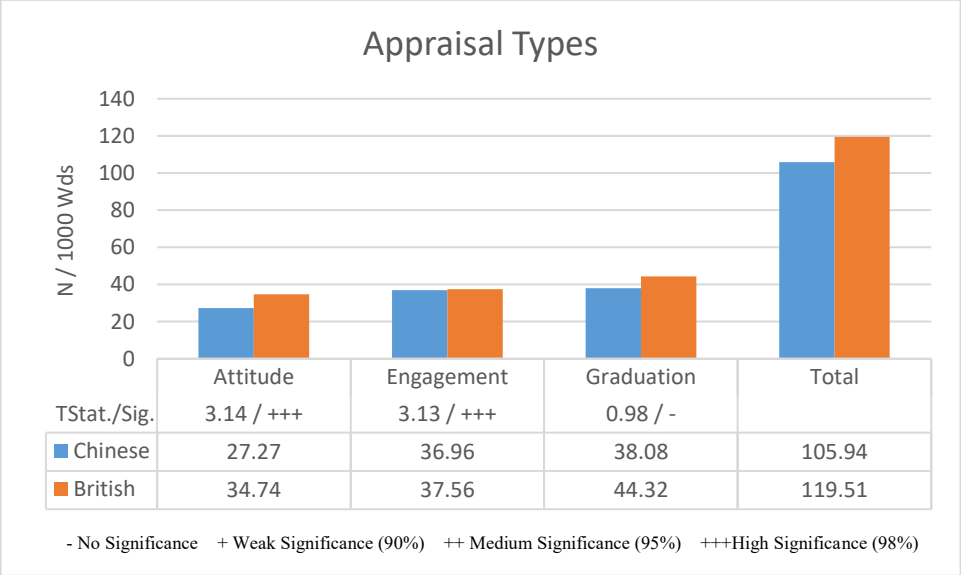


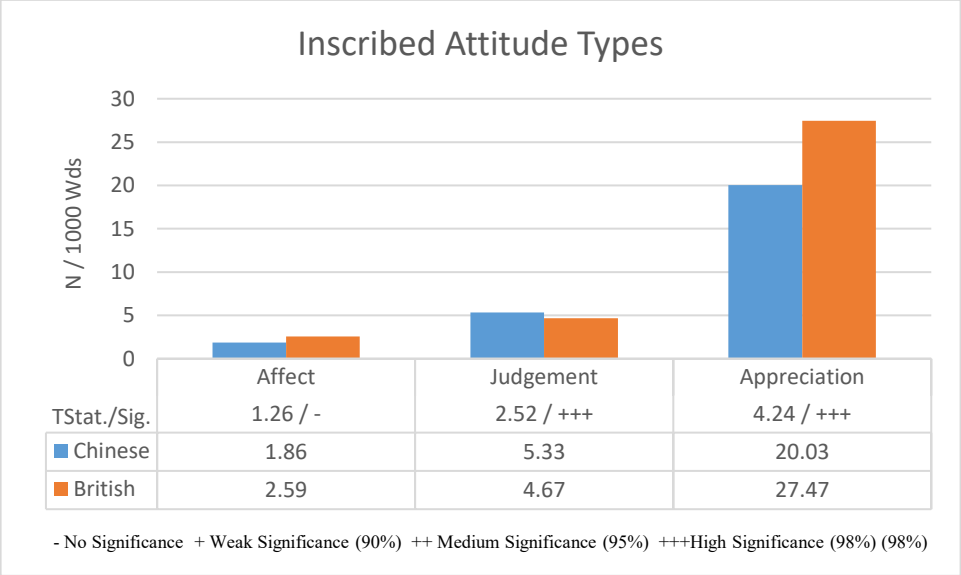
Figure 5.1: Appraisal types[3]

5.1 Expression of Attitude

As explained in the Chapter 2, Attitude is a system of meanings for mapping the expression of feelings. It reflects and emphasizes our 'positive' or 'negative' emotions, Judgements on human behaviours, and assessment of objects or artefacts (Martin & White, 2005: 42). In the following analysis, I consider the distinction between Attitude that is explicitly inscribed and implicitly evoked, examining each of them separately.

[3] The significance of the total use of Appraisal markers across the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus is not given in Figure 5.1 because it was not provided by the UAM CorpusTool.

5.1.1 Expression of inscribed Attitude



	Affect	Judgement	Appreciation
TStat./Sig.	1.26 / -	2.52 / +++	4.24 / +++
Chinese	1.86	5.33	20.03
British	2.59	4.67	27.47

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%) (98%)

Figure 5.2: Inscribed Attitude Types

Common preferences among inscribed Attitude types: The distribution of explicitly expressed Attitude evaluations is shown in Figure 5.2. Appreciation is the main choice and accounts for roughly 77% of all attitude markers. Only 16% are Judgement and 7% are human Affect. The preponderance of Appreciation is due to the authors' choice of personification, or what Li and Panther (2014) call the metaphorized 'human agent', rather than congruent noun as subject. For example, the human agent in Example 5.1 (invented to illustrate personification) can be replaced with a metaphorized 'human agent', as in Example 5.2 (the original sentence from my data).

Example 5.1

After four months of practice, the researcher has **effectively** realized the goal of constructing the seamless English language learning in cyberspace.

Example 5.2

After four months of practice, this initiative **effectively** realizes the goal of constructing the seamless English language learning in cyberspace.

'Effectively' in Example 5.1 can therefore be considered as a Judgement on human behaviour while 'effectively' in Example 5.2 can be considered as an appreciation of things.

Characteristic preferences across the Chinese authors and the British authors: Figure 5.2 also shows that there are medium to highly significant differences in the use of Judgement and Appreciation. Judgement deals with either positive or negative assessments of human behaviour by reference to a system of social norms. If, as suggested in the prior research, Chinese people intend to keep 'face' in their communication (Hofstede, 2010; Lustig & Koester, 2010; Hu & Wang, 2014), they might be expected to use less Judgement and more Appreciation than British authors. However, the Chinese writers unexpectedly use more Judgement than their British counterparts (Chinese=5.33/1000wrd, British=4.67/1000wrd) with a highly significant difference. By contrast, the British writers use significantly more Appreciation than the Chinese writers (Chinese=20.03/1000wrd, British=27.47/1000wrd). To understand the numbers better, I will break down each category.

5.1.1.1 EXPRESSION OF JUDGEMENT

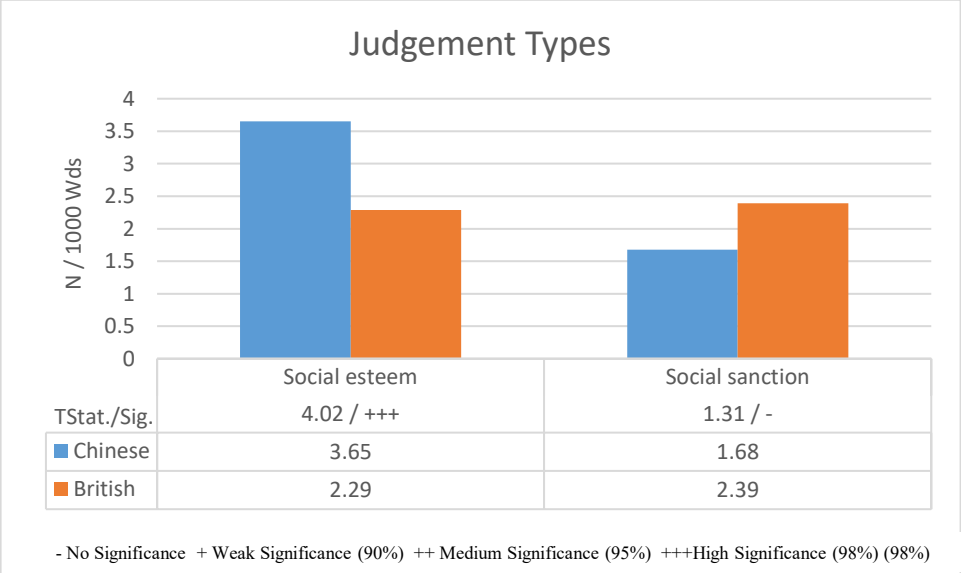


Figure 5.3: Judgement types

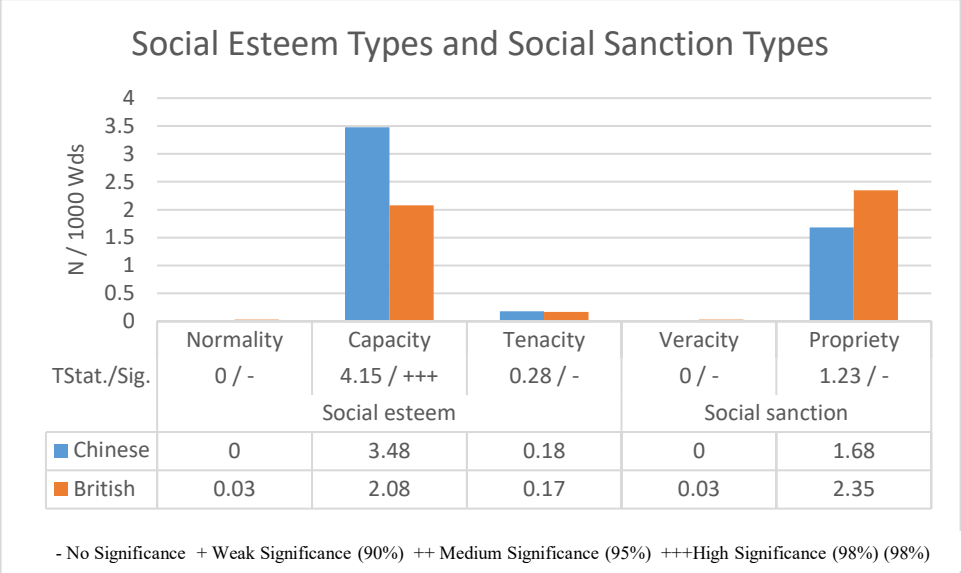


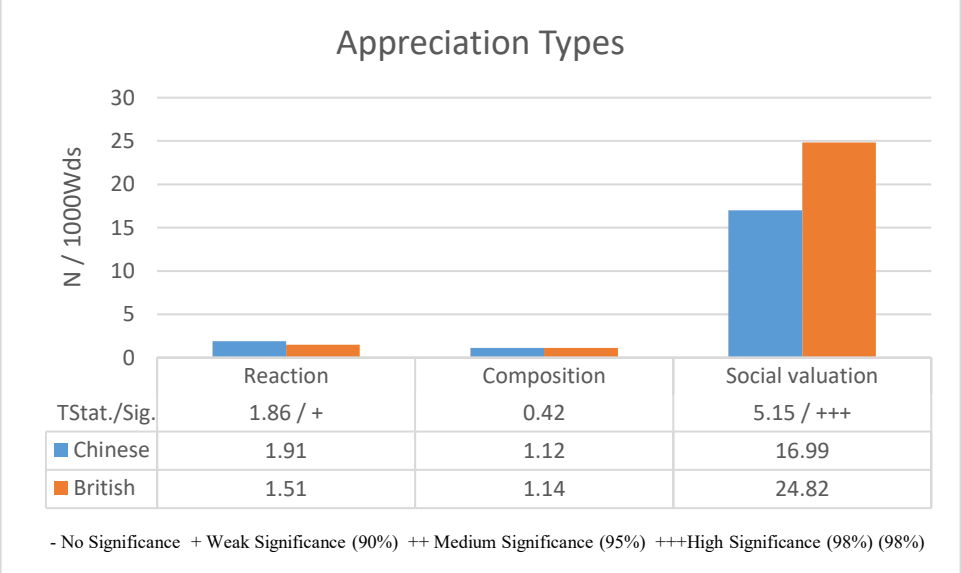
Figure 5.4: Social esteem types and Social sanction types

Common preferences among Judgement types: Both groups of authors prefer to evaluate the Capacity and Propriety of human behaviours rather than Normality, Veracity or Tenacity. This indicates that academics are not much concerned about, or do not see the necessity to overtly judge how unusual someone is, how resolute they are or how truthful they are. An alternative (or additional) explanation for this finding is that the real world topics of the samples in my data are not greatly relevant to Normality, Veracity or Tenacity. Although judgements about how capable someone is (Capacity) and how appropriate someone is (Propriety) are also overt attitudes towards people's character and the way they behave, there is apparently a role for them in academic discourse, whether judging the people in the research world or those in the real world.

Characteristic preferences across the Chinese authors and the British authors: In Figure 5.3, the normalized number of Social esteem markers in the Chinese authors' RAs is much bigger the normalized number in the British publications (Chinese=3.65/1000wrd, British=2.29/1000wrd), with a high significance. This is due to a significant difference in Judgements about Capacity (see Figure 5.4, Chinese=3.48/1000wrd, British=2.08/1000wrd). By contrast, the normalized number of Social sanction markers (see Figure 5.3) in the

Chinese authors' RAs is lower than that in the British RAs (Chinese=1.68/1000wrd, British=2.39/1000wrd) due to the difference in Propriety (see Figure 5.4, Chinese=1.68/1000wrd, British=2.35/1000wrd).However, it is impossible to determine, from the above two figures, who are the people being judged with respect to each preference and how people are judged. This will be analysed in the next chapter as part of a scrutiny across contexts.

5.1.1.2 Expression of Appreciation



	Reaction	Composition	Social valuation
TStat./Sig.	1.86 / +	0.42	5.15 / +++
Chinese	1.91	1.12	16.99
British	1.51	1.14	24.82

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%) (98%)

Figure 5.5: Appreciation types

Common preferences among Appreciation types: Social valuation accounts for the majority of Appreciation markers, and it also accounts for most of the explicit attitudinal evaluation. That is to say, the evaluative potential of personal feelings is most commonly expressed or reworded through the appraisal of things, performance and phenomena. This is probably a strategy used to balance subjectivity and objectivity in academic discourse.

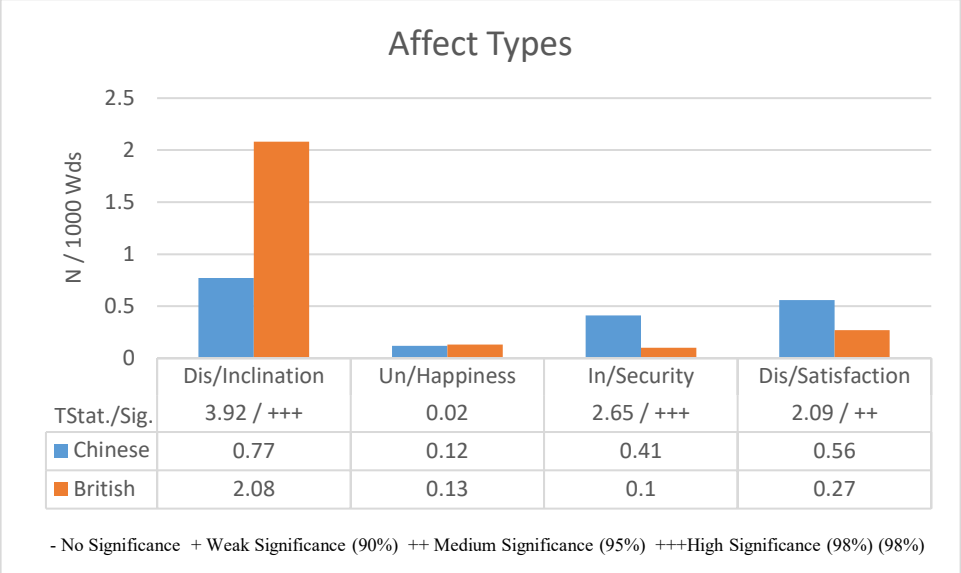
Characteristic preferences across the Chinese authors and the British authors: As presented in Figure 5.2, the British writers use significantly more Appreciation markers than the Chinese writers (Chinese=20.03/1000wrd, British=27.47/1000wrd). A closer analysis of the

subtypes provides greater insight into this regard. The Chinese authors use Reaction markers more frequently than the British writers (Chinese=1.91/1000wrd, British=1.51/1000wrd) with a weak significance, while the British authors use Social valuation markers more frequently than the Chinese writers (Chinese=16.99/1000wrd, British=24.82/1000wrd) with a high significance of 5.15. Reaction is associated with whether things catch our attention or please us, which is related to affect and therefore is the most subjective type of Appreciation. However, before any firm conclusion can be drawn from this, the Chinese authors' preference for Reaction needs to be analysed further, to determine what is being appraised. Social valuation is associated with whether things are innovative, authentic or timely, which is the most objective type of Appreciation and Attitude. However, the British authors' preference for Social valuation also needs further analysis in terms of what is being appraised.

Although Composition accounts for very little compared to other subtypes of Appreciation, and there is no statistical difference between the two sub-corpora, a glance over the concordances suggests that there is a big difference in the way this type of Appreciation is realized in different contexts. I will leave discussion of this to Chapter 6.

5.1.1.3 EXPRESSION OF AFFECT

In general, Affect is not a dominant feature in academic discourse. It is often stated that the expectation of academic discourse is to be 'objective' and oriented to a de-personalised account of research practices (e.g., Gilbert and Mulkay 1984, Bazerman 1988, Johns 1997), whereas Affect is probably the most explicit and personal way of expressing emotions. For this reason, however, it is also necessary to scrutinize the realizations to understand the kind of affect that is expressed and thus to gain an insight into why some authors choose it as an option in academic discourse.



	Dis/Inclination	Un/Happiness	In/Security	Dis/Satisfaction
TStat./Sig.	3.92 / +++	0.02	2.65 / +++	2.09 / ++
Chinese	0.77	0.12	0.41	0.56
British	2.08	0.13	0.1	0.27

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%) (98%)

Figure 5.6: Affect types

Common preferences among Affect types: the only area where the Chinese authors and the British authors use equal amounts of Affect is in the expression of Un/Happiness. These few markers are mostly used to describe the emotions of learners or teachers.

Characteristic preferences across the Chinese authors and the British authors: In Figure 5.6, the amount of Dis/Inclination in the British sub-corpus is almost triple that in the Chinese sub-corpus (Chinese=0.77/1000wrd, British=2.08/1000wrd) with a high significance. However, In/Security and Dis/Satisfaction markers appear much more frequently in the Chinese sub-corpus than in the British sub-corpus with high and medium significance respectively (In/Security: Chinese=0.41/1000wrd, British=0.1/1000wrd; Dis/Satisfaction: Chinese=0.56/1000wrd, British=0.27/1000wrd). These categories need to be analysed across contexts to see if most of them occur when appraising real world happenings. It would be surprising if they tended to show the writers' own emotions. I will discuss this further in Chapter 6.

5.1.2 Expression of evoked Attitude

Up to this point, I have presented evaluation that has been directly inscribed in discourse through the use of attitudinal lexis. However, a total of 66 indirect attitudinal evaluations were also expressed in the data. Most of these were realized through idiomatic metaphors using ideational meaning to provoke an attitudinal response in readers. As Martin and White (2005: 62) explain, this kind of 'selection of ideational meanings is enough to invoke evaluation, even in the absence of attitudinal lexis that tells us directly how to feel'.

The only idiom to occur in both sub-corpora is '*play a … role in*'. The Chinese authors applied many more idiomatic metaphors in their RAs, as illustrated in the normalized number of idiomatic metaphors (Chinese=1.33/1000wrd; British=0.71/1000wrd) with a high significance (see Figure 5.7). Some idiomatic metaphors are fixed expressions, but they can also indicate the similarity of two things or actions, for rhetorical effect (Taylor, 2012). Most of the idiomatic metaphors in my data express attitudinal evaluation rather than the grading of attitudes, or engagement with other community members (see examples in Table 5.1).

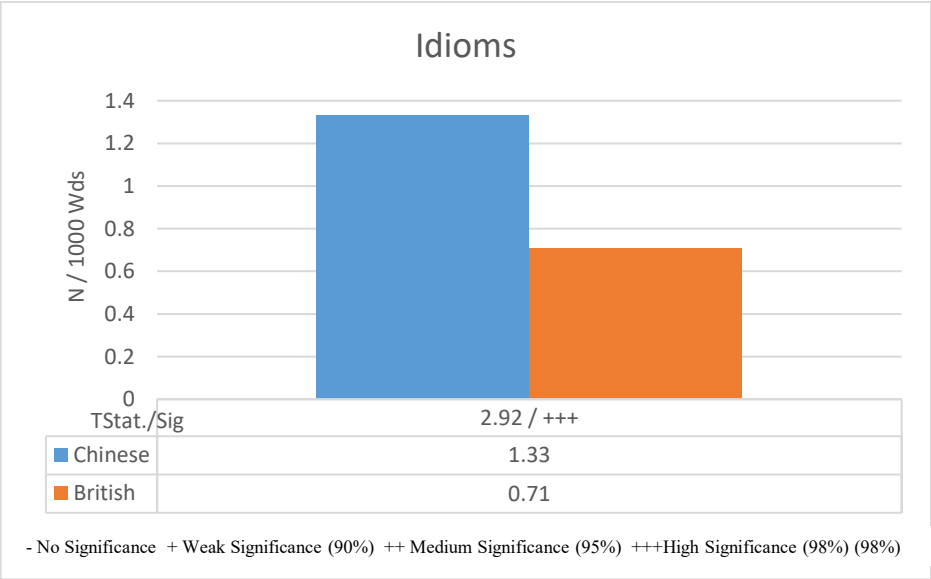


Figure 5.7: Idioms

The Chinese RAs
Some students who are ill-prepared for this particular learning style with less ability of self-restraint are easy to **chew the fat** or play QQ farm fames which result in less concentration on on-line learning and failure in learning tasks. The QQ group leader should **go for broke** to invite and encourage more English scholars to perform the duty of learning …… Langer (1990) found that students' overall orientation toward literary meaning building involved exploring **a horizon of** possibilities, …… In other words, argumentative writing can be used as an effective tool that indexes the writers' pragmatic sensitivity and written discourse competence in the second/foreign language by **shedding light on** their ability to produce linguistically and culturally appropriate discourse in that language. Some scholars have maintained that the state, the market and traditional Chinese culture are the three important **ingredients** in the formation of gender-based discourse. Endowed with multitudinous important functions, the theory of cohesion has obviously **broadened the horizon** of ESL/EFL investigators, and has **blazed a novel trail** for their writing teaching and studies as it should be. The findings not only confirmed the conflicts between China and Japan on the issue of the disputed Diaoyu Island, but also identified the political power of US who always **poked its nose into** the issue. Unfortunately, vocabulary is often ignored and students are **bogged down** with a dilemma of guessing words in the EFL teaching context. …EFL need not be learned entirely via a **long and daunting road** of blind memorization …

The British RAs
When these scholars accuse others of being unwilling to follow the evidence where it leas, they are **open to the charge of throwing stones from a glass house.** Scientific accountability is not a **one-way street**: …… These examples suggest that the **doors are open to** the development of learning contexts that are … …, this study also **opens up useful avenues** for future research in …. In this way, **turf wars** have heightened the intellectual debate about …

Table 5.1: Idiomatic metaphors

Martin and White (2005) argue that some metaphors can have the effect of intensifying feelings. In this respect, using idiomatic metaphors can be a favourable strategy in academic writing. As Ortony (1975) argues, metaphor enables writers to express experiences in rich and vivid language, making it explanatory through the reconceptualization of domains. For example, in the Chinese sub-corpus, 'broadened the horizon' (in Table 5.1), is more evocative and concise than 'increased the range of things that ESL/EFL investigators know about, have experienced, or are able to do'. Metaphors also enhance the ability of readers to grasp an abstract, unfamiliar or difficult-to-grasp concept by expressing it in terms of a more concrete, familiar, easy-to-grasp concept. An example in the British sub-corpus, 'they are open to the charge of throwing stones from a glass house' (in Table 5.1), intends to express a negative evaluation of the logic that people should not criticize others for faults that they have themselves. This greatly assists readers in linking common sense to the writer's abstract idea and evaluation, as long as they are familiar with the idiom. According to Lackoff (2008), metaphors can also influence the frame or cast of mind of the reader on an issue, perhaps leading to action. For example, one of the Chinese RAs uses the idiom 'go for broke' (in Table 5.1) to advocate endeavour in applying QQ in language learning.

However, other functions of metaphor are not in line with the conventions of the academic community, or at least the western academic community. Metaphors can add ornament or a poetic flourish to language, and can also pragmatically have a humorous and entertaining aim. They are typical features of spoken, conversational discourse, which is characterized by personal and interpersonal functions (Biber *et al,* 1999). It has been noticed that most idiomatic metaphors found in this study are Social valuation makers; only one is a Judgement marker and there is no Affect evaluation. The greater preference for metaphorical evaluation in the Chinese sub-corpus indicates that the Chinese authors may see this as a strategy to be more expressive and aesthetic, although in fact Western research discourse expects formality, precision, clarity and focus. As Martin and White suggested, it is crucial to consider the readers' position; in the Western academic community a reader may see such use as distracting, and it may thus lead to pragmatic failure.

5.1.3 Polarity of attitudinal meaning

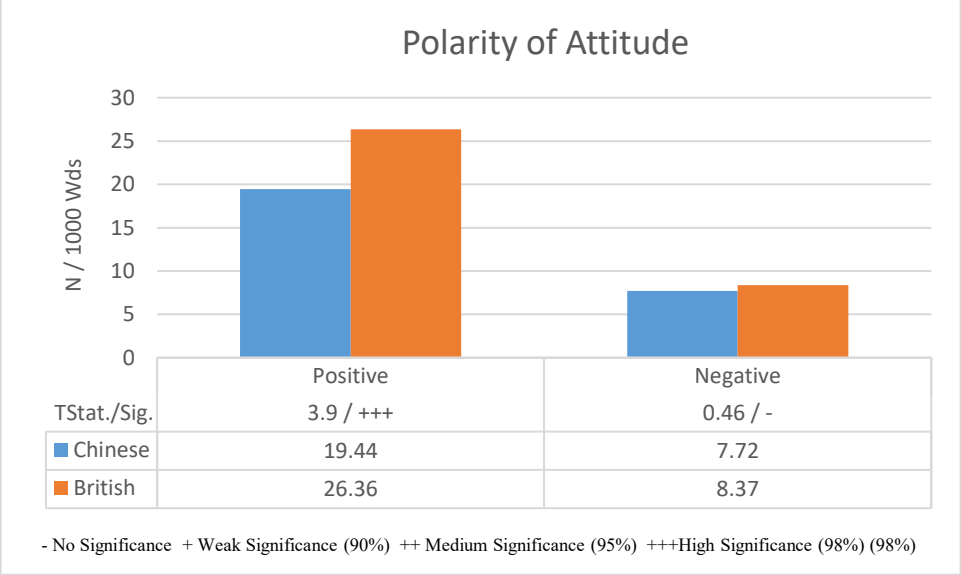


Figure 5.8: Polarity of Attitude

In terms of the polarity of the attitudinal markers in this study, the British authors use positive attitudinal evaluation much more frequently than the Chinese writers (Chinese=19.44/1000wrd, British=26.36/1000wrd) with a strong significance. In contrast, the British authors and the Chinese authors are fairly similar in terms of using negative attitudinal evaluation, with the former slightly higher than the latter (British=8.37/1000wrd, Chinese=7.72/1000wrd). However, the distribution across contexts and moves needs to be analysed to determine the different purposes behind these numbers. I will discuss this in the following Chapter 6 and Chapter 7.

The data in this study also show that the polarity of some attitudinal markers is reversed (they are counted as negative in Figure 5.8) through being preceded by negation markers such as *no, never, not*, etc. Apart from one instance, all such examples are of positive attitudes being reversed into negative values (see Example 5.3 and Example 5.4)

Example 5.3

It is **not easy** for non-native English speakers to employ them in a native-like way (Chinese).

Example 5.4

Jucker and Ziv (1998) claim that monofunctionality or multifunctionality is **not** a **useful** criterion of whether a linguistic item is a DM or not (Chinese).

This shows that when announcing a new claim that negatively evaluates an entity or proposition, academics sometimes presume an optimistic position (e.g., *easy, useful*) on the part of the general audience in the community, and disaffiliate themselves from this by taking the opposite position (e.g., *not*).

Many of the positive attitudinal markers being denied are combined with the maximised words '*always*' and '*most*', although this only appears in the British sub-corpus (see Example 5.5 and Example 5.6).

Example 5.5

A spoken corpus based upon native speaker data may tell us the most frequent forms in use but some of these may be linked directly to a particular cultural identity and therefore may **not** be the **most useful** items for learners.

Example 5.6

If this model does work, it suggests that output practice in the English language class may **not always be** a productive or necessary use of classroom time, ……

There are two possible reasons for denying a superlative evaluation. One can be that the writer expects an over-optimistic attitude from the audience. The other one can be that the author expect his/her audience to be optimistic before making a negative claim, but however does not intend to completely disaffiliate with the audience. Therefore, 'Deny + Superlative' can be a strategy to tone down an opposite position. This will be discussed further in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7.

5.2 Expression of Graduation

According to Martin and White (2005: 135), "a defining property of all attitudinal meanings is their gradability"; this construes greater or lesser degrees of positivity or negativity. Non-attitudinal meanings that are not intrinsically evaluative can be graded to evoke attitudinal meanings (Hood, 2004: 85). Evoked Graduation resources provide authors with the opportunity to avoid overt claims and balance the overall voice. Figure 5.9 shows the distribution of Inscribed and Evoked Graduation in the two subcorpora. It indicates that the majority of the graduation markers are encoded to evoke attitudes by grading experiential entities, and that both the Chinese authors and the British authors tend to implicitly express their views within the Graduation system. This is in line with the finding in the Attitude

system that both groups of authors apply metaphorized 'human agents' to transform personal Affect or Judgement into the less personal Attitude type, Appreciation.

However, there are still differences in the amount of inscribed Graduation and evoked Graduation across the two groups of authors, as shown in Figure 5.9. This is because the Chinese authors grade more inscribed Attitude (e.g., *very important*) than the British authors (Chinese=4.33/1000wrd, British=3.36/1000wrd) with a high significance, while the British authors apply more Graduation to amplify experiential meaning (e.g., *many studies have examined*…) (Chinese=33.69/1000wrd, British=40.89/1000wrd) with a medium significance. However, to understand whether the Chinese authors are truly more interpersonal than their British counterpart in terms of grading techniques, we will examine Graduation within contexts in the next chapter to see what exactly is being appraised. I will also investigate which types of inscribed Graduation are particularly favoured by the Chinese authors.

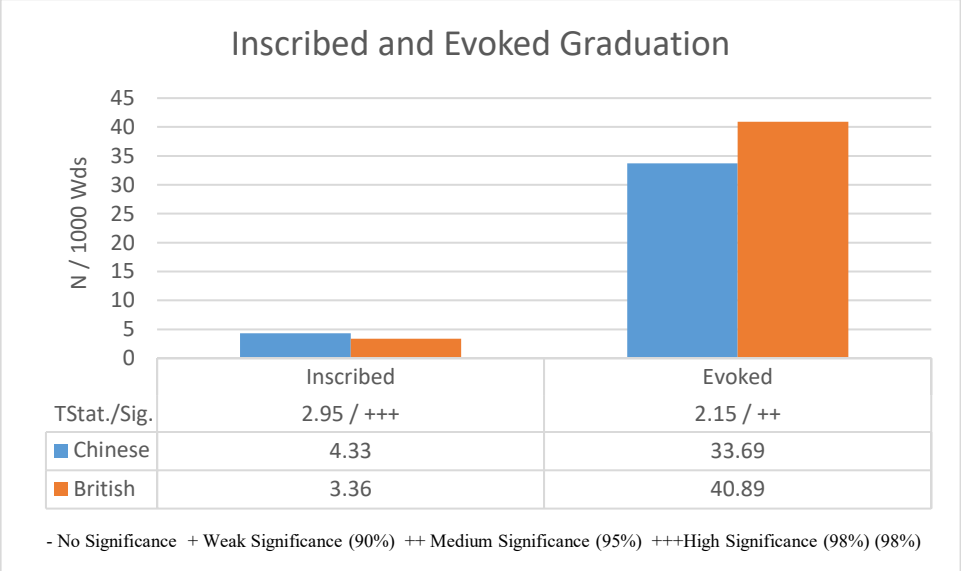
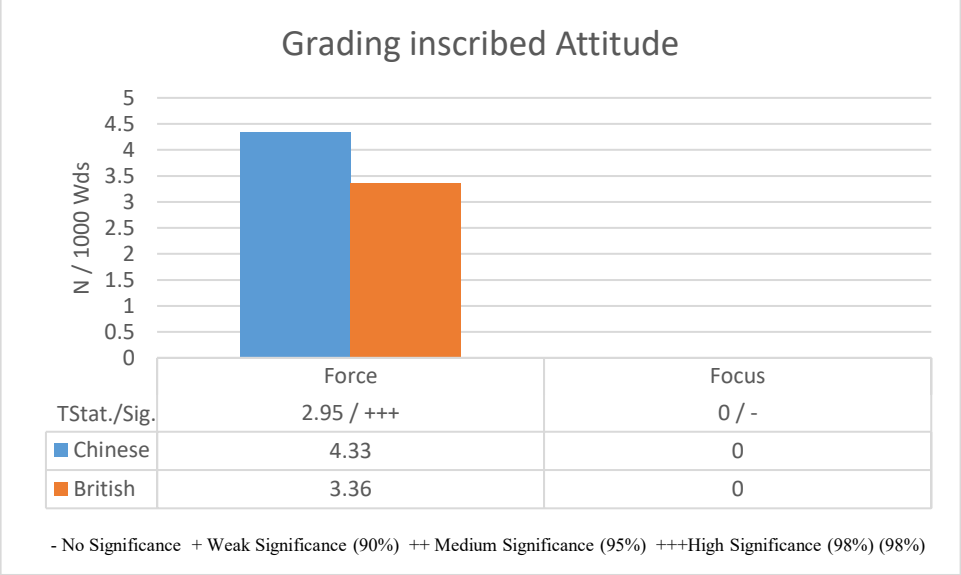


Figure 5.9: Inscribed and evoked Graduation

5.2.1 Grading inscribed Attitude

Taking a global view, Figure 5.10 illustrates that all markers grading inscribed evaluation appear to grade Force (either stronger or weaker Attitude) while no markers appear to grade Focus (prototypicality or outer margins of a category). Grading the Focus of an attitudinal entity can be realised in ways such as 'true interest' or 'real racism'. Hood (2004: 84) suggested that "when attitudinal phenomena are graded as Focus in this way, their meanings appear to shift away from the interpersonal towards the experiential". I argue that Focus of an inscribed attitude does not appear in this study because the subject I examined, applied linguistics, is not concerned with the truth or authenticity of an attitudinal perception; rather, it aims to solve real world problems in terms of learning and teaching languages. However, Focus of an attitudinal entity may appear in disciplines such as Philosophy that aim to discuss fundamental problems, including truth, values and meanings.

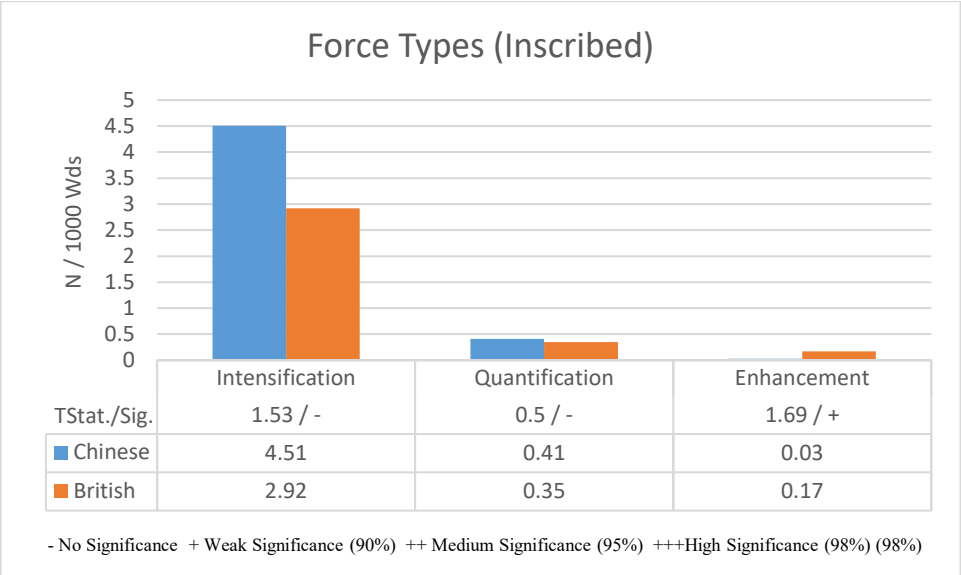
Within the category of Force, most of the markers in my data are used to Intensify an Attitude (see Figure 5.11).



	Force	Focus
TStat./Sig.	2.95 / +++	0 / -
Chinese	4.33	0
British	3.36	0

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%) (98%)

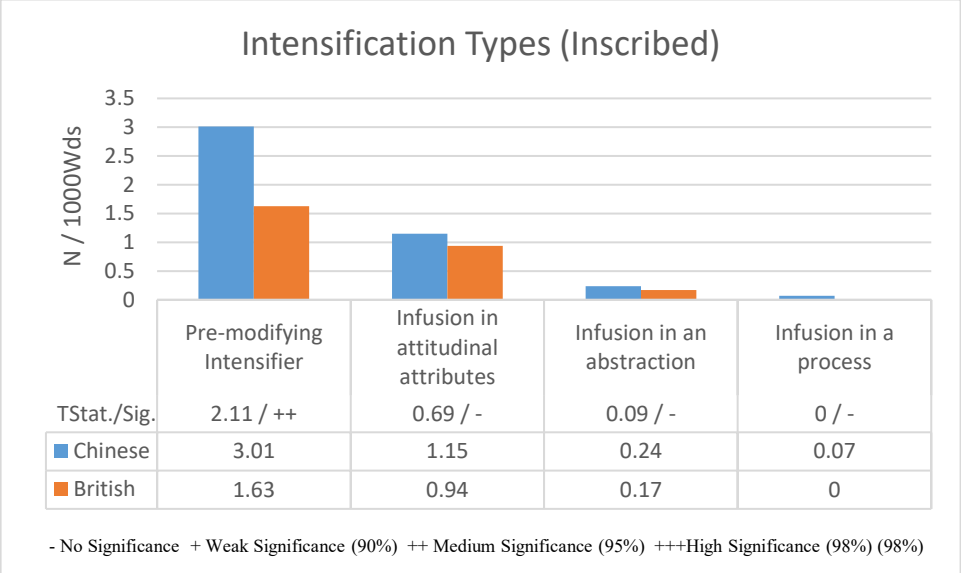
Figure 5.10: Grading inscribed Attitude



	Intensification	Quantification	Enhancement
TStat./Sig.	1.53 / -	0.5 / -	1.69 / +
Chinese	4.51	0.41	0.03
British	2.92	0.35	0.17

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%) (98%)

Figure 5.11: Force types (inscribed)



	Pre-modifying Intensifier	Infusion in attitudinal attributes	Infusion in an abstraction	Infusion in a process
TStat./Sig.	2.11 / ++	0.69 / -	0.09 / -	0 / -
Chinese	3.01	1.15	0.24	0.07
British	1.63	0.94	0.17	0

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%) (98%)

Figure 5.12: Intensification types

Among the grammatical choices within Intensification markers, both the Chinese writers and the British writers prefer to use Pre-modifying intensifiers, such as *more/so/quite/**er* + inscribed attitudinal markers. The second preferred type is Infusion in attitudinal attributes, such as *important/essential/key* + experiential entities. The third type is Infusion

in an abstraction, such as *importance, advantage* and *significance* (when this word does not refer to statistical significance). In my data there are only two instances of Infusion in a process: *enhance* and *deepen*.

Although there are very few instances of Enhancement (grading the circumstance of a manner) in the two sub-corpora, the British writers used Enhancement five times more than the Chinese writers, with a low significance (see Figure 5.11). This category is also the only inscribed Graduation type which the British authors apply more than the Chinese authors. For example:

Example 5.7

Fraser (1996, 1999) **further** develops the work of both Redeker (1991) and Schiffrin, (1987) with some difference in emphasis. (British)

Example 5.8

This complementarity is first considered **briefly** from Literacies perspectives, then **in more detail** from SFL perspectives. (Chinese)

Example 5.9

Arguably it is not only desirable to draw on both SFL and AcLits traditions, but to not do so may **severely** weaken the findings of both. (British)

Details of each category across contexts will be examined in Chapter 6.

5.2.2 Graduation evoking attitudinal meaning

As shown previously in Figure 5.9, most Graduation is applied implicitly to evoke attitudinal meaning, and it is particularly favoured by the British authors rather than the Chinese authors. According to Figure 5.13, this preference for implicit Graduation by the British authors is basically a preference for assessing the degree of intensity or amount, namely, Force (Chinese=27.6/1000wrd; British=34.81/1000wrd), with a medium significance.

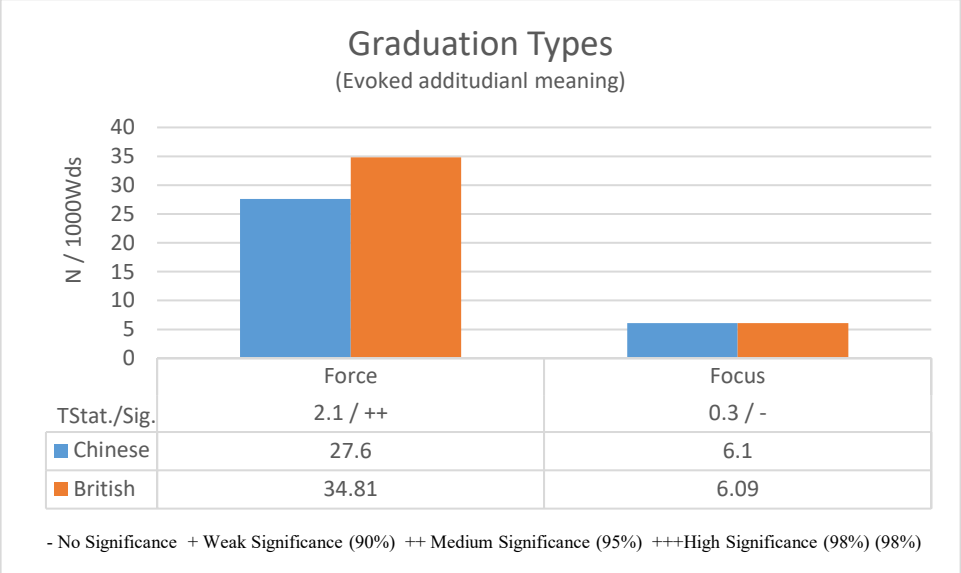


Figure 5.13: Graduation types (evoked attitudinal meaning)

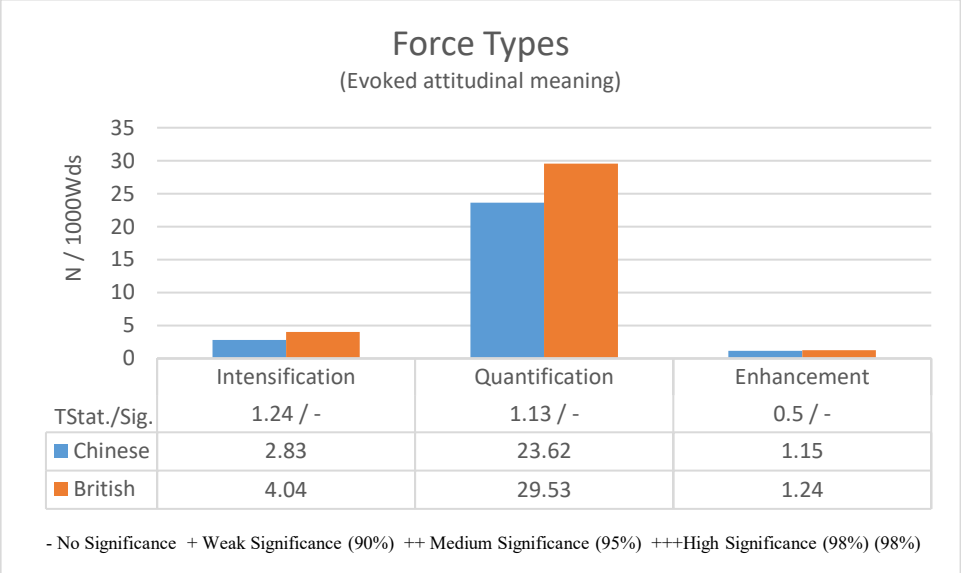
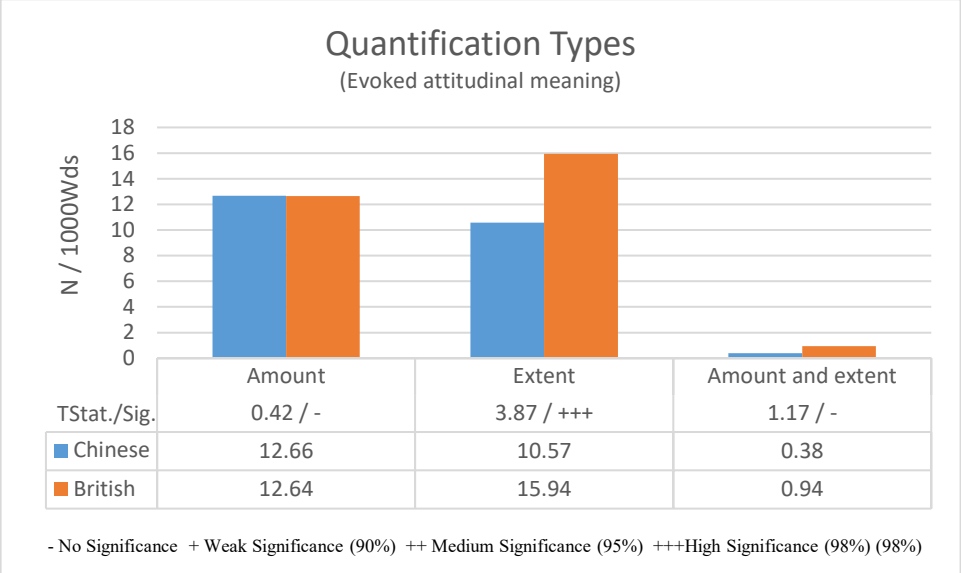


Figure 5.14: Force types (evoked attitudinal meaning)

Within the types of Force (see Figure 5.14) both groups prefer to evoke evaluation through Quantification, and the British authors use more markers in every type of Force than their Chinese counterparts. Although no significance was found overall, there are significant differences in terms of subcategories of Quantification.



	Amount	Extent	Amount and extent
TStat./Sig.	0.42 / -	3.87 / +++	1.17 / -
Chinese	12.66	10.57	0.38
British	12.64	15.94	0.94

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%) (98%)

Figure 5.15: Quantification types (evoked attitudinal meaning)

The British sub-corpus makes more frequent use of Graduation to grade Extent (Chinese=10.57/1000wrd, British=15.94/1000wrd) with a high significance. It also makes more use of Amount-and-extent (Chinese=0.38/1000wrd, British=0.94/1000wrd) with no statistical significance (see Figure 5.15). The following sentence is an example of Extent:

Example 5.10

Such a claim has **largely emerged** within cognitive psychology and sociocultural theories of learning and the pedagogical approaches such as collaborative learning.

The difference in Extent is due to the significant difference in the use of markers for grading scope (see Figure 5.16). What are being graded in terms of scope will be discussed further in the next chapter, with reference to findings from the analysis of contexts.

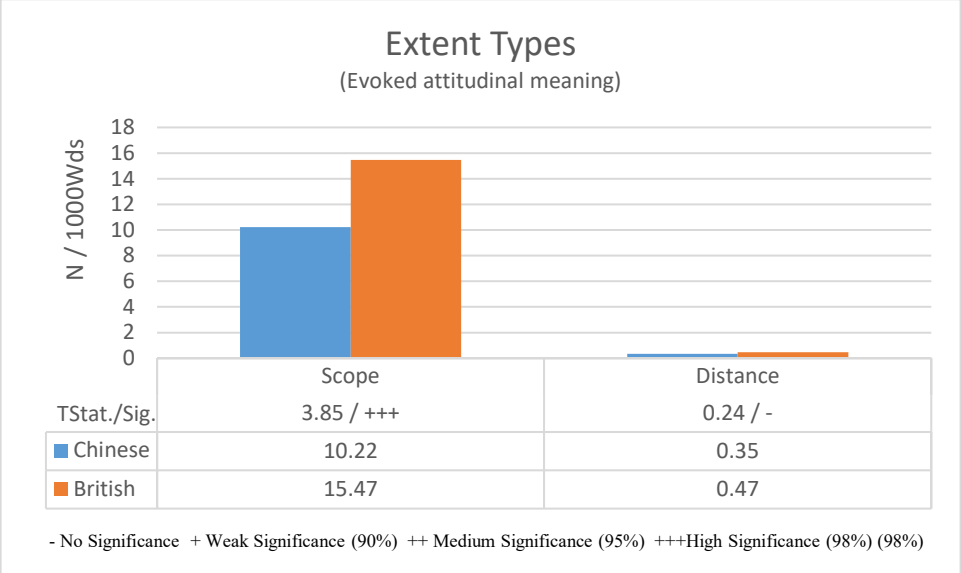


Figure 5.16: Extent types (Evoked attitudinal meaning)

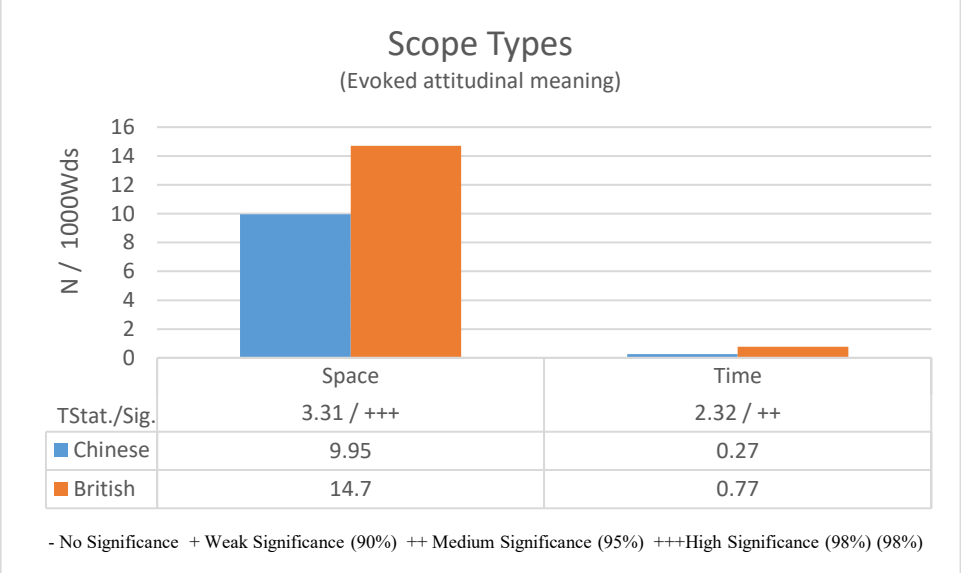
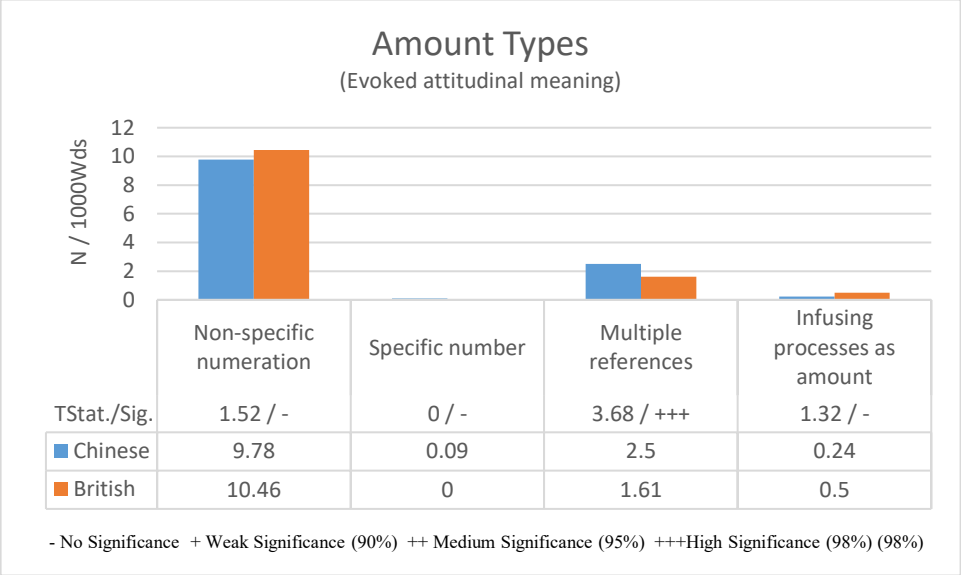


Figure 5.17: Scope types (evoked attitudinal meaning)

Although there is no significant difference between the normalized numbers of Amount markers in the two sub-corpora, according to Figure 5.15, it is interesting that the Chinese authors apply the subcategory of Amount, Multiple-references, much more than the British

writers (Chinese=2.50/1000wrd, British=1.61/1000wrd) with a high significance (see Figure 5.18).



	Non-specific numeration	Specific number	Multiple references	Infusing processes as amount
TStat./Sig.	1.52 / -	0 / -	3.68 / +++	1.32 / -
Chinese	9.78	0.09	2.5	0.24
British	10.46	0	1.61	0.5

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%) (98%)

Figure 5.18: Amount types (evoked attitudinal meaning)

Extensive use of Multiple-references can strike readers at first sight as a sign that the author has a great deal of evidence for claims, and is very knowledgeable of the field. However, multiple-citation can cause problems in that the author's position may not be made sufficiently explicit to the reader. This is particularly likely if all the multiple references are non-integral and without any projection (e.g., reporting verbs). To understand if this is the case in the Chinese sub-corpus, I categorized the usage of multiple references and counted the normalized number in each category.

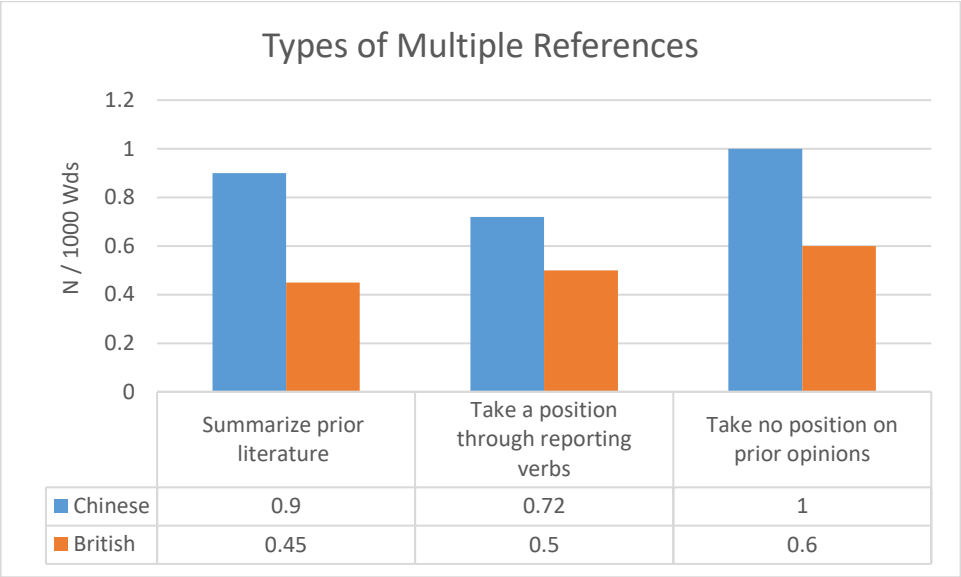


Figure 5.19: Types of multiple references

Figure 5.19 shows that the Chinese authors actually use more multiple references projected by reporting verbs than the British authors (Chinese=0.72/1000wrd, British=0.50/1000wrd). This suggests that the Chinese academics take this as a strategy to project a knowledgeable image, and effectively communicate with more researchers. For example, in Table 5.2, the long list of references *'(Biesenbach-Lucas, 2006, 2007; Chen, 2001, 2006; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011; Hardford and Bardovi-Harlig, 1996)*' not only summarizes the research relevant to the Chinese author's own study, but also shows the great number of prior studies the author had reviewed. The list of references *'(e.g., Anderson, 2005; Soriano & Bajo, 2007)*' is used by the Chinese author to support the reported belief that intentional forgetting can reflect the function of retrieval inhibition in memory control. However, at the same time the Chinese authors also use more multiple references without taking a position on prior opinions (Chinese=1.00/1000words, British=0.60/1000wrd). For example, in Table 5.2, the list of refrences *'(e.g., Andres et al., 2004; Oien & Goernert 2003; Shen et al., 2001)'* is added in the end of the sentence without taking any position towards the claim. This may indicate that the Chinese authors sometimes treat prior opinions as unquestioned knowledge.

Summarizing prior literature
Considering these facts, a number of L2 pragmatists combined interlanguage pragmatics and speech act theory with computer mediated communication to investigate L2 students' email discourse in academia **(Biesenbach-Lucas, 2006, 2007; Chen, 2001, 2006; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011; Hardford and Bardovi-Jarlig, 1996).** Most of these studies are related to the new TOEFL **(e.g., Cumming, Grant, Mulcahy-Ernt, & Powers, 2004; Cumming *et al*., 2005; Cumming, Kantor, & Powers, 2002; Trites & McGroarty, 2005).**
Taking a position through reporting verbs
Moreover, it was found that the inserted commas could elicit P600 if they could raise uncertainty on the sentence structure **(Steinhauer, 2003; Steinhauer & Friederici, 2001).** In this study, we adopted a cognitive approach to emotion, and gave special attention to whether intentional forgetting, which is believed to reflect the function of retrieval inhibition in memory control **(e.g., Anderson, 2005; Soriano & Bajo, 2007),** plays a part in regulating anxiety in SL/FL learning.
Taking no position on prior research
Intentional forgetting is able to facilitate cognitive activities by suppressing interfering memories and freeing cognitive resources **(e.g., Andres et al., 2004; Oien & Goernert 2003; Shen et al., 2001).** Over-attention on listening strategies should be avoided, bcause it might hinder the achievement of word-level competency **(Krashen, 2011; Renandya & Farrell, 2011).**

Table 5.2: Types of multiple references

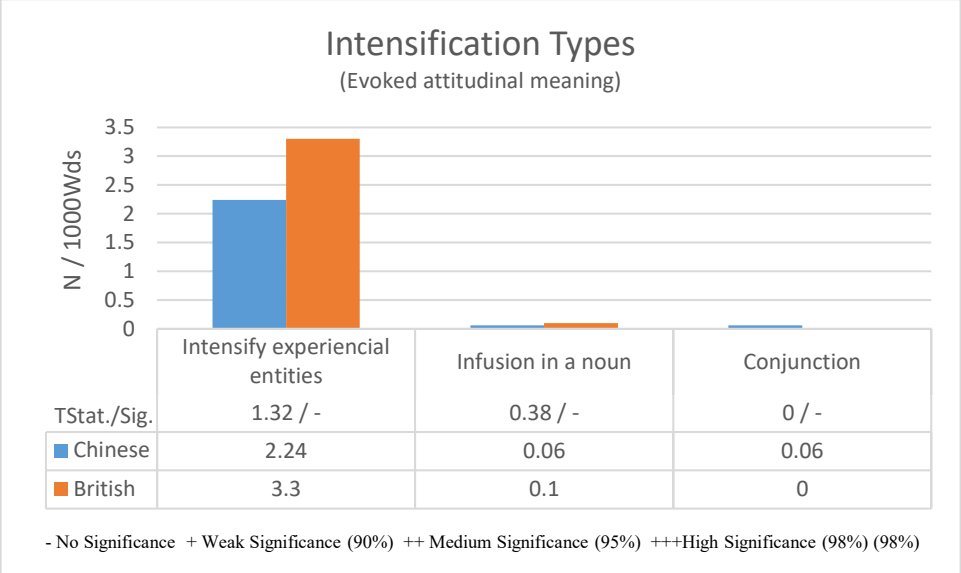


Figure 5.20: Intensification types (evoked attitudinal meaning)

As shown in Figure 5.14, the number of Intensification markers ranks second among the types of evoked Force with the British academics using more than the Chinese academics. However, this difference has no statistical significance. A scrutiny of its sub-categories also reveals no significant results. Therefore, I will skip to the third category of evoked Force, Enhancement.

In terms of Enhancement, although no significance is found in the results, there is a big difference in the preferences for Infusion in a process (see Figure 5.21). The two most frequent realizations in each sub-corpus are presented in Table 5.3 (lemmatized) with the number of occurrences.

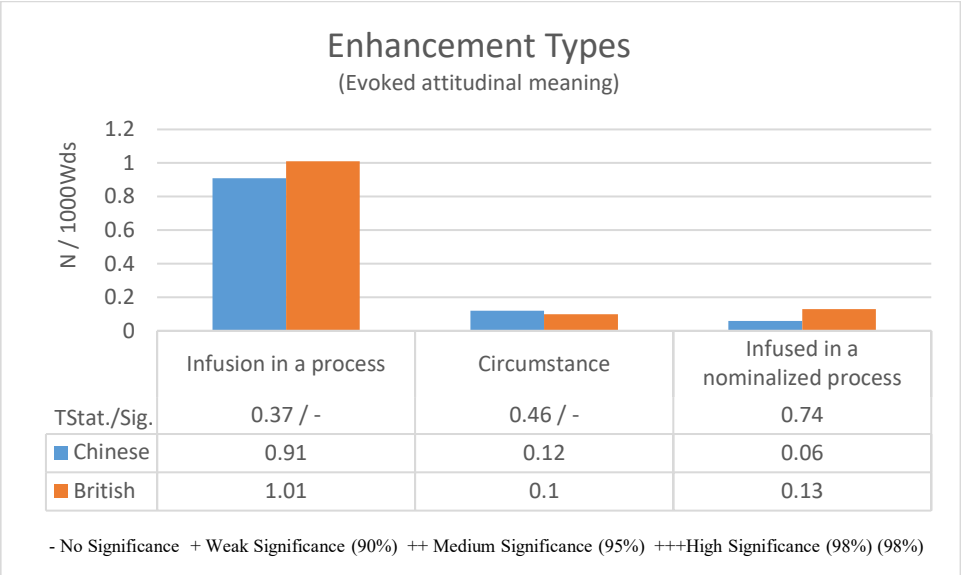


Figure 5.21: Enhancement type (evoked attitudinal meaning)

The Chinese authors	British Chinese authors
- stress** 24	- highlight** 45
- elaborate* 15	- compare** 15

Table 5.3: Realizations of Infusion in a process

Most of the enhanced verbs are related to research process – the activities implemented by other researchers and studies or the current author and study. There is not only a difference in the amount but also a difference in the choice of words. The Chinese authors prefer to grade verbal processes (e.g. by using *stress* and *elaborate*) while the British authors prefer to grade material processes (e.g. by using *highlight* and *compare*). An enhanced verbal process indicates a stronger argumentative situation where the listener becomes more visible; it evokes a sense of participation and position-taking. By contrast, an enhanced material process can indicate a focus on the action rather than communication. For example, the word 'highlight' plays a role of making more visible something that is generally not salient (see examples in Table 5.4). Although these markers count for very little in the data, this feature seems to deviate from the general tendency for the Chinese to be less argumentative.

The Chinese RAs: verbal processes
The importance of the vocabulary knowledge was **stressed** in this study, and the ability to understand the words was the prerequisite of comprehending academic listening material. The concept of cohesion, first proposed by Halliday and Hasan (1976) and further **elaborated** by Halliday (1994), Halliday and Hasan (1985), has enacted an exceptionally key role in the field of text analysis.
The British RAs: material process
Covering a two-year period (the learners were fourteen years old at the start), the article **highlights** the way in which their identity as learners emerged as significant to the development of bot autonomy and motivation, … We might use the type of noticing, task and consolidation framework we have suggested and **compare** it with III or PPP, using larger sample sizes where possible.

Table 5.4: Verbal processes and material processes

The biggest difference in terms of evoking attitude as Focus (see Figure 5.22) lies in the markers describing Phase: reality of the process (see Figure 5.23).

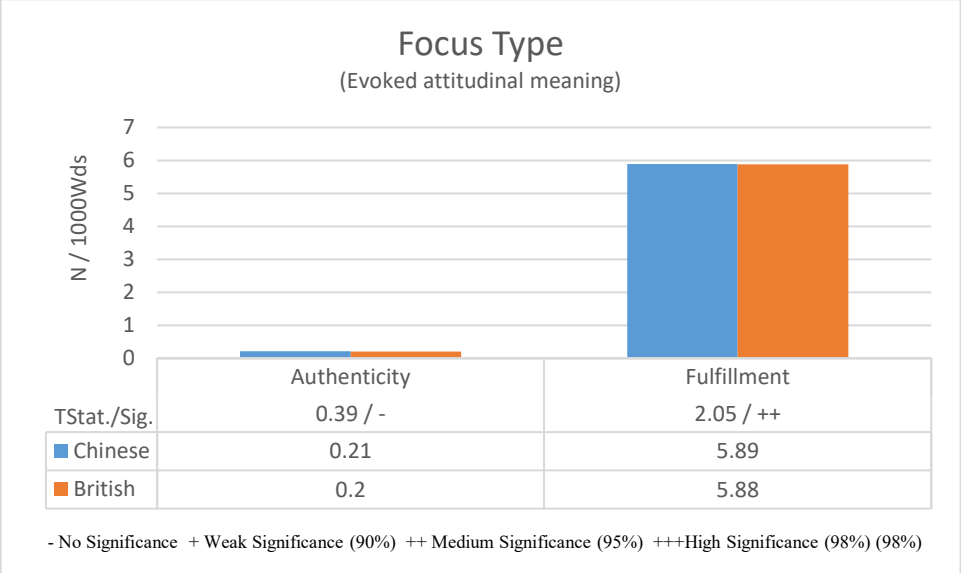


Figure 5.22: Focus type (Evoked attitudinal meaning)

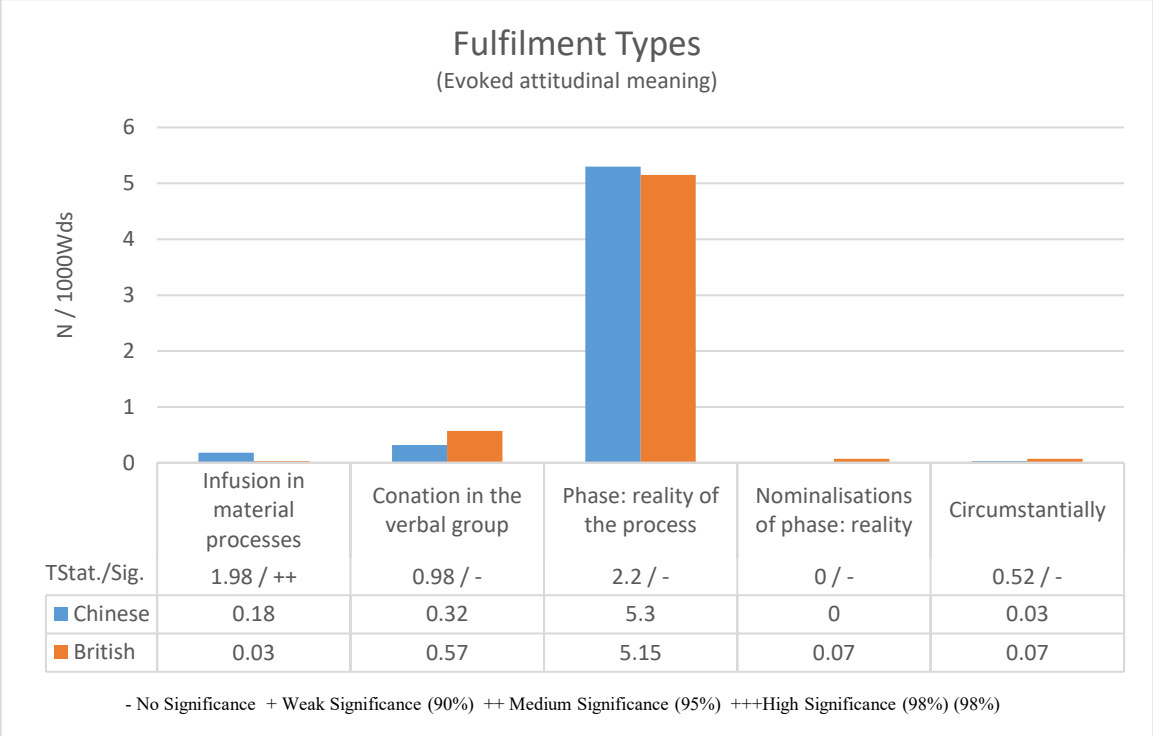


Figure 5.23: Fulfilment types (evoked attitudinal meaning)

The Chinese authors prefer Completion	The British authors prefer Conation
- fulfil/fill the gap/realize/meet/achieve… 26 - attempt/try/seek to 8	- fulfil/fill the gap 8 - attempt/try/seek to 20

Table 5.5: Realizations of Phase: reality of the process

Most of the realizations in both sub-corpora are used to express research aims (see Table 5.5). According to Hood (2004: 101), "some process as a category of experiential meaning can be graded as focus in terms of conation or completion", and by interpreting them from the point of view of graduation, "they can also be seen to imply an attitudinal meaning as Appreciation: value". In this particular case, the difference in the use of fulfilment types indicates that the Chinese authors and the British authors have different perceptions of the role of research aims. It seems that the Chinese authors express the aim to complete something, or solve a problem. Such a strong claim creates high expectations in the mind of the reader and signals the high value of the current study. Two strategies have been found

together with this usage. Some writers put forth an aim which is not related to solving a real problem. For example, one author writes that ‘few studies have been conducted on the effect of Mandarin Chinese DMs on the use of English DMs by L1 Chinese speakers of English. Thus the goal of this study is to fill this gap’. In other words, the aim is to be the one additional study that analyses the effect of Mandarin Chinese DMs on the use of English DMs by L1 Chinese. This is actually not difficult to achieve. The other strategy is to list very specific research questions and claim to fill the gap. This is straight to the point and realistic, and projects a valuable image of the study. However, the British authors are more conservative – an aim is an attempt, and the actual results can vary, thus leaving space for limitations or unexpected findings.

McDonald (1994) and Halliday and Matthiessen (1999:299) also argued in the early days that in English, the assumption is that the process is complete, and if not, this needs to be marked in some respect. This contrasts with Chinese writers, where the assumption is that the process is still underway; in this case if the process is not still underway then phase functions to signal completion.

Under Focus, it is possible to sharpen the prototypicality or completion of a category, or soften it so as to characterize an instance as having only marginal membership in the category. According to Martin and White (2005:138), sharpening of values is similar to intensification and softening of values is similar to hedging and vague language.

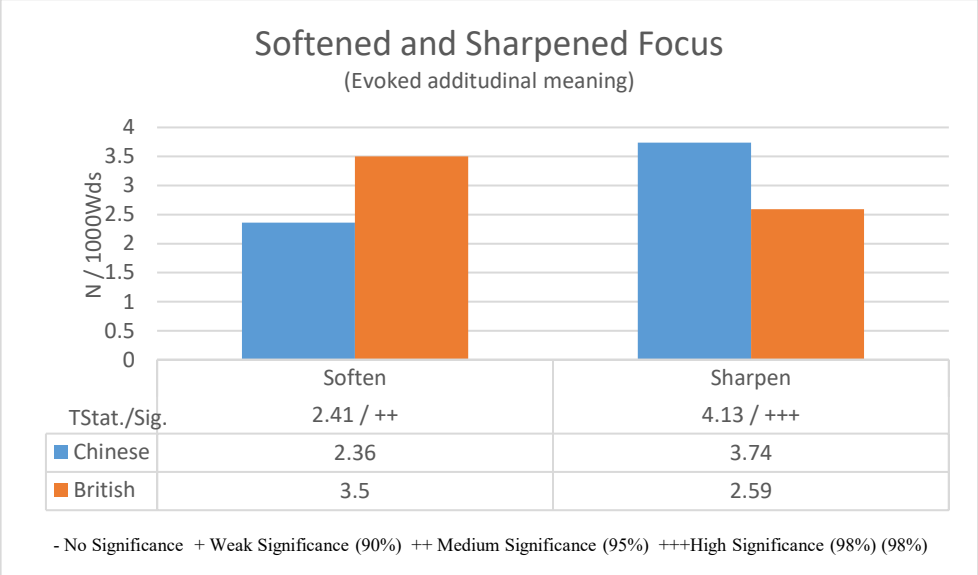


Figure 5.24: Softened and sharpened Focus

It is interesting that the British writers use more of the Soften markers (British=3.50/1000wrd, Chinese=2.36/1000wrd, medium significance) but much fewer of the Sharpen markers (British=2.59/1000wrd, Chinese=3.74/1000wrd, high significance) than the Chinese writers (see Figure 5.24). Realizations under this dimension are presented in Table 5.6 and Table 5.7.

The Chinese authors	The British authors
- suggest* 18	- suggest* 48
- propose* 14	- attempt* 9
- claim* 8	- indicate*8
- argue* 4	- seek* to 6
- indicate* 4	- try* to 5
- predicate* 2	- claim* 5
- assume* 2	- argue* 4
- seek* to 2	- aim* to 3
- suppose* 2	- propose* 3
- try* to 2	- assumption* 2
- aim* to 2	- believe* 2
.	.
.	.

Table 5.6: Soften markers

The Chinese authors	The British authors
- find* 54 - show* 22 - fulfill* 6 - discover* 6 - prove* 5 - reveal* 5 - demonstrate* 5 - fill* the gap 4 - bridge* the gap 3 - realize the goal 1 - meet the demand 1 . . .	- find* 35 - show* 21 - conclude* 2 - reveal* 2 - true *2 - real* 1 - demonstrate*1 . . .

Table 5.7: Sharpen markers

Reality-of-the-process markers take up the majority of all focus markers. These processes indicate an epistemic stance towards the truth-value of a projected proposition. From these two tables, we can see that the British writers prefer to use 'suggest' much more than the Chinese writers do. This may reflect a preference by the British authors to tone down projected references. It may also be a reflection of their preference to tone down their own claims in conclusions.

5.3 Expression of Engagement

Martin and White (2005) differentiate two contrastive phenomena – heteroglossia and monoglossia – which describe the broad types of relationship we choose to encode in discourse. In this study, as explained in the methodology section, heteroglossia is signalled by markers, but monoglossia is recognized at the sentence level. As presented in Figure 5.25, the British writers apply more Engagement markers– there is a significant preference for using more heteroglossic markers in the British sub-corpus (Chinese=24.92/1000wrd, British=28.55/1000wrd) while there is a highly significant preference for more monoglossic sentences in the Chinese sub-corpus (Chinese=12.05/1000wrd, British=9.01/1000wrd). This

indicates that the British authors perceive the role of writing to be more social, involving the positioning of writers and their texts within the heterogeneity of social positions, and that they therefore make a greater or lesser alignment with a set of more or less convergent/divergent social positions put at risk by the current social context (White, 2003). However, the Chinese authors seem to see the role of writing as less dialogic, and they are more likely to take a proposition for granted. This approach is characterized by Martin and White (2005: 99) as being "inter-subjectively neutral, objective or even 'factual'" without recognizing alternative positions.

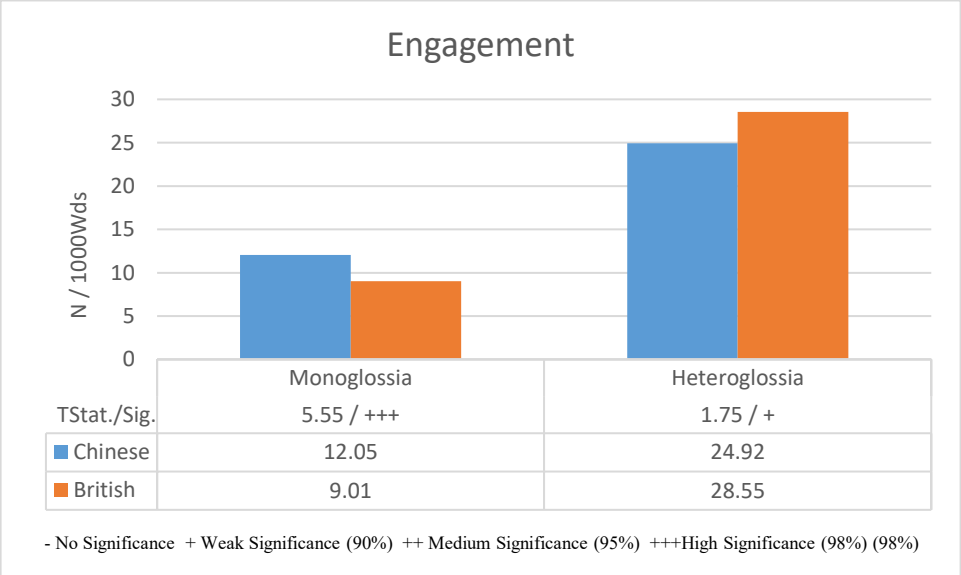


Figure 5.25: Engagement

When entering a dialogic relation, the system of Heteroglossia also encompasses gradability – the degrees or clines of space for alternative positions. It can be "actively making allowances for dialogically alternative positions and voices (dialogic expansion), or alternatively, acting to challenge, fend off or restrict the scope of such (dialogic contraction)" (Martin & White 2005: 102). In this study (see Figure 5.26), the British authors' preference for heteroglossia is reflected in both contracting and expanding alternative voices (Contract: Chinese=12.43/1000wrd, British=13.82/1000wrd; Expand: Chinese=12.49/1000wrd, British=14.73/1000wrd, medium significance). However, the

difference between the two groups of texts in the use of Expand is much bigger and more significant than that in the use of Contract. That is to say, compared to the Chinese authors, the British authors are more dialogic mainly by means of expanding alternative voices. This feature, together with the higher frequency of Monoglossia in the Chinese sub-corpus, shows that the Chinese authors, compared to the British authors, prefer an assertive voice and leave less space for discussion in general.

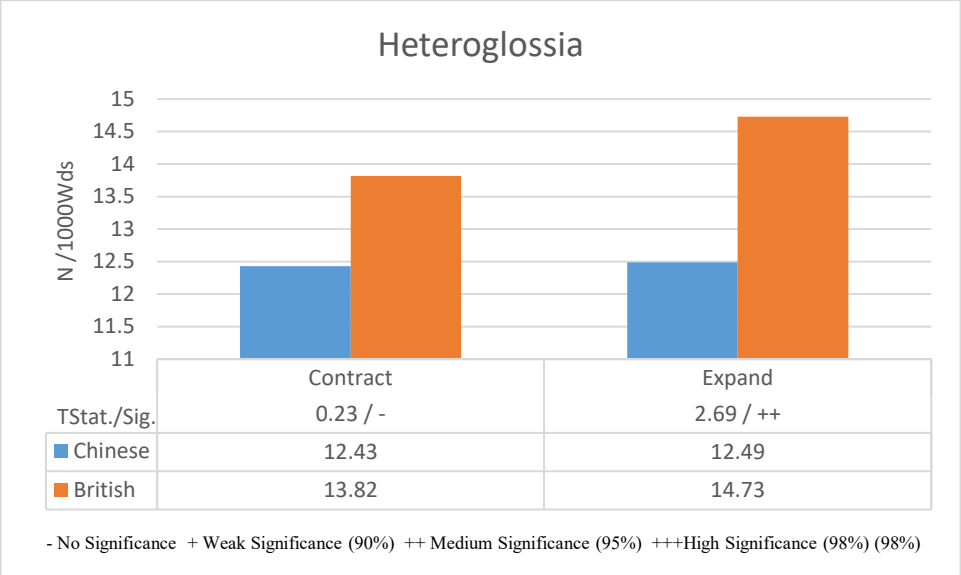


Figure 5.26: Heteroglossia

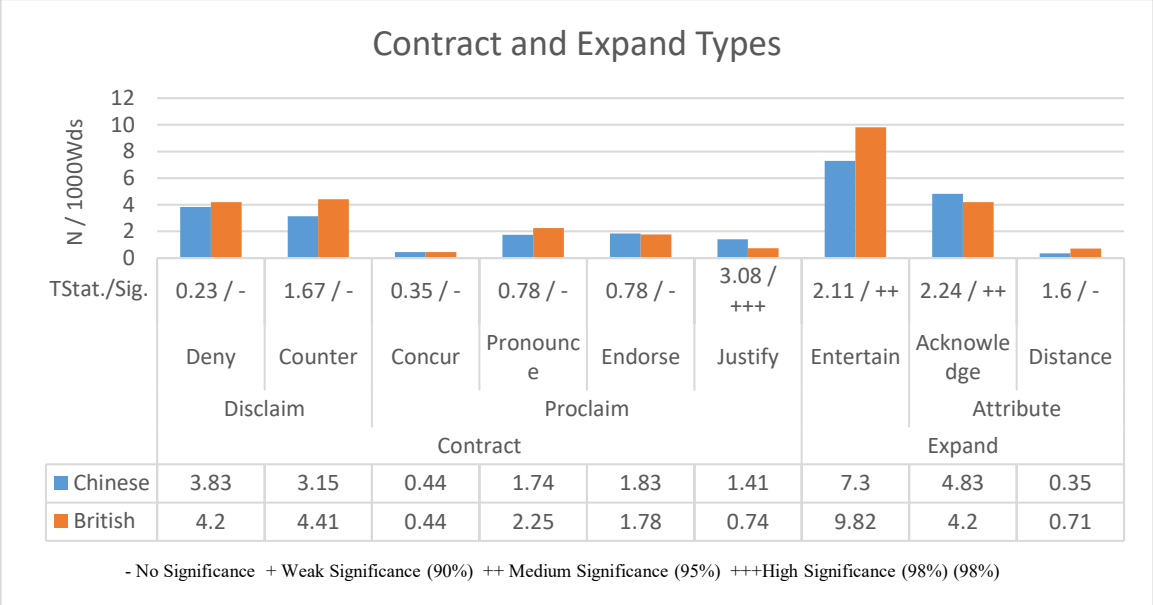


Figure 5.27: Contract and Expand types

The type of Expand marker that accounts for the biggest difference between the two sub-corpora is Entertain (Chinese=7.30/1000wrd, British=9.82/1000wrd). The Entertain category of words assesses likelihood, and includes modal auxiliaries, modal adjuncts, modal attributes and circumstances of the 'in my view' type. These items are often viewed from the perspective of truth-functional semantics in the literature. However, such concern with 'epistemic status' and 'reliability of knowledge' is not always and not necessarily the issue or the communicative motivation for their use. When viewed dialogistically, such locutions, according to Martin and White (2005: 105), are seen "actively to construe a heteroglossic backdrop for the text by overtly grounding the proposition in the contingent, individual subjectivity of the speaker/writer and thereby recognizing that the proposition is but one among a number of propositions available in the current communicative context". Thus, the significant difference in the use of Entertain indicates that the British writers prefer to show the reader that their position is one of a number of possible positions, thereby making dialogic space for other possibilities. This is similar to what Hu and Cao (2011) found in their contrastive study of hedging and boosters in applied linguistics abstracts; the Chinese-medium abstracts used markedly fewer hedges and more boosters than the English-medium

counterparts. Yang (2006) also found similar features in her contrastive study of hedging in science research articles; the RAs written by the Chinese authors tended to be more direct and authoritative.

Differences in Entertain not only exist in the normalized numbers of occurrence, but also in the realizations of Entertain (see Table 5.8).

The Chinese authors		The British authors	
-	**can** **71**	-	may 65
-	may 65	-	can 57
-	might 24	-	**would** **44**
-	could 22	-	**might** **38**
-	seem* 13	-	could 17
-	would 12	-	likely 13
-	likely 8	-	**perhaps** **11**
-	possible* 7	-	possible 9
-	tend* to 6	-	appears 8
-	potential* 5	-	seem 8
-	seem* 3	-	potential 5
-	probably* 3	-	probably 3
-	appear* 2	-	tend to 3
-	unlikely 1	-	unlikely 2
-	maybe 1	-	My sense 1
-	easy 1	-	likelihood 1
-	liable to 1	-	presumably 1

Table 5.8: Markers of Entertain

The preference for 'can' by the Chinese authors is in line with Lee and Chen's (2009) results on their analysis of Chinese university students' writing. I argue that this might also be influence by the way Chinese is being taught in China. 'Can' is taught as the direct translation of probably the most frequent modal verb in Mandarin, 'neng 能', and has naturally become the first choice in a contexts in English which are equivalent to the context of 'neng 能' in Mandarin.

Most of the Engagement types are preferred by the British authors, but there are three types that are preferred by the Chinese authors, namely Endorse, Justify, and Acknowledge.

Endorse refers to the kind of verbal processes that are used to contract external sources by the author as "correct, valid, undeniable or otherwise maximally warrantable" (Martin & White, 2005: 126). The Chinese authors use slightly more Endorse than the British authors which is in line with Hu and Wang's (2004) finding. This indicates that the Chinese authors tend to share responsibility with other researchers and align with them by reporting their findings as acceptable. It is also possible that Chinese authors are more likely to regard the claims made in the prior research as valid facts rather than debatable opinions. The significant preference for Justify markers (e.g., *because, since*) by the Chinese authors suggests that they acknowledge that the putative reader may find the prior claim in some way contentious and that it needs to be further explained. The author thus limits the scope of dialogic alternatives by giving specific reasoning in the immediate text. On top of that, the Chinese authors seem to expect their readers to find it hard to work out the relationship between the prior claim and the following reasoning, so a textual marker is used to facilitate reading, even when it is possible that the relationship could be deduced from context (see Example 5.11).

Example 5.11

> These three characteristics, taken together, prognosticate the potential challenges L2 learners may encounter in producing an argumentative discourse, because they may not manipulate such language-specific systems with facility.

The significant preference for Acknowledge by the Chinese authors (Chinese=4.83/1000wrd, British=4.2/1000wrd) is the opposite to what has been found in the literature. Hu and Wang (2014) found more Acknowledge markers in applied linguistics research articles written by natives than by the Chinese. They agreed with the claim made by Peng and Nisbett (1999: 747) that this is due to the Chinese epistemological beliefs that 'verbal debate and argumentation are not meaningful tools for understanding truth and reality', because truth and knowledge are believed to be self-evident. I argue that the different result in my data is due to a different definition of Acknowledge. In Appraisal theory, Acknowledge only

accounts for instances of reporting verbs that function in a neutral position, while Hu and Wang not only consider reporting verbs, but also modal verbs which are categorised as Entertain in Appraisal theory. Since the current study has found extensively more Entertain in the British sub-corpus, I might have obtained the same results if Hu and Wang's method had been adopted. It is still notable that the Chinese author apply more reporting verbs (Endorse, Acknowledge and Distance) than the British authors, which is in contrast to the claims in the prior research, such as Zhang's (2008) contrastive study of masters theses. One of her corpora is in Chinese language. Zhang made her claim based on raw data rather than normalized data, however, and in fact the word count of her Chinese language corpus was 228420, while her English corpus only contained 118020 words. Zhang found 271 reporting verbs in the L1 Chinese corpus in contrast with 297 in the L1 English one, but her normalized results might well show that the Chinese used more reporting verbs than the English speakers. Therefore, drawing on the findings in the prior research, I argue that although the Chinese use more reporting verbs in English RAs they might produce fewer reporting statements, because reporting verbs are only one signal of reporting, as noted by Swales (1990).

In terms of the choice of reporting verbs and similar markers (see Table 5.9), 'according to' is largely used by the Chinese academics, while 'suggest' is largely used by the British academics. This is in line with Lee and Chen's (2009) results. In their study of metadiscourse in the writing of Chinese university English majors, 'according to' was also significantly preferred. Although both 'according to' and 'suggest' function to acknowledge opinions from other sources, they are slightly different – 'suggest' is a verbal process that can evoke a debatable situation, while 'according to' only presents the source as one voice out of many possible voices.

The most frequent in other Engagement categories are given in Table 5.9. The Counter marker preferred by the Chinese academics is 'nevertheless', a finding which is similar to that of Leedham and Cai (2013) in relation to Chinese university students' writing. However,

the Counter marker preferred by the British academics, 'but', is not in line with Bolton, Nelson and Hung (2002), where 'but' is a preference made by Chinese students.

Other preferences may be influenced by how English is taught in China. For example, 'instead (of)' and 'should' are basic vocabulary items in Chinese schools, but 'yet', 'certainly' and 'claim' are not given much attention.

	The Chinese authors				**The British authors**			
Category	Token			Propensity	Token			Propensity
Deny	instead (of)	6	0	30.00				
Counter	nevertheless	7	3	1.37	yet	7	1	2.39
					but	40	20	1.71
Pronounce	will	10	3	2.32	certainly	5	0	25.00
	should	27	19	1.52	must	13	52.18	
Justify	since	10	0	50.00				
	because	31	18	0.83				
Attribute	believed	6	0	30.00	seen	5	0	25.00
	pointed out	5	0	25.00	suggests	17	5	4.56
	proposed	9	1	3.35	claim	5	1	2.01
	according to	17	4	3.17	claims	10	7	1.63
	considered	6	1	1.56				
	concluded	6	1	1.56				

Table 5.9: Engagement Keywords in both sub-copra

5.4 Other items

I have noticed an interesting word, 'traditional*', that can be categorised as both positive Appreciation, negative Appreciation and Expand at the same time.

Example 5.12

To date, much of the research into academic writing from an EAP perspective, has focused on **traditional** written genres (e.g., Coffin, 2004; Eckstein, Chariton, & McCollum, 2011; Hood, 2006; Lee, 2010) and has not given much consideration to computer dialogue and its potential for providing a different kind of opportunity for students to develop their argument skills.

Example 5.13

> **Traditionally**, corpus linguistics and discourse analysis have often been regarded as offering opposing approaches to the study of language…. Despite these undoubted differences, however, there has been increasing interest in applying corpus methods to discourse analysis and a growing realisation that the two approaches can complement each other to provide accounts that are richer and more insightful.

Hood (2004) suggests that the interpretation of the polarity of 'traditional*' depends on the reader position. On the other hand, this word may evoke a naturalised reading as it acknowledges the role of alternative reading positions. However, I argue that in most cases, the word 'traditional*' is coded with a particular connotation that the writers' ideas are on a generally progressing continuum of knowledge within the research community. Even if the traditions are not bad in themselves, the new ideas are not to be regarded as worse. At the same time, the word 'tradition' acknowledges different voices and welcomes discussion. For example, in Example 5.13, corpus linguistics and discourse analysis are seen as two opposing approaches. This view is labelled by the author as a tradition. The author concedes the logic of this traditional view is not bad, because there are undoubted differences between the two approaches. However, this view is also seen by the author as something that can be improved on, given that the two approaches can complement each other to provide accounts that are richer and more insightful. Therefore, this tradition is positive to some extent but can also be criticised to some extent. At the same time, the traditional view is just one possible view, which can be debated. Just by using the marker 'traditionally', the writer and the readers may share the same expectation of how this tradition will be reviewed. It is less likely that readers do not expect something new when reading the word 'traditionally', and that they are satisfied with what the tradition is. Nine instances of 'tradition*' has been found in the British sub-corpus in contrast with two in the Chinese one, adding one more piece of evidence of the dialogic nature of the British writing.

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter has compared the frequency and distribution of each type of Appraisal marker and has analysed their local realizations. It has shown how Chinese academics construct their stance and voice in applied linguistics RAs. A number of general differences between the Chinese authors and the British authors have been discovered.

In general, the Chinese authors use fewer stance markers than their British counterparts. Most of the prior cross-culture studies on stance and voice in Chinese and Anglophone writing counted the total number of stance markers, just as in this chapter, and drew conclusions directly from the total numbers (e.g., Liu and Thompson, 2009). If I had followed their approach I would have concluded at this point that Chinese authors are less evaluative. However, using more stance markers in general does not necessarily mean being more evaluative. It may happen that the Chinese use more stance markers in the *Debater* voice, as yet uninvestigated at this point. Therefore, we cannot conclude in this chapter whether Chinese are less evaluative, argumentative, critical, explicit and negative than Anglophone academics. We can only gain a general idea about their total use of stance markers.

Although most of the Attitude and Graduation categories need to be further analysed in Chapter 6 and Chapter 7, I am able to conclude, at the end of this chapter, that the Chinese authors are less dialogic than the British authors, as not only were more **monoglossic** claims found in the Chinese sub-corpus, but also much fewer **Expand** markers, especially **Entertain**. By contrast, the British authors are more dialogic, mainly by means of expanding alternative voices, acknowledging that their position is one of a number of possible positions, and allowing the putative readers to disagree. This shows that the Chinese authors see the role of writing as less dialogic but more descriptive of facts that are correct, valid and warrantable. This voice is also realized by **Justify** markers that contract the dialogic space by signalling the immediate text as providing the specific reason for the prior claim. The more frequent use of **Sharpen makers** to amplify projected references by the Chinese authors also contributes to a more assertive voice, particularly when they advocate their research

findings and impact. This means that by being less dialogic so as to be loyal to the prior knowledge, or so as not to offend prior researchers, the stance in the Chinese academics' RAs inevitably becomes more authoritative and assertive to the readers. This may offend readers who do not agree with their authoritative opinions.

I hypothesized in Chapter 1 that the Chinese tend to be less engaging and assertive, under the influence of all kinds of Chinese national cultures mentioned separately in the literature, including Confucius culture, collectivism culture, face culture, reader-responsible culture, and high- and low-context culture. However, in research writing at least, it seems that it is not pragmatically possible to convey knowledge as it is, and at the same time save everyone's face, including prior researchers, the writer and the putative readers. When aligning closely to the prior knowledge, alternative opinions by other researchers or putative readers may be disaligned. When aligning with alternative opinions, the prior research being evaluated may be disaligned. It seems that it is not possible to recognise all Chinese beliefs simultaneously in research articles, unless the research community shares the same opinions. It might be the case in the Chinese collective society that there is generally a strong connection to traditional beliefs and a belief in the power of one political voice. However, the research community, particularly in the Soft Sciences is certainly not about unified beliefs, it is about brainstorming and constructing valid knowledge by building on each other's elaborations. Therefore, the monoglossic and assertive style in the Chinese academics' RAs may hinder effective communication in the research community.

Although the Chinese face-saving concept cannot be fully applied in RAs, Confucius' ideas regarding knowledge seem to be acknowledged in the Chinese RAs, according to the Engagement data in this chapter. Apart from the evidence that the Chinese academics are generally less engaging, there is also evidence that they Acknowledge and Endorse the prior research more often. Moreover, they seldom distance themselves from the literature and prepare the reader for an evaluation, or even criticism of the prior research.

This chapter has also identified some techniques that are adopted more frequently by the Chinese authors. First of all, the Chinese academics take **multiple-references** as a strategy to project a knowledgeable image. Second, the Chinese authors prefer **idiomatic metaphor** as a strategy to be more expressive and aesthetic. The prior research has found that both English and Mandarin use metaphorical devices, albeit of different types (Boroditsky, 2001). However, English research writing may have developed its own conventions, distinct from other registers such as speaking or fiction, so as to be more formal, precise, and explicit, with fewer stylistic flourishes, while Chinese academic writing may not yet have developed in this way. Third, the Chinese authors express the **research aim as something that must be completed** in contrast with the British authors' conception of the research aim as an attempt. The Chinese authors' approach may raise high expectations in the reader and project the image of a highly valued study, as argued by McDonald 1994, and Halliday and Matthiessen (1999:299). Fourth, in very few cases, the Chinese authors characteristically signal a slightly stronger argumentative situation by **grading verbal processes** (e.g. by using stress and elaboration). The British authors prefer to grade material processes (e.g. by using *highlight* and *compare*), and thus evoke a sense of participation and a position-taking.

There are a number of particularly interesting but inconclusive findings that need to be further analysed in the following chapters. For example, the Chinese corpus presents a higher density than its British counterpart in terms of Capacity, Reaction and inscribed Graduation. The British corpus presents a higher density of evaluative markers such as Dis/Inclination, Propriety, Social valuation, Composition and evoked Graduation. However, we need know what are being evaluated in each case.

A few other features such as Enhancement, the polarity of Attitude and how Engagement prosody (e.g., 'deny + superlative') unfolds also need to be attended to when analysing the construction of stance across contexts and moves.

CHAPTER 6. ANALYSIS TWO: VOICING VALUES ACROSS CONTEXTS

In this chapter, I build on and extend the analysis and discussion presented in the last chapter by shifting focus from the construal of stance at a local level to the voicing of values of Attitude, Graduation and Engagement across contexts. As explained in Chapter 2, I have developed a framework of three contexts in academic writing in which RA authors play the role of *research world debater, real world advisor* or *real world observer*. This chapter unfolds on the basis of this distinction across contexts. I first examine how Attitude markers distribute across contexts in the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus, how certain kinds of evaluative expressions collaborate to characterise a particular voice in each context, and how the voices are constructed differently in the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus. In the course of the analysis, I particularly examine the voice of *research world debater* because it is in the context that is most relevant to arguments where authors generally struggle (Hunston, 1993, 1994; Hyland, 2005; Charles, 2006, 2007), and it is the voice that it is necessary for authors to use in order to convince their readers and make their research articles stand out. A similar process of analysis is also conducted in the examination of Graduation and Engagement.

Before analysing voicing strategies in detail, the overall distribution of Appraisal markers across contexts is presented in Figure 6.1. The *Debater* voice is most prominent voice of both the Chinese and the British authors, followed by the *Advisor voice* and finally the *Observer voice*. This reflects the persuasive purpose of research articles. Figure 6.1 also shows that the British authors use more Appraisal markers than their Chinese counterparts in every context, meaning that the British not only use more Appraisal markers in general but also more in arguments.

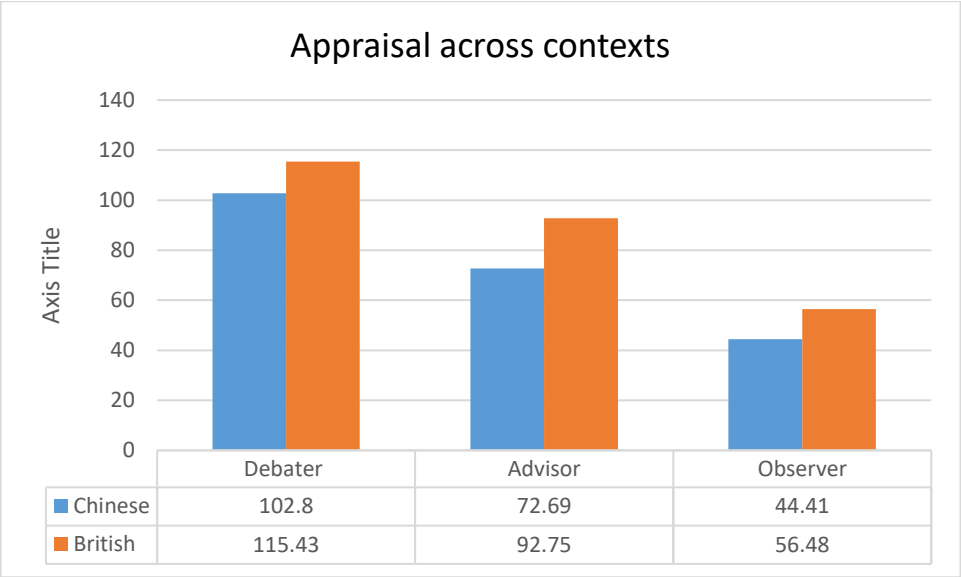


Figure 6.1: Appraisal across contexts

6.1 Construction of Attitudinal meaning across contexts

In this section, I will first illustrate how Attitude markers are used differently between the two groups of texts across contexts. Unlike the distribution of Appraisal markers across contexts in Figure 6.1, the distribution of Attitude markers (see Figure 6.2) shows that they are used by both groups of authors to focus more on construction of the *Advisor* voice rather than the *Debater* voice. This finding suggests that Attitudinal evaluations, as direct and personal evaluations involving feelings, are not the main resources for debating within the research world. However, as in Figure 6.1, Figure 6.2 shows that the British authors apply more Attitude markers in every context, not only in general as discussed in Chapter 5. This also means that in argument construction, the British authors are probably more explicit than the Chinese authors. However, in Chapter 5, the Chinese sub-corpus was found to use more explicit Attitude markers that are being intensified, and hence I will discuss this point in the analysis of inscribed Graduation in 6.2.1.

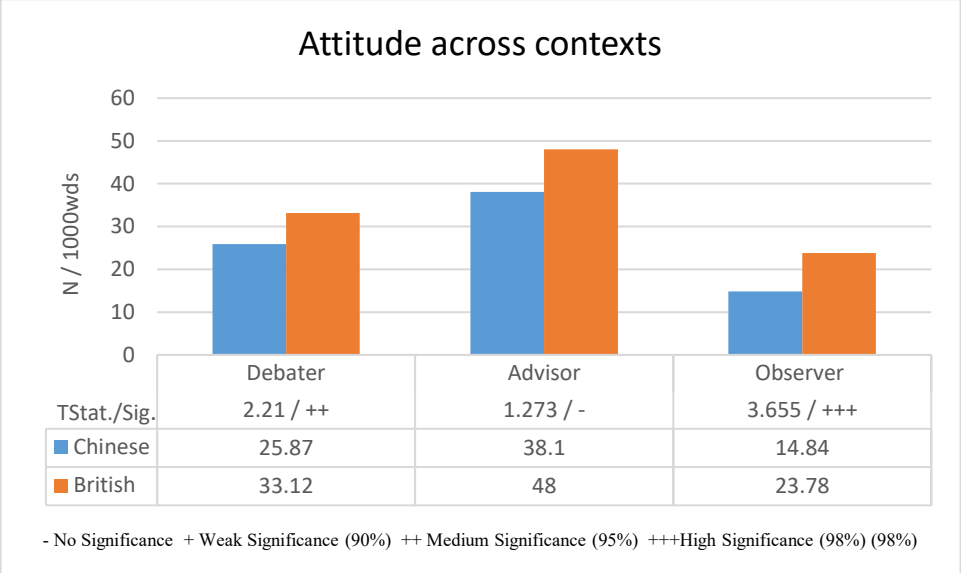


Figure 6.2: Attitude across contexts

Although Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2 show that more markers are applied by the British authors, in every context, this is not necessarily the case in the detailed categories. Table 6.1 compares results for Attitudinal evaluation in the Chinese sub-corpus (C) and the British sub-corpus (B), including the general density of each type of Attitude marker, as discussed in Chapter 5, as well as their distribution across contexts. Apparently, the Chinese and the British authors have different preferences regarding sub-categories and contexts.

Attitude		**Results in chapter 5**	**Results in chapter 6**		
		General density	Debater	Advisor	Observer
Affect	Dis/Inclination	B +++	B +++	B	B +++
	Un/Happiness	N/A	N/A	C	B
	In/Security	C +++	N/A	C ++	C
	Dis/Satisfaction	C ++	B	C +	C
Judgement	Normality	B	N/A	B	N/A
	Capacity	C +++	C +++	C +++	B
	Tenacity	C	B	C	C
	Veracity	B	N/A	B	N/A
	Propriety	B	B	B +++	C
Appreciation	Reaction	C +	B ++	C +++	C ++
	Composition	B	B	C	B
	Social	B +++	B	B +++	B +++

	valuation				
Positive attitude		B +++	B ++	B +	B +++
Negative attitude		B	B	B	B

Table 6.1: Distribution of Attitude markers across contexts (N/A = no occurrence or equal density in the two sub-corpora; C = higher density in the Chinese sub-corpus; B = Higher density in the British sub-corpus; + = weak significance; ++ = medium significance; +++ = high significance; red colour= categories identified in Chapter 5 that need to be scrutinized across contexts)

In Chapter 5, I found that some Attitude categories, such as Capacity and Reaction, were preferred by the Chinese authors. However, Table 6.1 shows that Reaction is preferred by the Chinese to construct the *advisor* and *Observer voice* rather than the *Debater voice*. By and large, the *research world debater* role is more prominent in the British sub-corpus (seven categories with 'B' vs. one category with 'C'), and the *real world advisor* role is more prominent in the Chinese sub-corpus (seven categories with 'C' vs. four categories with 'B'). 'B' and 'C' feature equally in the role of *real world observer* (five categories with 'C' vs. five categories with 'B'). On the whole, the Chinese authors use more evaluation for more types of feelings than the British authors in the real world, while the British authors use more evaluation for more types of feelings in the research world. This is fairly unexpected as most of the Attitude types are fairly interpersonal and informal, such as Dis/Inclination, Propriety, Reaction etc., and in the prior research they are reported to be more likely to appear in academic arguments written by less proficient writers (Hood, 2004; Coffin, 2009). These unexpected categories are also among the categories I identified in Chapter 5 as needing to be scrutinized across contexts, namely, Dis/Inclination, Capacity, Propriety, Reaction, Composition, Social valuation (coloured in red in Table 6.1). In what follows I will mainly examine these six categories.

'B' appears in every context of positivity and negativity in Table 6.1, but only with significance in positivity. This means that the British authors use both positive and negative attitude more than the Chinese authors, particularly positive attitude.

6.1.1 Debater voice construed with Attitude

In this section, I will analyse the different use of Attitude markers in the construction of the *Debater* voice in the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus.

6.1.1.1 EXPRESSION OF AFFECT ACROSS CONTEXTS

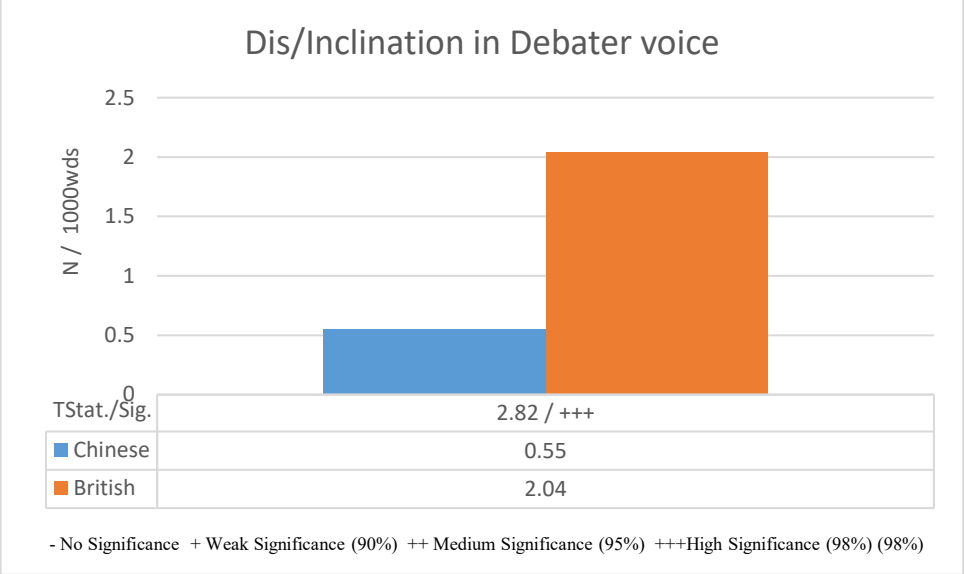


Figure 6.3: Dis/Inclination in Debater voice

The British authors use almost four times more Dis/Inclination markers than their Chinese counterparts in constructing the voice of *research world debater* (see Figure 6.3). Examples are given in Table 6.2.

Dis/Inclination: the Debater voice of the British authors
But in the spirit of science we should also be **willing** to ask what the evidence actually is, and whether it really leads where it is said to lead. We also **need** an understanding of who employs which linguistic resources in which contexts and for which purposes with what effect. Being experienced writing teachers, we believed – or perhaps **wanted** to believe – that he was mistaken. …, we were **curious** if gender differences might emerge for this particular sample.

It's our **hope** that these findings will inform the work of writing teachers in similar contexts as well as contribute to future research. This provisional model serves as a starting point for others who may **wish** to explore the causal relationships among learner variables related to L2 listening comprehension. In the research reported on in this paper we were **interested** to see what insights linguistic analysis might bring…
Dis/Inclination: Debater voice of the Chinese authors
It is **hoped** that the investigation into the longterm effect of English PA training on child EFL learners in China can … Future investigations are **expected** to focus endeavour on a single group of ESL/EFL learners….

Table 6.2: Dis/Inclination – Debater voice

It has been noticed that when emotions are being expressed in the *Debater* voice, the authorial presence in the Chinese sub-corpus is hidden. The writers prefer to convey the evaluative potential of their own claims through a unspecified or impersonal agent to avoid explicit self-exposure. This can imply to the reader that the writer is speaking for other members in the community. I argue that persuading other members by presenting another's viewpoint, playing around with the words to give the appearance that there is no personal benefit, reflects the way personal purpose is expressed politely and strategically in the Chinese language, and therefore can be seen as a positive politeness strategy. By contrast, the British authors choose to announce their presence through the use of first person pronouns, particularly 'we' and 'our', in every case when expressing affect. Hyland (2001: 223) suggests that, by announcing presence in discourse, writers are "best able to promote themselves and their individual contributions". In fact, in this particular case of expressing Affect, all realizations of Dis/Inclination are positive. This indicates that the British authors, by explicitly signalling that they are the agents of positive anticipated outcomes, portray a passionate image of themselves and evoke in their readers a sense of engagement. These different preferences regarding author presence are also reflected in the examples of Dis/Satisfaction in Table 6.3.

Dis/Satisfaction: Debater voice of the British authors
However, in this study **we** will **content** ourselves with the notion that feedback has a positive influence on revision and leave the issues of causality and learning outcomes to future research.
Dis/Satisfaction: Debater voice of the Chinese authors
On analyzing these inconclusive findings concerning native English writers and noticing that there is scant information on the use of cohesive devices by ESL/EFL writers across proficiency levels, researchers may inevitably **wonder** to which extent the use of cohesive items might associate with ESL/EFL learners' proficiency/grade levels.

Table 6.3: Dis/Satisfaction – Debater voice

These findings relate to findings in Wu and Zhu (2014), where individual self (e.g., *I*) was preferred by Anglophone academics as a means to construct the text, argue and evaluate, and collective self (e.g., *we, our*) was preferred by Chinese academics when performing the role of researchers. However, Wu and Zhu (2014) count every occurrence of personal pronouns while the current study only counts personal pronoun + Inclination. In my data, most of the examples of authorial presence in the British writers' expressions of Inclination are plural (i.e., *we, our*) rather than singular (e.g., *I*), and no authorial presence in the Chinese' expressions of Inclination are found at all. The use of first person pronouns in the British sub-corpus also depends on the number of authors in each RA. Collective self + Inclination appears five times in RAs written by multiple British academics, and appears three times in RAs written by a single British academic. Individual self + Inclination appears three times in RAs written by a single British academic. This means that the British authors also purposely use collective self when giving affective evaluations. The two studies put together seem to suggest that Chinese academics tend to take on their identity as part of a group that share some common ground while Anglophone academics tend to take on their identity as individual researchers who need to specify their evaluation of facts and opinions. At the same time, Anglophone academics tend to give affective evaluation when they are confident that their affective feeling is also shared by the research community.

6.1.1.2 *EXPRESSION OF JUDGEMENT ACROSS CONTEXTS*

As identified in Chapter 5, Capacity and Propriety are salient categories that need to be examined across contexts. The former is preferred by the Chinese authors and the latter is preferred by the British authors.

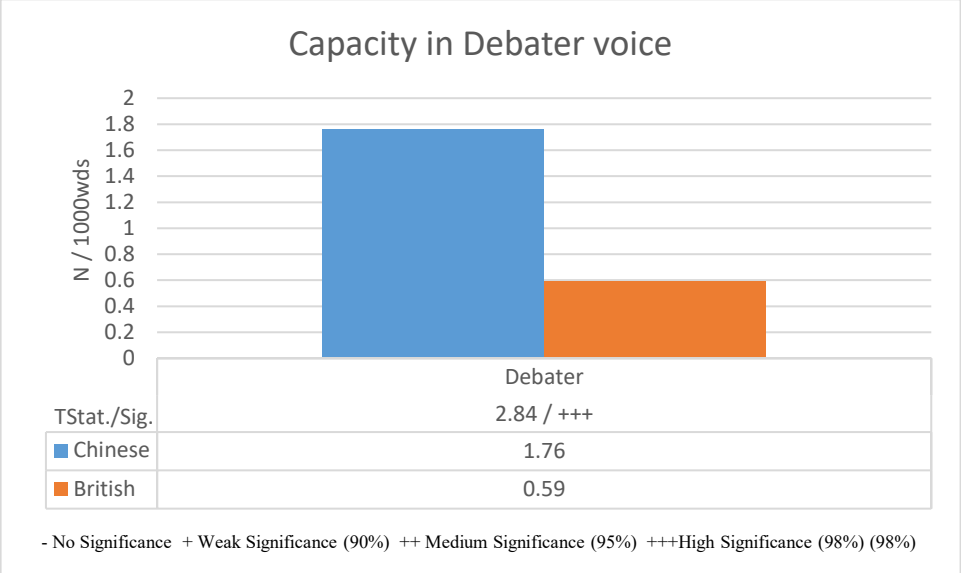


Figure 6.4: Capacity in Debater voice

The small numbers in Figure 6.4 show that evaluations of Capacity are not used very frequently in judgements of the real world (*Debater* context), for example, the behaviour of the current writer as being capable of contributing new ideas or dealing with a particular issue. Even so, the Chinese authors apply three times more Capacity markers than the British authors to construct the *Debater* voice. Examples in each group of texts are presented in Table 6.4.

Capacity: the Debater voice of the Chinese authors
Shen et al. (2001) **failed** to take measures to control for the …. Given this, I **offer** below a working definition of DMs which is used in the present study. Future studies can manipulate the difference sequence of the PA constituents at three different levels to **achieve** a more convincing and thorough understanding of ……

Scholars domestically and internationally have **achieved** significant progress in this field. Thus, by **providing** empirical evidences and descriptions, the present study can seek to contribute to …… The present study can seek to **contribute** to our understanding of ……, and further to **assist** the students to become more effective EFL listeners.
Capacity: the Debater voice of the British authors
By examining these two distinct educational levels we were **able** to consider the extent to which students' current repertoire of meaning making resources might influence the way their argumentation unfolds. This article is a step toward bridging this divide, **offering** insight into ……

Table 6.4: Capacity – Debater voice

In contrast, the British authors prefer to judge the research world (*Debater* context) using Propriety markers (see Figure 6.5).

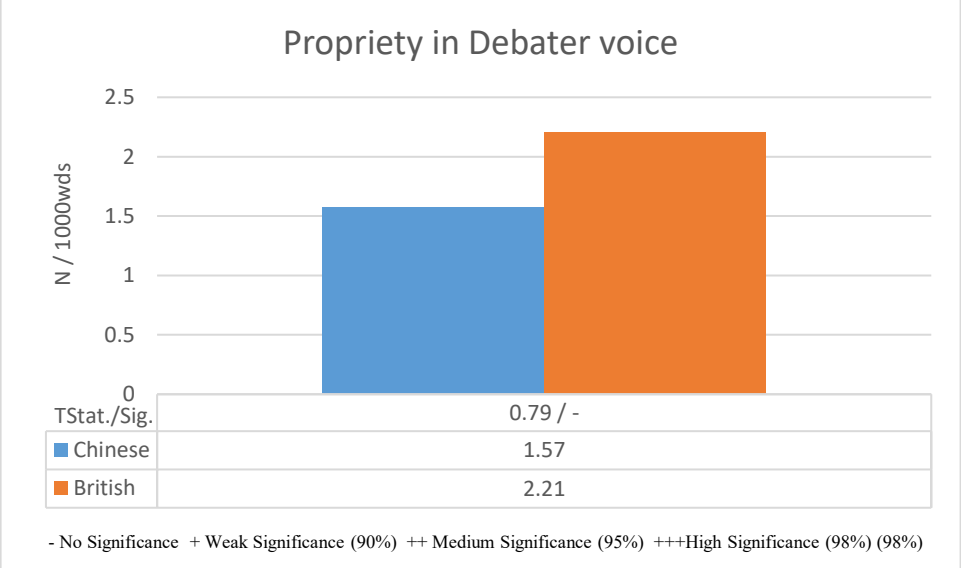


Figure 6.5: Propriety in Debater voice

The British writers also apply a greater variety of Propriety values in *Debater* claims, as illustrated in the examples in Table 6.5.

Propriety: Debater voice of the British authors	
1. Just/merely/simply/ solely/only	Despite this, they rarely appear in textbooks (Cullen & Kuo, 2007) and have **only** [-social-sanction: propriety] occasionally been the subject of classroom research.
2. The belief of average members in the research community	It is often **taken for granted** that part of the job of a teacher is to follow a PPP framework …. …., as Ellis (2002) notes, it is also something of an **unchallenged orthodoxy** in CLT. Advocates of what I am calling 'the new biologism' contest the **belief** that ….
3. Carefulness	….showed that they had more time to select evidence and, as a result, were more **careful** in how they supported their contentions. However, the authors **cautioned** that … Applied linguists do not dispute the general principle that scientists must be willing to **follow the evidence**.
4. Criticalness	Here I will consider the new biologism's claims by way of a **critical examination** of the arguments and the evidence.
5. Risky behaviour of other members in the community	Without ……, the genre analyst **risks imposing** classifications from other contexts that are inadequate for the texts being described.
6. Mistake	**He was mistaken.**
Propriety: Debater voice of the Chinese authors	
1. Carefulness	We should be **cautious** in making generalizations about L2 speakers' use of DMs.
2. Just/merely/simply/ solely/only	The researchers **merely** counted the quantity of cohesion instead of adjusting that number to yield a frequency of cohesive devices per 100 words.
3. Development	…, which requires that researchers constantly **update** their research approaches and methods so as to ……
4. Appropriacy	We clearly know that the sample used for the paper is not at all adequate as a typological sample, but it probably is **appropriate** for the purpose of this study.

Table 6.5: Propriety – Debater voice

According to Martin and White (2005: 52), Propriety, as a type of social sanction, describes "how far beyond reproach" the specified behaviour is. However, the kind of propriety being

judged in the academic community differs from the kind that is judged by the media. What matters most concerning propriety within academic discourse is how properly research has been conducted and whether a researcher has the qualities a researcher is supposed to have, such as criticality. This is reflected in the claims presented in Table 6.5 – the authors explicitly judge the behaviour of academics, either themselves or other researchers, based on the shared social values within the research community. Although some Propriety markers seem to judge Capacity, they are not categorised as Capacity because they focus on whether the behaviour of the academic is appropriate or not, rather than whether the academic is able to do something or not.

The examples of both Capacity and Propriety in the *Debater voice* also show that judgement of the writer's own behaviour or suggestions is more likely to be positive, while judgement of other researchers' behaviour is more likely to be negative. The Chinese authors mostly compliment their own Capacity while the British authors mostly criticize other researchers' Propriety. The above findings suggest that the British authors are more straightforward and personal in questioning or challenging other members in the community while the Chinese authors are more restrained in their use of explicit and personal criticism.

Interestingly, although Tenacity accounts for very few of the instances of Judgement, almost all of them, in both sub-corpora, are used in expressions of *Debater* voice. They are mostly used to encourage devotion to particular topics (see Table 6.6).

Tenacity: Debater voice of the British authors
Academic literacies research that ignores the nature of the texts themselves misses an important source of insights into literacy practices just as SFL research that ignores insights from investigations of practices surrounding texts will have to work much **harder** to construe context from texts in ways that are recognized by participants. …work by Baker (2006) and the collections edited by Partington, Morley and Haarman (2004) and Adel and Reppen (2008) all bear witness to continuing **efforts** to bring the two approaches together. … the possible contenders for housing Applied linguistics may in turn **resist**, on territorial

grounds.
Tenacity: Debater voice of the Chinese authors
Future investigations are expected to focus **endeavor** on a single group of ….

Table 6.6: Tenacity – Debater voice

6.1.1.3 Expression of Appreciation across contexts

In the last Chapter, I found that Reaction markers were significantly more frequent in the Chinese writers' publications than in the British writers' publications. However, Reaction markers occur less frequently in their construction of the *Debater* voice than in the British sub-corpus, as shown in Figure 6.6. This means that most of the Reaction markers in the Chinese sub-corpus are used to evaluate real world situations (*Advisor* and *Observer* contexts), while almost half of those in the British sub-corpus are used to evaluate research world situations (*Debater* context). Examples are given in Table 6.7. The Chinese writers' use of Reaction in *Advisor* and *Observer* voices will be discussed further in 6.1.2.

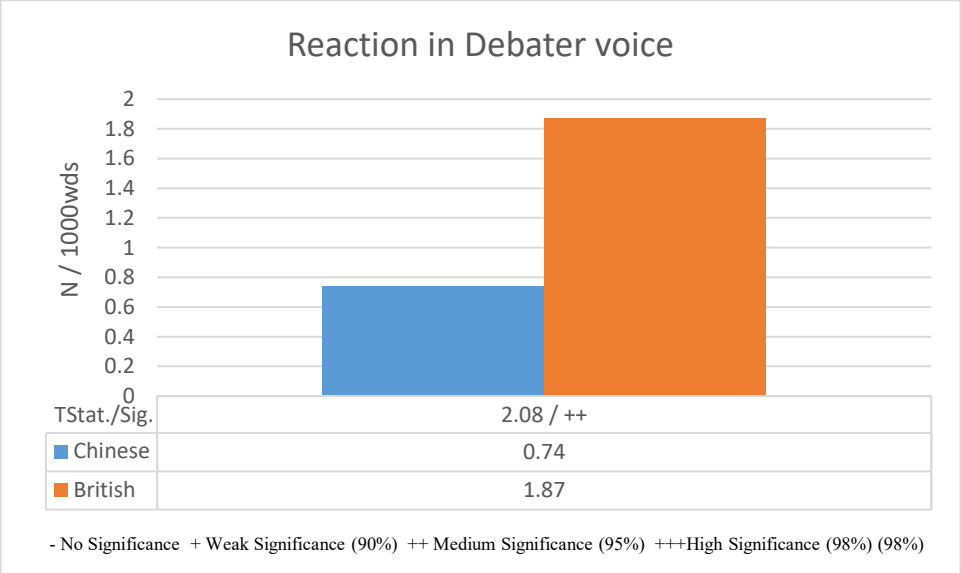


Figure 6.6: Reaction in Debater voice

Reaction: Debater voice of the British authors
While we would **not agree** that interaction must take place only with native speakers, ……
It would be **interesting** to offer a pre-test before the start of the academic year, ……

Nevertheless, it is an **intuitively appealing** and productive area of research, and central is Halliday's widely **accepted** tenet that the context of situation variables of ……
An **unanticipated** finding was that …
This **difficult** task is compounded by the fact that ….
…is an important **challenge** as these fields move forward
The three strategy types described here allow us to legitimately circumvent this rather **awkward** question by turning it into a non-issue.
It is an **intuitively appealing** and productive area of research.
Reaction: Debater voice of the Chinese authors
Therefore, deciding whether a linguistic item is considered a DM has been **no easy** task.
It is **interesting** to make a comparison between the present study and ….

Table 6.7: Reaction – Debater voice

This suggests that the Chinese writers tend to avoid expression of emotions when making research world claims. The British academics express affects such as interest and satisfaction, but choose Reaction as a type of Appreciation to do this in a less personal way than using Affect.

It is interesting that although there are very few instances of Composition, with no statistical differences between the two sub-corpora (see Chapter 5), there is a big difference in the way this type of Appreciation is realized. There are more than twice the markers in the British sub-corpus than in the Chinese sub-corpus which evaluate the Balance of other's ideas, frameworks or theories rather than appraisal of the participants being investigated (see Figure 6.7). Examples are given in Table 6.8.

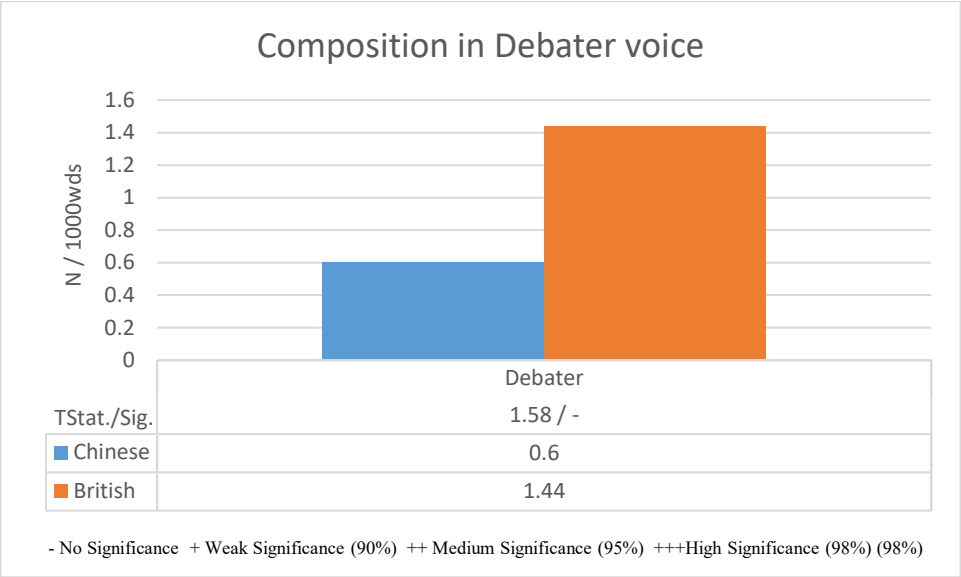


Figure 6.7: Composition in Debater voice

Composition: Debater voice of the British authors
As both approaches share a common heritage in Malinowsky's distinction between context of situation and context of culture, they are potentially **compatible** and **complementary** in research on student academic writing. SFL provides a **compatible** framework for this, leading to detailed, systematic [+Appreciation: composition: balance] and applicable findings. Such a focus on individual terms can result in a rather **fragmentary**] view of discourse (Swales, 2002).
Composition: Debater voice of the Chinese authors
…the existing research findings with reference to cohesive agents in writing are **inconsistent** and hardly conclusive.

Table 6.8: Composition – Debater voice

This indicates that the evaluative potential of the composition system is exploited by the British authors, and is chosen as an angle to appraise the approaches or theories of other researchers. On the other hand the data suggests that most of the Chinese authors were either unaware of this resource, or alternatively considered the balance of a theory, an approach or findings relatively unimportant or uninteresting.

In Chapter 5, I found more markers of Social valuation in the British sub-corpus. The results are similar for Social valuation in the *Debater* voice (see Figure 6.8). The fact that the British authors use more Social valuation markers in the *Debater* context indicates that they also find use of the least personal type of inscribed evaluation to be a salient strategy. Examples are given in Table 6.9.

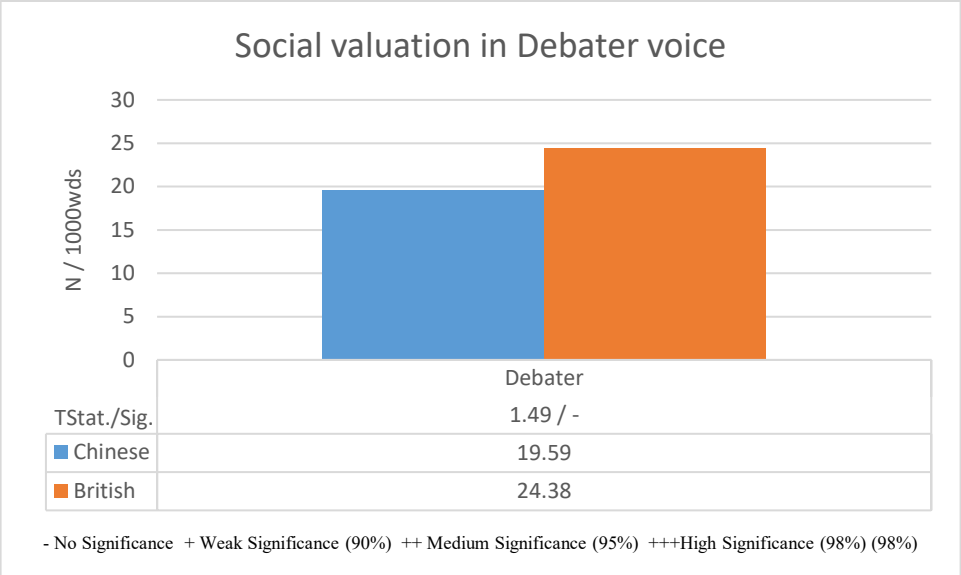


Figure 6.8: Social valuation in Debater voice

Social valuation: the Debater voice of the British authors
Although we may still have a long way to go, this study makes an **important** theoretical **contribution** to knowledge by examining the relationship of a number of hypothesized learner variables with L2 listening comprehension and exploring causality through a path analysis. Although limited by the languages, learners, learning context, and variables involved, this study also opens up **useful** avenues for further research in elucidating the listening construct. This provides additional **evidence** that, in order to **better** understand the kinds of opportunities for learning offered by computer dialogue, researchers and practitioners are likely to **benefit** from investigation into the role played by language in facilitating (or hindering) the unfolding discussion. This suggests that the orthodox view, that practising language in class does help learners to

acquire it, is at least **worthy** of investigation. This article considers some ideas about language and sex/gender, which are currently **influential** in both expert and popular discourse. Arguably, it is not only desirable to draw on both SFL and AcLits traditions, but to not do so may severely **weaken** the findings of both. One of the **problems** with using corpus methods, then, is that they may lead to disproportionate focus on individual items and a concomitant neglect of phenomena such as multiple signalling through chains of connected markers.
Social valuation: the Debater voice of the Chinese authors
Future studies can manipulate the difference sequence of the PA constituents at three different levels to **achieve** a more **convincing** and thorough understanding both of the intervention model and the training effects on language learner's literacy development. The threshold level, however, still remains to be a controversial **issue** in EFL vocabulary research. In addition, there are a few studies which have provided **useful** information for the present study. O'Malley *et al*. (1985a) have pointed out that continued **advances** in learning strategy research should permit students to learn L2 more efficiently through classroom instruction.

Table 6.9: Social valuation – Debater voice

6.1.2 Advisor voice and Observer voice construed with Attitude

Advisor voice and *Observer* voice both evaluate real world situations. The only difference, as discussed in the theoretical background (Chapter 2), lies in whether the evaluation of the real world is affected by the writer's argumentative intention. As shown in Figure 6.9, the Chinese authors are more likely to use Capacity, Reaction and Composition to construct the *Advisor* voice, while the British authors are more likely to use Dis/Inclination, Propriety and Social evaluation. Examples are given in Table 6.10.

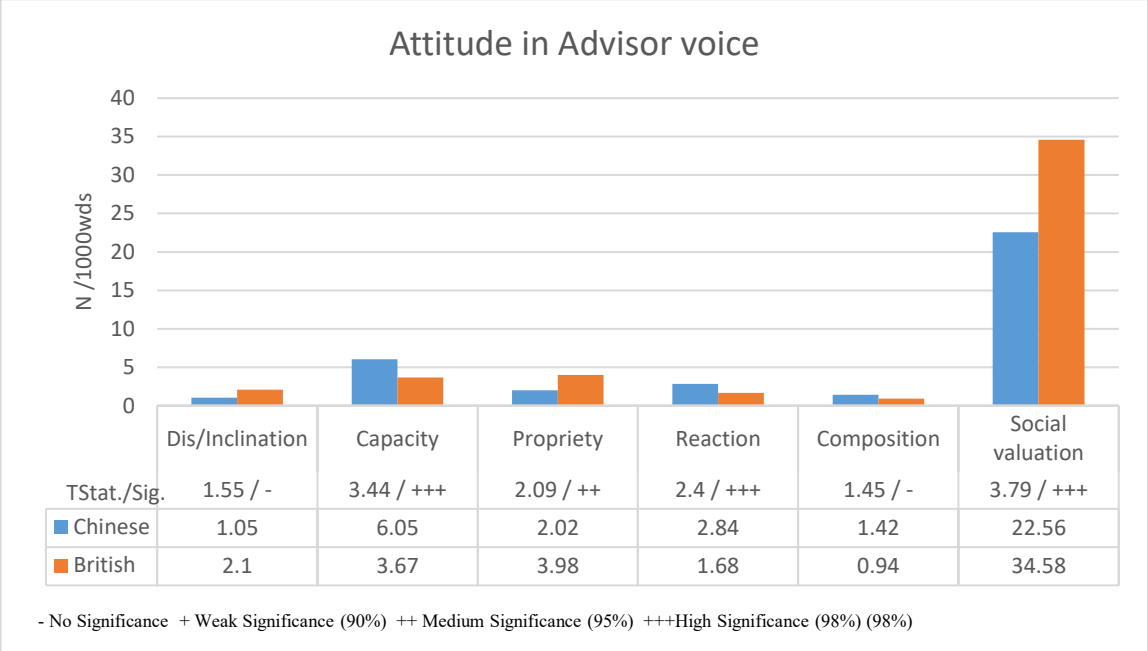


Figure 6.9: Attitude in Advisor voice

Advisor voice of the Chinese authors: Capacity, Reaction and Composition
Capacity
…and learners need to take part in more pedagogically practical activities to **improve** their performance in listening comprehension. …the present study can seek to contribute to our understanding of the listening strategy instruction, and further to assist the students to become more **effective** EFL listeners. …which may merit heed of many EFL teachers and they can frame their future teaching and inquiries to help learners **overcome** these weaknesses. Some students who are **ill-prepared** for this particular learning style with less ability of self-restraint are easy to **chew the fat** or play QQ farm games with result in less concentration on on-line learning and **failure** in learning tasks. The instructor's inadequate supervision toward the students leading to lack of learning motivation and **low-efficiency** to teaching (Gould, 2000)
Reaction
Meanwhile, when the learner is **frustrated** by the **difficulty**, he can obtain the direction and assistance from other members instantly.

This sharing and discussing platform is so **easy** to operate but greatly beneficial to every member;… When an **unfamiliar** passage is given to EFL learners, the biggest **challenge** in retrieving the embedded meaning of the passages in the unknown words (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). For example, non-native English speakers who underuse some DMs may sound **unfriendly** or **non-cooperative** rather than non-fluent (see analysis of well in Aijmer, 2011 and Mereno, 2002).
Composition
It appears that the students improved greatly in terms of the framing words, as demonstrated by the greater use of concrete subjects, correct greeting constructions, **complete** selfidentifications, and closing moves on the post-test than on the pre-test. …, more research is still necessary, due to the **complex** nature of the depth of vocabulary knowledge.
Advisor voice of the British authors: Dis/Inclination, Propriety and Social valuation
Dis/Inclination
The current study began several years ago upon hearing an offhand remark from a veteran teacher: " My students don't **want** feedback on their writing, and even if I give it to them, they don't read it. Why **bother**?" There was certainly evidence of this in both focus groups, where learners expressed a **desire** to learn within classes of multilingual learners and for tasks to be based on real-world interaction. …study abroad experience can often lead to learners feeling **overwhelmed**. This can produce feelings of **failure**…
Propriety
Specifically, knowledge of the areas of writing the contribute to the creation and production of increasingly more complex texts, and those areas that require focused intervention, are of particular relevance to teachers **helping** young students develop their writing craft (Clay, 2001). This suggests that research which investigates how to **best** teach forms which could help learners to become SUEs is worthwhile.
Social valuation
Listening comprehension is a **key** component of language acquisition and an **important** foundation for **success** in language immersion programs. The frequency of DMs is as a result of them having a number of **useful** functions in speech

such as showing listenership or opening conversation but their high frequency may also mean that they do not always stand out and can seem banal or irrelevant to learners (Jones, 2910). Women deferring pregnancy face a real prospect of involuntary childlessness, in addition to increased **risk** of adverse maternal and perinatal outcomes, notably stillbirth. The mass media is recognised to be a **powerful** force in shaping health beliefs and behaviours and contributes to … More specifically, it might be **effective** to make visible to students how different language choices are likely to open up or close down a claim. One would assume that learners in the context we have studies would be in a **perfect** position to get just these kinds of practice.

Table 6.10: Attitude in Advisor voice

Since I have matched the topics of the RAs in the two sub-corpora, the different preferences for Attitude types are unlikely to be due to differences in article content and are more likely to be due to different cognitive focuses on the real world situations. The Chinese authors found it more effective to justify the importance of examining a real world problem by making explicit comments on the capacity of language learners, the complexity of the language learning process and the learners' reactions towards it. The British authors found it more effective to justify the importance of their work by making explicit comments on learners' or teachers' affect, their own obligation to be of help to students, and real world phenomena in general.

Observer voice, on the other hand, does not bestow much argumentative function, and therefore I argue that any differences apparent in Figure 6.10 do not indicate preferences on the part of authors but are dependent on what happened during the research process. Observer voice is the least interesting context for examining authors' argumentative strategies. Realisations of Observer voice are presented in Table 6.11.

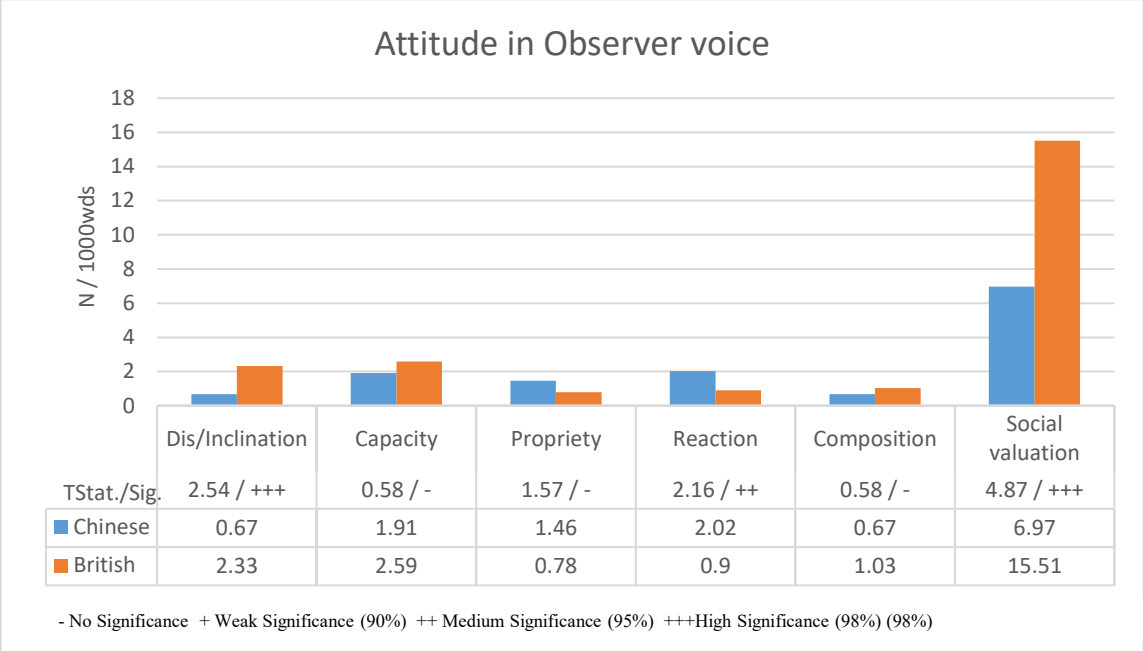


Figure 6.10: Attitude in Observer voice

Observer voice of the Chinese authors		
, the American native speakers	**preferred**	the use of a simple Thanks
request strategy. The most	**preferred**	move is grounder, which allows
, whereas those who cannot	**effectively**	suppress unwanted memories are more susceptible
"individuals all have basic	**capacity**	to learn and to teach,
and showed that Korean students	**overused**	some reference devices. The case
therefore, it is not	**easy**	for non-native English speakers to
are the most common and	**salient**	feature in an asynchronous email
is reported to tackling the	**complex**	security environment and guarding
western counterparts who attach more	**importance**	to the efforts the author has
(2003) revealed a	**positive**	role the strategy of intentional
Observer voice of the the British authors		
1991) found that students	**expected**	feedback and were disappointed
example, seems to be	**preferred**	by teachers and students (Ferris
students expected feedback and were	**disappointed**	when it was not forthcoming
, his confidence as a	**mature**	student, and how these inform
1989) and show a	**talent**	for creating oral stories (Curenton
a result, were more	**careful**	in how they supported their content

analysis is students' apparent	**reluctance**	to challenge propositions in an
, alliteration skills are more	**sophisticated**	and require greater knowledge of
results provide evidence of the	**complexity**	of the relations marked by these
identify and then correct the	**problem**	from the information provided and
Kamimura (2006) found	**positive**	effects on essay quality and length

Table 6.11: Attitude in Observer voice

In the above concordance lines, the realizations of *Advisor* voice and *Observer* voice are fairly similar, and do not always reveal the communicative purpose of the evaluation. These can only be completely discovered by examining longer stretches of text. We can however detect a few implicit indications that the *Advisor* voice mostly serves to establish a niche or underline the possible impact of the research, while the *Observer* voice tends to be used when reporting findings. The purposes behind the realizations will be examined more fully in the move analysis in Chapter 7.

6.2 Construction of Graduation across contexts

In Chapter 5, I found generally more Graduation markers used by the British authors than the Chinese authors. The distribution of Graduation across contexts (see Figure 6.11) reveals the same feature, with the British using more Graduation markers in every context. Figure 6.11 also shows that Graduation, as a kind of evaluation resource, is used mostly to construct the *Observer* voice rather than *Debater* and *Advisor* voices.

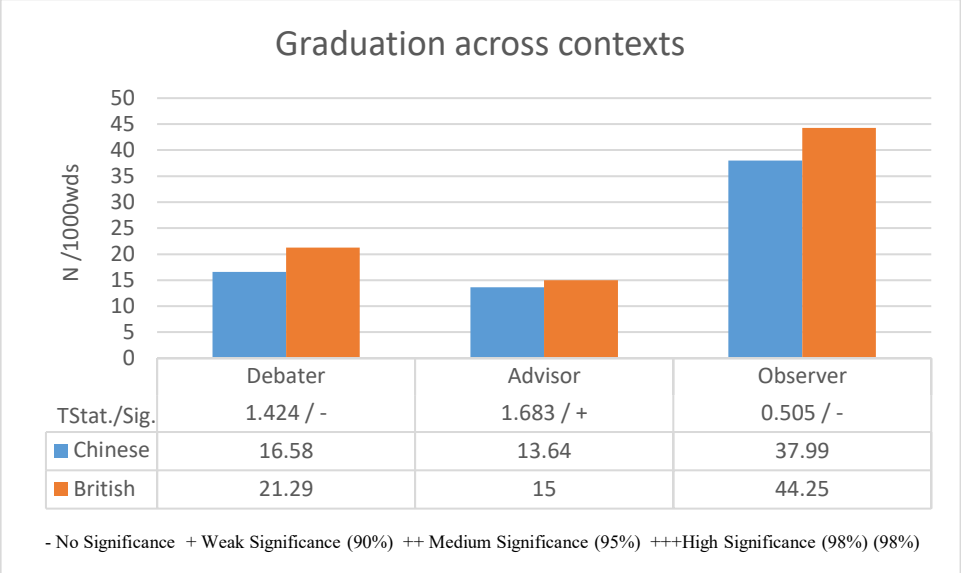


Figure 6.11: Graduation across contexts

In Chapter 5, I also found the salient features of each sub-corpus in terms of general density of Graduation. These are presented in Table 6.12, as well as the results across contexts for this chapter. Sub-categories found dominant on the same level of sub-categories in Chapter 5 are coloured in red for the sake of clarity, and in the detailed analysis, I will mainly focus on these.

In Chapter 5, as presented in the General density column in Table 6.12, the Chinese authors make significantly more extensive use of Graduation of inscribed Attitude, while the British authors make significantly more extensive use of Graduation evoking attitudinal meaning, particularly Quantification. This significant difference is confirmed by the statistics across contexts (see Table 6.12) with 'C' appearing in most of the inscribed Graduation sub-categories and its dominant sub-categories, whereas 'B' appears in most of the evoked Graduation sub-categories and its dominant sub-categories. This indicates that generally speaking, the Chinese authors rely on resources of inscribed Graduation as a dichotomous and explicit positioning of amplified or reduced 'good' or 'bad', while the British authors rely on evoked Graduation to implicitly amplify or reduce experiential meanings that are made relative and given a subjective orientation.

Graduation				Chapter 5	Chapter 6		
				General density	Debater	Advisor	Observer
Inscribed	Force			C +++	C	C	C
		Intensification		C	C	C	C
			Pre-modifying intensifier	C ++	C	C +++	C
			Infusion in attitudinal attributes	C	B	B +	C +
			Infusion in an abstraction	C	C	B	C
			Infusion in a process	C	C	B	B
		Quantification		C	C	B	B
		Enhancement		B	B	C	N/A
Evoked	Force			B ++	B +++	B	B
		Intensification		B	B ++	B	B
		Quantification		B	B +	B	B
			Amount	N/A	C ++	C	B
				Non-specific numeration	B	B	C +++	B
				Multiple references	C +++	C	N/A	N/A
			Extent	B +++	B +++	B ++	B
				Scope	B +++	B +++	B ++	B
					Space	B +++	B +++	B	B
					Time	B ++	B	B +++	B
				Distance	B	C	B	B
			Amount &Extent		B	C	B +++	B
		Enhancement			B	C	B	B
	Focus				N/A	C +++	B	C
		Authenticity			N/A	B	C	C
		Fulfilment			N/A	C +++	B	B
			Infusion in a process		C ++	C	C	N/A
			Phase: reality of process		C	C +++	B	C
		Soften			B ++	B	B	B
		Sharpen			C +++	C +++	C +	C

Table 6.12: Distribution of Graduation markers across contexts (N/A = no occurrence or equal density in the two sub-corpora; C = higher density in the Chinese sub-corpus; B = Higher density in the British sub-corpus; + = weak significance; ++ = medium significance; +++ = high significance)

6.2.1 Debater voice construed with inscribed Graduation

As shown in Figure 5.10 and Table 6.12, although the preference for inscribed Graduation by the Chinese authors is statistically significant, the difference is not salient in constructing the *Debater* voice. However, considering that the British authors generally use more Graduation

markers than Chinese authors in the *Debater* voice, the Chinese preference for the inscribed Graduation sub-type means that they devote a much larger percentage of Graduation markers to this sub-type than their British counterparts (Chinese = 2.97/16.58 = 17.91%; British = 2.68/21.29 = 12.59%). In this sense, the Chinese preference for inscribed Graduation in the *Debater* voice is fairly salient. Moreover, as found in the last chapter, almost all inscribed Graduation markers are used to increase authors' assertions instead of decreasing them; these different preferences in the *Debater* voice indicate that inscribed Graduation is a key strategy for the Chinese authors to reinforce their stance and make their argument more compelling. The details of the dominant categories and sub-categories highlighted in red in Table 6.12 are presented in Figure 6.12.

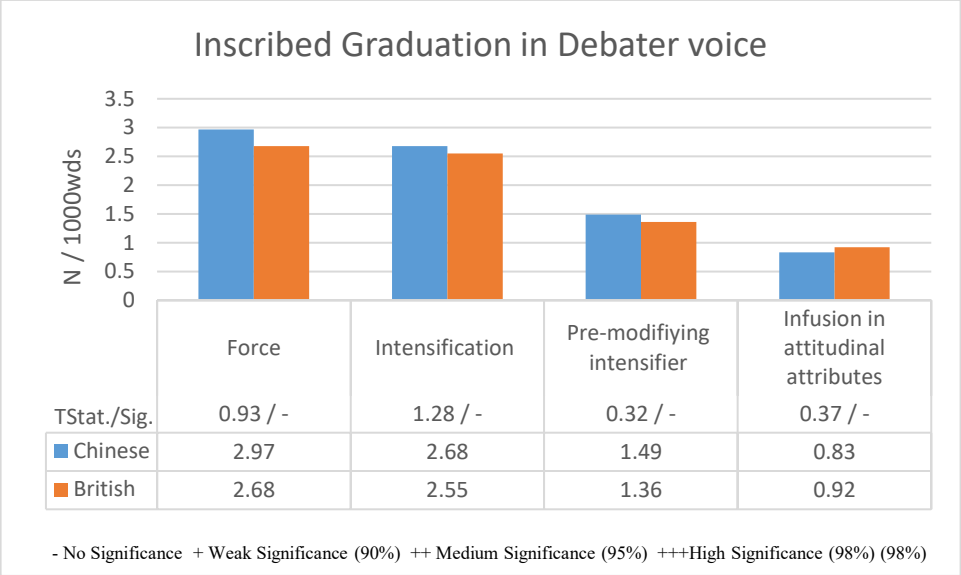


Figure 6.12: Inscribed Graduation in Debater voice

Inscribed Graduation markers in the *Debater* voice mostly consist of two types of intensifier, namely, Pre-modifying intensifiers and Infusion in attitudinal attributes. Realizations of each type are presented in Table 6.13 and Table 6.14.

Pre-modification intensifier: Debater voice of the Chinese authors
Dryer (1997) argues that a **more** useful typology in one that…

…, a corpus-based method can provide **more** complete and fine-grained typological analysis, … …, the results should be **more** convincing and generalizable. …, the book review examined in the study are restricted to those on linguistics, with which we are **more** familiar than those in other disciplines. The findings, however, have been **somewhat** conflicting due to diverse research foci and approaches. …most of the studies merely…., or offered **a little bit** over-generalized pedagogical suggestions… Halliday and Hasan (1985), has enacted an **exceptionally** key role in the field of text analysis.
Pre-modification intensifier: Debater voice of the British authors
In this study, the use of a PPP framework can be considered **more** effective because… The resulting provisional model, although not **very** robust, allow us to… Within that field, an important shared assumption is that the **most** powerful explanations of the way humans think, feel, and act are those which appeal to the principles of evolutionary theory. … because working on phonology has the **distinct** advantage that… The three strategy types described here allow us to legitimately circumvent this **rather** awkward question by…. … it is **so** well-established as part of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methodology…

Table 6.13: Pre-modification intensifier – Debater voice

Infusion in attitudinal attributes: Debater voice of the British authors
Thirdly, an ethnographic investigation of academic writing practices is **essential** if we, as researchers, are to … This article contributes to the debate by using linguistic analysis to develop **better** understanding of … This is particularly **important** for genre and register analysis…

Infusion in attitudinal attributes: Debater voice of the Chinese authors
It is **important** to choose the **best** method of building the corpus with the information on …
…, but in fact, **deeper** analysis of learner performances would provide…

Table 6.14: Infusion in attitudinal attributes – Debater voice

It has been noticed that although the Chinese authors apply more Pre-modification intensifiers, they use a smaller variety of word choices than the British authors. However, this might be due to language proficiency rather than a different national culture.

6.2.2 Advisor voice and Observer voice construed with inscribed Graduation

In the construction of the *Advisor* voice, the Chinese authors show a significant preference for Pre-modifying intensifiers (see Figure 6.13). Examples are given in Table 6.15.

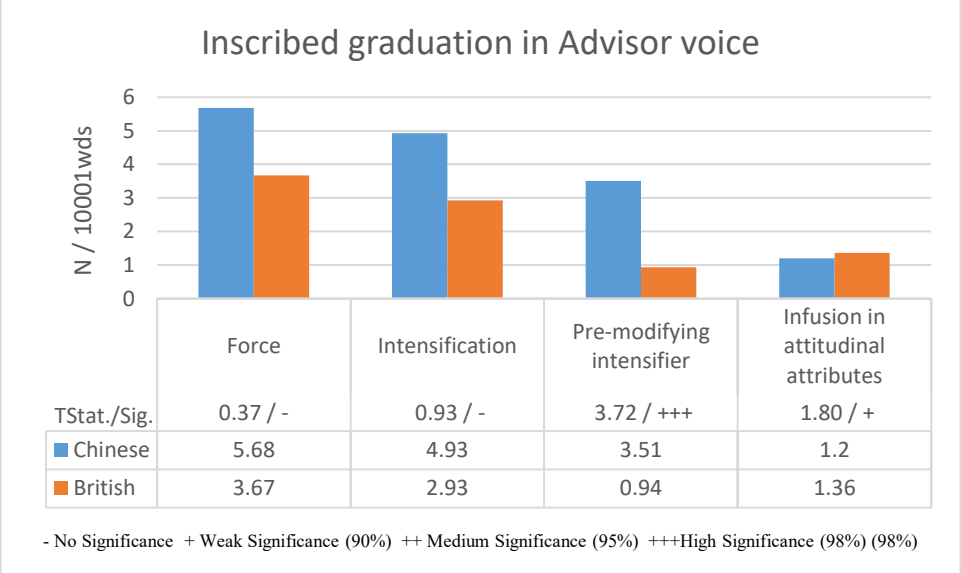


Figure 6.13: Inscribed Graduation in Advisor voice

Pre-modification intensifier: Advisor voice of the Chinese authors
Of all the forms of CMC, the medium of email ….is the **most** popular electronic means of communication.
First, learners may experience a **more** difficult time in producing complex speech act behaviours than expected by teachers.

…; the immediate teachers were viewed by students as more positive and effective ones, which led to **enhanced** trust on the instructor. …; this sharing and discussing platform is **so** easy to operate but **greatly** beneficial to every member;… …Chinese university students' summarization ability is **rather** underdeveloped in terms of the above-mentioned central processes. When an unfamiliar passage is given to EFL learners, the **biggest** challenge in retrieving the embedded meaning of the unknown words… Consequently, their recall for the information learned under the forget-remember condition is **severely** impaired compared with … She also maintains that metaphor is **highly** relevant to L2 learning,…
Pre-modification intensifier: Advisor voice of the British authors
Of particular need is research in contexts in which teachers themselves are under **extreme** pressure from external constraints. In addition, children with delayed language and literacy development at kindergarten are at **high** risk for being referred for special education services… …prevention of early reading difficulties during the preschool years is **more** effective than remediation of reading failure during the school-age years…

Table 6.15: Pre-modification intensifier – Advisor voice

In this context, the authors comment on the real world situation as amplified 'good' or amplified 'bad', so as to emphasise the importance and necessity of examining particular real world phenomena, particularly real world problems. This is a strategy used by the Chinese authors, reflecting a more explicit style when making their voice more salient through real world comments to justify their research.

The data in the sub-categories (see Figure 6.14) are more random compared to the data from the other two contexts, as the *Observer* voice does not serve an augmentative function. Realizations are presented in Table 6.16.

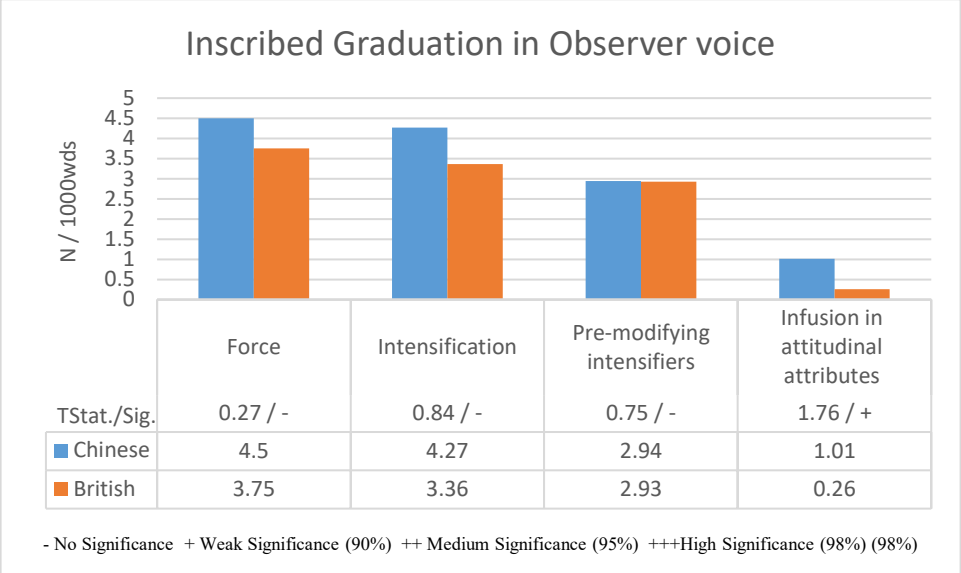


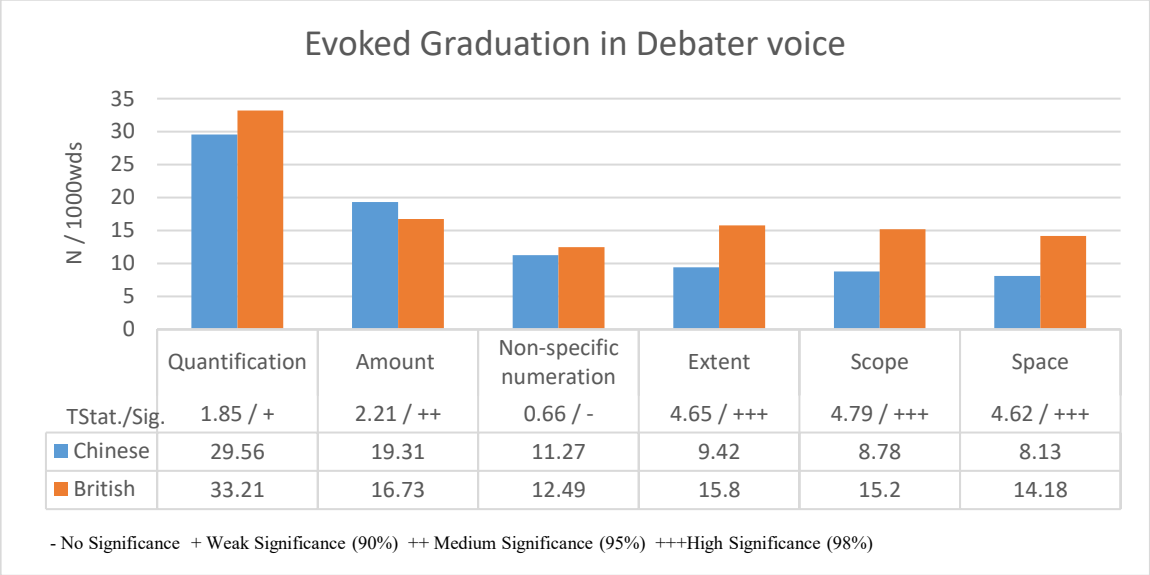
Figure 6.14: Inscribed Graduation in Observer voice

Inscribed Graduation: Observer voice of the Chinese authors
The **most** preferred move is grounder, … It has been reported that some types of discourse are **relatively easier** to summarize than others. …the breadth of vocabulary knowledge was found to be **easier** to measure than the depth of vocabulary knowledge. Before the instruction, the relevance-based implicatures were **more** easily interpreted by these students…
Inscribed Graduation: Advisor voice of the British authors
Second, for complex tasks, blue paper correlated with **better** performance than did red paper, … An unanticipated finding was that students were generally **very** positive regarding feedback, exhibiting a **very** mature, well-grounded acceptance of feedback… The data suggest that they were motivated to learn and that this was connected to a **strong** sense of L2 self.

Table 6.16: Inscribed Graduation in Observer voice

6.2.3 Debater voice construed with attitudinal meaning evoked by Graduation

In chapter 5, the British authors were found to be in favour of construal of stance through attitudinal meaning evoked by Graduation, particularly Force (assessing the degree of intensity or amount), compared to their Chinese counterparts. This general preference is similar in the construction of the *Debater* voice, except for the category of Amount (see Figure 6.15. Note that only the dominant categories highlighted in Table 6.12 are presented).



	Quantification	Amount	Non-specific numeration	Extent	Scope	Space
TStat./Sig.	1.85 / +	2.21 / ++	0.66 / -	4.65 / +++	4.79 / +++	4.62 / +++
Chinese	29.56	19.31	11.27	9.42	8.78	8.13
British	33.21	16.73	12.49	15.8	15.2	14.18

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%)

Figure 6.15: Evoked Graduation in Debater voice

As illustrated in Chapter 5, the Chinese extensively grade Amount by using Multiple references which serve the research world other than the real world, and hence the Chinese academics result in the preference for Amount in the *Debater* voice. The other dominant type of Amount is Non-specific numeration with the British authors applying more markers of this type than their Chinese counterparts. The markers that occur more than once are listed in Table 6.17, as well as a few examples.

The British authors		The Chinese authors	
Word list		Word list	
some	26	some	21
much	12	few	9
little	8	all	7
several	8	much	5
a number of	7	a number of	4
few	7	many	4
often	7	little	3
relatively	5	more	3
many	5	fully	2
somewhat	3	a few	2
frequently	3	larger	2
more	3	greater	2
sometimes	3	sufficient	2
sufficient	3	often	2
larger	2	various	2
large	2	limited	2
all	2		
always	2		
less	2		
both	2		
Examples		Examples	
The relative merits of these modes of providing feedback have been discussed at **some** length in the literature on second language acquisition (SLA). **Much** of the literature which engages with teacher education from this perspective identifies strategies to encourage critical reflection through, … There has, however, been **little** study of the ways in which learners voices may …. This linkage between action planning and the mechanisms of language production has **several** intriguing implications for …		But in the process of practice, we also run across **some** problems embodied in the following points. However, **few** studies of language testing have investigated… **All** these studies have much longer duration than the intervention on… Nevertheless, how it works in the authentic Chinese university EFL classrooms remains as a not or at least **not fully** touched upon area until very recently. **More** research is needed to confirm this point.	

There are also **a small number of** studies which … In fact, **somewhat** alarmingly, but unnecessarily, it is **sometimes** seen as the antagonist to those developments. But I do think there is a need for caution about the rhetorical claims which are **often** made by and for the new biologism. …the role of theory has **not always** been seen as a central issue by **many** who simply accept its practical character as supporting…	

Table 6.17: Non-specific numeration in Debater voice

Most of these examples seem to vaguely grade the amount of prior research, in order to imply a value of importance for the purpose of establishing a territory, or to imply a value of insufficiency of prior/current research for the purpose of establishing a research gap or suggesting further research, or to imply a value of research significance for the purpose of suggesting possible impact. The evaluative functions of Amount markers in the *Debater* voice need to be further analysed across moves.

The most salient and significant preference of the British authors in the *Debater* voice is for markers of Extent (how extensive something is in scope or distance), reflecting the similar preference in terms of general density found in Chapter 5. Extent markers are found to be mostly realised through Extent in terms of Scope (relative spread), and Scope markers are found to be mostly realised through Scope in the sense of Space. The markers that occur more than once in this study are listed in Table 6.18, as well as examples.

The British authors		The Chinese authors	
Word list		Word list	
focus*	22	focus*	12
(in) particular*	23	specific*	6
such	14	both	5
different	13	generally	5
both	12	different	5
general*	9	such	4
specific*	8	main*	4
broad*	5	limited	3
primary*	5	same	3
limited	4	widely	3
similar*	4	major	3
larger	3	strictly	2
various	3	complete	2
extensive*	3	to a certain degree	2
wide*	3	exclusively	2
overall	2	at least	2
fully	2	restricted	3
simply	2	primary	2
same	2		
extended	2		
common*	2		
to the extent	2		
Examples		Examples	
This article **focuses** on a relatively motivated and successful group of learners, …		What is more, the literature reveals that few studies **focus** on or are related to…	
To date, much of the research into academic writing from a EAP perspective, has **focused** on traditional written genres…		**Specifically**, three important dimensions are discussed.	
This expanding world of theory presents **particular** challenges for …		Although **both** studies were concerned about the relationships between…	
The paucity of **such** findings is, however,…		It is **generally** accepted that they are theoretically **different** from and conceptually inter-connected with each other.	
This type of study may well produce **different** results and fits with the kind		However, it seems that the only study to adopt **such** an approach in email	

of longitudinal design… This article is a step toward bridging this divide, offering insight into **both** the …. Although **generally** unstated in descriptions of methodology, this belief seems to be founded on the idea that…. The **specific** aims of the current research include the following:… Very **broadly**, then, we might differentiate research …. A **primary** goal of RTI is to improve the accurate identification of children with learning disabilities…	instruction was conducted by… The CL-inspired approach proposed in this study is **mainly** based on the insightfulness of CL theories,…

Table 6.18: Space in the Debater voice

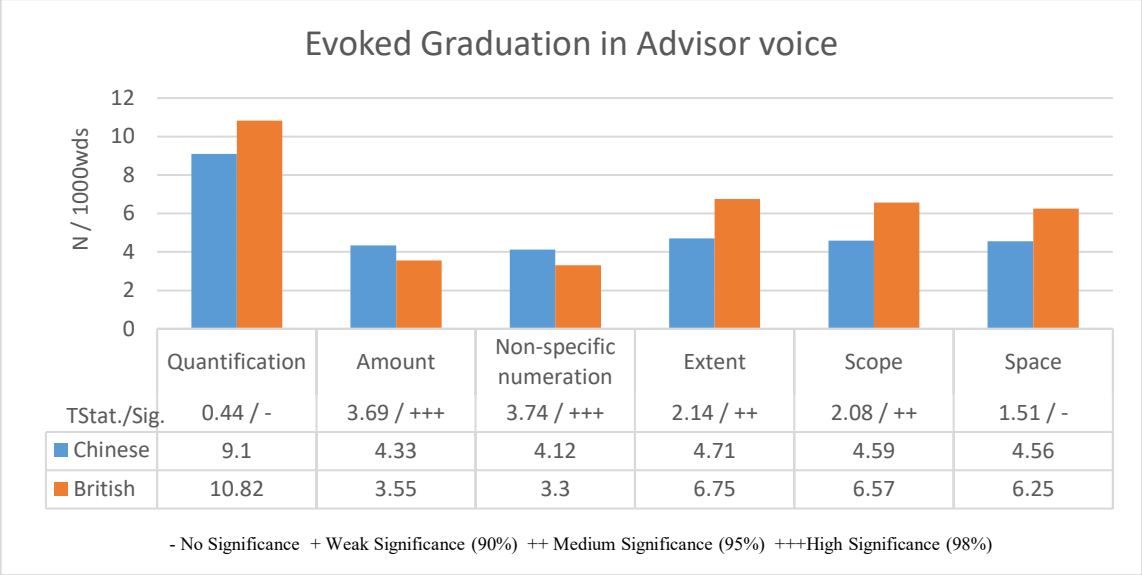
The markers presented in Table 6.18 seem to imply a value in terms of relevance, giving importance to the topics being researched (e.g., specific, focused, particular, such, primary, etc.). These markers are directly associated with research focus, goal, aim, challenge, dimension, findings, etc. Some other markers seem to imply a value in terms of generalisability, giving credibility to an opinion/evidence in research terms (e.g., generally, broadly, different, etc.). How these evoked values serve particular rhetorical purposes needs to be analysed across moves.

Apart from Force, Focus, as the other type of evoked Graduation, accounts for very little, and therefore it is not presented in Figure 6.15. In Chapter 5, Focus markers were found to be mostly markers of Phase: reality of the process (e.g., *fulfil, fill the gap, realize, meet, achieve, attempt, try, seek to*, etc.), and the general density of Focus is higher in the Chinese sub-corpus. Since most of Phase markers are used to express research aims, which belongs

to the *Debater* voice, it is apparent that the Chinese use more Focus markers in the *Debater* voice.

6.2.4 Advisor voice and Observer voice construed with attitudinal meaning evoked by Graduation

In the *Advisor* voice, the Chinese authors are found to use significantly more non-specific numeration than the British authors, unlike in the *Debater* voice (see Figure 6.16). Examples are presented in Table 6.19.



	Quantification	Amount	Non-specific numeration	Extent	Scope	Space
TStat./Sig.	0.44 / -	3.69 / +++	3.74 / +++	2.14 / ++	2.08 / ++	1.51 / -
Chinese	9.1	4.33	4.12	4.71	4.59	4.56
British	10.82	3.55	3.3	6.75	6.57	6.25

- No Significance + Weak Significance (90%) ++ Medium Significance (95%) +++High Significance (98%)

Figure 6.16: Evoked Graduation in Advisor voice

Non-specific numeration: Advisor voice of the Chinese authors
The differences may reveal **some** genre-dependent and language-bound rhetorical preferences and **some** differences between western and Chinese cultures. L2 argumentative writing tasks which involve high levels of idiomatic or phrasal verb knowledge plus the ability to generate complex sentences, manage the argumentation and bind **all** these relevant elements at the discourse level in the target language pose intricate cognitive demands for learners. It is meaningful for the course designer and English materials editor to consider these findings because the **various** aspects of vocabulary knowledge receive little attention in the

course syllabi and textbooks in Chinese EFL setting.

According to Mendelsohn (1984), L2 learners **often** do not approach the listening task in the most efficient way despite what they may do in their L1.

…which may merit heed of **many** EFL teachers and they can frame their future teaching and inquiries to help learners overcome these weaknesses.

In addition, the tendency to use a very limited range of mitigations from an array of possibilities could have resulted from teaching induction if **more** time was unintentionally spent on certain types of mitigators than on the others (Kasper, 1982; Takahashi, 2001).

Accurate and fluent identification of words is therefore a necessary precursor to good comprehension, for this may result in **less** involvement of cognitive resources in lexical …

After **a number of** anxiety-arousing experiences, the students may associate the second language with apprehension or anxiety.

…, it showed a negative correlation at a threshold of 3,000 word families, which was not **sufficient** for outstanding academic listening comprehension.

Non-specific numeration: Advisor voice of the British authors

A briefly outlined to this point, feedback is a complicated, multi-faced undertaking, and it has received **some** scrutiny in Japan, where the current study was conducted.

It is possible that **some** of the problematic usage of linking adverbials by apprentice and NNS writers may not simply be a question of under- or over-use, but may also reflect a lack of knowledge of the specific patterns in which a given adverbial typically occurs.

Working toward a more mechanistic account is important because links to memory, action planning, and other non-linguistic domains can ground the PDC approach in broader cognitive processes and avoid potential circularities among what is efficient, common, easy, salient, and other constructs that are invoked in **many** accounts of language form and use.

However, the effect of personal and social circumstances **often** beyond individual's control should also be acknowledged

Understanding how the demands of comprehension and production integrate lexical and **more** abstract hierarchical representations is an important challenge as these fields move forward.

When one is considering CBMs for emergent literacy skills, strong candidates for outcome measures should be strongly predictive of later reading, a key component of **most** curricula,

and directly measurable in young children. The claim is not that **all** aspects of language form and comprehension can be traced to the computational demands of language production, but rather that production's impact in these areas ….

Table 6.19: Non-specific numeration: Advisor voice

In the *Advisor* voice, the writers' focus is shifted from grading the amount of prior research to grading the amount/frequency of real world entities relevant to language teaching, learning and using. While grading the amount of real world entities, the markers somehow imply a positive or negative value depending on the polarity of the explicit evaluative markers in the surroundings. For example, in the concordance 'generate *complex* sentences, manage the argumentations and bind *all* these relevant elements at the discourse level in the target', the word 'all' grades the amount of 'relevant elements'. This grading per se is not enough to imply a positive or negative value. However, it is affected by the explicit evaluative item 'complex' preceding it, and therefore implies and reinforces a value of the negative situation faced by the students, for whom learning a second language is very difficult. Supposedly the Chinese writer takes this stance in this example in order to establish a real world gap and to justify the importance of examining this situation.

As with the distribution of Extent across cultural groups in the *Debater* voice, British authors also use more Extent than the Chinese authors in the *Advisor* voice. Examples of its dominant category, Space, are presented in Table 6.20.

Space: Advisor voice of the British authors
However, generalizing to other contexts should be done with care, for colours might have **different** associations depending on the venue (Aslam, 2006). Among the possible avenues for future research are closer looks at the students involved, for example through the use of detailed student profiles that include **such** elements as learning style(s). Education policy in many European countries has recently been characterised by a shift towards the inclusion of principles related to the development of the autonomous learner,

both in **general** policy and, more **specifically**, language teaching…

Pedagogies for autonomy require teachers to question critically many of their assumptions, **both** in initial and in-service teacher education…

First, they contribute to understanding regularities in linguistic form: why languages exhibit **particular** properties, with different frequencies across languages.

By contrast, language production and motor/action planning more **generally** rely on abstract high-level plans that appear quite independent from the elements in the plan.

Data from spoken corpora indicate that DMs are very common in (**at least**) native speaker speech.

Tasks could consist of real-world activities in the **broad** EAP environment and wider community…

Such situations occur where teachers or tutors have not paid **sufficient** attention to the linguistic resources used in academic writing, perhaps because they have come from an English literature background and are more **focused** on ideas, r they have come from a a high school tradition that **focusses** on error correction, and have not developed skills to identify and teach the linguistic resources writers…

Space: Advisor voice of the Chinese authors

However, Brinton (1996:35) considers that "pragmatic markers may be multifunctional operating on the local (i.e., morphophonemic, syntactic, and semantic) and global (i.e., pragmatic) levels simultaneously, as well as on **different** planes (textual and interpersonal) within the pragmatic component."

Book reviews are rich in evaluative resources, and hence they are evaluation-loaded by nature, **especially,** in comparison with all the other genres existing in the academy (Hyland, 2000).

…, it is still controversial as to whether such instructional effects are retained after a **certain** period of time…

Such knowledge is able to help teachers to explain more easily students' success or failure at completing tasks and to sequence classroom exercises and test tasks more effectively.

The idea that phonology is the **main** influence on early spelling has gained support from a range of studies in English…

This study has implications for summarization task design and development, **particularly** the

selection of source texts. Furthermore, Rehm and Naus (1990) emphasize the **central** role of memory in cognitive functioning and emotions and provide a memory processing framework to account for various aspects of depression.

Table 6.20: Space: Advisor voice

Space markers in the *Advisor* voice can also evoke a value in terms of relevance and generalisability, compared to their general functions in the *Debater* voice. However, they are realised in slightly different ways. The relevance shifts from direct ways of grading the spectrum of research focus (e.g., this article *focuses* on, the *primary* goal, *such* findings, etc.) to indirect ways of grading the spectrum of research focus. For example, it can be realised through describing various relevant situations (e.g., colours may have *different* associations) to evoke a value of the importance of examining the various real world situations. It can also be realised through describing a particular relevant situation (e.g., the *main* influence on early spelling) to evoke a value of the importance of examining a specific real world situation. However, the polarity of the evoked attitudinal meaning mostly depends on the polarity of the surrounding string of words. For example, in the concordance 'they have come from a high school tradition that *focuses* on error correction, and have *not developed skills* to', the word 'focuses' per se does not have any positivity or negativity, but it evokes a value of insufficiency when associated with an explicit negative evaluation, 'not developed skills to'. Similarly, in the *Advisor* voice, the generalisability shifts from grading the spread of an opinion/evidence (e.g., *generally* accepted) to grading the spread of a real world phenomenon (e.g., motor/action planning *generally* rely on abstract high-level plans), in order to evoke a value of the importance of examining the phenomenon or the necessity of examining the phenomenon, depending on the polarity of the surrounding words.

The above analysis of Evoked Graduation in both the *Debater* voice and the *Advisor* voice indicates the larger adoption of many types of implicit stance strategies by the British authors as compared to the Chinese authors, whereas in the *Observer* voice, less relevant to

arguments, the difference between the British authors and the Chinese authors is very subtle (see Figure 6.17). Examples are given in Table 6.21.

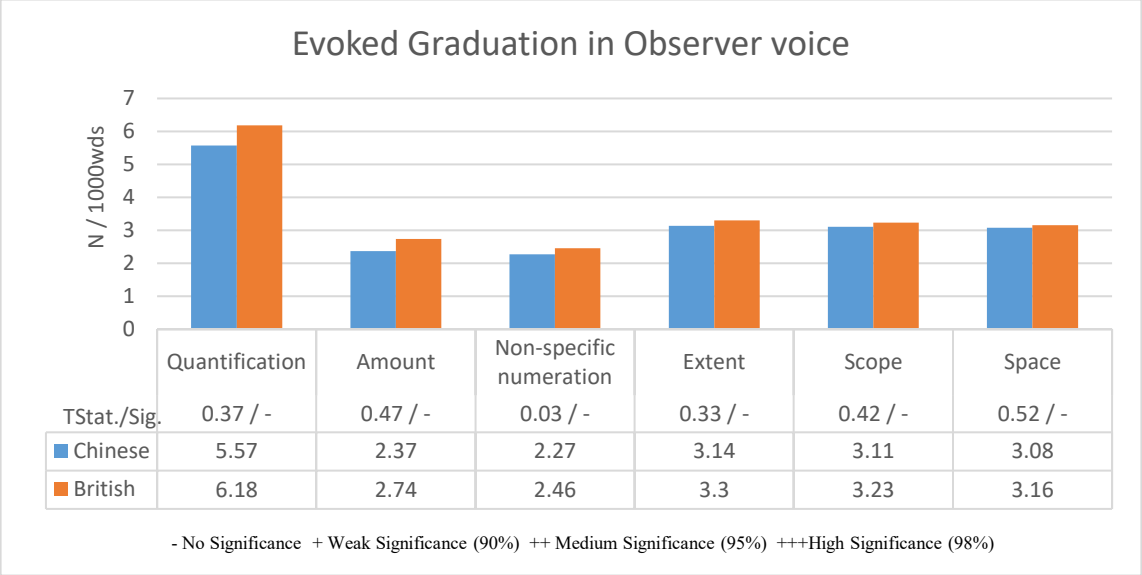


Figure 6.17: Evoked Graduation in Observer voice

Evoked Graduation: Observer voice of the British authors		
load required of students, whose	**primary**	task then becomes "reading the teacher's
paper, while for simple tasks no	**difference**	was apparent. Interestingly, the red paper was
with L2 listening, highlighting	**similarities**	and differences between the
to a strong sense of L2 self,	**both**	ideal and ought-to. In the second year,
Evoked Graduation: Observer voice of the Chinese authors		
kernels of information. Students	**generally**	reacted positively to feedback on their EFL
(Crystal, 2001). The Opening is	**basically**	‘‘empty of content’’, but ‘‘phatic and
find out the two newspapers	**differ**	significantly in their selection of quotation
the subject as in sentence (1).	**Similar**	results are found in Chinese. What we are

Table 6.21: Evoked Graduation in Observer voice

6.3 Construction of Engagement across contexts

In the course of analysis, I noticed that Attitude and Graduation markers can be used to construct any of the three voices (*Debater, Advisor* and *Observer* voice). Engagement markers, however, only serve the *Debater* voice. Attitude and Graduation mostly function

on the entity level, and sometimes on the propositional level. For example, in the verb phrase 'correct the *problem*', the attitudinal marker 'problem' functions on the entity level and negatively evaluates a situation; whereas in the utterance 'the *problem* is that the study abroad experience can often lead to learners feeling overwhelmed', the attitudinal marker 'problem' functions on the propositional level, and projects a negative evaluation on the situation - 'the study abroad experience can often lead to learners feeling overwhelmed'. No matter whether its evaluation is on the entity level or the propositional level, Attitude and Graduation only evaluate situations, and situation can be in the real world or the research world, and therefore the evaluations can function in either of the two worlds. However, Engagement markers only function on a propositional level (see examples of each type of Engagement in Table 6.22), and they do not evaluate a situation, but evaluate the writer's own position 'with respect to the value position being advanced and with respect to potential responses to that value position - by quoting or reporting, acknowledging a possibility, denying, countering, affirming and so on' (Martin & White, 2005: 36). Position taking is highly dialogic, playing a key role in communication between the reader and the writer, and transferring statements into materials for debate. Therefore, all engagement markers function to support debates.

Deny
We are of course **not** dealing with one monolithic. …this representation of English may **no** longer be a useful descriptive tool today…
Counter
Although generally unstated in descriptions of methodology, this belief…. Andriessen (2006) also found in his research that topics generally dispersed rather than reaching a conclusion, that is, discussions were elaborated in terms of breath **but** did not go deeper and did not arrive at integration or a conclusion.
Concur
This encouragement can lead to positive affect, which is **obviously** beneficial to longer-term learning behaviour…

Indeed, context of situation as a construct has been criticised by those whitin and ourside SFL for being vague and indeterminate …
Pronounce
This suggests that orthodox view, that practising language in class **does** help learners to acquire it… **Clearly**, it **did** have at least a shortterm impact upon learners' ability to use the …..
Endorse
Moreover, it was **found** that the inserted commas could elicit…. However, empirical research has **shown** that greetings are usually realized by….
Justify
…., perhaps **because** they have come from an English literature background… …; however, **since** some markers show phonological features more than other markers, phonological features are not a restricted criterion in this study for discourse markerhood.
Entertain
…, students **seem** to utilize it only to… Finally, the issue of the colour of feedback, which has been found to adversely affect cognitive performance in North American contexts, **appeared** to be of considerably less concern in these contexts.
Attribute
However, as Timmis (2012) also **acknowledges**, there have been …. …, it is **argued** that the activity of exchanging perspectives on an issue, particularly when students are …

Table 6.22: Engagement markers' function on the propositional level

In Chapter 5, I examined Engagement markers as individual items and compared the density of each type between the Chinese and the British sub-copra. As the main evaluative resources to construct the *Debater* voice, Engagement markers sometimes occur close to each other or close to Attitude and Graduation to signal a particular position taken by the

writer. The most popular type of Engagement in all combinations is Entertain (examples are given in Table 6.23).

The British RA		**The Chinese RA**	
Entertain + positive	35	Entertain + positive	22
May + positive 7 Potentially + positive 1 Can + positive 8 Likely + positive 2 Might + positive 5 Seem + positive 1 Would + positive 6 Could + positive 4 Positive + would 1		May + positive 6 Might + positive 3 Seem + positive 2 Can + positive 9 Potentially + positive 2	
Entertain + negative	6	Entertain + negative	7
Can + negative 2 May + negative 1 Can + seem + negative 1 Likely + negative 1 Would + negative 2		May + negative 6 Easy + negative 1	
Entertain + Deny (+ positive/negative)	6	Entertain + Deny (+ positive/negative)	3
May + not 4 Would + not 1 Not + seem to be 1		Would + not 1 May + not 1 May + not + negative 1	
Entertain + deny + maximum	4	Entertain + deny + maximum	0
May + not + always 4			
Entertain + Maximum	4	Entertain + Maximum + (positive/negative)	2
May + superlative 1 Might + superlative + positive 2 Probably + superlative + positive 1		May + all 1 Can + fully 1	
Entertain + comparative	1	Entertain + comparative	1
May + less		Seems to + more	
Entertain + Entertain (+ positive/negative)	2	Entertain + Entertain (+ positive/negative)	2
Perhaps + possible Would + seem + positive		May + probably May + seem to + negative	
Entertain + Justify	1	Entertain + Justify	1
Perhaps + because		Maybe + because	
Counter + Entertain + (counter/deny/concur)	5	Counter + Entertain + (counter/deny/concur)	1

But + may Although, + seem Although + may Though + may + not + positive	Although + may
Other instances	Other instances
May + not + most + positive But + may + not + always + positive Not …+ may + superlative + negative We can + but without + would + not + positive Can + positive + but + not + positive + superlative Possible + negative, + may + not simply, but + may + also + negative Can + only + really + positive Not + positive + may + need + positive One + can One + would We + can	Positive + could + simply be + likely May + negative + rather than + negative Seemingly + negative, + positive Might + more + positive. However + relative + negative Might + negative. Nevertheless + positive + although

Table 6.23: Co-occurrence of Entertain and other Appraisal markers

It can be seen from Table 6.23 that the British authors apply much more complicated positions at sentence level while the Chinese authors are more straightforward. I will discuss a number of these usages in greater detail.

1) Entertain + superlative/maximum + polarity/entity/proposition

(e.g., Probably + the most important + source for explanatory stories of this kind is evolutionary psychology.)

Through this combination, the writer presumes that readers would generally agree with the polarity/entity/proposition. In addition, the writer also signals his/her own position with a superlative/maximum marker to tell his/her audience that the writer has a maximum view on that polarity/entity/proposition. However, the amplified claim is preceded by an

Entertain marker to signal that the writer is aware of the existence of the audience who agree with the polarity/entity/proposition but may not agree with the amplified version of the polarity/proposition. Thus the Entertain marker is used to open up a space for this audience and allow them to disagree with the amplified version of the polarity/entity/proposition. However, readers who do not agree with the non-amplified polarity/entity/proposition are totally dis-aligned and ignored by the writer.

2) Entertain + Deny + superlative/maximum + polarity/entity/proposition

(e.g., … output in the English language class may + not + always + be a productive or necessary use of classroom time)

Adding a Deny marker to the pattern I have just discussed makes the stance of the writer completely different. In this case, the Deny marker signals that the writer does not agree on the polarity/entity/proposition, but realizes that the average reader will hold the opposite opinion (supporting the polarity/entity/proposition). What the writer intends to do is to disagree with those readers, but at the same time ground his/her position in the contingent, by adding a superlative/maximum marker. This reduces the number of people the writer disagrees with, distinguishing those who hold the polarity/entity/proposition from those who hold an extreme version of the polarity/entity/proposition. Adding the Entertain marker allows the reduced group of people to hold their opinion. This basically gives space for all opponents.

3) Counter + Entertain+ polarity/entity/proposition1, + polarity/entity/proposition2

(e.g., Although this may in part due [sic] to the relatively small sample size, there is attrition overtime and therefore there is a need to regularly revisit target items in class over an extended time period.)

The Counter marker signals the writer's belief that polarity/entity/proposition1 would be the 'normal' position held by the reader; this is the opposite to the writer's position. He/she

thus intends to challenge the reader's opinion by putting forward polarity/entity/proposition2. However, adding an Entertain marker in the first clause shows the writer's awareness of the existence of readers who do not hold the 'normal' position of the average reader. Thus, it explicitly aligns the audience members who hold the same opinion as the writer.

If we add Deny in the first clause, it is changed into:

4) Counter + Entertain+ Deny + polarity/entity/proposition1, + polarity/entity/proposition2

(e.g., Though these ideas may not be driving educational policy, they are influencing attitudes in ways that have the potential to affect outcomes.)

Again, the intention is completely changed. In this case 'Deny + polarity/entity/proposition1' counts as a 'normal' position held by the reader, but this leaves the question of why the 'normal' position has to be expressed through negation. I noticed that in this pattern, polarity/entity/proposition1 is always an amplified version of polarity/entity/proposition2 (see also the example in brackets, where 'driving educational policy' is an amplified version of 'influencing attitudes'). The writer intends to counter the/a 'normal' opinion, but at the same time does not want to completely dis-align with readers who do not share the same position. To ground his/her position in the contingent, the writer narrows down the group of people he/she dis-aligns with, from those who do not agree with the writer's opinion to those who do not agree with the amplified version of the writer's position. However, this narrower group of dis-aligned readers is given some space by the Entertain marker between Counter and Deny. Afterwards, by putting forward the writer's opinion (polarity/entity/proposition2), a strategy of persuasion is completed.

5) Deny + polarity/entity/proposition + Entertain + superlative/maximum + negative

(e.g., …, not to do so may severely weaken the findings of both.)

This case, in terms of logic, is an apagogic, but in terms of heteroglossia, is set in a particular writer-reader relationship. The writer expects readers not to have realized the importance of the polarity/entity/proposition. However, this leaves the question of why the proposition was not expressed as 'polarity/entity/proposition + Entertain + superlative/maximum + positive' (for example, 'to do so may greatly enhance the findings of both'). One possible reason is that the writer assumes that readers are more sensitive to negativity than to the absence of positivity. Another possible reason is that the writer assumes that readers have not considered the opposing view. Thus, to explicitly illustrate negativity, the writer denies the polarity/entity/proposition to create a scenario, and illustrates the consequence, even a very bad consequence (superlative/maximum + negative). At the same time, the writer also tries to avoid criticism by using an Entertain marker to moderate the superlative/maximum position, and therefore allow people to disagree with the amplified version of negativity.

In the most complicated combinations analysed above, the writers tend to disagree with the putative readers' viewpoints, and simultaneously, manage to open up space to alternative positions. These strategies are particularly favoured by the British authors, indicating that a harmonious writer-reader relationship is more crucial to the British authors than to the Chinese authors. Apart from combinations containing Entertain, there are also other combinations of Engagement (examples are given in Table 6.24).

The British RA		**The Chinese RA**	
Deny + maximum	7	Deny + maximum	4
Not much/always/major/all/generally		*Not + all/commonly/always*	
Deny + deny	1	Deny + deny	2
Don't deny		If there are *no* conflicts over meaning, the issue is *not* political	
Deny + comparative + pronounce	1	Deny + comparative + pronounce	0
The next step is *no less obvious* to			
Counter + deny	3	Counter + deny	13
Although these methods indicate…, *neither* method shows… …, *but without*…, it is difficult for… …, *but* had been taught *none* of the…		*Although* the current data *cannot* be conclusive about…, the study is aimed at… …. *However, …cannot* be… *Although* old view is positive, it *cannot* solve…	

		...., *but* … This is accounted for by the fact that there is *no*…. *However*, such findings *cannot* be…. *However*, the current study *did not*… *Although* …, there is accumulating evidence that this is *not* the case. *However*, *no* …was observed… Being a necessary *though not* a sufficient… …, *nevertheless*, they are *not* all… *Nevertheless*, ….remains as a *not* fully touched…	
Pronounce + counter	2	Pronounce + counter	0
Clearly,….. Although…. One *must …. Although…*			
Other	2	Other	1
showed + though …, but without…, … would not …		Although…, … + should…	

Table 6.24: Other combinations of Engagement

Although in general, there are more occurrences of each combination in the British sub-corpus, there is one combination that is particularly favoured by the Chinese authors, namely, Counter + Deny (see Table 6.24). It projects on to the addressee particular beliefs or expectations, mainly in three ways.

1) polarity/entity/proposition 1 + Counter + Deny + polarity/entity/proposition 2

(e.g., The research mentioned above provides some hints that the breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge is significantly correlated with reading comprehension*; + however*, + such findings *cannot* + be overgeneralized to listening).

Polarity/entity/proposition 2 is an extensive version of polarity/entity/proposition 1. The writer assumes that at least some members of his/her mass audience will take polarity/entity/proposition 1 as evidence to reach a conclusion of polarity/entity/proposition 2. To speak against the readers, the writer first counters polarity/entity/proposition 1, and then denies polarity/entity/proposition 2. It is a string of

markers that is strongly against the putative addressee, dis-aligning the writer from the audience.

2) Counter + Deny + polarity/entity/proposition 1, + polarity/entity/proposition 2

(e.g., *Although* + the current data *cannot* be + conclusive about performance of all native English speakers and L1 Chinese speakers of English, + the study is aimed at providing a suggestive picture of how Mandarin Chinese DMs influence English DM use.)

This case is very similar to the combination 'Counter + Entertain+ Deny + polarity/entity/proposition1, + polarity/entity/proposition2' discussed above. 'Deny + polarity/entity/proposition1' counts as a 'normal' position held by the reader. Polarity/entity/proposition1 is an amplified version of polarity/entity/proposition 2. The writer intends to counter 'normal' opinion, but at the same time does not want to completely dis-align with readers who hold this 'normal' opinion. To ground his/her position in the contingent, the writer narrows down the group of people he/she dis-aligns with, from those who do not agree with the writer's opinion to those who do not agree with the amplified version of the writer's position. Therefore, some space is given to the audience.

3) Counter + polarity/entity/proposition 1, + Deny + polarity/entity/proposition 2

(e.g., Although + the advanced communication media is the powerful support of the modern education, + it *cannot* + solve the problem of psychological barrier.)

In this case, polarity/entity/proposition 2 is an extensive version of polarity/entity/proposition 1. The writer explicitly assumes (by using *although*) that at least some members of his/her mass audience will take polarity/entity/proposition 1 as evidence to reach a conclusion of polarity/entity/proposition 2. To speak against the readers, the writer simply denies polarity/entity/proposition 2. It is also a string of markers that is strongly against the putative addressee.

The combination of Counter + Deny is mostly used to Contract different opinions in the way that dis-align with the readers. This bold way of position taking may threaten the 'face' of putative readers.

The combinations of Engagement markers reflect the more sophisticated techniques taken by the British writers as compared to the Chinese writers, on a fine line between expressing strong opinions and maintaining relationships with other members of the community, constructing a critical but friendly *Debater* voice. The examples given in this chapter are the most common ones that may occur in any move of the introduction or conclusion sections. There are many more combinations that need to be analysed within moves in Chapter 7 to understand their particular rhetorical purposes.

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter has examined the voicing of values across contexts – how Attitude, Graduation and Engagement are distributed across contexts and how they cooperate to construct a particular voice.

The British authors and the Chinese authors share a number of commonalities in this study. Research articles have an important goal of persuading the readers (Swales, 1990, 2004; Hunston, 1993, 1994; Hyland, 2005; Charles, 2006, 2007). As expected, to both groups of authors, the *Debater* voice is the most prominent and important of the three types of voices, followed by the *Advisor* voice that also plays a part in the argument. Each type of Appraisal (Attitude, Graduation, Engagement), however, is differently distributed across contexts. For both groups of authors, all Engagement markers serve the *Debater* voice, most Attitude markers serve the *Advisor* voice, and most Graduation markers serve the *Observer* voice. However, Hood (2004) found more Graduation in the Field of Research (similar to the *Debater* context). This is probably due to the fact that her identification of the Field of Research includes the *Debater* context and some *Advisor* context in the current study, and hence it is hard to compare the results. The current study is similar to Hood (2004: 173) in

that she also found more Attitude in in the Field of Domain (similar to some *Advisor* contexts together with the *Observer* context); however, this does not imply that Attitude is not an important resource for research arguments. If we consider the proportions of Attitude, Graduation and Engagement markers in each type of voice (*Debater, Advisor, Observer*), we have a different perspective. In this study, Attitude takes the biggest proportion in both the *Debater* voice and *Advisor* voice, and Graduation takes the biggest proportion in the *Observer* voice. This reflects the fact that explicit subjectivity still plays a crucial part in research arguments even if the register of research articles is relatively more objective than other registers (Biber *et al.,* 1999). Apart from the general commonalities, the two groups of authors adopt somewhat different strategies when constructing each type of voice, particularly the *Debater* voice.

In Chapter 5, the frequency of Appraisal markers in the Chinese sub-corpus was found to be generally less than in the British sub-corpus. In this chapter, the frequency of Appraisal markers in the Chinese sub-corpus is also less than in the British sub-corpus in every evaluative context. At this point, I can conclude that the Chinese are less evaluative and less argumentative than the British. However, in the construction of the *Debater* voice, the characteristics of each group of authors are not either modest/polite/implicit/positive or bold/critical/explicit/negative. Both groups of authors are found to mix different strategies to construe stance on a macro level. The British authors use more evaluation for more types of **explicit feelings** to support debates. For example, by explicitly signalling that they are the agents (e.g., *I, we*) of positively anticipated (e.g., *interested, hope, curious*) outcomes, they portray a passionate image of themselves. By criticizing the Propriety (e.g., *taken for granted, careful, critical examination, risks*, *mistaken*) of other research and evaluating the Composition (e.g., *compatible, fragmentary*) of the approaches or theories of other researchers, the British authors question or challenge other members in the community. Sometimes, by using Reaction (e.g., *interesting, appealing, difficult, challenge*) as a type of Appreciation, the British academics express emotions in a slightly less personal way. Although the British authors use a large number of the least personally-oriented feeling,

Social valuation (e.g., *important, problem*) to evaluate phenomena, it is still surprising to discover a considerable amount of explicit evaluation of people, including the writers themselves and other members of the research community. This feature is normally found salient in student writing when compared to professional research writing, and is suggested to be due to students' lack of knowledge of academic genres (Hood, 2004: 173; Coffin, 2009). However, the professional British authors in this study certainly have knowledge of research genres. I argue that their preference for explicit emotions needs to be considered together with other preferences. While being explicit about feelings, the British authors also generally use more **Entertain** (e.g., *perhaps/may/can/might/would + positive/negative attitude*) to balance between the evidentiality and explicitness of their claims. Entertain is also often used by the British authors when Countering (e.g., *although, however*) or Denying (e.g., *no, not*) the putative readers' opinions so as to be able to explicitly express their viewpoints and simultaneously keep a good relationship with the readers. The British authors also tend **not** to **grade their explicit claims** (e.g., *very risky, very important*), but support or tone down their positions by **grading experiential meaning** (e.g., *not always, much of the literature, several implications, little study*). In this way, they are able to imply a value of importance, significance or credibility for their research but also lower subjectivity by providing objective evidence. A straightforward argument style and an individualist culture in the West (Hofstede, 2010; Tweed & Lehman, 2002; Peng & Nisbett, 1999; Bodde, 1991: Hu & Cao, 2011) do not explain why the British authors make such efforts to moderate their positions in order to maintain their 'face'.

In contrast, the Chinese authors generally prefer to **avoid explicit feelings** in the construction of the *Debater* voice. For example, they tend not to expose themselves (i.e., no authorial presence) when expressing emotions, but convey the evaluative potential of their own claims through a unspecified or impersonal agent (e.g., *the initials*, *the study*), so as to avoid showing personal benefits and appear to speak for the good of other members in the community. They also tend not to explicitly judge other members in the research community, whether the Capacity of other researchers or the Composition of research

theories, approach or findings. However, they are less conservative about complimenting their own Capacity (e.g., *offer, achieve, contribute*). Although in general explicit evaluation of people is avoided, the Chinese authors are generally **less positive** than the British authors by devoting less proportion of their explicit attitude to positive orientation, which is not in line with expectations of a collective culture and a face culture. The Chinese authors also tend to **reinforce their explicit attitudes and compel their arguments by using upscaled Graduation** (e.g., *more useful, more convincing, exceptionally key role*), taking a dichotomous and explicit positioning of amplified or reduced 'good' or 'bad'. Many of their attitudes are asserted through **monologues**, ignoring putative readers' alternative views. If, as said in the literature, the Chinese have a writing culture of delivering knowledge as it originally is, the Chinese academics' extensive use of monologues is understandable; however, some monologues contain the writers' own explicit attitudes and even reinforced attitudes which are not widely accepted old knowledge. Confucius culture and collectivist culture do not explain why the Chinese authors intentionally cause misunderstandings by presenting explicit personal opinions as unquestioned and shared knowledge. 'Face' culture also does not save the writers or readers' face in the international research community if Chinese authors are assertive about their own opinions instead of toning down or giving space to alternative voices.

Apparently, both the Chinese and the British authors are aware of the need to argue for their own opinions and take their own positions in the international research community, while also maintaining a good relationship with the readers. However, they simply choose opposite ways to realise the same purposes. The Chinese authors maintain writer-reader relationships by avoiding the explicit evaluation of people, but the British authors maintain writer-reader relationships by toning down their stance or evoking a stance. The Chinese authors argue for their own positions by reinforcing their attitudes and construing them as unquestioned, whereas the British authors argue for their own positions by explicitly evaluating people and phenomena.

This feature is also reflected in the *Advisor* voice. The Chinese authors prefer to comment on the real world situation as amplified 'good' or amplified 'bad', so as to emphasise the importance and necessity of examining particular real world phenomena. The British authors, instead, realise the same purpose by grading the relevance and generalisability of a real world phenomenon. However, not many strategies were found in the *Advisor* voice. Apart from the above similar strategies, I only found one difference in terms of explicit Attitude in the *Advisor* voice. The Chinese authors in this study prefer to make explicit comments on the capacity of language learners, the complexity of the language learning process and the learners' reactions towards it, whereas the British authors prefer to make explicit comments on learners' or teachers' affect, their own obligation to be of help to students, and real world phenomena in general. In the *Observer* voice, no strategies were found, which confirms that it is the least relevant context for arguments, and that arguments require stance techniques to convince readers.

Although this chapter has discussed how the Chinese authors generally construct their voices differently from the British authors, particularly as debaters, it is still not clear how stance is construed step by step throughout the introduction and conclusion sections. For example, we do not know in which particular move evoked values appear, or what particular combinations of Engagement markers serve the purpose of establishing a niche, or consolidating results. This will be analysed in Chapter 7 using genre analysis.

CHAPTER 7. ANALYSIS THREE: CONSTRUCTION OF STANCE AND VOICE THROUGHOUT MOVES

In Chapter 6, I discussed the categorical distribution of kinds of expressions of values with kind of voices, particularly in the *Debater* voice. For example, the British authors are in favour of **explicit feelings**, but also use more **Entertain and evoked Graduation**, whereas the Chinese authors generally prefer to **avoid explicit feelings,** but are generally **less positive**, and tend to **reinforce their explicit attitudes and compel their arguments by using upscaled Graduation** and **monologues**. These differences have been illustrated category by category. However, interpersonal meanings are not limited by categorical boundaries or separated as local values, but are realised prosodically. As Lemke (1998:43) suggested, "components of what is functionally a single overall evaluation are spread out through the clause, clause-complex, or even longer stretches of text. As this happens they overlap with other evaluative meanings". This prosodic flow serves the purpose of genre, comprising "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (Swales 1990: 58). In this chapter, I investigate how interpersonal meanings co-articulate with one another differently in the Chinese sub-corpus and the British sub-corpus, to realise each communicative purpose in the genre of applied linguistics research articles.

The analysis unfolds across a sequence of moves in the introduction section (Establishing a Territory, Establishing a Niche, Presenting the Current Work) and conclusion (Contextualising the Study, Consolidation of Results, Limitation of the Study, Further Research Suggested). Due to limited space, I will only present the dominant markers in each move, and only analyse each move quite broadly, rather than identifying detailed steps within each move. When comparing the co-articulation of stance, realizations within long stretches of texts in my data will be provided. The characteristic co-occurring Engagement markers in each sub-corpus will also be analysed in a separate section in this chapter with a focus on the relationship with certain Engagement patterns and particular rhetorical

purposes. At the end of this chapter, I will provide a thorough discussion of the construction of stance and voice in each sub-corpus.

7.1 Co-articulating stance in Introduction Move 1 – Establishing a Territory

According to John Swales's CARS model (2004: 137-165), research articles start with the purpose of showing the readers that the general research area is important, central, interesting, problematic, or relevant in some way, and reviewing relevant items of previous research in the area. To realize this purpose, the British authors and the Chinese authors adopt quite different ways of constructing stance. All the dominant types of Appraisal marker are presented in Figure 7.1, Figure 7.2 and Figure 7.3, and are illustrated in Example 7.1 and Example 7.2. To be rigorous, the examples from each sub-corpus that have been chosen for comparison are both on the topic of phonological awareness, and they both come from the beginning of Move 1, the middle of Move 1 and the end of Move 1. However, Example 7.1 and Example 7.2 do not differ in all the aspects that are marked as being statistically significant in Figure 7.1, Figure 7.2 and Figure 7.3. When this happens, I will provide short examples from other texts.

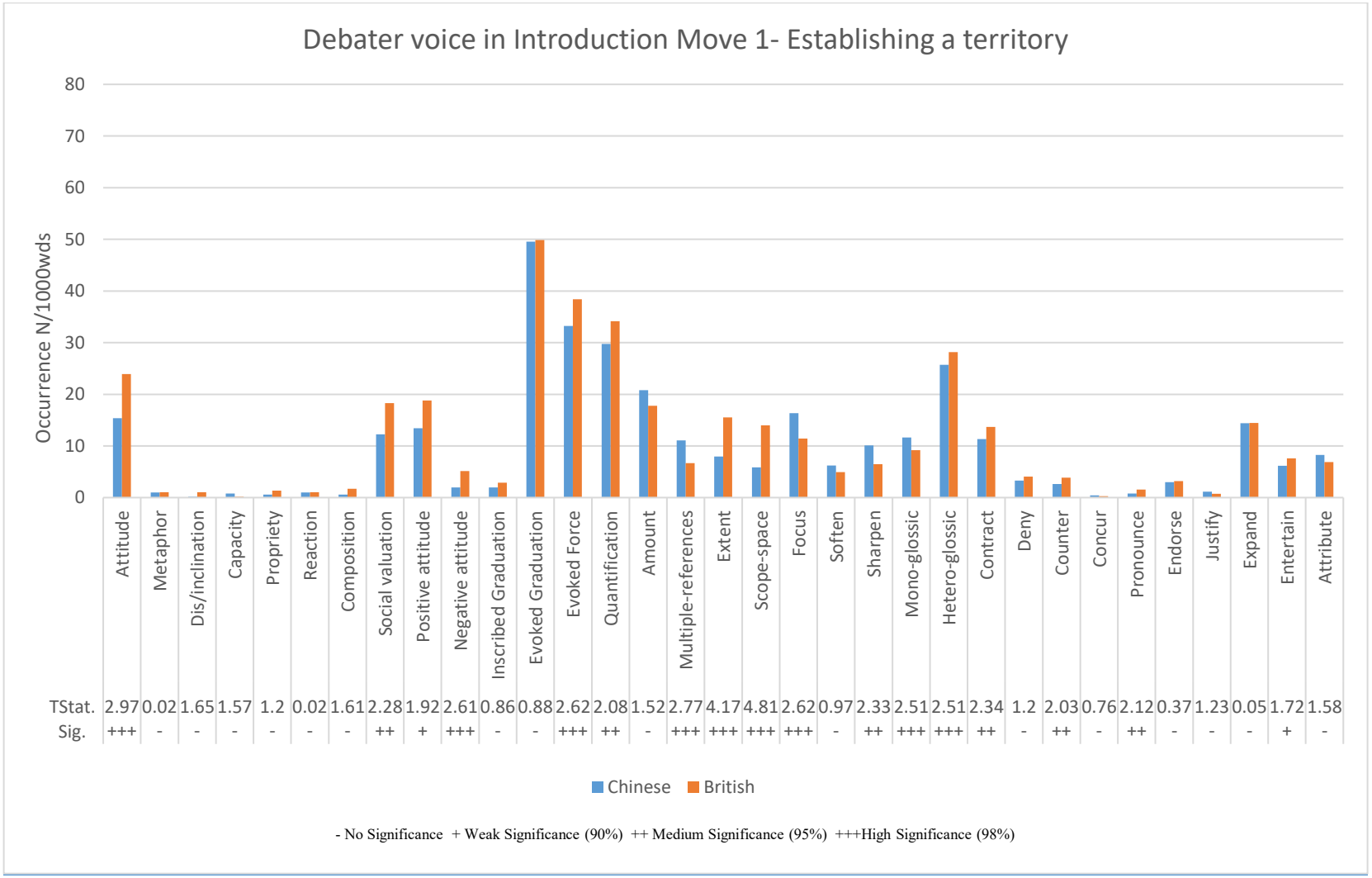
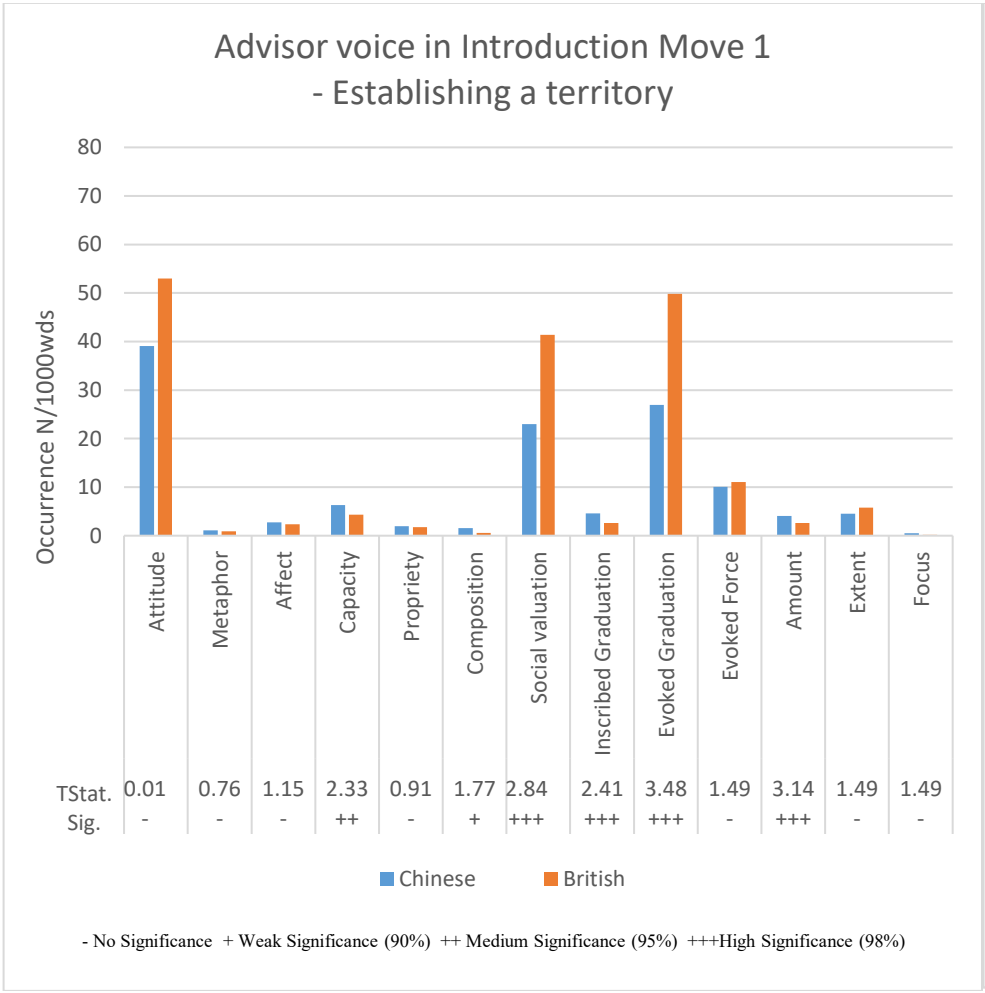


Figure 7.1: Debater voice in Introduction Move 1 – Establishing a territory



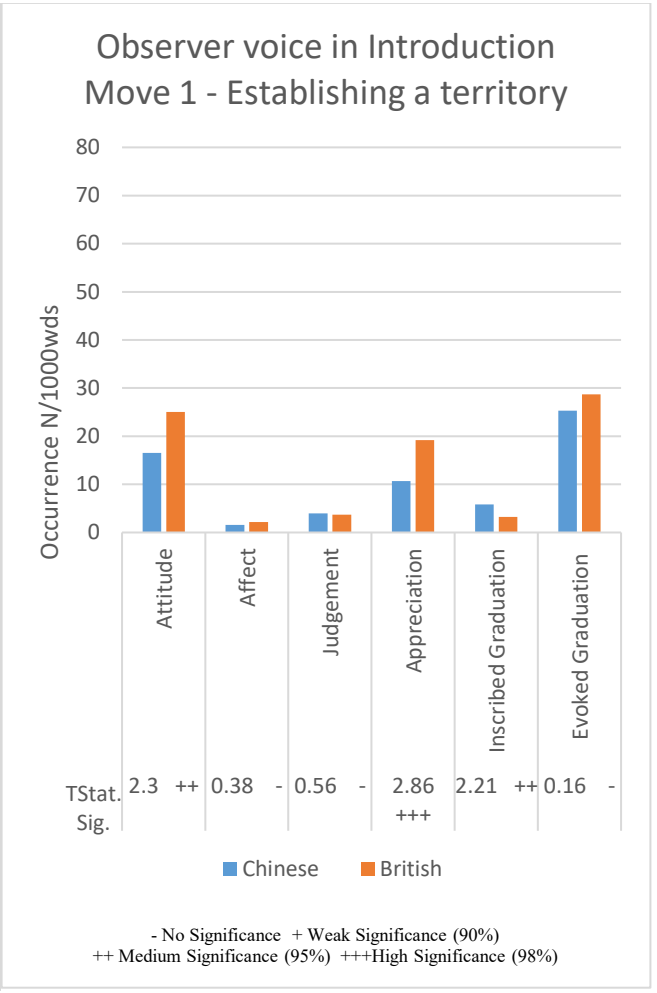


Figure 7.2: Advisor voice in Introduction Move 1 – Establishing a territory
Figure 7.3: Observer voice in Introduction Move 1 – Establishing a territory

Example 7.1: Introduction Move 1 extracted from the British sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract are in purple, Entertain are in green.)

Emergent literacy consists of the skills that facilitate the development of conventional reading abilities (Whitehurst & Lonigan, 1998). In its meta-analysis of early literacy research, the National Early Literacy Panel (2008) identified several emergent literacy skills that consistently predicted later reading achievement (beyond the influences of IQ and socioeconomic status), including alphabet knowledge, phonological awareness, print awareness, and oral language. Research has consistently shown that children who enter school behind their peers in emergent literacy skills are unlikely to catch up and may fall further behind over time (e.g., Scarborough, 2001; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998).

Taken together, these findings suggest that children from minority backgrounds may score lower on traditional standardized tests because of a variety of influences distinct from the children's actual skill set or potential for learning (see Fuchs & Fuchs, 2006, for a review). The latter two points are particularly concerning given that a large proportion of children participating in publicly funded early childhood programs (e.g., Head Start) are from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds.

.....

A primary goal of RTI is to improve the accurate identification of children with learning disabilities through universal screening and monitoring of learning over time versus identification based on a discrepancy model (i.e., significantly lower achievement than would be expected based on age, intelligence, and experience; Justice, McGinty, Guo, & Moore, 2009). In an RTI approach children who are at risk and/or not progressing as expected through general educational programming are provided with supplemental small-group or individual instruction (Justice et al., 2009). A comprehensive assessment system in RTI involves the use of both benchmark measures (e.g., universal screeners) and progressmonitoring measures (Justice et al., 2009). Benchmark and progress-monitoring measures may be identical, with the primary difference being the frequency of administration (Justice et al., 2009). In order to effectively implement RTI in early childhood, one must identify appropriate assessments tools. Although the RTI approach for school-age children is supported by a growing body of evidence, RTI in early childhood is an emerging practice, with many aspects (e.g., assessment approaches and benchmarks) still under debate (National Professional Development Center on Inclusion, 2012).

Example 7.2: Introduction Move 1 extracted from the Chinese sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined)

Phonological awareness (PA) refers to the ability to perceive and manipulate the sounds of spoken words (Mattingly, 1972). It is the ability to hear and manipulate the sounds in spoken words and the understanding of different ways in which oral language can be divided into smaller components and manipulated (Wagner et al., 1997). Significant correlation between early PA and subsequent reading and spelling skills has been demonstrated in many studies (e.g., Bryant et al., 1990; Caravolas et al., 2001; Silva & Alves-Martins, 2002; Gillon, 2004).

Dickinson and Neumann (2006) assert that early childhood literacy is the best investment for facilitating the growth needed for a lifetime of success.

……

Spelling is the process of converting oral language to visual form by placing graphic symbols on some writing surface and spellers need to map accurately and rapidly the connection between phonemes and sub-lexical segments to graphemes (Goswani & Bryant, 1990). The English writing system is alphabetic in structure, with graphemes or graphic characters representing speech sounds and English spelling system reflects a greater degree of regularity (Wood & Connelly, 2009). The idea that phonology is the main influence on early spelling has gained support from a range of studies in English, in other alphabetic orthographies, and in non alphabetic languages (e.g. Treiman, 1993; Varnhargen et al., 1997, Bryant et al., 1999; Sprenger-Charolles et al., 2003; Abu-Rabia & Taha, 2006).

.....And whether PA training has effect on reading or spelling development of children stands as a watershed here: One line of studies have found ~~significant effect of PA training on reading and spelling~~ (Treiman & Baron, 1983; Cunningham, 1990); while the other line have found ~~none significant effects~~ (Olofsson & Lundberg, 1985; Brady, 1994; Brennan & Ireson, 1997). The same controversy exits in the EFL field among the relatively sparse studies on PA training and its longterm effect assessment (Lundberg et al., 1988; Bradley & Bryant, 1985; Lie, 1991; Kozminsky & Kozminsky's, 1995; Castles & Coltheart, 2004).

When employing the role of a *debater*, the British authors use significantly more Social valuation, Evoked Force, Contract, Entertain and negative attitudinal markers, whereas the Chinese authors use significantly more Multiple references, Focus and Monoglossia.

In Example 7.1, although the research article starts with a non-integral Monoglossic reference, it switches to communication with putative readers from the second sentence, and basically maintains this **dialogic relationship** throughout the course of introducing the topic (assessment of phonological awareness skills). The writers first Evoke the importance of the topic by using the word 'constantly' which amplifies the Amount of prior research that has identified the significant role played by phonological awareness and the Extent of this research in terms of Time. Simultaneously, the writers agree with this research by reporting it with an Endorse marker, 'shown', in order to contract the possibility that the topic is not so important and transfer the prior findings into evidence for the justification of the current topic. However, the writers also consider the putative opponents with the referenced statement being Entertained, so these readers will not feel threatened.

In the later parts of Move 1, the writers mostly evaluate the advantages and disadvantages of different ways of assessing early developing phonological awareness skills. To carefully criticise the traditional standardised tests, the writers first Acknowledge criticism of these tests by other researchers with the referenced criticism Entertained, so as to open the discussion up to alternative viewpoints. The writers then scale down the Extent of the prior findings that criticise traditional tests to 'the latter two points' and 'particularly', and explicitly Appreciate the problems mentioned as 'concerning', thereby avoiding explicit criticism on a large scale. In this way, the writers manage to criticise as well as maintain their relationship with readers.

When evaluating the RTI approach, its advantages are first explicitly Appreciated as being 'expected' to lower achievement, and being 'comprehensive'. To avoid direct construal of disadvantages, the writers first Contract dialogic space by Pronouncing (i.e., *must*) a general accepted principle that to 'effectively implement RIT', an 'appropriate assessment tool' is crucial. The argument is then followed by a concession (i.e., *although*) to further prepare the putative opponents. In the concession, when acknowledging the opponents' view, the writers use explicit Appreciation, 'supported' and 'evidence', and Extent, 'growing'; when

Countering the opponents, the writers use an Amount marker, 'many', to Evoke an evaluation of the practice of RTI as problematic, and point out that the disagreement is just one voice of a 'debate'.

From the above analysis we can see that the writers use downscaled Extent or entertain when disagreeing, particularly when strongly disagreeing using explicit negative Attitude. Advantages are normally expressed explicitly and positively, while disadvantages are normally expressed through Counter (i.e., concession) and Extent.

In Example 7.2, the Chinese authors open up the research article straight away with the definition of a term. This is construed Monoglossically, giving a very authoritative stance. This assertive stance is supported by a large number of multiple references throughout Move 1 which are reported with fulfilled reality process markers (e.g., *demonstrated, shown, found*) or construed as non-integral references. Half of the following referenced claims are also expressed in Monoglossia. In this way, the writers strongly align with the prior researchers, take prior views as unquestioned knowledge and barely consider any putative disagreement from the readers. Multiple references can also project an image of the authors as knowledgeable. Later in Move 1, the authors seem to have the intention to explicitly express their interests by using the Affect marker, 'interested'; however, this is used to portray the image of other 'researchers' instead of themselves, and is expressed again in a Monoglossic claim, indicating that the general interests are unquestionable interests. The overall stance of this text is to show that the topic the Chinese authors examine is very important because it is confirmed by a large amount of unquestioned literature, whether the readers agree or not.

When playing the Advisor voice, the real world comes into play through happening situations that need to be understood and improved in some way. The British authors have a significant preference for Social valuation and Evoked Graduation, whereas the Chinese

authors prefer to use Capacity, Composition, Inscribed Graduation and Amount (see Figure 7.2.

In Example 7.1, the British writers use more Evoked Graduation markers (e.g., *over time, lower, diverse, general, small*). Most of these are used to evoke a negative value. 'Over time' is used to strengthen the preceding negative Attitude; *large, a variety of* and *diverse* are used to evoke the problematic nature of the situation, influenced by the negative Attitude marker 'concerning'. 'Small-group' is used to co-articulate the negative situation 'at risk'. In this way, the real world is constructed as something that needs to be improved, so as to justify an examination of the problem. Moreover, phonological awareness and the assessment needed are evaluated positively using social valuation, (e.g., *facilitate, development, achievement and appropriate*), explicitly pointing out a potential way to find the solution to the real world problem, and thereby justifying the necessity of examining the assessment of phonological awareness skills.

In Example 7.2, the Chinese authors mention the real world language ability of people with a number of positive Capacity markers (e.g., *accurately, rapidly*) in order to make it explicit that phonological awareness has a positive correlation with language ability. This positive correlation is also explicitly strengthened by the Inscribed Graduation marker, 'best investment'. This *Advisor* voice explicitly supports the view of the *Debater* voice that the topic is very important. These explicit Attitudinal markers also co-articulate with implicit evaluative resources such as Amount markers (e.g., *growth, smaller, some, greater*). For example, 'growth' evokes a positive value on childhood literacy given its position between the positive Attitude markers, 'facilitating' and 'success'.

However, the difference in Capacity indicated in Figure 7.2 is not well reflected in Example 7.1 and Example 7.2, and there is no Composition in Example 7.2. In other texts, I found expressions of Capacity such as 'communicate and interact together in order to *solve* the confronted problems' to justify the importance of examining the use of cyberspace, or '*inappropriate* or *unacceptable* address forms, *unreasonable* time frames, and *absence* of

greeting and closings' to justify the need to examine and improve students' email literacy. I also found expressions of Composition such as 'cohesion…organizes all the relevant information *orderly* [sic] which binds a text as a unified whole' to justify the importance of examining cohesion.

On the other hand, there is a great deal of evaluation found in the *Observer* voice. In Example 7.2, when the writer described what was found previously regarding the correlation between PA training and reading/spelling, he selected both findings, one showing significant effect and the other one showing no significant effect. This indicated that both findings are interesting findings to the author whether or not Extent markers are used to Evoke positive or negative values.

7.2 Co-articulating stance in Introduction Move 2 – Establishing a niche

After the necessary background on the topic has been established, the writers go on to argue that there is an open 'niche' in the prior research or in the real world (Swales 1990: 137-165; Samraj 2002), a space that needs to be filled by additional research. Swales (1990: 141) suggests that this activity is normally accomplished through counter-claiming, indicating a gap, question-raising or continuing a tradition. In this particularly argumentative Move, the Chinese and the British are found to be very similar in their use of Engagement markers (see Figure 7.4); however, there are still significant differences in other types of markers in the *Debater* voice (see Figure 7.4), *Advisor* voice (see Figure 7.5) and *Observer* voice (see Figure 7.6). Example 7.3 and Example 7.4 illustrate this. Text B1 in Example 7.3 and Text C1 in Example 7.4 are both on the topic of discourse markers. Text B2 in Example 7.3 and Text C2 in Example 7.4 are extracted from RAs on different topics, but are representative examples of usage in the corpus.

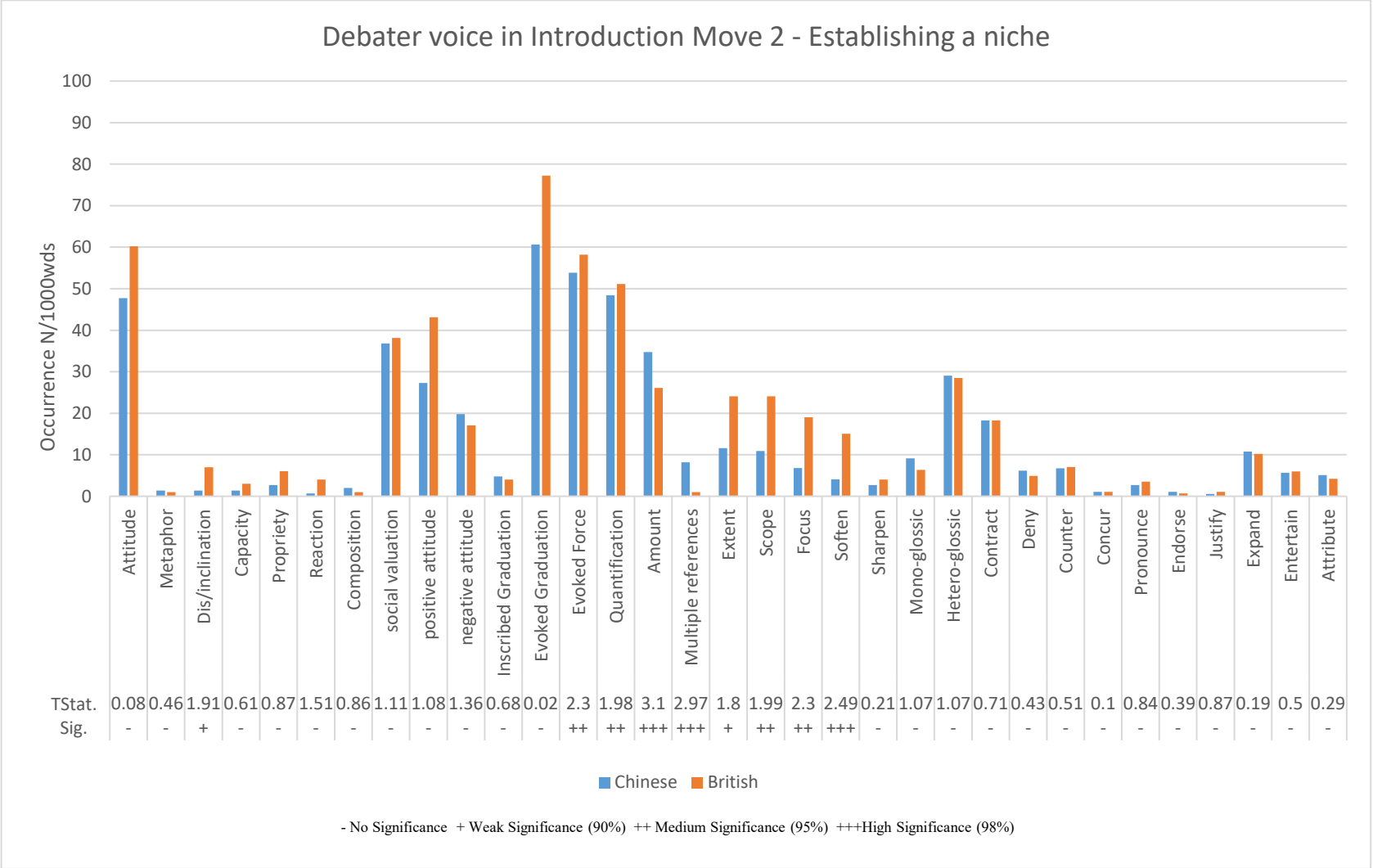
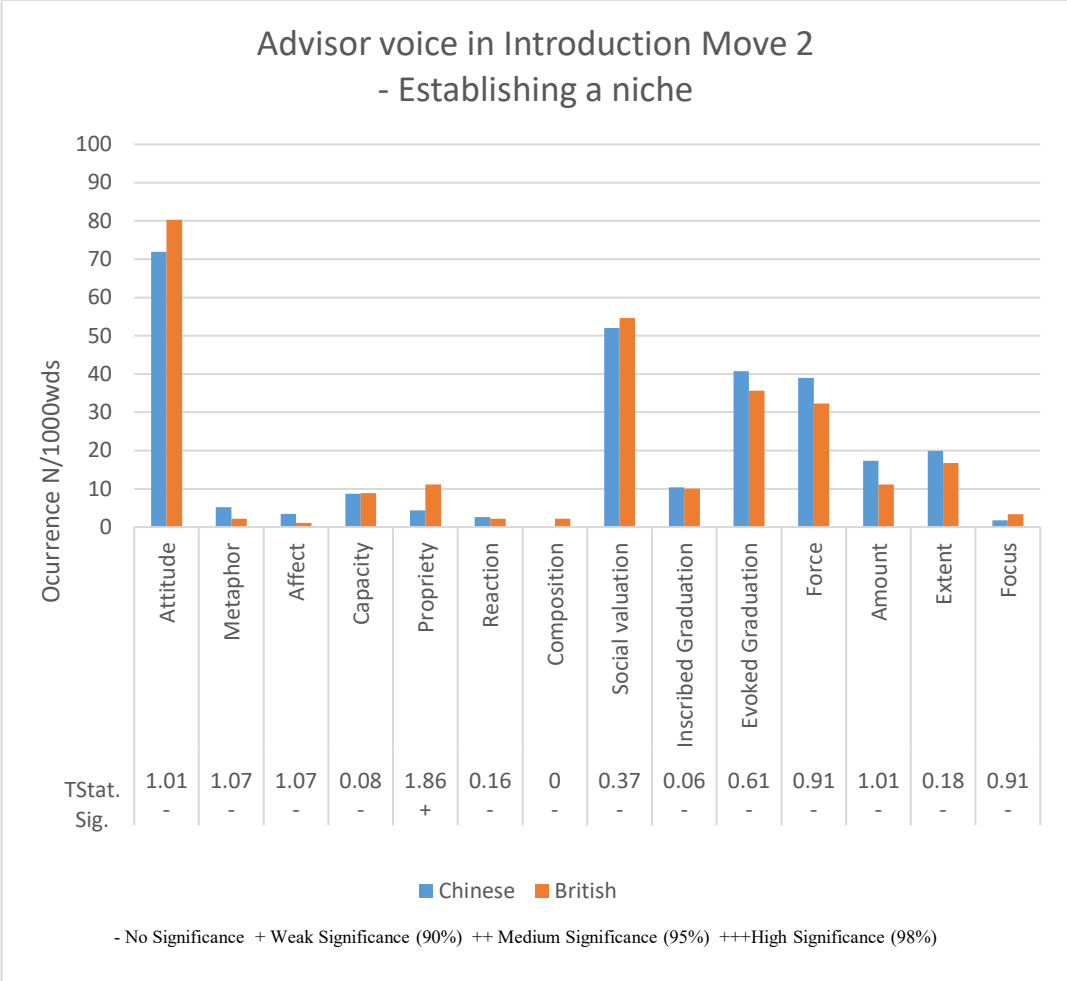


Figure 7.4: Debater voice in Introduction Move 2 – Establishing a niche



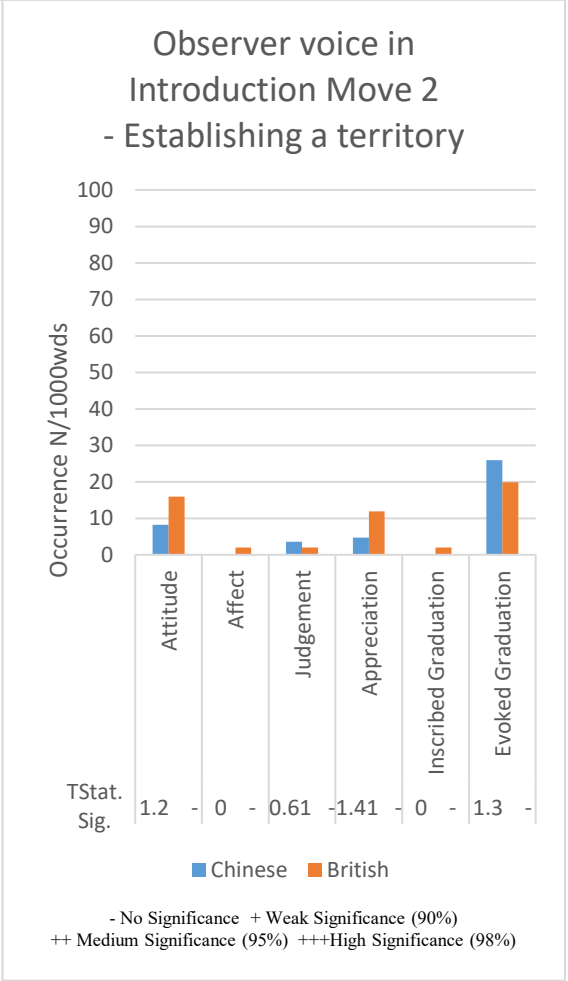


Figure 7.5: Advisor voice in Introduction Move 2 – Establishing a niche
Figure 7.6: Observer voice in Introduction Move 2 – Establishing a niche

Example 7.3: Introduction Move 2 extracted from the British sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude are in red, Evoked Graduation are in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract are in purple, Entertain are in green.)

B1

However, as Timmis (2012) also acknowledges, there have been few empirical studies which have investigated the teaching and learning of spoken grammar in classroom contexts. This **suggests** that research which investigates how to **best** teach forms which could help learners to become SUEs is worthwhile, **providing** the forms chosen are **appropriate** for the context in which learning takes place. **.....**

It is clear that there has been only a small amount of classroom research which has **sought to** investigate the most **productive** ways to teach aspects of spoken grammar, including DMs. PPP is well-established in mainstream ELT methodology (e.g., Lindsay & Knight, 2006) but has attracted a lot of criticism (e.g., Skehan, 1996). Whilst some of the **criticism** of PPP seems **well-founded**, it is also the case that practice within ELT methodology has been underresearched, something very surprising considering it is so **well-established** as part of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) methodology (DeKeyser, 2007a: 1). It is often **taken for granted** that part of the job of a teacher is to follow a PPP framework and to present learners with language, to check form, meaning and use and then provide some practice, **in the belief** that this will **help** them to internalise the forms and become able to use them productively. Although **generally** unstated in descriptions of methodology, this **belief** seems to be founded on the idea that learning a language is akin to developing a skill and the three common phases of PPP have been related to Anderson's (1982) skill building model

B2

Being experienced writing teachers, we **believed** or perhaps **wanted** to **believe** that he was mistaken. Nonetheless, we felt **compelled** to investigate ~~whether students wanted feedback, what types were preferred, and what was done with it.~~ ..... With the pace of change in the Internet Age, however, we **wondered** whether the subsequent interval might have witnessed changes in perceptions. With information readily available in cyberspace and editing easily accomplished with keystrokes instead of erasers, perhaps ~~students' feedback preferences and perceptions of feedback~~ had come to diverge from those found in the earlier studies.

Example 7.4: Introduction Move 2 extracted from the Chinese sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude are in red, Evoked Graduation are in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract are in purple, Entertain are in green.)

C1

In order to examine ~~what factors~~ might ~~influence the use of DMs by L2 speakers,~~ **we need to** examine the use of DMs in their L1 to see if some markers are similar semantically and functionally in both languages. **However, few studies have been conducted on** ~~the effect of Mandarin Chinese DMs on the use of English DMs by L1 Chinese speakers of English.~~

C2

Apart from the reality that **little** has been done to find out the use of cohesive devices by ESL/EFL writers of different proficiency levels, a stronger reason underlying the execution of this experiment is the necessity to account for ~~ESL/EFL learners' developmental success or failure,~~ as **proved** by **a number of** second language acquisition (SLA) theorists (see, e.g., Doughty & Long, 2003). Given that research on L2 learners at a single or specific stage of development does not **provide a complete** picture of how learners acquire L2 or essential L2 skills, researchers have **increasingly** recognized the need to consider the entirety of learner language in order to uncover the systems of rules that learners construct at different stages of development (Ellis, 1994), which is undoubtedly one of the chief concerns of the ongoing SLA inquiries. ~~Being~~ an indispensable textual property, cohesion, the grammatical and lexical glue of discourse (Celce-Murcia, 1991), aids in the formation of textual/discourse competence (see, e.g., Bachman, 1990; Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980), the ability to handle language above the sentence or to structure a series of sentences as a meaningful whole, which has been **increasingly** deemed in the SLA field as one of the most important constituent abilities that contribute to a language learner's overall proficiency (e.g., Bachman & Palmer, 1982; Harley, Cummins, Swain, & Allen, 1990). In reality, textual/discourse competence has been valued over the production of basic intrasentential elements like vocabularies or isolated syntactic forms by researchers in recent L2 writing research (e.g., Chiang, 2003; Liu & Braine, 2005), given that becoming a competent user of a target language involves more than interiorizing its essential linguistic forms (Kang, 2005), e.g., vocabulary and grammar, and that only through the analysis of learners' output of the linguistic units beyond words and sentences can inquirers offer a **valid** and **reliable** portrait of ~~whether and how the learners command the target language.~~

In the *Debater* voice, the British use significantly more Dis/inclination, Evoked Force and Evoked Focus (peculiarly softened Focus), whereas the Chinese use significantly more Amount, particularly Multiple references.

In text B1 of Example 7.3, the writers first make a counter claim, through the words of other researchers, that the prior research on the topic is not sufficient (i.e., *few empirical* studies), and then they Soften the Reality of the phase (i.e., *suggest*) to infer what might happen if the topic is researched. In this way, the writers manage to evoke some space for alternative voices that disagree with their assumptions. The writers then narrow down to a more specific topic and strongly argue that research about this narrower topic is particularly insufficient. This is realised through Pronouncing (i.e., *it is clear that*) the claim, explicitly Judging the prior research (i.e., *only*), downscaling the Amount of the prior research (i.e., *a small amount of*), and Softening the Reality of the phase of the prior research as incomplete (e.g., *sought to, belief*). The writers then shift to criticism of the existing literature examining the topic, and take their positions rhetorically. The criticism is construed through borrowing other researchers' criticism, explicitly and positively evaluating it as 'well-founded', and signalling the fact that the lack of research is unexpected (i.e., *surprising*), given that PPP is 'well-established'. However, to also consider the putative opponents, the Amount of this well-founded criticism is downscaled by using 'some', and the claim is Entertained by using 'seems'. The writers then criticise PPP themselves with explicit Judgement, 'taken for granted', but to align with the opponents the writers also use concession (i.e., *although*) and Entertain (i.e., *seems*). Thus, the prior research is being established as inadequate, but dialogic space is also given to the readers.

In text B2, the British authors use a great deal of explicit Inclination. They see themselves as 'experienced' teachers and judge other teachers as 'mistaken'. They 'wanted' and 'wondered' about things, and 'felt compelled' to investigate. They refer to themselves as 'we' to emphasise that it is their own feelings that are being expressed. The feelings of desire also appear together with Countering (e.g., *nonetheless, however*) what is being said previously, indicating that the prior research is not sufficient. In this way, authors can reveal the actual researchers behind each research article, and show that they are committed, curious and inquisitive. By creating a research gap in this way, the text is given a human touch and may therefore have greater appeal to readers who share similar qualities to those

of the authors. However, no evidence is provided to support what the authors say they believe or wonder about. To prevent emotional subjectivity resulting in disagreement among the readers, the authors add Entertain (e.g., *perhaps, might*) to give space for alternative viewpoints. Their use of Softened Reality of the process (e.g., *believe*) signals that the claim is just an opinion that needs to be proved, and therefore evokes a space for alternative opinions.

In the *Debater* voice of text C1 in Example 7.4, the research space is created in a few lines. The writers first explicitly express their Reaction to the topic as a feeling of obligation (i.e., *need*) to examine it, and then Counter (i.e., *however*) the prior research as insufficient by downscaling the Amount of study being conducted.

In text C2 in Example 7.4, the writers also downscale the Amount of prior study. This is typical when opening Move 2, as seen in other examples. The writers then strongly put forward a further research space by not only explicitly Appreciating this research space as 'strong' and a 'necessity', but also upgrading its evaluation as 'stronger'. To add credit to this claim, the writers strongly Endorse (i.e., *proved*) the opinion of the upscaled Amount of theorists, closing down the space for opponents' voices. The writers further Contract the alternative voice through Denying (i.e., *not*) the putative opponents' positive viewpoint (i.e., *provide a complete* picture). The techniques of upscaling the Amount of prior research that supports the writers' ideas (i.e. with the word *increasing*) and Contracting the space for alternative voice (i.e. with the word *undoubtedly*), are also used later on. This strong stance is strengthened also by heavy use of Multiple references, evoking a Contracted space for the readers. Therefore, Amount plays an important role in creating the research space in the Chinese authors' text, and evokes a more assertive stance than that of the British authors.

In the Advisor voice in Move 2, I only found significant difference in the use of Propriety (see

Figure 7.5). The preference for Propriety by the British authors is reflected in Text B1 in Example 7.3. The writers suggest examining the 'best', the 'most productive' and the 'appropriate' way to teach in the real world, which implies a negative real world situation, and that teaching situations in the real world need to be improved. Thus a real world space is created for their research. However, in Text C2 in Example 7.4, the writers prefer to use downscaled Extent to describe language proficiency levels (e.g., *single*, *specific*), the evoked polarity of which is influenced by negative evaluations in the surrounding text (e.g., *does not provide*), or upscaled Extent to describe language proficiency levels (e.g., *entirety, different*), the evoked polarity of which is also influenced by positive evaluation in the surrounding text (e.g., need). They thus establish a real world space, by establishing that it is not enough solely to investigate the use of cohesive devices within specific language proficiency levels.

Compared to the *Debater* voice and the *Advisor* voice, only a few evaluative markers are found in the *Observer* voice. However, the positivity or negativity of these evaluative resources do not justify the argument. For example, in the wh- clauses *whether students wanted feedback* and *what types were preferred*, although the polarity of the evaluative resources 'wanted' and 'preferred' is positive, they indicate two alternatives in this grammar structure, 'wanted' or 'don't want', and 'preferred' or 'don't prefer'. Either alternative is interesting to the writer, as either alternative is a learner belief which is 'important'.

7.3 Co-articulating stance in Introduction Move 3 – Occupying a niche

In Move 3, the author demonstrates how he/she will fill the research space identified in Move 2 (Swales 1990: 141) through presenting the present work, i.e., outlining purposes or announcing present research, announcing principal findings and indicating the structure of the research article. As with Move 2, the Chinese and the British behave similarly in their use of Engagement markers (see Figure 7.7). Other similarities and differences between the Chinese and the British authors are presented in Figure 7.7, Figure 7.8 and Figure 7.9.

Example 7.5 and Example 7.5 and Example 7.6 are texts extracted from RAs which are on different topics but are representative of the two subcopora.

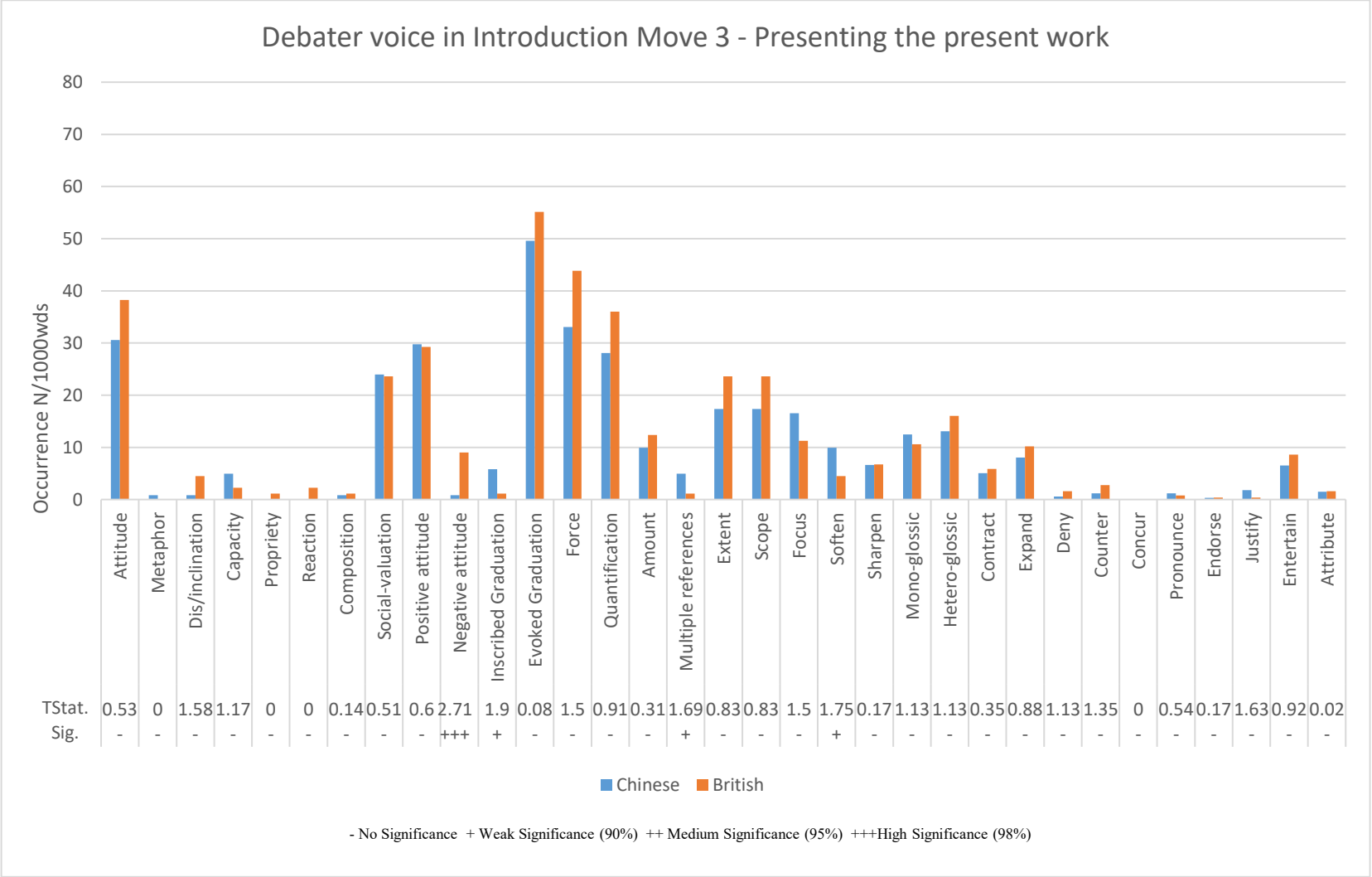
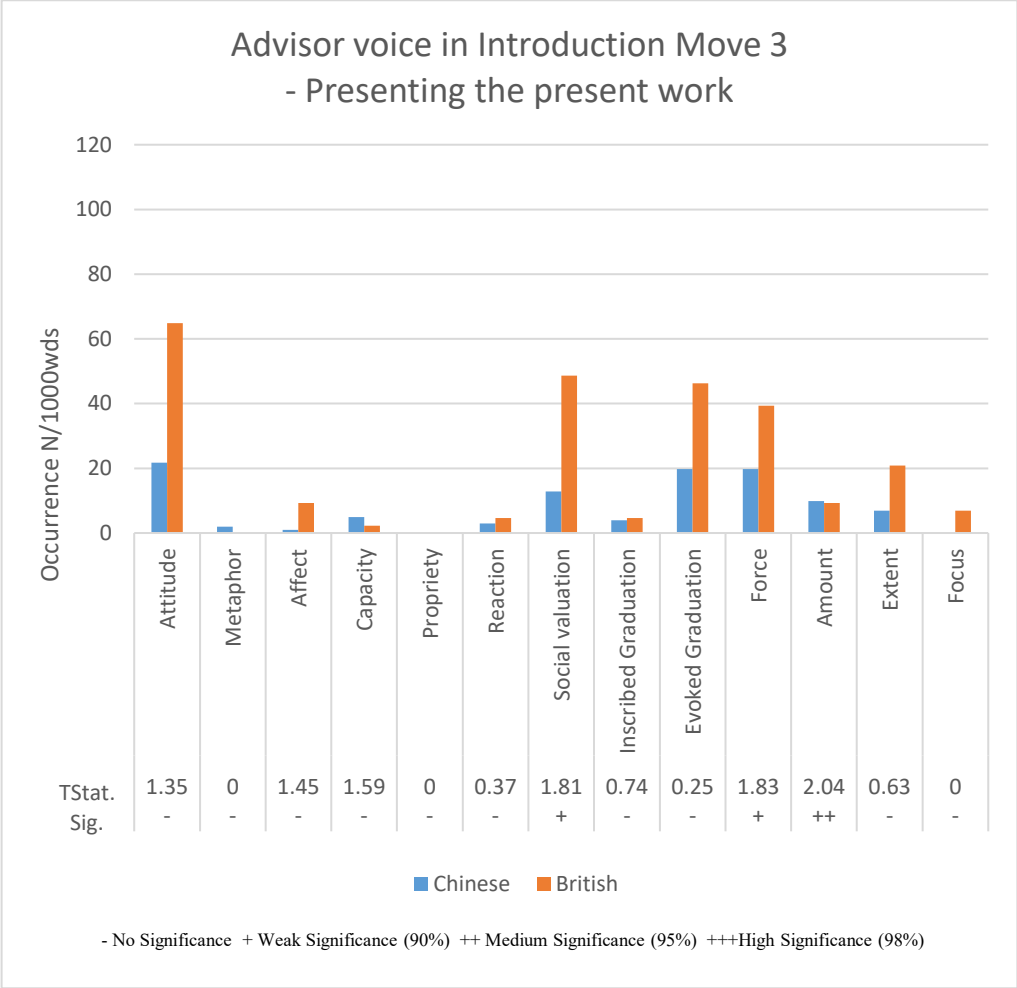


Figure 7.7: Debater voice in Introduction Move 3 – Presenting the present work



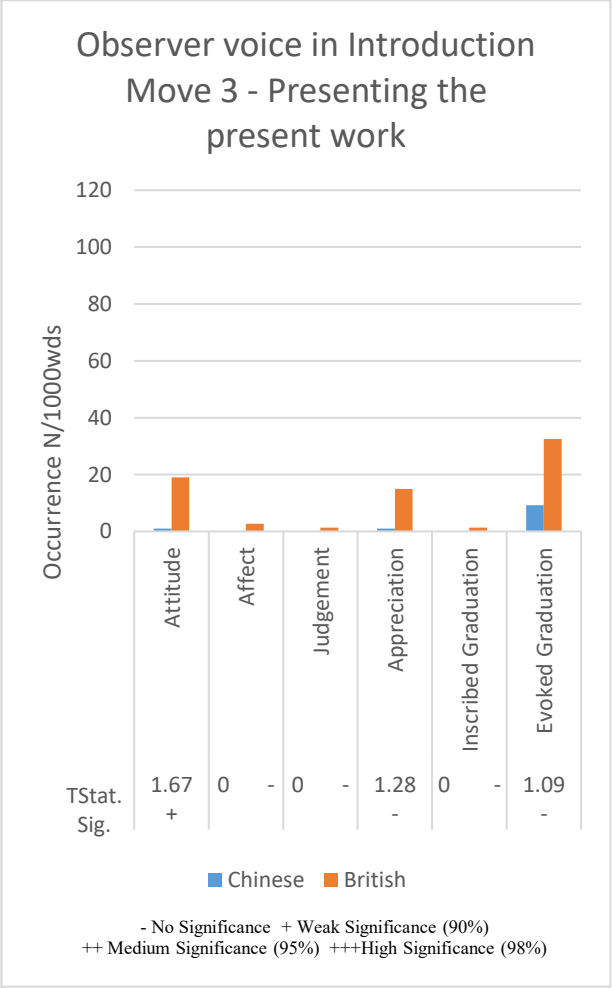


Figure 7.8: Advisor voice in Introduction Move 3 – Presenting the Present Study
Figure 7.9: Observer voice in Introduction Move 3 – Presenting the Present Study

Example 7.5: Introduction Move 3 extracted from the British sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude are in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation are in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract are in purple, Entertain are in green.)

B1

However, in this study we will content ourselves with the notion that feedback has a **positive** influence on revision and leave the **issues** of causality and learning outcomes to future research. .....In the current study one group of students had to revise their work, while the second group did not. As such, it was expected that the two groups would **differ** in their responses concerning actions taken after receiving feedback and perhaps also in their perceptions of feedback. The group for whom revision was required was expected to take more action with feedback, yet their perception of feedback was **unclear**: ~~Would they perceive it as tiresome, or would it be considered as important~~, even valuable part of the class? On the other hand, the `optional feedback group' was expected to utilize feedback **to a lesser extent** and perhaps view it **more** casually, namely, as the optional task that it represented for them.

B2

Given this clear **gap** in knowledge, the primary objective of this study was to obtain empirical evidence for **some** of the listener variables that might **contribute** to listening and the degree to which these factors might predict **success** in L2 listening comprehension.

B3

This article focuses on a **relatively** motivated and successful group of learners, though other groups of learners also formed part of the broader study, and the **diversity** of their perspectives has been described elsewhere (Lamb, 2009, 2010). Its purpose is to enable teachers to learn from these learners and to provide an **opportunity** for them to reflect on ways of **enhancing** and **sustaining** learners autonomy and, potentially, motivation.

Example 7.6: Introduction Move 3 extracted from the Chinese sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude are in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation are in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract are in purple, Entertain are in green.)

C1

Building on previous works, the present study incorporates email pragmatics into an L2 writing course and investigates the effects of explicit instruction on developing Chinese students' email literacy. Explicit

instruction (with metapragmatic information) has been by and large demonstrated to be more beneficial than implicit teaching (without metapragmatic information), since it promotes the noticing and subsequent intake of target pragmatic features(Ishihara and Cohen, 2010; Rose, 2005). ……Furthermore, the present study adopted a qualitative analysis to examine the students' email performance on the pre and post-tests. One important reason for such an analysis is that most studies on instructional pragmatics seem to be overly reliant on quantitative data (cf. Halenko and Jones, 2011; Nguyen et al., 2012), but in fact, deeper analysis of learner performances would provide valuable resources for researchers or teachers to understand the aspects that are amenable and resistant to instruction.

C2

In this paper, book reviews are studied in the light of the appraisal theory (Martin, 2000; Martin & Rose, 2003; Martin & White, 2005). ..... On account of these facts, this thesis attempts to study attitudinal meanings and their realizations in English and Chinese linguistics book reviews in the light of the appraisal theory, the system of attitude in particular in order to explore similarities and differences between EBRLs and CBRLs in terms of attitude. The differences may reveal some genre-dependent and language-bound rhetorical preferences and some differences between western and Chinese cultures.

C3

In our study we shall attempt to prove these metafunctions of Chinese punctuation by utilizing the ERP method.

C4

Making use of the rich source of data, this article adopted a `corpus-driven' (Tognini-Bonelli, 2001) critical discourse analysis (CDA) to exploring and comparing how ideologies are reproduced and represented in Chinese, western and Taiwanese media.

Corpus linguistics has been increasingly used in critical discourse studies to examine the discursive events of politics (Johnson at el., 2003; Prentice, 2010), religion (Salama, 2011) and refugees (Baker, 2008) uncovering the existence of language patterns and messages otherwise unobserved. The corpus-driven quantitative research will help to discover the secret of China's ADIZ.

In the *Debater* voice, the British use significantly more negative Attitude, while the Chinese use significantly more Inscribed Graduation, Multiple references, and Softened Focus (see Figure 7.7).

In text B1 of Example 7.5, the British writers first narrow down what they will consider in their study through explicitly expressing their Satisfaction (i.e., using the word *content*) with a notion, and negatively Appreciating (i.e., using the word *issue*) an unsolved topic that will not be considered. The writers then explain their approach and their interests through Contracting different expectations from the readers (i.e., with *not, yet, even*), and lower the certainty of the predicted results through the use of Entertain. In this way, they lead readers to their specific topic and give space to alternative expectations regarding the results.

In text B2, the writer explicitly and negatively Appreciates the space that needs to be occupied as a 'gap', and then announces the objective of the present study with positive Attitude about what evidence they intend to obtain (i.e., *empirical evidence*). Through this contrast between negative pre-research and positive post-research evaluations the writer explicitly justifies the research.

In Chapter 6, I found that the Chinese authors generally use more Sharpened Focus markers which mainly consists of Fulfilment markers (e.g., *achieve the goal, fill the gap*) in the *Debater* voice, and the British authors generally use more Softened Focus markers (e.g., *tried to, attempt to*). I expected a similar situation in the *Debater* voice in Move 3 of the Introduction, and was surprised to find that the Chinese authors use more Softened Focus than the British authors in this Move (e.g., *attempt to* in Text C2 and Text C3). This means that Chinese authors choose Softness and Sharpness according to the purposes they are trying to achieve in their research articles. When Presenting the Present Study, the Chinese authors write of attempting to fulfil the aim of the research, perhaps because they do not wish to indicate a positive outcome at this stage. Therefore, I will pay extra attention to how they perceive the research results in the Conclusion, which is very likely construed with Sharpness.

The soft stance of attempting to occupy the niche is balanced with Multiple references which evoke a value of validity of the methods adopted, and with Inscribed Graduation (e.g., *rich, deeper*) to explicitly express their positive view about their methods.

In the Advisor voice, the British use significantly more Social valuation and Evoked Force, whereas the Chinese use significantly more Amount (see Figure 7.8).

In Example 7.5, the British use Social valuation and Evoked Force to comment negatively on a situation that needs to be understood in the real world (e.g., *their perception of feedback was unclear* in text B1), draw attention to the importance of the research focus on the real world (e.g., *contribute, success* in B2; *opportunity, enhancing*, and *sustaining* in B3), or comment on the expected results (e.g., *to a lesser extent, more casually*).

In Example 7.6, the Chinese authors, in contrast, use more Amount to upscale the number of findings (e.g., *some differences* in C2), or to evoke a positive value in order to justify their choice of how the study will be undertaken (e.g., *by and large demonstrated……more beneficial* in C1).

The *Observer* voice appears in text B1 in Example 7.5, when the writer explains the possible findings (i.e., *would they perceive it as tiresome, or would it be considered as important, ……*). Findings about either of these perceptions – that it was 'tiresome' or 'important' - would be of equal interest to the writer.

7.4 Co-articulating stance in Conclusion Move 1 – Contextualising the study

Kanoksilapatham (2005: 283) suggests that writers usually open their conclusion sections by Contextualising the Study, positioning their own research in relation to the interests of the discourse community, under the scrutiny of this community. The differences in the way the Chinese and the British authors construct stance are presented in Figure 7.10, Figure 7.11 and Figure 7.12. Examples of texts are given in Example 7.7 and Example 7.8.

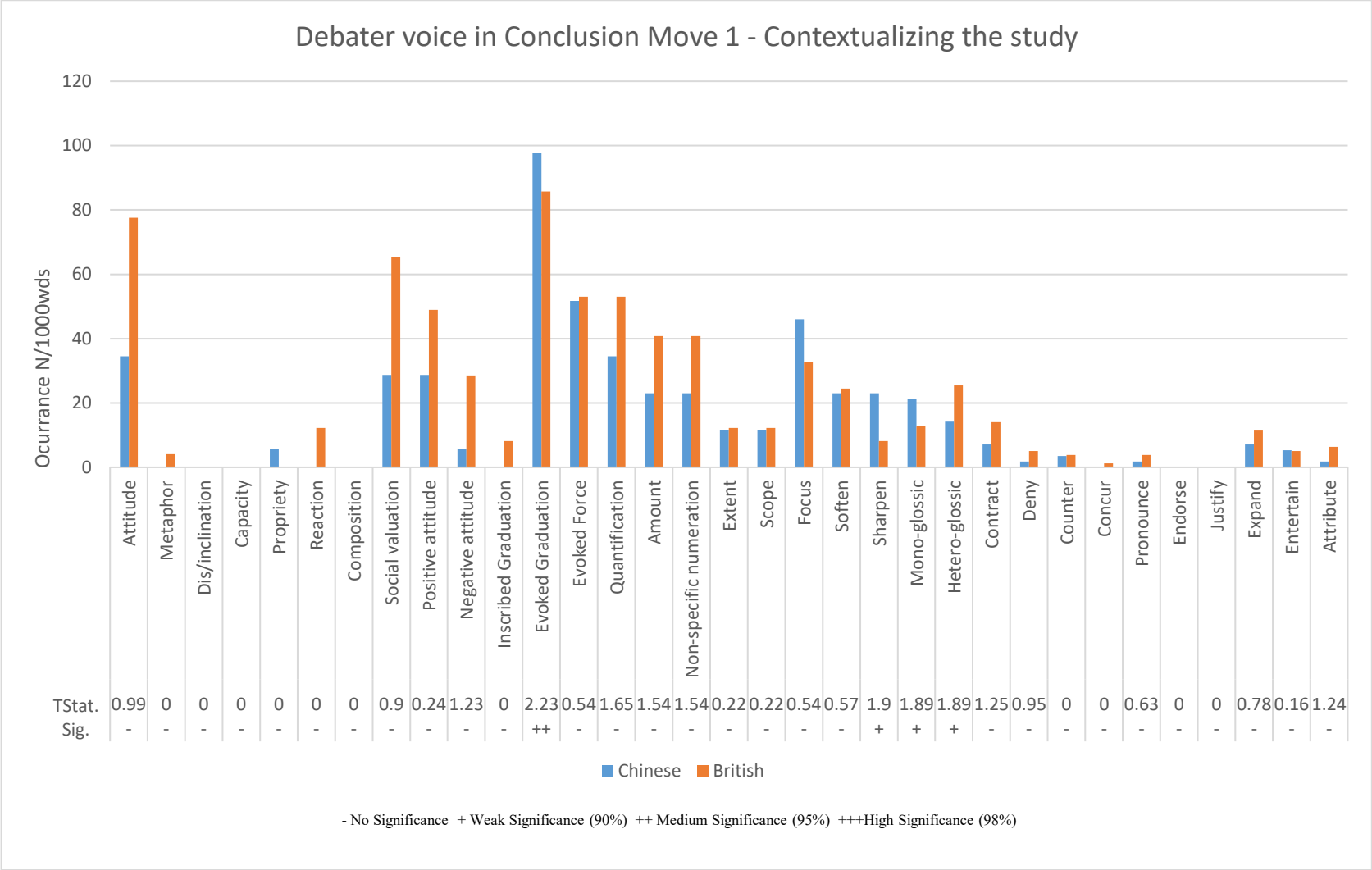
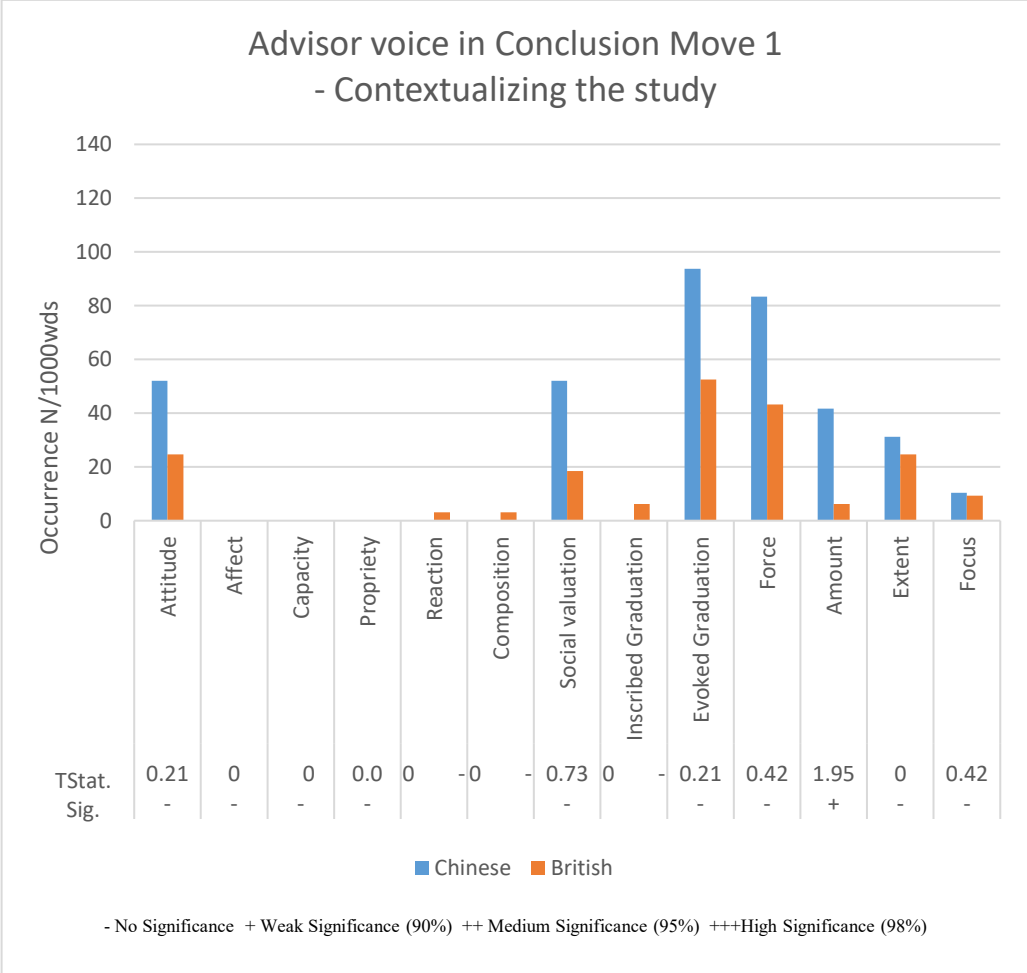


Figure 7.10: Debater voice in Conclusion Move 1 – Contextualizing the study



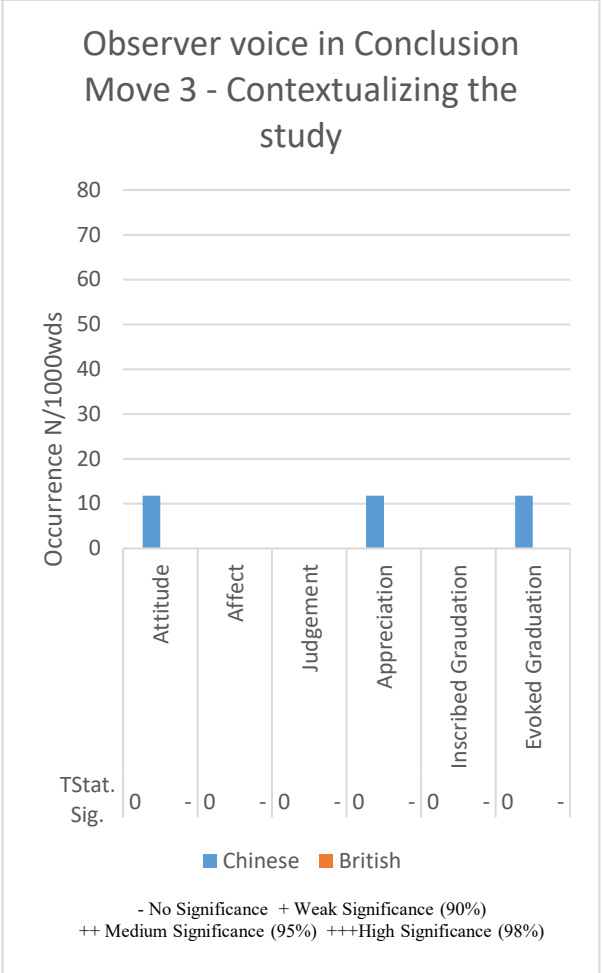


Figure 7.11: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 1 – Contextualizing the study

Figure 7.12: Observer voice in Conclusion Move 1 – Contextualizing the study

Example 7.7: Conclusion Move 1 extracted from the British sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract is in purple, Entertain is in green.)

The PDC begins with something utterly uncontroversial, that language production is hard. The next step is no less obvious to production researchers, that language producers try to make things easier, and that their attempts affect the form of the utterances they produce. From there we get into somewhat more controversial territory that (a) producers' choices of utterance forms, repeated through the population, have a significant role in explaining language typology and change over time, and (b) language users learn these statistical patterns and rapidly use them to interpret new input. There are aspects of all of these ideas in the literature, but the PDC is greater than the sum of these parts in suggesting that the downstream influences of production processes are so strong and so pervasive that we must take production processes into account in developing theories of language form, change, and comprehension.

Example 7.8: Conclusion Move 1 extracted from the Chinese sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract is in purple, Entertain are in green.)

By conducting a corpus-driven CDA of China's establishment of ADIZ from both western and Taiwanese media reports relative to that of Chinese, this study has demonstrated how the two areas of linguistic enquiry can be effectively and fruitfully combined, and the great potential of using Concgram and Wmatrix. Through analyzing the most frequently occurring two-word concgram, keywords and key semantic categories, and especially the concordance outputs from both WAC and TAC as the study corpus relative to CAC, this study has shown the ideological triangulation of media reports on China's establishment of ADIZ.

In the *Debater* voice, the British use significantly more Heteroglossia, whereas the Chinese use significantly more Monoglossia and Evoked Graduation, particularly Sharpen Focus.

In Example 7.1, the British author first overtly Concurs with the established knowledge within the research community (i.e. by saying *utterly uncontroversial*) to Contrast an alternative voice which may not perceive the idea as established knowledge. The writer then further Concurs with the next interest of the research community (i.e. by saying *no less obvious* and leaving little space for disagreement). The writer then reaches the specific topic being examined in his/her study, but acknowledges it as a disputable topic (i.e.,

controversial), giving space to any putative readers. However, this dialogic space is closed down as the writer Counters the different ideas in the literature and Pronounces the importance of a particular action. By doing so, the writer generally construes a relatively indisputable stance about the legitimacy of his/her research interest in relation to the interests of the research community.

In Example 7.8, the Chinese writer restates his/her research objectives and positions his/her own research as completed through Sharpening the reality of the process (i.e., *demonstrated, shown*). The second Sharpen is also construed in a Monogolossic claim. This evokes a value of success that allows the writer to go beyond the results and position his/her work as being satisfactory in the eyes of the discourse community; it evokes no space for alternative comments on the completeness of the writer's research.

Therefore, both authors close down space as they re-justify their interest or claim general success, but they do realise this rhetorical purpose through different strategies.

In the *Advisor* voice, the Chinese writers are significantly more likely to use Amount markers (e.g., *both, most frequently*) to restate the real world situations being investigated so as to evoke a positive value of completion which supports the Debater voice.

7.5 Co-articulating stance in Conclusion Move 2 – Consolidation of results

After addressing the research community, writers conventionally shift to "highlight[ing] the strengths of the study and defend[ing] their research successes" (Kanoksilapatham, 2005: 283). This purpose can be realized through activities such as restating the methodology, stating selected findings, referring to the previous literature, explaining differences in findings, making overt claims or generalizations, and exemplifying. The differences in self-positioning between the Chinese and the British writers are presented in Figure 7.13, Figure 7.14 and Figure 7.15. In the analysis of previous moves, I did not consider detailed steps within each move; however, Move 2 of the conclusion section embodies many more steps than the previous moves. A comparison of two random and extensive parts of Move 2 in a

Chinese writer's conclusion and a British writer's conclusion may not be representative. Therefore, in the examples given below (Example 7.9 and Example 7.10), I select a representative text for each step of Move 2, and analyse the Move step by step.

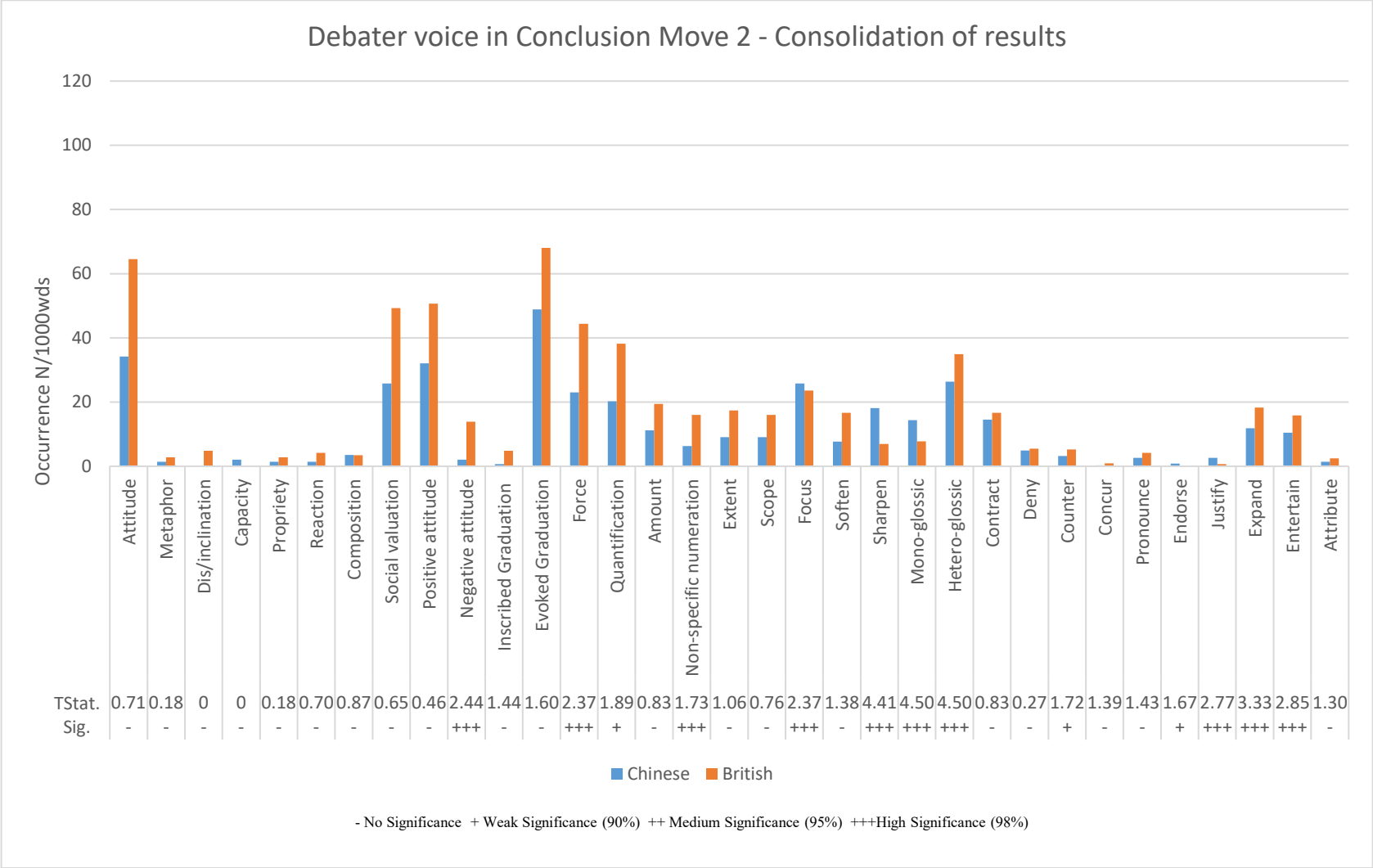
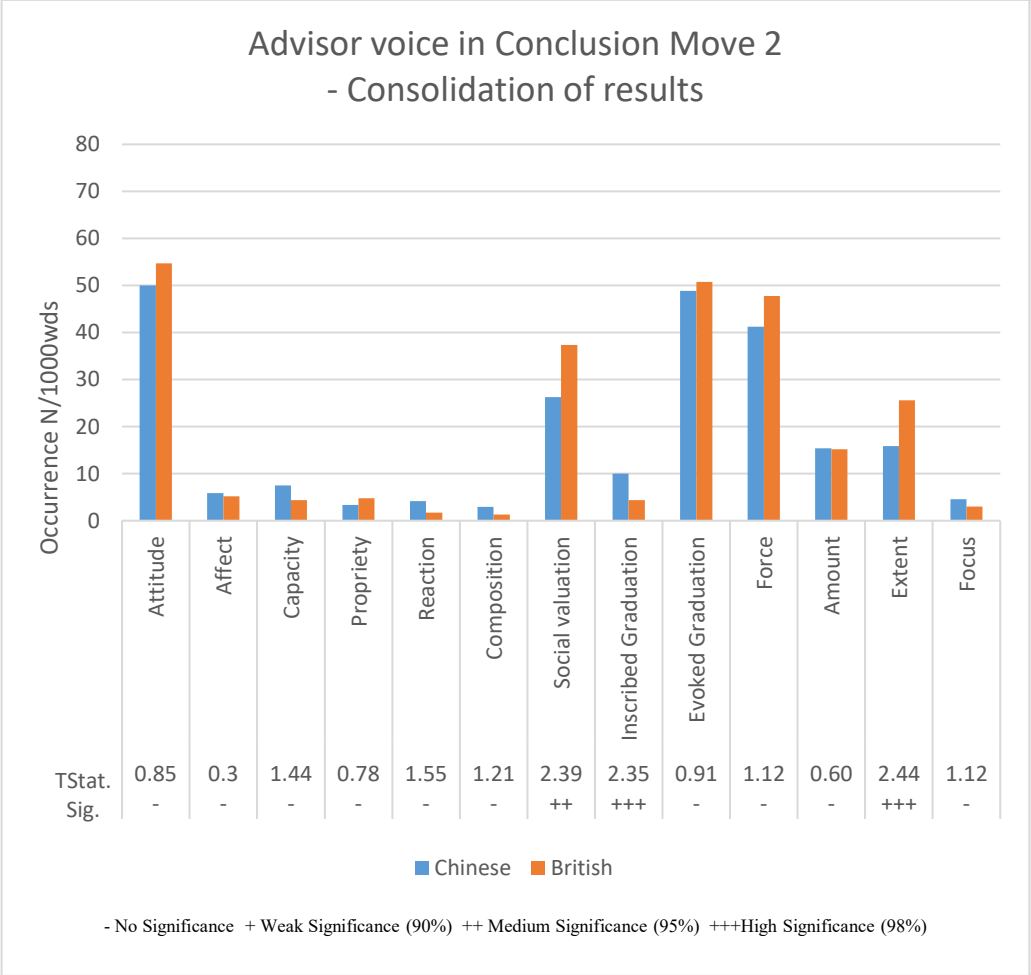


Figure 7.13: Debater voice in Conclusion Move 2 – Consolidation of results



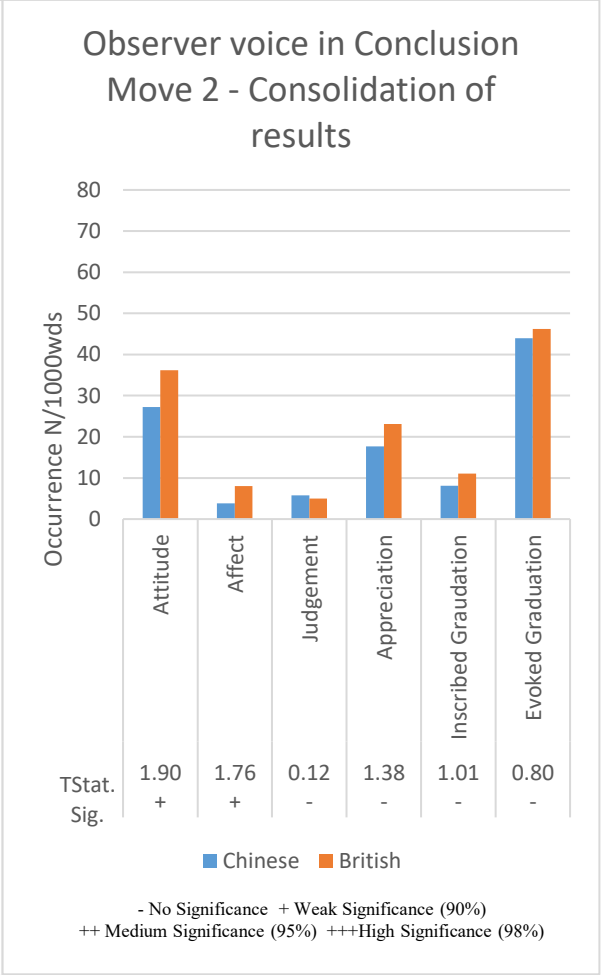


Figure 7.14: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 2 – Consolidation of results

Figure 7.15: Observer voice in Conclusion Move 2 – Consolidation of results

Example 7.9: Conclusion Move 2 extracted from the British sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract is in purple, Entertain is in green.)

Step 1. Restating methodology

Applying a discourse analytic approach, the paper then examined the ways in which thus and however combine in signalling the moves of the Problem-Solution text structure.

Step 2. Stating selected findings

An **unanticipated** finding was that ~~students were generally very positive regarding feedback, exhibiting a very mature, well-grounded acceptance of feedback……~~The current study thus yielded several kernels of information. ~~Students generally reacted positively to feedback on their EFL writing,~~ **yet** ~~they exhibited strong preferences for detailed, handwritten feedback that addressed both content and mechanical errors. The colour of feedback~~ **appears** ~~to be an issue of less concern in this context than in North American contexts. Finally,~~ even ~~when feedback is provided, students~~ **seem** ~~to utilize it only to a modest extent.~~

Step 3. Referring to previous literature

Although the research broadly supports recent proposals that identity is intertwined with **both** autonomy and motivation, and that all three are sensitive to context, a contribution of this article is……

Step 4. Explaining differences in findings

It is certainly not wrong to appeal to **more** abstract notions of communicative efficiency in accounting for producers' choices of utterance forms (e.g., Jaeger and Tily, 2011; Piantadosi et al., 2012), **but** the PDC **can** offer something more to the extent that it draws on the mechanisms of memory retrieval, attention, serial order maintenance, and motor planning in understanding what is more vs. less efficient.

Step 5. Making overt claims or generalization

By contrast, language production and motor/action planning more generally rely on abstract high-level plans that appear quite independent from the elements in the plan. Understanding how the demands of comprehension and production integrate lexical and more abstract hierarchical representations is an **important challenge** as these fields move forward. One possibility is that comprehension processes may draw on covert language production processes and other aspects of non-linguistic motor planning……

Step 6. Exemplifying

It may be desirable, for example, for tutors to exploit the `slow discussion' space of asynchronous conferencing and intervene in the learning process to develop students' awareness of the meaning potential of such spaces (as, for example, represented by the range of stages a discussion can move through). More specifically, it might be effective to make visible to students how different language choices are likely to open up or close down a claim. A key strategy in this would be for tutors to model counterclaims as well as integrated informing stages and to request students to make specific kinds of contribution to the discussion. Such intervention and explicit guidance may help to both sustain and enrich argumentative dialogue.

Example 7.10: Conclusion Move 2 extracted from Chinese sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract is in purple, Entertain are in green.)

Step 1. Restating methodology

Compared with the previous quantitative methods in typology (Cysouw, 2005), our method has these advantages and novelties:
(1) it is statistical and corpus-based;
(2) it is robust and non-discrete;
(3) it is more fine-grained;
.....

Step 2. Stating selected findings

~~In both EBRLs and CBRLs, affect only takes up a very small part among all the instances of attitude~~ because ~~it is personalized and subjective. Appreciation accounts for the great majority of attitude. Positive valuations dominate positive appreciations, and negative compositions constitute the highest percentage of negative appreciations.~~

~~Appreciation accounts for the great majority of attitude. All the instances of Judgement in the 40 book reviews are those of social esteem, especially of capacity. In addition, authors are involved in Judgement, and as such Judgement bears higher interpersonal stakes than affect or appreciation. Therefore, the percentage of negative Judgement is lower than that of negative attitudes in all attitudes and that of negative appreciations in all appreciations in either EBRLs or CBRLs. What is more, Chinese reviewers attend more to the author's background, such as his history, reputation and previous publications, etc., than their western counterparts who attach more importance to the efforts the author has made to the book.~~ This is because Chinese are more field-dependent, and give more attention to background; ……

Step 3. Referring to previous literature

The fact that the formulaic features are more amenable to explicit instruction than the idiosyncratic ones can be supported by Bouton (1999), who worked with a group of international graduate students on the acquisition of

implicatures. Before the instruction, the relevance-based implicatures were more easily interpreted by these students while POPE Q, sequence implicatures, indirect criticism, and irony seemed to be more difficult for them.

Step 4. Explaining differences in findings

On the surface, the two studies have produced conflicting results..... In employee selection, the strategy of intentional forgetting is beneficial for employers because they often need to disregard applicants' irrelevant information, ... One explanation to this difference is that Shen et al. (2001) failed to take measures to control for the confounding effects of intentional remembering and anxiety, which are related to both intentional forgetting and learning achievements as demonstrated in the present study. As a result, there is no way to determine the actual link between intentional forgetting and the learning achievements in Mathematics and Chinese.

Step 5. Making overt claims or generalization

The reason suggested for this might be that listening comprehension requires a more advanced semantic processing ability with either familiar or unfamiliar words. This study also suggests that word-level competency be taken as a starting point for teaching or learning listening comprehension. Over-attention on listening strategies should be avoided, because it might hinder the achievement of word-level competency .....Teachers need to apply effective instructions in teaching the depth of vocabulary knowledge, and learners need to take part in more pedagogically practical activities to improve their performance in listening comprehension.

Step 6. Exemplifying

One should also bear in mind that DM use is an idiolect, that is, every individual has unique preferences for DMs. For example, Davy in my study liked to use sort of/kind of, y'know and I mean more often than other speakers, while John liked to use so more often than other speakers.

In the *Debater* voice, the British authors are significantly more likely to use Negative Attitude, Evoked Force (particularly Non-specific Numeration) and Heteroglossia (particularly Counter and Entertain), whereas the Chinese authors are significantly more likely to use Focus (particularly Sharpened Focus), Monoglossia, Endorse and Justify.

In the *Debater* voice of the British authors (see Example 7.9), the writer first restates his/her methodology, mainly in terms of procedure. The writer simply restates this in a Monoglossic sentence, because the evidence for the statement is available in the research itself and is

basically indisputable. When stating the selected findings, the writer introduces both expected findings and 'unanticipated' (i.e., Negative Attitude) findings. The number of kernels of information is upgraded by a Non-specific Numeration (i.e., *several*) to evoke a positive value of productivity. In the course of listing the findings, the writer communicates with the putative readers by Countering some readers' expectations (i.e., *yet*) and at the same time Entertaining certainty about what the writer thinks he/she has observed. By this means it leads readers to the writer's focus and also balances the dialogic space. When referring to the previous literature, the writer prepares readers for his/ her own research contribution by first agreeing on the contributions of the prior research, using the Counter marker 'although', so as to give a bit of space for alternative voices. When explaining differences in findings from the prior research, a similar technique is adopted. To give a bit space to alternative voices that disagree with the findings, the writer first reluctantly agrees on the correctness of the prior research using the Concur marker (i.e., *it is certainly*), and at the same time aligns with the prior research and disaligns with opponents of the prior research by Denying that the prior research is wrong (i.e., *not wrong*). Concur is typically followed by Counter (Martin & White 2005) whereby the writer further Contracts the dialogic space so as to construe a stronger voice when claiming the correctness of his/her findings. However, the writer keeps adjusting the dialogic space by including Entertain. When making overt claims or generalizations, the writer assertively comments, in a Monoglossic sentence, that a particular topic is an 'important challenge'. This Negative Reaction (i.e., *challenge*) is presented as positive (i.e., important) so as to strongly position the current study as embracing challenges and taking a new perspective on the topic. This feature is also often seen in the conclusions to other articles that have not been selected for discussion here. Therefore, the committed and inquisitive approach portrayed in the introduction section is strengthened in the conclusion section. However, the writer again balances the dialogic space by Entertaining (i.e. through the use of *possibility, may*) the overt claim derived from the findings. When exemplifying the results, the positive

indications are given as suggestions through the use of Entertain (e.g., *may, might, would, likely*), thus allowing for criticism from the readers.

When restating the methodology, some Chinese authors not only restate what procedures have been undertaken, but also positively evaluate their own methodologies. In Example 7.10, the writer construes his/her positive and assertive position by using 'advantages', 'novelties', 'robust', 'non-discrete' and 'fine-grained' in Monoglossia, giving no space to alternative opinions. When making statements about selected data, a large number of observations are presented in a Monoglossic tone. The writer also prefers to explicitly Justify the reason for some of the phenomena in the findings, using 'because', which contracts other possible causes. When referring to the previous literature, the writer seeks support from other research, and the Debater voice in the text tolerates other opinions by using Entertain despite the fact that the text has a strong Advisor voice (as will be discussed later). When explaining differences in the findings, the writer first Contracts alternative voices by explicitly offering his/her own Justification (i.e., *because*) to explain that the situation in the other research is different. The writer then Negatively evaluates the prior research as 'failed', and evaluates his/her own opinion by Sharpening the Reality of the process (i.e., *demonstrated*). This evaluating process is also construed in a Monoglossic statement that strongly positions the writer's reasoning as unquestioned. The writer also Denied the opponents' expectations by using 'no way'. This string of assertive construals is therefore continually strengthened as Contract markers, Negative markers, Sharpen markers, Monoglossia and Deny markers prosodically cooperate throughout the text. When making overt claims or generalizations, the writer first Softens the Reality of the process of his/her opinion by using 'suggest' and creates by some dialogic space using Entertain (i.e., *might*); however, the second softened claim is construed in a Monoglossia that closes down the space that has been created. To offer research implications, the writer Pronounces (i.e., *should*) his/her idea and emphasizes the reason for this pronouncement by using an explicit Justify marker, 'because'. The reasoning is given with one Entertain and one Monoglossic

sentence. When exemplifying in order to provide evidence, the writer first Pronounces his/her idea and then gives the example within a Monoglossia.

In the *Advisor* voice, the British authors are significantly more likely to use Social valuation and Extent, whereas the Chinese authors are significantly more likely to use Inscribed Graduation (see Figure 7.14 and Figure 7.15). For instance, in Step 6 of Example 7.9, the writer uses Extent markers (e.g., *such, more specifically, specific*) to evoke a stance that closes down dialogic space regarding specific ways to improve the real world. The writer also uses positive Social valuation (i.e., *key*) to justify the research by providing positive implications for the real world. In contrast, in Step 3 and Step 5 of Example 7.10, the Chinese writers use Inscribed Graduation (i.e., *more amenable, more easily, more difficult, more advanced, more pedagogically practical activities*) to even more strongly strengthen the explicit and positive implications for the real world.

The *Observer* voice mostly appears when presenting the selected data, regardless of whether the results are equally interesting to the writer if they are expected or unexpected.

7.6 Co-articulating stance in Conclusion Move 3 – Limitation of the study

Kanoksilapatham (2005) suggests that, in the move which states the limitations of the present study, writers usually make explicit the limitations of their study from a scientific perspective in terms of the findings, the methodology or the claims. The differences in the construal of this move between the two cultural groups are presented in Figure 7.16, Figure 7.17 and Figure 7.18. Examples are given in Example 7.11 and Example 7.12.

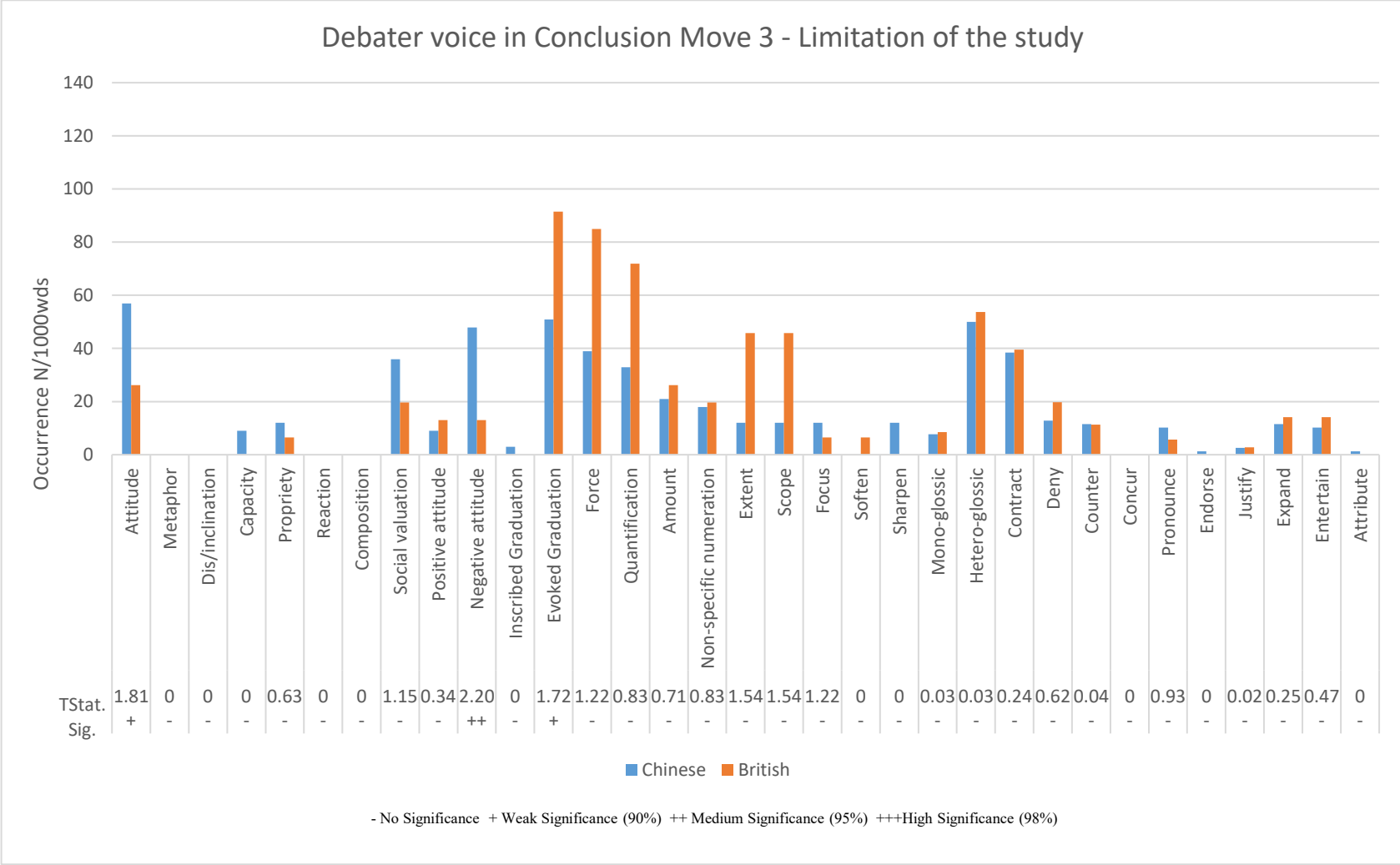
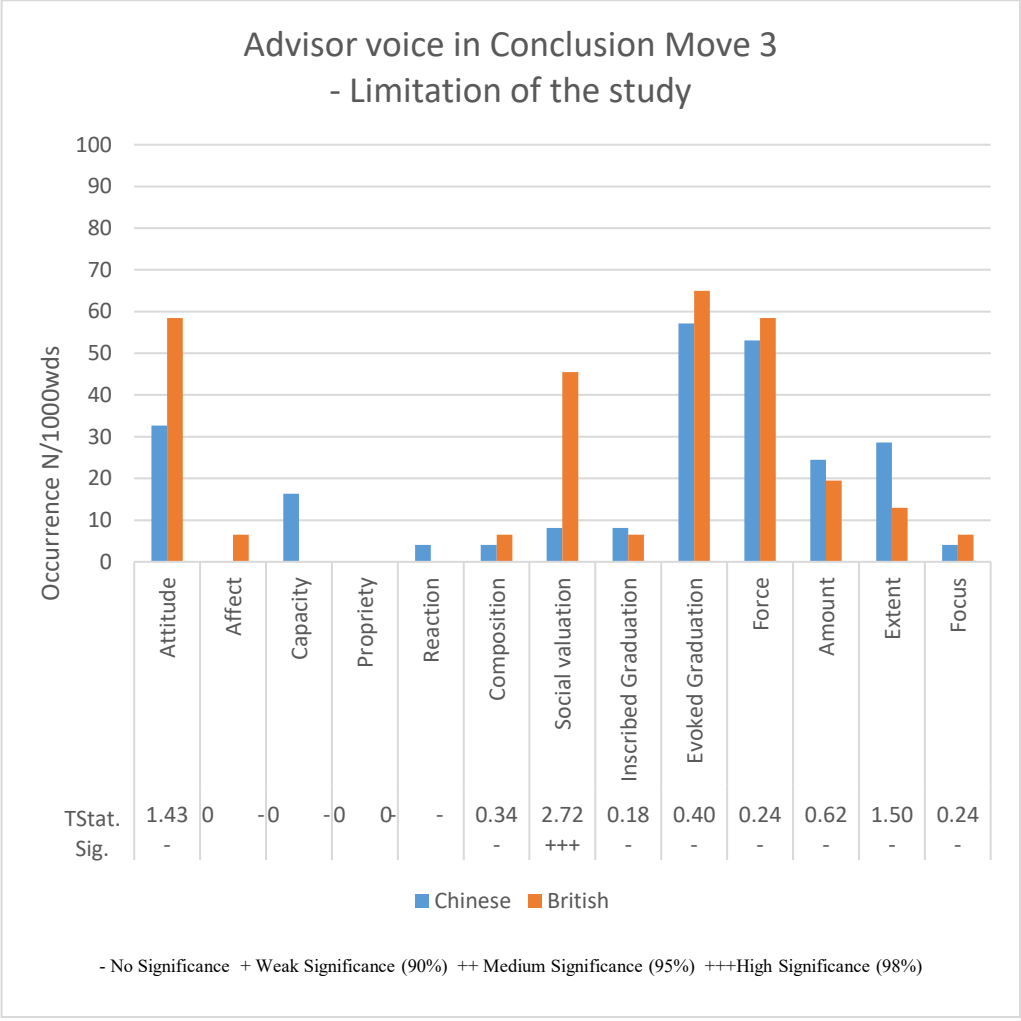


Figure 7.16: Debater voice in Conclusion Move 3 – Limitation of the study



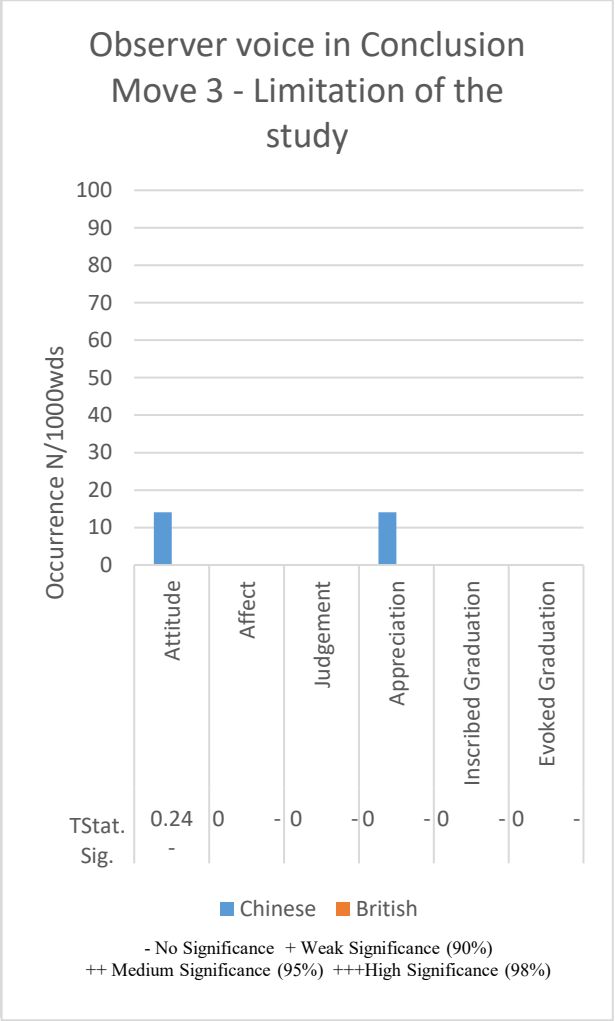


Figure 7.17: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 3 – Limitations of the study

Figure 7.18: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 3 – Limitations of the study

Example 7.11: Conclusion Move 3 extracted from the British sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract is in purple, Entertain is in green.)

Claims to be made in this study are limited by the variables under investigation. First, some learner variables, such as background knowledge and particularly topic familiarity, which have a discernible role in L2 listening comprehension success (see, e.g., Leeser, 2004; Long, 1990), were not included in this study. Other potentially significant learner variables such as reasoning ability, as measured by IQ (Andringa et al., 2012), were not included. Second, our results are limited to the languages and proficiency level under investigation, that is, French learned by students in an English-speaking school context and their level of L2 proficiency. Results for languages that are more distant would likely be different as would the results for more advanced proficiency levels. Third, our results are limited to the age group examined; results for adults, who have much more life experience or language learning experience, might be quite different. Finally, due to the lack of sufficient data for the first cohort, the role of L1 could not be included in the analysis and, given the low reliability of the initial L1 listening test……

Example 7.12: Conclusion Move 3 extracted from the Chinese sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract is in purple, Entertain is in green.)

There are two limitations to the present study. First, if independent construction had not been carried out under the exam conditions, the students could have had more time to discuss the situations before writing email messages individually, which, would be more beneficial to their productions. Second, this study failed to measure the students' delayed post-test performance due to time constraints set by the school calendar and the fixed syllabus. Even though most intervention studies, like this one, have been demonstrated to have an immediate effect on developing L2 students' pragmatic proficiency, it is still controversial as to whether such instructional effects are retained after a certain period of time (cf. Chen, 2011; Halenko and Jones, 2011; Koike and Pearson, 2005; Narita, 2012; Nguyen et al., 2012).

In the *Debater* voice, the British authors are significantly more likely to use Evoked Graduation, whereas the Chinese authors are significantly more likely to use Negative Attitude. In Example 7.11, the writer uses a string of Evoked Graduation markers to evoke a negative value of insufficiency for the current study. He/she first Softens the Reality of the

process (i.e., *claims*) for his/her ideas, to evoke more dialogic space for disagreement. The writer then downscales the Amount (i.e., *limited, lack*) of variables considered in the study, upscales the Amount (i.e., *some*) of variables not being considered and the Extent (i.e., *different*) of alternative findings, and upscales Multiple references. The negative position is therefore construed implicitly. The dialogic space is somehow balanced by Denying the readers' positive expectations about the research and Entertaining the possibility of alternative findings.

In Example 7.12, it is interesting that the writer explicitly and Negatively evaluates one aspect of his/her research as 'failed'. This position is also given in a Monoglossia, construing the limitation as unquestioned stance.

In the *Advisor* voice, the British use significantly more Social valuation. For example, 'discernible role' and 'success' in Example 7.11 are used to construe the importance of the real world variables that are not considered.

7.7 Co-articulating stance in Conclusion Move 4 – Further research suggested

In the last move in the conclusion section, writers point in a particular direction for the course of future research. Differences between the Chinese and the British construction of this move are presented in Figure 7.19, Figure 7.20 and Figure 7.21. Examples are given in Example 7.13 and Example 7.14.

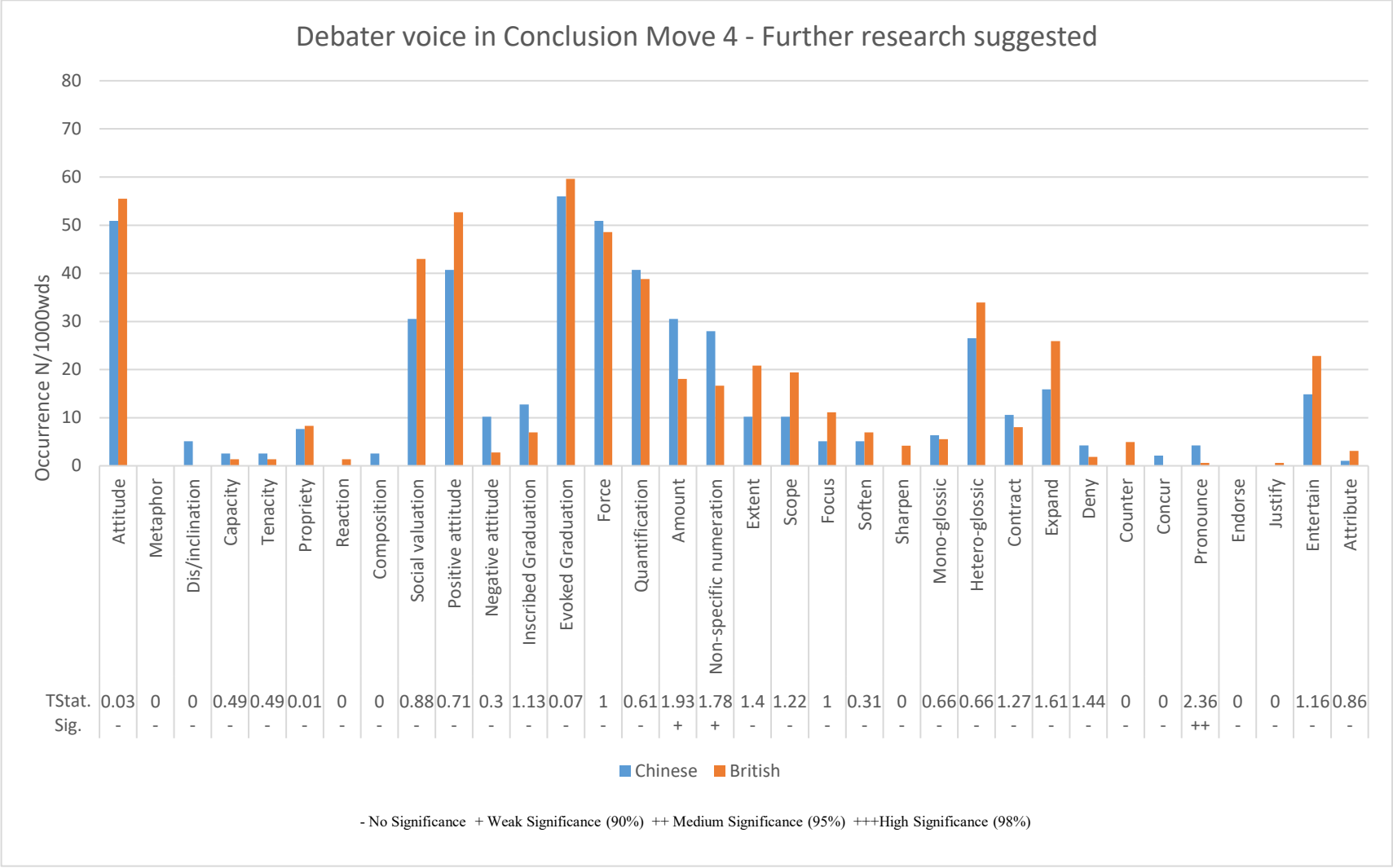
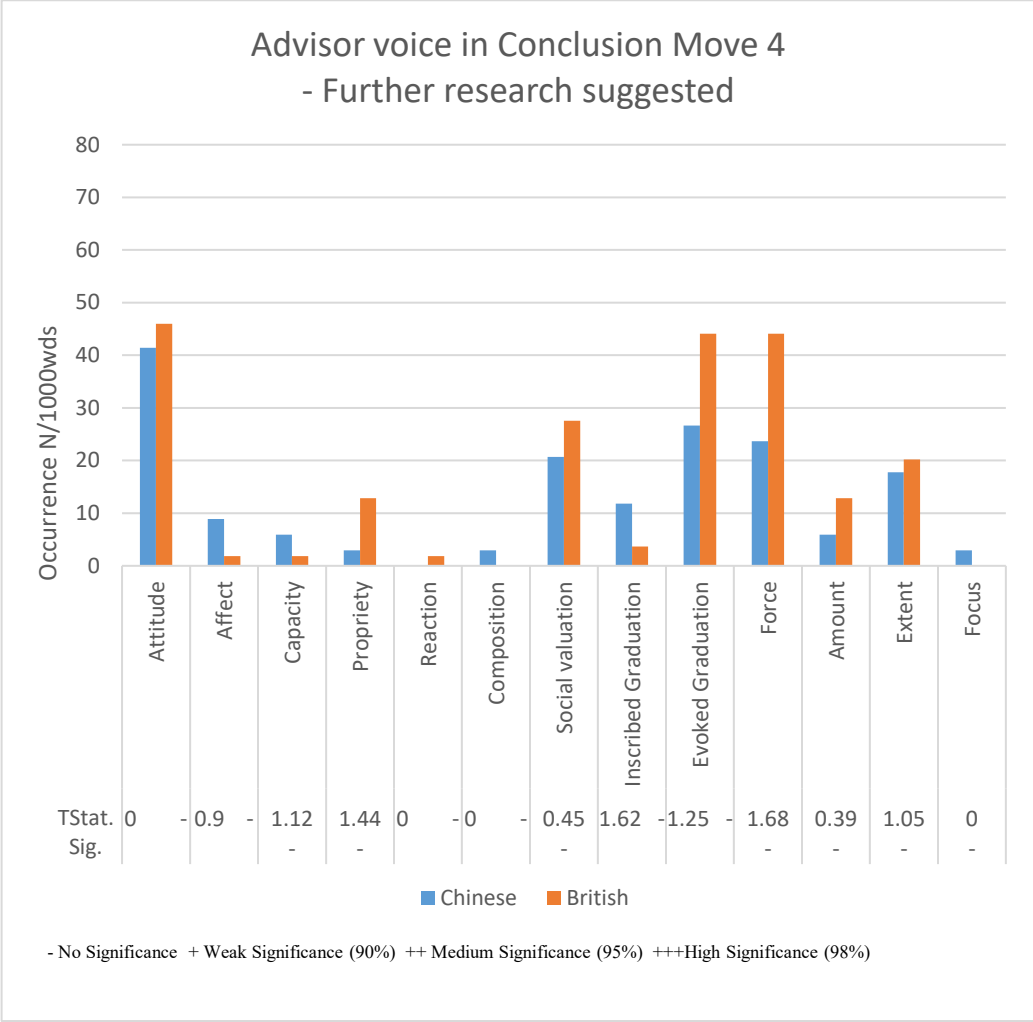


Figure 7.19: Debater voice in Conclusion Move 4 – Further research suggested



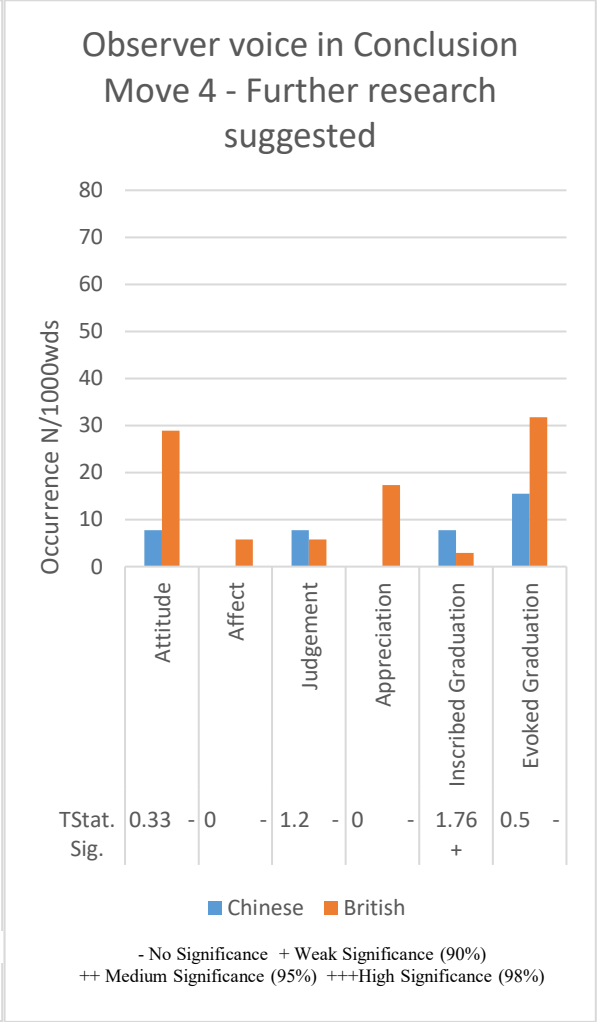


Figure 7.20: Advisor voice in Conclusion Move 4 – Further research suggested
Figure 7.21: Observer voice in Conclusion Move 4 – Further research suggested

Example 7.13: Conclusion Move 4 extracted from the British sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract is in purple, Entertain is in green.)

Further research in this EAP context could usefully investigate the teaching of DMs or other aspects of spoken grammar by comparing other explicit frameworks in order to find out which might be the most effective. We might use the type of noticing, task and consolidation framework we have suggested and compare it with III or PPP, using larger sample sizes where possible.

Example 7.14: Conclusion Move 4 extracted from Chinese sub-corpus (Context for Debater voice is in box, Context for Advisor voice is in smaller font, Context for Observer voice is in smaller font and ~~deleted~~, Attitude is in red, Inscribed Graduation is in orange, Evoked Graduation is in blue, Monoglossia is underlined, Contract is in purple, Entertain is in green.)

The generalizations of its findings should be tested by future studies which include a larger sample..... Future investigations are expected to focus endeavor on a single group of ESL/EFL learners across various proficiency levels so as to better delineate the developmental trends in L2 written discourse competence. .....For the sake of addressing how ESL/EFL writers develop their written discourse competence in a full-scale measure, more studies which build into analysis all these abovementioned indices need to be executed.

In the *Debater* voice, the Chinese use significantly more Amount (particularly Non-specific Numeration) and Pronounce. The British authors have no significant preferences.

In Example 7.13, the British writer Entertains each claim he/she makes (i.e., *could, might*), giving space to different opinions. The Softened Reality of the process also evokes dialogic space. The writer also uses Attitude (i.e., *usefully*) to explicitly construe the suggestion as positive. The Enhanced (i.e., *compare*) procedure and upscaled Amount (i.e., *larger*) also evoke the positive value of the future work. In general, this construal of Move 4 is implicit and tolerant of different ideas.

In Example 7.14, the Chinese writer first closes down dialogic space by Pronouncing (i.e., *should*) his/her opinion for future work. The dialogic space is further closed down with the suggestions that follow, construed in Monoglossia. The writer also upgrades the Amount of

studies, samples and other perspectives that need to be considered in order to evoke the scientific value of the suggestions.

7.8 Engagement patterns for particular purposes

In Chapter 5 and Chapter 6, I have presented the frequently-occurring and characteristic Engagement patterns in each sub-corpus and analysed their dialogic functions. However, it is not clear what purposes they serve when writers align or disalign using these combinations of Engagement markers. The clusters of Engagement markers in my data are classified into categories according to their purposes, for example, describing others' findings, offering different opinions against prior research, establishing a gap, interpreting results of one's own studies, commenting on one's own studies, and giving research implications. Note that the clusters identified are not based on any statistical analysis but only based on subjective identification by reading through the marked up texts. Even so, I intend to detect broad Engagement patterns in terms of the sequence of Contract and Expand.

When describing others' findings (see Table 7.1), commenting on one's own studies (see Table 7.2), giving research implications (see Table 7.3), establishing a gap (see Table 7.4), and interpreting the results of on one's own studies (see Table 7.5), the British mostly follow a sequence of Contract + Expand (five instances in the British sub-corpus and two instances in the Chinese sub-corpus), while the Chinese mostly follow a sequence of Expand + Contract (five instances in the Chinese sub-corpus and zero instances in the British sub-corpus). Both the Chinese and the British use a string of Contract without Expand markers in similar number of cases.

Engagement patterns	The British authors	The Chinese authors
Contract → Expand	..**shows** that they **can** lead to …	Some studies had also **proven** that…**possible** for…
Expand → Contract		…, as **summarized** in Joormann, ….**might**…. **In fact**,….have been **found** to be…

Table 7.1: Describing others' findings

Engagement patterns	The British authors	The Chinese authors
Contract → Expand	**Although** we **may** still have a long way to go, this study makes an important…	
Contract → Expand	…**although not** very robust, allows us to observe… **might**…	
Contract → Contract	**Supported** by some (**though not** numerous) studies …	
Contract → Expand → Contract		**However**, we **clearly** know that…..is **not** at all adequate…, **but** it **probably** is appropriate for the purpose of this study, which…., **rather than**….
Expand → Contract		…we predicted that…**may**… **However**, it has been **proved** that …
Expand → Contract		…a **seemingly** superficial… has **obviously** broadened…
		This …**can**…, which is **obviously** beneficial…

Table 7.2: Commenting on their own studies

Engagement patterns	The British authors	The Chinese authors
Contract → Entertain → Contract	We need **not** and **perhaps should not** teach… **Instead**, we **should**…	
Contract → Contract	**It is right** that we **should**…; **but** that need **not** and **should not** mean…	
Contract → Expand		…**showed** that…, and **even**…**might** be…

Table 7.3: Giving research implications

Engagement patterns	The British authors	The Chinese authors
Contract → Contract	**Traditionally**… Despite these **undoubted** differences**, however**, there has been increasing interest….	
Contract → Contract	Language researchers **must**…, **but** unlike…, language researchers **must** also consider…	
Contract → Contract	…this group **must**…, if **not** earlier	
Contract → Expand	**Though** this is **yet** to be explored, …**suggests** that …	
Contract → Contract		**It is, nevertheless, noteworthy** that **although** much have been done to…, most of the studies merely provided… **rather than**…, …**instead of**…., or offered a litle bit over-generalized….**without**….
Expand → Contract		…**suggest** that…. **can indeed** assist… **Nevertheless**, …remains as a **not** or at least **not** fully touched upon area…

Table 7.4: Establishing a gap

Engagement patterns	The British authors	The Chinese authors
Contract → Expand	Of concern is the **fact** that our findings … **potentially** deepening engagement with an issue and avoiding topic dispersal.	
Contract → Contract	**Although** group cooperation did **not**…., a result that **should**….	**Although**…, …. was **not**… this point **should** be treated with caution **because**…
Contract → Contract		**However**, such findings can**not** be over-generalized to listening. …it cannot…. **because**…is **not** simply….
Expand → Contract		These findings **may** reveal a **fact** that…does **not** play …
Contract → Contract		The results indicated that … **no** direct… **Although** the data **did show** that …., these differences were **not** to the …

Table 7.5: Interpreting the results of their own studies

Engagement patterns	The British authors	The Chinese authors
Contract → Contract	The study of … has **not** been…: **though**…**do**…, ….	
	Applied linguists do **not** dispute …. **But** …we **should** also…	
	I do **not** dispute the…. **But** I **do** think….	
Contract → Expand → Contract		**Unlike** the present study, …reveled…. **However,** this disagreement **seems**…., **because**…
Expand → Contract	they **could suggest** that….is not something that… **However**, …**clearly** differ from….	
Expand → Contract	…**could** be… **However**, this interpretation **should** be viewed with caution. …**not..not…not**..	
Expand → Contract → Expand	..**would** be helpful. **However**, …**should** also be…, **would**…..	Most studies…**seem** to be overly reliant on…, **but in fact**, …**would** provide…
Expand → Contract	…**appears** to have….., **but**….**not** so much a …	
	…**may**… **But** to the extent that…is **not** really at…., …**may**…	
Contract → Contract	The findings **show** that... **Although** a similar study did **not** replicate the results entirely, it **did show** that...	
Contract → Expand → Contract		…, **but without**… Adequate…**may** be necessary **but not** sufficient for learning to read effectively.
Contract → Expand		**Nevertheless**, speakers are **not** troubled by this **but** they **seem** to know …

Contract → Expand	**It is clear that** …small number of research. … well-establish, **but**…criticism… **seems** well-founded.	
Contract → Contract	**Clearly**, it **did** have …. **However**, **it is also clear** that …was **not** always…	
Contract → Contract	**Indeed**…criticized by… **Nevertheless**…	
Contract → Contract	I **should** acknowledge that this is **not** a…	
Contract → Expand	**It is certainly not** wrong to …., **but** …. **can** offer…more	
Contract → Contract	We are **of course not** dealing with… **but** with…	

Table 7.6: Offering different opinions against prior research

Lancaster (2014) suggested that the Contract + Expand sequence allows the writer to take a position cautiously from firm evidence, and the reverse configuration, Expand + Contract could result in an overly bold or hasty expression of stance. I will compare two examples in Table 7.4 which serve the purpose of establishing a gap. The full sentences are given as follows:

British: ***Though*** *this is* ***yet*** *to be explored linguistically, cognitive and sociocultural research literature* ***suggests*** *that counterargument plays a particularly important role in students revising and updating knowledge (see section Argumentation, dialogue and learning).*

Chinese: *Experimental evidence (e.g. Kövecses & Szabó, 1996; Boers, 2000a, 2000b) and theoretical contributions (e.g. Boers, 1999, Boers & Demecheleer, 2004; Lazar, 1996; Littlemore, 2001a)* ***suggest*** *that the cognitive framework* ***can indeed*** *assist L2 or FL learners to acquire figurative expressions in an effective manner and achieve long-term retention in memory.* ***Nevertheless****, how it works in the authentic Chinese university EFL classrooms remains as a* ***not*** *or at least* ***not*** *fully touched upon area until very recently.*

In the British example, the Counter marker '***though***' signals the writer's belief that '*this is* ***yet*** *to be explored linguistically*' (which indicates that linguists are generally not interested in this topic) would be the normal position held by the reader; this is the opposite to the writer's position. The Deny marker '***yet***' signals that linguists are not interested in this topic, but the writer disagrees with it. He/she thus intends to challenge the reader's opinion by putting forward the writer's own opinion about this topic. However, the writer is aware of the existence of the opponents, and hence express his/her opinion by acknowledging '*cognitive and sociocultural research literature'.* This can avoid overt indication and shift responsibility to other researchers. At the same time, the proposition is advanced with a position which is external to that of the text itself and presents the authorial voice as engaging interactively with those voices. Thus the writer establishes a gap but also manages to maintain relationships with opponents and alternative voices.

In the Chinese example, the writer first Acknowledges (using ***suggest***) and Entertains (using ***can***) the findings and contributions of the prior research, taking a neutral position towards the external source. This is to prepare for later criticism of the prior research. However, not to offend the prior research, the writer adds '***indeed***' to authorially assert the value of prior findings and balance his/her overall position. The writer then use '***nevertheless***' to represent a new proposition as supplanting the previous proposition which would have been expected in its place. In the new proposition, the writer asserts his/her own opinion by overtly denying what would be the normal idea, that '*how it works in the authentic Chinese university EFL classrooms*' is a '*fully touched upon area*'. this is a string of markers that is strongly against the putative addressee, dis-aligning the writer from the prior research and the audience.

The above examples show that a dialogue that unfolds from Contract to Expand can open up communicative space for the whole argument, while a dialogue that unfolds from Expand to Contract can close down the communicative space of the whole argument. Although the two examples both use the same type of dialogic markers, the different sequences can create opposite dialogic effects, as Lancaster (2014) suggested.

However, the Contract + Expand sequence does not always dialogically open up space for the whole argument. Martin and White (2005) argued that in very few cases, the dialogic effect depends on the role of the co-text in conditioning the meanings which are conveyed by certain Appraisal markers. Among the examples of Contract + Expand in the British sub-corpus, I found one example in Table 7.5 that does not open up much dialogic space. I will compare it with another example of Expand + Contract in Table 7.5 to illustrate the dialogic effects. The two examples both serve the purpose of interpreting the results of their own studies. The full sentences are given as follows:

British: *Of concern is the **fact** that our findings pointed to the importance of counterclaims in sustaining an argument strand and thus **potentially** deepening engagement with an issue and avoiding topic dispersal.*

Chinese: *These findings **may** reveal a **fact** that retrieval inhibition does **not** play a direct role in EFL listening.*

In the British example, the argument starts with the Pronounce marker '*of concern is the **fact** that*' to overtly allow authorial voice to intervene in the text, and hence to assert and insist upon the value or warrantability of the proposition. The assertiveness of this Pronounce marker indicates a strong investment in the proposition by the writer which is not greatly moderated by the use of the low-intensity Entertain marker '***potentially***'. This sense that the writer is highly invested in the proposition is substantially maintained through the use '*of concern is the **fact** that*'. In the Chinese example, the argument starts with an Entertain marker '***may***' to lower the truth level of the findings and open up a dialogic space. However, the writer raises the truth level of the finding greatly by positioning it as a fact so as to insist on the writer's viewpoint against alternative voices. The author then overtly denies the alternative voice by using 'not', and hence strengthens his/her opinion.

Therefore, although the two examples use different sequences of Expand and Contract, they create similar dialogic effects for the whole argument. However, this is not frequent in my data. In general, the British mostly follow a sequence of Contract + Expand to take a cautious position from firm evidence, while the Chinese mostly follow a sequence of Expand + Contract an overly bold or hasty expression of stance, when describing others' findings, commenting on their own studies, giving research implications, establishing a gap, and interpreting the results of their own studies.

Although the Chinese and the British authors prefer different dialogic effects to realise the above five purposes, they use a similar number of Engagement clusters, indicating that both groups adopt very complex dialogic reasoning. However, when offering different opinions against prior research, the British used many more Engagement clusters than the Chinese. Moreover, unlike the realizations of the previous five purposes, the British prefer to use

more Expand + Contract than the Chinese (see Table 7.6). This indicates that the British give less space for alternative voices in providing different opinions than the Chinese.

All in all, the greater use of Engagement combinations in the British sub-corpus indicates that the British use more complex dialogic reasoning and hence are more argumentative. The different preferences for Expand and Contract marker sequences by the Chinese and the British writers may indicate different strategies for realising different purposes.

Engagement patterns	The British authors	The Chinese authors
Contract → Contract	The study of … has **not** been…: **though**…**do**…, ….	
	Applied linguists do **not** dispute …. **But** …we **should** also…	
	I do **not** dispute the…. **But** I **do** think….	
Contract → Expand → Contract		**Unlike** the present study, …reveled…. **However,** this disagreement **seems**…., **because**…
Expand → Contract	they **could suggest** that….is not something that… **However**, …**clearly** differ from….	
Expand → Contract	…**could** be… **However**, this interpretation **should** be viewed with caution. …**not..not…not**..	
Expand → Contract → Expand	..**would** be helpful. **However**, …**should** also be…, **would**…..	Most studies…**seem** to be overly reliant on…, **but in fact**, …**would** provide…
Expand → Contract	…**appears** to have….., **but**….**not** so much a …	
	…**may**… **But** to the extent that…is **not** really at…., …**may**…	
Contract → Contract	The findings **show** that... **Although** a similar study did **not** replicate the results entirely, it **did show** that...	
Contract → Expand → Contract		…, **but without**… Adequate…**may** be necessary **but not** sufficient for learning to read effectively.
Contract → Expand		**Nevertheless**, speakers are **not** troubled by this **but** they **seem** to know …
Contract → Expand	**It is clear that** …small number of research. … well-establish, **but**…criticism… **seems** well-founded.	

Contract → Contract	**Clearly**, it **did** have …. **However**, **it is also clear** that …was **not** always…	
Contract → Contract	**Indeed**…criticized by… **Nevertheless**…	
Contract → Contract	I **should** acknowledge that this is **not** a…	
Contract → Expand	**It is certainly not** wrong to …., **but** …. **can** offer…more	
Contract → Contract	We are **of course not** dealing with… **but** with…	

Table 7.6: Offering different opinions against prior research

7.9 Conclusion

This chapter has analysed how evaluations unfold across moves. First of all, the differences in the *Debater* and *Advisor* voice that are significant overall, as discussed in Chapter 6, are not necessarily significant in every move (see summary in Table 7.7 and Table 7.8).

Debater voice	Introduction						Conclusion							
	Move 1		Move 2		Move 3		Move 1		Move 2		Move 3		Move 4	
Attitude	2.97		0.08	-	0.53	-	0.99	-	0.71	-	1.81	+	0.03	-
Metaphor	0.02	-	0.46	-	0	-	0	-	0.18	-	0	-	0	-
Dis/inclination	1.65	-	1.91	+	1.58	-	0	-	0	-	0	-	0	-
Capacity	1.57	-	0.61	-	1.17	-	0	-	0	-	0	-	0.49	-
Propriety	1.2	-	0.87	-	0	-	0	-	0.18	-	0.63	-	0.49	-
Reaction	0.02	-	1.51	-	0	-	0	-	0.70	-	0	-	0.01	-
Composition	1.61	-	0.86	-	0.14	-	0	-	0.87	-	0	-	0	-
Social valuation	2.28	++	1.11	-	0.51	-	0.9	-	0.65	-	1.15	-	0	-
Positive attitude	1.92	+	1.08	-	0.6	-	0.24	-	0.46	-	0.34	-	0.88	-
Negative attitude	2.61		1.36	-	2.71		1.23	-	2.44	+++	2.20	++	0.71	-
Inscribed Graduation	0.86	-	0.68	-	1.9	+	0	-	1.44	-	0	-	0.3	-
Evoked Graduation	0.88	-	0.02	-	0.08	-	2.23		1.60	-	1.72	+	1.13	-
Evoked Force	2.62		2.3	++	1.5	-	0.54		2.37	+++	1.22	-	0.07	-
Quantification	2.08	++	1.98	++	0.91	-	1.65	-	1.89	+	0.83	-	1	-
Amount	1.52	-	3.1		0.31	-	1.54	-	0.83	-	0.71	-	0.61	-
Multiple-references/ Non-specific numeration	2.77 +++		2.97 +++		1.69	+	1.54	-	1.73	+++	0.83	-	1.93	+
Extent	4.17		1.8	+	0.83	-	0.22	-	1.06	-	1.54	-	1.78	+
Scope-space	4.81		1.99	++	0.83	-	0.22	-	0.76	-	1.54	-	1.4	-
Focus	2.62		2.3	++	1.5	-	0.54	-	2.3	+++	1.22	-	1.22	-
Soften	0.97	-	2.49		1.75	+	0.57	-	1.38	-	0	-	1	-
Sharpen	2.33	++	0.21	-	0.17	-	1.9	+	4.41	+++	0	-	0.31	-
Mono-glossic	2.51		1.07	-	1.13	-	1.89	+	4.50	+++	0.03	-	0	-
Hetero-glossic	2.51		1.07	-	1.13	-	1.89	+	4.50	+++	0.03	-	0.66	-
Contract	2.34	++	0.71	-	0.35	-	1.25	-	0.83	-	0.24	-	0.66	-
Deny	1.2	-	0.43	-	0.88	-	0.95	-	0.27	-	0.62	-	1.27	-
Counter	2.03	++	0.51	-	1.13	-	0	-	1.72	+	0.04	-	1.61	-
Concur	0.76	-	0.1	-	1.35	-	0	-	1.39	-	0	-	1.44	-
Pronounce	2.12	++	0.84	-	0	-	0.63	-	1.43	-	0.93	-	0	-
Endorse	0.37	-	0.39	-	0.54	-	0	-	1.67	+	0	-	0	-
Justify	1.23	-	0.87	-	0.17	-	0	-	2.77	+++	0.02	-	2.36	++
Expand	0.05	-	0.19	-	1.63	-	0.78	-	3.33	+++	0.25	-	0	-
Entertain	1.72	+	0.5	-	0.92	-	0.16	-	2.85	+++	0.47	-	0	-
Attribute	1.58	-	0.29	-	0.02	-	1.24	-	1.30	-	0	-	1.16	-

Table 7.7: Debater voice across moves (Each number is a t-score; Blue = higher density in the Chinese sub-corpus; Red = Higher density in the British sub-corpus; - = No significance; + = weak significance; ++ = medium significance; +++ = high significance

Advisor voice	Introduction						Conclusion							
	Move 1		Move 2		Move 3		Move 1		Move 2		Move 3		Move 4	
Attitude	0.01	-	1.01	-	1.35	-	0.21	-	0.85	-	1.43	-	0	-
Metaphor	0.76	-	1.07	-	0	-	0	-	0		0	-	0	-
Affect	1.15	-	1.07	-	1.45	-	0	-	0.3	-	0	-	0.9	-
Capacity	2.33	++	0.08	-	1.59	-	0	-	1.44	-	0	-	1.12	-
Propriety	0.91	-	1.86	+	0	-	0	-	0.78	-	0	-	1.44	-
Reaction	0	-	0.16	-	0.37	-	0	-	1.55	-	0	-	0	-
Composition	1.77	+	0	-	0	-	0	-	1.21	-	0.34	-	0	-
Social valuation	2.84	+++	0.37	-	1.81	+	0.73		2.39	++	2.72	+++	0.45	-
Inscribed Graduation	2.41	+++	0.06	-	0.74	-	0	-	2.35	+++	0.18	-	1.62	-
Evoked Graduation	3.48	+++	0.61	-	0.25	-	0.21	-	0.91	-	0.40	-	1.25	-
Evoked Force	1.49	-	0.91	-	1.83	+	0.42	-	1.12	-	0.24	-	1.68	-
Amount	3.14	+++	1.01	-	2.04	++	1.95	+	0.60	-	0.62	-	0.39	-
Extent	1.49	-	0.18	-	0.63	-	0	-	2.44	+++	1.50	-	1.05	-
Focus	1.49	-	0.91	-	0	-	0.42	-	1.12	-	0.24	-	0	-

Table 7.8: Advisor voice across moves (Each number is a t-score; Blue = higher density in the Chinese sub-corpus; Red = Higher density in the British sub-corpus; - = No significance; + = weak significance; ++ = medium significance; +++ = high significance)

In fact, in some Moves there is no significant difference between the texts by the Chinese and the British writers, even though there is a significant difference overall, as discussed in Chapter 6. This is due to the way frequency is counted in the statistical tests used in this study. When computing the overall differences, the frequency is the normalized number of occurrence of a type of Appraisal marker per thousand words of the RA, whereas when computing the differences in a particular move, the frequency is the normalized number of occurrences of a type of Appraisal marker per thousand words of the particular move, rather than the RA as a whole, and there is variation in the proportions of moves in each article. Therefore, the overall frequency is not the sum of the frequency in each move, and one overall significant difference might not be significantly different in any move. The overall statistical results and the statistical results for each move are complementary in revealing the features of the two groups of texts.

In **debates**, **explicit Attitude (particularly Social valuation)** is significantly preferred by the British writers as a means of establishing territory, through evaluating important problems mentioned in the literature, evaluating the advantages of prior approaches, reluctantly agreeing with opponents' opinions etc. Their preference for **Inclination** is found to be significant in the establishing a niche Move, where the British take the opportunity to directly reveal their presence and inquisitiveness in exploring the particular real world or research world inadequacy. The general British preference for evaluating the **Propriety** and **Reaction** of research is not significant in any move. It is interesting that although I found a significant British preference for **Positive** rather than Negative Attitude in Chapter 6, many significant preferences by the British for **Negative** Attitude are found in establishing a territory, occupying a niche and consolidating the results. However, these negative evaluations are not necessarily expressing criticism. For example, the negative evaluations can be due to some particular minor issues that will not be considered when occupying a niche, or due to a challenging situation faced by the writers when consolidating the results, used by the writers to position their study as original and embracing challenges. These types of **Negativity** do not involve a threat to face. Although in Chapter 6 the Chinese were found

to use less Attitude in general, they use more Attitude, particularly **Negative Attitude,** when commenting on the limitations of their studies. Therefore, the Chinese are not more positive than the British in this study.

In the ***Advisor*** voice, the **explicit Attitude** category**, Propriety,** is preferred by the British when discussing teaching issues in the real world; a negative real world situation is implied so that a niche can be established. In contrast, **Capacity** is preferred by the Chinese as a means of establishing a territory, through suggesting the importance and relevance of the topic. Markers of explicit Attitude are made stronger by the Chinese writers, using **Inscribed Graduation** to emphasize potential improvements that can be made to the real world when establishing a territory, or to emphasize the positive implications to the real world when consolidating the results. This technique also evokes a contraction of space for alternative voices.

Markers of **Evoked Graduation** are used to evoke either a positive/negative value or a contracted/expanded dialogic space. In **debates**, implicit **Force** (particularly **Extent**) is preferred by the British writers, to evoke dialogic space when negatively evaluating the disadvantages of prior approaches, or to evoke a value of importance by broadening the extent of research on the topic, when establishing a territory. Force is also use to upgrade non-specific numeration when consolidating results in order to evoke a positive value of productivity. The British also prefer to use implicit Focus to **Soften** the **reality of the phase** when establishing a niche, so as to evoke the negative value that the prior research is incomplete, or evoke a dialogic space for people who disagree with the writers' suggestions or opinions. The Chinese, on the other hand, mostly use Evoked Graduation to strengthen their stance. For example, **Multiple-references** and the **Fulfilled reality process** of the prior research are preferred to evoke a value of the importance of the topic, and evoke an authoritative stance when establishing a territory. Similar techniques are also used when establishing and occupying a niche. It is interesting that in Chapter 6 I found that the Chinese regarded a research aim as something that needed to be fulfilled. However, a closer

analysis across moves shows that whereas they actually Soften the Focus when occupying the niche, and at this stage treat the aim of the research as an attempt, since the research has not yet been fully introduced to the reader, they Sharpen the Focus when contextualising the study, positively signalling that the aim has been realised. In ***Advisor*** voices, the British prefer to use implicit **Force** to strengthen a negative situation or the importance of the research focus, or to predict results when occupying a niche. Implicit Force is also used by the British to evoke a contractive stance and suggest specific ways to improve the real world when consolidating the results. The Chinese use more **Amount** when establishing a niche to evoke a value of importance, or a positive value of insightfulness, when occupying a niche to justify their choice of how the study will be undertaken, and when contextualising the study to evoke a positive value of completion.

The general British preference for **heteroglossic** claims and the general Chinese preference for Monoglossia are reflected in the moves of establishing a territory, contextualising the study and consolidating the results. The dialogic patterns used by the British authors, discussed in Chapter 6, are also evident throughout the moves. They are used to balance strong stance and dialogic space.

The findings reported in this chapter confirm the general differences found in Chapter 6 but reveal more specific purposes behind the choice of evaluations. The Chinese authors maintained writer-reader relationships generally by not revealing attitude explicitly, while the British authors maintained writer-reader relationships by explicitly adjusting or evoking the dialogic space. The Chinese authors argue for their own positions by reinforcing their explicit attitudes, adding multiple references, sharpening the completion of tasks and construing claims as unquestioned, whereas the British authors argue for their own positions by explicitly evaluating people and phenomena.

I also suggest that some features of the Chinese texts may reflect the writers' unfamiliarity with the genre. For example, it is very strange that the Chinese authors explicitly criticise their own research in an unquestioned stance in the limitations of the study move, as if it is

not risky to be totally honest, and as if such strong self-criticism will not undermine the justification for the research. It seems that to the Chinese authors, there is no need to tone down the weaknesses of their own research because this particular move is supposed to be about limitations. In other moves, however, the Chinese writers do make an effort to positively justify their research, treating these moves as vehicles for the justification of their studies. It seems that they are less coherent in construing stance throughout the research articles and construct each move with reference to its ostensible purpose.

CHAPTER 8. CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I draw final conclusions on this thesis. I first review the research aim, hypothesis, research questions, research methods and the major findings. I then evaluate the general contributions of the thesis to an understanding of the nature of evaluative stance and voice in the discourse of research articles in applied linguistics, as well as its contribution to discourse semantic analysis within the field of cross-cultural studies. I also identify the theoretical contribution of the thesis to evaluative contexts and the model of Appraisal. Later in this chapter, I consider how the insights I have arrived at in this study might inform pedagogical activities for Chinese academics, particularly novice academics, and the decisions and advice provided by editors and reviewers of international journals. The limitations of the current thesis are also discussed, and I evaluate the methodology from an applied linguistics and computational linguistics perspective. At the end of this chapter, I suggest further research that can address new issues raised in the current study.

8.1 Major findings

The aim of the thesis was to explore the extent to which Chinese academics living in China differ from native British academics in the way that they address the international research community, and the extent to which any identifiable differences are caused by national cultures, independent of other factors that may impact on persuasive style. After consideration of the possible influence of Confucius and Taoism cultures (Lau, 1983; Peng & Nisbett, 1999; Xue & Meng, 2007; Deng, 2014), collectivist culture (Hofstede, 2010), face culture (Hu & Wang, 2014; Lustig & Koester, 2010), high-context culture (Hall, 1976) and reader-responsible culture (Hinds, 1990), I hypothesized that Chinese academics will tend to be less evaluative, argumentative, critical, assertive, engaging, explicit and negative than Anglophone academics. Three research questions were then proposed:

1) How do Chinese academics construct their stance and voice in applied linguistics RAs?

2) How do Chinese academics voice values across contexts in applied linguistics RAs?

3) How do Chinese academics construct stance and voice across moves in applied linguistics RAs?

I created a corpus of 30 RAs in applied linguistics, with 15 written by home-grown Chinese researchers and 15 written by home-grown British researchers. The Appraisal framework (Martin & White, 2005), evaluative context (Xu & Nesi, 2017) and genre analysis (Swales, 1990, 1994) were used to analyse the data.

The first research question has been addressed by analysing the use of Appraisal markers by both groups of researchers. The Chinese were generally found to use fewer markers than their British counterparts in every main Appraisal category (Attitude, Graduation, Engagement). Their general lesser use of Engagement markers and greater use of Monoglossic claims has justified my hypothesis that the Chinese authors would be less engaging than the British authors. In particular, the Chinese used fewer Expand markers, especially Entertain, and used more markers of Acknowledging and Endorsing, indicating that they regarded writing as being less dialogic and more descriptive of facts that are regarded as correct, valid and warrantable. These features seem to be in line with the Confucius idea that knowledge should be conveyed as 'what it is'. However, the Chinese preference for Monoglossic claims simultaneously falsifies the hypothesis that the Chinese researchers would be less assertive than the British researchers. This finding implies that the Chinese writers were less concerned about managing their own face and that of their putative opponents, and hence failed to conform to the norms of face culture. In contrast, the British used more Entertain to avoid threatening the face of those with alternative voices. This also falsifies the hypothesis that Chinese writers would pay more attention to maintaining face.

The second research question has been addressed by analysing the voicing of values across evaluative Contexts by the Chinese and the British researchers. The Chinese were found to use fewer Appraisal markers in the *Debater* and *Advisor voice*, indicating that the Chinese were less evaluative and less argumentative. It can also be said that the British researchers

were more critical, as they criticized and evaluated the research of others in the *Debater voice* more than the Chinese did. However, it is hard to say which group of authors was more explicit or less explicit, as both groups were explicit or implicit in certain situations, even though they chose different strategies to achieve this effect. For example, the British researchers used more Entertain and evoked Graduation to be less explicit, and the Chinese researchers used less explicit Attitude. In other cases, the British tended to express feelings in the *Debater voice* by using Inclination, Reaction and Social valuation markers, giving authorial presence, and using Propriety and Composition markers to criticise or evaluate prior research. The Chinese tended to express themselves explicitly in the *Debater voice* and the *Advisor voice* by using inscribed Graduation in Monoglossic claims. The Chinese use of inscribed Graduation in Monoglossic claims also means that they sometimes expressed their opinions quite strongly, in addition to conveying knowledge. This does not seem to be in strict accordance with Confucius culture of knowledge practice. Moreover, the British were found to use more positive Attitude markers in the *Debater voice* and the *Advisor voice*, falsifying the hypothesis that the Chinese would be more positive.

The third research question has been addressed by analysing Chinese and British use of Appraisal markers across RA moves. Throughout the moves, it was found that the Chinese authors generally maintained writer-reader relationships by not revealing attitude explicitly, while the British authors maintained writer-reader relationships by explicitly adjusting or evoking the dialogic space. The Chinese authors argued for their own positions by reinforcing their explicit attitudes, adding multiple references, sharpening the completion of tasks and construing claims as unquestioned, whereas the British authors argued for their own positions by explicitly evaluating people and phenomena. These features were particularly salient when establishing a territory, establishing a gap, and consolidating the results.

Therefore, the hypothesis that Chinese academics would tend to be less evaluative, argumentative, critical, assertive, engaging, explicit and negative than Anglophone

academics is partially justified and partially falsified. The Chinese were less evaluative, argumentative, critical and engaging, but were more assertive, and no less explicit or negative, than the British authors.

8.2 Research contributions

8.2.1 Contributions to cross-cultural studies

The first contribution of this thesis to cross-national cultural studies is its use of rigorous methods to control variables. In most of the previous cross-cultural studies (e.g., Kaplan 1966; Matalene 1985; Fagan & Chang, 1987; Cai 1993; Wong 1992; Shi 2004; Bolton, Nelson & Hung 2002), the variables that may have impact on the style of stance and voice have not been controlled, although bold conclusions have been made about the way national cultures affect academic writing style. After considering the nature of academic writing, as discussed in some non-cross-national cultural studies, I identified the variables that I thought needed to be controlled in cross-national-cultural studies: disciplinary culture (Biglan, 1973; Becher, 1981, 1994, 2001; Hu and Wang 2014; Hyland 2005; Hood 2004, 2011; Nesi 2014), generic culture (Swales, 1990, 2004; Bhatia, 1993; Mauranen, 1993; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Martin & Rose, 2008; Thompson 2012; Guinda 2012), L1 educational (classroom) culture (Connor, 2002; Leedham & Cai, 2013; Field & Yip 1992; Lee & Chen 2009), the experience of writers in the academy (e.g., Eason, 1995; Kaminura and Oi, 1997), the type of audience (Sheldon, 2013; Shaw, 2003; Wu & Zhu, 2014), and language proficiency (e.g., Wu 2008).

The second contribution of this thesis to cross-national-cultural studies is its production of new knowledge relating to the understanding of Chinese national culture and academic writing. In the literature, most cross-cultural studies of RAs written by Chinese and Anglophone academics have identified the influence of Confucius culture, face culture, collectivist culture, high-context culture or reader-responsible culture solely on the basis of an examination of one or two types of stance and voice markers, such as first person

pronouns (Wu & Zhu, 2014), moves (Taylor and Chen, 1991; Wong 1992; Cai, 1991; Loi, 2010), Engagement (Hu & Wang, 2014), citation (Shi, 2004; Hu & Wang, 2014; Peng & Nisbett, 1999), and metadiscourse (Leedham & Cai, 2013; Field & Yip, 1992; Lee & Chen, 2009; Nelson & Hung, 2002). This study has taken a relatively systematic perspective to analyse stance and voice strategies, and hence is able to detect the issues that cannot be discovered in studies that focus on only one aspect of stance and voice and one national culture.

This study found that the Chinese authors were less evaluative, argumentative, critical and engaging, but more assertive and no less explicit or negative than the British authors. However although the Chinese authors may believe that applied linguistics RAs can convey knowledge as 'what it is', save everyone's face, and produce new knowledge and ideas, all at the same time, this study concludes that this is not possible. In other words, a Chinese writer's intention to realize both Confucius culture and face culture would probably not be recognised by the wider international research community. Within China, however, a collectivist society where opinions are assumed to be similar, it is probable that Confucius culture and face culture can be realized simultaneously. Under these circumstances, no one's face is threatened when knowledge is conveyed as 'what it is'. Even if the speakers and readers do not agree with this 'knowledge', they tend to adjust themselves to conform to the norms of their community, whereas in a culture that welcomes diverse opinions and discussion, practising Confucius culture may entail ignoring the voices of listeners or readers, and may hinder effective communication. The most important culture in the international research community seems to be an open culture where evaluation, criticism, debate and discussion are key to the production of new knowledge, particularly to ensure the quality of the new knowledge (Kornfeld & Hewitt; 1981). Such interaction can also generate a range of cognitive activities such as disagreement which can in turn trigger mechanisms such as knowledge elicitation and internalisation (Dillenbourg, 1999; Remedios *et al.,* 2008; Weinberger & Fischer 2006). Inevitably, Chinese academics must face the dilemma of whether to loyally convey accepted knowledge or express their own new ideas.

They may also find it difficult to reconcile Confucius culture with the international research community culture which has its own conventions regarding the management of face. The data in this study suggests that the Chinese tried to convey knowledge as 'what it is', but sometimes expressed their ideas strongly and assertively, which is perhaps at odds with normal practice in the international research community. This discovery has provided new insights into the rhetorical difficulties that may be faced by Chinese academics writing in English for an international audience.

8.2.2 Theoretical contribution

The theory of Evaluative Context is one of the biggest contributions made to the field by this study. I have analysed the role of contexts in persuasive academic writing in terms of the function of evaluative resources; this has not been considered by most of the prior studies that have examined stance and voice markers in academic writing. It was found that evaluative resources can create different communicative effects depending on what is being evaluated. Scrutiny and comparison of the most inspiring prior research (Sinclair 1981; Thetela 1997; Hunston 2000; Hood 2004) has led to the formulation of a new, practical distinction between three categories of context: –real +argumentative intention, +real +argumentative intention, and +real – argumentative intention, where the writers construe *Debater voice*, *Advisor voice*, and *Observer voice* respectively. Each of these categories is mutually exclusive, and it is therefore easier to identify and compare the evaluative resources within each category. In practice, it enables us to focus on those evaluative resources which are most interesting from a functional perspective – i.e. those that are affected by the writer's argumentative intention, and filter out those evaluative resources which do not serve arguments.

The process of data analysis in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 has thoroughly illustrated the importance of examining contexts. Conclusions about argumentativeness could not have been made in Chapter 5 without knowing what was being evaluated and its relevance to the

argument. In Chapter 6, the categorisation of Appraisal markers into contexts has enabled me to cautiously draw conclusions about the evaluative nature of my texts.

The theory of Evaluative Context was built on the work of Sinclair (1981), Thetela, (1997), Hunston (2000), and Hood (2004), independently of Appraisal theory. However, I argue that this theory can be embedded into Appraisal theory when the target discourse is academic writing. Martin and White (2005: 135–136) noted that gradability is evident in all Appraisal markers:

> …a defining property of all attitudinal meaning is their gradability. It is a general property of values of affect, Judgement and appreciation that they construe greater or lesser degrees of positivity or negativity…… Gradability is also generally a feature of the engagement system……more broadly, engagement values scale for the degree of the speaker/writer's intensity, or the degree of their investment in the utterance.

Of course, experiential meaning is also graded by evoked Graduation markers, although Martin and White (2005) do not mention this. Since the level of positivity and negativity, the level of amplification of experiential meaning, and the level of dialogic space can be embedded into the gradability of Appraisal markers, it is also reasonable to fit 'the level of relevance to argument' into the gradability perspective within Appraisal theory. Appraisal markers in the *Debater voice*, *Advisor voice* and *Observer voice* can be placed on a cline from high relevance to argument to low relevance to argument, or, in other words, from highly evaluative to slightly evaluative. In this way this study has contributed to the understanding of the semantic nature of academic discourse and contributed to the development of Appraisal theory, although this embedded system is only applicable to the analysis of academic discourse, and not to other registers such as fiction, correspondence, news reports, etc.

8.2.3 Contribution to the studies of academic writing in general

This study has not only provided insights into cross-cultural studies but also into the nature of academic writing. In my data, the *Debater voice* was the most prominent and important one among the three types of voice, followed by the *Advisor voice* that also played a part in

argument. This constitutes new evidence to support the concept that academic writing in the soft disciplines is argumentative, persuasive and subjective (Becher, 1994; Becher & Trowler, 2001; Hyland, 2000). The findings also revealed how different types of stance marker relate to the level of argumentativeness. There are fewer Attitude and Graduation markers in the *Debater voice*, but it is only in the *Debater voice* that Engagement markers occur. Most Attitude markers serve the *Advisor voice*, and most Graduation markers serve the *Observer voice*. In both the *Debater voice* and the *Advisor voice* Attitude markers are most prevalent, while in the *Observer voice* Graduation markers are more common.

The identification of an *Advisor* voice in RA Introductions and Conclusions also contributes to academic writing research by drawing attention to the role of real world gaps, which need to be filled just as research gaps (identified in Move 2 of Swales' CARS model) need to be filled.

8.3 Research implication

The rich results from this study have implications for the real world, including for the academic literacy development of novice Chinese and Anglophone academics, and offer new perspectives on the debate about the use of English as the international academic lingua franca.

8.3.1 Research implications for pedagogy in academic literacy

8.3.1.1 IMPLICATION FOR THE CONTENTS IN TEXTBOOKS

A key motivation for this thesis is the pedagogic concern to develop effective EAP teaching materials to assist Chinese academics in soft disciplines to manage the stance and voice demands inherent in introducing and concluding their research articles. There are many aspects that can be considered in EAP materials.

Swales' CARS model (1990, 2004) and moves in general have been provided in some EAP teaching and learning materials (e.g. de Chazal 2014; Swales & Feak, 2012; Hamp-Lyons &

Heasley, 2006). Samraj (2002:15) added additional options to Moves 1 and 2 of the original CARS model, so that in Move 1 (Establishing a Territory) claiming centrality can involve the research world and/or the real world, and similarly in Move 2 (Establishing a Niche) indicating a gap can involve either or both of these worlds. The importance of evaluative context has not yet been recognized, however, in materials for teaching and learning academic writing, and does not appear to feature in academic writing guides or textbooks. Having identified the evaluative contexts, I suggest consideration be given to the evaluative Context in EAP teaching and learning materials. For example, in the Establishing a Territory Move, it is important for teachers to explain how the evaluations that relate to the research itself (e.g., the researcher's feelings, comments on the prior research, the relationship between the research and the prior research) justify the importance of the research topic differently from the way in which evaluations relating to the real world (e.g., problems faced by students, expectations and the feelings of teachers and students) justify the importance of the research topic.

Moreover, the types of stance and voice techniques provided in existing textbooks are very limited. For example, Engagement markers such as Entertain (mostly seen in terms of hedging markers in textbooks), Acknowledge/Distance/Endorse (mostly seen in terms of reporting verbs in textbooks), are taught as single items (e.g., Hewings *et al*., 2012; Swales & Feak, 2012; Philpot & Curnick, 2011; Hamp-Lyons & Heasley, 2006; de Chazal, 2014; Murray, 2010; Ridley, 2012; Thomas, 2016; Shields, 2013; Bailey, 2015; Bailey, 2011; McMilan & Weyers, 2013; Day, 2013). I suggest that after teaching them as individual lexical items, students should be given examples of different combinations of dialogic markers, so as to raise the awareness of possible techniques to construct balanced positions. For example, these could include ways to express opinions and simultaneously save everyone's face by using 'Entertain + Deny + superlative/maximum + polarity/entity/proposition', 'Counter + Entertain+ Deny + polarity/entity/proposition1, + polarity/entity/proposition2', 'Deny + polarity/entity/proposition + Entertain + superlative/maximum + negative', as explained in Chapter 6.

The Graduation resources are also neglected generally in the existing textbooks. In EAP textbooks, students are normally encouraged to 'evaluate' and to be 'critical', and to develop an opinion from the perspectives of advantages and disadvantages (Hamp-Lyons & Heasley, 2006; Swales & Feak, 2012; Hewings *et al*., 2012; Bailey, 2015). However, this encouragement may lead students to think in dichotomous terms of 'good' or 'bad' as explicit Attitude markers. However, as illustrated in this thesis, apart from explicit Attitude, there can be implicit evaluations using Graduation markers. They are useful resources for academic writers to construe a relatively objective tone. For example, in the Establishing a Territory Move , some evoked Graduation markers can be discussed by students based on their functions, such as toning down when negatively evaluating the disadvantages of prior approaches, or implicitly signalling a value of importance by broadening the extent of research on the topic.

Textbooks particularly aimed at Chinese academics can specifically emphasise the types of stance resource found in this study that were overlooked by the Chinese authors. For example, in the Establishing a Territory Move, the Chinese academics were found to use significantly fewer explicit Attitude markers (particularly Social evaluation). The teacher can explain the use of various explicit Attitude markers and the purposes they serve, such as evaluating important problems mentioned in the literature, evaluating the advantages of prior approaches, or reluctantly agreeing with opponents' opinions. Moreover, different types of activity can be designed based on conclusions from the current study.

The above illustrations are aimed at Chinese academics. Materials that are aimed at novice Anglophone academics can also be designed, but from a more general perspective.

8.3.1.2 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE WAY WRITING TASK IS EXPLAINED

It is not always easy to transfer the findings of discourse analysis to pedagogic practice. As Swales (2002: 67) explained:

> One seemingly predisposing feature for the acceptance of structural models is a certain simplicity. (…) In contrast, elaborate models, for all their sophistication and for all the time and effort put into their evolution, somehow typically fail to attract the attention of the relevant applied linguistic communities in a sustained way, however, much as they may appeal to coteries of like-minded scholars. It looks as though being simple engenders being memorable, and this in turn engenders being usable, quotable, and perhaps teachable'.

In order to appeal to EAP teachers and EAP students, efforts should thus be made to ensure that the theory of Evaluative Context and the Appraisal model are 'usable, quotable, and ….teachable'. To do this, the models must necessarily be simplified to some extent, without losing those features which are most useful for novice writers to learn. One solution can be to use the terms already used in EAP materials to deliver the functions of Appraisal categories, such as Hedging (e.g., Hamp-Lyons & Heasley, 2006; Swales & Feak, 2012; Hewings *et al.,* 2012; Philpot & Curnick, 2011) and reporting verbs (e.g., de Chazal, 2014; Murray, 2010; Ridley, 2012; Thomas, 2016; Shields, 2013; Bailey, 2015; Bailey, 2011; McMilan & Weyers, 2013; Day, 2013). There are also EAP textbooks that explain different kinds of reporting verbs using words such as 'acknowledge', 'disagree', 'agree' and 'endorse', and different kinds of positioning techniques using words such as 'concede', 'reject', and 'contrast' (e.g., Hewings *et al.*, 2012; Walliman, 2014; Greetham, 2013). It therefore seems possible that other Engagement categories can be taught in terms of their function: Entertain could be taught in terms of Hedging, for example. Combinations of Engagement markers can appear very complicated, but by this means they can be made more accessible to learners.

8.3.2 Research implications for linguistic justice in the international academia

This thesis has suggested that Confucius and Taoist perceptions of the role language plays in communication, and the Chinese face culture that is interwoven in the Chinese collective society, are not suitable for the dynamic exchange of ideas and arguments in the international academic community. On the surface, this seems to suggest that the English language is a superior choice to the Chinese language as an academic lingua franca.

However, in theory, any language can be developed or adapted to the vocabulary and needs of scientific communication, just as English has gained precedence over languages of greater prestige such as French, Greek and Latin (Swales, 1990). That is to say, the dialogue among academics depends on human language and is facilitated by the use of one common language, but does not necessarily depend on any one particular language. The need to use a common language in academia does not dictate which language should be chosen. Therefore, the findings of this thesis do not challenge the existing argument that English, as the language of the British Empire, accumulated power through colonialism and economic domination and had no particular inherent qualification to be the academic lingua franca in the first place. The situation in some countries (e.g., America, Canada, Australia) where English has become the first language is also the result of British colonization. When it comes to the choice of language to facilitate global academic conversation, it is unlikely that academics can be neutral. Given the spread of English and the amount of resources that have already been invested in English language training, English is the obvious choice for this role. Thus, the choice of English as the academic lingua franca is not a linguistic decision but is purely the result of economic, political and technological influences (Ammon, 2001, 2006; Ivanic, 1998; Mauranen, 1993b, 1993c; Pennycook, 1994; Salager-Meyer, 1997; Swales, 1997).

However, the imperialistic imposition of English as lingua franca (ELF) in the first place does not mean that academic English is not suitable today in realizing universal communicative norms in the international research community. Although English was not originally such an 'academic' language, it has inevitably gone through extensive changes as the communicative medium of British innovators who developed modern scientific thinking, research journals, the machinery that enabled the industrial revolution and British colonization since the 17th century. In the early 17th century, Francis Bacon wrote extensively on empirical scientific methods, and established modern science. In this period, one of the earliest research journals, *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*, was created in Britain. The Royal Society was steadfast in its not yet popular belief that science

could only move forward through a transparent and open exchange of ideas backed by experimental evidence. English might thus have been the first language to adjust to the communicative needs of research journals. The establishment of modern science and its communicative norms led to a strong strand of pragmatism in 17th century British science. This placed Britain in the forefront of specialist equipment-making, created a firm basis for rapid industrialisation and domination of world trade. In this process, an academic community that uses English has expanded, and English has gained more exposure to a larger community of users and has evolved to meet the norms of an academic lingua franca. Because of their longer exposure to this means of communication, British academics may have learnt to conform more completely to academic communicative norms. It could be argued that academic English has become an international language, rather than reflecting the national culture of Britain or any other national culture, just as modern science does not reflect the national culture of Britain any more than it reflects any other national culture.

Anglophone academics may still be advantaged, however, as it is an undeniable fact that today, they do not need to invest as much time and as many resources in learning how to communicate in an appropriate academic style, and they do not suffer anxiety in the acquisition of a new language as non-native English speakers do. This unearned advantage inarguably privileges Anglophone academics. Moreover, the adoption of academic ELFA in countries where English is not their first language may also hinder their local language from evolving to conform to academic norms.

The historical imperialism of academic English and the current suitability of English as a vehicle conforming to the norms of international community makes it difficult to know whether we should maintain national writing conventions or not. Some researchers have argued that we should maintain such conventions for academic discourse. As Mauranen et al (2010: 638) stated, “there is no universal standard of ‘good writing’”. For example, Japanese is a reader-responsible language, so the use of English as a writer-responsible language might represents “a threat for local identities and scholarly traditions” (Mauranen

et al., 2010: 646). However, there can be a universal standard of 'good norms' in academia, which uses peculiar ways to persuasion. A reader-responsible language may not be explicit enough to provide a transparent and accessible research argument to academics from all over the world. Equally, a preference for delivering knowledge as unquestioned may not be dialogic enough to embrace all kinds of ideas and knowledge in the research community. Some conventions in Academic English such as being dialogic may have become the international style that suits the contemporary purposes of the international academic community.

It seems that neither keeping the national language conventions nor suffering disadvantages among non-Anglophone academics is ideal. However, there is not much that can be done about it, except for editors and reviewers making allowances, and letting local languages evolve naturally to meet the purposes of research community.

8.4 Research limitations

Although this thesis has applied the Appraisal framework, I had to interpret the theory so in order to categorise my data. A couple of Graduation categories do not seem to be completely clear-cut. For example, Hood (2004) considered Specificity as a category where the categorical boundary of an experiential phenomenon is focused in terms of degree of specificity (e.g., *…estimates of* ***precisely*** *what the …strategies …are; …* ***especially*** *children; …* ***particularly*** *at primary level; … in the* ***narrow*** *sense*). She considered Scope as a category which refers to the relative spread of a phenomenon (e.g., *…a* ***specific*** *organisational context*). However, from these examples it is not clear what the differences are between these two categories. In cases where categorisation was problematic, the other coder and I made consistent choices to categorize all such instances into Scope rather than Specificity in the current study.

Interpretation was also involved in the categorisation of some items that seemed to fit in multiple categories. For example, *traditional, controversy, and instead of*. In such cases, the

other coder and I made a consistent choice to assign them to more than one category. However, a more valid decision may require more applied linguists' suggestions on this matter.

This study has employed both qualitative (discourse analysis) and quantitative (corpus) approaches to examine stance and voice in greater richness and precision and arrive at statistically reliable and relatively generalizable results. Although this study is at its best transparent, reliable and replicable compared to traditional qualitative studies of Appraisal features, the size of the corpus prevents broad generalizations. However, because it was necessary to thoroughly annotate the different kinds of stance and voice markers, it was beyond the scope of PhD research to work with a larger dataset.

8.5 Further research

Future research on stance and voice can aim to find a more efficient and scientific way to mark up stance and voice features in texts so that the size of the corpus can be expanded. This raises the question of whether it is possible to automatically annotate Appraisal, Context and Genre features.

Sometimes, researchers from different disciplines may investigate similar real world phenomena using different methods, but they may not be aware of the existence of each other, or the methods are so different that neither side is motivated to collaborate, hence missing opportunities to exchange ideas. However, to discuss the issue of automatic annotation, it seems clear that applied linguists who work on stance and voice should collaborate with computer scientists.

So far, the most relevant area in computer science to stance and voice analysis is sentiment analysis. It involves natural language processing, text analysis, computational linguistics, and biometrics to identify subjective information in texts. Sentiment analysis has made progress in some respects that applied linguists have not acknowledged yet. In stance and voice analysis in applied linguistics, one methodological issue is that the writer's purpose is always

open to interpretation. It seems impossible for programs to have the ability to interpret and mark up texts 100% correctly. However, sentiment analysts have argued that human mark-up is not 100% correct, because humans often disagree; human raters typically agree only 79% of the time (Ogneva, 2010). This means that although in my thesis the inter-rater reliability was improved to 100%, a third coder might still have disagreed with about 20% of the annotation. Likewise, if a program was 'right' 100% of the time, humans might still disagree with about 20% of the annotation (Roebuck, 2012). Hence, Mozetič *et al*. (2016) argue that inter-human agreement simply provides an upper boundary that an automated analysis can aim for - applied linguists can probably only expect a computer program to reach 79% agreement, at most.

An inter-human agreement of 79% may seem unsatisfactory. This raises another question: whether human interpretation can be avoided. Some evidence from psychology may answer this question. Within the field of psychology, there is also an 'Appraisal' theory that is concerned with human evaluations, but it attempts to address why people react to things differently, rather than how humans express evaluations using language. The psychology Appraisal theory suggests that evaluations are elicited based on components such as individual goals, environment, memories, logical and critical thinking (Lazarus, 1991; Smith & Kirby, 2009; Marsella & Gratch, 2003). This may suggest that, for both writers and readers, the components can vary to some extent. Therefore readers are not always sure what the writer's intentions are, and readers may have different responses to an evaluative item in the text based on their individual psychological appraisal process. This also means that the extent to which interpretation is involved cannot be avoided.

In prior applied linguistic analyses of stance and voice that use automatic mark-up (e.g., Biber and Finegan 1989; Conrad and Biber 2000), researchers built pre-set lists of stance markers and detected these words, and consideration for the variations of meaning in different co-texts and contexts does not seem to have been systematically applied. This is similar to knowledge-based techniques used in semantic analysis to pre-classify

unambiguous affect words. However, sentiment analysis also considers the co-text that may influence the function of the attitudinal markers. It draws on a semantic network to detect meaning, and adopts machine learning to give computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed (Cambria, *et al*., 2013). With these techniques, contexts can be taken into account by the program, at least to some extent. Sentiment analysis is mainly applied to voice in customer feedback (e.g. in reviews, survey responses, and the social media) to help businesses manage their reputations and identify new opportunities. It is therefore mostly concerned with identifying and classifying the polarity of an evaluative feature as positive, negative or neutral (similar to explicit Attitude). However, I argue that these techniques could also be applied to detect Graduation and Engagement markers. If an Appraisal pre-set list is also built up for academic discourse, machine learning and sentiment networks can be used to adjust the pre-list of Appraisal markers according to the data, and new items can also be picked up. Based on my annotating experience, I argue that most of the information in identifying Appraisal features can be taught to a computer. For example, when identifying explicit Attitude, a human annotator makes a decision based on who is evaluating (e.g., the writer, prior research, or people in the real world), what is being evaluated (e.g., emotions, behaviours or phenomena), and the polarity and strength of the evaluation. The identification of Evoked graduation is mostly based on the meaning and polarity of the marker. The identification of Engagement is mostly based on grammar and meaning. This information could in theory be detected by programs developed through techniques such as part-of-speech tagging, parsing, semantic networks, and supervised machine learning.

However, there may be some contextual information that cannot be taught to the computer. I will raise a couple of concerns drawn from this thesis for future sentiment analysis on stance and voice to consider:

1) Unconventional use. When annotating the Chinese data, a few semantic errors were noticed. For example, the Judgement item ‘fabricate’ normally refers to the action of

inventing something in order to deceive (e.g., *He went on to accuse the witnesses of fabricating the evidence against the accused*) (Oxford, n.d.). Sometimes it can also be neutral when referring to constructing or manufacturing an industrial product (i.e., *Finally, new shapes have been fabricated with blocks of crystals*). However, it was used as a positive evaluation in the Chinese sub-corpus (e.g., *It aids language learners in grasping how a text unfolds in virtue of the semantic system fabricated by cohesive ties within the text*). Software can, of course, only identify conventional and typical examples and certain realizations of functions. Data from L2 writers and/or inexpert writers can be more difficult to interpret.

2) Knowledge that is not encoded in the text. For example, the term 'empirical' is positive in particular genres or disciplines, but neutral in others. Such features can be taken for granted by an informed reader due to the shared experience, knowledge and values of their particular discourse community. It seems that the background knowledge of every individual writer/reader would be difficult to codify.

However, it is still possible that with the collaboration of computer scientists, these concerns can eventually be solved.

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