# CITATION, STANCE AND ENGAGEMENT IN POSTGRADUATE AND PUBLISHED ACADEMIC WRITING

by

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# DECLARATION

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I, Bertha Muringani, hereby declare that this thesis, entitled, CITATION, STANCE AND ENGAGEMENT IN POSTGRADUATE AND PUBLISHED ACADEMIC WRITING, is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

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# ABSTRACT

Citation, stance taking and engagement are important academic writing practices and research has revealed that how they are used influences grades awarded to students' work. This study examines the extent to which MA and PhD students in the humanities disciplines of English and Linguistics (EL) and Development Studies (DS) at the National University of Lesotho differ from one another, and also from writers of research articles (RAs) in their fields, regarding the use of these resources.

An electronic corpus was compiled from MA dissertations, PhD theses and a selection of RAs. An analytical framework was developed essentially from Hyland's (2005) interactional metadiscourse together with aspects of Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal engagement. For the main quantitative study, WordSmith Tools was used to search for citations, stance and reader engagement markers across the three genres and two disciplines. The qualitative study involved interpreting aspects of the quantitative results in terms of how the metadiscourse markers functioned, including with respect to dialogic engagement. To gain more insight into the students' choices when using these academic writing practices, a sample of postgraduate writers and supervisors was interviewed.

Cross-discipline results showed that the DS postgraduates used more non-integral and assimilation citations than the EL ones, while cross-genre analyses showed that the MA writers used more integral citations. Particularly among the EL groups the use of non-integrals increased with genre level. Qualitative investigation of citation led to the proposal of 'chain' and 'split' categories of citation, and their relationship with quality in writing is considered. Stance marker comparisons revealed that the MA writers used more acknowledge and distance reporting verbs and that the use of these verbs decreased progressively with genre level, so the MAs seemed generally to report information more tentatively than the PhDs. Reader engagement cross-genre comparisons showed that in both disciplines, the RA writers used significantly more markers than the postgraduates, mainly because of genre differences: while the former wrote for peers, the latter wrote for assessors. The particular analytical framework of this study, combined with its qualitative aspects, facilitates more fine-grained findings that are also relevant to further research and to pedagogical application.

*Key words*:

Metadiscourse, citation, stance, engagement, reader engagement, dialogic engagement, dialogic effect, dialogic space, reporting verb, postgraduate academic writing

# OPSOMMING IN AFRIKAANS

Aanhaling, skrywershouding en relasie is belangrike akademiese skryfpraktyke. Navorsing het aangetoon dat die manier waarop hierdie praktyke aangewend word die beoordeling van studente se skryfwerk beïnvloed. Hierdie studie ondersoek tot watter mate MA en PhD studente aan die Nasionale Universiteit van Lesotho in die Geesteswetenskappe dissiplines Engels en Taalwetenskap (EL) en Ontwikkelingsstudies (DS) van mekaar, en van skrywers van navorsingskartikels (RA) verskil, ten opsigte van die gebruik van bogenoemde akademiese skryfpraktyke.

'n Elektroniese korpus is saamgestel uit MA verhandelings, PhD tesisse en 'n seleksie van navorsingsartikels. 'n Analitiese raamwerk is ontwikkel uit Hyland (2005) se interaksionele metadiskoers en uit aspekte van Martin en White (2005) se 'Appraisal engagement'. 'WordSmith Tools' is in die hoofstudie (wat kwantitatief van aard is) gebruik om aanhalings, skrywershouding en leserrelasie merkers in die drie genres en twee disiplines te identifiseer. Die kwalitatiewe deel van die studie omvat 'n interpretasie van sekere aspekte van die kwantitatiewe resultate, spesifiek *hoe* die metadiskoers merkers funksioneer, ook ten opsigte van dialogiese relasie. Om 'n beter beeld te vorm oor die keuses wat studente uitoefen wanneer hul van die spesifieke akademiese skryfpraktyke gebruik maak, is onderhoude met 'n steekproef van die nagraadse skrywers en studieleiers gevoer.

Kruisdissipline resultate dui daarop dat die DS nagraadse studente meer nie-integrale en assimilasie aanhalings gebruik het as die EL studente, terwyl kruisgenre analises bevind het dat skrywers van MA verhandelings meer integrale aanhalings gebruik het. Veral in die EL groep het die gebruik van nie-integrale aanhalings na gelang van die genrevlak toegeneem. Kwalitatiewe ondersoek het gelei tot die voorstel van twee kategorieë van aanhalings, naamlik 'ketting' en 'verdeelde' aanhalings, en hul verwantskap met die kwaliteit van skryfwerk is ondersoek. 'n Vergelyking van houdingmerkers het onthul dat die MA skrywers meer erkenning- en afstand verslaggewende werkwoorde gebruik het, en dat die gebruik van hierdie werkwoorde afgeneem het met genrevlak; dus MA skrywers is klaarblyklik meer tentatief in hul rapportering van inligting as PhD skrywers. 'n Kruisgenre vergelyking van leserrelasie het gewys dat, in beide dissiplines, RA skrywers beduidend meer merkers gebruik het as nagraadse studente, hoofsaaklik as gevolg van genreverskille: eersgenoemde skryf vir hul portuurgroep en laasgenoemde skryf vir assessors. Die spesifieke analitiese raamwerk van hierdie studie, asook die kwalitatiewe beskouing, fasiliteer gedetailleerde resultate, en is ook relevant vir verdere navorsing en vir pedagogiese toepassings.

*Sleutelwoorde*:

Metadiskoers, aanhaling, skrywershouding, relasie, leserrelasie, dialogiese relasie, dialogiese effek, dialogiese spasie, verslaggewende werkwoord, nagraadse akademiese skryfwerk

# MOFETOLELO SESOTHO

Tšebeliso ea mehloli e meng, ho ba le ntlhakemo esita le ho sekaseka lintlha tsa bohlokoa tabeng ke litšiea tse kholo litabeng tsa bongoli thutong e phahameng. Liphuputso li senotse hore tsela eo mehloli e sebelisoang ka teng e susumetsa phano ea matšoao mosebetsing oa baithuti. Phuputso ena e shebana le hore na tšebeliso ea mehloli baithuting ba MA le PhD lekaleng la Humanities ba etsang English and Linguistics (Senyesemane le Qapoliso ea puo) EL le Development Studies (Lithuto tsa Ntlafatso) Unifesithing ea Sechaba ea Lesotho e fapana joang le hore na lipampiri tsa liphuphutso tsa mafapha a bona li fapane ho ipapisitsoe le lintlha tse amang tšebeliso ea mehloli e meng.

Ho entsoe pokello ea marangrang ea liphuputso tsa MA, PhD le Lipampiri-phuputso (RAs). Ho entsoe leoa la manollo ho ikamahantsoe le leoa la Hyland (2005) le bitsoang interactional metadiscourse hammoho le leoa la Martin le White (2005) le bitsoang Appraisal engagement. Bakeng sa moralo oa phuputso (qualitative study), ho sebelisitsoe WordSmith Tools bakeng sa ho sebelisa mehloli, ntlhakemo le matšoao a ho kenyeletsa babali lintlheng tse tharo tse boletsoeng le mafapheng a mabeli. Moralo oa phuputso (qualitative study) o ne o kenyeletsa botoloki ba karolo ea liphetho ho ipapisitsoe le tsela eo matšoao a metadiscourse a sebetsang ka teng ho kenyeletsoa le likarolo tsa dialogic engagement. Ho fumana lintlha tse feletseng khethong ea baithuti ha ba sebelisa mokhoa ona oa ho ngola, sehlotšoana sa baithuti ba MA, PhD le batataisi ba ile ba botsoa lipotso.

Liphetho tsa mafapha a litsebo tse fapaneng li bontšitse hore baithuti ba MA le PhD ba DS ba sebelisitse mehloli e sa amaneng haholo le litaba, ba mpa ba e hapeletse hoba e e-na le ho amanang le seo ho buoang ka sona ho feta baithuti ba EL, athe manollo ea mefuta ea lingoloa tse fapaneng e bontšitse hore baithuti ba MA ba sebelisitse mehloli e bohlokoa haholo. Ka ho khetholoha ka hara sehlopha sa EL tšebeliso ea mehloli e seng bohlokoa haholo e phahama ho latela boemo ba sengoloa. Lipatlisiso li lebisetse tšitšinyong ea mefuta ea mehloli e bitsoang 'chain' le 'Split' 'me kamano ea eona le boleng ba ho ngola e etsoe hloko. Lipapiso tse hlahisitsoeng ke Stance marker li sibolotse hore baithuti ba MA ba tlaleha litaba ka mokhoa oa ho sebelisa mantsoe a sa ba kenyeletseng maikutlong kapa tlhahisong ea sengoli (ke hore ha ba lumellane le sengoli ka ho phethahala). Hape mantsoe ana a lula a fokotseha ho latela mofuta oa sengoloa kahoo, baithuti ba MA ba bonahala ba tlaleha litaba ka tsela e hlokang boitšepo ho feta ba PhD. Lipapiso tsa mefuta ea lingoloa tse fapaneng mmoho le maikutloa a mmali mafapheng ka bobeli li sibolotse hore lipampiri-phuputso li sebelisa mehloli ka mokhoa o nepahetseng ho feta baithuti ba MA le PhD. Mabaka a sena e ka tlisoa ke hore lipampiri-phuputso li ngolloa batho ba boemo bo tšoanang ka litsebo athe baithuti ba ngolla batataisi ba bona. Mofuta oa manollo o sebelisitsoeng boithutong bona hammoho le lintlha tse itseng tsa moralo oa phuputso li fana ka karoloana feela ea linnete tse bonoang lingoloeng tse amehang kahoo liphuputso tse ling li lokela ho etsoa ho ntšetsa taba ena pele.

*Mantsoa a bohlokoa*:

mohloli, ntlhakemo, tšekatšeko ea lintlha, tšekatšeko ea lintlha ea mmali, lingoloa tsa baithuti ba thuto e phahameng

# DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late parents, Julius and Krecencia Chihiya; and my late siblings, Vimbainashe, Gordon, Jordan and Cuthbert.

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# LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

| | |
|---|---|
| DS | Development Studies |
| DSD | Development Studies PhD |
| DSM | Development Studies MA |
| DSRA | Development Studies research article |
| DSS | Development Studies supervisor |
| EL | English & Linguistics |
| ELD | English & Linguistics PhD |
| ELM | English & Linguistics MA |
| ELRA | English & Linguistics research article |
| ELS | English & Linguistics supervisor |
| L2 | Second language |
| LL | Log Likelihood |
| MA | Master of Arts |
| MWU | Mann-Whitney U-test |
| NUL | National University of Lesotho |
| PhD | Doctor of Philosophy |
| RA | Research article |
| RSD | Relative standard deviation |
| RV | Reporting verb |
| WST | WordSmith Tools |

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# CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

## 1.0 Introduction

Previous research has shown that academic writing at postgraduate level is a considerable challenge for most students, and that this challenge is all the greater when students are L2 speakers of the language they study through (e.g. Bloch 2010; Chang & Schleppegrell 2011; Goodfellow 2004; Wu & Paltridge 2021). Postgraduate academic writers need to deploy rhetorical strategies appropriately in their disciplines to produce effective arguments (Hewings, Lillis & Vladimirou 2010; Hyland 1999; Manan & Noor 2014) and many scholars suggest that they would benefit from more explicit instruction on how to use rhetorical resources such as citations and reporting verbs (RVs) to write persuasively (Dong 1996; Loan & Pramoolsook 2015; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad 2011; Petrić 2007). To me, these observations indicated a need to investigate postgraduate academic writing practices at the National University of Lesotho (NUL), where no such research has been conducted and where English is used in an L2 context.

From my personal experience as an expatriate lecturer in the Department of English at NUL, it has been clear that students are struggling with academic writing (see also Ekanjume-Ilongo 2015). The language situation of Lesotho described under background and problem statement (§1.2) partly explains why these L2 writers face challenges with academic language. Because of the language situation, learners in the country have relatively limited exposure to English and this negatively impacts their competence and confidence in using the language. At postgraduate level, apart from proficiency issues, students could also be expected to struggle to meet new writing demands imposed by the academic genre, such as citation and taking a stance (Lee & Deakin 2016; Petrić 2007, 2012). My concern in this study is not with the general writing proficiency displayed in NUL MA and PhD texts partly because most had undergone some professional editing. I focus instead on interactional metadiscourse devices that are key to effective argumentation but have been found to be difficult for students, particularly L2 ones (Hu & Cao 2011; Wu & Paltridge 2021).

The overall aim of my study is, then, to explore the extent to which writers of MA, PhD and research article (RA) genres in the Development Studies (DS) and English and Linguistics (EL) disciplines differ in the use of citation, writer stance and reader engagement resources. As explained later (§ 1.1.2 and § 1.5.1), I apply a modified conception of Hyland's (2005a) term 'interactional metadiscourse' to cover these three key types of linguistic resources.

Many studies of academic writing have been done on citations, RVs and other aspects of metadiscourse. For instance, Thompson and Ye (1991), Thomas and Hawes (1994), and Thompson and Tribble (2001) looked at citations and RVs in academic papers. Hyland researched metadiscourse in various academic writing contexts (e.g. Hyland 1998a, 1998b, 2000, 2002a,

2005a, 2010). However, these studies concentrated more on published articles, with only two of those mentioned (Thompson & Tribble 2001; Hyland 2010) dealing with postgraduate writing. The tendency of previous research to focus more on RAs has also been observed by other scholars such as Hu and Cao (2011) and Yoon and Römer (2020).

One particular study that played a role in prompting mine was Sefako-Letsoela (2012), which compared the use of metadiscourse by senior undergraduate students in various departments at NUL. The study revealed that the students used more interactive metadiscourse resources than interactional ones and rarely expressed stance towards propositions. When suggesting further research, the writer indicated that one interesting area would be metadiscourse in NUL postgraduate writing, and the implication that interactional metadiscourse might be more challenging for the studied undergraduates helped confirm my view that this area would be more worth researching.

This chapter begins with an overview of the key concepts: 'citation', 'stance' and 'engagement'. It then introduces the research problem and objectives of the study and briefly explains the methodology and the analytical framework that was adopted for the study. The study's significance and limitations are then discussed before an outline of the organisation of the thesis is provided.

## 1.1 Citation, stance and engagement

Citation, stance and engagement are three important and related concepts that are used in academic writing research and they are at the centre of this study's investigation. Broadly speaking, 'citation' is the practice in academic writing of integrating into one's writing information from outside sources. 'Stance' refers to writers' evaluation of the cited information, or their attitude towards both the cited proposition and targeted audience. 'Engagement' is defined from two perspectives. The first perspective is metadiscoursal; it narrowly focuses on linguistic resources used by writers to directly involve readers as participants in their arguments, such as reader pronouns and directives. The second perspective is Appraisal; it is broad and overlaps with stance. It includes different linguistic resources used by writers to dialogically engage readers in ways that tend either to accommodate alternative views or to shut them out. This perspective looks at how linguistic choices such as citation forms used by writers either increase or reduce space for dialogue with readers. In the context of this study, 'author' refers to the reported person and 'writer' refers to the reporting person (Thompson & Ye 1991). Each of the key concepts (citation, stance and engagement) is discussed in more detail in the following sections. The concepts are also discussed in depth in Chapter 2 (§ 2.1, § 2.3 and § 2.4).

### 1.1.1 Citation

Researchers have used different terms to refer to the practice of citing sources in one's writing, including, for example, 'attribution' (Hyland 1999); 'reporting' (Thompson & Ye 1991); 'referencing' (Salager-Meyer 1999) and 'source use' (Mori 2017). The term 'citation' in this study will be used as an overall term for quoting and reporting, with the understanding that 'quoting' refers to direct quotations and 'reporting' refers to paraphrases and summaries of the referenced information. 'Citation' thus refers to "formal and explicit reference to the previous works" (Benson, Gollin & Trappes-Lomax 2005, in Zhang 2008, 4) whereby the inclusion of the cited information is done in a conventional academic manner.

The study of citations started as far back as 1955 when Garfield initiated the idea of citation indexing. He judged the importance of cited work within a specific discipline on its frequency of use. Such an approach of merely counting citations as a way of rating publications overlooked important factors such as the functions of those citations. Later studies such as Moravcsik and Murugesan (1975) argued that Garfield's approach should have considered the fact that citation is done for different purposes, such as acknowledgement, persuasion and criticism, and that it cannot be concluded that the more the work is cited the greater its contribution in the field.

Swales (1990) carried forward citation study by suggesting two categories of citation forms, namely 'integral' and 'non-integral' citation. Integral citations are those where the name of the cited author occurs in the citing sentence, while non-integral forms refer to the author in brackets or by superscript numbers. Concerning these two ways of citing, Hyland (2000) comments that integral citations emphasise the cited author whereas non-integral citations emphasise the cited information. Swales' author integration categorisation has become prominent and many studies conducted after it, including mine, have applied it. But my study, in line with Hu and Wang (2014), adds a second dimension of textual integration, which looks at how the cited information is incorporated into a text.

RVs are one aspect of citation that has received much attention from researchers. Thompson and Ye (1991), for example, conducted a study identifying the kinds of verbs used in citations and came up with two broad RV categories: denotation and evaluative verbs. The denotation category was further subdivided into three groups: textual, mental and research verbs. For analysing the evaluation category, these authors considered three factors: author's stance, writer's stance and writer's interpretation. The study looked at evaluation portrayed in RVs used by both authors and writers. However, as explained in Chapter 2 (§ 2.1.4), Thompson and Ye's main distinction between writer and author stance as expressed through RVs is not clear and that seems to be why other researchers have not to my knowledge applied it in practice. My study also seeks to add knowledge about this important rhetorical device, partly by way of a reclassification of the main types of RVs.

Over the years, comparative studies emerged, such as Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011), which compared citation practices in RAs by advanced L2 writers and L2 novice writers from the same discipline of chemical engineering. It is this comparative approach to citation study that the present study adopts, looking at the frequency, evaluative potential and dialogic effects of different citation forms and RVs in the writing under study.

**1.1.2 Stance**

As indicated by Thompson and Ye's (1991) work in the previous section, when writers cite sources in their academic work, they explicitly or implicitly evaluate the information that they cite by using rhetorical devices such as RVs. Writers' evaluation reflects the attitudes they have towards the information they cite and even towards their readers, hence the relationship between citation and stance. Not only do writers express stance towards cited information, but also towards their own propositions, for example, to show certainty or uncertainty.

In my study, stance generally refers to writers' attitudes towards the presented information, both their propositions and the cited ones, as well as towards their audience. There has been an increase in the interest researchers have in how academic writers "incorporate into their texts their own personal feelings, attitudes, value judgements, or assessments" (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad and Finegan 1999, in Charles 2006a, 492). This phenomenon is referred to in different terms by different authors. While some authors use the term 'stance' (e.g. Hyland 2000, 2005, 2010), others use the term 'evaluation' to name the same phenomenon (e.g. Geng & Wharton 2016; Loi, Lim & Wharton 2016; Thetela 1997)

Hyland (2005b, 173) observes several changes in how academic writing has been viewed over the years. He says over the past decade or so, "academic writing has gradually lost its traditional tag as an objective, faceless and impersonal form of discourse and come to be seen as a persuasive endeavour involving interaction between writers and readers". He further comments that this view sees academics as using language to acknowledge, construct and negotiate social relations (Hyland, 2005b). This new dimension also portrays stance as an important feature of academic writing because stance is one way in which writers interact with the texts that they cite in their arguments and also with prospective readers of the arguments. Hyland (2010) further comments that stance is a way of evaluation used by writers of academic work to make personal meanings and achieve effective communication with their audience; hence it is a crucially important aspect of written academic discourse. He classifies stance under his 'interpersonal model' of metadiscourse. He describes the interpersonal model as "an umbrella term for the range of devices writers use to explicitly organize their texts, engage readers, and signal their attitudes to both their materials and their readers" (Hyland 2010, 126). Hyland (2005a, 2005b) conducted research on stance, the findings of which reflected the critical importance of distinguishing fact from opinion and the need for writers to present their claims with appropriate caution and regard to colleagues'

views. In this research, Hyland identified four interactional features of stance on which the present study focuses, namely 'hedges', 'boosters', 'attitude markers' and 'self-mention'. These are briefly defined in the next paragraphs.

Hyland (2005b, 179) defines 'hedges' as words that show the "writer's decision to withhold complete commitment to a proposition, allowing information to be presented as an opinion rather than accredited facts", for instance, *possible, may, perhaps.* 'Boosters', on the other hand, are words that permit writers to "express their certainty in what they say and to mark involvement with the topic and solidarity with their audience". Examples of such words are: *clearly, definitely* and *precisely*. 'Attitude markers' "indicate the writer's affective, rather than epistemic, attitude to propositions" (Hyland 2005b, 180). Such markers communicate feelings and attributes such as surprise, agreement, importance, and frustration rather than commitment. Attitude is implicitly expressed in a text by means such as subordination and punctuation, and it is most explicitly signalled by attitude verbs such as *agree, prefer*; sentence adverbs such as *unfortunately, hopefully*; and adjectives such as *appropriate, logical.* (Hyland 2005b). 'Self-mention' refers to "the use of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives to present propositional, affective and interpersonal information", for example, *I, we* (Hyland 2005b, 180).

### 1.1.3 Engagement

The overall meaning of the term 'engagement' in my study is the practice by writers of interacting with other texts and with readers in the process of constructing arguments. The concept of engagement will be looked at from two different but compatible perspectives, namely 'reader engagement' and 'dialogic engagement'. These perspectives are briefly discussed in the next two sections.

### 1.1.3.1 Reader engagement

I use the term 'reader engagement' to refer to Hyland's (2005a, 2005b) concept of including readers in argument construction to distinguish it from Martin and White's (2005) 'dialogic engagement', a broader concept of engagement discussed in the next section. Hyland's reader engagement narrowly focuses on rhetorical strategies employed to involve the reader. Hyland (2009) defines engagement as the ways used by writers to involve readers in their arguments in a manner that persuades them to agree with the writer's views. According to Hyland, good academic writers involve readers in their arguments to meet the readers' expectations of inclusion and solidarity (Hyland 2009). This is achieved by using reader engagement markers. Reader engagement markers are expressions that writers use to explicitly address the readers. These markers include 'reader pronouns', 'personal asides', 'appeals to shared knowledge', 'directives' and 'questions' (Hyland 2001b; 2005a; 2005b; 2008; 2009). The five engagement markers listed are briefly defined in the next paragraph.

'Reader pronouns' such as *you, your* and *us* are meant to seek agreement with readers and are probably the most direct way of bringing readers into an argument. 'Personal asides' are a reader-oriented strategy that enables writers to directly converse with readers by briefly interrupting the argument to comment on what the writer has just said (Hyland 2005b). 'Appeals to shared knowledge' such as *obviously* and *naturally* seek to position readers within "apparently naturalised boundaries of disciplinary understandings" (Hyland 2005b, 184). 'Directives' tell the reader to perform an action or to see things in a way determined by the writer, hence somehow managing the reader. They are usually marked by imperatives such as *consider*, *note,* and *imagine*; by modals of obligation directed to readers such as *must, should,* and *ought*; and by predicative adjectives "expressing the writer's judgement of necessity/importance (*It is important to understand…*)" (Hyland 2005b, 184). Lastly, questions are another strategy to involve the reader in the writer's argument, inviting engagement, encouraging curiosity and persuading readers to take the writer's viewpoint (Hyland 2008). 'Questions' construct involvement by arousing interest and encouraging the reader "to explore an unresolved issue with the writer as an equal, sharing his or her curiosity and following where the argument leads" (Hyland 2005b, 185).

### 1.1.3.2 Dialogic engagement

Unlike Hyland's narrowly focused reader engagement, dialogic engagement involves diverse ways of engaging texts and readers in academic arguments, expressing the writer's attitude towards propositions. In this case, engagement resources are dialogic; writers use them to either 'expand' or 'contract' the dialogic space with readers. This perspective is facilitated by the engagement framework that is briefly explained below.

The Engagement subsystem of Appraisal theory proposes two basic options available to the writer. The first is monoglossia, where no dialogic space is provided but bald statements are made with no indication by the writer of any kind of allowance being made for alternative viewpoints or voices with regard to what is expressed. The second option, more relevant to quoting and attributing in academic writing, is heteroglossia, where the writer's voice is more clearly involved in signalling degrees of expansion or of contraction of dialogic space. Thus, the heteroglossic options entail that, when using rhetorical resources such as citations, stance markers and reader engagement, writers can either take stance positions that accommodate alternative viewpoints or shut them out (Martin and Rose 2003; Martin and White 2005).

It is important to note that Martin and White's engagement resources and Hyland's stance resources do overlap, but they are complementary. Hyland's reader engagement provides a relatively clear set of formal features that can more easily be quantified, and then the potential dialogic effects of these features can be considered, together with those of citation and stance features, when assessing more qualitatively patterns of dialogic engagement. Dealing with the

concept of 'engagement' from these two perspectives distinguishes my work from other studies (e.g. Pascual & Unger 2010; Ramoroka 2017) where scholars opt for one perspective or the other.

## 1.2 Background and problem statement

Despite the significant work that has been done so far on citation, there is still a need to add knowledge to this area, especially in connection with the evaluative potential and dialogic effects of citation forms. Concerning this matter, Peng (2019) noted that citation practices have been widely researched but their association with the construction of authorial voice has been largely underexplored. Similarly, taking a stance and engaging readers need to be researched more since they have also proved difficult for student writers, as elaborated in the next paragraphs.

As noted earlier, postgraduate student writers in general, and L2 student writers in particular, find interactional metadiscourse difficult (e.g. Goodier 2008; Hyland & Tse 2004; Lee 2009; Wu & Paltridge 2021). What makes interactional metadiscourse difficult is that it entails projecting one's voice into an argument to evaluate propositions and to position oneself in an ongoing debate as a member of the disciplinary community. For L2 writers, this discursive practice is further complicated by the fact that they have to use a language in which they sometimes find it difficult to express their ideas. Interactional metadiscourse is key to achieving postgraduate communicative goals. These goals are essentially to argue effectively and convincingly, and to do so progressively more like insiders in their discourse communities to convince their readership, and in particular their assessors. This means that they have to be familiar with the use of the linguistic resources appropriate to their disciplines. I therefore decided to compare postgraduate writing with RAs to shed more light on differences between the writing practices of both MA and PhD students and the professional writing in the RA genre. My case study, NUL, is situated in a country with a unique linguistic landscape, which is described in the next paragraph.

According to the Lesotho Language Policy, Lesotho is a bilingual nation with Sesotho as the first language and English as the second language, but the situation on the ground is that Lesotho is a multilingual nation with the following minority languages spoken in certain districts: isiZulu, isiXhosa and isiPhuthi (Mokhathi-Mbhele 2014). However, these minority languages are home languages that are not taught in schools. Rather, as stipulated in the Lesotho Curriculum and Assessment Policy (MoET 2009), Sesotho is the medium of instruction during the first three grades of primary school and English becomes the medium of instruction from the fourth grade up to secondary school and tertiary level. Speakers of the minority languages also speak Sesotho, meaning that almost every Lesotho national speaks this majority language. Although English is an official language, in practice, apart from being the language of instruction in educational institutions, the use of English is very limited. For example, the only national television channel (Lesotho TV) mainly broadcasts in Sesotho and has only one English news bulletin at 9:30 pm, where news from districts is reported in Sesotho. Also, communication with the public, such as

public notices, is mostly done in Sesotho, and English is hardly used in social contexts. Therefore, it can be argued that English cannot be regarded as a second language per se in Lesotho, especially when compared to other countries in Southern Africa such as South Africa and Zimbabwe, where English is used more significantly as a second language and also as a lingua franca. Kachru (1985) proposed a Three-circle Model of English Language with an Inner Circle, Outer Circle and Expanding Circle to signify "the type of spread, the pattern of acquisition, and the functional domains in which English language is used across cultures and languages" (Kachru 1985, 12). Though Lesotho as a former British colony would be expected to fall under the Outer Circle, where English is used as a second language, it is somewhere on the edge of that circle, inclined towards the Expanding Circle, where English is used as a foreign language.

A number of studies have taken a comparative approach in terms of writers' languages, genres and disciplines. For example, Goodier (2008) examined how purpose and identity are realised in the written case reports of health science undergraduate students in comparison with those of professional writers in the same field. Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) compared citation practices of L2 expert writers with L2 novice writers from the same discipline of chemical engineering. In the cross-linguistic dimension, Hu and Wang (2014) compared citation practices in RAs from Applied Linguistics and Medicine disciplines written in English and Chinese. While the first two studies compared undergraduate writing with professional writing using the same language, English, the third study compared RAs from different disciplines and written in different languages. It can be observed that even among comparative studies there is relatively less research on postgraduate writing, at least compared to that on undergraduate and published works. Also, most studies focused on comparing groups from one or two genres or disciplines.

It made sense for my study, on the other hand, to involve a three-genre, two-discipline comparison of citation, stance and engagement in 'junior' and 'senior' postgraduate and RA texts, particularly in order to understand better how writing practices in each of the six core genre-plus-discipline groups compared with the others. Such a study is relevant, given that as demonstrated by previous research, it is clear that effective use of citation, stance and engagement resources is very important, yet students, especially L2 ones, find them difficult. With regard to RVs, for example, Bloch (2010, 221) observes that appropriate stance taking can be a challenge especially for non-native English speakers, "who often find it difficult to choose among the wide variety of reporting verbs to express their attitudes towards the claims".

The need to master citing practices is even more critical for postgraduate students, who should be socialised into their new discourse communities through their dissertation and thesis writing (Dong 1996). Also, recent developments reveal that expectations for academic writing and publication have intensified in academia to the extent that, in some institutions, doctoral students are advised to publish even before they graduate (Jalongo, Boyer and Ebbeck 2013). In fact, many South

African universities have made it mandatory in disciplines such as natural and social sciences for PhD students to publish a certain number of papers as part of the submission requirements.

To address the issues discussed above, this study investigates the extent to which citation, stance taking and reader engagement practices vary in postgraduate and research article writings in DS and EL disciplines. And it also addresses some issues of authorial voice by way of a framework that integrates aspects of interactional metadiscourse and dialogic engagement. Before moving to the next section, let me point out that although MA dissertations, PhD theses and research articles are subgenres of academic writing, I will use the term 'genre' from now onwards to refer to them in this study for convenience.

## 1.3 Research questions

As stated previously, the present study aims to compare the use of interactional metadiscourse resources in postgraduate and research article writing of DS and EL humanities disciplines. To achieve this, the research addresses the following questions:

1. To what extent do writers in the MA dissertation, PhD thesis and research article (RA) genres differ in their use of interactional metadiscourse resources in their texts?

    a. Are the citation forms used differently?
    b. Are the reporting verbs and other stance markers used differently?
    c. Are the reader engagement markers used differently?

2. To what extent do writers in the Development Studies (DS) and English and Linguistics (EL) disciplines differ in their use of interactional metadiscourse resources?

    a. Are the citation forms used differently?
    b. Are the reporting verbs and other stance markers used differently?
    c. Are the reader engagement markers used differently?

3. How do writers of MA dissertations, PhD theses and research articles (RAs) in the disciplines of Development Studies (DS) and English and Linguistics (EL) use interactional metadiscourse resources to achieve their communicative goals?

    a. What rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects do the citation forms associate with?
    b. What rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects do the reporting verbs and other stance markers associate with?
    c. What rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects do the reader engagement markers associate with?

Questions 1 and 2 solicit quantitative information which enables comparison of linguistic forms (citation, stance and engagement markers) used in the three genres and two disciplines. Question 3 extends the study's enquiry to rhetorical functions and investigating the potential dialogic effects of the writing practices under study and how the writers used them to argue effectively. Patterns that emerged clearly in the process of answering questions 1 and 2 help to focus the more qualitative enquiry with regard to question 3. Let me clarify here that in the more quantitative part of the study 'use' is essentially concerned with the density of occurrence of the relevant features, while in the more qualitative part 'use' is more about interpreting particular quantitative findings in terms of how they throw light on writers' use of language to achieve their communicative goals.

## 1.4 Research objectives

Comparing the three corpora, the following objectives are pursued to address the above stated research questions:

1. To provide an appropriate analytical framework to enable the other objectives that follow;
2. To classify, identify and quantify citation forms, stance markers and reader engagement markers used in MA dissertations, PhD theses and research articles;
3. To investigate how writers of MA dissertations, PhD theses and research articles differ in their use of citation, stance and engagement in their texts;
4. To investigate disciplinary differences in the use of the different interactional metadiscourse markers in the three genres from Development Studies and English and Linguistics;
5. To investigate the rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects of citation forms, stance markers and reader engagement markers used in MA dissertations, PhD theses and research articles in Development Studies and English and Linguistics disciplines.

## 1.5 Methodology

This section briefly discusses how the research was conducted to address the research questions listed in section 1.3. It briefly explains how the analytical framework was developed to analyse data and then discusses the research design of the study.

### 1.5.1 Analytical framework

For this study, three frameworks are adapted and combined to investigate citation, stance and engagement in postgraduate dissertations and theses and in research articles. Firstly, Hu and Wang's (2014) two-dimensional categorisation of author integration and textual integration is used to classify and quantify citations used in the study corpus. Secondly, Hyland's (2005a) interactional metadiscourse framework is used to classify and quantify stance markers and reader

engagement markers. Thirdly, relevant Engagement resources from the Appraisal system in systemic functional grammar (Martin and White 2005) are used to qualitatively analyse the interactional metadiscourse markers that were identified when answering questions 1 and 2. In response to question 3, the markers are analysed in terms of their functions and possible dialogic effects, namely the extent to which they expand or contract dialogic space. In the process, appropriateness of use is also looked at. The three frameworks are complementary, with the first two facilitating quantitative analysis and the third qualitative analysis. They are briefly introduced here, and they are integrated as explained in chapter 3 (§ 3.4) to produce a framework suitable for the study.

With regard to citation, the integral versus non-integral citation distinction that was adopted by Hu and Wang (2014) from Swales (1990) is based on the cited author's position in the citing sentence as explained earlier (§ 1.1.1). Hu and Wang combined this author integration dimension with textual integration which concerns how the reported proposition is included in the reporting sentence. This dimension has three groups, namely 'assimilation', 'insertion' and 'insert + assimilation'. While assimilation paraphrases the reported proposition, insertion is quoting verbatim and insert + assimilation combines a paraphrase and a direct quote.

With regard to stance, Hyland's (2005a) interactional resources framework has been discussed above (§ 1.1.2), and here further background is provided to the interpersonal model as a whole. This implies discussing both the interactive and interactional resources although the latter forms the framework for this study. Hyland's (2005a) model gives the two dimensions of interpersonal metadiscourse: the *interactive* and the *interactional*, terms adopted from Thompson (2001). According to Hyland (2010, 128), "Interactive resources are concerned with ways of organising discourse to anticipate readers' knowledge and reflect the writer's assessment of what needs to be made explicit to constrain and guide what can be recovered from the text". In simpler terms, these resources help with the organisation of material in the text. Interactive resources include transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses. Hyland (2010, 128) defines these resources as follows: while transitions link or connect main clauses with words such as *in addition*, frame markers refer to "discourse sequences or text stages", for example, *finally*. Whereas endophoric markers refer readers to other parts of the text, for instance, *noted above*, evidentials refer to the source of cited material using words and phrases such as *according to*. Finally, code glosses help readers to "understand meanings of ideational material", for example, *namely*.

Hyland (2010, 128) goes on to explain interactional resources as the resources that involve the writer's attempt "to control the level of personality in a text and establish a suitable relationship to his or her data, arguments, and audience, marking the degree of intimacy, the expression of attitude, the communication of commitments, and the extent of reader involvement". This, in other words, means that interactional resources convey the writer's attitudes in the text. Since these

features have been discussed in section 1.1.2, they are briefly explained here. Hyland (2010, 129) summarises the features as follows: while hedges reduce the writer's commitment to a proposition, boosters show the writer's confidence and certainty in a proposition. Attitude markers express the writer's attitude toward a proposition, self-mentions explicitly refer to writers and engagement markers involve readers in an argument to build a relationship with them. The interactive and interactional resources are illustrated in the table below.

*Table 1.1: A model of metadiscourse resources (Adopted from Hyland 2010, 128-129)*

| CATEGORY | FUNCTION | EXAMPLES |
|---|---|---|
| **Interactive** | **Help to guide reader through text** | **Resources** |
| Transitions | express semantic relation between main clauses | *in addition / but / thus / and* |
| Frame markers | refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages | *finally / to conclude / my purpose is* |
| Endophoric markers | refer to information in other parts of the text | *noted above / see Fig / in section 2* |
| Evidentials | refer to source of information from other texts | *according to X / (Y, 1990) / Z states* |
| Code glosses | help readers grasp meanings of ideational material | *namely /e.g. / such as / in other words* |
| **Interactional** | **Involve the reader in the argument** | **Resources** |
| Hedges | withhold writer's full commitment to proposition | *might / perhaps / possible / about* |
| Boosters | emphasise force or writer's certainty in proposition | *in fact / definitely / it is clear that* |
| Attitude markers | express writer's attitude to proposition | *unfortunately / I agree / surprisingly* |
| Engagement markers | explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader | *consider / note that / you can see that* |
| Self-mentions | explicit reference to author(s) | *I / we / my / our* |

Although Hyland listed evidentials under interactive markers, I listed them under interactional resources (see Chapter 3, § 3.3) essentially because they are citations, which as such can be said to meet the writer's needs more than those of the reader. They enable writers to back up their arguments as well as to align with academic writing practices such as acknowledgement of sources to avoid plagiarism.

Hyland's (2005a) model of interpersonal discourse unites and integrates evaluation features that emerge from the study of academic writing. This model spells out 'hedges', 'boosters', 'attitude markers' and 'self-mentions' as resources of academic interaction that the writers use to communicate stance. These are the features that overtly express the stance communicated by

writers. In Hyland's (2005b) model, he separated engagement markers from stance markers, a move that makes the model still more appropriate for my study.

With regard to dialogic engagement, Martin and White (2005) take a dialogic perspective to texts and present engagement as one of the resources of dialogism. To these writers, engagement is concerned with the linguistic resources by which writers adopt a stance towards the proposition being referred to by a text and towards the targeted readership. This approach is specifically informed by the notions of dialogism and heteroglossia under which all verbal communication is "dialogic" in that whatever is spoken or written always indicate an assessment of what has been said or written (Martin & White 2005, 92). At the same time, it anticipates the responses of prospective readers or listeners. These authors are interested in the degree to which writers acknowledge the authors that they cite and how they engage them. At the same time, this dialogic perspective attends to the signals provided by writers as to how they expect their readers to respond to the propositions they advance.

Martin and White's framework put under 'Engagement' all the linguistic devices that provide the means for the writers to position their voice in relation to the other voices and alternative views understood as being in play in the current argument. The resources of engagement dialogic positioning include 'Disclaim', 'Proclaim', 'Entertain' and 'Attribute' as presented in Figure 1.1.

```
                                    ┌─  deny
                     ┌─ disclaim ──►│   no, didn't, never
                     │              │
                     │              └─  counter
                     │                  yet, although, amazingly, but etc
        contract ──►│
                     │              ┌─  concur
                     │              │   obviously, of course
                     └─ proclaim ──►│
                                    └─  endorse
                                        show, demonstrate
──►│
                     ┌─  entertain
                     │   perhaps, it's probable that, this may be, must,
                     │   it seems to me, apparently, expository questions, etc
        expand ──►│
                     │              ┌─  acknowledge
                     │              │   Halliday argues that, many Australia
                     │              │   believe that..it's said that, the report
                     │              │   states etc
                     └─ attribute ──►│
                                    └─  distance,
                                        Chomsky claimed to have shown that...etc
```

*Figure 1.1: Dialogic contraction and expansion (Martin & White 2005, 122)*

Martin and White (2005, 97) define the engagement resources as follows: 'Disclaim' happens when the writer disagrees with the cited propositions and this may happen as denial marked by negation words such as *don't*, for example, *You don't need to give up potatoes to lose weight*. 'Proclaim' happens when the writer projects a voice that rules out alternative positions. This is achieved by use of agreement words such as *obviously, of course*; and endorsing words such as *demonstrated* and *show*. 'Entertain' occurs when the writer's voice represents the reported position as one of a range of possible positions. In this case, the writer's position entertains dialogic alternatives through such phrases as *it seems, the evidence suggests, probably, in my view*. 'Attribute' occurs when the writer assigns the reported proposition to the cited author thereby entertaining dialogic alternatives. This is done by acknowledging the reported source, for example, *X said…, X believes…* or distancing oneself from it, for example, X *claims that…, it is rumoured that…*.

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The Engagement resources discussed above, and in my study particularly Attribute and its two categories, Acknowledge and Distance, provide a dialogic perspective that is appropriate for investigating evaluative language in academic writing (Geng & Wharton 2016). One advantage of this Appraisal approach is that "it is located at the discourse-semantic stratum of language" (Xie 2016, 3), a perspective which enables researchers to identify both implicit and explicit evaluative meanings throughout the text. This merit was earlier observed by Thompson and Ye (1991, 367) who noted that "evaluation is best seen as working at the discourse level of text rather than at the grammatical level of the clause". This dialogic perspective is therefore suitable for the qualitative analysis of my study where the focus is on how writers employed linguistic resources to engage readers in a manner that either expands or contracts dialogic space in their arguments.

Besides analysing citations, stance taking and reader engagement, this study looks at the various functions of citations as demonstrated in the writings of the three genres under study. For this analysis, 'background', 'acknowledgement', 'support' and 'critique' functions (Bloch and Chi 1995; Swales 1990) are used as the guiding framework.

According to Bloch and Chi (1995, 242), background references are not directly related to the argument the writer is making, including citations referring to methodology, definitions, explanations and historical references presented uncritically. Similarly, acknowledgement citation provides the source of information without evaluating the propositions. On the other hand, support and critique functions are evaluative. Support citations are directly related to supporting the argument the writer is making. Critique citations are citations which the writer disagrees with either partly or completely and citations that support points of the writer's disagreement. These functions are illustrated in Chapter 2 (§ 2.1.3) and Chapter 3 (§ 3.4).

### 1.5.2 Research design

Researchers generally agree that research design is the plan of a study that shows how the study is to be carried out (Du Plooy 2001; Imenda & Muyangwa 2006; Yin 2009). The present study adopts a mixed methods approach that combines quantitative and qualitative research methods. The basic principle of the mixed methods approach, according to Dörnyei (2007, 43), is that of helping to minimise "the inherent weaknesses of individual methods by offsetting them by the strength of another". In addition, this approach facilitates a multifaceted analysis of complex issues hence its importance to my investigation of the academic writing practices in the three genres from different perspectives.

My study is corpus-based; it analyses texts from three genres of academic writing, MA dissertations, PhD theses and RAs from Humanities disciplines, DS and EL. The study corpus comprises three subcorpora that are analysed separately to extract quantitative information to answer the research questions listed above (§1.3). On the one hand, Questions 1 and 2 require a

quantitative approach since they involve identifying and quantifying citations, stance and reader engagement markers for comparison. On the other hand, Question 3 requires a qualitative approach because it addresses aspects of the rhetorical strategies used by the studied writers. Specifically, the question enquires into the functions and dialogic effects of different linguistic resources under study. The related qualitative aspect of the study was the elicitation of information about the writing practices by way of semi-structured interviews that were conducted with a sample of students and their supervisors.

## 1.6 Significance of the study

This study contributes to the field of academic writing in general and more specifically to knowledge about differences in citing practices, stance taking and engagement in MA and PhD writing and in RAs. As advanced learners, MA and PhD candidates are required to meet their "academic community's expectations of standards and norms" (Mei 2007, 255) for them to produce effective arguments that achieve their communicative goals. This implies that they should be acquainted with their disciplinary writing practices. As noted above, contrary to this expectation, postgraduate students, especially L2 ones, have been found wanting in dissertation and thesis writing in general and particularly in taking a stance (Chang & Schleppegrell 2011; Loi, et al. 2016). The inclusion of RAs in the comparisons assists this study further in helping to identify some important features of academic writing that postgraduate students should master for them to become competent members of their disciplines and to be confident academics who can go on to publish in their respective fields. Nevertheless, it is acknowledged that the RAs involve some different genre dynamics to the postgraduate texts and cannot simply be regarded as role models for the students.

The addition to the above three-way cross-genre dimension of a two-way cross-disciplinary one involving fairly closely related human sciences disciplines enables the discovery of relatively subtle differences in the use of citation, stance and reader engagement in these disciplines at each of the three genre levels. The combination of these two dimensions in the same study is unusual in the related research literature on academic writing.

The study uses a relatively novel adapted analytical framework. It combines quantitative analysis of the metadiscoursal features of citation, stance and reader engagement with qualitative interpretation and illustration of what some of the quantitative results imply with regard to dialogic engagement, in the sense that this term is used in Appraisal research literature.

## 1.7 Limitations

This study has two main limitations. The first one, as explained in Chapter 3 (§ 3.5) is that it has a limited corpus due to scarcity of PhD theses at NUL during the time of data collection. This limited corpus has obvious negative implications on the representativeness of the PhD sample and it poses challenges in applying statistical significance tests that require a certain number of texts such as the Mann-Whitney U-test. The second limitation is that the use of combinations of author and textual integration was not counted and compared because such combinations are not part of my analytical framework. Trying to include this dimension would have resulted in a complex framework difficult to apply quantitatively. As a result, the combinations were only analysed qualitatively. These limitations are discussed in more detail in Chapter 6 (§ 6.4), which concludes the thesis.

## 1.8 Organisation of the thesis

This thesis is organised into six chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study; it defines key terms and explains the study background and statement of the problem. It also provides research questions and objectives, and briefly explains the study methodology. In addition, the chapter provides the study's significance and limitations before outlining the organisation of the thesis. Chapter 2 reviews literature on citation practices, expression of stance and engagement of readers in undergraduate writing, postgraduate dissertations and theses and RAs. Firstly, theoretical issues are covered under a review of literature on RVs, perspectives of citations, interactional resources, and dialogic engagement. Secondly, empirical studies that investigated interactional metadiscourse are reviewed, covering different genres of writers as well as comparisons of academic texts. Chapter 3 provides details of the research methodology. It explains the research design, analytical approaches and the integrated analytical framework developed for the study. The chapter also deliberates on data collection and data analysis issues. Chapter 4 is a detailed presentation and discussion of quantitative findings and so addresses research questions 1 and 2. Chapter 5 then presents qualitative findings, providing responses to question 3. Lastly, Chapter 6 reviews the findings, and discusses the contribution of the study, some pedagogical implications, limitations and suggestions for future research.

# CHAPTER 2: CITATION PRACTICES AND EXPRESSION OF STANCE AND ENGAGEMENT IN ACADEMIC WRITING

## 2.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a review of relevant literature on citation, stance, engagement and the related rhetorical features that are vital for academic writing and that are at the centre of this study. In essence, the review looks at theoretical and empirical aspects of citation, stance and engagement concepts. Firstly, 'citation' is defined and the following aspects are discussed: development of citation analysis, classification of citations, and RVs used in citations and their categories. Next, 'metadiscourse' is defined. Since stance and engagement are encompassed in metadiscourse, the discussion provides an overview of metadiscourse, explaining how the two-way categorisation of 'interactive' and 'interactional' metadiscourse resources developed. The discussion focuses more on interactional resources, as these resources have traditionally comprised stance and engagement. After that, 'stance' is defined and the interactional and Appraisal stance resources are discussed. Then, 'engagement' is defined, followed by a discussion of resources from both the reader engagement and dialogic engagement perspectives. Lastly, the chapter reviews literature on relevant empirical studies on citation, stance and engagement in undergraduate, postgraduate and research article writings.

## 2.1 Citation

In most of the literature, the terms, 'quoting', 'reporting' and 'citation' are often used interchangeably to refer to the same practice. Thomas and Hawes (1994, 129) exemplify such scholars, when they explain that "Reports, or citations, are the metalinguistic representation … of an idea from another source". However, one could distinguish between 'quoting', 'reporting' and 'citation' only for the sake of convenience. The term 'quoting' can be used to refer to direct quotations, while 'reporting' can be used to refer to references to sources, including summaries and paraphrases of the information presented. 'Citation' can be used as an umbrella term for quoting and reporting. I prefer to use the term 'citation' in this study since it covers both 'reporting' and 'quoting', and this, to an extent, promotes consistency. However, I will also use the other two terms whenever I find them more suitable.

### 2.1.1 Defining citation

Citation is the academic practice of referring to works of other authors for various reasons, such as to support one's point of view or to support a generally accepted viewpoint with which one happens to agree. Thomas and Hawes (1994, 129) define reporting in academic writing as "attribution of propositional content of a source outside the author of the article in the current

situation, and the marking of this by the presence of any of a number of signals of attribution". In the context of this definition 'reporting' is used to refer to both forms of citation: quoting and reporting. Thomas and Hawes go on to explain that the article where the reporting occurs is the current or primary situation while the source article from which the reported information comes is the previous or secondary situation. In another work, Tadros (1989, 20) defines reporting as "a category of prediction in which the writer detaches himself from propositions and 'reports' them instead of asserting them". By including both direct and indirect quotations as examples of the reporting category, Tadros implies that quoting is also included as part of reporting. In my view, Tadros' definition portrays the notion that writers always distance themselves from the reported propositions, which is not necessarily the case, given that writers sometimes agree and assimilate the reported ideas into their arguments. However, Tadros further comments that the practice of reporting predicts evaluation of the reported information, meaning that reporting gives writers room to evaluate the propositions they cite.

Scholars thus generally agree that citing is a fundamental device used in academic writing to perform certain functions such as acknowledging sources of information, supporting a point of view and giving background to one's study. Citation is also used to describe what has been done and what has not been done in a particular field of study to create a new research space, and to give statements greater authority (Gilbert 1977; Swales 1990). Besides giving information from sources, citing sources enables writers to show their membership in certain discourse communities (Bonzi & Snyder 1991; Swales 2014). Hyland (2000, 20 citing Gilbert 1977 and Dubois 1988) summarises the importance of citation as follows: "… it is central to the social context of persuasion as it can provide justification for arguments and demonstrate the novelty of one's position". It is important to note that although in most cases citation is done for positive reasons, it can also be done negatively as noted by Gilbert (1977, 116): "Hence, authors preparing papers will tend to cite the 'important and correct' papers, may cite 'erroneous' papers in order to challenge them …".

Another important point to note is that citations are governed by particular stylistic conventions. The specific linguistic format that citations have to follow is determined by the academic discipline. As pointed out by Benson, Gollin and Trappes-Lomax (2005, in Zhang 2008, 4), citations are done in a particular conventional way and take specific linguistic forms acceptable in various disciplines of study. What is said here points to the technical side of citation, which is a critical aspect that is normally determined by the citing style preferred by a discipline. Benson, Gollin and Trappes-Lomax add information about the source or type of propositional content reported that it can be a single study, groups of studies or the general trends of research. This provides more details of the different aspects that comprise citation practice, which has also been referred to as reporting or quoting.

Citation in academic writing can be and has been investigated from different perspectives, such as frequency (Garfield 1955); tense/voice (Chen 2009; Swales 1990); use of RVs (Bloch 2010; Liardét & Black 2019; Thomas & Hawes 1994; Thompson & Ye 1991); integral and non-integral structure of citation (Swales 1990; Thompson & Tribble 2001); functions of citation (Bloch & Chi 1995; Gilbert 1977; Okamura 2007; Swales 1990); and as dialogic engagement (Coffin 2009; Hu & Wang 2014). In addition, researchers have compared the citation practices of different groups, for example, contrastive analysis of citing practices between L1 and L2 writers (Lee 2009; Mori 2017; Okamura 2008); between novice and expert writers (Goodier 2008; Mansourizadeh and Ahmad 2011); between different languages (Hu & Wang 2014; Taki & Jafarpour 2012; Zhang 2008); and as a metadiscourse feature (Hyland 2005a, 2005b, 2010; Sefako-Letsoela 2012; Navidi and Ghafoori 2015). Cross-discipline and cross-genre studies have also been conducted (Hyland, 1999, 2000, 2005). My study adds to these perspectives by investigating and comparing how citation, stance and engagement are used by postgraduate student writers and published writers.

### 2.1.2 Development of citation analysis

This section discusses three major stages in the development of citation analysis, namely citation counting, content analysis and citation function. As reported by Okamura (2008), pioneer work in citation analysis was done by Garfield, an information scientist who initiated the idea of citation indexing (Garfield 1955). Garfield's work involved retrieving cited work in the body of literature of a particular discipline, and the frequency of a particular work would determine its importance in the discipline. This was "based on the assumption that the more citations a paper obtains, the greater impact it has on the academic community" (Okamura 2008, 62). However, this study has been criticised for overlooking the fact that citation is meant to perform different functions such as acknowledgement, persuasion and criticism. Therefore, it cannot be concluded that the more a work is cited the greater its contribution in the field.

In response to the registered concern discussed in the previous paragraph, Moravcsik and Murugesan (1975) conducted a study where, guided by four 'dichotomous' questions, they investigated citations in 30 articles written on theoretical high energy physics. Moravcsik and Murugesan (1975, 87) outlined the four parameters they investigated as follows:

a. Is the citation *conceptual* or *operational*? Does the citing paper refer to another in connection with a concept or theory, or is the reference made in connection with a technique or a method?
b. Is the citation *evolutionary* or *juxtapositional*? In other words, is the referring paper built on the foundations provided by the reference, or is it an alternative to it?
c. Is the citation *organic* or *perfunctory*? Is the cited work needed for the understanding of the citing paper or is it mainly an acknowledgement that some other work in the same general area has been performed?
d. Is the citation *confirmative* or *negational*? Is there any dispute about the correctness of the findings proposed in the cited paper?

This work was an attempt to develop a typology of content citations that would help to remove some of the ambiguities and inconsistencies that researchers had to contend with when counting citations. Moravcsik and Murugesan argued that the analysis of citations needs to examine the functions of the citations within a text, as sources are cited with different motives (as illustrated by the above listed parameters). One of their most interesting findings was that about 40 percent of citations were *perfunctory* (rather than *organic*), whereas 14 percent were *negational* (as opposed to *confirmative*). The fact that there were more *perfunctory* than *organic* citations led Moravcsik and Murugesan to conclude that using the number of citations is not an adequate measure of the quality of an article. These researchers' work is significant in that it ushered in the second stage of citation analysis, where studies were focusing on content analysis of cited work instead of frequency counts per cited work.

Similar studies were conducted after 1975, with some applying Moravcsik and Murugesan's categories. However, other researchers had to modify the classification scheme to suit their data or to simplify the classifications. One example of such studies is Swales (1986). He noted that 'content citation analysis' (CCA), which studies the citing behaviour of researchers and scholars in their construction of academic texts, developed in the late 1960s. He attributed the growing interest in CCA to the frequently expressed concern about the adequacy and reliability of simple and straightforward citation counting. Swales gave a representative sample of questions raised by critics that is summarised below.

How can citations that are negative or critical be accounted for? How can a situation where a significant work has been engrossed into the background knowledge of the subject and is no longer referenced be accounted for? Can a framework be devised to attribute morphological and syntactic development of names and adjectives derived from names of people who made discoveries? Since citations vary in length, is it possible to devise a way of weighting them depending with their length? Are self-citations given the same merit as citations of other scholars' work? (Swales 1986, 40).

These questions demonstrated weaknesses of the simple citation counts approach, and highlighted the need to develop a system, or more probably sets of systems, for categorising citations so that their quality and weight could be properly accounted for. Swales comments that no serious attempts were made to ratify the shortcomings of simple reference citation counts until 1975, when Moravcsik and Murugesan published their paper. To contribute towards addressing some of the burning issues, Swales (1986) characterised citations in Munby's *Communicative Syllabus Design*. He adapted Moravcsik and Murugesan's (1975) framework to analyse the citations, leaving out the *conceptual/operational* parameter which he considered unsuitable for non-sciences. Besides, Swales changed the *organic/perfunctory* dichotomy to *extensive/short* for ease of coding.

As shown by Swales, Moravcsik and Murugesan's work had its own limitations despite its significant contribution towards the development of citation analysis study. For example, Swales made adjustments described in the previous paragraph to make Moravcsik and Murugesan's framework suit his work because it is not feasible to apply the same categories across the disciplines. On another note, Swales observes that, by the time of his research, most of the research in citation analysis had been conducted by information science researchers, whilst applied linguists had not done much, and that researchers from both fields were unaware of their related studies. White (2004) is of the same opinion and suggests that there is a need to harmonise research in the two fields.

Since Swales (1986), a significant amount of work has been done on citation and reporting in academic writing, especially in advanced writing such as journal articles. Some studies conducted after Swales (1986) tried to address some of the questions raised. One example is Bonzi and Snyder (1991), who compared motives behind self-citation and citation to others. Other research has been conducted mostly on material written in English, both by native writers and second language writers. For example, Swales (1990) suggests two categories of citation forms, namely 'integral' and 'non-integral' citation. Integral citations are those where the name of the cited author occurs in the citing sentence, while non-integral forms refer to the author in parenthesis or by superscript numbers (Swales 1990, 148). Other examples of such studies are Thompson and Ye (1991) and Thomas and Hawes (1994), who identified the kinds of verbs used in research articles' citations. While the former did their study as a basis for developing teaching materials for L2 students, the latter described reporting verbs used in psychosomatic medicine citations and their role in the discourse.

Although some researchers pursued the content analysis approach introduced by Moravcsik and Murugesan (1975), others then focused more on citer motivation or citation functions, which had been introduced earlier by Gilbert's (1977) study. Gilbert argued that writers cite to persuade readers not simply to acknowledge previous work. More studies on citer motivation were conducted after Gilbert's, for example, Swales (1990), Bloch and Chi (1995) and Okamura (2007; 2008). These studies will be discussed in detail under classification of citations (§ 2.1.3). While the above cited studies contributed significantly to the study of citations in research articles, they focused on specific portions of the research papers, such as the introduction. The current study considers complete research articles, and compares such citation practices with those in MA dissertations and PhD theses.

Scholars have also developed an interest in comparing citation practices from different perspectives. Relevant studies are summarised here, but for most of them, more details are provided later (§ 2.5). Bonzi and Snyder (1991) compared motivations behind self-citation and citation of others because they felt at that time no investigation had been directed to this area. These researchers interviewed 51 authors at Syracuse University to find out why they chose to cite

both themselves and other authors. Their results showed that there was not much difference between reasons why authors cite themselves and why they cite others. Only three reasons marked the difference: 'establishing the writer's authority in the field' and 'building on earlier work' had more counts on self-citation whereas 'demonstrating knowledge of important work in the field' was assigned more to citing others. Bonzi and Snyder comment that there seem to be sound intellectual reasons behind self-citing and that this practice does not automatically reflect self-glory.

Some studies have compared citation practices in English and other languages such as Malay (e.g. Loi et al. 2016), Persian (e.g. Taki & Jafarpour 2012) and Chinese (e.g. Xinghua & Thompson 2009; Zhang 2008; Hu & Wang 2014). For instance, Loi et al. (2016) embarked on a comparative study of conclusion sections of English and Malay research articles using an integrated framework of genre analysis and the systemic functional system of Appraisal. They applied the whole theory: 'Attitude', 'Graduation' and 'Engagement'. The overall finding was that English conclusions had slightly more engagement devices than Malay ones.

There are also studies comparing L1 and L2 citation practices. For example, Okamura (2008) conducted a comparative study investigating the use of citation forms in scientific research articles written by writers in L1 and L2 contexts. One of the main research findings agrees with Hyland's (1999) observation in that writers in the hard sciences in both L1 and L2 contexts employed a smaller number of integral than non-integral citations. Okamura concluded that in scientific disciplines writers in the L1 context seem to be more conscious of what to cite in integral citation, and where to cite them to strengthen their arguments, while avoiding over-reliance on the subject position in their citations. A few fairly recent studies have looked at dialogism in citation forms – these studies, especially with regard to their classification of citations, are discussed in the next section.

### 2.1.3 Classification of citations

In this section, I discuss the classification of citations. I will first discuss the more formal categories, including author integration (initiated by Swales (1990)) and textual integration (initiated by Coffin (2009)) and will then move on to more functional categories such as Bloch and Chi's (1995) and Gilbert' (1977) categories. Researchers in this area have come up with classifications of varying degrees of difference because of their different fields of study. Nevertheless, the various classification schemes overlap to some extent. Concerning this matter, White (2004, 100) comments that "although each scheme has its unique nuances, there is a great deal of commonality underlying their different categories". There appear to be fewer frameworks for formal categories than for functional categories. Most researchers after Swales, except Coffin (2009) and Manan and Noor (2015) (who added new dimensions discussed in this section), preferred to keep to Swales' binary classification rather than proposing new ones.

**2.1.3.1 Formal categories of citation**

As mentioned in the previous section, Swales (1990) introduced the two categories of 'integral' and 'non-integral' citation. Integral citation happens when the name of the cited author forms part of the reporting sentence while non-integral citation is when the author's name is bracketed. Using Swales' integral and non-integral categorisation, Thompson and Tribble (2001) analysed the functions of citations in Agriculture doctoral theses, and based on that analysis further developed four subtypes of non-integral citation, namely source, origin, reference and identification.

'Source' is used to attribute a research finding, information or idea to an author with the functions of providing evidence for a proposition and showing where the idea comes from. For example, *Citation is central… because it can provide justification for arguments (Gilbert, 1976)*. 'Origin' is used to "indicate the originator of a concept or product". For example, *The software package used was Wordsmith Tools (Scott, 1996)*. This example indicates the creator of the Wordsmith Tools programme. 'Reference' is used to introduce sources for further information; this type of citation is usually signalled by the inclusion of the directive 'see' as in the following example: *DFID has changed its policy recently with regard to ELT (see DFID, 1998)*. 'Identification' is used to identify the actor or the agent in the cited sentence. For instance, *A simulation model has therefore been developed to incorporate all the important features in the population dynamics (Potts, 1980)*. (All examples in this paragraph are taken from Thompson and Tribble 2001, 96). I foresee one possible problem with Thompson and Tribble's subtypes, in that it is difficult to distinguish the functions of source and identification, a fact that signals possible application problems. This problem could be a result of vague terms ('source' and 'identification') used by the authors and their definitions.

Using syntactic criteria, Thompson and Tribble (2001, 97) also divided integral citation into three subtypes. The first subtype is 'verb-controlling' where citation includes a lexical verb that might be active or passive. For example, *Davis and Olson (1985) define a management information system more precisely as*... The second sub-type is 'naming' where citation is used as a noun phrase or part of a noun phrase, for instance *Typical price elasticities of demand for poultry products in Canada, Germany and the UK are shown in Harling and Thompson (1983)*. Thirdly, in the subtype called 'non-citation' there is a reference to another source but the author's name is given without a publication date. It is most commonly used when the reference has been supplied earlier in the text and the writer does not want to repeat it. For example, *The "classical" form of the disease, described by Marek, causes significant mortality losses*. (All examples in this paragraph are taken from Thompson and Tribble 2001, 97-98). These three subtypes seem to be clearly distinguishable and therefore may be more easily applied compared to the non-integral subtypes.

On the use of integral and non-integral citation, Hyland (2000, 22) comments that "the use of one form rather than the other appears to reflect a decision to give greater emphasis to either the

reported author or the reported message". This means that when integral citation is used, the writer will be giving prominence to the reported author, whose name may be the reporting sentence subject, but when non-integral citation is used, prominence will be given to the reported message. In the context of my study, it will be important to determine whether students are aware of this distinction when they choose which form of citation to use. The reason why this is important is that student writers need to understand that the choice between an integral or non-integral citation is not random, and that each of these forms serves a particular function. Determining students' awareness of this key distinction will inform the recommendations of the present study, particularly as it relates to the teaching of academic writing (and to the teaching of citation specifically) at postgraduate level.

The use of integral citations allows writers to show their stance and make evaluations of the cited propositions through RVs (Agbaglo 2017; Liardét & Black 2019). On the other hand, non-integral citations help to avoid interrupting the flow of reporting sentences by foregrounding the reported propositions. I analyse both integral and non-integral citations because my study aims at examining all citations to understand their forms, functions and dialogic effects.

As indicated at the beginning of this section, Coffin (2009) added a new dimension to citation categorisation. She drew her analytical framework from the Engagement resources of the Appraisal system, particularly the Attribute resources (Martin & White 2005). Coffin (2009) analysed citation practices in two chapters of one film studies thesis to identify the dialogic functions and effects of different citation forms. She argues that the Appraisal framework "provides a dialogic perspective on the linguistic options for referencing academic sources" (Coffin 2009, 163). The following three textual integration forms were part of the analytical framework used to analyse citations: 'insertion' (a direct quotation); 'assimilation' (an integration of cited propositions into the writer's work through paraphrasing or summarising); and 'insert + assimilation' (a combination of direct quotations and paraphrases in the same reporting statement) (Coffin 2009, 173). Coffin's study revealed that the extent to which cited propositions are integrated into the text, whether they are directly quoted or they are paraphrased, can have a dialogic effect on the message conveyed. For instance, paraphrased information presented in a non-integral form implies that the writer takes the information as correct, and direct quotations presented in an integral form implies that the writer opens the proposition for debate by assigning it to one particular author.

Manan and Noor (2015) also added a new dimension to citation categorisation. The researchers used Thompson and Tribble's (2001) typology of 'verb controlling', 'naming' and 'non-citation' to analyse integral citations in literature review sections of six MA dissertations of English Language Studies, but they found two groups of citation that could not fit into Thompson and Tribble's categories. They then proposed two new classes of citations, namely 'double citation' and 'combination citation'. The concept of combination citation is of particular interest to the

present study. According to Manan and Noor, combination citation is "the integral and non-integral citations which are combined in a sentence" (Manan & Noor 2015, 243). The authors provided only one example of combination citation (cited below), which however, does not completely tally with my concept of a 'combination or split' that presents one citation in two parts as explained in the next paragraph.

*As in Moran's work on language and culture, there are few attempts by Kramsch (1989), Fantini (1995), Agar (1994) and Byram and Morgan (1993) to merge the term language and culture such as lingua culture (Agar, 1994 in Moran, 2001: 35), and language-and culture (Byram and Morgan 1993-35).*

The source that appears at the beginning of the sentence, Moran (presumably discussed earlier), is being compared with the rest of the sources that are presented in integral and non-integral forms. In view of this, Manan and Noor's (2015) concept of 'combination' seems to be based on the fact that there is a mixture of integral and non-integral citations in the same sentence. In my study, the idea of 'combination citation' is adapted to what I call 'split citation', which refers more specifically to combinations of integral and non-integral citation that appear not only in the same sentence but also refer to the same author, with an integral part at the beginning of the reporting sentence and a non-integral part at the end. As argued in Chapter 5 (§ 5.1.1), identifying this particular class of citation is important because of the role it can play in improving the flow of information in the writer's text.

## 2.1.3.2 Functional categories of citation

This section focuses on the functional categories of citations, also referred to as citer motivations (Brooks 1986; Okamura 2008; White 2004). The section first presents a brief history of citer motivation studies. This is followed by a detailed account of the works that provide the analytical framework for citation functions in the present study. Citations are generally categorised according to their functions and most categories are named after the functions. Garfield (1996, 451), after experimenting to answer the question "When should we cite?" commented: "The issue of 'when to cite' is closely related to questions about the 'why of citation'". He listed 15 reasons for citations that he also referred to as categories of citation. This shows that for some there is a very thin line between categories and functions.

Citation functions relate, then, to the reasons for which citations are used. Writers mainly cite sources because they are relevant to their work, but more specific reasons can be deduced from interviews with writers and texts (White 2004). In his research, White (2004, 89) reviews contributions from the 1970s to the present in three main areas of research, namely citation classification, content analysis and citer motivation. He notes that the oldest classification scheme by Garfield (1965) listed citer motivations such as 'giving credit for related work' which were inferred from citation contexts. The second oldest list of reasons for citing (Hodges 1972) was

based on interviews with citers. Hodges came up with a scheme that had categories such as 'evidential' and 'corroborative'. These early studies on citer motivations triggered a lot more research that has continued until today. In his conclusion, White (2004, 112) recommends that citation be treated as "a complex communicative process with syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic variables" to increase the theoretical scope of the subject. My research is in line with this recommendation, studying some syntactic, semantic and pragmatic aspects of citations by both inferring from citation contexts and conducting interviews.

Citation functions have been approached in terms of an array of frameworks by different scholars and, based on some of these frameworks, I developed my framework. Bloch and Chi's (1995) three functions, namely 'background', 'support' and 'critical' (which I renamed 'critique') and Gilbert's (1977) 'acknowledgement' function are used as a guide to analyse functions in this study. These four functions will therefore be used to guide this discussion, with other frameworks drawn in to see how they relate and how they can contribute to my study. I chose this framework for my study because, to a larger extent, the four categories accommodate most of the functions raised by scholars using different terminology. Generally speaking, citation functions are by their nature difficult to define clearly. Besides, some of the proposed categories tend to overlap and some are relatively subjective.  I found that reducing the number of categories helps to avoid overlap and to build a comprehensive framework that does not confuse readers.

According to Bloch and Chi (1995, 242), background references are not directly related to the argument the writer is making, and these include citations referring to methodology, definitions, explanations and historical references presented uncritically. Weissberg and Buker (1990, in Zhang 2008, 14) observe that citations give readers background information about one's study, place a study in context and show one's familiarity with the area. There are two functions involved here. The first one is 'background', an important function which is usually performed by citations in the introductory sections and chapters. The second function of showing that one is familiar with the subject has also been referred to as 'knowledge display' (Petrić 2007; Swales 2014).

Support citations are directly related to supporting the argument advanced by the writer (Bloch & Chi 1995). 'Support' is arguably the most common function identified in the literature (e.g. Brooks 1986; Gilbert 1977; Harwood 2009; Okamura 2008). Gilbert (1977, 115), for example, considers reference to previous work as 'tools of persuasion' and demonstration of validity and significance of the work reported in the scientific papers. Two important issues can be deduced from Gilbert's view: persuading readers to hold the same point of view as the one the writer is advancing, and showing how valuable the cited work is. Gilbert points to the fact that writers choose the sources that they think are most relevant and respected enough to persuade readers. Some scholars, for example, Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011) have extended the support function to show different aspects of research that can be supported.

Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011, 155) expanded the support function of citation, deriving their subtypes from the different purposes for which it is used: "to provide evidence for the significance of the topic; to justify the procedures and materials; to support the writer's argument or claim, and to justify the results of the study". When support is used to justify the topic of the study, the citation is mainly used in the introduction of the paper to show the significance of the topic. For example, *Cu is identified as one of the most promising elements reported to be active in the SCR-HC*. In this example, *Cu* is the topic that has been investigated in the cited study and therefore the citation provides support for the significance of the topic. When support is used to justify the procedures and materials, it is used in the experimental section as illustrated in the following example: *In this study, PSF was selected as the precursor membrane material because of its satisfactory gas permeabilities and acceptable permselectivities, and widespread use as a commercial polymer. These properties with its relative low cost established PSF as the choice for use as a standard material for the fabrication of membranes.*

Citation can also be used to support the claim or argument advanced by the writer as in *This trend observed could also be related to the viscosity of the solution and polymer hydrophilicity. It was reported that the presence of LiBr increased the viscosity of the solution*. In the second sentence, the writer supports a claim that she or he made in the first sentence. The last support function is when citation is done to justify the findings or results of the study. For example, *Although the solution of 16 wt. % polymer concentration had excellent fluidity, the as-spun fiber could not withstand the high jet stretch. This solution was considered to be a dilute solution of poor draw-ability*. In the example, the writer explains some results of the study in the first sentence and supports the results in the second sentence. (All examples here are taken from Mansourizadeh and Ahmad 2011, 155-156). Mansourizadeh and Ahmad subcategorised the function of support based on the citer motivation in chemical engineering texts, and the first two subcategories are more aligned with hard sciences papers. Nevertheless, the other two subcategories of supporting one's argument and supporting the results of one's study are also applicable to citation studies in the humanities and other disciplines.

The third function I focus on is 'acknowledgement'. Gilbert (1977) identifies it as another citation function besides persuasion. 'Acknowledgement', also referred to as 'credit' (Harwood 2009) or 'attribution' (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad 2011; Petrić 2007), occurs when citations attribute information to outside sources without evaluating the cited information. Gilbert argues that writers cite to persuade readers more than they do for acknowledgement of previous work. He acknowledges the two functions of citing, but at the same time considers their relative importance. Contrary to Gilbert's view, acknowledgement has been found to be the most common function especially in student writing (Harwood & Petrić 2012; Petrić & Harwood 2013; Petrić 2007). Petrić (2007), for example, observes that generally, attribution seems to be a common characteristic of student writing, possibly because it is the simplest rhetorical function and because it helps students to display their knowledge of the subject. Okamura (2007) also identified acknowledgement as

one type of citation function, and suggested that socially-oriented citation refers to the use of citation to acknowledge previous work to give credit to the contribution of other scholars to the field (Okamura 2007, 65). Okamura acknowledges the fact that it is not easy to assign functions to citations without interviewing the authors concerned, a point raised earlier by Harwood (2006). This shortcoming was addressed in my study by including, in the interview protocol, a question on why postgraduate writers cited sources in their texts.

The 'critique' function involves citations where the writer disagrees with a proposition either partly or totally (Bloch & Chi 1995). In other words, such citations have to do with the critical analysis of prior texts, and typically point to research gaps. Harwood (2009, 506) terms this function differently. He says "*Engaging* citations appear when writers are in critical dialogue with their sources … when authors simply argue that an otherwise excellent source suffers from a minor flaw, or may even baldly state that the source is wrong". Although this is a rare function compared to the other three, it is quite important because it allows writers to evaluate previous work and demonstrates critical thinking. This function is important for MA and PhD researchers, where postgraduate students are required to identify gaps in their areas of study and have to make an original contribution to those fields.

It is interesting to note how Bloch and Chi's 'support' and 'critical' functions overlap with two major stance positions that are discussed in detail under RVs (§ 2.1.4). 'Support' function overlaps with Coffin's (2009) 'endorse' stance and Thompson and Ye's (1991) 'factive' stance where the writer totally agrees with the reported proposition, and the 'critical' function overlaps with Coffin's 'contest' stance and Thompson and Ye's 'counter-factive' stance where the writer disagrees with the proposition he cites. This overlap demonstrates the relationship that exists between citation functions and the stance taken by writers.

Swales (1990) identifies the function of citing sources to create research space. However, this function overlaps with 'background' and 'critique' functions. On the one hand, background citation indirectly contributes towards creating research space when writers describe what has been done in the research area and position their own study. On the other hand, critique citation directly contributes towards creating research space by pointing out weaknesses of previous works and overlooked issues that writers would want to address. This points to the fact that there are no clear-cut boundaries between these function types since they tend to overlap in one way or the other. Due to this overlap, I decided not to include 'research space' as an independent function in my framework, though I will refer to it in data analyses whenever necessary.

While the works reviewed above show that there is a general consensus among writers on the basic functions of citations in academic writing, the literature also highlight certain differences of opinion. For example, Gilbert's (1977) research implies that writers sometimes cite 'respected papers' as a way of convincing readers and being accepted by their discourse communities, even

if the cited works are not very relevant. This claim has been supported by Swales (2002) who is said to have observed graduate students' papers "with a lot of big names in their work", but whose relevance to their work is not clear (White 2004, 109). Nevertheless, this view has been queried by later studies such as White (2004) on the basis that Gilbert did not provide evidence or examples to support his claim. White also raises the question "*What persuades?* Is it the quality of the arguments of which the citations are part, or is it the reputation of the citees?" for rhetoricians and discourse analysts (White 2004, 109). Thus, while some have argued that selfish motives underlie citing, such arguments have been dismissed by others for lack of supporting evidence. In my study, all citations are assumed to have been made in good faith.

In concluding the two subsections of section 2.3 with regard to my study, the formal classifications discussed in the first section will form the framework for citation integration analysis in this thesis. While the 'integral' and 'non-integral' classifications will guide author integration analysis, the dialogism classifications will guide textual integration analysis. On the other hand, the functional categories of 'background', 'acknowledgement', 'support' and 'critique' will guide the discussion of citation functions. A key aspect of the analysis will focus on the use of RVs, as these form an important component of integral citations and so the next section reviews research literature on RVs.

### 2.1.4 Reporting verbs used in citations

In academic writing, RVs are verbs used by writers to introduce into their texts propositions or information from external sources. Such verbs appear in their active or passive forms to signal citation. Scholars (e.g. Ramoroka 2014; Shin et al. 2018; Thompson & Ye 1991) agree that the use of RVs enables writers to attribute propositions to external sources and at the same time express their attitudes to the ideas they report to readers. This means that RVs are part of stance taking resources (see § 2.3). It should be noted that RVs tend to be more closely associated with citation in the literature than any other lexical feature, and they are also a key element in the distinction between integral and non-integral forms of citation. That is why they are discussed here. Although in my study RVs, as evidentials, are seen as part of stance, this is not the case in most other studies that apply Hyland's model without modification.

This section reviews the literature on the classification of RVs, focusing on those works that contribute towards my study's categorisation and analysis of these verbs. Studies that classify verbs according to the type of activities they describe will be discussed first, followed by those that classify them according to their potential dialogic effect. It appears that more research has been done on the former than the latter.

A significant amount of research has been conducted on RVs to date, most of which categorises verbs in terms of the reported activities. Thompson and Ye (1991) did pioneering research in this

regard and proposed one of the first in-depth analyses of the types of RVs used in citations in academic papers. Thompson and Ye's main interest was the relationship between RVs and evaluation, and they discussed RVs first in terms of their denotation and then in terms of their evaluative potential.

According to Thompson and Ye (1991), the denotation category has two broad groups, namely 'author act' verbs and 'writer act' verbs. These authors used 'writer' to refer to the person who is reporting and 'author' to refer to the person who is being reported. Acts performed by the author are further subcategorised into three more or less distinguishable groups of processes, namely 'textual verbs', 'mental verbs' and 'research verbs'. Textual verbs refer to "processes in which verbal expression is an obligatory component", for instance, *state, write, term, name* and *point out*. Mental verbs refer to mental processes such as *believe, think, consider* and *refer,* while research verbs are those that refer to the "mental or physical processes that are part of research work", for example, *measure*, *calculate, quantify, obtain* and *find* (Thompson & Ye 1991, 369).

In terms of the denotation category, the writer act verbs indicate how writers use the cited information in their arguments and this group of verbs has two categories only, namely 'comparing' and 'theorising' verbs. On the one hand, comparing verbs show how the writer puts the author's work in a certain perspective, usually through comparison or contrast, for instance, *correspond to, accord with, anticipate* and *contrast with*. On the other hand, theorising verbs indicate how the writer uses the author's work to develop his or her argument, for instance, *account for, explain* and *support* (Thompson & Ye 1991, 370).

RVs can also signal stance through evaluation. Thompson and Ye (1991) state that RVs can be used by writers to both report their own claims or ideas and to demonstrate the attitude that they have towards others' claims. In analysing the evaluative potential of RVs, Thompson and Ye (1991, 371-372) considered three separate factors: author's stance, writer's stance and writer's interpretation. The discussion here will focus on the first two since they are more relevant to the current study.

Author's stance is the attitude which the author is reported as having towards the validity of the reported information or opinion. There are three options; the first one is positive, where the author is reported as presenting the information or opinion as true or correct, and examples given include, *emphasise, note, point out, reason* and *subscribe to*. The second option is negative, where the author is reported as presenting the information or opinion as false or incorrect. Examples are: *challenge, dismiss, dispute, object* and *oppose*. The third option is neutral, where the author is reported as presenting the information or opinion as neither true nor false at that point in his work, for instance, *assess, examine, evaluate, focus on* and *quote* (Thompson & Ye 1991, 371-372).

Writer's stance is the attitude which the writer is reported as having towards the validity of the information he or she is reporting. There are three options for writer's stance, namely factive, counter-factive and non-factive. According to Thompson and Ye (1991, 372), the factive option applies when the writer portrays the author as presenting true information or a correct opinion, for example, *demonstrate, find,* and *reveal*. The counter-factive option applies when the writer portrays the author as presenting false information or an incorrect opinion, for example, *confuse, disregard* and *ignore*. And in the non-factive option, the writer gives no clear signal as to his or her attitude towards the author's information or opinion, for example, *note*, *state* and *mention*. However, the authors commented that the counter-factive option is rarely used and they thought this might be part of the general reluctance identified by Myers (1989) to disagree explicitly with a fellow researcher.

Though the writer/author distinction given in Thompson and Ye's classifications is conceptually plausible, it is difficult to apply. For example, with verbs such as *exemplify* and *emphasise*, it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between author acts and writer acts (see also § 1.1.1). Thompson and Ye (1991, 371) admit that "… the neat division which has been set up between Author acts and Writer acts is somewhat misleading."

The categorisation is complex and some of the groupings under the evaluative category tend to overlap and are hardly distinguishable. Possibly as a result, apart from their concisely reported article, no empirical study has to my knowledge 'productively' applied the framework as it is with the author/writer distinction, which scholars seem to ignore. Zhang (2008), for example, applied Thompson and Ye's full framework but did not find much for the writer act verbs subcategory. He found that for theorising verbs, the English corpus had extremely low frequencies (3 counts) while the Chinese one had zero. Regarding comparing verbs, both corpora recorded zero frequencies. To me, the result is an indication that using the denotative author act categories (textual, mental and research) for all RVs could be better because they can also apply to writer acts (see also Thomas and Hawes' (1994) classifications discussed below). Apart from the complexity of categorisations and the author/writer distinction issues, Thompson and Ye's (1991, 372) non-factive category is problematically broad. It covers those verbs where there is supposed to be 'no clear signal' of writer attitude but includes verbs that are treated in the Appraisal system as distance verbs (e.g. *claim*), which do imply attitude more strongly than the more neutral verbs they list, such as *retain* and *examine*. This point is explained further in the discussion of the present study's proposed analytical framework (§ 3.4).

Thomas and Hawes (1994) and Hyland (2002b) classified verbs in ways similar to that of Thompson and Ye's (1991) denotative categories. The three studies' categories mainly differ in terminology as shown in Table 2.1.

*Table 2.1: Reporting verb categories*

| Author | Thompson & Ye (1991) | Thomas & Hawes (1994) | Hyland (2002b) |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Textual | Discourse Activity | Discourse Acts |
| Verb categories | Research | Experimental Activity | Research Acts |
| | Mental | Cognition Activity | Cognition Acts |

Thomas and Hawes (1994) proposed a classification of RVs based on the kind of activity referred to. Using a corpus of 11 research articles from Medical Journals, Thomas and Hawes, categorised RVs into three groups: 'Discourse Activity Verbs', 'Real World or Experimental Activity Verbs' and 'Cognition Activity Verbs'. Discourse activity verbs refer to activities that are linguistic in nature and involve interaction through speech or writing, for example, *state*, *report*, *note* and *conclude*. Verbs referring to the real world or experimental activities refer to some aspect of methods or procedures involved in the conduct of the research experiment. This group is subcategorised into 'Finding' verbs such as *found, observed*, *obtained* and *demonstrated*, and 'Procedural' verbs such as *compared*, *categorized*, *examined* and *analysed*. This is the only feature that distinguishes Thomas and Hawes' categorisation from the other two studies. However, the subcategorisation does not seem to bring much extra analytical value; therefore, it is better to maintain one name (Experimental Activity) for the category to avoid confusion. Lastly, cognition verbs refer to the mental activities that the researcher goes through, for instance, *believed*, *considered*, *regarded* and *recognised* (Thomas and Hawes 1994, 133).

 Hyland (2002b) categorised RVs into three groups, according to the activities they refer to. The three groups are: 'Research Acts', 'Cognition Acts' and 'Discourse Acts'. While research acts represent real-world activities or actions (e.g. *discover*, *show*, *analyse*), cognition acts concern the researcher's mental processes (e.g. *believe*, *suspect*, *assume*). Lastly, discourse acts "involve linguistic activities and focus on the verbal expression of cognitive or research activities", for example, *discuss* and *hypothesise* (Hyland 2002b, 120).

With regard to dialogic engagement classifications of RVs, Coffin (2009, 170) proposed four writer stance positions in reporting "which indicate different degrees of dialogic expansion or contraction", namely 'acknowledge', 'distance', 'endorse' and 'contest'. Hu and Wang (2014) adopted these writer stance categories for their study, and I also adopted them to label verb categories in my study, although I defined 'distance' more broadly (see § 3.4).

The framework used by Coffin (2009) to analyse citation in a film studies thesis included writer stance as one of its dimensions, and it mostly involves RVs. Writer stance includes four positions that can be taken by the reporting writer concerning the information from the reported sources. 'Acknowledge' is a stance where the writers take a neutral position and make no evaluation of the cited proposition with RVs such as *state*. This position is similar to Thompson and Ye's (1991)

'non-factive' stance where the writer "gives no clear signal" regarding his or her attitude towards the cited proposition. 'Distance' is a stance where writers distance themselves from the reported proposition, "taking no responsibility for its liability" and the distance is "commonly achieved by using a quoting verb such as *claim*" (Coffin 2009, 171). As mentioned earlier, Thompson and Ye do not have a separate category for such verbs but rather classify them under the 'non-factive' category. It is argued that these two positions (Acknowledge and Distance) are dialogically expansive, accommodating alternative views.

'Endorse' communicates a type of stance whereby the reporting writers agree with the reported proposition, presenting a cited proposition as "true, authoritative, reliable or convincing through the use of reporting verbs such as *demonstrate* or *show*" (Coffin 2009, 171). Thompson and Ye label such verbs as 'factive' because they present the author's information as correct. 'Contest' is a stance whereby the writers show a negative attitude towards the cited information by directly criticising or rejecting the idea using such verbs as *ignore*. This, in Thompson and Ye's scheme, is labelled as a 'counter-factive' group of verbs used by writers to present cited information as false. These two stance positions, it is argued, are dialogically contractive, shutting out alternative views.

The three studies (Coffin 2009; Thomas & Hawes 1994; Thompson & Ye 1991) discussed in this section are very relevant to my study which also investigates stance in RVs. RVs are a very important part of citations, therefore, writers have to carefully choose the verbs to use when citing information from sources, so that they correctly communicate the propositional content and their attitude towards it. Commenting on the importance of word choice in academic writing and in constructing the writer's stance, Hyland (1998b, 439) states that, "making appropriate lexical choices has often been seen as a means of taking a rhetorical stance towards a claim and RVs are one of a number of grammatical devices writers need for expressing their own stance in an academic paper".

The use of RVs has proved to be a challenging aspect of academic writing, especially for L2 English writers, and hence the need to learn more about the difficulties involved. Faced with a wide range of choices, selecting the right RV to express an appropriate stance towards the reported information appears to be particularly challenging (Thomas & Hawes 1994; Bloch 2010). Some scholars have suggested solutions to this apparently common problem across tertiary institutions. For example, Shin et al. (2018) recommend a corpus-informed instruction for teaching RVs, saying that this approach may support L2 writers in the development of appropriate RV use because it exposes students to authentic academic material with the expected conventions and discourse. Clearly, reporting is an important feature of academic writing that must be researched from various angles and in different genres. More literature on RVs is discussed in Chapter 3 (§ 3.4), where it will be explained how the literature informed my study's categorisation of RVs.

## 2.2 Metadiscourse

This section first of all defines the term 'metadiscourse' and then provides an overview of the concept. This is meant to provide background to the concepts of 'stance' and 'engagement' which are covered under the interactional resources of the interpersonal model of metadiscourse (Hyland 2005a, 2005b & 2010). The present study does not adopt the whole model of metadiscourse as its framework, but rather focuses on interactional resources. The resources will be discussed in more detail, but first, the overall interactive/ interactional model of metadiscourse will be considered.

### 2.2.1 Defining metadiscourse

The term 'metadiscourse' was coined by Zellig Harris in 1959 to provide a way of understanding language in use, representing a writer's effort to guide a reader's understanding of a text (Hyland 2005a, 2017). Hyland (2017, 16) acknowledges the difficulties associated with defining, categorising and analysing metadiscourse, which he describes as a "hard term to pin down" and often understood differently. Metadiscourse has been defined in different ways by different authors. For example, Williams (1981, 226) states that metadiscourse is "…whatever does not refer to the subject matter being addressed" and Vande Kopple (1985, 83) defines it as "the linguistic material which does not add propositional information, but which signals the presence of an author". Hyland (2005a, 1) has given a more encompassing definition of metadiscourse, explaining it as "a widely used term in current discourse analysis and language education, referring to an interesting, and relatively new, approach to conceptualizing interactions between text producers and their texts and between text producers and users". Hyland (2005b) further elaborates his definition, stating that metadiscourse refers to "discoursal choices" that writers use to show their attitude to their subject matter and their readers and to influence how their readers understand their text. Even though authors define the concept differently, there is a general consensus that metadiscourse concerns meanings other than propositional ones (Hyland 2005a).

Hyland (1998b) comments that the role of metadiscourse in establishing and maintaining contact between the writer and the reader and between the writer and the message also makes it a central pragmatic concept. In other words, metadiscourse has become an important feature in the study of meaning beyond the propositional content of texts. It is through the various resources of metadiscourse that writers achieve interpersonal communication with their readers. I believe this broad definition by Hyland is more suitable for my study where metadiscourse is looked at in its broader context covering citation, stance and engagement. The concept of metadiscourse is studied to learn more about how writers in the three categories under investigation interact with both their texts and their readers in the process of communicating their ideas and citing sources.

To make explicit the scope of this broader concept, Hyland (2005a; 2010) conceptualises that metadiscourse consists of two categories, namely the 'interactive' and the 'interactional'

categories. While interactive features organise discourse to enable the reader to understand the text, interactional features enable writers to express attitudes to both their material and their audience. Looking at metadiscourse from this perspective, Hyland (2005a, 2005b & 2010, 2017) leads us to the idea of interpersonality in academic writing, which is concerned with the ways through which writers make use of an explicit system of meanings for their voice to be heard by their readers. This approach moves away from the idea of viewing communication in academic writing as centred on propositional content only.

### 2.2.2 An overview of metadiscourse

One cannot talk about the development of the concept metadiscourse without mentioning significant works such as Williams (1981) and Vande Kopple (1985). Williams (1981) proposed two levels of human communication, informing readers about the subject and explicitly or implicitly informing readers how to interpret the propositional content. Williams proposed the following six types of metadiscourse: hedges, emphatics, sequencers, topicalisers, attributors and narrators.

While hedges such as *usually*, *sometimes*, *apparently*, *to a certain extent* "leave us room for backpedaling and making exceptions", emphatics such as *clearly*, *inevitably*, *indeed*, *as we can plainly see* "let us underscore what we really believe" (Williams 1981, 49). Sequencers and topicalisers are words that guide readers through the text. For example, *The **next** problem is noise pollution* where *next* is a sequencer, and ***In regard to a vigorous style**, the most important characteristic is a short, concrete subject followed by a forceful verb* where the bolded phrase is a topicaliser (Williams 1981, 50). Attributers and narrators tell readers where the writer's ideas came from. For instance, ***I was concerned with** the structural integrity of the roof support, ...* where the highlighted phrase is a narrative of what the writer was thinking, and *Regular patterns of drought and precipitation **have been found to coincide** with cycles of sunspot activity* where the highlighted phrase is a writer's indirect attribution (Williams 1981, 50).

Later, Vande Kopple (1985) extended Williams' (1981) categorisation by identifying seven types of metadiscourse, namely text connectives, code glosses, validity markers, illocution markers, narrators, attitude markers and commentaries. Text connectives help readers to realise how texts are organised and to see how different parts of texts are connected. Examples of words and phrases in this category are: *first, in the third place, however, as noted in Chapter One* (Vande Kopple 1985, 83). Code glosses assist readers to get the appropriate meanings of elements in texts, for instance, an explanation of a word, phrase or idiom. Illocution markers are elements used to explicitly show readers the speech or discourse act that writers are performing in their texts such as *to sum up*, *we claim that*, *for example*.

Validity markers are used to "indicate how we assess the probability or truth of the propositional content we express and to show how committed we are to that assessment" (Vande Kopple 1985, 84). Under this category are hedges, emphatics and attributers, elements already discussed under Williams' (1981) categorisation. While narrators such as *according to James*, *Mrs Wilson announced that* point readers to the person who said or wrote something, attitude markers such as *surprisingly*, *I find it interesting that* enable writers to indicate their attitudes toward the propositional content. Lastly, commentaries address readers directly in an effort to engage them in the text. Examples of clauses in this category are: *most of you will oppose the idea that*, *you might wish to read the last chapter first*. Vande Kopple (1985, 85) concludes by noting that it appears that there are some individual words, phrases or clauses that can belong to more than one category. For example, *I hypothesize that* probably functions in most texts as both an illocution marker and a validity marker.

Besides extending William's categories, Vande Kopple systematised them in terms of two broad categories of metadiscourse: 'interpersonal' and 'textual'. He proposed to tentatively include the following under interpersonal metadiscourse: illocution markers, validity markers, narrators, attitude markers, and "bits of commentary" (Vande Kopple 1985, 87). Text connectives, code glosses and the rest of commentary fall under textual meanings. Vande Kopple should be given credit for being the first linguist to attempt a two-fold functional classification of metadiscourse categories (Sefako-Letsoela 2012).

However, there is a problem with his classification of commentary resources (used to address readers directly). He placed some of them in the interpersonal group and others in the textual group without specifying the two kinds of commentary, which makes it a bit difficult to apply his framework. Critiquing Vande Kopple's categorisation, Hyland (2005a, 32) argues that the classification is vague and has functional overlap, which has made it difficult to apply in practice. For example, it is difficult to distinguish narrators and attributors, particularly in academic writing where citation is used to perform a variety of rhetorical functions. Despite the weaknesses pointed out here, the textual/interpersonal model was generally accepted, though Vande Kopple's classification was refined and amended by various authors and some of the modifications are illustrated in the following paragraphs.

The textual/interpersonal model was applied in different ways, with many researchers modifying Vande Kopple's original sub-categories. One example is Crismore, Markkanen and Steffensen (1993), who investigated cultural and gender variations in the use of metadiscourse in US and Finnish students' persuasive essays. They subclassified textual metadiscourse into 'Textual markers' and 'Interpretive markers'. Textual markers include logical connectives, sequencers, reminders and topicalisers. Under interpretive markers are code glosses, illocution markers and announcements. With regard to Crismore et al.'s (1993) changes, some scholars, such as Sefako-Letsoela (2012, 23) comment that their classification is confusing, especially because of

subclassifying textual metadiscourse. She feels they could have made it simpler or maybe left the category as it was. I agree with Sefako-Letsoela that Crismore et al.'s changes did not improve Vande Kopple's subcategorisation, and that it is less confusing to stick to the subcategories proposed by Vande Kopple.

Hyland (1998c) modified Crismore et al.'s (1993) classification. He studied how CEOs use metadiscourse to create a positive image of their companies and themselves. Hyland included logical connectives, sequencers, frame markers, endophoric markers and code glosses under textual metadiscourse, while hedges, emphatics, attributors, attitude markers and relation markers were categorised under interpersonal metadiscourse. This demonstrates how researchers kept modifying models that originated from Vande Kopple's model. Despite these modifications, linguists who applied Vande Kopple's (1985) model agreed that metadiscourse consists of two broad categories, namely textual and interpersonal.

It should be noted that Williams' (1981) and Vande Kopple's (1985) classifications did not result from empirical studies, but were rather presented as suggestions on how metadiscourse can be employed as rhetoric strategies to meet writers' communicative goals. Hyland (2005a, 6) comments that these two works provide an "insufficiently solid theoretical foundation on which to analyse real texts or to understand how writers communicate effectively". But despite this limitation, these early works provide useful frameworks, as well as direction for subsequent research. Their contribution also resulted in an increased interest in the study of metadiscourse by scholars such as Hyland.

Hyland developed a keen interest in the study of metadiscourse, working continuously on improving a model suitable to effectively study it. For example, he worked with Tse in 2004 to propose a new model which was seen as an alternative to the traditional textual/interpersonal metadiscourse classification. Hyland and Tse (2004) argue that there should be no distinction between metadiscourse resources that enable writers to organise propositional content in a text and those that portray the writers' stance. As also noted by Systemic functional linguists, all metadiscourse is interpersonal because it provides writers with rhetorical resources to help readers follow their arguments. Continuing work on these ideas, Hyland (2005a) put both textual and interpersonal groups under interpersonal resources and went on to subcategorise these resources into 'interactive' and 'interactional' aspects (discussed in the next paragraphs). The central argument proposed in Hyland's new model is that in written discourse, successful communication is dependent on writers and readers understanding one another. As writers have a purpose when they write, and they mainly write for others rather than for themselves, it becomes necessary for them to guide their readers and influence them to accept their message.

After reworking his approach to metadiscourse, integrating all the research he had done on different interpersonal resources such as boosters and hedges, Hyland (2005a, 2010) produced a

unified model that presents two dimensions of interpersonal metadiscourse: the *interactive* and the *interactional*, terms adopted from Thompson (2001). This unified model was provided in Chapter 1 (§ 1.5.1, Table 1.1), therefore, it will not be repeated here. The two dimensions are explained in the next paragraphs with more emphasis on the interactional resources, as these are more relevant to my study.

According to Hyland (2010, 128),

> Interactive resources are concerned with ways of organising discourse to anticipate readers' knowledge and reflect the writer's assessment of what needs to be made explicit to constrain and guide what can be recovered from text.

In simpler terms, interactive resources help with the organisation of material or information in the text. Hyland (2010, 128) goes on to explain interactional resources as:

> those resources that concern the writer's efforts to control the level of personality in a text and establish a suitable relationship to his or her data, arguments, and audience, marking the degree of intimacy, the expression of attitude, the communication of commitments, and the extent of reader involvement.

This, in other words, means that interactional resources convey the writer's attitudes in the text. The five interactional features (hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions and engagement markers) will be discussed in detail later (§ 2.3 and § 2.4).

It should be noted here that in the sections to come, stance and engagement will be dealt with as separate entities for reasons that will be explained in more detail in the next chapter (§ 3.4). At this point, I will only briefly explain Hyland's (2005b) main subdivision of interactional metadiscourse into stance and engagement, which I mentioned earlier and implemented in my study. Whereas stance has to do with writers' evaluation or attitude towards a cited proposition and readers, engagement refers to writers' attempts to directly involve readers in constructing their texts. Put differently, stance portrays interaction among citing writers, cited sources and readers on the one hand, and engagement shows direct interaction between citing writers and readers of their texts on the other hand. In the present study, interactional metadiscourse provides a means of investigating the different rhetorical resources used in postgraduate and expert expression of stance and engagement. It is apparent that stance and engagement are two levels of interaction meant to persuade readers into agreeing with the writer's argument and that is why Hyland (2005b, 176) calls them "two sides of the same coin". Stance is discussed in the next section and engagement is discussed in section 2.4.

## 2.3 Stance

When writers make propositions and cite sources in their academic work, they evaluate the information they present or cite, either explicitly or implicitly. Their evaluation reflects the

attitudes they have towards the propositions they make, the information they cite and towards their readers, hence the relationship between citation and stance. In other words, in the process of presenting their ideas and citing sources, writers also communicate their stance and engage their readers. This section defines stance and reviews the theoretical aspects of stance features.

### 2.3.1 Defining stance

Stance is a "slippery concept" that language practitioners have found difficult to define (Lancaster 2011, 272). Hyland (2009, 111), for example, defines stance as "a writer's community-recognized persona as expressed through his/her rhetorical choices, conveying epistemic and affective judgements, opinions and degrees of commitment to what they say". In the present study, stance generally refers to the writers' attitude towards the proposition or information they present as well as towards their readers. Hence, stance has to do with how writers construct a credible academic identity. Available literature shows that there has been an increase in the interest researchers have on how academic writers incorporate into their texts their own "personal feelings, attitudes, value judgements, or assessments" (Charles 2006a, 492). An array of terms has been used to refer to this phenomenon, ranging from 'stance' (Hyland 1999, 2000, 2005a, 2010) to 'evaluation' (Thompson & Ye 1991; Hunston and Thompson 2000), to 'appraisal' (Martin and White 2005), and 'authorial voice' (Chang 2010; Olivier 2017). Taki and Jafarpour (2012, 158) also observe that terms such as 'evaluation', 'intensity', 'affect', 'evidentiality', 'hedging' and 'stance' are all used to refer to a writer's attitude.

I find it necessary to explain 'voice' a little bit at this point because I refer to it in my study as I talk about stance, and the topic seems to have gained popularity among scholars in recent studies (e.g. Morton & Storch 2019; Olivier 2017; Peng & Zheng 2021). Similary to stance, voice has been considered difficult to define and has been understood differently. This study adopts the following definition: "the amalgamative effect of the use of discursive and non-discursive features that language users choose, deliberately or otherwise, from socially available yet ever-changing repertoires" (Matsuda 2001, in Peng & Zheng 2021, 2). This definition implies that voice refers largely to the same rhetorical resources as those involved in stance (e.g. reporting verbs and self-mention), therefore, the two terms are very closely related. Morton and Storch (2019) noted that the development of academic voice is discipline specific and variations can be noticed even in closely related disciplines. While writers construct self-identity, they are also expected to conform to the conventions and practices within specific academic communities. Voice also involves the threefold interaction between writers, readers and texts. (Morton & Storch 2019, 40).

Even though researchers have used different terminology, they have the same goal of investigating how writers project their personal feelings and judgements in their writing. In this section, stance is discussed from the perspectives of two frameworks that directly contributed to the present

study's analytical framework. Hyland's (2005a) interactional stance markers are discussed first, followed by Martin and White's (2005) Appraisal stance resources.

## 2.3.2 Interactional stance markers

Hyland (2005b) puts forward an interactional model with stance and engagement features presented separately. In the model, four stance markers (hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention) and five engagement markers (reader pronouns, directives, asides, questions and shared knowledge) are listed. However, according to the adjustments stated earlier, evidentials are added to the list, resulting in five stance markers (see § 1.5.1 and § 3.3). This approach of separating stance and engagement markers is more appropriate for my study which treats the two as different but related interactional resources of interpersonal communication in academic writing. Hyland's (2005b) model is presented diagrammatically in figure 2.1.
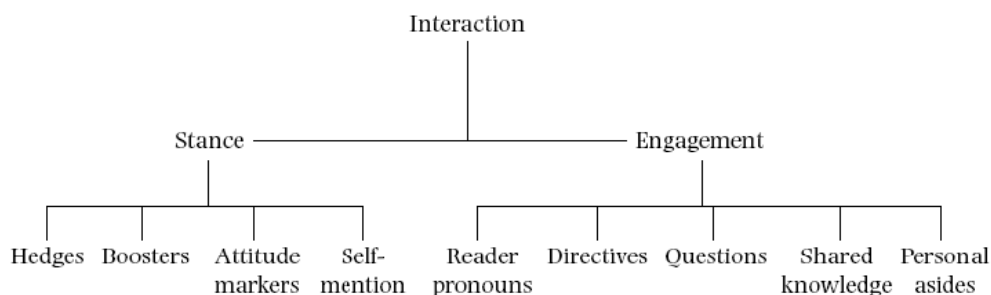


*Figure 2.1: Stance and engagement features (Hyland 2005b, 177)*

Hyland (2005b, 179) defines hedges as "devices" that indicate the writer's decision to withhold complete commitment to a proposition, allowing information to be presented as an opinion rather than approved facts, for instance, *possible, may, perhaps.* He adds that "Hedges, therefore, imply that a statement is based on plausible reasoning rather than certain knowledge, indicating the degree of confidence it is prudent to attribute to it" (Hyland 2005b, 179). Hedges also allow writers to create an opportunity for readers to dispute their interpretations, thus acknowledging the presence of alternative viewpoints (Hyland 2005a). Hedges can also be used to show uncertainty about the truth of an assertion (Crismore et al. 1993) and to protect the writer from the reader's criticism (Lee 2009). Hyland (1996, 251) adds that hedging is central to effective argument in that it enables writers "to express a perspective on their statements to present unproven claims with caution and to enter into a dialogue with their audience".

Boosters, on the other hand, are linguistic devices such as *clearly, definitely* and *precisely* that allow writers to express their certainty in what they say and to show involvement with the topic

and solidarity with their readers (Hyland 2005b, 179). Hyland further explains that boosters function to underline shared information, group membership, and engagement with readers. In the process, they allow writers to shut down alternatives (Holmes 1988) as they imply that the writer acknowledges potentially different positions but has chosen to narrow this difference instead of enlarging it, "confronting alternatives with a single confident voice" (Hyland 2005a, 52). The use of boosters strengthens an argument by highlighting the shared experiences needed to draw the same conclusions as the writer.

The skillful manipulation of hedges and boosters in academic texts not only signals a writer's stance towards propositional content and readers, but also marks him or her as a competent member of the discourse community (Hyland 1998a, 2005a). Hyland (2005b, 180) comments that "both boosters and hedges represent a writer's response to the potential view-points of readers and an acknowledgement of disciplinary norms of appropriate argument". Hu and Cao (2011, 2796) explain that although offering opposing alternative views, hedges and boosters work together in the following manner:

> Thus, hedges and boosters are, in a sense, two sides of the same coin: they are metadiscursive resources that the writer can capitalize on to express uncertainty or certainty about a proposition, withhold or strengthen commitment to a position, entertain or dismiss alternatives, open or close dialogue with the reader, and attenuate or boost illocutionary force.

Attitude markers "indicate the writer's affective, rather than epistemic, attitude to propositions" (Hyland 2005b, 180). According to Hyland (2005a), instead of commenting on the status of information, its possible relevance, reliability or truth, attitude markers convey surprise, agreement, importance, obligation, frustration, and so on. Hyland also observes that while attitude is expressed throughout a text by way of subordination, punctuation and other features, it is most explicitly marked by attitude verbs such as *agree, prefer*; sentence adverbs such as *unfortunately, hopefully*; and adjectives such as *appropriate, logical, remarkable* (Hyland 2005b, 180). By indicating an assumption of shared attitudes, values and reactions to information, writers both express a position and "pull readers into a conspiracy of agreement so that it can often be difficult to dispute these judgments" (Kuhi et al. 2012, 81).

According to Hyland (2005a, 54), self-mention refers to the degree of "explicit author presence" in the text measured by the frequency of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives such as *I, me, we, our*. Hyland (2001a; 2005a) states that writers cannot write without projecting an impression of themselves and their standpoint concerning their arguments, disciplines and readers. And he sees the practice of personal projection through first-person pronouns as probably the most powerful means of self-representation and emphasising a writer's contribution in texts. He interprets "the presence or absence of explicit author reference" as generally a "conscious choice by writers to adopt a particular stance and disciplinary-situated authorial identity" (Hyland 2005b, 181). Self-mention resources also include third-person noun phrases with both human and non-

human references such as *the researcher* and *the study* (Maroko 2013). Commenting on the use of self-mention resources, Maroko (2013, 48) says, whereas using the exclusive personal pronoun *I* positions writers very close to their work, using "personified point of view constructions or the third person point of view distance themselves from their work". Earlier, Charles (2006a) made a similar observation that the use of third-person noun phrases distances writers from their work, and thus helps to achieve objectivity.

### 2.3.3 Appraisal stance resources

In this section, I will discuss how the concept 'stance' is viewed in another framework that contributed to my study, namely Appraisal, as described by Martin and White (2005). But before providing details of Appraisal Theory, I will give a brief background to systemic functional linguistics from where the theory was developed. Systemic functional linguistics (SFL) is an approach that focuses on the importance of the function of language in different social contexts. It was to a large extent the brainchild of Halliday (1985), who argued that language is made up in such a way that it can make three main kinds of meaning at the same time (Eggins 1994). Each of these meanings contributes equally to the overall meaning of the message (Thompson 1996). The three metafunctions are 'experiential', 'textual' and 'interpersonal'. Experiential meanings are meanings about how the experience or subject matter is presented in a text (Eggins 1994). Textual meaning refers to the way the oral or written text is organised, showing how the messages "fit in with the other messages around them and with the wider context in which we are talking or writing" (Thompson 1996, 28). Lastly, interpersonal meaning is "a strand of meaning running throughout the text which expresses the writer's role relationship with the reader, and the writer's attitude towards the subject matter" (Eggins 1994, 12).

Martin and White (2005) developed Appraisal theory to provide a detailed systematisation of the interpersonal metafunction of language (Bloch & Ivanic 2008). Appraisal is "an approach to describing and explaining the way language is used to evaluate, to adopt stances, to construct personal personas and to manage interpersonal positioning and relationships" (Martin 2001 in Goodier 2008, 45). The Appraisal system or framework is therefore concerned with how writers interpret certain authorial identities for themselves, how they agree or disagree with actual or potential respondents, and how they construct an ideal audience for their texts (Martin & White 2005). Martin and White (2005, 40) explain that the Appraisal framework is based on the notion of stance: "appraisal is probably most closely related to the concept of stance", which depends heavily on the idea that "whenever speakers (or writers) say anything, they encode their point of view towards it". The centrality of the concept of stance for the Appraisal framework is explained by the fact that the evaluative language used for the formation of a stance comes directly from the writer's attitude, which may be expressed either explicitly or implicitly. The Appraisal framework sees expressions of attitude as "dialogically directed towards aligning the addressee into a community of shared values and belief" (Martin & White 2005, 95). Thus, the Appraisal

framework analyses how the writer's attitude is expressed and how it is directed towards aligning the reader into a community of shared values and beliefs.

The Appraisal approach shows that despite the intention to be as unbiased as possible, discourse is never completely deprived of the writer's stance, even if this is not stated overtly. The three main resources of the framework are Engagement, Attitude and Graduation. First, Engagement is "directed towards identifying the particular dialogic positioning associated with given meanings and towards describing what is at stake when one meaning rather than another is employed" (Martin & White 2005, 97). It consists of two distinct resources: the 'monoglossic', where there is "no recognition of dialogistic alternatives" or no room for other viewpoints, for example, *The banks have been greedy*; and 'heteroglossic', where there is "recognition of dialogistic alternatives" or where there is room for other viewpoints, for example, *There is the argument though that the banks have been greedy; In my view, the banks have been greedy* (Martin & White 2005, 100). In these two examples, the underlined clause and phrase create room for alternative views, unlike in the monoglossic example, where there is no room for a different view. Engagement resources are further discussed under engagement in the next section since they are relevant to my study.

Second, Attitude is "concerned with our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgements of behaviour and evaluation of things" (Martin & White 2005, 35). It consists of three resources: 'affect', 'judgement', and 'appreciation'. These resources are explained by Martin and White as follows: Affect refers to expressions of emotion such as a feeling of shock regarding the events (e.g. *horror, worry, anger, general gloom*); judgement has to do with evaluations of human behaviour in terms of culturally determined expectations such as *right, wrong, ethical, responsible*; and appreciation are evaluations of things or phenomena such as *beautiful, unattractive, simple* (Martin & White 2005, 35).

Lastly, Graduation deals with "grading phenomena whereby feelings are amplified and categories blurred" (Martin & White 2005, 35). It is divided into two major resources: 'force' and 'focus'. Force refers to resources used as 'adjustments' of the degree of evaluations. It is subdivided into raised, for example, *so touchy, infinitely more naked, quite clinical, most dangerous* and lower, for example, *a little upset, somewhat upset, the least bit more information*. Focus refers to resources used in a non-gradable context; it "has the effect of adjusting the strength of boundaries between categories, constructing core and peripheral types of things" (Martin & White 2005, 37). It is subdivided into sharpen, for example, *award-winning, all alone* and soften such as *sort of, kind of, about 60 years old.*

In summary, the Appraisal framework is meant to uncover the writer's attitude and the way texts align or do not align with the reader (Martin & White 2005). The framework has a system of resources that has been applied by researchers to analyse evaluative language, with some

researchers applying the whole framework and others taking part of it as illustrated in section 2.5. This shows that the Appraisal system is another viable option which can be considered to account for lexical evaluation in discourse.

It is worth noting that there is an overlap between the Appraisal system resources and those of the metadiscourse approach. For example, what has been discussed in metadiscourse literature as hedging, stance and evidentiality are dealt with in the Appraisal system by two sets of resources, Engagement and Graduation. However, the Appraisal system is not explicit about the other means of involving readers in the text such as reader pronouns, hence the need to integrate resources from Appraisal and metadiscourse approaches to build a more effective analytical framework.

## 2.4 Engagement

In this section, I am going to discuss the concept 'engagement' from two perspectives: Hyland's (2005b) interactional engagement and Martin and Whites' (2005) dialogic Engagement. Both kinds of engagement can be broadly defined as the practice by writers of interacting with other texts and readers in the process of constructing arguments. However, interactional engagement, like stance, provides specific sets of features that can relatively easily be quantified and as such is very important for my study, while dialogic Engagement has to do with a much broader concept that is used more in the qualitative parts of my study. I begin by defining engagement and then move on to explaining the various engagement resources that appear in the two engagement frameworks and their functions.

### 2.4.1 Defining engagement and explaining its main role

This section firstly defines engagement. Secondly, it discusses the role of engagement, and finally it explains the linguistic resources used in both interactional and Appraisal engagement.

#### 2.4.1.1 A definition of engagement

Hyland (2009, 111) defines engagement as "the ways writers pull readers along with the unfolding discourse: recognizing their uncertainties, including them as discourse participants and guiding them to interpretations". Hyland's use of the term engagement differs from that proposed by the Appraisal system, where the term is used to refer to the wide range of linguistic resources writers use to position themselves with respect to other voices (Martin & Rose 2003; Martin & White 2005). While acknowledging the big overlap between Martin and White's view and his own, Hyland (2009) mentions that the former is largely concerned with representing the writers' attitudes or opinions towards the propositions they are making (expressing appraisal). This, therefore, aligns Martin and White's view closer to what Hyland has called 'stance'. Martin and

White (2005, 35) state that "Engagement deals with sourcing attitudes and the play of voices around opinions in discourse". In this case, engagement resources are dialogic in nature; writers use them to either 'contract' or 'expand' the dialogic space with readers. In contrast, Hyland is concerned with exploring the ways that language is used to "anticipate possible reader objections, acknowledge their interpersonal concerns and bring readers into a text" (Hyland 2009, 111). Hyland focuses on ways of involving readers in the discourse to make them part of the text and this makes his conception of engagement narrower than that of Martin and White.

Hyland further explains engagement as a writer's choice to introduce readers as real participants in the discourse instead of implied observers of the discussion; hence the points at which this occurs must be explicitly marked by devices that signal reader engagement (Hyland 2009). According to this view, "engagement works to meet readers' expectations of inclusion and to rhetorically position them by capturing their attention and focusing them on key issues" (Hyland 2009, 112). This statement indicates that Hyland too is interested in rhetoric across stretches of text, though he tends to spend less time on that kind of analysis than the dialogic engagement scholars do. Thus, the difference between the two approaches is in some ways one of emphasis.

## 2.4.1.2 The role of engagement

At this point, I focus on functions of engagement, both interactional and Appraisal. Hyland (2001b) explores the most important means through which writers explicitly establish the presence of their readers in the discourse, an area that he observes has generally received less attention. Despite this, Hyland believes interactional engagement is an important aspect of interpersonal communication in academic texts. He notes that by engaging readers (who are capable of refuting the writers' interpretations), writers show that they are aware of their responsibility to make their work acceptable by considering the readers' potential concerns, by involving them in the discourse and by leading them to preferred interpretations (Hyland 2001b, 2005b, 2009).

Hyland further explains that engagement markers build a relationship with readers by explicitly addressing them, either by selectively focusing their attention or by including them as participants in the text through reader pronouns, directives, questions, shared knowledge and personal asides (Hyland 2001b, 550). However, some of the engagement devices such as questions and directives can easily be identified from the texts while others such as personal asides are difficult to identify and therefore require careful reading of concordance lines to verify if the expressions are real engagement markers. Also, inclusive reader pronouns such as *we* need to be distinguished from plural self-mention.

Hyland (2005b) reports that there are two main purposes to writers' uses of engagement strategies. Firstly, writers aim to acknowledge the need to adequately meet readers' expectations of inclusion and disciplinary solidarity. In this case, readers are addressed as participants in an argument with

reader pronouns and personal asides. Secondly, writers aim at rhetorically positioning the audience. In this case, the writer brings readers into the discourse at very important points, "predicting possible objections and guiding them to particular interpretations with questions, directives and references to shared knowledge" (Hyland 2005b, 182). However, Hyland acknowledges that these two functions cannot always be clearly distinguished as writers use language to achieve more than one goal at the same time.

Overall, the importance of interactional engagement lies in that "claims for the significance and originality of research have to be balanced against the convictions and expectations of readers, taking into account their likely objections, background knowledge, rhetorical expectations and processing needs" (Hyland 2008, 5). Similarly, in dialogic engagement the aim is to present an argument in a balanced and convincing manner, strongly stating one's claims, but also accommodating alternative views and taking care of readers' concerns. On the other hand, Martin and White's (2005) approach takes dialogic engagement as a communicative system where writers use the contractive (monogloss) and expansive (heterogloss) features. These features entail that when communicating propositions, writers can either take stance positions that accommodate alternative viewpoints (expansive) or shut out alternative viewpoints (contractive) (Martin and Rose 2003; Martin and White 2005). Martin and White's dialogic engagement encompasses various values widely discussed in previous literature, including Hyland's works, "under such headings as attribution, modality, polarity, concession, evidentiality, hedging and metadiscursives and so on" (Xinghua & Thompson 2009, 3). This shows that dialogic engagement covers more rhetoric devices and is qualitative which makes it a better analytic tool for longer texts as some of those that are qualitatively analysed in my study.

The two approaches are complementary in that while the Appraisal Engagement accounts for the writer's explicit interaction with other authors or texts and implicitly with readers, the interactional engagement accounts for the writer's direct interaction with readers, meeting their expectations and putting them in a position to agree with the writer's argument (Hyland 2001b). Hyland's narrower approach is useful for the quantitative analysis of this study, so it is appropriate to combine the two approaches. But overall, Martin and White's concept of engagement is broad and includes more linguistic resources that mark stance whereas Hyland's concept is narrowly focused on reader involvement. The linguistic resources that underlie interactional and dialogic engagement are discussed in the next section.

### 2.4.2 Linguistic resources used in engagement

In this section, I will discuss interactional engagement resources first and then move on to Appraisal engagement ones.

**2.4.2.1 Interactional engagement markers**

Interactional engagement markers are expressions that writers use to explicitly address the readers. Hyland (2001; 2005a; 2005b; 2008; 2009) identifies five markers of engagement, namely reader pronouns, personal asides, appeals/reference to shared knowledge, directives and questions. These elements of engagement show us how writers project readers into texts.

Reader pronouns involve the use of the second-person pronouns *you* and *your* which are the clearest way a writer can acknowledge the reader's presence (Hyland 2005a). Inclusive first-person pronouns such as *we*, *us* and *our* are other reader pronouns used to bind writer and reader together. Reader pronouns are meant to solicit solidarity with readers and are probably the most explicit way of bringing readers into a discourse. Fu (2012, cited in Moini & Salami 2015, 113) suggested the label "reader-inclusive pronouns" for this category of engagement markers to include the inclusive pronouns. In studies such as Hyland (2008), *we* is a commonly used pronoun probably because "it sends a clear signal of membership by textually constructing both the writer and the reader as participants with similar understanding and goals" (Hyland 2005b, 182).

Personal asides are a reader-oriented strategy that makes it possible for writers to speak directly to readers by briefly interrupting the argument to comment on what the writer has just said (Hyland 2005b). The offered comments are personal and often add more to the relationship between the writer and readers than to the rhetorical development or propositional content. In other words, asides "express short dialogues between the writer and the reader" (Markovic 2013, 44) that are meant to establish rapport.

Appeals to shared knowledge such as *naturally* seek to position readers within "apparently naturalised boundaries" of disciplinary understandings (Hyland 2005b, 183). The notion of "sharedness", according to Hyland, refers to instances where writers ask readers to recognise something as familiar or accepted by use of explicit markers such as *obviously*. Hyland (2008, 10-11) elaborates that shared knowledge relates to

> constructions of solidarity that ask readers to identify with particular views and in so doing construct readers by assigning to them a role in creating the argument, acknowledging their contribution while moving the focus of the discourse away from the writer to shape the role of the reader.

Hyland (2009) says the use of appeals to shared knowledge is less imposing than either questions or directives, and less directly personal than reader pronoun. He adds that by using such forms writers are getting into their texts to address readers as members with the same background knowledge and interests, posing themselves as someone who has something in common with the readers and can make the same connections. Writers propose that what they are saying is true by using strategies of appeals of shared knowledge (Markovic 2013).

Directives instruct the reader to perform an action or to see things in a way determined by the writer, hence managing the reader's perspective in a way. They are signalled mainly by the presence of an imperative, for instance, *consider, note* and *imagine*; by a modal of obligation addressed to the reader, for instance, *must, should* and *ought*; and by a predicative adjective expressing the writer's judgement of necessity or importance, for instance, *It is important to understand ...* (Hyland 2005b, 184). Directives direct readers to engage in the following three main kinds of activity: textual acts that direct readers to another part of the text or another text (*see chapter three, section 3.5*); physical acts that direct readers on how to carry out some action in the real world (*heat the mixture*); and cognitive acts that instruct readers how to interpret an argument, explicitly positioning readers by encouraging them to *note* or *consider* some argument or claim in the text. (Hyland 2005b, 184)

Lastly, questions are used to directly involve readers in the writer's argument as a strategy to arouse their interest and to persuade them to take the writer's viewpoint (Hyland 2008). There are research questions found in the introductory chapter or section and rhetorical questions found in other parts of a text such as the discussion of findings. Research questions are basically meant to manage the structure of an argument and the flow of information, whereas rhetorical questions are meant to get the readers' interest and engage them in the argument. Curry and Chambers (2017, 333) also identified "framing the discourse" as a major role of questions in English and French linguistics research articles in their study. Framing questions are questions that steer the research.

### 2.4.2.2 Appraisal engagement markers

Given that Appraisal engagement resources were discussed in the previous section (§2.3.3) as part of the Appraisal stance resources, only a brief explanation will be given here. According to the Appraisal system, all the resources that enable writers to position their voices in relation to other voices and alternative views (considered to play an active part in an argument) fall under 'Engagement' (Martin & White 2005, 97). The resources of dialogic positioning through engagement include 'Disclaim', 'Proclaim', 'Entertain' and 'Attribute'.

Disclaim occurs when the writer disagrees with the cited propositions and this may be marked by negation words such as *don't*. Proclaim occurs when the writer rules out alternative positions by using agreement words such as *of course* and endorsing verbs such as *demonstrated*. Entertain happens when the writer accommodates dialogic alternative positions by using such phrases as *it seems*. Attribute happens when the writer assigns the reported proposition to the cited author, thereby entertaining alternative views. This is achieved through acknowledging the reported source, for example, *X said ...* or distancing oneself from it, for example, X *claims that ...*. (Martin & White 2005, 97). While disclaim and proclaim are dialogically contractive (monoglossic) resources that do not entertain alternative views, entertain and attribute are dialogically expansive (heteroglossic) resources that accommodate alternative views.

## 2.5 Empirical studies

In the final part of this chapter, I am going to discuss empirical studies on citation, stance and reader engagement in undergraduate, postgraduate and published writing. The three discursive resources are also covered under the terms metadiscourse and appraisal in some studies. This part of the review is meant to illuminate how various researchers have applied some of the theoretical frameworks or approaches discussed in the previous sections and to discuss their findings. While some studies dealt with one or two of the aspects, others dealt with all three. Some researchers conducted cross-genre studies, comparing texts from two or more different levels such as postgraduate texts and research articles and some did cross-disciplinary studies, comparing disciplines such as sciences and humanities. In addition, some studies were done across languages, for example, comparing texts written in English to texts written in Chinese. Although citation, stance and reader engagement are very important interactional resources to academic writing at all levels, one would expect to find varying degrees of complexity in how these resources are used when comparing inexperienced and experienced writers.

### 2.5.1 Citation, stance and engagement in undergraduate writing

In this section, selected undergraduate studies are discussed to see how writers at this level use citation, stance and engagement resources. At undergraduate level, students are introduced to academic writing practices, and those who aspire to proceed to postgraduate levels will be groomed for extended academic writing. Therefore, although undergraduate student writing does not feature in this thesis, it is still relevant to review studies conducted on this group of student writers. Several studies have been conducted on undergraduates' use of interactional resources in academic writing, with findings pointing to common practices and problems experienced by these novice writers as reflected in the literature reviewed in this section.

### 2.5.1.1 Citation in undergraduate writing

Research has shown that undergraduate writers tend to use integral citation more than non-integral citation, since the former seems easier to master. Also, attribution has been found to be the most common citation function in undergraduate texts as it is easier and less demanding (Goodier 2008; Lee, Hitchcock & Casal 2018; Sefako-Letsoela 2012; Swales 2014). In a corpus-based study analysing high-rated research papers written by first year L2 undergraduate students in a First Year Writing course, Lee et al. (2018) investigated citation practices from three dimensions: form, rhetorical functions and writer stance. The study used an integrated analytical framework combining Swales's (1990) 'integral' and 'non-integral' citation categories, Petrić's (2007) rhetorical functions and Coffin's (2009) writer stance informed by the Appraisal Engagement. The researchers found that L2 students preferred integral forms of citation in their writing, which they interpreted as having a dialogically expansive effect because the cited propositions are presented

as particular individuals' views. Regarding functions, attribution exceeded by far the other functions, and Lee et al. (2018, 7) consider it as a "default function" for students since it does not require evaluative skills. The other functions identified were evaluation and exemplification, but they had very small percentages. Lee et al.'s study is particularly relevant to my work because it uses an approach that is similar to mine, that is, analysing citation in terms of different dimensions and considering dialogism in RVs. Unfortunately, as acknowledged in the study's limitations, Lee et al. did not conduct interviews with the L2 students to get their perspectives on their citation practices.

In his study of academic papers written by biology senior undergraduates and postgraduates, Swales (2014) also found a slight tilt towards integral citation by undergraduates, and he believes that integral citation is the form that is first introduced to learners for reporting other people's ideas. One interesting observation made by Swales is that, overall, there were more citations in the corpus than the references listed at the end of the papers. However, undergraduates had a higher citation to reference ratio than that of postgraduates. To be specific, the number of citations in the undergraduate corpus was more than double the number of references, while it was only slightly bigger (20%) in the postgraduate corpus. Swales assigned two possible explanations to this difference between citations and references: either the citations were repeated to elaborate discussions, or some students repeated citations due to limited sources. I used Swales' citation-to-reference ratio in part of my qualitative analysis of citations.

In an earlier study, Goodier (2008) employed an integrated framework to analyse and compare professional and student radiology writing. Combining genre and metadiscourse analyses, she examined academic writing of a group of second-year students studying for a diploma in radiography at the Port Elizabeth Technikon. Data for the study were collected from 20 pathology reports produced by the students, and 20 case reports selected from two journals available to the students in the Technikon library. Goodier used the patterns revealed and described in the corpus of professional case reports as a benchmark for examining the student assignments. Goodier adopted the whole metadiscourse framework proposed by Hyland (2005), but she adjusted the categories of the interactional dimension. She moved evidentials (citations) from interactive to the interactional category to capture the role of evidentials in building up the required credibility of the writer in the text (Goodier 2008, 104). Goodier argued that Hyland's (2002b) account of the functions of evidentials, which include providing a context of persuasion, aligning the writer with a particular theoretical approach and building a credible persona, makes them fit better in the interactional category than with the interactive devices. These functions, according to Goodier, seem to provide a strong argument for moving evidentials to interactional resources. Thompson (2008) holds the same view that evidentials are better classified as interactional resources than interactive ones. I agree with these scholars, and adopted the same categorisation for the present study. Goodier found that there were fewer evidentials in the student texts compared to the expert texts and that there were more integral references in the student corpus than in the professional

corpus. It was also observed that each citation in the student corpus generally referred to a single source while many of the citations in the professional corpus referred to multiple sources.

In another corpus-based study, Sefako-Letsoela (2012) compared the use of metadiscourse in senior undergraduate students' research reports from the Arts faculties and the Science faculties at the National University of Lesotho. The study aimed to identify the metadiscourse expressions used by students, their intended functions, appropriateness of use and cross-disciplinary differences between texts produced by students in the arts and in science. The corpus data consisted of the discussion sections of projects written by final-year undergraduate students in six faculties. Sefako-Letsoela (2012) argues that the discussion section is one of the most important sections in any research as it is argumentative and persuasive. Similarly to Goodier (2008), Sefako-Letsoela used Hyland's (2005) whole model of metadiscourse as a framework for data analysis, but unlike Goodier, she did not adjust the classifications. She rather kept evidentials under interactive metadiscourse.

In contrast to the studies discussed above, Sefako-Letsoela found that students generally preferred non-integral citations to integral ones. However, it should be noted that, in her study, the field of humanities was represented by the Department of History, which prefers a citation style with footnotes, and this led to more non-integral citation in the sub-corpus. In all faculties, these citations were used mainly for attribution, a finding similar to previous studies discussed above (see also Mansourizadeh & Ahmad 2011; Petrić 2007). The second function of citations in the corpus was for comparison with other studies, and the third function was to provide support for claims. When compared across faculties, students in the science disciplines used far more citations than their peers in the arts disciplines. Regrettably, Sefako-Letsoela only used a quantitative design yet conducting interviews with students could have offered important insights regarding the reasons behind their citation choices.

Whereas most studies analysed the L2 students' final writing products to understand their citing practices, Ma and Qin (2017) considered factors influencing citation competence in the writing of Chinese students majoring in English to get explanations for their citing behaviour. Students were given reading and writing tasks designed to elicit data for the study. The results revealed that citation competence was influenced to varying extents by the following factors: cognitive proficiency of source use, academic reading proficiency, academic writing proficiency and citing motivation. Although these four factors were found to be interrelated, cognitive proficiency of source use determined by students' responses to a questionnaire on what they know about using sources and how accurately they can identify characteristics of plagiarism had the greatest overall influence on citation competence. Also, it was found that academic reading proficiency had the greatest direct impact on citation competence. Regarding this finding, Ma and Qin (2017, 231) comment that "as far as the development of citation competence is concerned, comprehensible academic reading is the absolute indispensable and solid foundational support for citation". These

results suggest that citing competence is mostly influenced by the students' knowledge of source use and their academic reading skills, implying a need to teach L2 students such aspects.

Mori (2017) took the relatively new direction of doing citation analysis using the Engagement system of the Appraisal framework. She used a semi-ethnographic case study to investigate writings of undergraduates at a university in the US. Focusing on two students (one L1 and one L2), the study traced their writing development regarding source incorporation, identity and language acquisition. It analysed the students' paper drafts to see how they improved in engaging external voices. According to the findings, though both students struggled with academic writing demands, they successfully completed their tasks, despite varied practices. The L1 student wrote good papers incorporating external sources more effectively while the L2 student seemed unsure of how to write a good paper and cited sources less effectively. The L1 student's text tended to be dialogically expansive but the L2 student's text tended to be dialogically contractive. This resulted from the choice of words and reporting forms that the students used as illustrated by the following citations (Mori 2017, 11):

i.   *Kumaravadivelu (2006:165) suggests a movement toward recognizing…[L1]*
ii.  *Kids that are more likely to become bullies are often possessive, aggressive or have low self-esteem (stopbullying.gov). [L2]*

In the first example, the L1 student presented a dialogically expansive paraphrase using a pronounced external voice with the distance verb 'suggests', thus creating room for dialogue with readers. On the other hand, the L2 student used a dialogically contractive paraphrase reported in a passive voice, which made his text "relatively voiceless and monologic" (Mori 201, 12). This finding too suggests that language proficiency has an impact on students' citing competence.

### 2.5.1.2 Stance in undergraduate writing

This subsection discusses the research literature on RVs as well as on other stance markers. The integral citation form incorporates RVs as part of the reporting clause, and these verbs play a significant role in expressing writer stance. Research on RVs has shown that undergraduate students, especially L2 writers, normally display a tendency to use neutral verbs and that they are unaware of the evaluative potential of different verbs (Bloch 2010; Kwon, Staples & Partridge 2018; Lee, et al. 2018; Liardét & Black 2019; Ramoroka 2014). For example, Lee et al. (2018), when investigating writer stance, found that L2 undergraduates preferred verbs such as *state* and *report* with a neutral stance. The two 'conversational' verbs *say* and *talk* featured among the top ten RVs in their corpus. This means the L2 writers mainly took a neutral stance of 'acknowledge' towards their sources, which is in line with the domination of the attribution function of citation. 'Distance' was the second most used stance position, where the writers avoided being responsible for the reliability of the cited information. Ramoroka's (2014) study of L2 first year student writing at the University of Botswana also found that students used more informing verbs that simply

reported the cited propositions in a neutral manner and lacked persuasiveness. This, according to the researcher, implies that attribution of cited content to its source was the main motive behind the undergraduates' reporting.

In a comparative study of L1 and L2 student essays and research articles, Liardét and Black (2019) found *state*, *suggest* and *according to* among the top five RVs used in their undergraduate corpus. While L1 and L2 use of RVs was similar, with *state* on number one, the research article writers had *suggest* as the most frequently used verb. Liardét and Black motivated their inclusion of the phrase *according to* among RVs with the fact that it is used to introduce information attributed to another source in the same manner as RVs do. For this same reason, I also considered *according to* to be an RV. Liardét and Black (2019) used the Appraisal Engagement framework to analyse stance associated with RVs and found that students mostly employed the 'Attribute: acknowledge' resources to take a neutral stance, using such verbs as those stated above. Campbell (2016) also compared L2 Chinese students' and published authors' academic business writing. Business research article introductions and L2 student essay introductions were analysed to identify the features that permit writers to convey stance through RVs in *that*-clauses. More verb occurrences were recorded in the published corpus than in the novice one, and the verb *argue* ranked first in both corpora. The second most frequent RV was *say* for student writers and *suggest* for expert writers. This, again, shows students' tendency to report with a neutral voice whereas expert writers are inclined towards evaluation. More insights about students' use of RVs could have been gained if the researchers in these studies had conducted interviews.

Regarding other stance markers, there is a general consensus in the literature that undergraduate students have difficulties with explicitly projecting their voice using different rhetorical devices such as hedges and self-mention. One common finding in studies on writer stance is that undergraduates avoid the use of first-person pronouns, preferring instead to use passive voice to achieve an impersonal tone and to sound objective (Hyland 2002a; Sefako-Letsoela 2012). Hyland (2002a) used expert writers' practices as a guideline to study the use of personal pronouns by undergraduates. He analysed 48 project reports written by Hong Kong senior undergraduates in six fields. Hyland observed that undergraduate students tended to either underuse writer pronouns or to use them 'unadventurously', referring to their texts rather than their ideas. Overall, there were only 12 writer pronouns per essay in the student corpus, and this did not vary much across different disciplines. These results diverged from Hyland's (2002a) first part of the study, where it was found that research article writers employed more personal pronouns (22 per paper) to clearly project their voice in their arguments. Cross-discipline comparison showed that the humanities and social sciences writers tended to use more of the resources than the hard sciences ones. They used three-quarters of all the personal pronouns in the research article corpus.

In addition to conducting a quantitative analysis, Hyland (2002a) interviewed the students and their subject supervisors. The interviews suggested two main reasons for avoiding first-person

pronouns. Firstly, many students believed the pronouns were inappropriate in academic writing since they were forbidden to bring personal opinions into their texts. This reason was also raised by L2 undergraduate Primary Education students in Ramoroka's (2017) study conducted at the University of Botswana. Secondly, there seemed to be cultural reasons for preferring the passive as the interviewees indicated a cultural tendency to avoid self-mention, which is associated with self-praise. In the students' essays, first-person pronouns mainly occurred when writers acknowledged assistance, stated their purposes or explained procedures. However, Hyland believes that by avoiding the use of writer pronouns and failing to stand behind their interpretations, these upcoming writers run the risk of not establishing an effective writer identity and failing to create a convincing academic argument. Hyland's study singles out self-mention as an interactional marker. This provides a better understanding of students' perceptions of taking stance, which is also investigated in my study.

Students in Sefako-Letsoela's (2012) study confirmed Hyland's (2002a) observation in that they rarely employed self-mention and they all preferred the passive voice. They used the inclusive *we* in their discussions to describe the claims that they expected their supervisors to accept. However, when compared, the arts cluster used self-mention more than the science cluster, as was the case in Hyland's (2002a) research. In her comparison of the use of interactional metadiscourse by undergraduate students from Media Studies and Primary Education, Ramoroka (2017) found that Media Studies students used slightly more counts of self-mention (especially the pronoun *I*), than Primary Education students. The resources were more prevalent in their introductions. On the other hand, Primary Education writers preferred noun phrases such as *the researcher* to mention themselves.

Hedges have also stood out in metadiscourse research results. In Goodier's (2008) study, one of the most noticeable differences in interactional features was that there were more hedges in the expert texts compared to the student texts. Though the devices were used quite frequently in both corpora, there was a difference in hedging in the conclusion sections of the two corpora. Professional writers were more likely to make claims and to provide recommendations in the conclusion than student writers, and in doing so understood the importance of using caution in making claims. Similarly, Sefako-Letsoela (2012) found that hedges were amongst the most frequent metadiscourse categories in her corpus, which she interpreted as an attempt by students to avoid making overstatements. In Sefako-Letsoela's study, modal verbs constituted the highest percentage of hedges, followed by lexical verbs, adjectives, adverbs and nouns in that order. Regarding functions, students used hedges when reporting and explaining their results, providing suggestions on why particular situations obtained. They also used hedges when drawing implications from their results, speculating on what was likely to happen. A very small difference was observed in the frequency counts across the two disciplines of arts and sciences. Ramoroka (2017) also found that hedges were the most used feature in both groups, but that Media Studies students nevertheless tended to use more hedges than Primary Education students.

Regarding boosters, Sefako-Letsoela (2012) found that this category consisted of adverbs (with the highest frequency of 52%), followed by adjectives, nouns and verbs in that order. Regarding functions, students used boosters to make their opinions sound more convincing and, in some cases, to highlight their confidence in their methodologies. At cross-disciplinary level, findings revealed that students in the arts disciplines used more boosters than those in the science disciplines. In Ramoroka's (2017) case, there were more boosters in Media Studies than in Primary Education and they featured most in the argument part and conclusion. Regarding attitude markers, only five were found in Sefako-Letsoela's (2012) corpus and they were also very rare in Ramoroka (2017), an indication that the students rarely expressed their attitude towards their propositions.

Overall, there was a higher use of interactive metadiscourse in Sefako-Letsoela's study than interactional metadiscourse, and this she interpreted as an indication of the students' awareness of their writing as they organised their texts into coherent pieces. On the other hand, she interpreted low frequencies in the use of interactional metadiscourse as a sign of students' reluctance to "explicitly intrude into their texts and make explicit self-reference…or engage their readers as participants in the ongoing discussion" (Sefako-Letsoela 2012, 215). But in my view, this could also be an indication that using interactional metadiscourse is more difficult for undergraduates. This finding is one of the reasons why I aim to discover how NUL postgraduates and on the other hand research article writers manage these seemingly demanding writing practices.

At this point, I present an example of studies that have investigated stance taking in undergraduate writing using the evaluative meaning options offered by the Appraisal system. Mei (2007) used the Engagement subsystem of Appraisal to compare undergraduate writing in terms of students' competencies, investigating what constitutes effective argument and ineffective argument for pedagogical purposes. She investigated the use of evaluative resources in high- and low-rated undergraduate geography essays written by L2 first years at the National University of Singapore. The study aimed to understand the undergraduates' writing practices and the possible markers' expectations, as revealed by the grades awarded to the essays and the markers' comments. Mei found that essays with low marks had a higher frequency of clauses stated as bare assertion and that the contractive option of 'proclaim: pronounce' was used more often, which resulted in propositions presented in a too assertive manner. This contracted space for dialogue with readers. Writers of essays with high marks, on the other hand, tended to engage more and were likely to present their propositions in a dialogically expansive manner. These writers also used more contractive options of 'proclaim: endorse', especially when they were in agreement with cited propositions to support their claims. This summary points to the fact that the use of evaluative language resources to take a stance contributed significantly to the grades awarded to the studied writers and that expanding and contracting dialogic space are critical practices that need balancing to produce effective arguments. This suggests a need to teach students the different linguistic resources available to them and how to effectively use them in their arguments.

### 2.5.1.3 Reader engagement in undergraduate writing

Undergraduates rarely engage readers as reflected by scarcity of reader engagement markers in their texts. This practice is partly due to their genre type that limits their freedom to directly address readership. Nevertheless, when they do, they tend to use more directives and avoid reader pronouns (Hyland 2001b, 2009; Sefako-Letsoela 2012). Focusing on one metadiscourse aspect, Hyland (2009) conducted a study on reader engagement, an aspect that he felt was under-investigated, in a corpus of 64 project reports written by final year Hong Kong undergraduates and he interviewed students in eight disciplines. The corpus was searched for items in his five categories of engagement features (reader pronouns, shared knowledge, personal asides, directives and questions) using WordPilot 2000. The target features occurred about once every two pages or so in each report, and this shows how rare the features were in the student corpus. The scarcity of engagement markers was also evident in other studies, for example, in Sefako-Letsoela's (2012) case, there were only three instances of engagement and all of them were directives. Concerning this result, she concluded that these markers are not a feature of undergraduate student writing. Similarly, Goodier (2008) found that undergraduate writers made very little effort to engage their readers compared to experts, and Ramoroka (2017) found engagement markers to be rare in both Media Studies and Primary Education texts (but when compared, inclusive pronouns and questions were used more often by Media Studies students than by Primary Education students).

Hyland (2009) found that directives were the most frequent devices used to initiate reader participation in the student texts, comprising 45% of all features. In cross-discipline comparisons, directives were mostly used by students in hard sciences while questions and inclusive pronouns were most frequent in the more discursive soft sciences. Hyland then compared the undergraduate writers with research article writers and found that students significantly underused reader pronouns. As stated earlier, this could be partly explained by the fact that the two groups were writing in different genres. Hyland thinks that the relative scarcity of reader pronouns means that students are often taught to avoid them and the interviews he conducted with some of the students confirmed his thoughts. On the use of questions, Hyland noticed that questions in the research articles functioned to establish a research niche, strongly convey a claim, express an evaluation and suggest further research (Hyland 2009, 118). As for the students, they were more careful, using far more polar questions and avoiding the more sophisticated alternative forms. They mainly used questions to organise their argument, with almost 70% of all questions in the report framing the text and guiding the reader through it. The students typically used the introductions to set out their research questions, with over 80% of the texts containing questions to focus the paper.

Even if directives were the most used devices in Hyland's student corpus, he observed that many L2 students were reluctant to use them since they would imply claiming authority, which would negatively affect their work that had to be assessed by their supervisors. Students thus tried to be cautious not to directly instruct the reader how to comprehend an argument. When it comes to

appeals to shared knowledge, most of the students were unwilling to use devices that directly lead the reader into acknowledging some community-specific perceptions. Lastly, it was observed that personal asides were rare in undergraduate reports but were also relatively uncommon in research articles.

Literature reviewed in this section has shown some common trends in the writing practices of undergraduates that provide useful insights. However, there is a tendency by the researchers (except Hyland) not to use mixed-methods designs, leaving out the qualitative aspect of interviews. When citing sources, novice writers tended to use more integral than non-integral citation and they cited mostly for attribution. Also, they tended to use RVs conveying a neutral stance, noticeably used hedges but avoided self-mention, preferring passive voice and noun phrases. Lastly, undergraduates rarely engaged readers in their arguments, but when they did, they mostly used directives. Overall, the writing practices summarised here show that the undergraduates' texts were not as evaluative and engaging as the experts' texts. Such writing practices could negatively affect students' performance at postgraduate level if nothing is done to address the identified weaknesses, and this level is the focus of the next section.

## 2.5.2 Citation, stance and engagement in postgraduate writing

Research has been done on the practices of citation, stance and reader engagement in postgraduate writing, as exemplified in this section, where I discuss studies that raise issues most relevant to my study.

### 2.5.2.1 Citation in postgraduate writing

The research literature has indicated a general tendency to use integral citation in MA writing, though it is not as pronounced as it is in the undergraduate texts, and some genre-based and discipline-based variations have been observed in comparative studies. It appears that citation integration in postgraduate writing has not received much attention from scholars. While studies such as Jalilifar and Dabbi (2012) and Zhang (2008) have done fairly detailed analyses of citations (specifically author integration), studies such as Hyland (2010) have dealt only partially with the subject.

Jalilifar and Dabbi (2012) analysed citation in the Introduction sections of applied linguistics MA dissertations written by Iranian students. They used Thompson and Tribble's (2001) framework for integral and non-integral citation to analyse data. The researchers found that MA writers used almost twice as many integral as non-integral citations. Writers in this study tended to use integral citations with the name of the author appearing in the subject position. Jalilifar and Dabbi explained this finding as an indication that MA writers tend to just report previous research, instead

of evaluating it. Verb controlling citations seem to be the easiest and most obvious ways of incorporating sources into one's writing (Jalilifar & Dabbi 2012).

In a different linguistic context, Zhang (2008) conducted a comparative study investigating similarities and differences in reporting between Chinese MA dissertations by native speakers of Chinese and English MA dissertations by native speakers of English, from social sciences and physical sciences. The study used two corpora collected from online resources of selected universities. Each corpus consisted of 40 dissertations. Zhang examined the Introduction and the Literature review chapters only, arguing that this is where most of the reporting takes place. This argument might be valid, however, I feel there is also a significant amount of reporting in the methodology and the findings and discussion chapters. In the present study, I therefore examine the whole text except preliminary pages and references.

Zhang's citation findings indicated that in a cross-language comparison, English writers generally used more citations than Chinese writers. There were more integral citations in the English corpus than in the Chinese one, but writers in both languages used non-integral citations more frequently than integral citations. In cross-discipline comparisons, there were more integral citations in dissertations in the social sciences and more non-integral citations in the physical sciences. This result agrees with previous research findings (e.g. Hyland 1999).

The last part of Zhang's (2008) study dealt with citation functions. Zhang used Bloch and Chi's (1995) functions of 'background', 'support' and 'critical' and found that the function of background was used most frequently in both corpora. This function is related to that of attribution in that the cited information is presented uncritically. In the Chinese corpus, support was the second most frequent function and critical the third. In the English corpus, however, the critical function was the second most frequent function. It is surprising that the English corpus had more critical citation than support because the former is usually the least used. It would have been more informative if Zhang had explained the possible cause for this difference; whether it was cultural or something else. Conducting interviews with some of the writers could have provided more information about functions which may not be visible in the texts. As observed by Petrić (2012, 105), "uncovering writers' perspectives on and reasons for citing is especially important when writers are L2 students, because such information may provide pedagogically useful insights into the types of difficulties L2 student writers encounter when writing from sources". Nevertheless, I find Zhang's work informative, especially in its analysis of citation functions and RVs.

In a cross-disciplinary study conducted on MA dissertations and PhD theses written in the social sciences (politics) and natural sciences (materials science) to investigate roles and functions of *that*-clauses in constructing stance in academic writing, Charles (2006a) also examined the writers' citing practices. She found that, overall, writers in the fields of politics and materials science used citation almost equally frequently, indicating its importance in successful academic writing. She

found integral citation to be more frequent than non-integral citation in both the social science and the natural science writing, but this surprising finding resulted from the fact that she was only looking at citations in 'that'-clauses, which would naturally favour integral citation.

Hyland (2010) investigated citation as part of metadiscourse. He conducted a comparative study to explore the role and distribution of metadiscourse features in a corpus of 240 dissertations and theses by Hong Kong L2 MA and PhD students. He also conducted interviews with student writers to complement the corpus data. Hyland's aim was to investigate how L2 writers negotiated the interpersonal demands of the postgraduate dissertation genre. It was found that PhD writers used citations four times as much as their MA counterparts. This demonstrates the significance of citation as a crucial element of persuasion in academic writing that helps to provide justification for arguments and to display originality. Citation also enables PhD students to present their knowledge of the field's literature in a way acceptable to their disciplines (Hyland 2010). Hyland observed that the PhD students in his study were very aware of their audiences and they raised the issue several times in the interviews. On the other hand, MA writers seemed less concerned about establishing their academic credentials, and Hyland argued that this is because most of them already had careers and therefore were not aspiring to pursue an academic career. Unfortunately, Hyland did not further investigate citation, for example, to see how integral and non-integral forms were used in his postgraduate corpus.

In a more qualitative study conducted at a Canadian university, Badenhorst (2019) analysed citation in Education masters students' literature reviews. Similarly to Ma and Qin (2017), Badenhorst went beyond citation forms to better understand students' citing behaviour through exploring the complexity of citation and intertextuality. She used three aspects described here to see how students were coping with academic writing demands. 'Transgressive intertextuality' views plagiarism positively to the extent that it is a coping mechanism used by students who are still learning how to cite properly. 'Intertextual engagement' is a developmental stage where students learning academic writing tend to paraphrase those sentences that they understood instead of dealing with the whole text message. And 'Discursive intertextuality' is a stage where students demonstrate an understanding of discourse requirements of their fields, showing a scholarly identity (Badenhorst 2019, 270-272). An example of practices by students at this stage is group citation, which is regarded as a reflection of the writer's ability to think critically, analyse and synthesise sources. Badenhorst observed that intertextuality in the students' texts reflected how they tried to find their way through the complexity of academic writing. Between the two case studies presented, one was more inclined towards the non-integral form and group citation and the other tended to use integral citation. As demonstrated in the next paragraphs, while the former writer demonstrated an understanding of "discursive citation practices", the latter struggled to transit from her teacher identity to "perform a scholarly identity" (Badenhorst 2019, 272).

The extract below is a conclusion provided by case study one at the end of his paper where he made an evaluative statement in which he clearly projected his voice as he discussed the reviewed literature to achieve a scholarly identity:

> *It should be noted that each of the studies analysed for this review reflect the findings related to a variety of different situations. All studies involved the integration of Digital Game-Based Learning for the purpose of investigating either effectiveness, challenges and issues or theoretical framework. Each study, however, used different games in different learning contexts with relatively small samples of participants. While this causes difficulty in making generalized inferences it does provide a broad scope indicating the potential benefits of game involvement for a variety of learning purposes.* (Badenhorst 2019, 272).

On the other hand, case study two showed a weaker scholarly identity. Her voice identified more with her role as a teacher as reflected by "the chatty, conversational style of her writing and through the meta-discourse that reveals her strong views as a teacher" (Badenhorst 2019, 272). For example,

> *As technology grows, schools are forbidden to grow with it, and that is a contradiction to what a school is supposed to be in the first place. ... I believe social media should be allowed in schools...*

A few studies specifically focused on citation functions in postgraduate writing. For instance, using a similar approach to Mei (2007), Petrić (2007) compared rhetorical functions of citations in eight low-grade and eight high-grade MA dissertations written by L2 students in the field of gender studies. All citations were identified from the corpus and the analysis of functions was done using a framework adapted from Thompson's (2001) classification, namely *attribution*, *further reference* and *example*. New functions that emerged from the corpus were also added to the list. The study results showed that attribution was the most frequently used function in both corpora, though considerably higher in the low-graded theses, suggesting knowledge display as one of the citation functions in student writing. This finding is similar to that of undergraduate studies discussed in the previous section. However, non-attribution functions such as 'application', 'establishment of links between sources' and 'evaluation' were found to be considerably more prominent in high-graded dissertations. A relationship was also established between citation use and dissertation rating, which indicated the "importance of effective citation strategies for students' academic success" (Petrić 2007, 238). For example, rhetorically more sophisticated citation types requiring analytical skills were used more often in high-grade dissertations than in low-grade ones. Skillful use of citation for purposes like negative evaluation as illustrated below was rare in low-graded theses. The extract below is a comment that came after a direct quote and it shows a cautious criticism that begins with positive evaluation, followed by a "mild critical remark" *does not say much* (Petrić 2007, 250).

*Although I consider this definition to be useful, I think that due to its general character, it does not say much about the effects of gender in social and institutional relationships. (Anezka, A).*

It was observed in the study that the tendency of lower-rated writers to describe rather than to analyse cited information shows that low grades were given for work displaying knowledge of the subject but lacking analytical interpretation. Petrić (2007, 248) points out that postgraduate writers are expected to manage "knowledge transformation, which requires novel associations to be established among different sources and links to be made between sources and one's own findings". According to Petrić, at MA level, this knowledge transformation skill seems to be generally found in top grade dissertations only. I take this to imply that dissertation writers who receive lower grades were still following their undergraduate writing practices.

Fairly recently, Appraisal theory has emerged as an alternative approach to analysing citations where "language resources for quoting and reporting voices external to those of the author are brought together within the category of engagement: attribute" (Coffin 2009, 169). In her study of one outstanding Film Studies PhD thesis, Coffin analysed evaluation in citations and RVs in Chapters 1 and 4. She justified her small corpus with the fact that she aimed to conduct a comprehensive and qualitative analysis, whereby all forms of referencing are analysed from a number of dimensions. Coffin's analytical framework was discussed in detail in section 2.1.4, and therefore, it is briefly summarised here. The dimensions included textual integration to see how reported propositions were included in the writer's text. Reported information could either be paraphrased (assimilation), quoted directly (insertion), or be a combination of assimilation and insertion forms. The analysis also identified author integration, whether citations were integral or non-integral, and investigated dialogic effects of these forms (whether they tended to expand space or contract it). Lastly, the study dealt with rhetorical functions of citations in the thesis. I adopted aspects of this multi-dimensional approach in my analysis of citations.

Regarding citations, Coffin found that overall, there were more integral than non-integral citations in both chapters. However, a comparison of the chapters revealed a striking difference in the use of non-integral citations. There were almost three times as many citations in Chapter 4 than in Chapter 1. The non-integral form in this case enabled the writer to uninterruptedly interweave the cited sources while developing her argument. It was also found that, unlike the usual social sciences practice of paraphrasing and summarising, the thesis displayed a relatively high use of direct quotations. Coffin thought this practice could either be characteristic of Film Studies writing or student writing. Regarding textual integration, the writer used more assimilated citations than insertions, as well as a mixture of assimilations and insertions. Assimilation was, however, more prevalent in Chapter 4 where non-integral citation was also prevalent. Commenting on this pattern, Coffin stated that the combination of more assimilation and non-integral citation tends to contract dialogic space in the argument. Regarding functions, Coffin (2009) identified several, and one of

them, *providing rationale or niche for the thesis*, was prominent in Chapter 1. Creating research space was achieved by locating gaps in the previous research and using contest verbs such as *overlooked* (Coffin 2009, 188). In Chapter 4, two related functions were identified as prevalent, namely 'using authorities to reinforce the writer's position' and 'quoting evidence (e.g. statistics) from various sources to support a claim'.

Some studies focused specifically on citation challenges faced by L2 postgraduate students. For example, Jomaa and Bidin (2017) analysed literature reviews in L2 doctoral students' proposals to investigate difficulties faced by the students in citing and integrating information from sources into the literature review. They interviewed six students from Arab countries who were enrolled in Information Technology (IT) department of a Malaysian university. The study findings revealed that the L2 writers encountered language difficulties in paraphrasing and proper academic writing. They found it difficult to take a stance toward the cited information because this involves evaluation. Besides lack of evaluative vocabulary, it was difficult for some students to express their personal opinions regarding the reported information because IT is a fact-based discipline. For instance, one student stated that in computer science they do not use '*may*' because there is no room for possibility since they only talk about facts, results and mechanisms. This statement suggests that the student was thinking about hedging and criticising as the only evaluation, but boosting and endorsing could also be done to show approval of those facts. Since at proposal level the students were just beginners, insufficient knowledge of subject and source use disadvantaged them as well. In addition, they did not receive enough guidelines as to which referencing style to use. All these challenges negatively affected the students' academic writing proficiency.

Reporting on her investigation of the use of direct quotations in L2 MA gender studies theses, Petrić (2012) noted that failure to properly contextualise direct quotations may lead to L2 students' failure to produce effective quotations, for example, failing to introduce and comment on their quotations. The study findings revealed that the writers of low-rated theses mostly relied on clause-based quotations that were easy to incorporate into their texts, while high-rated theses mostly featured fragments, showing that their writers made an effort to paraphrase, integrating the cited material into their arguments. However, some of the quotations were regarded unnecessary and some (especially the ones on terminology) were repetitive. Direct quotations in high-rated dissertations were found to be more than twice as frequent as direct quotations in the A-graded writing of undergraduate and postgraduate students in the MICUSP corpus, as reported in Ädel and Garretson's (2006) study. Petrić partly explained this difference with the fact that 80% of the papers in the MICUSP corpus were written by L1, with only 20% of the papers written by L2 students, compared to his study where all texts were L2. These results show that the students in Petrić's study were trying to acquire a new discourse which led to quotation overuse. They also indicate lack of expertise in both low-rated and high-rated L2 students. At postgraduate research levels where English is the main language of education, the challenges confronting L2 English

students are often much the same as those that L1 students have and this is why in this study I focus more on the metadiscoursal than the propositional level.

## 2.5.2.2 Stance and reader engagement in postgraduate writing

In this subsection, research literature on RVs, other stance markers and reader engagement markers used in postgraduate writing is reviewed. While evaluating RVs in academic texts, some scholars have considered how the use of RVs assist writers in creating a stance. Certain trends have been identified, for instance, it has been found that, generally, MA writers exhibit a tendency to use neutral verbs and some studies have shown challenges faced by students in using RVs (e.g. Jalilifar & Dabbi 2012; Loan & Pramoolsook 2015). Using Hyland's (2002) classification of RVs, Loan and Pramoolsook (2015) investigated RVs used in literature reviews of TESOL MA dissertations written by Vietnamese students. They found that, in the denotative category of verbs, 'discourse act' verbs constituted more than half of all the verbs in the corpus. The second most frequent category was 'research act' verbs, while 'cognition acts' verbs were the least used. In the evaluative category, the writers tended to use non-factive verbs, a practice which Loan and Pramoolsook interpreted as a result of the MA writers' supposition that in the literature review, they simply report on previous research without showing the relevance of their own work in the field.

In a comparative study, Zhang (2008) analysed RVs using Thompson and Ye's (1991) framework. He found that generally, writers of English texts used more RVs than writers of Chinese texts. It was also found that, while the English writers used more textual and research RVs, the Chinese writers used more mental verbs. Overall, textual RVs had the highest frequency across the two corpora, with research verbs in the second position. This outcome resonates with the findings of Loan and Pramoolsook (2015) discussed above. Regarding evaluation in RVs, it was observed that English writers expressed their stance toward reported propositions more often than Chinese writers. In both languages and disciplines, non-factive verbs were the most used and counter-factive verbs were very rare, as was the case in Thompson and Ye (1991).

Using the same framework as Zhang (2008), Jalilifar and Dabbi (2012) analysed stance in RVs used by applied linguistics MA writers. They found that non-factive verbs had the highest frequency in their corpus, and through these verbs the writers expressed a neutral stance towards cited propositions. However, the same writers tended to use factive verbs in verb controlling citations, which presented the cited information as true. Jalilifar and Dabbi (2012) concluded that MA writers seemed unaware of evaluative potential of different RVs and as a result, they tended to focus on using appropriate grammatical structures for reporting instead of evaluating the reported information. In another study, Coffin (2009) used the 'engagement: attribute' resources to investigate writer stance towards cited propositions as reflected by RVs. A framework of 'acknowledge', 'distance', 'endorse' and 'contest' verb categories was used to analyse the corpus.

The PhD student writer in Coffin's study used acknowledge (neutral) as her primary stance, which was achieved through acknowledge verbs. Distance and endorse stance verbs were infrequent. Contest RVs were very scarce; they only appeared where the writer was reviewing literature to establish a research niche.

In the same work reported on earlier, Charles (2006a) looked at RVs used in *that-* reporting clauses. She states that besides the choice of source, the choice of RVs also contributes to the construction of the writer's stance. Charles' observation regarding RVs agrees with earlier studies such as Thompson and Ye (1991) and Thomas and Hawes (1994). However, she created her own four groups of verbs that she named according to the verb with the highest frequency in her data as follows. 'Argue' verbs are concerned with writing and other forms of communication (e.g. *argue, suggest, propose*). 'Show' verbs are concerned with indicating a fact or situation (e.g. *show, demonstrate, reveal*). 'Find' verbs are concerned with coming to know or think about something (e.g. *find, discover, observe*). Lastly, 'Think' verbs are concerned with thinking, including having a belief, knowing or understanding something, for instance, *think, assume* and *feel* (Charles 2006a, 502).

Charles (2006a) found that 'Show' and 'Argue' verbs revealed interesting results. In the materials sciences, non-human subject occurred in conjunction with a show verb, with a frequency almost seven times that of argue verbs. In politics, almost equal numbers of 'show' and 'argue' occurred. Charles comments that the extensive use of a show verb is particularly characteristic of writing in materials. She adds that the fact that "materials primarily constructs knowledge through experimentation and politics through text-based procedures" can help to explain the differences shown in the use of the two verb groups (Charles 2006a, 502). Whereas Charles created her own RV categories as described above, I created mine based on the potential dialogic effects of the verbs in my corpus as will be explained in Chapter 3 (§ 3.4). Even though Charles did not compare the two postgraduate genres (MA and PhD) as I do in the present study, her work provides useful insights.

Regarding other stance markers, literature has shown that overall, MA writers use less interactional metadiscourse than PhD writers. Hyland (2010) found that doctoral students used more interactional metadiscourse markers than MA students, for example, they used four times as many self-mentions. Hyland comments that the moments at which these writers chose to "metadiscoursally announce their presence in the discourse, moreover, were where they were best able to promote themselves and their individual contributions" (Hyland 2010, 135). By contrast, MA students avoided self-mention, most likely to achieve formality and objectivity. In another study on metadiscourse, Lee's (2009) cross-linguistic comparison revealed that most of the L1 English MA students had a positive attitude towards the use of self-references in their writing. But the majority of L2 English MA students, who had recently taken an academic writing course, had

a negative attitude towards the use of the first-person pronoun *I* in their writing since they were discouraged from using it during the course.

Charles (2006a) identified self-sourced reports, where the source is the writer, which is similar to Hyland's (2002a, 2005a, 2010) self-mention. Self-sourced reports are marked by a noun or pronoun subject referring to the writer, such as *I* and *the author*. Charles found that there were more self-sourced reports in materials science than in politics (social sciences). This finding diverges from previous studies such as Hyland (2002a; 2005a) who found more self-mention in soft disciplines where students are encouraged to show a personal perspective. Commenting on the use of noun phrases (e.g. *this author*, *the present author*) for self-mention, Charles (2006a, 508) writes: "Although the referent is clearly the writer, the self is viewed as if it were another person. This establishes distance between the writer as an individual and their role as a writer-researcher" and the practice helped to construct objectivity.

Hedges have been found to be the most used interactional resources in postgraduate writing. This finding echoes studies that focused on undergraduate writing. In Hyland's (2010) study, hedges were by far the most frequent interactional devices in the corpus, and Hyland explains that this shows the significance of differentiating fact from opinion in academic writing and the need for academic writers to evaluate their propositions in a manner likely to be acceptable and persuasive to their readers (Hyland 2010, 132). Similarly, Lee (2009) found hedges to be among the three most used devices in his corpus, but hedges were used less frequently by L2 English writers compared to L1 English writers and published writers. Hyland and Tse (2004) explored the use of metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate dissertations and theses and found that while the PhD writers used more hedges and boosters than the MA ones, the latter used slightly more attitude markers than the former.

Some researchers used Appraisal as an alternative approach to investigate evaluative language and stance in postgraduate writing. For instance, Xie (2016) applied the whole Appraisal framework to analyse evaluation in 25 Chinese MA dissertations' literature reviews in Applied Linguistics. Xie found that in the Engagement category, there were more monoglossic than heteroglossic expressions. The researcher interpreted this high frequency of monoglossia as a possible strategy used by Chinese students to persuade readers, by showing confidence in their propositions. Nevertheless, by turning down alternative views, the Chinese students made their claims sound too assertive and imposing to the reader. However, since this seems to be a common challenge for most inexperienced writers (see e.g. Mei 2007), Xie postulated that being too assertive could be a characteristic of inexperienced student writing.

Furthermore, with regard to heteroglossic subcategories, Xie found that the writers used more dialogic expansions than dialogic contractions. Since the difference was not all that substantial, it was interpreted as the writers' effort to strike a balance between authoritative and cautious voices.

'Acknowledgement' resources were used most frequently and 'Distance' resources were the least used. This distribution showed that the neutral stance was the most preferred, and according to Xie, this complies with the academic discourse community norm reported by other scholars (e.g. Hyland 2005; Petrić 2007).

As for reader engagement, it has also been investigated in previous studies, though to a lesser extent than citation and stance. The literature (e.g. Hyland 2010; Hyland & Tse 2004) suggests that overall, engagement markers are the least used resources in postgraduate writing. Generally, directives are the most used devices, but resources such as personal asides and reader pronouns are not very common in postgraduate writing. This finding is in line with what has been reported for undergraduate student writing. The reason for avoiding reader pronouns also seems the same, namely that students are not encouraged to directly address readers. In addition, cross-genre comparisons have revealed that MA writers directly engage readers less often than PhD writers (Hyland and Tse 2004).

Literature reviewed in this section has shown that MA writing practices show many similarities with undergraduate writing practices. For instance, MA writers tend to use integral citation and neutral verbs that lack evaluation. Besides, they involved readers in their arguments sparingly. In contrast, PhD writing practices are indicative of greater academic writing maturity. PhD writers show awareness of the importance of evaluating cited propositions, taking an explicit stance and engaging readers in their arguments. Nevertheless, it was observed that, as was the case with the undergraduate studies, most researchers tended not to use both quantitative and qualitative methods in their studies. My study takes a multi-methods approach to avoid this shortfall.

### 2.5.3 Citation, stance and engagement in research articles

Several studies examining and comparing research articles and student genres have already been reviewed in the first two sections and therefore, for citation, those dealing only with research articles will be reviewed here. Though the reviewed studies for stance and reader engagement compare students' writing with research article writing, the review focuses more on research articles.

### 2.5.3.1 Citation in research articles

The research literature has shown that factors such as language background and discipline influence research article citation practices. One study that compared citation in articles written in L1 and L2 English language contexts is Okamura (2008). The work was briefly discussed under development of citation analysis (§ 2.1.2), and here more details are provided. The study investigated the use of citation forms in 30 scientific articles in biology, chemistry and physics. Okamura noted that previous studies had paid little attention to citation variation in different

linguistic contexts. He therefore compared the use of citation forms in the scientific texts written in L1 contexts of universities in English speaking countries with those written in the L2 context of Japanese universities. In the study, citations were categorised as 'integral' and 'non-integral' and the integral category was further sub-divided into subject position, non-subject (passive) position and noun phrase (e.g. introduced by *according to*).

Okamura found, as was reported for cross-discipline writing earlier, that writers of hard sciences texts used more non-integral citations than integral citations. A significant difference was observed in the subject location in a sentence. Writers in the L1 context used integral citation mainly in the non-subject position (as exemplified in the extract below) and made fairly limited use of the subject position.

> *In contrast to the observations made on the material stored at room temperature, we observed a significant increase in the TBARM content in tissues stored at 4C similar to that reported by Zhang et al. (1995).* (Okamura 2008, 74).

Because non-subject and noun phrase options enable the subject of a sentence to be impersonal, these locations can be chosen to support objectivity principles of science. In contrast, writers in the L2 context used almost much more integral citation forms in a subject position, thus they overused this position. This practice is similar to that of the L2 MA writers in Jalilifar and Dubbi's (2012) study, as discussed above. Okamura's study provides insights on citation forms used by academic writers in L2 contexts, which is particularly relevant to my study.

Besides citation forms, researchers also investigated functions of citation in research articles. Harwood (2009), like his predecessor Brooks (1986), moved away from the common practice of analysing texts and conducted an interview-based comparative study on citation practices of computer scientists and sociologists. Twelve informants (six from each department) were interviewed, commenting on citation in their recent publications. Harwood chose an interview-based study because it "necessitates seeing citation through the informants' eyes in order to provide insider accounts" (Harwood 2009, 500). The informants were not provided with functional categories or checklists, but through semi-structured interviews were allowed to ascribe as many functions to each citation as they wished.

Findings of the study revealed 11 citation functions and the terminology used to describe each function was derived from the informants' words rather than from the researcher. The listed functions were s*ignposting*, *supporting*, *credit*, *position*, *engaging*, *building*, *tying*, *advertising*, *future*, *competence* and *topical*. Even though Harwood used interviews only for data, his findings agree with earlier studies (§ 2.1.3), that there are many different motives behind citation in academic writing. There is an overlap in terminology and points of agreement in the explanations given by Harwood and other authors for some of the functions. For example, Harwood's

*signposting* is similar to Thompson and Tribble's (2001) *reference*, and the *supporting* function is present in the frameworks of Harwood (2009), Thompson and Tribble (2001), and Bloch and Chi (1995). The difference in terminology illustrated in the first example may be a result of Harwood's decision to derive function names from the informants' descriptions. The 11 citation functions and their uses can be summarised as follows (Harwood 2009, 505-508):

i. *Signposting* citations direct readers to other sources to help less informed readers, to keep the argument on track and to save space.

ii. *Supporting* citations help writers to justify the topic of their research, the methodology employed and the writer's claim.

iii. *Credit* citations acknowledge other authors for ideas or methods.

iv. *Position* citations allow writers to "identify representatives and exemplars of different viewpoints, explicate researchers' standpoints in detail and trace the development of a researcher's/field's thinking over time" (Harwood 2009, 505).

v. *Engaging* citations happen when writers critique their sources by either arguing that an otherwise good source has a minor weakness or by openly criticising it as wrong.

vi. *Building* citations are found when writers use sources' methods or ideas as foundations which they then develop further.

vii. *Tying* citations align writers with other sources' methodology, specify schools of thought or debates on specific issues.

viii. *Advertising* citations alert readers either to the writer's earlier work or to the work of others.

ix. *Future* citations serve to map out future work planned by the writer such as taking the research further.

x. *Competence* citations help to underscore writers' expertise by displaying knowledge of their field and their ability to conduct research.

xi. *Topical* citations allow writers to show that they and their research were concerned with topical issues in the field.

The study results showed that overall, *position*, *support* and *credit* functions were relatively frequent across both disciplines, but the *engaging* function was far more frequent in the sociology texts. Harwood found that while the computer scientists used citations to direct their audience to further reading more often, the sociologists' texts featured more cases of critical citations. He also observed that the type of paper written by the informants, the anticipated audience and the publishers resulted in intra-disciplinary differences. Over half of the citations in both fields were said to have more than one function. Besides demonstrating the multifunctional characteristic of citations, this finding could be indicating application problems that may arise from a categorising scheme that has too many overlapping functions. Merging some categories to minimise the classes would be better and would make application of the classes feasible. Despite the classification shortcoming and that its data was based solely on interviews, the study is particularly informative. It demonstrates the importance of conducting interviews with postgraduate writers about how they see the functions of their citations, instead of relying only on the researcher's interpretations.

Hu and Wang (2014) investigated cross-disciplinary and cross-linguistic variations of citation features using an integrative analytic framework that included multiple aspects of citations in terms of dialogic expansion or dialogic contraction. The framework, adopted from Coffin (2009), had three dimensions: 'writer stance', 'textual integration' and 'nature of the source'. The explanations of the three dimensions are similar to Coffin's explanations given earlier (§ 2.1.4). Hu and Wang analysed a corpus of 84 Chinese and English research articles from applied linguistics and medicine. Data analysis revealed cross-discipline differences in author integration, with applied linguistics articles using more integral citations than the medical ones, and the latter using substantially more non-integral citation than the applied linguistics ones. This result resonates with previous studies, including Hyland (1999) and Okamura (2008). Since integral citation gives prominence to the reported author, showing human agency, it tends to expand dialogic space. On the other hand, non-integral citation tends to contract dialogic space by foregrounding the reported propositions and obscuring human agency, as the authors' names are put in parentheses at the end (Hu and Wang 2014). Regarding textual integration, assimilation citations were the most common in the whole corpus, but when compared, they featured more frequently in the medical research articles than in the applied linguistics ones. Commenting on the dialogic effect of assimilation, Hu and Wang argue that when a citation is assimilated, the cited proposition is absorbed into the writer's text and presented as a fact. This form of reporting makes it difficult for the reader to advance an alternative view, thus it tends to contract dialogic space. Insertion citations and insertion + assimilation citations had very low frequencies overall. According to Hu and Wang, both forms tend to expand dialogic space to an extent, in that the reported propositions are categorically assigned to individual authors as their views, not facts. A cross-linguistic variation was realised in that, in applied linguistics texts, the English sub-corpus had significantly more insertion citations than the Chinese one. Overall, the applied linguistics articles mostly used citation forms that inclined towards dialogic expansion, but medical articles used citation forms tilted towards dialogic contraction. This result is in line with the postgraduate one observed by Hyland (2010) that hard sciences tended to use non-integral citation (contraction), but soft sciences tended to use integral citation (expansion).

### 2.5.3.2 Stance and reader engagement in research articles

This subsection discusses RVs, other stance markers as well as reader engagement markers. The discussion begins with RVs, but since the majority of previous studies focusing on experienced writers investigated both stance and engagement, these components of metadiscourse (as they occur in research article writing) are discussed simultaneously.

Researchers have also examined RVs in research articles (e.g. Campbell 2016; Liadert & Black 2019). Liardét and Black (2019) conducted a comparative study of student texts and research articles as described above (see § 2.5.1). They found that *suggest*, *show*, *find*, *examine* and *focus* were the top five verbs in the research article corpus. Although *suggest*, *show* and *find* were found

in both corpora, they were used more frequently in the research articles than the student corpus. Those three verbs have an evaluative potential; whereas *suggest* portrays the writer's tentative position regarding the cited proposition, *show* and *find* have an endorsing effect. The tendency to use such verbs suggest that the writers were aware of the need in academic reporting to show one's position in relation to the cited proposition. This view is supported by the absence of *state* and *according to* (that featured most in the student corpus, signalling a neutral stance) from the top ten RVs used in the research articles. Regarding the dialogic effect of the writers' choice of verbs, about half of the verbs used in the published corpus were those that contracted dialogic space. On the other hand, students tended to use verbs with an expansive effect. In a different study, Campbell (2016) found more RVs in the introductions of business articles than in the introductions of argumentative essays written by EAP students. The verb *suggest*, which had the highest frequency in Liardét and Black (2019), was the second most used verb in business research articles in Campbell's study, showing the experts' tendency to practice caution in their reporting.

The discussion now focuses on stance and reader engagement. Using a corpus of 240 research articles from eight disciplines and interviews with experienced writers from the disciplines, Hyland (2005b) examined the interactional resources of metadiscourse, treating stance and engagement as separate but complementary entities. It was found that stance markers were about five times more common than engagement features. Also, hedges were by far the most frequent features used by writers in the corpus, a result that indicated the necessity to distinguish between fact and the writer's viewpoint, and to present one's propositions cautiously and consider fellow discipline members' views (Hyland 2005b). Another interesting finding from Hyland's study, as has been noted, is that "it is clear that writers in different disciplines represent themselves, their work and their readers in different ways, with those in the humanities and social sciences taking far more explicitly involved and personal positions than those in the science and engineering fields" (Hyland 2005b, 187).

The model of stance and reader engagement offered by Hyland (2005b) was found applicable by various other researchers. Taki and Jafarpour (2012), using a corpus of 120 research articles from the fields of chemistry and sociology in two languages, Persian and English, investigated and compared how English and Persian academics express their stance and the strategies they use to involve readers in their arguments. Their results showed that writers of sociology papers in both languages used more stance markers than writers of chemistry papers, mostly through hedges and attitude markers. They explained this pattern with the fact that in the social sciences, writers have more freedom to project their evaluative voices into their texts than in natural sciences, where the writers are only reporting some scientific facts (Taki & Jafarpour 2012, 163).

Among the nine elements of stance and engagement used in the study, hedges were the most frequently occurring item in all the English articles, especially sociology. However, in Persian, attitude markers were the most frequently employed item in both chemistry and sociology, with

the latter showing a greater frequency. With respect to cross-linguistic comparison, English writers used self-mention as a stance marker far more than Persian writers. This indicates that unlike English writers, who appear to aim to strengthen an argument through use of first-person pronouns, Persian academics seek to highlight the subject under discussion rather than themselves (Taki and Jafarpour 2012, 164). Regarding engagement markers, in cross-discipline comparison, Sociology corpus had more frequencies than Chemistry corpus. And in cross-linguistic comparison, the English sociology corpus had more frequencies than the Persian one.

Similarly to Taki and Jafarpour, I consider the whole research article in my study corpus, making room for the possible discovery of new patterns in sections that were previously neglected by other researchers. Another similarity is that of applying the interactional model of Hyland (2005b), with stance and engagement features as two ways of investigating interaction in academic writing. However, my study differs from Taki and Jafarpour, in that theirs is a wide cross-discipline comparison between chemistry and sociology articles whereas mine is a narrower cross-discipline comparison between two humanities disciplines.

Another study that applied Hyland's (2005b) framework is Navidi and Ghafoori (2015). The study investigated the distribution of stance and engagement features in the introduction and discussion sections of research articles in the field of applied linguistics. Stance markers were used most frequently. Specifically, more hedges were used, followed by boosters, attitude markers and self-mention respectively. Regarding engagement markers, more occurrences were identified in the discussion than in the introduction sections. The most prominent markers in this category were 'personal asides'. This finding is very unusual because other studies in the same area (e.g. Hyland 2001b, 2005a. 2009; Sefako-Letsoela 2012) have found personal asides a rare feature in academic writing. Commenting on this matter, Hyland (2001b, 560) says that it has to be acknowledged that personal asides are uncommon even in research articles. The second most used markers were 'shared knowledge' with an equal number of occurrences in each section. Navidi and Ghafoori's study mostly reveals findings in line with its predecessors (e.g. Hyland 2005a; 2005b; 2010; Taki & Jafarpour 2012), which all confirmed the importance of stance and engagement markers in research articles, with the former featuring more frequently than the latter.

Paltridge (2020) also applied the engagement component of Hyland's (2005b) framework to a genre related to research articles. He examined engagement strategies used in review reports of papers submitted to the journal *English for Specific Purposes* for peer-reviewing. Data were analysed in four categories based on recommendation types, namely 'accept', 'minor revision', 'major revision' and 'reject'. Similarly to other academic writing genres, directives were the most frequently used devices, however they were far more frequent in the 'accept reviews' than in the other categories of recommendation. Unlike in other academic genres, directives were mainly used as an instruction to perform an action rather than as a textual act which guides readers through the text. While some directives (e.g. imperatives) gave straightforward instructions, others were

indirect or were hedged (e.g. *The author **could** tone down the claim.*) such that the instructions became less obvious to the reader. Also, directives that are meant to enhance the reader's understanding (e.g. *consider*, *suppose*) were rare. Reader pronouns, though not used by many reviewers, were the second most frequently used devices and they appeared in each of the review categories to directly engage readers. Appeals to shared knowledge were the third most frequent. They were employed by a few reviewers and were not used in the 'accept reviews'. Questions had a still lower frequency and their functions seemed to vary with context: for example, in one instance a question was found to be acting as an interesting aside, but at the same time indirectly instructing the author to effect a change. Personal asides were rare in the data set, with two instances only.

Paltridge's study relates to my investigation of reader engagement since it analyses reader engagement in review reports of research articles. Research article is the highest academic genre that I am also analysing in my study. Reader engagement is probably the resource that is most sensitive to genre as indicated by the differences between review reports and the academic genres noted in this section. The inclusion of such literature enhances our understanding of how reader engagement resources are used in different contexts to interact with readers.

As in studies that focused on postgraduate writing, the Appraisal system has been used by scholars (as an alternative to metadiscourse) to analyse evaluative language in research articles too (Chang & Schleppegrell 2011; Lancaster 2014; Loi et al. 2016; Pascual & Unger 2010). For example, Chang and Schleppegrell (2011) used a framework drawn from the Engagement resources and also Swales' (1990) move analysis to analyse introductions of research articles from the field of education. The study aimed to identify and make explicit the ways used by published writers to construct texts using expansive and contractive resources to help novice writers improve in this area. Data analysis demonstrated patterns of expanding options, showing how 'Attribute' and 'Entertain' resources project an authorial voice that accommodates alternative views; and patterns of contracting options, showing how 'Disclaim' and 'Proclaim' resources project an endorsing authorial voice that contracts space for dialogue. Long extracts taken from the corpus, like the example below, were analysed to illustrate how the expansive and the contractive resources were employed in the introductions. The extract is the last paragraph of an introduction where the authors presented their thesis. They used expansive resources to accommodate alternative views when giving reasons why setting future goals may fail, and contractive resources to present their solution.

> Text A: Entertaining resources:
> *[Paragraph V] **It is argued** (expand: attribute) that future goals **may** fail to motivate school achievement for two main reasons (expand: entertain). Because students **may not** perceive a clear positive connection between doing well in school and success later in life (expand: entertain); and because they **may not** experience future goals as internally driven or self-set*

*goals but rather as (expand: entertain) externally controlled or imposed from the outside. Extending recent motivational research to minority students' school achievement, **we conclude** (contract: proclaim) that future goals **will** motivate achievement in multicultural classrooms (contract: proclaim), **provided that** schools and families succeed in fostering internal regulation along with positive perceptions of instrumentality (contract: proclaim).* (Chang & Schleppegrell 201, 144).

It was demonstrated in the study that the various engagement meanings included in each statement would contribute to the overall meaning constructed in the text. For example, in the extract above, entertaining and proclaiming resources work together to construct the thesis that the authors intend to develop in their article. Chang and Schleppegrell suggested that upcoming writers could be explicitly taught the kind of analysis presented in the examples, and so used a pedagogic approach similar to that of Mei (2007) and Petrić (2007).

The research literature reviewed in this empirical studies section was mainly comparisons of the use of citation, stance and reader engagement resources in postgraduate texts and research articles. The comparisons were cross-genre, cross-discipline and cross-language, and some studies explored more than one dimension, cutting across the undergraduate, postgraduate and research article genres (e.g. Mansourizadeh & Ahmad 2011; Lee 2009). While most cross-genre studies compared two levels of writers, cross-discipline studies tended to focus on wide (rather than narrow) cross-discipline comparisons. My study seeks to add to the small number of studies (e.g. Ramoroka 2017) that compared writers from more closely related disciplines, as I compare three genres (MA, PhD and research articles) from two humanities disciplines (Development studies and English and Linguistics). Also, my study examines citation integration, writer stance and reader engagement in terms of a particular integrated analytical framework. This framework combines on the one hand a modified interactional metadiscourse basis for quantitative analysis with, on the other hand, aspects of the systemic functional linguistic Engagement system for the qualitative exploration of potential dialogic effects of the metadiscoursal features studied.

## 2.6 Conclusion

The literature reviewed in this chapter has shown that a significant amount of research has been conducted on citation, stance and engagement. Researchers have proposed several typologies to facilitate analysis of these essential academic writing practices. Among the 'applicable' typologies are Hyland (2005a, 2005b), Hu and Wang (2014) and Martin and White (2005), which I have selected to form an integrative analytical framework for my study as explained in the next chapter.

There is evidence in the reviewed literature that knowledge about citation practices has improved quite significantly through research over the past years although there was a tendency among researchers to focus more on the RA genre than the MA and PhD ones. A lot more information

has also emerged on stance and engagement practices, especially under metadiscourse typologies, but again with an inclination towards RAs. No attempt, to my knowledge, has been made to conduct a thorough analysis to compare citation, stance and engagement practices in three genres of two disciplines in the same study using an integrated framework such as mine. In addition, except in a few studies such as Hyland (2002, 2005b, 2010) and Lee (2009), researchers rarely combine corpus-based analysis with semi-structured interviews to better understand the three practices from the writers' point of view. My study, therefore, attempts to address this gap in the existing literature by applying an integrated framework to analyse data quantitatively and to an extent qualitatively, while also making use of semi-structured interviews.

# CHAPTER 3: METHODOLOGY

## 3.0 Introduction

The literature reviewed in the previous chapter has revealed the extent of research conducted so far on citation practices, stance construction, reader engagement and dialogic engagement in academic writing, and highlighted the importance of these practices in different academic genres. Citation is one distinguishing feature of academic writing, an important practice that all aspiring academics should strive to master since it enables writers to sharpen their arguments in various ways. Writers must also be in a position to express their attitudes towards their propositions as well as to engage readers in their arguments, in terms of both the use of reader engagement markers and dialogic engagement effects. The present study aims to examine the extent to which the use of these resources differs in MA, PhD and research article texts in the disciplines of DS and EL. This should lead to a better understanding of how writers use the resources to construct arguments that are in line with the requirements of their genres and disciplines.

Chapter 3 explains the details of how the study was conducted. It begins by explaining the study's research design. This is followed by a description of the pilot study that was conducted to test the feasibility of the study, and the research methods that were adopted following the pilot study. The chapter then discusses the approaches that informed the study's analytical framework and details of the particular integrated analytical framework adapted for the study. After that, the chapter describes how data were collected and analysed and the statistical techniques that were used to analyse the quantitative data. Lastly, the chapter addresses ethical issues.

## 3.1 Research design

According to Terre Blanche, Durrheim and Painter (2006, 34), a research design is "a strategic framework for action that serves as a bridge between research questions and the execution or implementation of the research". Yin (2009, 19) explains the term as follows: "...colloquially a research design is an action plan for getting from 'here' to 'there', where the 'here' may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered and 'there' is the set of answers". Yin concurs with the previously cited authors that a research design is a plan of how the research is going to be conducted. Du Plooy (2001, 81) adds that a research design indicates "who or what is involved and where and when the study will take place". These definitions show that designing research entails revisiting one's research questions to see how one needs to collect data to address one's research questions (Mathews & Ross 2010). The common thread in these definitions is that a research design is a map that guides the researcher on how to go about the research activities.

The two main paradigms of research are the quantitative and qualitative approaches. Dörnyei (2007, 24) defines quantitative research as research involving "data collection procedures that

result primarily in numerical data which is then analysed primarily by statistical methods" and qualitative research as research involving "data collection procedures that result primarily in open-ended, non-numerical data which is then analysed primarily by non-statistical methods". Dörnyei (2007) agrees with Du Plooy (2001) that quantitative and qualitative approaches differ mostly in their methods of reasoning, their objectives and modes of data collection and analysis. Du Plooy says that a quantitative approach uses deductive reasoning, while a qualitative approach is inductive. Du Plooy explains the objectives of the two research approaches as follows:

> The objectives of a quantitative design are to predict, describe and explain qualities, degrees and relationships, and to generalise from a sample to the population by collecting numerical data. The objectives of a qualitative design are to explore areas where limited or no prior information exists and/ or to describe behaviours, themes, trends, attitudes, needs or relations that are applicable to the units analysed (Du Plooy 2001, 82).

In addition to the difference in the objectives outlined in the above quotation, researchers have also identified differences in the data collection and analysis methods as already indicated in Dörnyei's definitions. For instance, while quantitative researchers collect data in the form of numbers and uses statistical analyses, qualitative researchers analyse collected written or spoken language by identifying and categorising themes (Terre Blanche et al. 2006; Imenda & Muyangwa 2006). Concerning the same matter, Welman et al. (2005, 8) note that one of the differences between the two approaches is that "the purpose of quantitative research is to evaluate objective data consisting of numbers while qualitative research deals with subjective data that are produced by the minds of respondents or interviewees." These writers classify quantitative data as objective and qualitative data as subjective, pointing to the traditional (but now often contested) belief that quantitative research is more scientific, and that qualitative research is meant to support quantitative research.

The research paradigms discussed above have traditionally been used separately, especially before the mid-twentieth century, but researchers have since realised that a combination of the two approaches can yield better results. As a result, mixed methods have emerged as the 'third methodological movement' (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011). Debates have for the past few years also been about an appropriate name, with terms such as 'multimethod research', 'hybrids', 'methodological triangulation' and 'mixed research' proffered by researchers (Creswell & Plano Clark 2011; Dörnyei 2007).

Mixed methods research is relatively new in the field and several definitions have been provided for it by different writers. Creswell and Plano Clark's (2007, 5) definition is most appropriate to my study:

> Mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of inquiry. As a methodology, it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of

the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process. As a method, it focuses on collecting, analysing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone.

This definition presents both theoretical and practical dimensions of the mixed methods approach, highlighting its chief premise of being able to facilitate better comprehension of research problems.

The present study adopted a mixed methods approach whose basic principle, according to Dörnyei (2007, 43), is that of helping to minimise "the inherent weaknesses of individual methods by offsetting them by the strength of another". Besides tapping into the strengths of both the quantitative and qualitative methods, the mixed methods approach facilitates a multifaceted analysis of complex issues. For this reason, it is well suited to my investigation of the academic writing practices in different genres from different perspectives.

This study's research questions guided the collection and analysis of data. The questions, listed in Chapter 1, are repeated here for easy reference:

1. To what extent do writers of the MA dissertation, PhD thesis and research article (RA) genres differ in their use of interactional metadiscourse resources in their texts?

    a. Are the citation forms used differently?
    b. Are the reporting verbs and other stance markers used differently?
    c. Are the reader engagement markers used differently?

2. To what extent do writers in the Development Studies (DS) and English and Linguistics (EL) disciplines differ in their use of interactional metadiscourse resources?

    a. Are the citation forms used differently?
    b. Are the reporting verbs and other stance markers used differently?
    c. Are the reader engagement markers used differently?

3. How do writers of MA dissertations, PhD theses and research articles (RAs) in the disciplines of Development Studies (DS) and English and Linguistics (EL) use interactional metadiscourse resources to achieve their communicative goals?

    a. What rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects do the citation forms associate with?
    b. What rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects do the reporting verbs and other stance markers associate with?

c. What rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects do the reader engagement markers associate with?

A quantitative approach is appropriate for addressing questions 1 and 2 of this study. To answer these questions, the study classified, identified and quantified citations, RVs in citations as well as stance and reader engagement markers in the postgraduate and research article writings. The frequency counts obtained were compared to see if they differed according to genres and disciplines. Terre Blanche et al. (2006) observe that good quality quantitative data and statistics allow us to make comparisons of different situations and that the findings of quantitative research can be generalised. Furthermore, the data should be essentially objective. In my study, the corpus linguistic processes of building corpora and processing them electronically facilitates counting of search items and their frequencies and this, to some extent, gives the work objectivity. However, it should be noted at this point that despite the quantitative nature of the corpus data, total objectivity cannot be claimed, as certain aspects of the study (such as classifying expressions) depended to some extent on personal interpretation.

A qualitative approach was used to address question 3. Interesting patterns of use revealed by the quantitative data were further investigated, with the help of interview responses from the writers. The qualitative data shed more light on the citing, stance taking and reader engagement practices of the investigated writers. This was partly achieved also by examining in more detail sample extracts of discourse from the study corpus.

The mixed methods research design has been used by other researchers in the field of academic writing, including Lee (2009), Hyland (1998a, 2005a, 2009 & 2010) and Sheldon (2013). Lee did a cross-linguistic and cross-genre analysis of texts written by native and non-native English L2 writers and professional writers. Besides analysing the texts, Lee interviewed student writers to find out more about their use of metadiscourse. In his research, Hyland combined data collected from written texts (undergraduate reports, postgraduate theses and research articles) and interviews. The interviews were conducted with experienced researchers from various disciplines (Hyland 1998a & 2005a) and were also conducted with L2 undergraduate and postgraduate students (Hyland 2009 & 2010). Sheldon analysed the introduction and conclusion sections of research articles written by English L1, English L2 and Spanish L1 writers to identify the rhetorical and functional features of the texts. To complement the text analysis, Sheldon interviewed authors of research articles to gain a better understanding of the linguistic features she was investigating. Commenting on this approach, Hyland (1998a, 353) says,

> This combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches seeks to provide a thicker account of the discursive activities of these particular groups, allowing the target features to be more clearly interpreted as instances of socially situated practice.

The next section describes the research methodology that was used in my study, drawing on the mixed methods approach discussed above.

## 3.2 Research methodology

This section describes the research methods that I chose for my study, explaining why they are suitable. Since the decision was informed by piloting, the section begins by briefly reporting on the pilot studies conducted before the main study to test its feasibility. It reports on the first and second preliminary pilot studies before giving details of the full pilot study that combined aspects tested in the first two. Then it moves on to the methods adopted for the main study.

### 3.2.1 Pilot study

The main study was preceded by a series of pilot studies that were meant to test its feasibility in terms of research questions and methods and to assist me in deciding which aspects to include. Initially, the study was meant to cover citation and stance in academic writing and so the first pilot study focused on these two aspects. The study was done with a small corpus of one MA dissertation, one PhD thesis and three research articles, with a total of 148 062 words. All the texts were prepared in electronic form, excluding preliminary pages, references and appendices. Using Wordsmith Tools (WST) 6.0 (a text and concordance program) citations, RVs and stance markers were searched for using the classifications provided by Hyland (2005a). Though at this point the analytical framework was not yet fully developed and using Hyland's typology only, it suggested that the study was possible. However, given Hyland's (2005a, 2010) categorisation of interactional metadiscourse as including not only stance but also reader engagement, it was decided that even though postgraduate student writing would probably not contain many reader engagement markers, this supposition needed to be tested. A second pilot study was then conducted on engagement markers using the same corpus that was used for the first one. The results did however provide sufficient evidence to include reader engagement as an analytical dimension that would add to the understanding of academic writing practices at these levels, and so I then conducted my full pilot study involving all three dimensions.

The full pilot study was done with the same corpus used for the first and second pilot studies. This time, all the interactional resources, namely citations, RVs, stance and engagement markers were searched for, using the classifications provided by Hyland (2005a) and Hu and Wang (2014). The classification scheme is described under the integrated analytical framework in section 3.4 (see also fig. 3.2 at the beginning of the section).

It should be noted that only interactional markers in the immediate context of citations were considered in the pilot study, as this was my original focus. In other words, in the pilot study, I

identified only those markers that were used by writers when commenting on the reported information, meaning all concordance lines had to be read in context. Results of the pilot study showed that writers of the three genres used citation, stance and reader engagement to interact with the texts that they cited and with their prospective readers. However, there were differences in frequencies of use of the searched items among the three genres. The different combinations of citation forms they used together with the stance and reader engagement markers they chose resulted in different stance positions as shall be illustrated in the data analysis (§ 3.6). The pilot study tested the suitability of WST for extracting data from the corpus and helped me to discover more examples of interactional markers that I then added to Hyland's list. The value of interviews was also tested with a sample of three postgraduate writers and two supervisors, who were asked questions relating to the interactional markers used in the analysed texts. Overall, the pilot study suggested that the study would be feasible.

### 3.2.2 Research methods

As a result of the pilot study described above, two specific methods were employed to investigate features of academic writing in postgraduate texts and research articles. The methods are a corpus-based approach and semi-structured interviews. At this point, I will briefly define corpus linguistics and distinguish the two major research approaches that it offers namely, 'corpus-based' and 'corpus-driven' to show why I chose the corpus-based approach. Biber (2012, 1) explains corpus linguistics as a research approach that has developed over the past few decades "to support empirical investigations of language variation and use, resulting in research findings which have much greater generalizability and validity than would otherwise be feasible". Biber (2012, 1) explains the two corpus linguistics approaches as follows:

> Corpus-based research assumes the validity of linguistic forms and structures derived from linguistic theory. The primary goal of research is to analyse the systematic patterns of variation and use for those pre-defined linguistic features. In contrast, corpus-driven research is more inductive, so that the linguistic constructs themselves emerge from analysis of a corpus. The primary goal of research is to identify linguistic categories and units that have not been previously recognized.

Corpus-based research studies linguistic variation in naturally occurring discourse, making it possible to identify systematic differences in the use of linguistic variants. One important factor considered by this approach is the "representativeness" of the corpus in terms of size and composition (Biber 2012, 4). A study corpus has to be big enough to accurately represent the distribution of linguistic features, and texts in a corpus must be deliberately sampled to represent the registers in the target field of use. On the other hand, corpus-driven analyses exploit the potential of a corpus to identify linguistic categories and units that have not been previously recognised. The corpus-driven approach proposes that the corpus itself should be the sole source of hypotheses about language and there are no prior assumptions and expectations such as

predefined linguistic features. Researchers using this analysis aim to give comprehensive descriptions that are based on corpus evidence so that even the "linguistic categories" are derived "systematically from the recurrent patterns and the frequency distributions that emerge from language in context" (Tognini-Bonelli and Elena 2001 in Biber 2012, 10). My study is corpus-based because I analyse and describe patterns of use for the predefined linguistic features from metadiscourse and Appraisal Engagement theories.

A corpus-based approach was used to identify and quantify citation, stance and reader engagement devices (from a corpus discussed in § 3.5) in order to describe "the systematic patterns of variation and use" (Biber 2012, 1). The search was guided by preconceived, defined classifications of citations from Hu and Wang (2014) and stance and engagement markers from Hyland (2005a). Using WST, all interactional markers were identified and quantified using search items listed from the guiding sources. As observed by Lee (2009, 128), using a corpus-based approach has several advantages, including making it possible to investigate word usage, frequency, collocation and concordance, as well as utilising both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques to interpret language used in its natural context. The postgraduate texts and the research articles that form the corpus for this study were written in natural contexts when the authors of the texts were not aware that their work would be used as data for research. This adds to the validity of the study findings because there is no chance that the texts could have been produced with some kind of external motive to influence the present study.

The corpus-based approach was complemented by semi-structured interviews that were conducted with a sample of supervisors and postgraduate writers that they supervised. Citing Sewell (2004), De Vos et al. (2005, 287) define qualitative interviews as "attempts to understand the world from the participants' point of view …" According to the cited authors, the researcher aims at gaining a clearer and detailed picture of a participant's beliefs about or perceptions of a particular topic. This method was selected for the present study because it is a way of getting data from a context where one can seek clarification and even probe for more details. In addition, interviews give participants a chance to freely express their views and even give more useful information than what was specified by the interview questions.

By conducting interviews, the intention was to understand the postgraduate writers' perceptions of the three practices under study. Therefore, the interviews aimed at gathering information on the following: the citation forms preferred by the writers; why the writers cited other scholars' work in their writing; and understanding what guided their choices of RVs, stance and reader engagement markers. I also wanted to get the supervisors' views on postgraduate students' writing practices and find out whether supervisors somehow made an input into their students' citation practices and their use of other interactional markers. The combination of the two methods (corpus analysis and interviews) was aimed at enhancing the validity of the findings of the study.

## 3.3 Analytical approaches

Analytical approaches in this context are those conceptualisations that directly contributed to the construction of the framework that was developed for analysing data in this study. The approach taken here is guided by theories of citation analysis, interpersonal metadiscourse and Appraisal. These conceptualisations were discussed in chapters 1 and 2 and so are dealt with only briefly in this section, highlighting those aspects I drew on in developing my analytical framework.

The analytical framework used in this study was derived essentially from adapting and integrating aspects of Hyland's work on metadiscourse (e.g. 2005a; 2005b), specifically with regard to writer stance and reader engagement, with aspects of Hu and Wang's (2014) work, especially with regard to how they crafted a framework for citation using also the Appraisal based research of Martin and White (2005) and Coffin (2009). This section is therefore primarily concerned with these two frameworks.

Hyland's (2005a) interpersonal model of communication offers a significant perspective on academic writing. This model advances the theory that all academic communication is interpersonal because it requires the writer to guide readers through the text and to interact with them, anticipating and responding to their concerns. As indicated in chapter 2 (§ 2.2.2), Hyland divides the interpersonal resources into interactive and interactional, based on their functions. On the one hand, writers guide readers through their texts using interactive resources such as transitions and frame markers. On the other hand, they project their voices into their texts and involve readers in their arguments by using interactional resources such as attitude and engagement markers. It is the interactional resources of this model summarised in Table 3.1 that formed part of the integrated framework that was used in this study. Interactional resources were chosen because they show how writers take a stance towards their own propositions and those cited from sources and also invite readers to participate in the argument construction. Using these resources has been found to be difficult for less experienced writers, which is why they are a major focus area of my study.

*Table 3.1: An adapted model of interactional resources (Hyland 2005a)*

| CATEGORY | FUNCTION | EXAMPLES |
|---|---|---|
| **Interactional** | **Involve the reader in the argument** | Resources |
| Evidentials | refer to source of information from other texts | *according to X / (Y, 1990) / Z states* |
| Boosters | emphasise force or writer's certainty in proposition | *in fact / indeed / it is clear that* |
| Attitude markers | express writer's attitude to proposition | *important / appropriate / surprisingly / strikingly* |
| Hedges | withhold writer's full commitment to proposition | *may / perhaps / possible / likely* |

| Self-mentions | explicit reference to author(s) | *I / we / my / me* |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Engagement markers | explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader | *refer / note that / see* |

It should be noted here that in my adapted framework evidentials are regarded as interactional rather than interactive resources. The definition of evidentials given by Hyland (2005a) shows that they are the same as citations. Although Hyland listed them under interactive resources, it can be argued that they do not simply guide the reader, but also facilitate the writer's comment on the information being cited. For instance, in the case of integral citations, besides telling the reader the sources of the cited information, the RVs used can carry the writer's attitude towards the cited propositions. For this reason, evidentials in my study were classified under the interactional resources as illustrated in Table 3.1. As noted in Chapter 2, the same concerns were raised by researchers such as Goodier (2008) and Thompson (2008) who in effect suggested the same adjustment.

The six interactional resources in Table 3.1 provided the present study with a well-defined classification scheme of linguistic resources that relate to stance and reader engagement in academic writing. Analysis of the use of these resources will, hopefully, lead to a better understanding of the academic practices of citing sources, expressing stance and engaging readers. It is important to note here that I chose to deal with those interactional resources in two separate categories, stance and engagement; the same manner in which they are handled by Hyland (2005b) (see § 2.3.2). This was done for reasons explained in the next section where I elucidate the components of this study's framework.

Hu and Wang (2014) provide another analytical approach to analyse citation and RVs. Drawing on the subsystem of Engagement from the Appraisal system, Hu and Wang's analytical framework deals with linguistic resources that make it possible for a writer to engage with sources in either a dialogically expansive or contractive way. As illustrated in the diagram below, the framework has three dimensions: writer stance, textual integration and the nature of source.
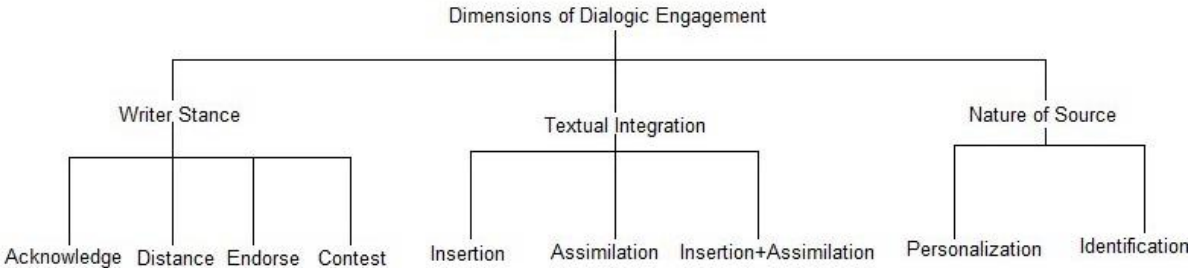


*Figure 3.1: Dimensions of dialogic engagement in citation (Hu and Wang 2014, 16)*

Writer stance is a dimension that includes four positions. These positions can be taken by the reporting writer in relation to the voices, viewpoints and ideas of the reported authors. On the one hand, are 'Acknowledge' and 'Distance' stance positions that are dialogically expansive and accommodate alternative perspectives. Hu and Wang (2014) explain 'Acknowledge' as a stance where writers take neutral positions and make no evaluation of the cited propositions with RVs such as *state*. 'Distance' shows a position whereby the reporting writers distance themselves from the reported propositions using such verbs as *claim.* Unlike Thompson and Ye's (1991) categorisation that did not distinguish between 'acknowledge' and 'distance' verbs, Hu and Wang's categorisation did. For instance, Thompson and Ye categorised the verbs *note* and *claim* as 'non-factive', but in Hu and Wang's categorisation *note* is an 'acknowledge' verb and *claim* a 'distance' verb. To me, this is an important distinction that ought to be considered since it makes a difference when it comes to dialogic engagement in argumentation. On the other hand, are 'Endorse' and 'Contest' stance positions that are dialogically contractive, shutting out alternative views. 'Endorse' communicates a type of stance whereby reporting writers agree with the reported propositions, presenting cited propositions as "authoritative, trustworthy, or convincing" as exemplified by verbs such as *demonstrate* (Hu & Wang 2014, 16). 'Contest' is a stance whereby the writers show a negative attitude towards the cited information by directly criticising or rejecting an idea, using such verbs as *ignore*.

Textual integration covers the extent to which a reported proposition is integrated into the citing sentence, and has three options: 'insertion', 'assimilation', and 'insertion + assimilation'. When writers quote reported propositions directly, that is 'insertion', but when they paraphrase or summarise cited propositions, that is 'assimilation'. These two options can be combined to form the third option whereby writers present reported views or ideas by both quoting and rephrasing, that is, 'insertion + assimilation'. Hu and Wang report that their framework covers both textual integration and the 'integral' versus 'non-integral' citations proposed by Swales (1990), (see § 2.1.2). For the sake of clarity, these writers use 'author integration' to refer to the integral versus non-integral distinction and 'textual integration' to refer to the extent of propositional assimilation. However, they do not put the author integration categories in their diagram, so it is not clear how it fits into their system. To address this shortcoming, I use the term 'citation integration' in my framework as an umbrella term for both author and textual integrations.

The nature of the source dimension describes the cited sources in terms of 'personalisation' and 'identification'. Under 'personalisation' a source can be classified as human (e.g. *Sinclair (1991) examined*), abstract-human (e.g. *the Hirsh and Nation study*) and non-human (e.g. *previous reports*) (Hu & Wang 2014, 17). 'Identification', on the other hand, "distinguishes cited sources in terms of whether they are presented as named or unnamed authors, produced by specific individuals or collective groups, and invested with high or low status" (Hu & Wang 2014, 17). Unfortunately, these authors did not provide examples for this dimension, probably because they did not give it much attention, but my focus was anyway not on these aspects.

It is the first two dimensions of 'writer stance' and 'textual integration' that are relevant to my study. While textual integration directly informs the citation integration dimension of my study, writer stance significantly contributes to the stance dimension of it. However, my conception of writer stance involves aspects of Hu and Wang's approach combined with interactional stance markers proposed by Hyland (2005a), and were discussed in the previous paragraphs.

The Appraisal system also contributed towards my analytical framework. According to Martin (2001), Appraisal can be described as a system of describing and explaining how language is used for evaluating, taking stance and managing interpersonal relationships in speaking or writing. The three main resources of the framework are Engagement, Attitude and Graduation (see § 2.3.1 for more details). Engagement, which is particularly relevant to the framework of this study, is "directed towards identifying the particular dialogic positioning associated with given meanings and towards describing what is at stake when one meaning rather than another is employed" (Martin & White 2005, 97).

The framework that I used focused on the Engagement contractive and expansive resources of the Appraisal system. These resources are described by Martin and White (2005, 99-100) as follows: "...we can categorise utterances according to this two-way distinction, classifying them as 'monoglossic' when they make no reference to other voices and viewpoints and as 'heteroglossic' when they do invoke or allow for dialogistic alternatives". These features entail that, when citing information from other sources, writers can either take stance positions that shut out alternative viewpoints (monoglossic/contractive) or accommodate alternative viewpoints (heteroglossic/expansive) (Martin and Rose 2003; Martin and White 2005). One advantage of the Appraisal approach is that it integrates most features found in the citation analysis and interpersonal metadiscourse theories. A combination of metadiscourse and Appraisal frameworks discussed in this section facilitated an integrated analysis suitable for addressing both the quantitative and the qualitative questions of my study as explained in the next section.

## 3.4 Analytical framework

In this section the details of the analytical framework used in this study are explained and exemplified. The framework is represented in Figure 3.2.
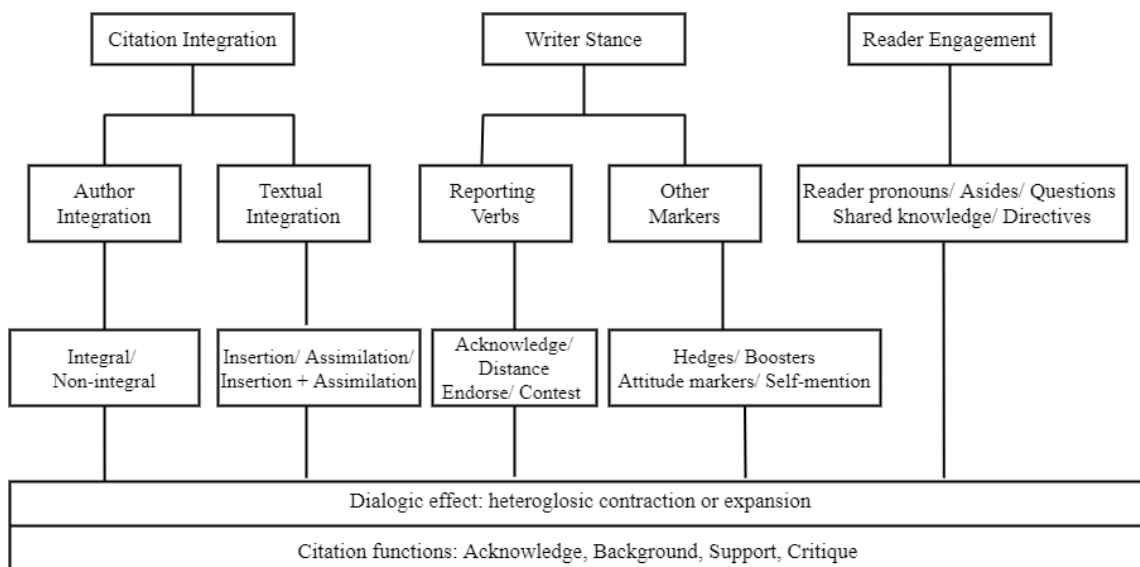
*Figure 3.2: Schematic representation of analytical framework*

Citation integration, writer stance and reader engagement reflect the three main types of interactional metadiscourse, as modified in my study. (It is worth noting that Hyland's (2005b) framework, which separated engagement markers from stance markers, played a significant role in unifying my framework). These resources are sets of features that can to varying extents be identified and counted electronically using corpus linguistic methods (though citation integration in particular requires manual inspection of sites identified as involving citation), and so this approach facilitates the quantitative analyses of the study in Chapter 4. Combining this approach with aspects of the Appraisal system of Engagement, in order to consider the potential dialogic effects of the use of these resources, facilitates a complementary qualitative account (with a particular focus on the postgraduate student writing) in Chapter 5, where functions of citation are also considered. This section briefly describes the three main types of metadiscourse (citation integration, writer stance and reader engagement) before looking at the potential dialogic effects of these resources in texts.

### 3.4.1 Citation integration

Citation integration is the first type of interactional metadiscourse which, following Hu and Wang's (2014) conception, comprises not only author integration but also textual integration. Author integration concerns how the cited source is integrated into the writer's text, that is, whether the source details are part of the reporting statement (integral) or the source details are provided in brackets (non-integral). Textual integration covers how the cited information is integrated into the writer's text and has insertion, assimilation and insertion-plus-assimilation as its resources.

### 3.4.2 Writer stance

Writer stance is the second main area of analysis and deals with the writers' attitude towards propositions and their anticipated readers. Under this dimension are two subcategories, RVs and other stance markers. RVs normally appear as part of integral citations. The verbs, based on the evaluation potential they have, are grouped under the four categories of 'acknowledge', 'distance', 'endorse' and 'contest', while the other stance markers comprise Hyland's (2005a) 'hedges', 'boosters', 'attitude markers' and 'self-mention'.

### 3.4.2.1 Reporting verbs

At this point, I explain how the categorisation of RVs in my study was determined. Apart from Hu and Wang's (2014) Appraisal based guiding framework, I also drew from other sources, especially Hyland's (2002b; 2005a) RVs and stance markers. In the next paragraphs, I explain how I determined the categories, but more attention will be given to the 'distance' group since it is the one most affected by my expansion of existing analytical frameworks.

Acknowledge RVs formed the largest group in my study with 171 items that I got through a combined citation and RV analyses: 156 single-word verbs such as *state*, *note*, *observe*, 14 phrasal verbs such as *point out*, *refer to*, *talk about* and the reporting phrase *according to,* which was included because of its semantic similarity to many RVs and its high frequency of use. The full list is provided in Appendix A. According to Thomas and Hawes (1994, 140), such verbs "are associated with the neutral passing of information from the source author to the reader via the reporting writer. They objectively introduce reports as the writer appears not to interfere with the substance of what is being reported". In the Appraisal context these verbs tend to expand dialogic space since the cited proposition is presented as one author's view among diverse views of authors (Coffin 2009).

The endorse verbs category had 16 verbs that were determined on the basis of my reading of research literature on relevant aspects of the Appraisal system and also verbs that are included in Hyland's (2005a) list of verb boosters. Some were also selected based on the fact that their meanings are similar to those that already existed in the group. The verb list is as follows: *show, find, demonstrate, confirm, reveal, affirm, attest, agree, concur, clarify, corroborate, establish, evidence, know, make clear* and *uncover.* Verbs in this category are dialogically contractive in that when used in reporting statements where writers explicitly support the cited propositions, they discourage the reader from challenging or disagreeing with the cited source and the writer (Coffin 2009, 171).

Contest was the least used verb category with six members namely, *criticise*, *disagree*, *brush off*, *fail*, *ignore* and *overstate*. Verbs in this category are used to directly contest or critique a cited

proposition. Similar to endorse verbs, contest verbs are dialogically contractive because by critiquing the cited information, writers register their unwillingness to entertain alternative views (Coffin 2009; Hu & Wang 2014).

My study adopted a broader distance verb category than is the case in Appraisal system literature, where *claim* is usually the only example (e.g. Coffin 2009; Hu & Wang 2014; Liardét & Black 2019; Martin & White 2005). However, Xie (2019, 11) gave "*claim/purport*" as examples, suggesting that the two are equivalent and Chang and Schleppegrell (2011, 143) added *contend* to *claim* in their Engagement diagram of Distance expressions. This makes *claim* the core verb in the group, one whose meaning shows a clear distancing effect. Close to it is *purport* which is almost its equivalent and *contend* which can also be seen as semantically close. Thus, the Appraisal system writers restrict distance stance to a few verbs with obvious distancing effect, which means that those with a less obvious effect, such as verbs of tentativeness like *postulate* and *suggest*, are included in the very broad category of acknowledge verbs. Given the importance of these types of verbs in academic writing, it was therefore deemed necessary for this study to blend the Appraisal construal of distance verbs with related conceptions to expand its scope. These conceptions were taken from Hyland's (2005a) verb hedges and partly from Hyland's (2002b) 'Discourse' RV category, particularly the evaluative sub-categories of 'doubt' and 'assurance' verbs that are presented in the next paragraph. It could then be argued that distance stance in RVs may be seen as a continuum where *claim* has the highest distancing effect and along the scale are other verbs with different degrees of tentativeness or hedging effects.

I now explain how the rest of the verbs belonging to the distance group were determined. Thomas and Hawes (1994, 138) placed *indicate*, *postulate, propose* and *suggest* under "the Discourse Verbs with the + tentative semantic component". Likewise, Hyland (2002b, 9) suggested that discourse verbs could be divided into 'doubt' and 'assurance' categories and that those expressing doubt about reported propositions could be subcategorised into tentative verbs "(e.g. *postulate …indicate … suggest*) …." I included these verbs in my distance category because their tentativeness makes them fit within the possible continuum of distancing tools used by writers to signal "a tentative stance" towards the reported messages (Loan & Pramoolsook 2015, 205). In his metadiscourse typology, Hyland (2005a) listed, among other hedging resources, the three earlier mentioned verbs from his tentative verbs group together with *argue, claim* and *estimate*. He explains hedging as a rhetorical strategy that writers use to show uncertainty and doubt regarding the propositions that they make. Parkinson (2013, 215) also found *argue*, *indicate* and s*uggest* to be among the frequent *that*-controlling verbs "that are more persuasive, more suggestive, more tentative and more negotiable".

In addition, seven verbs that do not appear in Hyland's hedges and verbs of tentativeness were added to my distance category because their meanings, according to Google dictionary, are similar to those of verbs already in the group. The verbs *assert, insist, maintain* and *opine* were included

because they may be considered as being near the *claim* end of the suggested continuum. Then there are *posit, propound,* and *submit* whose meanings are close to verbs in Hyland's list such as *argue, postulate* and *suggest.* Putting together all the 16 distance verbs discussed here, my distance category list is as follows: *claim, purport, contend, argue, assert, indicate, insist, maintain, opine, posit, postulate, propose, propound, estimate, submit* and *suggest.* This broader application of the Appraisal distance concept was thus thought appropriate to mitigate this limitation of the Appraisal approach.

### 3.4.2.2 Other markers

Hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mentions are the other stance markers that provide writers with more resources to express how they feel about their own ideas and those that they report from other texts. In this study RVs in citing contexts are treated separately from those in non-citing contexts because the former are integrated into reporting sentences and are linked to writers' attitude towards the cited propositions. It should be noted that there is a conceptual overlap between RVs and other stance markers because distance verbs have a hedging effect and endorse verbs have a boosting effect. However, since I used Hyland's lists and counted only those hedge and booster verbs in non-citing contexts, there is no double counting or counting overlap of citation RVs. In fact, under other stance markers the words were counted as hedges and boosters and not as verbs.

### 3.4.3 Reader engagement

The third major area of analysis is reader engagement, which is meant specifically to address and include readers in the writer's argument. This engagement is achieved by using reader pronouns, questions, directives, personal asides and appeals to shared knowledge (see § 2.4.2). In my framework, I treated reader engagement markers separately in order to distinguish between the two levels of interaction. On the one hand, stance concerns interaction between writers and the texts that they cited as well as readers. On the other hand, reader engagement shows writers explicitly interacting with readers of their texts using the markers listed above. Moreover, separating stance and engagement facilitated in-depth and more detailed analysis of these two levels of interaction.

### 3.4.4 Dialogic effects

The first bottom block of the diagram relates to the Appraisal system of Engagement and the potential dialogic effects of the three different interactional resources. Use of the resources can lead to the writer's argument having contractive or expansive dialogic effects. The next paragraphs illustrate how the integrated framework was applied on the interactional resources.

Firstly, Hu and Wang's (2014) Appraisal based categorisation of citation integration and RVs was applied in data analysis as exemplified below.

1. *Geisler (1995) **argues** that party divisions often outweigh gender divisions, in which case even when a 'critical mass' of women is achieved in decision-making bodies, it does not guarantee that they will speak in one voice on issues relating to women.* [DSM2]

2. *His study **demonstrates** that there were alterations such as interchange between finite and non-finite clauses.* [ELM1]

Writer DSM2 used an integral citation with the distance verb *argues* to report a proposition. The reported proposition is a combination of a paraphrase and a direct quote (insertion + assimilation), a combination that can suggest that the writer accepts the reported proposition with reservations. The proposition's factual force is further reduced by the RV that distances the reporting writer from the reported idea. The overall dialogic effect of this combination of citation integration (integral insertion + assimilation) and writer stance (distance) is that of expanding dialogic space. This means the writer is creating room for alternative views. Unlike example 1, example 2 contracts dialogic space by using the endorse verb *demonstrates*, a verb that seems to present the reported proposition as correct. By presenting the cited proposition as a fact, the writer implicitly does not acknowledge dissenting voices.

Secondly, I drew on the interactional resources from Hyland's (2005a) interpersonal model of metadiscourse. These resources enhanced my analysis by showing how writers made use of stance to "influence readers' reaction to the text that they construct" (Charles 2009, 156). In other words, they are used as strategies in either taking expansive or contractive stance positions, hence their usefulness in explaining how writers manage to take their desired stance. Although examples 1 and 2 illustrate RVs, they can also exemplify hedges and boosters when used in non-citing contexts. On the one hand, the reporting verb *argues* in example 1 has a hedging effect on the reporting statement, withholding the writer's commitment to the proposition, thus expanding dialogic space. On the other hand, *demonstrates* in example 2 has a boosting effect on the reporting statement. The verb emphasises the writer's certainty about the proposition, thus contracting dialogic space. These two examples also illustrate the conceptual overlap discussed above (§ 3.4.2.2). Examples of attitude markers and self-mentions are as follows:

3. *…but **more importantly**, as Pratt's (1992) work shows, also enables them to reconstitute themselves as innocent*. [DSRA1]

4. ***My** own position in this debate is similar to that of protagonists.* [DSD1]

The adverb phrase *more importantly* is used in example 3 to express the writer's feeling that Pratt shows an important point that readers should also take note of. The use of such an attitude marker, together with the endorse verb *show*, is meant to draw readers' attention to the reporting writer's

interpretation of the cited proposition, guiding them towards the same interpretation. This move has a dialogically contractive effect in the writer's argument because readers are thus encouraged to agree with the writer's view. The use of the self-mention *my* in example 4 explicitly announces the reporting writer's presence in his argument. This statement comes immediately after a citation and the writer clearly pronounces his stance in relation to the cited proposition and the effect is therefore dialogically contractive.

Thirdly, besides stance markers, interactional metadiscourse includes reader engagement resources which relate to the direct involvement of readers in the writer's argument, as explained in section 3.4.3 above (also see § 2.4.2). This interactional engagement very well complemented Appraisal Engagement by providing a framework to investigate rhetorical devices that directly address the reader who happens to be a stakeholder in text production. In other words, the interactional engagement accounted for the writer's direct interaction with readers, meeting their expectations and putting them in a position to agree with the writer's argument (Hyland 2001b). On the other hand, the Appraisal Engagement accounted for possible dialogic effects of the writer's interaction with readers by expanding or contracting space for alternative views. Examples of how reader engagement markers, particularly their dialogic effects, contributed towards explaining the writing practices under study are given below.

5. *As Daina Green (personal communication) has pointed out to **us**, the relationship between appropriateness and probability of occurrence in Hymes' model is not clear.* [ELRA1]

6. ***Let us** turn now to Halliday's claim that semantic options are the realization of social behaviour options. This view seems to be reductionist in at least two ways.* [ELRA1]

Engagement markers are meant to build a relationship with the reader; as such, the inclusive pronoun *us* in example 5 is used by the writers to express solidarity with readers who happen to be members of the same discourse community as them. In the sentence, readers are being reminded of what the previous source had pointed out, and this is a way of directly involving them in the argument. In example 6, the writers invite readers to shift their focus to a different communicative theory by Halliday after discussing a number of such theories. By using the directive phrase, *let us*, the writers bring in the reader as an active participant in their unfolding text. Both inclusive pronouns and directives have the potential to influence readers into taking the writer's perspective, thus contracting dialogic space. These two examples of interactional engagement markers show how writers interact with readers as they construct their arguments.

In the overall analysis, all the resources discussed in this section worked together to facilitate dialogic expansion and dialogic contraction in texts. It has been illustrated how I drew from the Engagement resources of the Appraisal system for the examination of dialogic effects. Dialogic engagement also enhanced my understanding of how writers expressed their evaluations and attitudes towards propositions and readers. Hu and Wang (2014, 17) describe this discursive

activity as "the Bakhtinian dialog in which the writer is engaging retrospectively with previous authors and communicating prospectively to an audience". The dialogic effect aspect is woven into the whole argument and this is why it is included in the discussions of all the examples cited so far in this section. The selected frameworks were integrated to produce a more effective analytical tool that would help one to better understand the intertwined relationship between form and function of citations in the texts and how the writers interacted with sources and their readers.

### 3.4.5 Functions of citation

I examined the functions of citations in the texts that I analysed using Swales (1990) and Bloch & Chi (1995) as my guiding sources. The guiding framework for citation functions namely, 'acknowledgement', 'background', 'support' and 'critique' is presented in the second bottom block of the diagram. Some of the functions overlap with the RV categories under the writer stance dimension of my proposed framework. Acknowledgement function overlaps with 'acknowledge' stance, support function with 'endorse' stance and critique function with 'contest' stance. This shows that the stance taken by a writer towards a cited proposition reflects the function of that citation. However, stance and citation function play different roles in my analyses, but both can be of relevance when analysing dialogic effect as exemplified below.

7. *...the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA) (2009)* **notes** *that only 45% of respondents in Cape Verde feel that their LGUs are moderately effective mechanisms for citizen participation.* [DSD2]

8. *Galantomos et al.'s (2011) findings* **show** *that the language that is used reflects obvious shift from usual labels such as habit, addiction to unusual ones such as terrorist act when referring to smoking.* [ELD1]

9. *The latest of these studies (Pratchett, et al., 2008)* **has a limited scope and focus** *in that it endeavours to assess the general strengths and weaknesses of the new local government system at the local level.* **It pays little attention** *to the main concern of this study. Besides,* **it does not address** *the broader national context within which the current local government system works.* [DSD1]

By using the acknowledge verb *note*s, writer DSD2 acknowledges the source of information reported without passing any evaluative comment. This could be partly because the cited source is a body of enquiry generally believed to offer factual information that academics mostly accept as correct. Writer ELD1 indicates her attitude of approval towards the cited proposition through the verb *show* in extract 8. In a way she takes the reported finding as correct. In contrast, citation 9 demonstrates the critique function of citations by describing the cited work as having *a limited scope and focus*, and paying *little attention* to important issues, for example. It is clear that the writer cites the source to critique it, exposing its weaknesses. Referring to his study in the comment shows that 'creating research space' (Swales 1990) is another intention of the writer for citing the

source. The fact that this latest study cited by the writer *pays little attention to the main concern* of his study partly justifies the existence of that study. This example also demonstrates the multifunctional nature of citations.

In addition to the functions of citations discussed above, a few other functions such as knowledge display were identified from semi-structured interviews conducted with a sample of postgraduate writers. It should be noted that with more qualitative aspects such as citation functions, analysis extracts would normally exceed a sentence (as in example 9).

## 3.5 Data Collection

This section describes the study corpus and explains how the corpus was built. Three corpora were built from The National University of Lesotho (NUL) Humanities departments of Development Studies (DS) and English. Unlike DS which operates as a single unit, English comprises three units, namely Literature; Theatre & Drama; and Language & Linguistics. The last one (referred to as English & Linguistics discipline (EL) in this study to retain the department name), was selected because of availability of PhD theses. DS was also chosen because it had PhD theses. Before the details of the corpus are given, a brief background of NUL postgraduate programs is necessary to explain how the texts were selected as well as to justify the type and size of the samples.

NUL comprises seven faculties, namely Agriculture, Education, Humanities, Health Sciences, Law, Science and Technology and Social Sciences. I carried out a survey of NUL postgraduates for the past seven academic years (2009/2010 to 2015/2016) to see how I could build a corpus for this study. According to the survey, the university has very few postgraduate programmes, and it also produced very few postgraduates during the period. This was exacerbated by the fact that during the 2010/2011 and 2011/2012 academic years, no postgraduate programmes were offered; they had been suspended due to a restructuring programme. Out of the seven faculties, two (Law and Health Sciences) do not have postgraduate programmes. The remaining five faculties produced postgraduates as follows: Education produced the highest number at Master's level, with 63 Master of Education graduates; Humanities was second with 46 Master of Arts and seven PhD graduates; Social Sciences was third with 33 Master of Science graduates; Agriculture was fourth with six Master of Science graduates and Science and Technology had only one. It should be noted that it is only the faculty of Humanities that produced PhD graduates during the surveyed period.

The corpus for this study was built from Development Studies (DS) texts and English and linguistics (EL) texts from the Faculty of Humanities. The corpus comprised 10 MA dissertations, five from each department; four PhD theses, two from each department; and 40 research articles, 20 from each discipline. It was not possible to have three corpora of the same size due to differences in text type and level. However, an attempt was made to produce fairly balanced corpus sizes. Details of the study corpus are presented in the Table 3.2.

*Table 3.2: Study corpus*

| Genre | Discipline | No. of texts | Text | No. of words | Discipline total | Genre total |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| **MAs** | DS | 5 | DSM1<br>DSM2<br>DSM3<br>DSM4<br>DSM5 | 23,829<br>31,832<br>26,061<br>24,437<br>31,158 | 137,317 | 290,642 |
| | EL | 5 | ELM1<br>ELM2<br>ELM3<br>ELM4<br>ELM5 | 41,929<br>29,426<br>17,099<br>38,928<br>25,943 | 153,325 | |
| **PhDs** | DS | 2 | DSD1<br>DSD2 | 82,800<br>102,544 | 185,344 | 362,996 |
| | EL | 2 | ELD1<br>ELD2 | 56,330<br>121,232 | 177,652 | |
| **RAs** | DS | 20 | DSRAs | 157,774 | 157,774 | 336,806 |
| | EL | 20 | ELRAs | 179,032 | 179,032 | |
| **Grand total** | | | | | | 990,444 |

Dissertations and theses were accessed from the NUL main library and also from the relevant departments. In cases where electronic copies were not available in the library, I liaised with accessible writers to get electronic copies from them. Where I failed to get electronic copies, I photocopied hard copies and scanned them. The whole document was included, except for preliminary pages, references and appendices. All texts were converted to text (txt) format so that they could be used for electronic processing by WST. I included as many recently completed dissertations and theses as possible, hoping that the writers and their supervisors were still available for interviews. The available writers and supervisors became part of the group of participants who were interviewed.

For each discipline, the three most cited journals were identified from the dissertations and theses in the corpora, and articles that were referred to in the dissertations and theses were selected as described in the next section to form the research article corpus. To complement information obtained from the corpus analysis, semi-structured interviews were conducted with a sample of postgraduate writers and supervisors. The samples of postgraduate writers included students who were still in the process of writing their theses so that I could find out more about their experiences

with citing sources, expressing stance and engaging readers in their arguments. The interviews were recorded, with the consent of the participants, so that all the important details of the responses would be captured. Recording interviews was preferred over taking notes because the interviews could be transcribed afterwards at the researcher's pace, with the advantage of replaying the parts that were initially not clear to the researcher. Recording also helped to avoid having divided attention between the interview and note-taking (see Appendix B for interview questions and transcriptions).

### 3.5.1 Sampling

A sample is a subset of the population which is used to conduct research because of the inability of the researcher to test all the individuals in a given population. Sampling is the process of selecting research participants from the entire population (Du Plooy 2001; Terre Blanche et al. 2006). This section explains how sampling was done in the present study.

As indicated by the survey results in section 3.5, the university had a limited corpus from which I could build mine. As a result, availability became a determining factor in the selection of texts. Purposive sampling was partly used to draw samples from postgraduate texts and research articles as detailed in the previous section. Purposive sampling was used to get texts written between 2009 and 2014 to provide a reasonably current account of the citing practices in the three genres under study. Also, this is the period when the PhD theses that were available in the NUL library were written. I also wanted to include texts written on similar or related topics to achieve some level of consistency for comparison purposes (Sheldon 2013). However, I could not use purposive sampling completely because of scarcity of texts, especially the PhD theses. The PhD theses were so few; only seven were available in the Faculty of Humanities. I had to select two from the three that were available in DS. The theses I chose were written during the 2009 to 2014 period but were on different topics of local governance and urban economic development.  For the EL theses, as with DS texts, only the criterion of production period was met. From the four available theses, I selected two written during the required period but on unrelated topics; one on discourse analysis and the other one on morphology. Because I needed to check almost all my corpus searches manually to ensure appropriate categorisation of features in context, I had to limit the size of my corpora. Therefore, only two PhD theses in each discipline were selected.

As for the EL MA dissertations, five written during the required period were selected, of which two had directly related topics on discourse analysis. The other three were on English grammar, semantics and classroom communication. Nevertheless, the texts were related at least in that they all dealt with language issues. DS MA dissertations had a relatively large corpus compared to EL, but it was still not big enough to fully accommodate topic relatedness as a selection criterion. As a result, the selection was mainly guided by the production period criterion. Eventually, dissertations selected for the DS MA sub-corpus were on the following topics: politics and gender,

urban housing shortage, Lesotho Highlands Water Project, NGOs funding challenges, and Basotho mine workers retrenchment.

DS texts were different from EL ones in that development studies is multidisciplinary by nature, meaning it covers diverse topics from different disciplines. This multidisciplinary factor hindered the application of the topic relatedness criterion in selecting DS texts. According to one professor whom I interviewed from the department, postgraduate students can write on any topic that has relevance to the wellbeing or development of people, for example, agriculture, gender, politics, housing, etc. This being the case, it was difficult to find five dissertations dealing with similar subject matter in such a limited corpus.

To build the research article sub-corpus for both DS and EL, journals that were commonly cited by the postgraduate writers were identified. I then selected from those journals articles that were cited in the postgraduate texts. I tried to include articles written by experienced publishers by checking the authors' biographical notes and prior publications where they were available. Nevertheless, not necessarily all the articles were written by PhD holders. For EL, seven articles were selected from the *Journal of Applied Linguistics,* seven from the *Journal of Pragmatics* and six from *Discourse & Society*. For DS, seven articles were selected from the *Journal of World Development,* another seven from *Public Administration and Development* and six from the *Journal of Legal Pluralism*. (See Appendix C for the lists of research articles.)

As explained in this section, I could only include a limited number of postgraduate texts in my sample. Regarding sample size, Du Plooy (2001) observes that the validity, meaningfulness and insights generated from a qualitative design have nothing much to do with the sample size but rather have more to do with the information richness of the cases selected. The present study does not only include questions that require quantitative data, but also aimed to answer questions that entailed qualitative analyses. For this reason, I believe the sample described in this section is representative enough to reveal the nature and patterns of citing practices, stance expression and reader engagement by postgraduate and RA writers. It would not have been practical to increase my sample size even if the texts were available, because in my research there is an aspect of qualitative assessment and interpretation of the texts, which entails studying citations in context. This of course involves reading and analysing some parts of the texts to get to a clearer understanding of the meaning and function of the studied rhetorical practices, while also exploring certain interesting differences between individual writers. Moreover, such a sample size is not exceptional to my study; Thompson (2001) also used a corpus of almost the same size as mine in his PhD study. He used a corpus of 16 PhDs from Agricultural Botany and Agricultural and Food Economics, and some RAs for part of the study. Like mine, the overall corpus size was over 900,000 words.

The sample of students and supervisors who participated in the interviews consisted of six MA writers (three from each department); four PhD writers (two from each department); and six supervisors (three from each department). Table 3.3 provides details of the sample.

*Table 3.3: Sample of interviewees*

| Interviewees | DSM | ELM | DSD | ELD |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Completed student writers | 1 | 2 | 1 | 1 |
| Current student writers | 2 | 1 | 1 | 1 |
| Supervisors | 2 | 2 | 1 | 1 |

Fortunately, two completed PhD students who are NUL employees agreed to be interviewed. I then identified two current PhD students to participate in the interviews. Regarding MAs, two EL writers and one DS writer who are employees of NUL were also available for interviews. One EL writer and two DS writers willing to participate in the interviews were identified from classes of current students. All the interviewed students, except one MA student, had worked with the interviewed supervisors.

Responses from the interviews were tape-recorded during the interview sessions. They were transcribed after the interviews to make them easily accessible during the analysis and write up process. The transcribed responses for participants whose texts were part of the research data were tagged the same way as their texts, for example, DSM5 for the Development Studies masters participant number 5. For current students the word *current* was added at the beginning of the tag, for instance, *Current DSM* to show that the participant was a current DS master's student. Supervisors' responses were tagged with the discipline code (e.g. DS) plus the letter S for supervisor and the number assigned to the participant, for example, DSS1 for the first Development Studies supervisor participant. From this point onwards, the following abbreviations will be used to refer to data from the analysed texts since they are the tags used to label the data: DSM for Development Studies MA; DSD for Development Studies PhD; DSRA for Development Studies research article; ELM for English & Linguistics MA; ELD for English & Linguistics PhD; and ELRA for English & Linguistics research article.

## 3.6 Data analysis

This section discusses data analysis procedures. First of all, it deliberates on how data were analysed quantitatively and qualitatively. Secondly, it discusses validity and reliability issues to see what measures were taken to generate valid and reliable results. Finally, the section discusses the statistical tests that were used to test statistical significance of the comparison results.

### 3.6.1 Quantitative procedures

The rhetorical features to be investigated were classified as illustrated in the analytical framework diagram (Figure 3.2). Using the classifications described in section 3.4 as the framework, data were extracted from the research corpus. Searches were done per individual text (e.g. DSM1), using WST. Citations and RVs were searched for using opening parentheses as a search symbol because in-text citations bracket details of sources. WST concordance displayed all instances where brackets were used in the texts as shown in Figure 3.3 below.



*Figure 3.3: Concordance lines from ELD1*

I went through the concordance lines manually, identifying all citations so that I could have overall counts of them, for example, in the WST screenshot above, lines 93, 94, 95, 97 and 98 have citations that are discussed in extract 10 below. Each concordance line could be expanded as illustrated in the next screenshot to show more context, and from each expansion the relevant author and textual integration forms as well as the RV used in integral citations could be identified and recorded.



*Figure 3.4: Expanded concordance line 98*

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It is through expansions that citations without bracketed source details like the last citation in extract 10, where the pronoun *they* was used in place of the author's name, were identified. This means that citation integration and RVs were identified during the same search processes and recorded as illustrated in Table 3.4 below with part of text ELD1 data which is shown on the WST screenshots.

*Table 3.4: Citation integration and RV data extraction*

| INTEGRAL | | | | NON-INTEGRAL | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Concordance line | Textual integration | RV | RV Type | Concordance line | Textual integration | RV |
| 93 | Assimilation | according to | acknowledge | 95 | Insertion + assimilation | - |
| 94 | Assimilation | show | endorse | | | - |
| 97 | Assimilation | explain | acknowledge | | | |
| 98 | Assimilation | state | acknowledge | | | |
| 98 | Insertion | state | acknowledge | | | |

* Citation descriptions: 93    integral assimilation
                                 94    integral assimilation
                                 95    non-integral insertion + assimilation
                                 97    integral assimilation
                                 98    integral assimilation
                                 98    integral insertion

At this point, I further illustrate how identification and counting of citations and RVs was done using extract 10 from text ELD1 whose data are in Table 3.4. The sample is not a single extract but a sequence of extracts drawn from the citation points revealed in Figure 3.3 and '…' indicates where these points are separated by other text that is not relevant to the citation and RV analysis.

10. ***According to Scalise (1984: 79)***, *the word endocentric refers to that word whose syntactic or morphological category is similar to that of one of its constituents* .... ***Katamba (1993: 302) shows*** *that for these endocentric compound words, their entities are embedded with features identical of the constituents that make up the compound word. The other part of the compound word limits the entity to which the compound word refers to, therefore it is called "a modifier"* ***(Radford, 2009: 148)*** *… **Botha (1968) explains** that the theory advocates for headedness that as sentences have heads, words also do… **Scalise and Guevara (2006: 194) clearly state** in their study that they have failed to account for the nature of exocentric compound words because exocentricity is an even more complex phenomenon than they imagined initially. **They state** the following "Not even our proposed definition … suffices to explain the vast variety of structures and types that are attested in our database while such have been easy to account for when it comes to endocentric type".*

Six citations were identified from the above extract. The first one is integral because the name of the cited author appears at the beginning with the reporting phrase *according to*, with date and page in brackets. The reporting phrase was recorded under acknowledge verbs. The citation is an assimilation because the writer paraphrases the reported proposition in her own words. The second citation is also an integral assimilation. It has the cited author's name as the subject of the reporting statement with date and page in brackets. The reporting verb *shows* was recorded under endorse verbs. The third citation is non-integral because all the source details are provided in brackets. It is a combination of insertion and assimilation as it begins with a paraphrase and ends with a direct quotation. The fourth and fifth citations are integral assimilation with the reporting verbs *explains* and *state* that were recorded under acknowledge verbs. The last citation is another integral assimilation where the pronoun *they* is used to represent the previously stated authors' names and the verb *state* recorded under acknowledge verbs. Date of publication and page are omitted because they are the same as those in the previous citation. Such cases where the subject was the same previously quoted author represented by a pronoun or third person noun phrase (e.g. the author) and was reporting different propositions were counted as separate citations. Where conventional citation was done, those citations with pronouns could also be identified through the bracketed details provided at the end.

Regarding the other stance markers, a word list was created from Hyland's (2005a) lists of potential search words (see Appendix D) and a few additional ones from the pilot study findings. A search was done for each item by concordance; all instances of use were displayed and I went through the concordance lines to identify those items used as stance markers. Unlike citation searches, where I expanded all lines, for most non-RV stance items I did not need to expand every line but there were quite often instances where it was necessary, for instance, when dealing with the modal auxiliaries *would* and *could*, which required more careful reading since it was not always easy to distinguish when they were used as hedges and when they were not.

A search list was also created for engagement markers using Hyland's search words (see Appendix D). Hyland listed the phrase *of course* under two resources: shared knowledge and boosters. I kept the phrase in those two categories because I realised that its categorisation depends with the context of use. An electronic search was done for each item to identify instances where the expressions were used to engage readers in the writers' arguments. All engagement markers were identified, whether they appeared in the context of citations or not. Similar to stance markers, most of the reader engagement markers could be identified from unexpanded lines. But some concordances were expanded and closely examined, for example, to distinguish the reader inclusive pronoun *we* as the one in the next example (extract 11) from the self-mention *we* used by co-authors. It should be noted that research questions as well as rhetorical and indirect questions were all counted. A question mark was used as a search item for the first two types and the word *question* was used to search for the indirect ones.

The stance and engagement word lists facilitated a uniform search of markers from the research corpus. Stance and reader engagement features were identified as illustrated in extract 11 below:

11. *Two of the three Malaysian cases studied in Galal et al. (1994) involved partial privatization, and the positive results in those cases **appear** to have matched the results obtained from full privatizations in other countries. **Should not we try to learn all we can about these hybrid forms of organization, and about the conditions under which they may offer positive results? Can these partial forms of privatization help reduce government failures without imposing the political costs of outright privatization?** [DSRA13]*

In this extract, *appear* was identified as a hedge used by writer DSRA13 to exercise caution when commenting on cases studied in the cited source, thus communicating uncertainty to the reader. The writer then posed two rhetorical questions that, as stated by Hyland (2008), were meant to construct involvement by arousing interest and encouraging the reader to explore an issue with the writer. The questions were also used to arrange the text (Curry & Chambers 2017) since they were addressed in the following paragraphs. Also, the writer directly involved readers through the inclusive pronoun *we* in the first question. This means that four interactional features, excluding citation, were identified: one hedge (stance) and two questions and a reader pronoun (reader engagement). Considering the quantitative procedures described in this section, the whole exercise of searching for all interactional discourse markers was labour-intensive such that it took approximately six months.

### 3.6.2 Qualitative procedures

Qualitative analysis in this study was done mostly to address question 3, which enquires about the rhetorical functions of the various interactional metadiscourse resources and potential dialogic effects of the resources' use. As explained earlier, interviews were recorded and then transcribed for easy access during analysis (see Appendix B for the interview questions and responses). The interview responses were analysed manually and thematically following the order of questions. By 'manually', I mean that I did not use any kind of content analysis software. After doing the transcriptions and so developing a general idea of how informative they were on the selected themes, I then concentrated on one theme at a time, noting similarities and differences in responses with regard to each theme across my samples. Interview findings were not presented separately but rather integrated into the quantitative results discussion in Chapter 4 to explain certain patterns of use of interactional resources. In Chapter 5, interesting patterns of use revealed by the quantitative data were further investigated qualitatively, with the help of interview responses from the writers. During the process, an effort was made to link the interview data to the actual writing of the respondents. In addition, long stretches of selected texts were analysed to study more qualitative aspects such as citation functions and to see how writers employed the various

interactional resources under study and the dialogic effects implied. The analysis procedures described here show that interview results were interwoven with quantitative analysis and text analysis.

### 3.6.3 Validity and reliability

Validity and reliability are important criteria to consider in both qualitative and quantitative research. They refer to how reliable and valid the methods used to conduct a research study are. Struwig and Stead (2001, 143) state that validity is also known as "trustworthiness or credibility" and has to do with the extent to which a research design is "scientifically sound or appropriately conducted". They suggest that it is, generally speaking, more complicated to deal with validity issues in qualitative research than in quantitative research. Their observation is correct in the sense that quantitative data can easily be verified since it is numerical, and can be interpreted using statistical procedures. Qualitative aspects of data may require other means to validate them as they are not countable. Struwig and Stead go ahead to suggest ways to confirm the validity of qualitative data such as 'descriptive validity' and 'interpretative validity'. Descriptive validity refers to accurateness and comprehensiveness of the data generated. Struwig and Stead suggest that the help of research participants or other researchers to examine the accuracy of the data can improve its accuracy. Interpretative validity is said to indicate how accurate the reports on participants' views of events or behaviours are. Concerning this parameter, Struwig and Stead suggest eliciting participants' comments on the findings as a measure to maximise the validity of the findings.

Citing Bryman (2001), Lee (2009, 147) defines reliability as "the question of whether the results of a study are repeatable or replicable". In other words, reliability is described as regarding whether other researchers analysing the same data will arrive at the same conclusion. Involving other research participants to verify classification of linguistic features, for example, helps to improve reliability in one's research findings.

To address the matter of validity and reliability of the data and findings in this study, an independent analyser (a colleague who completed a PhD in the field of academic writing) was engaged to check the accuracy of my data. Due to work commitments, this colleague could only check small samples from the three genres. We agreed that she would do electronic searches of the same texts as in my pilot study; one PhD thesis (DSD1), one MA dissertation (ELM1) and three research articles (DSRA1, ELRA1, ELRA10). The results of her searches were compared with mine. It should be noted that I did not do a statistical analysis of the process, such as showing the percentage of agreement between us, but we reached consensus as explained here. For the data that was checked, counting and classifying citations was mostly straightforward, but we had a few instances where our counts differed with regard to stance and engagement features. For example, we had some challenging cases with the modal auxiliaries *would* and *could*, which were used quite often by writers, in that it was not always easy to identify the ones used as hedges. We had to go

through the cases together, reading the contexts of use more carefully and discussing until we agreed on how to classify the words. We experienced a similar problem with personal asides as engagement markers. It was sometimes difficult to tell if the bracketed information was functioning as a personal aside or not. In this case we had to strictly apply Hyland's (2005a) explanation of personal asides that the information does not add to the propositional content but rather offer personal comments to establish a relationship between the writer and readers. In addition to this quality control measure, my supervisors, apart from other monitoring, checked my citation integration and RV analyses of the four PhD texts in detail early on.

It should also be noted that the interviews with students and their supervisors that were conducted complement text analysis as a way of increasing the validity of findings. Responses from interviews helped to verify some of the interpretations of data from the texts.

There was also a need for 'measurement validity' in the quantitative comparison sections of this study. In Dornyei's view, measurement validity is "the meaningfulness and appropriateness of the interpretation of various test scores or other assessment procedure outcomes" (Dornyei 2007:50). In order to enhance the measurement validity of my study, I used a combination of two main types of inferential statistical test (Log-likelihood (LL) and Mann-Whitney U (MWU)) together with certain other measures, particularly an effect size statistic and relative standard deviation (RSD) to mitigate against interpreting statistical findings too generously. Thus nominally 'significant' results in terms of LL alone were not interpreted as valid unless they met certain criteria regarding these tests and measures, and three levels of measurement validity were distinguished: 'potential', 'reasonable' and 'substantial'. More will be said on the measurement levels in the next section.

### 3.6.4 Statistical significance tests

The main study went beyond descriptive statistics; it included some inferential statistical techniques meant to establish significant patterns that could be generalised to entire populations. Frequencies were compared to assess cross-genre and cross-discipline differences. As stated above, statistical significance of the observed differences was tested using two measures: LL and the MWU test. The rest of this section explains the log-likelihood function and the MWU test and the rationale for using them together.

Log-likelihood (LL) is a null-hypothesis significance statistic test that has an associated probability value (p-value) (Pojanapunya & Todd 2018). In corpus linguistic studies, the p-value is used to determine whether the difference in relative frequencies of a word in two corpora is due to chance or not. In other words, p-values show the extent to which we can be confident that the frequency difference we have found is dependable and statistically significant (http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html). Effect size statistics, on the other hand, focus on how big the difference between two frequencies is. Effect size statistics often supplement probability

statistics in applied linguistic studies (Dörnyei 2007). The LL test was found suitable for testing data sets of different sizes, as is the case in my study.

The mathematics behind log-likelihood is quite complicated, but calculating log-likelihood statistics and effect sizes has been simplified by scholars such as Paul Rayson, who provides a web-based log-likelihood calculator (http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html). The calculator is a practical online tool that is easy to use and that returns the statistical measures that we can use to determine significant differences. It has two features; log-likelihood and effect size. In the discussion of the present study's results, two terms are used to refer to the four levels of significance identified in the calculator as follows: *significant* for LL=3.84+ (p≤0.05) and *very significant* for the other three levels identified, namely LL=6.63+ (p≤0.01); LL=10.83+ (p≤0.001) and LL=15.13+ (p≤0.0001).

Figure 3.5 represents the output generated by the calculator when comparing the overall use of integral citation by MA and PhD writers. While the MA writers (O1) used 839 integral citations in a corpus of 290,642 words, the PhD writers (O2) used 789 integral citations in a corpus of 362,997 words. It should be noted that %1 (0.29) and %2 (0.22) stand for the frequency of occurrences of the item normalised per 1000 words.

| Item | O1 | %1 | O2 | %2 | LL | %DIFF | Bayes | ELL | RRisk | LogRatio | OddsRatio |
|------|-----|------|-----|-------|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------|----------|-----------|
| Word | 839 | 0.29 | 789 | 0.22 + | 32.72 | 32.81 | 19.33 | 0.00001 | 1.33 | 0.41 | 1.33 |

*Figure 3.5 Example of LL and effect size calculator output*

According to this output, MA writers used very significantly more integral citations than PhD writers, with an LL value of 32.72 (which because it is higher than the 15.13 threshold value above, means it is very significant and at the p≤ 0.0001 level). As explained by Hardie (ESRC Centre for Corpus Approaches to Social Science), the LL does not tell us how big a given difference is and this information is provided by effect size statistics. Six effect size measures are explained on the calculator and on provided links, three of which I explain here. %DIFF indicates the proportion percentage of the difference between the normalised frequencies of a word in two corpora or sub-corpora (http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/ll/DIFF_FAQ.pdf). In the example above, the 32.81 percentage difference indicates that the MAs used about a third more integral citations than the PhDs. Similar to the %DIFF, Ratio of relative frequencies (RRisk) and Odds Ratio show the proportion of the differences between the normalised frequencies of a word in two corpora or sub-corpora (ESRC Centre for Corpus Approaches to Social Science). In my calculator result sheets, results for the RRisk and Odds Ratio are always similar because corpus sizes are extremely large compared to feature sizes, as illustrated in our example. The number 1.33 for both effect size measures indicates that there is about a one-third difference between the compared corpora.

The three effect size measures: %DIFF, RRisk and Odds Ratio are very similar, and therefore in my discussion I only refer to one of them, the RRisk, which Hardie (ESRC Centre for Corpus Approaches to Social Science) describes as a very transparent and understandable statistic. RR is simply the 'ratio of relative frequencies' of the first values inputted relative to the second ones. In his CASS blog, Hardie prefers this term to 'relative risk' and since this study deals with corpus studies rather than medical ones - where the term originated - I will from now on use his term for RR. The threshold for validity of RR as an effect size has been suggested by Sullivan and Feinn (2012) as 2, against only 1.5 for Odds Ratio. This is because RR and Odds Ratios are calculated in such a way that the former ratio will always be larger than the latter. Essentially, Odds Ratios are calculated by dividing a higher number by a lower one while the RR is calculated by dividing the total of the higher number plus the lower number and dividing it by the lower one. However, in corpus linguistic studies, where the relevant higher number (words in a corpus) is usually extremely large compared to the lower number (counts of a certain feature in the corpus), the results are only minutely different for the two effect sizes. This can be seen in my calculator result sheets (e.g. Figure 3.5), where the results for the two effect sizes are practically always the same (at least, to two decimal places), and in the example both are 1.33. Thus, in the context of my corpus linguistic study, the 1.50 threshold is appropriate to both measures.

In addition to the log-likelihood ratio test, it was found necessary to use a non-parametric test, because Log-likelihood tests do not take into account uneven distributions within groups. As a result, they can be too liberal and may exaggerate levels of significance (Lijffijt et al. 2016). To counter these limitations, Mann-Whitney U-tests were also used because they attempt to "overcome the problem of the shape of the distribution of scores by ranking the data… The analysis is then carried out on the ranks rather than the actual data… to eliminate the effect of outliers" (Field 2017, 214). However, ranking the data also has disadvantages such as losing some information about the magnitude of differences between scores (Field 2017). This second test was only used to assess differences in the MA and RA corpora, because the PhD corpus had less than the required minimum number of five texts per group.

The weakness of a small PhD corpus was to some extent mitigated by the use of relative standard deviation (RSD) calculations. The RSD provides an idea about how homogeneous one's data is – the more homogeneous the data, the smaller the RSD. RSDs for the groups (two members in each PhD group, five members in each MA group and 20 members in each RA group) were calculated to have some indication of how variable the scores of one group were, and how the variability compared with that of another group. Put differently, the RSD gives an indication of whether the 'normal' SD (standard deviation) is a small or large quantity, when compared to the mean. But ultimately, the RSDs were used when comparing results involving PhD groups because these comparisons could not be tested by way of the Mann-Whitney U-test. It was observed that there is a relationship between the RR and RSD measures, so that when RR is in the borderline area of just managing to indicate a small effect (around 1.5 to 2), the RSD is about 50. Therefore, RSDs of 50

were taken as the upper limit for regarding PhD group-internal variability as not too great (see Appendix E). Together, these two measures were used to deal with the problem of LL significances often being too generously given.

At this point, I conclude by noting again the three levels of measurement validity that were introduced at the end of the previous section and setting out the criteria for each. 'Substantially valid' results are those significant in both the LL and MWU tests and having an RR of at least 1.50. 'Reasonably valid' results are those significant in LL and in MWU close to significant (less than $p \leq 0.10$), and having an RR of at least 1.50. 'Potentially valid' results are those that have no MWU test because they involve PhDs, but are significant in LL, have an RR of at least 1.50 and, importantly, also where the relevant feature in the PhD has an RSD of 50 or less. The RSD is needed to compensate for the lack of the MWU test.

## 3.7 Ethical Considerations

The importance of meeting ethical requirements cannot be overemphasised, especially in qualitative research, for as Punch (2005, in Dörnyei 2007, 63) reports, "such [ethical] issues are more acute in qualitative than in quantitative approaches because qualitative research often intrudes more into the human private sphere: it is inherently interested in people's personal views..."

My major sources of data were MA dissertations, PhD theses and RAs. Student authors' identities were protected by using text codes described in section 3.5 as well as the general topic areas, instead of the text titles and writers' names (see Appendix F for the general topic areas). The interviewed students' and supervisors' identities were also protected by using codes. Also, the study went through the ethical clearance process of UNISA as per requirement and a letter of ethical approval was issued (see Appendix G).

Concerning interviews, I sought permission from participants. I first of all approached potential participants to ask them to participate in my study. I explained to them the purpose of my study and that information gathered through interviews would be used for the purposes of my research only. I also informed them of their right to withdraw from the research at any point. Additionally, I sought the participants' permission to record the interview proceedings. When they had agreed, I then scheduled an appointment for the interview. On the interview day, the participants signed consent forms (see Appendix H) whose contents I had already explained to them as stated above, to show that they agreed to participate in my research.

## 3.8 Conclusion

This chapter has reported in some detail on the research design, methodology and analytical approaches and framework used in this study. It has also elaborated on the data collection and analysis procedures followed to transform data into answers for the research questions and has explained the statistical significance tests that were used for comparison of frequencies. Having tested the research methodology in the pilot study, I applied it in the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the main study, which are reported on in the next two chapters.

# CHAPTER 4: QUANTITATIVE FINDINGS

## 4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents details of the quantitative results from the text corpora analyses of citation integration, stance and reader engagement markers to address questions 1 and 2 of the study. While question 1 investigates the extent to which writers in the MA, PhD and RA genres differ in their use of interactional metadiscourse resources in their texts, question 2 investigates the extent to which the writers in the DS and EL disciplines differ in their use of the same resources. The citation integration, stance and engagement results are presented in separate main sections, but each begins with a broad overview of its rhetorical devices' frequency counts which groups texts in their genres irrespective of discipline. This overview data was not tested statistically since it is meant to provide the overall descriptive statistics and to reveal whether they suggest possible broad trends that can then be investigated in more depth by way of the more specific comparisons that follow. This is followed first by statistically tested cross-discipline comparisons between DS and EL in each of the three genres (MA, PhD and RA) and then by cross-genre comparisons within each of the two disciplines (DS and EL).

Analyses were done using frequencies of occurrence per 1000 words in order to provide directly comparable values for discussion of corpora of different sizes. The statistical significance of differences between quantities for cross-discipline and cross-genre comparisons was tested using Rayson's Log-likelihood and effect size calculator (http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html). This calculator has a statistical significance measure, Log-likelihood (LL), which indicates the extent to which we can be confident that an observed frequency difference is statistically significant. In addition, the calculator has several effect size statistic measures that indicate how big a given difference between the two corpora is. To mitigate shortcomings of the LL test that were discussed in Chapter 3, the Mann-Whitney U-test (MWU) was used to test MA and RA comparisons, which met the test's sample size requirement. In addition, relative standard deviation (RSD) calculations were done to test internal variability in PhD groups because their sample sizes were too small for the MWU test. See Chapter 3 (§ 3.6.3) for a more detailed explanation of the calculator functions and MWU test. Details of interpretation and evaluation criteria of statistical test results are provided in section 4.1.2, where comparisons begin, and a summary table of the results that can be regarded as most valid is presented in the concluding section of this chapter.

## 4.1 Citation integration

As discussed at various points above, citation, also known as "attribution" (Hyland 1999), "evidentials" (Hyland 2005a, 2005b, 2010), "reporting" (Thompson & Ye 1991; Thomas & Hawes 1994), "referencing" (Salager-Meyer 1999) and "source work/ source use" (Kwon et al. 2018; Peng 2019) is essentially the practice by academic writers of attributing information to outside

sources. In the present study, citation integration has to do with how writers incorporate cited information into their arguments in terms of two dimensions, namely author integration and textual integration. Author integration is concerned with how the names of cited authors are incorporated into the citing sentences (see § 1.1.1 and § 2.1.3), and textual integration concerns the ways cited propositions are incorporated in the writer's argument (see § 2.1.3 and § 3.4). This section responds to research questions 1 (a) and 2 (a). The first concerns the extent to which the citation forms used in the study corpus differ according to genre, and the second concerns the extent to which they differ according to discipline.

### 4.1.1 Overview of results: citation integration

The study corpus comprised 990,444 words, and a total of 4930 citations were identified with a frequency of 4.98 per 1000 words. Table 4.1 below gives descriptive statistics of results for the whole corpus presented in terms of the three genres, MA, PhD and RA. Citation integration analysis was done in the two dimensions of author integration and textual integration as explained in the previous section (also see § 3.6 for more details). Thus, unlike the previous studies that tended to compare citing practices of two genres using the author integration dimension only (e.g. Goodier 2008; Hyland 1999a; Lee 2009; Zhang 2008), the present study compares three genres in two sets of disciplines in terms of both author and textual integration.

*Table 4.1: Overall genre citation integration occurrences and frequencies*

| Citation integration | Author integration | | | | Textual integration | | | | | | Total citations | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Integral | | Non-integral | | Assimilation | | Insertion | | Insertion + assimilation | | | |
| Genre | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| MA | 839 | 2.89 | 584 | 2.01 | 1251 | 4.30 | 71 | 0.24 | 101 | 0.35 | 1423 | 4.89 |
| PhD | 789 | 2.17 | 1103 | 3.03 | 1330 | 3.66 | 303 | 0.83 | 259 | 0.71 | 1892 | 5.21 |
| RA | 724 | 2.15 | 891 | 2.65 | 1288 | 3.82 | 168 | 0.50 | 159 | 0.47 | 1615 | 4.79 |

*Key: n = number of occurrences; f= frequencies per 1000 words*

Table 4.1 shows that at this most general level the MA writers used more integral citations than non-integral ones as well as the highest frequency of integral citations among the groups, while the PhDs and the RAs tended to use more non-integral than integral citations. According to Hyland (2000), integral citation suggests more focus on the reported author while non-integral citation suggests more focus on the reported proposition.

With regard to the textual integration dimension, writers in all three genres used many more assimilations than insertions and insertion + assimilations. This is expected because summaries,

paraphrases and generalisations have been found to be the commonly used forms (Hyland 1999; Swales 2014; Zhang 2008) and this pattern also corroborates Hyland's (1999) finding that citations were mostly expressed as summaries and generalisations in both the hard and soft sciences. Hyland comments that these forms are the most effective ways of achieving a well-supported argument because they allow writers to comment on the information they are citing. When information is summarised, it is restated in the citer's words in a condensed form, and when it is paraphrased, it is expressed according to how the citer understood it.

Insertions had very low frequencies in all genres, and this result tallies with that of previous studies that found very low densities of insertions or direct quotations (Coffin 2009; Hyland 1999; Hu & Wang 2014; Swales 2014). Insertion + assimilations were also very rare in the three corpora, similar to Hu and Wang's (2014) finding that insertion + assimilations were extremely rare in their two English corpora of applied linguistics and general medicine. The interviewed writers hardly commented on insertion + assimilation probably because it is a less known citation form compared to the others. They could more easily talk about direct and indirect quotations as separate forms than a mixture of the two. Although quoting directly has the advantage of enabling the writer to use the cited author's words to argue, interviewed writers used this form sparingly for reasons such as the ones stated by writers ELM1 and ELD1 in interview responses given in the next paragraph. While writer ELM1 limited her use of insertions because she was discouraged by her supervisors, writer ELD1 avoided using it much because she preferred reporting in her own words. This partly explains why there were very few direct quotations in the study corpus.

*ELM1: …Somewhere I have to quote directly, but the direct quotations were very few in my Honours and even in my MA because my supervisors showed me or made me aware that, 'if you rely on direct quotations it seems that you do not understand what you're writing, so try to paraphrase'.*

*ELD1: I use a mixture but I do not like direct quotations that much, so even though it would be a mixture but my writing is more of paraphrasing than direct quotes…. It does not have that voice aspect that I like. It's not, that's not my voice; I'm actually copying somebody's voice. That is why I don't like direct quotes.*

In summary, while the MAs were more inclined towards integral citations, the PhDs and RAs were more inclined towards non-integral ones. As for textual integration, all genres used assimilations quite substantially but used insertions and insertion + assimilations sparingly. Having reported on the overview results, the next sections focus on detailed results at both discipline and genre levels to get a deeper understanding of the citing practices under investigation.

**4.1.2 Cross-discipline comparisons**

As part of the analysis, citation practices of writers of the same level from the two disciplines of DS and EL were compared to see if there were discipline-based differences in their writings. As explained earlier, Log-likelihood was used to test statistical significance of differences between the disciplines and MWU was done for MA and RA groups. In addition, RSDs were calculated for PhD groups. Cross-discipline comparisons for each of the three genres are presented and discussed in separate sections. Each section begins with statistical comparisons, followed by separate internal comparisons of individual texts of each discipline which is meant to give details of individual citation practices. It also points to the issue of internal variability, which is important when considering the validity of comparisons.

At this point, I briefly explain how the tests' results are presented and interpreted in all comparison sections. In the tables, where significant differences between two corpora are found (e.g. Table 4.2), the frequency of the relevant feature that is higher is given in bold font. In the LL p-value column, a dash is used when the minimal significance threshold level of $p \leq 0.05$ is not met. This is because the LL calculator provides only thresholds and not exact p-values. In the discussion of the results, the term *significant* is used to denote differences of $p \leq 0.05$ and *very significant* is used for differences of $p \leq 0.01$. These two p-values are also used as the thresholds in the discussion of the two tests' results. Regarding evaluation of the results, three levels of validity are used as follows. The *substantially valid* findings of difference are those where both tests recorded significance and where the RR is at least 1.50, for example, non-integral and insertion + assimilation in Table 4.2. The *reasonably valid* findings of difference are the ones where LL is significant and MWU is close to significance (i.e. less than $p \leq 0.10$) and RR is at least 1.50, for example, assimilations and total citations in Table 4.2. The *potentially valid* differences are those where only LL is used but it is significant, RR meets the minimal threshold of 1.50, and the doctoral group has an RSD of 50 or less. To make it easier to understand, all cases where RR is less than 1 are converted into their reciprocals so that all RRs are above 1. The rationale for the 1.50 RR threshold and 50 RSD threshold was explained in Chapter 3 (§ 3.6.3).

**4.1.2.1 MA corpora**

Table 4.2 gives two types of information: citation integration frequencies and results of a cross-discipline comparison between citation practices in the two MA corpora. The comparison results are presented first, followed by discussion of the individual groups.

*Table 4.2 Citation integration: MA cross-discipline comparisons*

| Citation integration | | Discipline | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSM | | ELM | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Author integration | Integral | 379 | 2.76 | 460 | 3.00 | 1.45 | 1.08 | - | 10 | 0.6744 |
| | Non-integral | 477 | **3.47** | 107 | 0.70 | 295.92 | 4.98 | **0.0001** | 0 | **0.0120** |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 808 | **5.88** | 443 | 2.89 | 152.11 | 2.04 | **0.0001** | 3 | 0.0601 |
| | Insertion | 41 | 0.30 | 30 | 0.20 | 3.14 | 1.53 | - | 8 | 0.4009 |
| | Insertion + assimilation | 7 | 0.05 | 94 | **0.61** | 79.86 | 12.03 | **0.0001** | 0 | **0.0120** |
| | Total citations | 856 | **6.23** | 567 | 3.70 | 95.29 | 1.69 | **0.0001** | 3 | 0.0601 |

The two statistical tests indicated that the DSM writers used significantly more non-integral citations (LL = 295.92, p≤0.01; MWU = 0, p≤0.05) with a large RR effect size (4.98). The LL test suggests that the DSM writers also used very significantly more assimilations, while the MWU result could be construed as indicating a tendency toward significance (LL = 152.11, p≤0.01; MWU = 3, p≤0.10). A similar pattern applies with regard to the DSM writers using more total citations (LL = 95.29, p≤0.01; MWU = 3, p≤0.10). On the other hand, the ELM writers used significantly more insertion + assimilation citations (LL = 79.86, p≤0.01; MWU = 0, p≤0.05) with a double RR effect size. Considering the statistical evaluation criteria discussed in 4.1.2, the findings that the DSM writers used more non-integral citation and that the ELM writers used more insertion + assimilation can be regarded as substantially valid. Also, the findings that the DSM writers used more assimilation and more citation integration features in total can be regarded as reasonably valid. It should be noted that RR values will not be repeated routinely in brackets in the discussion of results, though they may be mentioned separately when they are particularly interesting, for instance, when they reflect very large effects, as in this case.

Focus is now on individual texts within each MA corpus to shed some light on the degree of variation within each of the corpora. The DSM writers employed the different citation forms as displayed in Table 4.3.

*Table 4.3: DSM Citation integration frequencies per text*

| TEXT | Author integration | | | | Textual integration | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| | Integral | | Non-integral | | Assimilation | | Insertion | | Insertion + assimilation | |
| | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| DSM1 | 84 | 3.53 | 94 | 3.90 | 164 | 6.84 | 11 | 0.46 | 3 | 0.13 |
| DSM2 | 74 | 2.32 | 74 | 2.32 | 146 | 4.59 | 1 | 0.03 | 1 | 0.03 |
| DSM3 | 112 | 4.30 | 125 | 4.80 | 224 | 8.60 | 10 | 0.38 | 3 | 0.12 |
| DSM4 | 38 | 1.56 | 76 | 3.11 | 111 | 4.54 | 3 | 0.12 | 0 | 0 |
| *DSM5 | 71 | 2.28 | 109 | 3.50 | 164 | 5.26 | 16 | 0.51 | 0 | 0 |
| Total + Mean | 379 | 2.76 | 478 | 3.47 | 809 | 5.88 | 41 | 0.30 | 7 | 0.05 |

*Note: In all individual text tables, texts whose writers were interviewed are marked by asterisks.*

In the author integration dimension, four texts had more non-integral than integral citations and the fifth the same frequency of each, showing that the pattern is quite consistent in the DSM corpus. In the textual integration dimension, four texts displayed the same pattern with insertion as second highest and insertion + assimilation as third highest frequency, but again, DSM2 had the same frequency counts for the two textual integration forms, though the frequency counts are extremely low. DSM3 showed considerably more use of both author integration forms and assimilations than the other four texts and is thus something of an outlier.

The ELM individual writers' use of citation forms is shown in Table 4.4 below.

*Table 4.4: ELM Citation integration frequencies per text*

| TEXT | Author integration | | | | Textual integration | | | | | |
|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| | Integral | | Non-integral | | Assimilation | | Insertion | | Insertion + assimilation | |
| | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| *ELM1 | 105 | 2.50 | 25 | 0.60 | 94 | 2.24 | 10 | 0.24 | 26 | 0.62 |
| ELM2 | 95 | 3.23 | 18 | 0.61 | 91 | 3.09 | 8 | 0.27 | 14 | 0.48 |
| ELM3 | 108 | 6.32 | 12 | 0.70 | 106 | 6.20 | 0 | 0 | 14 | 0.82 |
| *ELM4 | 53 | 1.36 | 51 | 1.31 | 77 | 1.98 | 8 | 0.21 | 19 | 0.49 |
| ELM5 | 99 | 3.82 | 1 | 0.04 | 75 | 2.89 | 4 | 0.15 | 21 | 0.81 |
| Total + Mean | 460 | 3.0 | 107 | 0.70 | 443 | 2.89 | 30 | 0.20 | 94 | 0.61 |

In the author integration dimension, all texts in this corpus had more integral than non-integral citations. This consistency seems to suggest that there is a discipline factor at play. The difference between the frequencies of the two forms was noticeably big in all texts except ELM4. Text ELM1 used about four times more integral citations than non-integral ones. Nevertheless, when responding to question 6 of the interview protocol, which enquired about the writer's preferred citation forms, she stated that she varied them to avoid monotony:

*I don't think I have any preference Mme* [a Sesotho term of address for women]. *I just used them; I used a mixture of those. Why? Because I just told myself that I'm not supposed to bore the reader of my text, therefore, somewhere I've to begin with the surname, and then the verb, then the information. Somewhere I've to begin with the information and end with the source…So I tried to paraphrase more, but I used a mixture of those.*

Text ELM3 recorded the highest frequency for integral citations, assimilations, insertion + assimilations, but did not use any insertions. On the other hand, text ELM5 relied almost entirely on integral forms, a practice that reflects citation invariability and that may be interpreted as showing inadequate referencing skills. Peng (2019, 13) commented that, because integral citation foregrounds the cited author, overuse of this form, especially with author in subject position, may weaken the writer's voice, resulting in a "shopping list of literature". This comment implies that over relying on this citation form may impact negatively on one's argument. Text ELM4 displayed a more balanced pattern, especially for integral and non-integral forms. In my interview with the writer, who was a PhD student at that time, he responded to question 6 as follows:

*Eh, even though I don't remember quite well what I was doing in MA but I think initially I was using the integral ones where I began with the source more, but lately I've been using this one with the source in brackets. I think it has been influenced by the fact that sometimes the issue has not been to quote a person, but the idea … Eh but I think in terms of integral and non-integral I think now I'm using more non-integral.*

Thus, this writer did not rely heavily on integral citation as was the case with the other ELM writers, particularly ELM5. The fact that at PhD level he felt that he had shifted towards using more non-integral forms seems to confirm Ädel and Garretson's learning curve observation that students tend to master integral citations earlier than non-integral ones (Ädel & Garretson 2006, in Swales 2014).

### 4.1.2.2 PhD corpora

Table 4.5 provides a summary of citation integration frequencies of the two PhD corpora. It also gives the LL results of the cross-discipline comparisons between the groups. It should, again, be noted that the MWU test did not apply to PhDs because of the small number of the data sets (two

texts in each group). This shortcoming was to some extent mitigated by enabling comparisons involving PhD groups to be considered potentially reliable provided that they not only met the usual LL and RR effect size requirements, but also had RSDs of 50 or less, reflecting low group-internal variability. Significant differences found are presented first, after which the individual groups' citing practices are discussed separately.

*Table 4.5 Citation integration: PhD cross-discipline comparisons*

| Citation integration | | Discipline | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSD | | ELD | | | | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Author integration | Integral | 358 | 1.93 | 431 | **2.43** | 10.21 | 1.26 | **0.01** |
| | Non-integral | 740 | **3.99** | 363 | 2.03 | 117.60 | 1.96 | **0.0001** |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 828 | **4.47** | 502 | 2.83 | 67.51 | 1.58 | **0.0001** |
| | Insertion | 133 | 0.72 | 170 | **0.96** | 6.23 | 1.33 | **0.05** |
| | Insert + assimilation | 137 | 0.74 | 122 | 0.69 | 0.35 | 1.08 | - |
| | Total citations | 1098 | **5.92** | 794 | 4.47 | 37.02 | 1.33 | **0.0001** |

In terms of the LL test, the DSD writers, like the DSM ones, used very significantly more non-integral citations and assimilations. The two results at least meet the RR criterion but unfortunately, all the ELD citation integration RSDs were above 50, so none of the comparisons using them could be regarded as potentially valid. However, the results are worth noting because they seem to be part of a larger pattern in the study data.

In the subsequent paragraphs, the different writers' results are discussed in an attempt to identify consistent indicators of individual academic writing style at this level and to shed more light on the groups' internal consistency. The two DSD texts displayed some noticeable variation in their patterns of use as shown in Table 4.6 below.

*Table 4.6: DSD Citation integration frequencies per text*

| Citation integration | Author integration | | | | Textual integration | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Integral | | Non-integral | | Assimilation | | Insertion | | Insertion + assimilation | |
| TEXT | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| DSD1 | 213 | 2.57 | 247 | 2.98 | 229 | 2.77 | 110 | 1.33 | 121 | 1.46 |
| *DSD2 | 145 | 1.40 | 493 | 4.81 | 599 | 5.84 | 23 | 0.22 | 16 | 0.16 |
| Total + mean | 358 | 1.93 | 740 | 3.99 | 828 | 4.47 | 133 | 0.72 | 137 | 0.74 |

While DSD1 had very narrow margins between integral and non-integral citation frequencies, DSD2 had very wide margins between the two forms. A similar pattern obtained for textual integration between the texts. DSD1 displayed narrow margins between assimilation, insertion, and insertion + assimilation citations compared to DSD2, which displayed wide margins, with a lot more assimilations than the other two forms. There are two possible explanations for these differences. Firstly, they could be partly as a result of the nature of topics dealt with in each text. DSD1 dealt with local governance, which is arguably more debatable and open to personal opinions that can be expressed through the RVs of integral citation, for example. On the other hand, DSD2 dealt with urban economic development, a topic that seems to require more factual information and statistics which tend to be reported in non-integral and assimilation forms. I skimmed through the two texts and got an impression that there were more tables and statistics in DSD2. For example, there were 26 tables in DSD2 as opposed to only two in DSD1. Secondly, writers' personal style could have also contributed as explained in the next paragraph.

As demonstrated by some DSD1 extracts discussed qualitatively in Chapter 5, the writer tended to cite at length, utilising different citation integration forms which could have contributed towards a somewhat even distribution of the resources. On the other hand, DSD2 tended to use more non-integral citations and assimilations than the other forms. In response to question 6 of the interview, writer DSD2 said,

*I think I used all those forms in my work, but I prefer using non-integral citations with paraphrases because they show that I have understood the material that I'm quoting, but I sometimes use integral ones.*

Her response resonates with that of writer ELM1, reported in section 4.1.1. This could be a reflection of what these writers learnt from their lecturers and supervisors as stated by writer ELM1. This helps to explain why writer DSD2 used non-integral citations almost three times as often as integral ones, and why her assimilations exceeded by far the other two textual integration forms.

A comparison of the two ELD texts revealed different patterns of use as displayed in Table 4.7.

*Table 4.7: ELD Citation integration frequencies per text*

| Citation integration | Author integration | | | | Textual integration | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Integral | | Non-integral | | Assimilation | | Insertion | | Insertion + assimilation | |
| TEXT | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| *ELD1 | 265 | 4.69 | 35 | 0.60 | 269 | 4.78 | 16 | 0.28 | 15 | 0.27 |
| ELD2 | 167 | 1.38 | 327 | 2.70 | 233 | 1.92 | 154 | 1.27 | 107 | 0.88 |
| Total + Mean | 432 | 2.43 | 362 | 2.03 | 502 | 2.83 | 170 | 0.96 | 122 | 0.69 |

For author integration, ELD2 maintained the PhD overall pattern of having more non-integral citations, but ELD1 deviated and used more integral ones. To be specific, ELD1's integral citations were about eight times the non-integral ones, and ELD2's non-integral citations were about twice the integral ones. ELD1 also showed wide margins among the textual integration forms, while ELD2 had narrow margins, suggesting more citation variability in the text. Swales (2014) identified variability in citation practice as an essential aspect in academic writing.

In the ELD case, I do not think the differences between the writers' citation practices are topic-based because the topics do not seem to require very different types of information that would influence citation forms. ELD1 wrote about morphology and ELD2 about religious discourse analysis. Although writer ELD1 used, by far, more integral citations than non-integral ones, when interviewed she responded as follows:

*For me, I think I, I use, I don't have a preferred form because I try as much as I can to avoid monotony. So, I think in an attempt to do that I try to vary myself, I mean my writing. As you can see from this very one, in one paragraph you see I tried that integral that we've talked about, but the one that follows immediately is a non-integral. I'm trying to vary them because I try to avoid monotony.*

This response shows that the writer was aware of the importance of varying citation forms although she did not necessarily implement it well in her writing. Besides, the writer emphasised avoiding monotony as the sole reason for citation variation, yet there is another important issue of evaluation and dialogic effects implied by different citation forms. This implies unawareness on the part of the writer, hence the need to make postgraduates aware of such useful information. While integral citation, insertion and insertion + assimilation tend to expand dialogic space by presenting a proposition as a specific author's view, non-integral citation and assimilation tend to contract dialogic space by presenting a proposition as a fact (Coffin 2009; Hu & Wang 2014).

### 4.1.2.3 RA corpora

As was done with the other genres, DSRA and ELRA citation practices were compared and the results are displayed in Table 4.8. After describing comparative results, discussions of the two groups are presented to give a clear picture of individual citing practices and the groups' internal variability.

*Table 4.8 Citation integration: RA cross-discipline comparisons*

| Citation integration | | Discipline | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSRA | | ELRA | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Author integration | Integral | 295 | 1.87 | 429 | **2.40** | 10.90 | 1.28 | **0.001** | 141 | 0.1141 |
| | Non-integral | 436 | 2.76 | 455 | 2.54 | 1.56 | 1.09 | - | 178 | 0.5619 |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 573 | 3.63 | 715 | 3.99 | 2.88 | 1.09 | - | 151 | 0.1902 |
| | Insertion | 87 | 0.55 | 81 | 0.45 | 1.64 | 1.22 | - | 186 | 0.7263 |
| | Insertion + assimilation | 71 | 0.45 | 88 | 0.49 | 0.31 | 1.08 | - | 148 | 0.1645 |
| | Total citations | 731 | 4.63 | 884 | 4.94 | 3.25 | 1.06 | - | 151 | 0.1936 |

None of the results here can be considered potentially valid indicators of difference since they do not meet the validity criteria set for comparisons, but something can be noted. Although for internal comparisons the ELRA writers used more non-integral citations than integral ones, according to the LL results, they used significantly more integrals compared to the DSRAs. This is in line with the already observed tendency by EL postgraduate writers to use more integral citations than non-integral ones. More generally though, the absence of wide variation of citation use between the two RA groups indicates a certain level of similarity between these professional writers' citing practices, including more 'balanced' use of integral and non-integral citation forms.

An analysis of the individual DSRA texts is displayed in Table 4.9 below.

*Table 4.9: DSRA Citation integration frequencies per text*

| DSRA | Author integration | | | | Textual integration | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Integral | | Non-integral | | Assimilation | | Insertion | | Insertion + Assimilation | |
| Text | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| 1 | 14 | 1.52 | 26 | 2.82 | 28 | 3.03 | 5 | 0.54 | 7 | 0.76 |
| 2 | 15 | 2.72 | 6 | 1.09 | 8 | 1.45 | 5 | 0.91 | 8 | 1.45 |
| 3 | 4 | 0.44 | 21 | 2.33 | 25 | 2.77 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | 3 | 0.79 | 6 | 1.59 | 2 | 0.53 | 7 | 1.85 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 24 | 3.00 | 10 | 1.25 | 23 | 2.88 | 7 | 0.88 | 4 | 0.50 |
| 6 | 2 | 0.41 | 8 | 1.64 | 10 | 2.05 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | 15 | 1.55 | 45 | 4.65 | 43 | 4.45 | 16 | 1.65 | 1 | 0.10 |
| 8 | 9 | 1.52 | 43 | 7.26 | 49 | 8.28 | 1 | 0.17 | 2 | 0.34 |

| 9 | 13 | 2.59 | 30 | 5.97 | 39 | 7.76 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.80 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 10 | 4 | 0.77 | 6 | 1.15 | 8 | 1.54 | 2 | 0.38 | 0 | 0 |
| 11 | 12 | 1.56 | 19 | 2.48 | 29 | 3.78 | 2 | 0.26 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 | 11 | 1.21 | 9 | 0.99 | 20 | 2.19 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 13 | 18 | 1.63 | 23 | 2.08 | 27 | 2.45 | 9 | 0.82 | 5 | 0.45 |
| 14 | 13 | 1.12 | 49 | 4.24 | 35 | 3.03 | 3 | 0.26 | 24 | 2.08 |
| 15 | 19 | 2.48 | 13 | 1.70 | 32 | 4.17 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16 | 44 | 3.05 | 44 | 3.05 | 66 | 4.57 | 15 | 1.04 | 7 | 0.48 |
| 17 | 16 | 2.20 | 7 | 0.96 | 18 | 2.47 | 4 | 0.55 | 1 | 0.14 |
| 18 | 38 | 3.89 | 17 | 1.74 | 42 | 4.30 | 8 | 0.82 | 5 | 0.51 |
| 19 | 6 | 1.02 | 15 | 2.55 | 18 | 3.06 | 2 | 0.34 | 1 | 0.17 |
| 20 | 15 | 1.78 | 39 | 4.63 | 51 | 6.06 | 1 | 0.12 | 2 | 0.24 |
| Total + mean | 295 | 1.87 | 436 | 2.76 | 573 | 3.63 | 87 | 0.55 | 71 | 0.45 |

Due to the RA numbers, it was not feasible to make individual comparisons among all the texts. As a result, a range between the lowest and the highest frequencies is provided for each citation feature to give some idea of how varied the individual use was. In the author integration category, frequencies for integrals ranged between 0.41 and 3.89 and between 0.96 and 7.26 for non-integrals. This range shows that the DSRA citations were more inclined towards non-integrals. The textual integration frequencies ranged as follows: assimilations were from 0.53 to 8.28, insertions were from 0 to 1.85 and insertion + assimilations were from 0 to 2.08. The ranges strongly confirm the already established pattern of using a lot more assimilation than other forms.

To get a clearer indication of how citation patterns work in practice, I skimmed through the introduction sections of a selection of RAs, focusing on outliers such as DSRA8, which had the highest frequencies for non-integrals (7.26) and assimilations (8.28). Thirteen citations were identified and, interestingly, all of them were non-integral and eight out of the 13 were assimilations. Regarding source types, eight were from institutional sources (United Nations and National Research Council) and the other five were from individual authors. The topic on metropolitan governance seems to have led to the use of more institutional sources, which partly explains why the writer used a lot of non-integral and assimilation forms. As will be explained in the discussion section, institutional sources are normally regarded as reliable sources of factual information that are hardly disputed.

The ELRA corpus results are displayed in Table 4.10.

*Table 4.10: ELRA Citation integration frequencies per text*

| ELRA | Author integration | | | | Textual integration | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Integral | | Non-integral | | Assimilation | | Insertion | | Insertion + Assimilation | |
| Text | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| 1 | 105 | 3.41 | 23 | 0.75 | 116 | 3.77 | 6 | 0.19 | 6 | 0.19 |
| 2 | 11 | 1.93 | 30 | 5.28 | 39 | 6.86 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.35 |
| 3 | 12 | 1.30 | 51 | 5.54 | 60 | 6.52 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0.33 |
| 4 | 23 | 2.72 | 8 | 0.95 | 27 | 3.19 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.47 |
| 5 | 26 | 3.28 | 24 | 3.03 | 43 | 5.43 | 3 | 0.38 | 4 | 0.51 |
| 6 | 17 | 2.46 | 16 | 2.32 | 24 | 3.48 | 2 | 0.29 | 7 | 1.01 |
| 7 | 7 | 0.90 | 28 | 3.61 | 32 | 4.12 | 1 | 0.13 | 2 | 0.26 |
| 8 | 26 | 3.15 | 57 | 6.91 | 81 | 9.83 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.24 |
| 9 | 21 | 1.89 | 36 | 3.24 | 40 | 3.60 | 13 | 1.17 | 4 | 0.36 |
| 10 | 13 | 1.38 | 29 | 3.07 | 34 | 3.60 | 4 | 0.42 | 4 | 0.42 |
| 11 | 22 | 1.69 | 19 | 1.46 | 27 | 2.08 | 6 | 0.46 | 8 | 0.61 |
| 12 | 17 | 1.81 | 12 | 1.27 | 17 | 1.81 | 6 | 0.64 | 6 | 0.64 |
| 13 | 4 | 1.29 | 10 | 3.23 | 12 | 3.87 | 1 | 0.32 | 1 | 0.32 |
| 14 | 24 | 5.52 | 2 | 0.46 | 22 | 5.06 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.92 |
| 15 | 14 | 1.89 | 18 | 2.43 | 24 | 3.25 | 5 | 0.68 | 3 | 0.41 |
| 16 | 8 | 1.65 | 15 | 3.10 | 20 | 4.13 | 3 | 0.62 | 0 | 0 |
| 17 | 19 | 2.01 | 18 | 1.91 | 30 | 3.18 | 4 | 0.42 | 3 | 0.32 |
| 18 | 5 | 0.41 | 32 | 2.63 | 37 | 3.04 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 19 | 39 | 8.91 | 10 | 2.28 | 19 | 4.34 | 9 | 2.06 | 21 | 4.79 |
| 20 | 16 | 2.95 | 17 | 3.13 | 11 | 2.03 | 18 | 3.31 | 4 | 0.74 |
| Total + mean | 429 | 2.40 | 455 | 2.54 | 715 | 3.99 | 81 | 0.45 | 88 | 0.49 |

The ranges between the lowest and the highest frequencies in the ELRA corpus were as follows. In the author integration category, integrals ranged between 0.41 and 8.91, and non-integrals ranged between 0.46 and 6.91. This range marks a noticeable presence of integrals in this group. In the textual integration category, frequencies for assimilations varied from 1.81 to 9.83, insertions varied from 0 to 3.31 and insertion + assimilations ranged from 0 to 4.79. Comparing the two RA groups shows that while the DSRA were inclined towards non-integral citations, the ELRA tended to use integral citations and had higher frequencies for insertion and insertion + assimilation.

Two texts had exceptional frequencies in the ELRA corpus and their introductions were closely examined to try and understand why such results obtained. Text ELRA8 recorded the highest frequencies in non-integrals (6.91) and assimilations (9.83). The text's introduction contained 17 citations all of which were assimilations, and 10 out the 17 were non-integral. All the sources were authored by individuals. One possible reason for this pattern could be that the writer strongly preferred non-integral forms so as not to interrupt the flow of the reporting statements, and preferred assimilations to foreground her voice instead of the cited voices. Contrary to the previous text, ELRA19 scored the highest frequencies in integrals (8.91) and insertion + assimilations (4.79). Eleven citations were found in the introduction. Out of these, ten were integral forms and six insertion + assimilation forms. All sources were authored by individuals. The general tendency by the EL writers to use integral forms has already been identified, and these writers could be among those who clearly prefer projecting their voices into their arguments through RVs.

**4.1.3 Cross-genre comparisons**

Comparisons were also done between different levels within the same discipline to see how the writers differed in their citation practices. Statistical significance of differences between genres was also tested and the results are displayed in Tables 4.11 to 4.16. As mentioned at the beginning of the section, previous cross-genre studies have tended to be two-way comparisons (e.g. Hyland 2002a; Jalilifar 2012; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad 2011) but the present study is three-way. These comparisons may help us to identify genre-based patterns of use that may assist in the teaching of academic writing.

**4.1.3.1 DS corpora**

The DS genres were compared by way of three two-way comparisons, as follows: DSM – DSD; DSM – DSRA; DSD - DSRA and the significant differences found are displayed in the next three tables. Let me remind the reader that there are no MWU tests when DSD corpora are part of the comparison because of their small number.

*Table 4.11: Citation integration: DSM - DSD cross-genre comparisons*

|  | Discipline | DSM | | DSD | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Author integration | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
|  | Integral | 379 | **2.76** | 358 | 1.93 | 23.41 | 1.43 | **0.0001** |
|  | Non-integral | 477 | 3.47 | 740 | **3.99** | 5.67 | 1.15 | **0.05** |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 808 | **5.88** | 828 | 4.47 | 30.90 | 1.32 | **0.0001** |
|  | Insertion | 41 | 0.30 | 133 | **0.72** | 27.52 | 2.38 | **0.0001** |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Insertion + assimilation | 7 | 0.05 | 137 | **0.74** | 107.87 | 14.50 | **0.0001** |
| Total citations | 856 | 6.23 | 1098 | 5.92 | 2.49 | 1.05 | - |

In terms of the LL test, the DSM writers used very significantly more integral citations and assimilations. On the other hand, the DSD writers used significantly more non-integral citations and very significantly more insertions and insertion + assimilations. Considering the validity criteria, the last two results are the only ones that meet the RR 1.50 threshold, but their RSDs are above 50 in the DSD group, therefore no results meet the criteria for potential validity. Nevertheless, the integral and non-integral results are worth noting because they are part of the observed larger patterns to be discussed in section 4.1.4.

*Table 4.12: Citation integration: DSM - DSRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Citation integration | | Genre | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSM | | DSRA | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Author integration | Integral | 379 | **2.76** | 295 | 1.87 | 25.41 | 1.48 | **0.0001** | 22 | 0.0672 |
| | Non-integral | 477 | **3.47** | 436 | 2.76 | 11.93 | 1.26 | **0.001** | 27 | 0.1260 |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 808 | **5.88** | 573 | 3.63 | 79.47 | 1.62 | **0.0001** | 12 | **0.0107** |
| | Insertion | 41 | **0.30** | 87 | 0.55 | 11.14 | 1.85 | **0.001** | 43 | 0.6599 |
| | Insertion + assimilation | 7 | 0.05 | 71 | **0.45** | 52.52 | 9.09 | **0.0001** | 30 | 0.1868 |
| | Total citations | 856 | **6.23** | 731 | 4.63 | 34.86 | 1.35 | **0.0001** | 23 | 0.0718 |

According to the LL tests, the DSM writers used very significantly more integrals and total citations, (LL = 25.41, p≤0.01 and LL = 34.86, p≤0.01 respectively). The integral citation result could be considered reasonably valid as the MWU value is so close to 0.05 and the RR at 1.48 is so close to the threshold. Though total citations are also close to 0.05 for MWU, the RR is quite far below the threshold and so this difference cannot be regarded as valid. Both statistical tests indicated that the DSM writers employed very significantly more assimilations (LL = 79.47, p≤0.01; U = 12, p<0.05) and this difference meets all requirements for being regarded as substantially valid.

*Table 4.13: Citation integration: DSD - DSRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Citation integration | | Genre | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSD | | DSRA | | | | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Author integration | Integral | 358 | 1.93 | 295 | 1.87 | 0.17 | 1.03 | - |
| | Non-integral | 740 | **3.99** | 436 | 2.76 | 38.14 | 1.44 | **0.0001** |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 828 | **4.47** | 573 | 3.63 | 14.68 | 1.23 | **0.001** |
| | Insertion | 133 | 0.72 | 87 | 0.55 | 3.71 | 1.30 | - |
| | Insertion + assimilation | 137 | **0.74** | 71 | 0.45 | 12.03 | 1.64 | **0.001** |
| | Total citations | 1098 | **5.92** | 731 | 4.63 | 26.88 | 1.28 | **0.0001** |

Although the LL tests indicated that the DSD writers used very significantly more non-integral, assimilation, insertion + assimilation and total citations, none of the results is potentially valid because they do not meet all the validity requirements. Insertion + assimilation meets the RR threshold, but the DSD group has an RSD above 50.

### 4.1.3.2 EL corpora

Similar to the DS genres, the EL ones were compared by way of the three two-way comparisons as follows: ELM – ELD; ELM – ELRA; ELD – ELRA and the results are displayed in the next three tables.

*Table 4.14: Citation integration: ELM - ELD cross-genre comparisons*

| Citation integration | | Genre | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ELM | | ELD | | | | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Author integration | Integral | 460 | **3.00** | 431 | 2.43 | 10.04 | 1.24 | **0.001** |
| | Non-integral | 107 | 0.70 | 363 | **2.03** | 110.70 | 2.91 | **0.0001** |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 443 | 2.89 | 502 | 2.83 | 0.12 | 1.02 | - |
| | Insertion | 30 | 0.20 | 170 | **0.96** | 88.64 | 4.89 | **0.0001** |
| | Insertion + assimilation | 94 | 0.61 | 122 | 0.69 | 0.69 | 1.12 | - |
| | Total citations | 567 | 3.70 | 794 | **4.47** | 11.98 | 1.21 | **0.001** |

According to the LL test, the ELM writers deployed very significantly more integral citations, but the result does not meet the RR threshold. On the other hand, the ELD writers used very significantly more non-integral citations and insertions. Although these two results meet the RR threshold, because all citation features in ELD have RSDs above 50, no results here can be regarded as potentially valid. However, the integral and non-integral results should be noted since they are part of the observed larger patterns that will be discussed in the next section (4.1.4).

*Table 4.15: Citation integration: ELM - ELRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Citation integration | | Genre | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ELM | | ELRA | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| Author integration | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| | Integral | 460 | **3.00** | 429 | 2.40 | 11.22 | 1.25 | **0.001** | 30 | 0.1868 |
| | Non-integral | 107 | 0.70 | 455 | **2.54** | 181.38 | 3.64 | **0.0001** | 7 | **0.0038** |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 443 | 2.89 | 715 | **3.99** | 29.28 | 1.38 | **0.0001** | 28 | 0.1443 |
| | Insertion | 30 | 0.20 | 81 | **0.45** | 17.10 | 2.31 | **0.0001** | 34 | 0.2937 |
| | Insertion + assimilation | 94 | 0.61 | 88 | 0.49 | 2.22 | 1.25 | - | 25 | 0.0969 |
| | Total citations | 567 | 3.70 | 884 | **4.94** | 29.39 | 1.34 | **0.0001** | 27 | 0.1260 |

The LL test suggests that the ELM group tended to use very significantly more integral citations. Although the RR is below the threshold, this result is worth noting since it is in line with the larger pattern already identified (see § 4.1.4). The two tests revealed that the ELRA writers used very significantly more non-integral citations, (LL = 181.38, p≤0.01; U 7, p≤0.01). Since the result meets all the validity criteria, it is substantially valid.

*Table 4.16: Citation integration:  ELD - ELRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Citation integration | | Genre | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ELD | | ELRA | | | | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Author Integration | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| | Integral | 431 | 2.43 | 429 | 2.40 | 0.03 | 1.01 | - |
| | Non-integral | 363 | 2.03 | 455 | **2.54** | 10.14 | 1.25 | **0.001** |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 502 | 2.83 | 715 | **3.99** | 35.84 | 1.41 | **0.0001** |
| | Insertion | 170 | **0.96** | 81 | 0.45 | 32.95 | 2.12 | **0.0001** |
| | Insertion + assimilation | 122 | **0.69** | 88 | 0.49 | 5.80 | 1.40 | **0.05** |
| | Total citations | 794 | 4.47 | 884 | **4.94** | 4.16 | 1.10 | **0.05** |

The LL tests revealed that the ELRA had very significantly more non-integral citations and assimilations. On the other hand, the ELD used significantly more insertion + assimilation and very significantly more insertion. Although the insertion comparison meets the RR threshold, results here cannot be regarded as valid because all ELD citation features had RSDs above 50, indicating considerable internal variability.

### 4.1.4 Discussion

This section discusses the cross-discipline and cross-genre comparison findings on citation integration presented above, focusing mostly on the findings that could be regarded as most valid (see Table 4.49 in the conclusion of this chapter) and drawing conclusions from those findings. Also, larger patterns that were revealed will be mentioned.

In the cross-discipline comparisons, a larger pattern was observed in that the DS postgraduates tended to use more non-integral and assimilation citations than the EL ones, but this difference was more evident between the MA corpora, where the findings that DSM writers used more non-integral and assimilation citation were found to be substantially and reasonably valid respectively. The presence of such relatively consistent patterns indicates that although the samples are small, there seems to be a discipline factor at play. The use of more non-integral and assimilation forms by the DS writers could be partly explained by the nature of some of the sources that they referenced. It was observed that because their discipline deals with human development issues, DS texts noticeably cited documents authored by institutions such as governments, United Nations bodies and other non-governmental organisations. For example, the two citations below are in the non-integral assimilation form.

1. *In the interest of decentralization and poverty reduction, the local government institution re-emerged during the post-democracy era. The Government of Lesotho announced its intentions to re-introduce local government institutions in 1997 through the passage of the Local Government Act, No. 6 (GOL 1997). [DSM1]*

2. *The labour migration story in Africa could be classified according to regions. Labour and irregular migration is common in West Africa. War refugees are common in East Africa and Southern Africa is known for contract labour migrants who seek economic opportunities in neighboring countries (UNFPA, 2005). [DSM4]*

The use of institutional sources was further investigated using the DSM corpus as a sample. Twenty-seven such sources were identified from the corpus with a total of 85 occurrences. The citations constituted almost 10% of the corpus' 856 citations, which is a significant fraction. The use of more total citations with a substantial amount of institutional sources could be an indication of the need by DS students to report what might be seen to be more 'factual' information, possibly because of their human development topics. As a result, writers citing these sources usually

assimilated the propositions into their arguments, using non-integral citation as one of the strategies to achieve this, and so seeming to signal positive evaluation of the cited information.

The non-integral form has the advantages that it allows writers to emphasise the reported proposition rather than the reported author (Badenhorst 2019; Hyland 1999; Peng 2019); it helps writers to keep the flow of the argument uninterrupted (Hewings et al. 2010); and the form promotes integration of sources by permitting group citations where writers refer to a number of sources at the same time (Badenhorst 2019; Swales 2014).

Sefako-Letsoela's (2012) NUL study also found a tendency to use non-integral citation relative to integral ones by senior undergraduates from Science and Arts faculties. In her case, the Humanities faculty, represented by Historical Studies, only used the footnotes system, which aligns with non-integral citation, and it is the system preferred by the department. The issue of disciplinary writing preferences is pursued further in the qualitative discussion of my findings in Chapter 5. The non-integral result is in line with previous studies that found relatively more use of non-integral citations in the sciences generally (e.g. Hyland 1999; Swales 2014; Zhang 2008). Swales (2014), for example, found that parenthetical citations (non-integrals) were much more common in his biology postgraduates' corpus than those with RVs (integrals).

On the other hand, although the evidence for EL writers tending to use more integral citations is not sufficient to meet the validity criteria of this study, it was observed by looking at the proportion of integral to non-integral citations internally for each group, that the EL postgraduate students seemed to prefer integral citation. This result seems to corroborate previous studies' observations that writers in soft disciplines such as the humanities and social sciences are likely to use integral citations to incorporate RVs to show stance and make evaluations of the cited information (Charles 2006a; Hyland 1999, 2010). At MA level, the ELM writers used significantly more insertion + assimilation forms than their DSM counterparts. This is a substantially valid finding but what might have caused the result is not clear. One may postulate that some of the sources that they read could have influenced the ELM citation practices, for example, some individual ELRA texts had high frequencies for insertion and insertion + assimilation as shown by the range of frequencies discussed in section 4.1.2.3. Lastly, the valid finding that the DSMs used more citation overall suggests, as stated earlier, that the DS topics seem to require more factual information such as statistics drawn from different sources.

In the cross-genre comparisons, it was observed that generally, the MAs from both disciplines seemed to use more integral citations than the more senior genres. However, this was most evident in the DS discipline, where the higher use by DSM compared to DSRA was a reasonably valid finding. This could be an indication that the MA writers found it easier to apply integrals. Jalilifar and Dabbi (2012, 99) also observed a distinct preference of integral citations to non-integral ones in Applied Linguistics MA introduction chapters and noted that this citation form, especially verb

controlling, is somehow "the easiest and most obvious" way to incorporate referenced material into one's work. Concerning this matter, Swales (2014, 137) believes that when students first learn referencing in their academic writing, maybe starting from the last years of high school, they will be using integral forms, for instance, when they quote authors of literature set books such as Shakespeare or some characters in the books.

This result agrees with the findings of previous studies that, generally student writers, especially undergraduates and junior postgraduates, used more integral citations than non-integral ones (e.g. Goodier 2008; Jalilifar 2012; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad 2011). In her study comparing undergraduate and professional writings, Goodier found more use of integral citations in the former than the latter. Likewise, Mansourizadeh and Ahmad, when they compared citation practices in research papers written by L2 expert writers and L2 final year masters students, found greater use of integral citation by masters students, mainly to provide comparison of their results with other studies. In addition, Jalilifar (2012) found more use of integral forms in student writing than published writing in his comparison of citation in introductions of Applied Linguistics MA theses and RAs.

In the DS comparisons, the DSMs used significantly more assimilations than the DSRAs. One possible explanation for this substantially valid result is that the MA thesis writers had more space to work with, (e.g. in the literature review chapter), compared to the RA writers, hence their use of more citations with more assimilations. Although the nature of topics and the cited sources partly contributed as explained earlier, it could also be that DSM, as the lower level, did not make as much explicit evaluation of the cited information as their counterparts did; hence they mostly assimilated propositions. As noted by Hu and Wang (2014), assimilation citation form tends to present the cited information as correct. This citation form, therefore, tends to subtly express an endorsing stance, and this may portray a picture that the writers seemed to agree with most of the propositions that they cited.

In the EL comparisons, the ELRA writers were generally tilted more towards non-integral citations than the postgraduate ones, and a substantially valid result was found for ELRA relative to ELM. Although the non-integral results for the comparison between the ELM and ELD groups did not meet the validity criteria, an interesting pattern was observed in that the difference increased in line with the level of the writers. The difference between the ELRA and the ELM writers was much bigger than that between the ELRA and the ELD writers. This pattern suggests some form of a pecking order, and the presence of more non-integral citations in PhDs and RAs than in MAs "probably indicates a steep learning curve in the use of non-integral forms" as was found by Ädel and Garretson (2006, in Swales 2014, 137) in their comparison of a corpus of biology papers written by third-year undergraduates and graduate students with Hyland's corpus of published RAs. The implication seems to be that more advanced learners display a better mastery of non-integral citations than undergraduates and MAs.

In conclusion, citation is one salient feature of academic writing through which writers "signal their affiliation to their disciplinary community and the place of their work within it" (Hewings et al. 2010, 102). As such, it is imperative that academic writers, especially those of more senior genres, be conversant with the various linguistic realisations of in-text citations and be aware of their evaluative potential. However, some of the studied postgraduates were not fully aware of the implied meanings of their citing practices. They thought that varying citation forms was only to avoid monotony, yet the meanings behind those forms are equally important.

The different dimensions of analysis in this section revealed a number of discipline-based and genre-based patterns and distinctions in citation use. Apart from throwing light on the key determining factors of genre and discipline, here factors such as topic, type of source and personal preference have also been given some consideration as sources of variation in citing practices. The findings also point to a need to provide more explicit help to tertiary students in general and postgraduates in particular about how to exploit the different evaluative attributes of citation forms in a nuanced manner. These attributes are further discussed in Chapter 5 where qualitative investigations are reported, but in the next section aspects of evaluation will come more to the fore in discussion of quantitative aspects of stance resources used in the study corpus.

## 4.2 Stance markers

In the present study, stance generally refers to the writers' attitude towards the propositions or information that they present as well as towards their readers. The study's definition aligns with that of Lancaster (2014, 29) who defined stance as "ways that writers project an authorial presence that conveys attitudes and evaluations while also interacting with the imagined readers, positioning them as aligned or resistant to the views being advanced in the text". Stance has been referred to in different terms by different scholars. For example, while some scholars have used the term 'stance' (e.g. Charles 2006a; Hyland, 2000, 2005b, 2010; Lancaster 2014), others have used the term 'evaluation' to name the same phenomenon (e.g. Geng & Wharton 2016; Martin & White 2005; Thetela 1997). My study used categories named after dialogic stance positions: 'acknowledge', 'distance', 'endorse' and 'contest' (Coffin 2009; Hu & Wang 2014) to analyse RVs, and the classification of 'hedges', 'boosters', 'attitude markers' and 'self-mentions' (Hyland 2005a) to analyse other stance resources. In this section, research questions 1 (b) and 2 (b) are addressed. These relate to the extent to which RVs and other stance markers used in the study corpus differ according to discipline and genre respectively.

### 4.2.1 Overview of results: stance markers

The study corpus was searched for the different types of stance markers and 16548 markers were identified, with a total frequency of 16.7 per 1000 words. Table 4.17 gives the descriptive statistics of the results of the analysis of the whole corpus presented in their genres. It should be noted here

that only verbs used in citing contexts were classified and counted as 'reporting verbs', but those in non-citing contexts were put in relevant stance marker categories such as hedges and boosters (see Chapter 3, § 3.6). All the other stance markers were counted, whether they appeared in citing or non-citing contexts, to give a full picture of the stance taking devices used in the study corpus.

So far, there have been no other single studies to my knowledge that combined a three-way cross-genre and a two-way cross-discipline comparison of all stance markers. Previous studies mostly involved two-way comparisons of genres (e.g. Hyland 2010), disciplines (Sefako-Letsoela 2012) or languages (e.g. Xinghua & Thompson 2009). This being the case, the approach taken here is aimed at enhancing our understanding of stance-taking devices in academic writing in both the genre and discipline dimensions.

*Table 4.17: Overall genre stance marker occurrences and frequencies*

| Stance markers | | MA | | PhD | | RA | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 620 | 2.13 | 552 | 1.52 | 403 | 1.20 |
| | Distance | 193 | 0.66 | 194 | 0.53 | 107 | 0.32 |
| | Endorse | 81 | 0.28 | 103 | 0.28 | 82 | 0.24 |
| | Contest | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0.02 | 0 | 0 |
| Others | Hedges | 2362 | 8.13 | 2092 | 5.76 | 2625 | 7.79 |
| | Boosters | 921 | 3.17 | 1146 | 3.16 | 1256 | 3.73 |
| | Attitude markers | 716 | 2.46 | 578 | 1.59 | 915 | 2.72 |
| | Self-mention | 338 | 1.16 | 410 | 1.13 | 883 | 2.62 |
| Totals | | 5231 | 17.9 | 5081 | 13.1 | 6271 | 18.6 |

Overall, the findings showed that there was considerable use of stance devices in the postgraduate writing and RAs as demonstrated by the frequencies of 16.7 per 1000 words in the whole corpus. This shows the importance of negotiating meaning in academic writing. All genres used acknowledge verbs (e.g. *state, note*) more than the other three verb categories. This pattern can be partly explained by Charles' (2006a, 502) observation that soft disciplines (politics in her case) "construct knowledge through text-based procedures" as compared to hard sciences (materials science in her case) that "primarily construct knowledge through experimentation". This implies that soft disciplines such as the humanities mostly use information from other sources to build their arguments, and my overall results on acknowledge verbs show that much of this is done without necessarily evaluating the relevant propositions.

Frequencies of distance verbs (e.g. *claim, suggest*) and endorse verbs (e.g. *show, demonstrate*) were relatively low in all genres, but where these verbs were employed, they indicated evaluation of reported information by the writers. Coffin (2009) also found infrequent use of distance and endorse verbs in the film studies thesis that she analysed. While distance verbs acted like hedges to signal writers' lack of commitment to reported propositions, endorse verbs acted like boosters to "express conviction and assert a proposition with confidence" (Hyland 1998a, 350). The overview results show that the postgraduate writers used more distance than endorse verbs, while the RA writers used somewhat more endorse verbs than distance ones. This pattern could be an indication that the RA writers were more assertive in their writing than the postgraduate ones. Contest verbs (e.g. *ignore, brush off*) were used extremely rarely, as shown by their very low frequencies in PhDs (0.02) and their absence in MAs and RAs. This finding agrees with previous research (e.g. Hu & Wang 2014; Thompson & Ye 1991; Zhang 2008).

Although all genres demonstrated high use of acknowledge verbs, it can be noticed from the frequencies that the more 'senior' the writers, the less these 'value-free' verbs were used: MAs showed the highest frequency, followed by PhDs and then RAs. This same pattern applies to distance verbs too. The fact that the RAs generally had fewer RVs seems to suggest that these writers to some extent were more inclined to use other resources than the verbs to communicate stance. The absence of contest verbs in other genres, particularly RA, does not mean that they totally avoided a critical stance because other means were employed to critique sources, as illustrated in Chapter 5 (§ 5.2.2.1).

 It is interesting to observe that all genres had a similar usage pattern of other stance markers, with hedges in the first position, followed by boosters, attitude markers and self-mention in that order. Hedges (e.g. *may, possible*) constituted 42.8% of the total stance markers. This is not a surprising result for the humanities, considering that issues in this field involve relatively more subjectivity, and would, therefore, require writers to employ meaning negotiating strategies that would create room for dialogue. On the other hand, boosters (e.g. *indeed* and *clearly*) were used by all writers to express commitment to their content. Boosters "assert a proposition or stress a conviction rhetorically" (Abdollahzadeh 2011, 293). To an extent, they mark involvement with readers. Some earlier studies also ranked boosters second and revealed their significance in academic writing (e.g. Hyland 2004; Lee 2009; Navidi & Ghafoori 2015). In all these studies it was found that in the soft disciplines boosters were the second most frequent stance markers after hedges.

Besides expressing the degree of the confidence that they had in propositions through hedges and boosters, writers employed attitude markers to express their personal feelings such as agreement, disappointment and surprise. Attitude markers (e.g. *unfortunately, significantly*) is one way through which writers explicitly project their voices into their arguments. They were found to also have been used noticeably by postgraduate and RA writers in other studies (e.g. Hyland 2004,

2005b, 2010; Navid & Ghafoori 2015), but they were used rarely in Sefako-Letsoela's (2012) undergraduate writing.

Self-mention markers like *I, us,* and *the researcher* were the least used in the corpus. It was observed that RA writers used a lot more self-mentions, more than double that of the MAs and the PhDs. This could be an indication of confidence and assertiveness by the RA writers about explicitly intruding their voices into their writing. Hyland (2002) found more personal pronouns in soft sciences than in hard sciences in his comparative study of RAs. He discovered that generally, writers in humanities and social sciences showed a stronger identity in their writing compared to those in the hard sciences. This was supported by the fact that three-quarters of all the personal pronouns in the corpus occurred in the humanities and social sciences. He stated in the same study that he observed from his experience with undergraduate students that they tended either to underuse writer pronouns or use them 'unadventurously', referring to their texts rather than their ideas. The MA writers in my study exhibited a similar self-reference practice as shall be discussed in the next section.

### 4.2.2 Cross-discipline comparisons

Stance markers used by writers of the same level from the two disciplines were compared to see if there were discipline-based differences in their stance taking practices. Results of the three genres' comparisons are presented in separate sections in the ascending order of MA, PhD and RA.

### 4.2.2.1 MA corpora

Table 4.18 presents results of a cross-discipline comparison between the DSM and ELM corpora's stance taking devices together with a descriptive summary of frequencies found in the two groups. The groups are then discussed separately, getting down to individual texts to portray a clearer picture of the group members' writing practices.

*Table 4.18: Stance markers: MA cross-discipline comparisons*

| Stance markers | | Discipline | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSM | | ELM | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 266 | 1.94 | 365 | **2.38** | 6.22 | 1.22 | **0.05** | 7 | 0.2983 |
| | Distance | 106 | **0.77** | 84 | 0.54 | 5.87 | 1.42 | **0.05** | 10 | 0.6744 |
| | Endorse | 34 | 0.25 | 45 | 0.29 | 0.26 | 1.12 | - | 7.5 | 0.3472 |
| | Contest | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | - | - | - | - |

| Other markers | Hedges | 967 | 7.04 | 1395 | **9.10** | 37.97 | 1.29 | **0.0001** | 4 | 0.0949 |
| | Boosters | 366 | 2.67 | 555 | **3.62** | 21.02 | 1.36 | **0.0001** | 7.5 | 0.3472 |
| | Att. markers | 298 | 2.17 | 418 | **2.73** | 9.15 | 1.26 | **0.01** | 12 | 1 |
| | Self-mention | 107 | 0.78 | 231 | **1.51** | 33.92 | 1.93 | **0.0001** | 7 | 0.2983 |
| **Total** | | 2146 | 15.6 | 3093 | **20.2** | 82.84 | 1.29 | **0.0001** | 2 | **0.0366** |

Both tests indicate that the ELMs used significantly more stance markers in total (LL = 82.84, p≤0.01; U = 2; p≤0.05) but although this result is worth noting, it cannot be regarded as potentially valid because the effect size is too small (RR=1.29). Similarly, although the LL results suggest that ELM writers used more hedges, and MWU indicates relatively low internal variability in the groups compared (U=4; p≤0.10) the effect size was again too small (RR=1.29). The limitations of relying on LL results alone are more clearly shown with regard to the apparently significant indication that ELM writers tended to use more self-mention. Despite the large effect size (RR=1.93) as well, the result does not qualify as a valid finding because the MWU result indicates high internal variability within the two writer groups compared. To summarise, then, there are no differences in the use of stance markers between the DSM and ELM writers that can be regarded as potentially valid.

At this point, the discussion focuses on further details of how the individual MA writers used stance markers in their writing. This may help to make better sense of certain statistical findings, particularly with regard to internal variability of the groups, as seen in the table below.

*Table 4.19: DSM Stance marker frequencies per text*

| Stance marker | | DSM1 | | DSM2 | | DSM3 | | DSM4 | | *DSM5 | | Total + mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 68 | 2.85 | 57 | 1.79 | 66 | 2.53 | 28 | 1.15 | 47 | 1.51 | 266 | 1.94 |
| | Distance | 10 | 0.42 | 24 | 0.75 | 48 | 1.84 | 7 | 0.29 | 17 | 0.55 | 106 | 0.77 |
| | Endorse | 13 | 0.55 | 6 | 0.19 | 6 | 0.23 | 3 | 0.12 | 6 | 0.19 | 34 | 0.25 |
| Other markers | Hedges | 186 | 7.81 | 225 | 7.07 | 208 | 7.98 | 119 | 4.87 | 229 | 7.35 | 967 | 7.04 |
| | Boosters | 65 | 2.73 | 60 | 1.88 | 51 | 1.96 | 123 | 5.03 | 67 | 2.15 | 366 | 2.67 |
| | Attitude markers | 51 | 2.14 | 63 | 1.98 | 79 | 3.03 | 40 | 3.03 | 65 | 2.09 | 298 | 2.17 |
| | Self-mention | 35 | 1.47 | 14 | 0.44 | 1 | 0.04 | 43 | 1.76 | 14 | 0.45 | 107 | 0.78 |

The issue of self-mention variability that was noted in the cross-discipline discussion is demonstrated in this group by a wide frequency range of between 0.04 and 1.76. While DSM4 had

the highest frequency using *the researcher* in all instances, DSM1 had the second highest frequency using *I* in the majority of cases, then *me* and *my* in a few cases. DSM1 also had more endorse verbs than distance ones and also the most endorse verbs in the group. The writer used two endorse verbs, *show* with eight counts and *find* with five counts. DSM4 displayed an unusual pattern in that it had more boosters than hedges. The verbs *find* and *show* (used in non-citing contexts) were among the most used boosters, and in the extract below, two boosters were used, showing the writer's confidence in the reported findings.

3. *This was **found** to be **true** because the researcher also observed that all the interviewed ex-miners were involved in agricultural production in the form of ploughing maize, sorghum, beans, peas and some vegetables.*

Regarding the ELM corpus, individual text analysis with results in Table 4.20 revealed some patterns worth discussing.

*Table 4.20: ELM Stance marker frequencies per text*

| Stance marker | | *ELM1 | | ELM2 | | ELM3 | | *ELM4 | | ELM5 | | Total + mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 85 | 2.03 | 85 | 2.89 | 90 | 5.26 | 30 | 0.77 | 75 | 2.89 | 365 | 2.38 |
| | Distance | 24 | 0.57 | 7 | 0.24 | 15 | 0.88 | 19 | 0.49 | 19 | 0.73 | 84 | 0.55 |
| | Endorse | 11 | 0.26 | 4 | 0.14 | 10 | 0.58 | 14 | 0.36 | 6 | 0.23 | 45 | 0.29 |
| Other markers | Hedges | 208 | 4.96 | 323 | 10.9 | 164 | 9.59 | 405 | 10.4 | 295 | 11.4 | 1395 | 9.10 |
| | Boosters | 160 | 3.82 | 150 | 5.10 | 74 | 4.33 | 73 | 1.88 | 98 | 3.78 | 555 | 3.62 |
| | Attitude markers | 208 | 4.96 | 44 | 1.50 | 48 | 2.81 | 52 | 1.34 | 66 | 2.54 | 418 | 2.73 |
| | Self-mention | 96 | 2.29 | 6 | 0.20 | 27 | 1.58 | 25 | 0.64 | 77 | 2.97 | 231 | 1.51 |

ELM4 recorded very low frequencies for acknowledge verbs compared to the rest of the texts. This is most likely because the text showed fewer integral citations than the other texts, as revealed by the citation integration results. Hedges were the most used in all texts, and three texts conformed to the overall pattern of boosters, attitude markers and self-mentions. ELM1 and ELM5 results deviated from the common pattern. ELM1 used more attitude markers than boosters with *correctly*, *correct*, *appropriately* and *appropriate* featuring most as they were used by the writer to comment on the use of subordinate clauses by student writers. This outcome resulted from the nature of the topic of research which required the researcher to comment on the correctness of grammatical structures written by participants. On the other hand, ELM5 had more self-mention (*the researcher*) than attitude markers. The noun phrase was mostly used to report research procedures

in the methodology chapter. The 77 occurrences were checked and found appropriate despite a degree of monotony, for example,

4. ***The researcher*** *wanted to find out whether children would respond in a relevant manner according to what was being talked about.*

Writers ELM1 and ELM4 were interviewed to find out more about their stance taking practices. Writer ELM1 was not aware that she used attitude markers and boosters in her writing, but writer ELM4 could recall how he had used the resources in his writing partly because he had used the Appraisal theory, which made him aware of the dialogic effects of such resources. He responded to questions 7 and 8 on whether he used hedges, boosters and attitude markers as follows:

(Hedges) *Yes, and I think it's hedging a lot…So I do it a lot of times even when I discuss findings because I think I want to be cautious because sometimes I think that they suggest patterns. So, I do not say, "These are the patterns" but I say, "They show patterns" or "suggest something" so I think sometimes I just do it too much...*

(Boosters) *…but I don't like them (laughing). I think it's because in one of my studies I was dealing with dialogic expansion and stuff like that. Yah, yah. I think it makes a discussion, a dialogue to be difficult especially because I think when you make statements or when you propose it is always the case that what you say can be revised.*

(Attitude markers) *I do use them, but I try to be as sparing as possible, but I think the ones that I use usually are "significantly" and "interestingly" particularly when I show a situation where there is an element of surprise, so I'll say, "Significantly" and "interestingly" for the readers to be aware but I use them very sparingly.*

The responses above show that the writer used more hedges than other markers because he wanted to present his information with caution, especially when discussing his findings. This is supported by the fact that, on his profile, hedges had by far the highest frequency (10.4). However, he admitted that he sometimes overdid the hedging such that he ended up being too tentative. This writer said he did not use many boosters because he learnt from his MA research that they close dialogic space. This is also supported by the low boosters' frequency (1.88). As can be observed from the table, this writer had the widest margin between hedges and boosters compared to others. Also, writer ELM4 said he used attitude markers sparingly and this is also reflected by a frequency (1.34) on his profile.

### 4.2.2.2 PhD corpora

Following similar procedures applied to the MA corpora, the two PhD corpora were compared to see how they fared in their use of stance taking devices. Table 4.21 presents a summary of

frequencies found in DSD and ELD corpora as well as the cross-discipline comparison results. The comparisons are discussed before getting down to details of groups and their individual texts.

*Table 4.21: Stance markers: PhD cross-discipline comparisons*

| Stance markers | | Discipline | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSD | | ELD | | | | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 262 | 1.41 | 297 | **1.67** | 3.93 | 1.18 | **0.05** |
| | Distance | 99 | 0.53 | 91 | 0.52 | 0.32 | 1.08 | - |
| | Endorse | 31 | 0.17 | 72 | **0.41** | 18.57 | 2.42 | **0.0001** |
| | Contest | 4 | 0.02 | 2 | 0.01 | 0.60 | 1.92 | - |
| Other markers | Hedges | 1289 | **6.95** | 803 | 4.52 | 94.28 | 1.54 | **0.0001** |
| | Boosters | 487 | 2.63 | 659 | **3.71** | 33.72 | 1.41 | **0.0001** |
| | Attitude markers | 389 | **2.10** | 189 | 1.06 | 62.44 | 1.97 | **0.0001** |
| | Self-mention | 391 | **2.11** | 19 | 0.11 | 398.97 | 19.73 | **0.0001** |
| **Total** | | 2952 | **15.9** | 2132 | 12.0 | 100.37 | 1.33 | **0.0001** |

The LL test indicated that the ELD writers employed very significantly more endorse verbs, but unfortunately, though the result meets the RR threshold, the RSD for ELD group is above 50. With regard to other stance markers, according to the LL test, the DSD writers recorded significantly higher frequencies in the categories of hedges, attitude markers and self-mention. They deployed very significantly more hedges and attitude markers (LL = 94.28, p≤0.01 and LL = 62.44, p≤0.01 respectively). Although the self-mention RR meets the threshold, the result is not valid because both groups had huge internal variability on this feature (RSDs above 50). This means that only hedges and attitude markers results are potentially valid as they meet all validity requirements (significant LL results, RRs above 1.50 and RSDs below 50). These results could be indicating that the DSD texts were more engaging, with writers taking explicit stance towards propositions and prospective readers to negotiate meaning in their human development arguments.

Further details of how the two DSD writers utilised stance resources are displayed in Table 4.22.

*Table 4.22: DSD Stance marker frequencies per text*

| Stance marker | | DSD1 | | *DSD2 | | Total + mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 164 | 1.98 | 98 | 0.96 | 262 | 1.41 |
| | Distance | 45 | 0.54 | 54 | 0.52 | 99 | 0.56 |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Endorse | 11 | 0.13 | 20 | 0.20 | 31 | 0.17 |
| | Contest | 4 | 0.05 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.02 |
| Other markers | Hedges | 576 | 6.96 | 713 | 6.95 | 1289 | 6.95 |
| | Boosters | 272 | 3.29 | 215 | 2.10 | 487 | 2.63 |
| | Attitude markers | 156 | 1.88 | 233 | 2.27 | 389 | 2.10 |
| | Self-mention | 358 | 4.32 | 33 | 0.32 | 391 | 2.11 |

As can be observed from the table, text DSD2 recorded a lower frequency of acknowledge verbs compared to text DSD1, most likely because the former text had lower use of integral citations, the form that usually contains RVs. The text had integral citations that were about a third of the non-integral ones.

Regarding other stance markers, both texts had hedges as the most used marker but otherwise displayed different patterns. Interestingly, DSD1 had self-mention in the second position, boosters in third and attitude markers last. The position of self-mention in the DSD1 profile is very unusual considering that it is normally the least used. It appears the writer preferred directly mentioning himself as a way of projecting an authorial voice. This helped to pronounce a "personal standing" in the text in order to display "a credible scholarly identity" (Hyland 2002a, 3), but this practice may be interpreted negatively. It may be taken as overuse of a resource that is normally rarely used, and may also imply the writer's inability to utilise alternative resources such as passive voice and the indefinite pronoun 'it'. The writer used the personal pronouns *I*, *me* and *my* and *I* was the most frequent. A large portion (43%) of the self-mention instances occurred in Chapter 1 where, according to the DSD thesis structures, the writers described their research methods, as illustrated by extract 5. The rest of these markers appeared in different places throughout the other chapters of the thesis, for instance, when providing advance organisers before analysing data, as in extract 6.

5. *I managed to interview seven (7) of them and missed one (1) who was not available.*

6. *With this brief and general background, I move to the general description of the research areas represented by the four (4) Community Councils. I leave the detailed description of these for chapter six.*

On the other hand, writer DSD2 used a small amount of self-mention in chapter 1 and even less in the other chapters. The first-person pronoun *I* constituted almost 70% of all her self-mention resources, and *me* and *my* were less used. Using first-person pronouns seems to be a common practice in the DS postgraduate corpus. This may be partly because, as indicated in some of their interview responses, the DS supervisors were more flexible about the use of the pronouns than their EL counterparts, who openly discouraged their use. During the interviews, writer DSD2 responded to question 7, which was about the use of hedges and boosters, as follows:

*I would often hedge my statements when I was not certain about the information, but I used a few boosters. Boosting statements may invite criticism from my supervisors and readers if they hold different views from mine.*

The response is supported by statistics on her profile, with a much higher frequency for hedges than for boosters. She said she rarely used attitude markers because she felt they were not a characteristic of academic writing, but contrary to her comment, she used slightly more attitude markers than boosters. A follow-up question was posed together with an attitude marker extracted from her text, to which she responded that she was not aware that those were the rhetorical devices referred to as attitude markers. This is an example of instances where participants were either not aware of what attitude markers were or failed to recall that they used them.

Moving on to the ELD sub-corpus, the individual texts exhibited patterns shown in Table 4.23.

*Table 4.23: ELD Stance marker frequencies per text*

| Stance marker | | *ELD1 | | ELD2 | | Total + mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 186 | 3.30 | 111 | 0.91 | 297 | 1.67 |
| | Distance | 44 | 0.78 | 47 | 0.39 | 91 | 0.52 |
| | Endorse | 53 | 0.94 | 19 | 0.16 | 72 | 0.41 |
| | Contest | 2 | 0.04 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.01 |
| Other markers | Hedges | 256 | 4.54 | 547 | 4.51 | 803 | 4.52 |
| | Boosters | 183 | 3.25 | 476 | 3.92 | 659 | 3.71 |
| | Attitude markers | 48 | 0.85 | 141 | 1.16 | 189 | 1.06 |
| | Self-mention | 13 | 0.23 | 6 | 0.05 | 19 | 0.11 |

Both texts mostly used acknowledge verbs, but while text ELD1 used slightly more endorse verbs than distance ones, text ELD2 followed the overall pattern of more distance than endorse verbs. It was observed that text ELD1 had much wider frequency margins between acknowledge verbs and the other verb types than text ELD2 had. In the category of other stance markers, attitude markers were noticeably more common in ELD2 than in ELD1. I think in this case ELD2's topic partly contributed to this pattern because, since it was an analysis of a religious text, it created more room for expression of personal feelings using modifiers such as *dramatic* and *strange*. Self-mentions were very few in this sub-corpus, especially in text ELD2. While ELD1 used *the researcher* throughout, ELD2 used *the researcher* and *I*. One possible reason why writer ELD2 had very few self-mentions is that he might have preferred a more impersonal style that uses resources such as passive voice to achieve "a critically distanced stance" (Lancaster 2012, 214). For example, in the

theoretical framework excerpt below, the writer opted for the passive voice, using the indefinite pronoun 'it' to avoid 'I'.

7. ***It*** *was quickly noted, for instance, that most manifest intertextual analysis categories, such as discourse representation with its various sub-categories…*

### 4.2.2.3 RA corpora

DSRA and ELRA corpora were also compared to see if they differed in their use of stance markers. A summary of frequencies for the two corpora and the results of the comparisons are presented in Table 4.24.

*Table 4.24: Stance markers: RA cross-discipline comparisons*

| Stance markers | | Discipline | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | **DSRA** | | **ELRA** | | **Log-likelihood** | | | **Mann-Whitney U** | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 135 | 0.86 | 268 | **1.25** | 29.52 | 1.75 | **0.0001** | 145 | 0.1415 |
| | Distance | 69 | **0.43** | 45 | 0.25 | 8.58 | 1.74 | **0.01** | 97 | **0.0056** |
| | Endorse | 44 | 0.28 | 38 | 0.21 | 1.53 | 1.31 | **-** | 193 | 0.8571 |
| | Contest | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | - | **-** | - | **-** |
| Other markers | Hedges | 1256 | 7.96 | 1369 | 7.65 | 1.06 | 1.04 | **-** | 189 | 0.7794 |
| | Boosters | 598 | 3.97 | 658 | 3.68 | 0.30 | 1.03 | **-** | 190 | 0.8103 |
| | Attitude markers | 385 | 2.44 | 530 | **2.96** | 8.40 | 1.21 | **0.01** | 180 | 0.6100 |
| | Self-mention | 349 | 2.21 | 534 | **2.98** | 19.19 | 1.35 | **0.0001** | 171 | 0.4413 |
| **Total** | | 2829 | 17.9 | 3407 | **19.0** | 5.48 | 1.06 | **0.05** | 180 | 0.6100 |

The LL test indicates that the ELRA significantly used more acknowledge verbs with RR at the threshold, but the MWU value is insignificant though relatively lower. Though the LL test found significance in attitude markers and self-mention, the results do not meet the validity requirements. On the DSRA side, both tests indicated that the writers employed very significantly more distance verbs (LL = 8.58, p≤0.01; U = 97; p≤0.01). This is the only substantially valid result.

At this point, details of each RA sub-corpus are looked into. Details of the individual DSRA texts are presented in Table 4.25 below.

*Table 4.25: DSRA Stance marker frequencies per text*

| DSRA | Reporting verbs | | | | | | Hedges | | Boosters | | Attitude markers | | Self-mention | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Acknowledge | | Distance | | Endorse | | | | | | | | | |
| Text | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| 1 | 12 | 1.30 | 1 | 0.11 | 0 | 0 | 50 | 5.42 | 24 | 2.60 | 14 | 1.52 | 12 | 1.30 |
| 2 | 10 | 1.82 | 3 | 0.54 | 0 | 0 | 26 | 4.72 | 19 | 3.45 | 19 | 3.45 | 6 | 1.09 |
| 3 | 4 | 0.44 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.11 | 100 | 11.1 | 51 | 5.65 | 21 | 2.33 | 16 | 1.77 |
| 4 | 2 | 0.53 | 2 | 0.52 | 1 | 0.26 | 9 | 2.38 | 17 | 4.50 | 2 | 0.53 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 15 | 1.88 | 7 | 0.88 | 0 | 0 | 52 | 6.51 | 16 | 2.00 | 4 | 0.50 | 3 | 0.38 |
| 6 | 2 | 0.40 | 3 | 0.61 | 0 | 0 | 34 | 6.96 | 28 | 5.37 | 10 | 2.05 | 18 | 3.69 |
| 7 | 15 | 1.55 | 1 | 1.10 | 0 | 0 | 48 | 4.96 | 22 | 2.27 | 18 | 1.86 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | 7 | 1.18 | 4 | 0.68 | 0 | 0 | 51 | 8.62 | 17 | 2.87 | 17 | 2.87 | 2 | 0.34 |
| 9 | 6 | 1.19 | 2 | 0.40 | 2 | 0.40 | 30 | 5.97 | 12 | 2.39 | 10 | 1.99 | 15 | 2.98 |
| 10 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.38 | 0 | 0 | 33 | 6.35 | 16 | 3.08 | 21 | 4.04 | 2 | 0.38 |
| 11 | 8 | 1.04 | 2 | 0.26 | 2 | 0.26 | 58 | 7.56 | 23 | 2.10 | 24 | 3.13 | 15 | 1.96 |
| 12 | 2 | 0.22 | 3 | 0.32 | 8 | 0.88 | 65 | 7.13 | 27 | 2.96 | 14 | 1.54 | 76 | 8.34 |
| 13 | 12 | 1.09 | 6 | 0.54 | 0 | 0 | 95 | 8.61 | 38 | 3.44 | 39 | 3.53 | 11 | 0.10 |
| 14 | 4 | 0.35 | 2 | 0.17 | 0 | 0 | 42 | 3.63 | 32 | 2.77 | 52 | 4.50 | 2 | 0.17 |
| 15 | 7 | 1.10 | 2 | 0.31 | 4 | 0.63 | 59 | 9.27 | 17 | 2.22 | 14 | 1.83 | 61 | 7.95 |
| 16 | 32 | 2.22 | 5 | 0.35 | 6 | 0.42 | 174 | 12.0 | 103 | 7.13 | 50 | 3.46 | 54 | 3.74 |
| 17 | 8 | 1.10 | 1 | 0.14 | 4 | 0.55 | 75 | 10.3 | 41 | 5.63 | 15 | 2.06 | 12 | 1.65 |
| 18 | 18 | 1.84 | 8 | 0.82 | 9 | 0.92 | 126 | 12.9 | 45 | 4.60 | 17 | 1.74 | 23 | 2.35 |
| 19 | 1 | 0.17 | 5 | 0.85 | 1 | 0.17 | 56 | 9.52 | 39 | 6.63 | 8 | 1.36 | 16 | 2.72 |
| 20 | 4 | 0.48 | 3 | 0.35 | 7 | 0.83 | 73 | 8.67 | 11 | 1.31 | 16 | 1.90 | 5 | 0.59 |
| Total | 135 | 0.86 | 62 | 0.39 | 44 | 0.28 | 1256 | 7.96 | 598 | 3.79 | 385 | 2.44 | 349 | 2.21 |

Texts in this genre displayed varied patterns of usage as can be seen in the table above. In the RVs category, acknowledge verb frequencies ranged between 0 and 2.22, distance verbs between 0 and 1.10 and endorse verbs between 0 and 0.92. Regarding other stance markers, while frequencies for hedges ranged widely from 2.38 to 12.9, boosters were from 1.31 to 7.13. Attitude marker frequencies were between 0.50 and 4.50 and self-mentions ranged from 0 to 8.34. Text DSRA12 had an outstanding self-mention frequency and so it was further examined. This is a co-authored text whose authors used the first-person pronouns for self-referencing with *we* and *our* featuring most and they were mostly used in the Data and Methodology and Results sections. Maybe this was their preferred way to express their explicit presence in the text. More generally, since RA writers are experienced, this wide variation of use could be partly due to the development of more distinct individual styles, as observed by Charles (2006b) for citation forms.

Texts in the ELRA group also displayed varied patterns of use, which are displayed in Table 4.26.

*Table 4.26: ELRA Stance marker frequencies per text*

| ELRA | Reporting verbs | | | | | | Hedges | | Boosters | | Attitude markers | | Self-mention | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Acknowledge | | Distance | | Endorse | | | | | | | | | |
| Text | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| 1 | 77 | 2.50 | 1 | 0.03 | 2 | 0.06 | 245 | 7.96 | 110 | 3.57 | 79 | 2.57 | 137 | 4.45 |
| 2 | 4 | 0.70 | 1 | 0.18 | 5 | 0.88 | 36 | 6.33 | 20 | 3.52 | 24 | 4.22 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | 8 | 0.88 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.11 | 118 | 12.8 | 21 | 2.28 | 35 | 3.80 | 1 | 0.11 |
| 4 | 11 | 1.30 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 0.95 | 84 | 9.94 | 45 | 5.32 | 58 | 6.86 | 10 | 1.18 |
| 5 | 16 | 2.02 | 4 | 0.51 | 2 | 0.25 | 40 | 5.05 | 14 | 1.77 | 11 | 1.39 | 21 | 2.65 |
| 6 | 9 | 1.30 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 69 | 9.99 | 43 | 6.23 | 11 | 1.59 | 32 | 4.63 |
| 7 | 4 | 0.52 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.13 | 40 | 5.15 | 28 | 3.61 | 16 | 2.06 | 65 | 8.38 |
| 8 | 19 | 2.30 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.49 | 55 | 6.67 | 26 | 3.15 | 39 | 4.73 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 12 | 1.08 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.36 | 54 | 4.86 | 47 | 4.23 | 11 | 0.99 | 6 | 0.54 |
| 10 | 8 | 0.85 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 82 | 8.68 | 47 | 4.98 | 37 | 3.92 | 24 | 2.54 |
| 11 | 12 | 0.92 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.15 | 78 | 5.10 | 36 | 2.77 | 40 | 3.07 | 5 | 0.38 |
| 12 | 10 | 1.06 | 1 | 0.11 | 0 | 0 | 102 | 10.8 | 61 | 6.48 | 17 | 1.81 | 65 | 6.90 |
| 13 | 5 | 1.61 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 18 | 5.81 | 10 | 3.23 | 5 | 1.61 | 5 | 1.61 |
| 14 | 15 | 3.45 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0.69 | 33 | 7.59 | 12 | 2.76 | 4 | 0.92 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 | 10 | 1.35 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 58 | 7.85 | 16 | 2.16 | 19 | 2.57 | 16 | 2.16 |
| 16 | 6 | 1.24 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 38 | 7.85 | 19 | 3.92 | 13 | 2.69 | 26 | 5.37 |
| 17 | 7 | 0.74 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0.32 | 91 | 9.63 | 44 | 4.66 | 19 | 2.01 | 60 | 6.35 |
| 18 | 1 | 0.08 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0.25 | 104 | 8.55 | 38 | 3.12 | 81 | 6.66 | 41 | 3.37 |
| 19 | 26 | 5.94 | 1 | 0.23 | 0 | 0 | 16 | 3.65 | 10 | 2.28 | 7 | 1.60 | 7 | 1.60 |
| 20 | 8 | 1.47 | 2 | 0.37 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 1.47 | 11 | 2.03 | 4 | 0.74 | 13 | 2.39 |
| Total | 286 | 1.25 | 10 | 0.06 | 38 | 0.21 | 1369 | 7.65 | 658 | 3.68 | 530 | 2.96 | 534 | 2.98 |

Except for acknowledge verbs, where frequencies tended to be higher than for the DSRA writers and ranged between 0.08 and 5.94, all other features revealed similar ranges to those of the DSRA writers. Writer ELRA7, like DSRA12 above, used self-mention resources exceptionally often, and so I looked more closely at it. Surprisingly, this text is single-authored but the author used second person plural pronouns, mostly *we*, throughout her work, possibly because she wrote under someone's supervision. This text is discussed further in Chapter 5 (§ 5.2.2.3).

## 4.2.3 Cross-genre comparisons

Three-way comparisons were done between different levels within the same discipline to see how the writers differed in their stance taking practices. These comparisons help us to establish patterns of usage resulting from the levels of writers in each discipline, and hopefully to establish areas that need attention in the teaching of academic writing.

**4.2.3.1 DS corpora**

The DS genres were compared by way of the three two-way comparisons as follows: DSM -DSD; DSM - DSRA; DSD – DSRA, and the results are tabled in 4.27, 4.28 and 4.29.

*Table 4.27 Stance markers: DSM - DSD cross-genre comparisons*

| Stance markers | | Genre | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSM | | DSD | | | | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 266 | **1.94** | 262 | 1.41 | 13.06 | 1.35 | **0.001** |
| | Distance | 106 | **0.77** | 99 | 0.56 | 6.93 | 1.45 | **0.01** |
| | Endorse | 34 | 0.25 | 31 | 0.17 | 3.37 | 1.57 | - |
| | Contest | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.02 | 1.14 | 0.34 | - |
| Other markers | Hedges | 967 | 7.04 | 1289 | 6.95 | 0.09 | 1.01 | - |
| | Boosters | 366 | 2.67 | 487 | 2.63 | 0.04 | 1.01 | - |
| | Att. markers | 298 | 2.17 | 389 | 2.10 | 0.19 | 1.03 | - |
| | Self-mention | 107 | 0.78 | 391 | **2.11** | 98.11 | 2.71 | **0.0001** |
| **Total** | | 2144 | 15.6 | 2955 | 15.9 | 0.54 | 1.02 | - |

There are no potentially valid results here. Nonetheless, two results are worth noting as they meet all requirements other than for RR and they seem to be part of a potentially important pattern. In terms of the LL test, the DSM writers recorded very significantly more use of acknowledge and distance verbs. The tendency by MA writers to use more acknowledge and distance verbs has been identified as one of this study's emerging broad trends. Self-mention result is invalid because the DSD group had an RSD above 50.

*Table 4.28: Stance markers: DSM - DSRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Stance markers | | Genre | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSM | | DSRA | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 266 | **1.94** | 135 | 0.86 | 60.90 | 2.23 | **0.0001** | 17 | **0.0271** |
| | Distance | 106 | **0.77** | 62 | 0.39 | 19.81 | 2.00 | **0.0001** | 25 | 0.0969 |
| | Endorse | 34 | 0.25 | 44 | 0.28 | 0.08 | 0.94 | - | 41 | 0.5892 |
| | Contest | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | - | - | - | - |
| | Hedges | 967 | 7.04 | 1256 | **7.96** | 8.25 | 1.13 | **0.01** | 44 | 0.7113 |

| Other markers | Boosters | 366 | 2.67 | 598 | **3.79** | 28.81 | 1.42 | **0.0001** | 27 | 0.1260 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Att. markers | 298 | 2.17 | 385 | 2.44 | 2.32 | 1.12 | - | 48 | 0.9203 |
| | Self-mention | 107 | 0.78 | 349 | **2.21** | 103.85 | 2.84 | **0.0001** | 37 | 0.3953 |
| **Total** | | 2144 | 15.6 | 2829 | **17.9** | 23.49 | 1.15 | **0.0001** | 41 | 0.5619 |

Although the LL test indicates a very significantly higher use of self-mention resources by the DSRA with RR above the threshold, the MWU result is far from significance. The two tests indicate that the DSM writers recorded significantly more use of acknowledge verbs (LL = 60.90, p≤0.01; U = 17, p≤0.05). The LL test suggests that the DSM writers also used very significantly more distance verbs, while the MWU result suggests a tendency toward significance (LL = 19.81, p≤0.01; MWU=25, p≤0.10). Overall, then there are two valid results, namely higher use by MA writers of acknowledge verbs as substantially valid and higher use by the same writers of distance verbs as reasonably valid.

*Table 4.29: Stance markers: DSD - DSRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Stance markers | | Genre | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | DSD | | DSRA | | | | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 262 | **1.41** | 135 | 0.86 | 23.07 | 1.65 | **0.0001** |
| | Distance | 99 | 0.53 | 62 | 0.39 | 3.66 | 1.36 | - |
| | Endorse | 31 | 0.17 | 44 | **0.28** | 4.84 | 1.67 | **0.05** |
| | Contest | 4 | 0.02 | 0 | 0 | 1.48 | 3.40 | - |
| Other markers | Hedges | 1289 | 6.95 | 1256 | **7.96** | 11.60 | 1.14 | **0.001** |
| | Boosters | 487 | 2.63 | 598 | **3.79** | 36.28 | 1.44 | **0.0001** |
| | Att. markers | 389 | 2.10 | 385 | **2.44** | 4.39 | 1.16 | **0.05** |
| | Self-mention | 391 | 2.11 | 349 | 2.21 | 0.41 | 1.05 | - |
| **Total** | | 2955 | 15.9 | 2829 | **17.9** | 19.92 | 1.12 | **0.0001** |

According to the LL test, the DSRA writers used significantly more boosters. Although this result cannot be regarded as potentially valid, it is worth noting because the RR (1.44) just misses the 1.50 threshold. As for the DSD writers, they used very significantly more acknowledge verbs (LL = 23.07, p≤0.01), with RR meeting threshold and RSD for DSD group below 50. Thus, this is the only potentially valid result.

**4.2.3.2 EL corpora**

The EL genres were compared in the same manner as the DS ones by way of the three two-way comparisons, as presented in the next three tables: 4.30, 4.31 and 4.32.

*Table 4.30: Stance markers: ELM - ELD cross-genre comparisons*

| Stance markers | | Genre | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ELM | | ELD | | | | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 365 | **2.38** | 297 | 1.67 | 20.31 | 1.43 | **0.0001** |
| | Distance | 84 | 0.54 | 91 | 0.52 | 0.27 | 1.08 | - |
| | Endorse | 45 | 0.29 | 72 | 0.41 | 2.94 | 1.38 | - |
| | Contest | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.01 | 0.21 | 1.73 | - |
| Other markers | Hedges | 1395 | **9.10** | 803 | 4.52 | 260.53 | 2.01 | **0.0001** |
| | Boosters | 555 | 3.62 | 659 | 3.71 | 0.18 | 1.02 | - |
| | Attitude markers | 418 | **2.73** | 189 | 1.06 | 125.58 | 2.56 | **0.0001** |
| | Self-mention | 231 | **1.51** | 19 | 0.11 | 244.70 | 14.09 | **0.0001** |
| **Total** | | 3087 | **20.1** | 2126 | 11.1 | 347.94 | 1.68 | **0.0001** |

Concerning RVs, it is worth noting that the ELM writers used very significantly more acknowledge verbs. Although the result does not reach the RR threshold and ELD has an RSD above 50, it seems to support the pecking order pattern suggested earlier, of MA writers using more of them than PhD writers, who use more of them than RA writers do. Regarding other stance markers, the ELM writers employed very significantly more hedges and attitude markers (LL = 260.53, $p<0.01$ and LL = 125.58, $p<0.01$ respectively). The RRs show a double effect size for hedges and close to three times effect size for attitude markers. In addition, the ELM writers used very significantly more total markers (LL = 347.94, $p<0.01$). These three results are potentially valid, the highest level that can apply to comparisons involving the small number of PhD texts, which cannot therefore be tested by the MWU.

*Table 4.31: Stance markers: ELM - ELRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Stance markers | | Genre | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ELM | | ELRA | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| | Acknowledge | 365 | **2.38** | 286 | 1.25 | 30.69 | 1.56 | **0.0001** | 25 | 0.0969 |

| | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reporting verbs | Distance | 84 | **0.54** | 45 | 0.25 | 18.80 | 2.18 | **0.0001** | 14 | **0.0159** |
| | Endorse | 45 | 0.29 | 38 | 0.21 | 2.71 | 1.38 | **-** | 30 | 0.1970 |
| | Contest | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | - | - | **-** | - | **-** |
| Other markers | Hedges | 1395 | **9.10** | 1369 | 7.65 | 20.86 | 1.19 | **0.0001** | 26 | 0.1096 |
| | Boosters | 555 | 3.62 | 658 | 3.68 | 0.07 | 1.02 | **-** | 41 | 0.5619 |
| | Attitude markers | 418 | 2.73 | 530 | 2.96 | 1.59 | 1.08 | **-** | 48 | 0.9203 |
| | Self-mention | 231 | 1.51 | 534 | **2.98** | 80.99 | 1.98 | **0.0001** | 40 | 0.5157 |
| **Total** | | 3087 | **20.1** | 3407 | 19.0 | 5.14 | 1.06 | **0.05** | 33 | 0.2757 |

According to LL, the ELM writers used very significantly more acknowledge verbs and the MWU result shows a tendency toward significance (LL = 30.69, p≤0.01; U = 25, p≤0.10). This result can be regarded as reasonably valid since it meets the LL and RR threshold requirements, and its MWU shows less variability. The two tests indicate that the ELM corpus had very significantly more distance verbs (LL = 18.80, p≤0.01; U = 14, p≤0.05). This result is substantially valid and has a large effect size.

*Table 4.32: Stance markers: ELD - ELRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Stance markers | | Genre | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | ELD | | ELRA | | | | |
| | | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 297 | 1.67 | 268 | 1.25 | 1.13 | 1.09 | **-** |
| | Distance | 91 | **0.52** | 45 | 0.25 | 16.23 | 2.04 | **0.0001** |
| | Endorse | 72 | **0.41** | 38 | 0.21 | 10.95 | 1.91 | **0.001** |
| | Contest | 2 | 0.01 | 0 | 0 | 0.35 | 2.02 | **-** |
| Other markers | Hedges | 803 | 4.52 | 1369 | **7.65** | 144.87 | 1.69 | **0.0001** |
| | Boosters | 659 | 3.71 | 658 | 3.68 | 0.03 | 1.01 | **-** |
| | Attitude markers | 189 | 1.06 | 530 | **2.96** | 165.78 | 2.78 | **0.0001** |
| | Self-mention | 19 | 0.11 | 534 | **2.98** | 597.21 | 27.89 | **0.0001** |
| **Total** | | 2126 | 11.1 | 3407 | **19.0** | 289.46 | 1.59 | **0.0001** |

The LL test indicates that ELD writers used very significantly more distance verbs (LL = 16.23, p≤0.01), with the effect size indicating more than double the frequency. The ELRAs, on the other hand, used very significantly more hedges and attitude markers (LL = 144.87, p≤0.01 and LL =

165.78, p≤0.01 respectively). In addition, they employed very significantly more total markers (LL = 289.46, p≤0.01). These four results can be regarded as potentially valid. Although endorse verbs and self-mention recorded significance with RRs well above threshold, the results cannot be seen as valid due to very high RSDs that indicate huge internal variability within the ELD group.

### 4.2.4 Discussion

In this section, the cross-discipline and cross-genre comparison findings presented in sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.3 are discussed in turn, with the focus mostly on the results that could be regarded as most valid (see Table 4.49 at the end of this chapter), but also on wider related patterns that were revealed.

The cross-discipline comparisons revealed relatively few results that can confidently be regarded as valid. Nonetheless, some tendencies and significant differences were registered. With regard to MA comparisons, the result for hedges at least met two out of the three requirements for validity, missing only the RR threshold. It indicated that the ELM writers tended to use more hedges than their DSM counterparts. This tendency could suggest extra caution in presenting arguments. The tendency has also been observed in studies on language-related fields. For example, Abdollahzadeh (2011) found that hedges constituted 57% of the total interpersonal metadiscourse used in a corpus of applied linguistics papers. This pattern could imply that the ELM topics, three of which were concerned with discourse analysis, required negotiating meaning and expressing personal evaluation more than the DSM ones.

Comparison of PhD writers showed valid results for hedges and attitude markers. The DSDs used significantly more hedges than their ELD counterparts. The use of more hedges by the DSDs could be a result of the writers' efforts to exercise extra caution as they negotiated meaning with readers during their arguments on debatable human development issues. Hedging resources offer the tentativeness or "purposive vagueness" (Salager-Meyer 1994, in Tran & Duong 2013, 3) required to accommodate different views from readers. However, by using significantly more attitude markers to express their feelings about their propositions, they seem also to have mixed the tentativeness by taking bold stances. This would have helped to balance their arguments by avoiding sounding too uncertain. Drawing from the two resources enabled the writers to "construct a committed but carefully measured, or dialogically open, stance" (Lancaster 2012, 40). This pattern portrayed the DSD writers as taking a more explicit stance than the ELD ones. Nevertheless, it was observed that, despite their noticeable use, attitude markers were relatively unfamiliar to postgraduate interviewees. This is one area where the problem of "poor recall and lack of awareness" (Harwood & Petrić 2012, 65) by interviewees was reflected. Interviewees tended to easily recall the overt markers (e.g. *significantly*, *interestingly, surprisingly*) but failed to recognise their use of the covert ones (e.g. *usual*, *prefer*).

The RA groups' comparison revealed that the DSRA writers employed significantly more distance verbs. Similar to the DSD use of more hedges, this practice seems to portray the DSRA as carefully presenting the reported propositions, reducing commitment to possibly avoid criticism from readers who might hold different views. This indicates that the DS more 'senior' genre writers generally tended to maintain a critical distance from the reported propositions to create dialogic space so as to argue persuasively (Lancaster 2012). A possible explanation for this result is the nature of subject matters in the DS discipline as explained earlier in the postgraduate discussions. In this case, some of the DSRA subjects seem to require more meaning negotiation since they involve human development issues that are likely to be debatable. For instance, text DSRA7 had the highest distance verb frequency and was on the following topic: *The national integrity system: Assessing corruption and reform*. This topic in general, and the issue of corruption in particular, may be regarded as highly debatable and requires careful meaning negotiation strategies.

The cross-genre comparisons within both disciplines revealed some interesting patterns for acknowledge and distance verbs, though they were more pronounced in the DS genres. A 'pecking order' pattern for acknowledge verbs could be extrapolated, where the MA groups tended to use more of the verbs than the PhDs, while the PhDs tended to use more of them than the RAs (the extrapolation was based on the fact that in all six relevant two-way comparisons the more 'junior' group frequencies were higher: one in absolute terms only, two in terms of LL significance and three in terms of the strict validity criteria). This pattern occurred most likely because such verbs mostly involve the basic function of acknowledgement of sources which the MA writers might have found easier to work with than other functions. Petrić (2007, 247) observed that attribution is "the most common and rhetorically simplest" citation function which "helps writers display their knowledge of the topic".  Since acknowledge verbs are inclined towards a neutral stance with no evaluation as explained by Hu and Wang (2014), the result here seems to suggest less stance taking by the MA writers.

A similar pecking order obtained for distance verbs, where the MA writers, again, tended to use more than the PhDs, and the PhDs tended to use more than the RAs (here too, in all six relevant comparisons the more 'junior' group frequencies were higher: two in absolute terms only, one in terms of LL significance and three in terms of the strict validity criteria). It seems the postgraduate writers, especially the MAs, avoided much commitment to the reported propositions, partly perhaps to avoid criticism by their examiners and prospective readers, while RA authors write for their peers. Hu and Wang (2014, 16) described this stance position as signifying doubt about the validity of the referenced proposition, "…hence avoiding being held responsible for its liability". Having more distance verbs would help to maintain a critical distance and could invite different views and interpretations of the cited material. Though using more acknowledge and distance verbs may on the other hand be seen as being too tentative, this should contribute towards making students' texts persuasive and reader-friendly (see Chapter 5, § 5.2 for a more detailed discussion of dialogic effects of the use of stance features).

Regarding other stance markers, a general tendency by all writers to use a lot more hedges than the other stance resources was observed. This is because soft disciplines such as the humanities tend to negotiate meaning in academic writing mainly by hedging propositions (Hyland 2010). Hyland (2010) explains that the use of more hedges shows the importance of distinguishing fact from opinion in academic writing and the need for academic writers to evaluate their assertions in ways that are likely to be acceptable and persuasive to their readers. Likewise, in this study, the writers realised the importance of using hedges to avoid too assertive arguments that could attract criticism from members of their discourse communities. This finding tallies with previous research (e.g. Abdollahzadeh 2011; Hyland 2004, 2005b, 2010; Navidi & Ghafoori 2015; Sefako-Letsoela 2012) which found that hedges were the most used stance markers. Although this was the overall case, in the EL comparisons some genres were more inclined towards hedging than others, as discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

Among the EL writers, a consistent pattern was observed in the use of hedges, attitude markers and total markers, though this was not the 'pecking order' pattern found for acknowledge and distance verbs above. Instead, all six potentially valid findings taken together indicated that both the MA students and the RA authors used more of these three stance markers than the PhD students. For the ELM group, the combination of more acknowledge and distance verbs noted above together with the hedges suggests that the writers displayed a high degree of tentativeness that may be expected at their level. Nonetheless, the ELM writers also seem to have realised the need to take a persuasively assertive stance to create effective arguments because they also used more attitude markers than the ELDs. Hyland (2005b, 180) comments on the latter markers that "By signalling an assumption of shared attitudes, values and reactions to material, writers both express a position and pull readers into a conspiracy of agreement so that it can often be difficult to dispute these judgements". However, it should be noted that, in the same context, Hyland stated that there are several other ways to express attitude in a text, such as by way of syntactic subordination, so possibly the ELD writers could have used more of those other means to express their attitude. The ELM use of more stance markers in total than the ELDs seems to portray them as interacting more with texts and readers in their writing. The patterns discussed here are unusual because one would expect the more senior students to be more interactive.

As noted above, however, the ELRA group also used significantly more hedges, attitude markers and total markers than the ELD one. The use of more hedges by the ELRAs could be an indication of extra caution applied by the experienced writers in expressing their views to present their arguments persuasively. Their use of more attitude markers indicates that they expressed their attitudes more often than the ELDs, thus taking an explicit stance or explicitly projecting voice into their writing. Overall, the ELRAs employed more stance resources in total than the ELDs, and this would seem to portray the former writers' greater effort to persuasively interact with readers and sources. Kawase (2015) also found that the majority of writers in his study used more hedges and total metadiscourse in their RA introductions than they did in their PhD introductions. This

difference was ascribed to the difference in the two genres in which the same authors were writing: "PhD thesis as an educational genre and that of research article as a professional genre" (Kawase 2015, 114).

Previous research also realised high use of stance markers especially in the writing of soft sciences upper genres (e.g. Abdollahzadeh 2011; Hyland 2005a, 2005b; 2010; Lee 2009; Taki and Jafarpour 2012; Sayah & Hashemi 2014). Stance markers were used differently by writers in different genres to take their preferred stances as shown by the tendencies and patterns discussed. Since acknowledge and distance verbs displayed interesting consistent patterns in both disciplines, they are further investigated in Chapter 5. To my knowledge, no attempt has been made to do an in-depth analysis of such verbs in different disciplines and genres simultaneously, as in this study. The next section presents and discusses the quantitative results regarding reader engagement resources used by the studied writers.

## 4.3 Reader engagement markers

The term reader engagement is used in my study to refer to writers' direct and purposeful attempts to include readers in their arguments using various linguistic devices such as directives and questions. According to Hyland (2005b), engagement markers are expressions used by writers to explicitly address the readers to focus their attention, involve them in the discourse and guide them towards the preferred interpretations. He further explains that engagement markers build a relationship with readers either by selectively focusing their attention or by including them as participants in the text through reader pronouns, directives, questions, shared knowledge and personal asides (Hyland 2001b, 550). This section reports on the analysis of reader engagement markers used in the study corpus to involve readers in the unfolding texts. It addresses questions 1 (c) and 2 (c) of the study. Question 1 (c) concerns the extent to which engagement markers used by the studied writers differed according to genres. Question 2 (c) concerns the extent to which the use of engagement markers in DS and EL disciplines differed.

### 4.3.1 Overview of results: engagement markers

The study corpus was searched for the different types of engagement markers and 1637 markers were identified with a frequency of 1.65 per 1000 words. Table 4.33 below gives descriptive statistics of results of the analysis of the whole corpus presented in the three genres. As already stated regarding citation and stance in sections 4.1.1 and 4.2.1, this approach of combining a three-way cross-genre and a two-way cross-discipline comparison of reader engagement markers in the same study is to my knowledge unique. It provides a multi-dimensional way of analysing language in academic contexts to see how writers of different levels and different disciplines directly involve readers in their texts.

*Table 4.33: Overall reader engagement marker occurrences and frequencies*

| Engagement marker | | Directives | | Questions | | Reader pronouns | | Shared knowledge | | Personal asides | | Totals | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Genre | MA | 89 | 0.31 | 69 | 0.24 | 15 | 0.05 | 16 | 0.06 | 2 | 0.01 | 191 | 0.66 |
| | PhD | 207 | 0.57 | 70 | 0.19 | 5 | 0.01 | 18 | 0.05 | 10 | 0.03 | 310 | 0.85 |
| | RA | 538 | 1.60 | 132 | 0.39 | 330 | 0.98 | 119 | 0.35 | 17 | 0.05 | 1136 | 3.37 |

As can be observed from the low frequencies recorded in the table above, reader engagement markers were the least used language devices, with a frequency of 1.65 per 1000 words in the whole corpus compared to citations (4.98) and stance markers (16.7). Statistics show that in all genres directives (e.g. *see*, *note, cf.*) were used more than the other devices. But the RAs used many more directives, at almost double the frequency of reader pronouns and about four times that of questions and shared knowledge. The use of more directives to initiate reader participation was also realised in other studies (e.g. Hyland 2001b, 2009; Sefako-Letsoela, 2012). For example, Hyland (2009) found that directives comprised 45% of all engagement features in his corpus of undergraduate writing from various disciplines.

Similarl to directives, questions were used noticeably by writers of all genres. Postgraduates had questions as the second most used device and the RAs had them as the third most used. While research questions were used in all genres to inform readers of the reasons why the research was conducted, rhetorical questions were mostly employed by the PhD and RA writers to arouse readers' interest and to direct them towards the writers' preferred interpretation of information.

The use of reader pronouns (e.g. *we, us*) varied. While the MAs had reader pronouns on the fourth position, the PhDs had them as last and the RAs had them as the second. Reader pronouns are probably the device that most directly addresses readers to bring them into writers' texts for dialogue and to signify solidarity (Hyland 2009; Taki & Jafarpor 2012; Marković 2013). The RA writers used much more of this resource than the postgraduates, possibly because of the different genre demands. As a professional genre, the RAs could directly address their readership, including fellow researchers, but the postgraduates could not do that to their mentors and assessors.

Appeals to shared knowledge and personal asides were less frequent across the genres. Shared knowledge devices were on the third position in the postgraduate corpus, but the RAs had them on the fourth position. Shared knowledge is used by writers to make the reader recognise presented information as common knowledge by using such words as *naturally* and *obvious*. On the other hand, personal asides were the least used resource in the whole corpus and were also employed to different extents. The MAs and RAs had personal asides as the least used device, but the PhDs had them on the fourth position. Asides are brief conversations with readers within the text meant to

establish a writer-reader relationship (Marković 2013). Previous research such as Hyland (2001b, 2005b, 2009, 2010), Sefako-Letsoela (2012) and Taki & Jafaphor (2011) also found asides to be a rarely used device. Hyland (2001b) indicated that personal asides are rare in undergraduate reports, and relatively uncommon in RAs. The overview results indicate that the RAs recorded the highest use in all the five reader engagement resources. This outcome shows that the RA writers used engagement in ways that are more appropriate to their genre and the discourse community that they were writing. The relationship between the writer and reader determined the use of engagement markers in the study corpus; MAs and to a lesser extent PhDs wrote in the first place for readers who have more recognition in the relevant discourse community, while RA authors wrote more for their peers.

### 4.3.2 Cross-discipline comparisons

This section presents comparisons between DS and EL disciplines. Reader engagement markers used by writers of the same level from the two disciplines were compared to see if there were discipline-based differences in their engagement practices. Results of the three genres' comparisons are presented in the subsequent sections.

### 4.3.2.1 MA corpora

Table 4.34 below shows results of a cross-discipline comparison between the MA corpora's reader engagement practices and a descriptive summary of the compared frequencies. This section discusses both the comparison results and details of the two groups separately.

*Table 4.34: Reader engagement: MA cross-discipline comparisons*

| Engagement markers | Discipline | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DSM | | ELM | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Directives | 59 | **0.43** | 30 | 0.20 | 13.09 | 2.20 | **0.001** | 6 | 0.2113 |
| Questions | 37 | 0.27 | 32 | 0.21 | 1.12 | 1.29 | - | 8 | 0.4009 |
| Reader Pronouns | 15 | **0.11** | 0 | 0 | 16.29 | 16.75 | **0.0001** | 3 | 0.0601 |
| Shared Knowledge | 10 | 0.07 | 6 | 0.04 | 1.50 | 1.86 | - | 5 | 0.1443 |
| Personal Asides | 1 | 0.01 | 1 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 1.12 | - | 12 | 1 |
| **Total** | 122 | **0.89** | 69 | 0.45 | 21.33 | 1.97 | **0.0001** | 5 | 0.1443 |

Although the LL test identified three significant differences, only one is valid. The DSM group used significantly more reader pronouns. Considering that the MWU result narrowly missed the

0.05 threshold and that the RR is very large, the result can be described as reasonably valid. The DSM students seemed to use more engagement markers but in general these MA writers did not directly engage readers often.

At this point, details of the MA groups' individual patterns of use are discussed. The DSM group members used engagement markers as tabled below.

*Table 4.35: DSM Reader engagement marker frequencies per text*

| Engagement marker | DSM1 | | DSM2 | | DSM3 | | DSM4 | | *DSM5 | | Total + mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Directives | 6 | 0.25 | 4 | 0.13 | 1 | 0.04 | 4 | 0.16 | 44 | 1.41 | 59 | 0.43 |
| Questions | 5 | 0.21 | 8 | 0.25 | 8 | 0.31 | 7 | 0.29 | 9 | 0.29 | 37 | 0.27 |
| Reader pronouns | 5 | 0.21 | 1 | 0.03 | 1 | 0.04 | 8 | 0.33 | 0 | 0 | 15 | 0.11 |
| Shared knowledge | 4 | 0.17 | 1 | 0.03 | 3 | 0.12 | 1 | 0.04 | 1 | 0.03 | 10 | 0.07 |
| Personal asides | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.04 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.01 |

While research questions were used in all texts in the introduction chapters, reader pronouns and shared knowledge were rare, likely because the features are not a typical characteristic of the dissertation genre. DSM1 and DSM4 used relatively more reader pronouns than the other DSM group members. The writers used the inclusive pronouns *we*, *our* and *us* to present study objectives, to explain study methodology and in discussion of findings. They used the pronouns to involve readers in the presentation of their objectives and propositions. Writer DSM5 recorded the highest use of directives (with a frequency of 1.41) compared to the other texts, and because of this outlier, directives ranked first in this sub-genre. The writer mostly used *see* and *cf.* to refer readers to parts of her work and for further reading. This helped her achieve cross-referencing and avoid repetition, as she stated in her interview response.

With regard to the ELM group, the writers used reader engagement markers as displayed in Table 4.36 below.

*Table 4.36: ELM Reader engagement marker frequencies per text*

| Engagement marker | *ELM1 | | ELM2 | | ELM3 | | *ELM4 | | ELM5 | | Total + mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Directives | 1 | 0.02 | 2 | 0.07 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.10 | 23 | 0.89 | 30 | 0.20 |
| Questions | 19 | 0.45 | 3 | 0.10 | 5 | 0.29 | 4 | 0.10 | 1 | 0.04 | 32 | 0.21 |

| | | | | | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Reader pronouns | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| Shared knowledge | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0.20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0.04 |
| Personal asides | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.03 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.01 |

Unlike the DSM writers, where the majority used all engagement markers except personal asides, none of the ELM writers used reader pronouns. One writer did not use directives even though they were the most common resource, and only one used shared knowledge. ELM5 recorded the highest use of directives with *cf* constituting by far the majority of the markers. All ELM writers used research questions. Writer ELM4 equally used directives and questions, employed personal asides but neither used reader pronouns nor shared knowledge. Responding to the interview question on reader engagement, he stated that he did not use some of the reader engagement strategies such as reader pronouns, but would rather use passive forms in some cases for fear of his supervisors' and examiners' reactions. Another possibility is that the writers were not comfortable to directly address their prospective readers, especially their assessors. Earlier research, such as Hyland (2002, 2009) notes that supervisors and examiners are the readership that influences postgraduate writing practices. These factors imply that reader pronouns are not expected in dissertation writing.

### 4.3.2.2 PhD corpora

A summary of frequencies of the two PhD groups' reader engagement practices and the cross-discipline comparison results is shown in Table 4.37. This section discusses both the comparison results and details of the two groups separately.

*Table 4.37: Reader engagement: PhD cross-discipline comparisons*

| Engagement markers | Discipline | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DSD | | ELD | | | | |
| | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Directives | 87 | 0.47 | 120 | **0.68** | 6.77 | 1.44 | **0.01** |
| Questions | 58 | **0.31** | 12 | 0.07 | 30.98 | 4.63 | **0.0001** |
| Reader pronouns | 4 | 0.02 | 1 | 0.01 | 1.80 | 3.83 | - |
| Shared knowledge | 13 | 0.07 | 5 | 0.03 | 3.35 | 2.49 | - |
| Personal asides | 9 | **0.05** | 1 | 0.01 | 7.03 | 8.63 | **0.01** |
| **Total** | 171 | 0.92 | 139 | 0.78 | 2.09 | 1.18 | - |

The LL test indicates that the DSD texts exhibited very significantly more questions and personal asides. However, in each comparison one of the groups showed considerable internal variability

(RSD above 50), and so these results do not qualify as potentially valid. On the other hand, there was no internal variability problem with the directives and if the RR (1.44) had been marginally higher the significantly higher frequency for the ELD group would have qualified as potentially valid, so this finding is at least worth noting in case it may turn out to be part of a pattern.

The PhD corpora are now discussed individually, as displayed in the table for the DSDs below.

*Table 4.38: DSD Reader engagement marker frequencies per text*

| Engagement marker | DSD1 | | DSD2* | | Total + mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Directives | 28 | 0.34 | 59 | 0.58 | 87 | 0.47 |
| Questions | 52 | 0.63 | 6 | 0.06 | 58 | 0.31 |
| Reader pronouns | 1 | 0.01 | 3 | 0.03 | 4 | 0.02 |
| Shared knowledge | 5 | 0.06 | 8 | 0.08 | 13 | 0.07 |
| Personal asides | 6 | 0.07 | 3 | 0.03 | 9 | 0.05 |

As can be observed here, the large differences between DSD1 and DSD2 in terms of directives and personal asides help to explain the internal variability problem that prevented me from making valid findings for these two features in the comparisons above. Both texts used markers from all the five categories, though with variations in usage patterns. While text DSD2 scored the highest frequencies in directives, text DSD1 scored the highest frequencies in questions. Reader pronouns, shared knowledge and personal asides were used sparingly in both texts, and this was the trend in the postgraduate corpora as a whole. DSD1 had more occurrences for questions because, besides its five key research questions that were presented in the first chapter and were repeated in the concluding chapter, the writer used a number of research sub-questions for "framing the discourse" and "organising the text" (Curry & Chamber 2017, 333) as will be illustrated in Chapter 5 (§ 5.3.2).

 Responding to the reader engagement question, writer DSD2 said,

*Yes, I involved readers, who are mainly students, by referring them to some sections of my thesis so that they have a better understanding of what I would be writing. Students are my prime readers because ultimately, they are the ones who will frequently read my thesis during their research or studies. I also did that to avoid repeating the information that I would have written in earlier parts of the thesis.*

This response shows that PhDs do not necessarily see all their potential readers as being, in an academic sense, on a higher level than themselves. The function of enhancing readers' understanding seems in line with Hyland's function of directing readers towards preferred

interpretations (2001, 2009). Also, writer DSD2 mentioned avoiding repetition as another reason for using directives, and that was the same reason given by writer DSM5. Writer DSD2 highlighted her use of directives because those are the markers she could easily recall having used in her thesis. On her profile, directives have the highest frequency that exceeds, by far, the rest of the markers.

The ELD individual text results showed varied patterns that are displayed in the next table.

*Table 4.39: ELD Reader engagement marker frequencies per text*

| Engagement marker | *ELD1 | | ELD2 | | Total + mean | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| Directives | 21 | 0.37 | 99 | 0.82 | 120 | 0.68 |
| Questions | 7 | 0.12 | 5 | 0.04 | 12 | 0.07 |
| Reader pronouns | 1 | 0.02 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.01 |
| Shared knowledge | 1 | 0.02 | 4 | 0.03 | 5 | 0.03 |
| Personal asides | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.01 | 1 | 0.01 |

Each of the writers used four out of the five resources and they both used far more directives than the other resources. However, writer ELD2's frequencies for directives were more than double those for writer ELD1 because the former directed readers to other parts of his work quite often, with the verb *see* constituting 74% of the markers. On the other hand, ELD1 frequencies for questions were three times those for ELD2 because the former had more research sub-questions, but the number of occurrences in both cases is very small.

### 4.3.2.3 RA corpora

Similar to the other genres, DSRA and ELRA reader engagement practices were compared to see if they differed in some ways. Details of the frequencies and statistical tests results are presented in Table 4.40 and further details on individual groups follow afterwards.

*Table 4.40: Reader engagement: RA cross-discipline comparisons*

| Engagement markers | Discipline | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DSRA | | ELRA | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Directives | 217 | 1.38 | 321 | **1.79** | 9.23 | 1.30 | **0.01** | 145 | 0.1415 |
| Questions | 98 | **0.62** | 34 | 0.19 | 40.99 | 3.27 | **0.0001** | 88 | **0.0027** |
| Reader Pronouns | 99 | 0.63 | 231 | **1.29** | 38.94 | 2.06 | **0.0001** | 156 | 0.2380 |

| Shared Knowledge | 48 | 0.30 | 71 | 0.40 | 2.04 | 1.29 | - | 144 | 0.1336 |
| Personal Asides | 10 | 0.06 | 7 | 0.04 | 0.98 | 1.62 | - | 173 | 0.4715 |
| **Total** | 472 | 2.99 | 667 | **3.71** | 12.87 | 1.24 | **0.001** | 148 | 0.1645 |

Even though the reader pronouns result has a significant LL and is above the RR threshold, its MWU result does not meet the significance level. The LL test recorded significance for directives and totals but the results fail to meet the validity criteria. As indicated by both tests, the DSRA texts had very significantly more questions (LL 40.99, p≤0.01; U = 88, p≤0.01) and there was a large effect size (RR=3.27) so this result can be regarded as substantially valid.

More details of the groups are presented at this point. Individual use of engagement resources in the DSRA texts is shown in Table 4.41.

*Table 4.41: DSRA Reader engagement marker frequencies per text*

| DSRA | Directives | | Questions | | Reader pronouns | | Shared knowledge | | Personal asides | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Text | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| 1 | 2 | 0.22 | 4 | 0.43 | 3 | 0.33 | 2 | 0.22 | 2 | 0.22 |
| 2 | 7 | 1.27 | 10 | 1.82 | 9 | 1.63 | 2 | 0.36 | 1 | 0.18 |
| 3 | 9 | 0.10 | 1 | 0.11 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0.55 | 2 | 0.22 |
| 4 | 1 | 0.26 | 5 | 1.32 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.52 | 0 | 0 |
| 5 | 11 | 1.38 | 6 | 0.75 | 8 | 1.00 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 3 | 0.61 | 1 | 0.20 | 8 | 1.64 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 7 | 6 | 0.62 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0.31 | 0 | 0 |
| 8 | 1 | 0.17 | 1 | 0.17 | 15 | 2.53 | 2 | 0.34 | 1 | 0.17 |
| 9 | 4 | 0.80 | 2 | 0.40 | 1 | 0.20 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 10 | 8 | 1.54 | 25 | 4.81 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.19 | 0 | 0 |
| 11 | 2 | 0.26 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.26 | 1 | 0.13 | 0 | 0 |
| 12 | 9 | 0.99 | 2 | 0.22 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.11 | 0 | 0 |
| 13 | 15 | 1.36 | 5 | 0.45 | 14 | 1.27 | 1 | 0.09 | 1 | 0.09 |
| 14 | 8 | 0.69 | 4 | 0.35 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 | 21 | 2.74 | 2 | 0.26 | 2 | 0.26 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 16 | 27 | 1.87 | 7 | 0.48 | 16 | 1.11 | 12 | 0.83 | 1 | 0.07 |
| 17 | 2 | 0.27 | 7 | 0.96 | 8 | 1.10 | 7 | 0.96 | 1 | 0.14 |
| 18 | 17 | 1.74 | 3 | 0.31 | 10 | 1.02 | 4 | 0.41 | 0 | 0 |

| 19 | 37 | 6.29 | 8 | 1.36 | 2 | 0.34 | 3 | 0.51 | 1 | 0.17 |
| 20 | 27 | 3.21 | 5 | 0.59 | 1 | 0.12 | 2 | 0.24 | 0 | 0 |
| **Total** | 217 | 1.38 | 98 | 0.62 | 99 | 0.63 | 48 | 0.30 | 10 | 0.06 |

The range between the lowest and highest frequencies for each feature are provided here to give some idea of how varied the reader engagement practices were in the corpus. Directives ranged between 0.10 and 6.29 and questions between 0 and 4.81. Reader pronouns frequencies were from 0 to 2.53 and shared knowledge from 0 to 0.96. Lastly, interesting asides ranged between 0 and 0.22. The summary of ranges here with four of the engagement features having zero as the lowest frequency shows that these resources were relatively scarce in the study corpus. DSRA10 had the highest frequency for questions. The writer posed six research questions, each with a number of sub-questions. In addition, some questions were used to frame the text and others were posed as indirect questions. Text DSRA19 recorded the highest frequency for directives with the imperative *see* and the modal of obligation *should* as the most frequent markers. While the former was used to direct readers to further reading, the latter was meant to direct readers towards the writer's preferred interpretation as illustrated below.

8. *In conclusion,* **we should** *be careful about overdrawn boundaries between civil society and the other spheres (and thus inclusion/exclusion in empirical research).*

The ELRA group members engaged readers in different ways as presented in Table 4.42.

*Table 4.42: ELRA Reader engagement marker frequencies per text*

| ELRA | Directives | | Questions | | Reader pronouns | | Shared knowledge | | Personal asides | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Text | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f | n | f |
| 1 | 117 | 3.80 | 4 | 0.13 | 1 | 0.03 | 13 | 0.42 | 0 | 0 |
| 2 | 7 | 1.23 | 0 | 0 | 23 | 4.05 | 1 | 0.18 | 0 | 0 |
| 3 | 17 | 1.85 | 4 | 0.43 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0.33 | 0 | 0 |
| 4 | 7 | 0.83 | 1 | 0.12 | 0 | 0 | 6 | 0.71 | 1 | 0.12 |
| 5 | 10 | 1.26 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.51 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 6 | 9 | 1.30 | 1 | 0.14 | 20 | 2.90 | 3 | 0.43 | 1 | 0.14 |
| 7 | 19 | 2.45 | 1 | 0.13 | 17 | 2.19 | 2 | 0.26 | 1 | 0.13 |
| 8 | 16 | 1.94 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.12 | 0 | 0 |
| 9 | 15 | 1.35 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.09 |
| 10 | 9 | 0.95 | 4 | 0.42 | 53 | 5.61 | 2 | 0.21 | 0 | 0 |
| 11 | 19 | 1.46 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 0.31 | 2 | 0.15 | 1 | 0.08 |
| 12 | 10 | 1.06 | 0 | 0 | 28 | 2.97 | 10 | 1.06 | 0 | 0 |
| 13 | 7 | 2.26 | 0 | 0 | 7 | 2.26 | 1 | 0.32 | 0 | 0 |
| 14 | 2 | 0.46 | 4 | 0.92 | 5 | 1.15 | 5 | 1.15 | 0 | 0 |
| 15 | 10 | 1.35 | 7 | 0.95 | 10 | 1.35 | 3 | 0.41 | 2 | 0.27 |

| 16 | 4 | 0.83 | 0 | 0 | 45 | 9.30 | 5 | 1.03 | 0 | 0 |
| 17 | 17 | 1.80 | 8 | 0.85 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 0.53 | 0 | 0 |
| 18 | 14 | 1.15 | 0 | 0 | 2 | 0.16 | 2 | 0.16 | 0 | 0 |
| 19 | 5 | 1.14 | 0 | 0 | 12 | 2.74 | 4 | 0.91 | 0 | 0 |
| 20 | 7 | 1.29 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 0.55 | 0 | 0 |
| **Total** | 321 | 1.79 | 34 | 0.19 | 231 | 1.29 | 71 | 0.40 | 7 | 0.04 |

In the ELRA corpus, the ranges of engagement features were as follows. Directives had the lowest frequency of 0.46 and the highest frequency of 3.80. While frequencies for questions ranged between 0 and 0.95, those for reader pronouns had a wide range from 0 to 9.30. Shared knowledge ranged between 0 and 1.15 and personal asides had a narrow range of between 0 and 0.27. By far, the highest frequency for reader pronouns was found in ELRA16, especially for *we* and *our*. Hyland observes that *we* is a commonly used pronoun in academic writing, possibly because "it sends a clear signal of membership by textually constructing both the writer and the reader as participants with similar understanding and goals" (Hyland 2005b, 182). The writer, for example, persuasively used the two pronouns to show solidarity with readers and to make them part of the unfolding text:

9. *Together, analysis of the corpus and interview material suggested that culture and context shape **our** communicative practices in significant ways, influencing **our** preferences for structuring information, the relationships **we** establish with **our** readers, and how far **we** want to personally appear in **our** texts.*

### 4.3.3 Cross-genre comparisons

Comparisons were done between different levels within the same discipline to see how the writers differed in their reader engagement practices. Results for each discipline's genres are discussed in the subsequent sections.

### 4.3.3.1 DS corpora

The DS three two-way comparisons were done as follows: DSM – DSD; DSM – DSRA; DSD - DSRA. The test results are tabled in 4.43, 4.44 and 4.45 and they are described below each table.

*Table 4.43: Reader engagement: DSM - DSD cross-genre comparisons*

| **Engagement markers** | **Genre** | | | | **Log-likelihood (statistical test)** | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | **DSM** | | **DSD** | | | | |
| | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Directives | 59 | 0.43 | 87 | 0.4 | 0.28 | 1.09 | **-** |

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| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Questions | 37 | 0.27 | 58 | 0.31 | 0.51 | 1.16 | - |
| Reader Pronouns | 15 | **0.11** | 4 | 0.02 | 10.51 | 5.06 | **0.01** |
| Shared Knowledge | 10 | 0.07 | 13 | 0.07 | 0.01 | 1.04 | - |
| Personal Asides | 1 | 0.01 | 9 | **0.05** | 5.19 | 6.67 | **0.05** |
| **Total** | 122 | 0.89 | 171 | 0.92 | 0.10 | 1.04 | - |

According to the LL test, the DSM writers used very significantly more reader pronouns and the DSD writers used significantly more personal asides. Unfortunately, these two results, though with large size effects, are not potentially valid because the DSD group had RSDs above 50 for both features.

*Table 4.44: Reader engagement: DSM - DSRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Engagement markers | Genre | | | | Statistical tests | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | DSM | | DSRA | | Log-likelihood | | | Mann-Whitney U | |
| | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Directives | 59 | 0.43 | 217 | **1.38** | 75.57 | 3.20 | **0.0001** | 19 | **0.0384** |
| Questions | 37 | 0.27 | 98 | **0.62** | 20.77 | 2.31 | **0.0001** | 32 | 0.2501 |
| Reader Ps | 15 | 0.11 | 99 | **0.63** | 58.14 | 5.74 | **0.0001** | 33 | 0.2757 |
| Shared Ks | 10 | 0.07 | 48 | **0.30** | 22.08 | 4.18 | **0.0001** | 30 | 0.1868 |
| Personal As | 1 | 0.01 | 10 | **0.06** | 7.35 | 8.70 | **0.01** | 36 | 0.3575 |
| **Total** | 122 | 0.89 | 472 | **2.99** | 174.47 | 3.37 | **0.0001** | 8 | **0.0048** |

Although the LL test indicates significance in all the five categories and totals, only two of these results qualify as substantially valid, with the DSRA writers employing significantly more directives (LL = 75.57, p≤0.01; U = 19; p≤0.05) as well as significantly more total markers (LL = 174.47; p≤0.01; U = 8; p≤0.01). The directives result occurs not only because the RAs used more of the resources but also a wider range of them. Whereas the postgraduate students seem to have mostly used *see* and *cf*, the DSRA writers often directed readers to see certain information as *important* or *noteworthy*. They would also instruct readers to perform certain actions using imperative verbs such as *consider* and *look at*, and invite them to perform an action with the writer using the expression *let us*.

*Table 4.45: Reader engagement: DSD - DSRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Engagement markers | Genre | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | DSD | | DSRA | | | | |
| | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Directives | 87 | 0.47 | 217 | **1.38** | 80.33 | 2.93 | **0.0001** |
| Questions | 58 | 0.31 | 98 | **0.62** | 17.82 | 1.98 | **0.0001** |
| Reader Pronouns | 4 | 0.02 | 99 | **0.63** | 124.93 | 29.07 | **0.0001** |
| Shared Knowledge | 13 | 0.07 | 48 | **0.30** | 27.39 | 4.34 | **0.0001** |
| Personal Asides | 9 | 0.05 | 10 | 0.06 | 0.34 | 1.31 | - |
| **Total** | 171 | 0.92 | 472 | **2.99** | 199.20 | 3.24 | **0.0001** |

The LL test indicates that the DSRA writers exhibited very significantly more markers in four categories and total markers. Although reader pronouns had a very high RR, the results were invalidated by huge internal variability in the DSD group (RSD 70). This huge internal variability was also present in the DSRA group as shown by the absence of reader pronouns in six texts and the 0 to 2.53 range of frequencies. Similarly, questions met the RR threshold but the DSD group had a huge internal variability (RSD 116). The DSRA writers employed very significantly more directives (LL = 80.33; p≤0.01), with RR above the threshold and a low RSD (37) for the DSD group. The DSRAs also used very significantly more shared knowledge and total markers (LL = 27.39, p≤0.01 and LL = 199.20, p≤0.01 respectively). For shared knowledge the RR was well above threshold and the DSD group had a low RSD. The descriptions here show that directives, shared knowledge and total markers results can be regarded as potentially valid.

### 4.3.3.2 EL corpora

The EL three two-way comparisons were done as follows: ELM – ELD; ELM – ELRA; ELD - ELRA. The comparisons revealed some differences that are presented in Tables 4.46, 4.47 and 4.48.

*Table 4.46: Reader engagement: ELM - ELD cross-genre comparisons*

| Engagement markers | Discipline | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | ELM | | ELD | | | | |
| | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Directives | 30 | 0.20 | 120 | **0.68** | 45.38 | 3.45 | **0.0001** |
| Questions | 32 | **0.21** | 12 | 0.07 | 12.62 | 3.09 | **0.001** |
| Reader Pronouns | 0 | 0 | 1 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 0.86 | - |

| | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Shared Knowledge | 6 | 0.04 | 5 | 0.03 | 0.30 | 1.39 | - |
| Personal Asides | 1 | 0.01 | 1 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 1.16 | **-** |
| **Total** | 69 | 0.45 | 139 | **0.78** | 14.84 | 1.74 | **0.001** |

According to the LL test, the ELD writers employed very significantly more directives (LL 45.38; p≤0.01). Given that the ELD RSD only just misses the cutoff point at 54, this result is worth noting with regard to possibly being part of more general patterns. The result for questions was ruled out by a high RSD for the ELD group. The ELDs, however, used very significantly more markers in total (LL 14.84; p≤0.01) with a low RSD and a sufficient RR, so the total markers result can be regarded as potentially valid.

*Table 4.47: Reader engagement: ELM - ELRA cross-genre comparisons*

| **Engagement markers** | **Genre** | | | | **Statistical tests** | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | **ELM** | | **ELRA** | | **Log-likelihood** | | | **Mann-Whitney U** | |
| | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p | U | p |
| Directives | 30 | 0.20 | 321 | **1.79** | 238.65 | 9.16 | **0.0001** | 3 | **0.0015** |
| Questions | 32 | 0.21 | 34 | 0.19 | 0.15 | 1.10 | **-** | 35 | 0.3221 |
| Reader Pronouns | 0 | 0 | 231 | **1.29** | 274.47 | 197.83 | **0.0001** | 15 | **0.0192** |
| Shared Knowledge | 6 | 0.04 | 71 | **0.40** | 54.99 | 10.13 | **0.0001** | 10 | **0.0073** |
| Personal Asides | 1 | 0.01 | 7 | **0.04** | 4.18 | 5.99 | **0.05** | 42 | 0.6100 |
| **Total** | 69 | 0.45 | 664 | **3.71** | 470.93 | 8.24 | **0.0001** | 0 | **0.0007** |

In this set of comparisons, both tests indicate very significant use of three categories and total markers by the ELRA writers. Firstly, they used very significantly more directives (LL = 238.65, p≤0.01; U = 3, p≤0.01), with a wide range of resources as those exemplified for DSRAs in the previous section. Secondly, they used very significantly more reader pronouns (LL = 285.81, p≤0.01; U 15; p≤0.01), with none at all being used by the ELM writers. They mostly used the inclusive pronouns *we*, *us* and *our* to mark solidarity with readers. Thirdly, the ELRA texts had very significantly more shared knowledge markers (LL = 54.99, p≤0.01; U = 10, p≤0.05) with the adjectives *obvious, natural* and the adverbs *obviously*, *naturally* as the most used words to indicate common knowledge. And lastly, and unsurprisingly, these writers used very significantly more total engagement markers (LL = 470. 93, p≤0.01; U = 0, p≤0.01). Thus, the results showing much more use by ELRA than ELM writers for directives, reader pronouns, shared knowledge and total markers can be regarded as substantially valid.

*Table 4.48: Reader engagement: ELD - ELRA cross-genre comparisons*

| Engagement markers | Genre | | | | Log-likelihood (statistical test) | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | ELD | | ELRA | | | | |
| | n | f | n | f | LL | RR | p |
| Directives | 120 | 0.68 | 321 | **1.79** | 93.53 | 2.65 | **0.0001** |
| Questions | 12 | 0.07 | 34 | **0.19** | 10.80 | 2.81 | **0.01** |
| Reader Pronouns | 1 | 0.01 | 231 | **1.29** | 306.96 | 229.2 | **0.0001** |
| Shared Knowledge | 5 | 0.03 | 71 | **0.40** | 67.97 | 14.09 | **0.0001** |
| Personal Asides | 1 | 0.01 | 7 | **0.04** | 5.02 | 6.95 | **0.05** |
| **Total** | 139 | 0.78 | 664 | **3.71** | 369.15 | 4.74 | **0.0001** |

As indicated by LL test, the ELRA writers outperformed the ELD ones in all categories, but only two results meet the validity requirements and one is worth noting. Firstly, the ELRA texts had very significantly more directives (LL = 93.53; p≤0.01). This result is worth noting, given that the ELD just misses the RSD 50 mark at 54. Secondly, the ELRA texts had very significantly more shared knowledge markers (LL = 67.97; p≤0.01) with a large effect size (RR=14.09). Lastly, they exhibited very significantly more total markers (LL = 369.15; p≤0.01). However, the ELD group's RSDs for questions, reader pronouns and asides were so high that the comparisons of these features could not qualify for validity. In sum, then, the results for shared knowledge and total markers could be regarded as potentially valid, with that for directives being worth noting.

## 4.3.4 Discussion

Findings on reader engagement are discussed in this section, focusing mostly on the statistically most valid results. To begin with, on a general note, it was observed that reader engagement markers were the least used devices in the study corpus, especially with regard to the postgraduate students. This result corroborates previous research (e.g. Hyland 2005c, Sefako-Letsoela 2012, Taki & Jafapour 2011). For example, Hyland (2005c) found that the RA corpus in his study had engagement marker frequencies well over twice as many as those of senior undergraduates, and Sefako-Letsoela found the markers to be extremely rare in the research reports of NUL undergraduates. The scarcity of reader engagement resources in the postgraduate corpus is partly explained by the fact that some engagement devices, particularly reader pronouns and shared knowledge, are not typical features of the dissertation genre. As a result, much more extensive use of reader engagement by RA writers was responsible for nearly all the cross-genre results that can be regarded as valid (see Table 4.49).

Both cross-discipline comparisons that constituted valid findings had DS genres with the higher use of reader engagement. When compared with the ELM, the DSM used significantly more reader

pronouns such as the inclusive pronouns *we*, *our* and *us* (see earlier discussion in § 4.3.2.1). With regard to the second valid finding, the DSRA writers used significantly more questions than the ELRA. The questions included both research and rhetorical ones. While research questions managed the structure of the argument and the flow of information, rhetorical questions aroused the readers' interest and engaged them in the argument (Hyland 2008).

In the cross-genre comparisons, results for directives and total engagement markers displayed consistent patterns in both disciplines. The RA writers used significantly more directives and total markers than the postgraduates. The significantly higher total use of reader engagement markers basically reflected the use of more of the remaining features, such as reader pronouns and shared knowledge. The one valid result that did not involve RAs was the significantly more total markers used by the ELD writers relative to the ELM ones. The use of more directives by the RAs indicates that the published writers guided their readers through their texts more often than their juniors did. Directives were used to direct readers to further reading, to certain parts of a text for better understanding and to avoid repetition of information. Besides, they helped to focus readers' attention on some information deemed important by the writers (Hyland 2001b, 2009). The use of more engagement markers by writers of these senior genres shows that the writers were in a position to actively involve readers, hence producing more interactional, persuasive and effective arguments. Writing on engagement markers, Hyland (2008, 5) says: "This is an alignment function, addressing the ways writers rhetorically recognise the presence of their readers to actively pull them along with the argument, include them as discourse participants, and guide them to interpretations".

Another pattern was observed that the ELRA writers used significantly more appeals to shared knowledge than both postgraduate groups. This same pattern was noted above for DS, where the DSRA writers employed significantly more shared knowledge resources than the DSD ones. This outcome is not surprising, since the RA writers are likely to directly involve readership in their discourse more than the postgraduates. This is so because their readership comprises fellow discipline members who can be assumed to share some common knowledge with the writers. But students are not yet qualified members of the disciplines or acknowledged authorities, and therefore they are not expected to call for such involvement. This finding tallies with Hyland (2009), where he compared student writers and expert writers from eight disciplines that included social sciences and applied linguistics. He observed that most of the students in his study were reluctant to employ such direct and explicit calls for the reader to recognise some community-specific perceptions, as they used less than half as much shared knowledge markers than the RA writers.

Lastly, the ELRA writers used significantly more reader pronouns than the ELM ones. This is again an expected outcome, considering that directly addressing readers is not expected in the dissertation genre, while RA writers more regularly do so. The latter can acceptably use reader

pronouns to solicit solidarity with readers, bringing them into their arguments. In the present study, students were reluctant to use shared knowledge and reader pronouns, presumably because such rhetorical markers are not traditionally expected in the dissertation and thesis genres.

To conclude, it has been shown in this section that, despite the scarcity of resources, the studied writers tried to use reader engagement markers to enhance their arguments. Nevertheless, the fact that postgraduates did not use them that much suggests that there might be a need to formally teach the students how to involve readers in the unfolding texts in an acceptable manner. As stated earlier, there are, of course, reasons for students not to use much of engagement resources, but there has been a development in academia that PhD students and even MA students are now being encouraged to submit articles for publication. For this reason, more attention should be given to the matter of how to raise their awareness of the use of reader engagement markers. Since postgraduates are often encouraged to publish with their supervisors, providing in a systematic way more information and advice about how these features work could help supervisors help their students in a more structured way. Patterns of use established in this study could be useful for supervisors and writing instructors as a starting point for teaching reader engagement skills.

## 4.4 Conclusion

Given the complexity of comparisons across the three parts of the study, a final summary is provided (Table 4.49) that sets out, in the order that they appear in this chapter, all the core-group results that were regarded as substantially, reasonably or potentially valid.

*Table 4.49: Summary of valid results: core-group comparisons*

| Section | Comparison type | Interactional metadiscourse | Substantially valid | Reasonably valid | Potentially valid |
|---------|-----------------|------------------------------|---------------------|------------------|-------------------|
| Citation | Cross-discipline | Non-integral | DSM*-ELM | | |
| | | Assimilation | | DSM*-ELM | |
| | | Insertion + assimilation | DSM-ELM* | | |
| | | Total | | DSM*-ELM | |
| | Cross-genre | Integral | | DSM*-DSRA | |
| | | Assimilation | DSM*-DSRA | | |
| | | Non-integral | ELM-ELRA* | | |
| Stance | Cross-discipline | Hedges | | | DSD*-ELD |
| | | Attitude markers | | | DSD*-ELD |
| | | Distance | DSRA*-ELRA | | |
| | Cross-genre | Acknowledge | DSM*-DSRA | | |
| | | Distance | | DSM*-DSRA | |
| | | Acknowledge | | | DSD*-DSRA |
| | | Hedges | | | ELM*-ELD |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Attitude markers | | | ELM*-ELD |
| | | Total | | | ELM*-ELD |
| | | Acknowledge | | ELM*-ELRA | |
| | | Distance | ELM*-ELRA | | ELD*-ELRA |
| | | Hedges | | | ELD-ELRA* |
| | | Attitude markers | | | ELD-ELRA* |
| | | Total | | | ELD-ELRA* |
| Reader engagement | Cross-discipline | Reader pronouns | | DSM*-ELM | |
| | | Questions | DSRA*-ELRA | | |
| | Cross-genre | Directives | DSM-DSRA* | | |
| | | Total | DSM-DSRA* | | |
| | | Directives | | | DSD-DSRA* |
| | | Shared knowledge | | | DSD-DSRA* |
| | | Total | | | DSD-DSRA* |
| | | Total | | | ELM-ELD* |
| | | Directives | ELM-ELRA* | | |
| | | Reader pronouns | ELM-ELRA* | | |
| | | Shared knowledge | ELM-ELRA* | | |
| | | Total | ELM-ELRA* | | |
| | | Shared knowledge | | | ELD-ELRA* |
| | | Total | | | ELD-ELRA* |

*Group with the higher frequency.

The findings discussed in this chapter revealed that, to a larger extent, writers under study used citation, stance and engagement resources to dialogue with sources and readers in ways acceptable in academic writing discourse. However, it was observed that some postgraduate writers were not fully aware of the evaluative potential of the various resources that they used in their writing. Therefore, there is still a need to improve postgraduates' writing practices by raising their awareness about using the resources such as different citation forms. This can however be regarded as a relatively neglected area. As Olivier (2017) for example rightly observed, writing assistance is offered to undergraduate students, yet it is not as readily available for postgraduates. In Chapter 5 this matter is dealt with to an indirect extent at least, as the chapter explores more qualitatively patterns of citation, stance and engagement that characterised the writing in the different disciplines and genres and in individuals. Also, it explores the role of the interactional metadiscourse resources in the building of more effective arguments.

# CHAPTER 5: QUALITATIVE FINDINGS

## 5.0 Introduction

This chapter presents a qualitative perspective on citation, stance and reader engagement markers to address the study's research question 3. The question presented in Chapter 1 (§ 1.3) reads:

How do writers of MA dissertations, PhD theses and research articles in the disciplines of Development Studies and English and Linguistics use interactional metadiscourse resources to achieve their communicative goals?

The chapter discusses the ways in which postgraduate and RA writers used different interactional metadiscourse resources to build effective arguments. It deliberates on the resources' functions, their possible dialogic effects and appropriateness of use. In the process, it further explores interesting patterns of citation, stance and engagement practices that were suggested by the quantitative analysis. It should be noted that these interactional metadiscourse resources interact with one another in texts and that one type of qualitative approach in this chapter will involve a focus on this interaction in sample texts. My approach focuses more on the role of each of these resources separately in an effort to better understand how they contribute to the achievement of writers' communicative goals. The chapter ends by discussing problematic uses of interactional resources by student writers. The discussion is presented in four main sections: citation (§ 5.1); stance (§ 5.2); reader engagement (§ 5.3) and a sample of citation and reporting verb problems (§ 5.4).

## 5.1 Citation

This section discusses citation practices, rhetorical functions and possible dialogic effects of citation forms used in MA dissertations, PhD theses and RAs to address question 3a of the study (see Chapter 1, § 1.3). The discussion is guided by patterns of citing behaviour that were identified in Chapter 4 and are now further investigated qualitatively. The section covers aspects of author integration and textual integration patterns. Section 5.1.1 deals with two interesting types of citation that have received hardly any attention in the research literature, namely what I term 'chain citations' and 'split citations'. Section 5.1.2 deals with the role of different citation forms in expanding and contracting dialogic space during the construction of arguments. Lastly, 5.1.3 discusses how citation functions relate to effective exposition, focusing more on the participants' interview responses. In this way, the three sections provide more depth about how the different citation devices were used in the study corpus.

### 5.1.1 Chain and split citations

The basic aim of this section is to explain what 'chain' and 'split' citations are and how looking at them may provide insights about what makes for 'quality' of style in citation, as well as about issues of over-reliance on sources. In addition, the use of text-internal referencing techniques such as 'ibid.' is discussed because it aids chaining. Also, more briefly, the extent to which citation styles were made explicit to the postgraduate students is discussed because citation style determines the structure of chains as well as the chaining techniques used by writers.

The term 'chain citation' in this study refers to the practice of citing the same source two or more times consecutively, while 'split citation' is the combining of integral and non-integral citation forms within the same reporting statement. As explained in Chapter 3, in such cases I counted the two parts as separate citations to be consistent with the study's author integration analysis criterion, but this type of citation could also be counted as a single citation. After reading Manan and Noor (2015), the only identified source that mentions this phenomenon, terming it 'combination citation' (see Chapter 2, § 2.1.3), I found it necessary to examine the phenomenon in more detail.

In this study, I will be considering whether patterns of chain and split citation might distinguish individual writers and groups from one another and whether these patterns can be related to issues of quality in citation use. In making a start towards answering these questions and identifying texts that were likely to have used relatively more chain citation, I used a quantitative measure implied in Swales (2014), namely the ratio of the number of citations in a paper relative to the number of references in it. I checked the citation-to-reference ratios of the postgraduate and RA texts (see Appendix I) and found that ELM2, ELM3 and DSM3 had the highest ratios for the MAs and DSD1 the highest ratio for the PhDs. Such texts were more likely to contain chains and, on this basis, some of the students' citing examples in this section were drawn from those texts. Text DSM1, on the other hand, recorded the lowest ratio in the whole postgraduate corpus possibly because it had the highest number of references in the MA corpus.

At core group level, ELM was the highest, with a mean of slightly above three citations per reference, against almost two citations per reference for DSM, while the two doctoral groups also had means of around two citations per reference. One possible reason why the ELM texts had higher ratios than the DSM ones could be the tendency of DSMs to use more non-integral citation, a practice that allows more than one reference in one citation, for example, (*Irdakoa 1997; Motebang 1997*). This example is from text DSM1, which had the lowest ratio. In such cases, the citation was counted as one since the sources were put in the same set of brackets and were referencing the same idea or information. But those two sources were of course listed separately in the references section. On the other hand, both RA groups had relatively low ratios with means of about one citation per reference. The low ratios suggest that the published texts were less likely to contain chain citations compared to postgraduate ones.

A more specific definition of a chain citation is that it is an unbroken sequence of citations of the same source in either integral or non-integral form. In integral citation either the author's name is given or a pronoun in its place. The first example of chain citation is taken from text ELM2, which had the third-highest citation ratio in the 14 postgraduate student texts, and where the number of citations was almost four times that of sources on the reference list.

1. ***Fairclough (1989: 19-25) adds*** *that speakers or writers communicating about social matters are influenced by how they view the matters, their choice of topic and the way they approach them.* ***He states*** *that social experiences, values and commitment also play a role in influencing how a text unfolds. The same factors influence how the text is interpreted. [ELM2]*

Extract 1 is a chain of two citations. In the beginning, there is an integral assimilation with the reporting verb *adds*. The second citation is another integral assimilation beginning with the author pronoun, followed by the reporting verb *states*; the date and pages are omitted because they can clearly be understood as the same as those of the previous citation. It was found that even some RA writers also omitted such details when citing a source for the second time in a chain. And given that RAs are edited by their publishers, this suggests that this citation practice is acceptable. Also, these are the texts that students cited in their dissertations which means that the texts could have acted as role models for the student writers. As illustrated by extract 1, using chain citation properly may enable writers to make their points more efficiently. Writer ELM2 avoided the monotony of repeating the author's name by using a pronoun in that chain.

So far, literature to my knowledge has shown that the concept of chain citation has hardly been dealt with. Some researchers (e.g. Charles 2006b; Hyland 2000; Petrić 2007; Swales 1990; Thompson and Ye 1991) indicated that when counting citations they included all occurrences of authors' names, even where the author's name was represented by a pronoun. This shows their awareness of chain citation, but they did not explore further the use of chains as separate entities.

For this part of the study, I did searches based on parentheses to identify chain citations, focusing more on those texts with high citation to reference ratios. I also looked for pronouns in the environment of the citations to identify chains. Despite the positive quality of chain citation mentioned above, as with other rhetorical devices, if overused, this practice may impact negatively on one's writing. Swales (2014) made a similar observation when he found that the average number of citations per student paper was higher than the average number of references per paper. One of the interpretations he assigned to this is that some students might have used the same sources several times due to their limited sources. In my study, instances were also found in some of the texts where the chains sometimes seemed overused, with the writers relying too much on one source and repeating the same RV. For example, the number of citations in ELM1 was almost three times that of references which indicated repetition of sources as illustrated in extract 2.

2. *In some cases, the learners identified the targeted errors correctly but their metalinguistic explanations were different with regard to ''scope and detail'' (**Roehr, 2004:9**). **This study also demonstrates** that the language test did not challenge the learners the way it was expected to, while in the case of the metalinguistic test, labelling proved to be very easy for the students. However, they found giving metalinguistic explanations very difficult.*

   ***The findings further show*** *that the description and explanation tasks demonstrated the connection between L2 proficiency and metalinguistic ability more than the labelling subtest. This is because **Roehr (2004:14) states** that the ''coefficients calculated for the individual metalinguistic test subtests'' demonstrated that generally, the association between L2 proficiency and metalinguistic ability was mainly on the description and explanation tasks, as opposed to the labelling task, as it reflected a non-significant correlation. **His findings further showed** that students' ability to identify and apply terminologically appropriate labels to L2 parts of speech was not relevant to either L2 proficiency or the implementation of pedagogical grammar rules. **Roehr concludes** that learning grammar rules is different from implementing them. This conclusion was based on the basis of scores obtained from the given tasks. [ELM1]*

Extract 2 is a long chain of six references to the same source. There are four integral assimilations, a non-integral insertion + assimilation and an integral insertion + assimilation. Writer ELM1 narrated Roehr's findings at length in her literature review. Although the citing practice illustrated by extract 2 facilitates "situating cited authors within the field and is carried out to position the work of the thesis in relation to the cited research" (Charles 2006b, 317), if done too often it may be interpreted negatively as an indication of over depending on one source and showing a lack of source integration (Mansourizadeh & Ahmad 2011). Besides, the verb *show* is repeated in the phrase "findings further show(ed)".

Text ELM3, which had the highest citation to reference ratio in the whole postgraduate corpus (about eight times) also exhibited chains with repeated RVs as in extract 3 below. The writer cited the same source three times, repeating the verb *say* in all instances.

3. *Cushing (1994:104) **says** that ambiguity in language is an extremely interesting phenomenon and one that applies to several fields of linguistics. He **says** that there is ambiguity in the way words are pronounced, in their meaning, in the tonal qualities and in the way they are structured to make a sentence. This makes the concept of ambiguity to be found in phonetics, semantics and syntax. He goes on to **say** that the most astonishing quality about ambiguity is its ability to make itself go unnoticed. [ELM3]*

The repetition of RVs in extracts 2 and 3 is not stylistically ideal, and different verbs could have been used to provide variation. This practice is in line with what was found in my study about the overall variety of RV types used by the different genres (§ 5.2.1.3), namely that the MA writers showed less variety in the use of RV types than the PhD and RA writers.

The tendency towards over-rely on certain sources was, however, also evident in the PhD corpus. Text DSD1 had the highest citation-to-reference ratio in the PhD corpus. The chains would sometimes include long insertions as illustrated in extract 4 below.

4. *__Nyamnjoh accords__ credit to the agency of both the chiefs as individuals and the chieftainship institution in helping to shape the democratic system of Botswana, one of Africa's widely vaunted rare models of democracy. __According to Nyamnjoh (2003:247),__ Botswana chieftainship has been a dynamic and adaptive agent of socioeconomic and political vicissitudes of the country, and "remains central to ongoing efforts at harnessing democracy to the expectation of Botswana [...]". __Thus, according to Nyamnjoh,__ this:*

   *provides evidence to challenge perspectives that present chiefs and chieftaincy as an institution are trapped tradition and fundamentally undemocratic. The idea that chieftaincy and chiefs are either compressors of individual rights with infinite might, or helpless zombies co-optable by custom or by the modern state denies chiefdoms and chiefs community or individual agency __(ibid)__.*

   *Consequently, because of its adaptability and agency, the chieftainship makes Botswana's democracy "an unending project, an aspiration that is subject to renegotiation with changing circumstances and growing claims by individuals and communities for recognition and representation" __(ibid: 248)__. [DSD1]*

In extract 4, writer DSD1 referred to the same source four times consecutively. The chain has an integral assimilation, an integral insertion + assimilation, a long insertion and a non-integral insertion. It should be noted that the first citation, according to Thompson and Tribble (2001), is an instance of 'non-citation', where only the name is provided in the sentence. Nonetheless, in my study, this citation was counted because it has the author's name and a reporting verb, assuming that the date was provided in an earlier citation. Surprisingly to me, after checking the larger context, I realised that the cited author was being mentioned for the first time yet the full details were not provided. In various ways, then, this is not good citation practice.

Compared to 'chain' citation, 'split' citation is a relatively new category of citation that previous research hardly dealt with. It combines integral and non-integral citations in the same reporting statement. It was observed that, though split citation could be used by all genres, it was more likely to occur in the texts produced by PhD and RA authors than in the MA texts, possibly because the former used more non-integral citations than the latter. Extract 5 below is an example of a split citation.

5. *Therefore, __Esman and Uphoff argue__, "One should start with the assumption that externally introduced [modes of organization] will not initially be understood by members or potential members, and will not engender their commitment" __(1984, p. 243)__. [DSRA16]*

This citation is a split insertion that gives the authors' names and the reporting verb *argue* at the beginning and provides date and page in brackets at the end of the sentence. Thus, the source details are split into two, some given at the beginning as integral and others at the end as non-integral, but the cited proposition is the same. Here the split citation arguably helps to make the reporting sentence flow smoothly from the reporting verb to the reported proposition without interruption from the date and page details.

It is worth noting that some instances of problematic split-like citation were observed in the PhD corpus. There emerged an interestingly strange combination of integral and non-integral citation forms where splits should rather have been used. The combination seems not to have been used in the RA corpus. Such instances were found in texts DSD1 and ELD2, where the bracketed source details should have come at the end of the sentences to form split citation.  Such combinations of integral and non-integral forms that are not split disrupt the flow of the writer's argument as illustrated by extracts 6 and 7.

6.  *It (*Pratchett, et al., 2008 study*) **does not address** the broader national context within which the current local government system works yet this has profound implications for the system.* [DSD1]

7.  *They (Ellis and Ter Haar, 2004: 2) **claim** that "it is largely through religious ideas that Africans think about the world today".* [ELD2]


From my visual scanning through sections of the texts it seemed that the DS corpora, which tended to use relatively more non-integral citation, also used more split citation. Writer DSD1, whose text, as seen above had the highest citation-to-reference ratio among the PhDs, often used chain citations, some of which included split forms, as in extract 8 below.

8.  *Echoing similar sentiments, **Osabu-Kle (2000:9) rejects** the Euro-American conception of democracy. **He argues** that it is "only a democracy compatible with the African cultural environment [that] is capable of achieving the political conditions for successful development in Africa". **He also rejects** the "wholesale transplantation of alien political organizations and ideologies" for their incompatibility with political and cultural history of Africa (**ibid**). He **recommends** the adaptation of African systems to suit requirements of modern governance instead of these ideologies and practices. These, **according to him**, ensured co-operation rather than competition, decentralised systems, consultative and consensual decision-making processes, and free discussion, among other values (**ibid: 9**). [DSD1]*

This is a chain of five citations. The first one is an integral assimilation with the reporting verb *rejects*. The second is an integral insertion with the verb *argues* but excludes the earlier mentioned date and page. By not using *ibid.* to represent the missing details as he did in the next citation, the

writer was inconsistent. The third citation is a split insertion + assimilation that begins with an integral form with a pronoun *he* and the reporting verb *rejects* and ends with a non-integral form (*ibid*) that represents the date and page. The fourth one is an integral assimilation that begins with the pronoun *he* and has the reporting verb *recommends*. The last citation is a split assimilation beginning with the reporting phrase *according to him* and ending with *ibid.* for the date, followed by page number, which is unnecessary though because it is provided in the first citation. Despite the inconsistencies in this chain, writer DSD1 demonstrated a complex citing practice to trace the cited author's argument. As stated in the discussion of the previous example, if used well, split citation can add variety and improve the flow of the text. The integral form can enable writers to evaluate the cited material through RVs, and providing source details in brackets at the end of the reporting sentence means that there is no interruption of the propositional content. The extract discussed here demonstrates also that a chain can comprise simple citations or can combine simple and split citations.

To further explore chain citation practices in the study corpus, the different internal referencing techniques through which chaining is achieved were investigated. While some texts used abbreviations such as *ibid.*, *idem* and *op. cit.*, some repeated full reference to the relevant author, depending partly on the kind of overall reference technique the writer was using. A corpus search conducted using *ibid.* as a search item revealed that writers DSM1, DSM4 and DSM5 used *ibid.* in their citations either to represent all source details (author, date plus or minus page, as applicable) as in the third citation of extract 8 above, or only part of the details such as the date, as in the last citation of extract 9 below.

9. ***Maskay and Kusakabe (2005) state*** *that retrenchments often occur due to economic crises, for example, the economic crisis that gripped Thailand in 1997, which led to many companies either retrenching staff or closing down.* ***Maskay and Kusakabe (2005) continue*** *by saying that many factories in Thailand closed down, relocated to other countries or to more remote areas inside Thailand, or restructured their labour to cut costs.* ***According to Maskay and Kusakabe (Ibid)*** *when the crisis hit the country the Thailand government responded in four ways on the labour policy front; … [DSM4]*

Extract 9 gives a chain of three integral citations. The first is an integral assimilation with the reporting verb *state*. The second is another integral assimilation that repeats the full citation details and has the reporting verb *continue*. The third is yet another integral assimilation that begins with *according to* followed by the authors' names and *ibid.* for the year. It can be observed that the writer was inconsistent in not using *ibid.* for the first repeat citation but then using it for the second. Also, repeating the authors' names instead of using appropriate pronouns means that the citation is not very good stylistically.

Writers DSM2 and DSM3 repeated full references instead of using ibid. It was noticed that there was a lack of uniformity in chain citation practices within the DSM group, and this issue will be discussed later in this section. Similar to the just mentioned two DSM writers, the ELM ones preferred a citing style that repeated full reference details or gave the author's name or pronoun only since the other details would have been provided in the previous citations. This citation practice is illustrated below.

10. **Foxlee (2009) argues** *that Barack Obama used intertextuality to appeal to the multicultural audience and mobilize support for his presidential election.* **He reveals** *that Obama used both implicit and explicit intertextuality, …* **Foxlee indicates** *that the most effective borrowing was to the slogan `Yes, we can`.* **He reveals** *the diverse audience that could relate with the term included black, white and Hispanic audience.* [ELM4]

Extract 10 is a chain of four integral citations. The first is an integral assimilation with source details and the reporting verb *argues*. It is followed by another integral assimilation that begins with the pronoun *he* and has the verb *reveals*. The third citation is an integral insertion + assimilations with the author's name on subject position and the verb *indicates*. Lastly is another integral assimilation with a pronoun and the verb *reveals*. The last three citations do not give the date since it was provided in the first citation. However, a page number is necessary for citation three where there is a short insertion. Just like the DSM4 extract previously discussed, this extract exhibits a chain of simple citations using the same author integration form.

With regard to DSD, both writers used *ibid.* in their citation. However, in addition to its already mentioned high citation-to-reference ratio, DSD1 revealed *ibid.* use of about 14 times that of DSD2. ELD writers, on the other hand, used different internal referencing styles. While ELD1 used *ibid.* and *op cit.* to represent missing reference details, ELD2 used *idem*. Text ELD1 had a frequency of the features about four times that of ELD2. Besides, the former had citations almost double the number of its references.

As can be seen from the postgraduates' analysed excerpts and supported by their supervisors' interview responses, neither the DS nor the English department prescribed citing styles for their students. This explains why there were differences in citing styles even within the same discipline, for example, discrepancies among the DS texts in the use of *ibid*. Interview responses from DS supervisor 1 and EL supervisor 1 are given below to illustrate the point.

*DSS1: That's one weakness that we have as a department. We've been talking about it. We're going to develop one. Eh, there was a point, somewhere along the way where we almost had something but for undergraduates, but with time we've abandoned that. So, we're trying to bring those things together once again; so, we don't have a uniform standard way of citation as such. Eh, largely our students do the citation not according to the departmental preference, but*

*according to the preference of individual supervisors, so that's why you find variations in the citation styles…. So, to answer this question, we don't have any standard method….*

*ELS1: I think as of now it's the supervisors who recommend what they think is best for them and then we kind of, I find myself, I don't know if what I tell my students to do is what all others are doing. We don't really have a uniform citation style, but I'm aware that the Communication and Study Skills Unit is working on that.*

It is clear from the supervisors' responses that there is no uniformity in citing styles of DS and English departments, neither is there one at faculty level as indicated by supervisor ELS1 who was hoping that the Communication and Study Skills Unit would recommend one to the faculty. All postgraduate texts that I analysed used in-text referencing since they mostly used American Psychological Association (APA) and Harvard referencing styles.

Regarding the RAs, five ELRA writers (25%) used *ibid.* to represent omitted citation details as illustrated by extracts already discussed in this section. The rest of the ELRA writers repeated details of the referenced authors as illustrated in the MA discussion. On the other hand, the DSRA writers did not use *ibid., idem or op. cit.* except for writer DSRA19 who used *idem* in footnotes.

Unlike the NUL postgraduates who lacked clear referencing guidelines from their departments, citing practices of RA writers were influenced by the citing styles prescribed by the journals with which they published. Preferences of the six journals that published the analysed RAs are summarised here. The *Journal of Applied Linguistics* uses APA referencing style and instructs authors to keep endnotes to a minimum. The *Journal of Discourse and Society* uses the SAGE Harvard referencing style. The publisher of the *Journal of Pragmatics* and the *Journal of World Development*, ELSEVIER, accepts any referencing style provided it is done consistently (Guide for Authors - Elsevier). As a result, the former journal mixes APA and Harvard, but the latter prefers APA. While the *Journal of Legal Pluralism* uses the Harvard style, the *Journal of Public Administrations* accepts Harvard and APA styles. The differences in journals and their publishing houses' styles briefed here partly explain the referencing variations in the RA study corpus.

Based on the analysis done in this sub-section, it may be concluded that even though chain and split citation was not investigated by way of a comprehensive quantitative analysis, it appears that split citation occurred more often in the PhD and RA writing, where non-integral citation featured more, than in the MA writing. Also, it has been observed that chains have positive stylistic aspects, for example, when used with appropriate pronominalisation and suitable variation of RVs, they enable extended citation with RVs facilitating evaluation of reported propositions. However, they can sometimes point to overreliance on a source, which, in such cases, is not a positive aspect of writing quality. Splits, on the other hand, can sometimes be a positive quality, at least stylistically, for instance, they facilitate uninterrupted flow of information in a text.

## 5.1.2 Dialogic engagement and citation forms

Dialogic engagement involves how writers use different linguistic resources to engage both texts and readers in ways that expand or contract space for dialogue (Martin and White 2005). This section explores the dialogism of citation forms, each of which is of course a combination of an author and a textual citation form. Although not much has been written about the dialogism of citation forms, there is some agreement in the literature that integral citation is more personal (Hyland 2000; Jalilifar 2012) and so also more dialogically expansive than non-integral citation (Coffin 2009). Regarding textual integration, insertion is more personal and so more dialogically expansive than assimilation, with insertion + assimilation between the two (Coffin 2009; Hu & Wang 2014). These combinations of citation forms can be regarded as points on a continuum of dialogic space with two extreme ends that are most open and most closed in terms of allowing space for dialogue. The six author and textual integration combinations could be categorised, based on the distinction between integral and non-integral citation, into an expansive and a contractive group. But it should be noted that the continuum only applies effectively if there are no other features in the discourse, such as stance and engagement markers, which influence dialogic space and if the RV in integral citations is a neutral, acknowledge verb. The combinations, illustrated in Figure 5.1, are discussed in this section to see how they tend to expand and contract dialogic space in the writers' arguments.
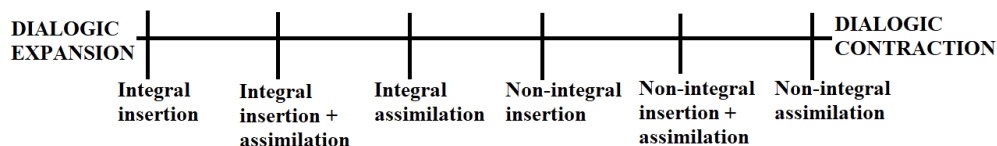


*Figure 5.1: Dialogic space continuum (relative to citation form combinations)*

Integral insertion is the most expansive combination because both forms are potentially expansive and the combination categorically assigns a proposition to an individual by foregrounding the author and using the author's exact words. Integral insertion + assimilation is less expansive in that, though the integral and insertion forms tend to create dialogic space, the assimilation component tends to contract it. Lastly in the expansive group, integral assimilation is the least expansive combination because the two forms have potentially opposing effects: while the integral form tends to expand dialogic space, assimilation tends to contract it. On the other hand, the contractive group has non-integral assimilation as the most contractive since both forms tend to contract space. Non-integral insertion + assimilation is less contractive because, although non-integral and assimilation forms tend to contract space, insertion tends to be expansive. Lastly, non-integral insertion is the least contractive because, while non-integral tends to contract dialogic space, insertion does the opposite. These continuum points will be referred to in the discussion of

dialogic engagement to describe the different stance positions subtly taken by writers as they cited propositions to build their arguments.

The discussion now focuses on how the different combinations affect dialogic space in the analysed texts, based on patterns seen in the quantitative results, and drawing examples from texts that had high densities of certain citation forms. Such texts were likely to have high occurrences of certain authorial-textual citation combinations. Text ELRA8, which had the highest frequencies of non-integrals and assimilations, was used to check if this assumption was correct and it was found that out of its 83 citations, 57 (68.6%) were non-integral assimilations.

As mentioned in the previous section, it was observed that generally, the MAs from both disciplines tended to use more integral citations than the more senior genres. Generally speaking, integrals tend to be expansive, but the textual integration forms that they combine with influence the overall dialogic space. Text ELM3 is used as an example here because it had the highest frequencies of integral, assimilation and insert + assimilation forms in the ELM group. Estimating from this, the text was likely to have high frequencies of integral assimilation and relatively high integral insert + assimilation. The two combinations are illustrated in 11 below.

11. *Chomsky (1969:8) argues that a language speaker has access to knowledge about the structure of his language. He calls this knowledge "linguistic competence". He distinguishes this from "language performance" which he describes as the actual use of language by a language speaker in a particular social context. According to Krashen (1981:109), the linguistic competence which he calls comprehension, normally precedes language performance or production. [ELM3]*

The four citations in this extract are integral and they foreground the authors giving the cited propositions a human agency. This, according to Hu and Wang (2014), presents a personal style and has an effect of opening dialogic space by presenting propositions as other individuals' viewpoints. However, by assimilating the first and last propositions, the writer also reduced dialogic space because the form implies that the cited ideas have been accepted as correct. The second and third citations beginning with the pronoun *he* are in the integral insertion + assimilation form which, on the scale, is in the middle point of the expansive side. Here the writer increased space for dialogue by categorically assigning the quoted noun phrases to Chomsky, implying that this is just one person's view among others such as the one in the last citation from Krashen (1981). Although the writer seemed to agree with the cited propositions, she presented them in a way that does not totally dismiss other views. This discussion shows that though the MA group tended to use integral forms, the different combinations had varying dialogic effects.

At the core group level, the DSM writers used significantly more assimilations than the DSRA ones, suggesting that they mostly used the sources positively to build their arguments. Text DSM3

recorded the highest frequencies of integral, non-integral and assimilation forms. It was therefore likely to contain high frequencies of both integral and non-integral assimilations that are illustrated in extract 12.

12. *As countries become more reliant on manufacturing and services and less on agricultural sector, urban areas are likely to become important for nourishing innovations, providing a hub for trade and encouraging human capital accumulation (**Jackson, 1979:90**) ... It is in the towns and cities that governments provide better social services than in the rural areas (**Ambrose, 1993: 209**). **Annon (1989:83) states** that, apparently due to such better provision of social services urban centers become centers of attraction, especially in the Third World countries. [DSM3]*

All citations in extract 12 are assimilations, two non-integral and one integral. Coffin (2009, 174) observed that when a cited proposition is assimilated into the text and presented in the non-integral form, it is "more likely to be perceived as an established fact, thus creating dialogic contraction." Therefore, by using non-integral assimilation, writer DSM3 in a way presented the propositions as facts. This tends to close space for dialogue with readers, and as seen above, non-integral assimilation is suggested as the most contractive combination on the dialogic space continuum. The integral assimilation in the third citation is less contractive but these citations were used to support the writer's argument in a way that did not readily entertain alternatives.

The EL cluster displayed a general pattern that the ELRA writers tended to use more non-integral citations than the postgraduate ones, but with stronger evidence in their comparison with the ELM group. A pattern was observed that the density of non-integral forms increased as one goes up the genres which suggests some form of pecking order in their use. Text ELRA8 had the highest frequencies of non-integrals and assimilations and had more than half of its citations as non-integral assimilation, for example,

13. *In narratives and written expository prose, the order of actions and events relative to the overall temporal discourse frame and the time deixis in the subordinate, and the independent clause serves as one of the most common cohesive devices (**Halliday and Hasan, 1976**). Time clauses can be the locus of the more important action or event that occurs during the time frame specified in the independent clause, or vice versa (**Quirk et al., 1985: 1080**). Similar to time clauses, place clauses also provide a framework to locate the events or actions of either the subordinate or the independent clause along the locative deixis established in the context of narrative, explication, or exposition. However, unlike time clauses and adverbs of place, in academic texts, clauses of place are not very frequent (**Biber et al., 1999; Halliday, 1994**). [ELRA8]*

Extract 13 is part of the presentation of the findings where the writer discussed types of adverb clauses that he found. The non-integral form in this case keeps the flow of the text uninterrupted and assimilation indicates the writer's acceptance of the cited propositions that become part of the argument. The citations were meant to support the findings hence the endorse stance. As already explained in extract 12, dialogic space appears to be completely closed by the three non-integral assimilations, moving the reader towards agreeing with the writer's view.

In the cross-discipline comparisons, a larger pattern was observed that the DS postgraduates tended to use more non-integral and assimilation citations than the EL ones, though this was more evident between the MA corpora where valid results for differences were realised (e.g. DSM3 discussed in extract 12). On the other hand, it was observed that the EL writers generally tended to use more integral citations as illustrated by ELM3 in extract 11, though the pattern had weaker evidence than the DS one. Text ELD2 is used here to demonstrate the combinations not illustrated so far. The text outstandingly used non-integrals, insertions and insertion + assimilations.

14. *Whereas he **considers** three of these examples to represent "clearly 'marked' televisual religious language", the first one represents what he calls "the 'zero-degree' case" (**Thompson, 1996: 92**), meaning unmarked in terms of voice genre…**Thompson finds** that the manner in which the interview is conducted resembles the ordinary secular television interview genre: "it is standard, competent chat-show performance on the part of both, save for the religious content" (**Thompson, 1996: 93**). [ELD2]*

Extract 14 contains two split citations. The first citation is a split insertion + assimilation where the writer used two short direct quotes to borrow the cited author's terminology. The insertions seem to portray a distance stance by the writer whereby he assigned the words to the cited author. The distancing effect became more pronounced when he introduced the second quote with the reporting phrase *what he calls*. It seems the non-integral part of this citation is mainly to provide the source details. The second citation is a split insertion where, again, the non-integral part is meant to put all citation details together. This leaves the integral insertion part more active, and with this most expansive combination, the writer seems to avoid commitment to the proposition.

The studied writers employed citations with different author and textual integration as has been illustrated in this section. However, it was observed from the quantitative analyses that there were many more assimilation in the whole corpus (78.4%) than insertions and insertion + assimilations. From this, it could be estimated that there were more combinations with assimilation than with the other two textual integration forms. Using both expansive and contractive combinations with varying degrees of dialogic engagement helped to present some sort of balanced arguments. The next extract (15) is analysed to demonstrate how writers achieved dialogic space management through different combinations of citation forms, together with stance and reader engagement resources, to try to balance their arguments.

15. *Usually*, **we** *link poverty of female-headed households to the fact that women are disadvantaged with respect to "either assets or activities, or some combination of both, linked to inequalities of access to resources and income generating opportunities"* (**Ellis, 2000:141**). *However, it is a misconception to assume that women's individual disadvantages translate directly into household poverty* (**IFAD, 1999:3**). ***In fact***, *even when female-headed households are disadvantaged in terms of access to resources like land, livestock, credit, education, and health care, it is not necessarily the case that they are poorer than male-headed households in terms of income. For example, a report by the International Fund for Agricultural Development on rural poverty in West and Central Africa* (**IFAD, 1999**) *shows that, despite women's individual disadvantages, the poverty incidence among female-headed households is lower than among male-headed households. The report* **suggests** *that female-headed households perform so well because female heads are able to make their own decisions about the resources they have access to, independently from male spouses, and use these resources more productively than male heads of households.* [DSD2]

The writer begins with an insertion + assimilation citation which she hedges with *usually*, to show that the proposition is a general belief held by some people. The writer involves readers in her argument through the inclusive reader pronoun *we* and at the same time distances herself from the proposition by using a direct quote to assign the words to Ellis (the cited author). In the second sentence, the writer cites a proposition from IFAD that contradicts the first one, but that she happens to agree with. The citation is in a non-integral assimilated form, which tends to present the information as a fact. She endorses her stance in the next sentence by boosting the follow-up proposition with *in fact*. She then supports her proposition with an assimilated citation from IFAD, using the endorse verb *shows*, which further supports her endorsing stance. This combination of resources has a contractive dialogic effect, reducing space for other views. The last statement references IFAD again, but this time with a distance verb *suggest* which reduces the writer's level of commitment to the proposition, thus creating space for alternative views. To summarise DSD2's argument which I think was done effectively, it begins with a general view that the writer disagrees with. Secondly, it presents the writer's contrary view introduced by *however*, then the rest of the paragraph supports the view in a persuasive manner. Extract 15 has demonstrated the management of dialogic space which involves using different citation forms and other interactional markers to direct readers towards certain preferred meanings and interpretations so that they are ultimately persuaded by the argument.

The discussion in this section has shed some light on how the different combinations of author and textual integration forms were used in the study corpus in ways that tended to expand or contract dialogic space. Postgraduates and RA writers are expected to manoeuvre this space in ways that are acceptable in their disciplines to enhance their arguments. In the humanities disciplines of DS and EL as investigated in this study writers drew from expansive and contractive resources in an attempt to balance their arguments. On the one hand, writers had to create space for alternative

views since the subjects or topics they argued on were mainly subjective and likely disputable. On the other hand, they had to contract dialogic space to take a stance when they were confident of their arguments. This means that, as noted by Lancaster (2012), there is a need to balance the use of rhetorical devices to manage dialogic space in order to construct effective arguments. Xie (2016) also noted the element of balance in argumentation in her study of evaluation in MA literature reviews written by Chinese EFL students. It was found that, the writers used only slightly more dialogic expansions than dialogic contractions and the small difference between the two resources was interpreted as the writers' effort to strike a balance between projecting an authoritative and a cautious voice.

However, balancing the rhetorical devices is not an easy task, considering that these are tacit rhetorical strategies that are not explicitly taught by writing instructors and are therefore mostly acquired through practice and experience. As a result, researchers in this area have called for explicit teaching of citation forms and other rhetorical strategies (e.g. Dong 1996; Petrić 2007, Petrić & Harwood 2013) and it is hoped that the present study will throw some light on the nature of dialogic space management skills.

### 5.1.3 Citation functions

Functions of citation relate to reasons for which citations are used. They are the "rhetorical purposes writers intend them to perform in their texts..." (Petrić & Harwood 2013, 110). There are different reasons why writers cite sources in their academic work. According to White (2004), overall, writers cite sources because they are relevant to their work, but more specific reasons can be found from interviews or deduced from texts. In this section, the main citation functions that were mentioned in the interviews with the students are discussed to see how they were used to meet the writers' needs in their arguments. The main categories used to analyse the functions were 'background', 'support' 'acknowledgement' and 'critique' (Bloch & Chi 1995; Swales 1990) and they are discussed in this order below.

Earlier researchers observed that interviews are necessary when investigating functions of citation because it is not easy to assign functions by examining written texts only (Petrić & Harwood 2013; Swales 2014). A question on citation functions was therefore included in my interview protocol, namely: *Why do (did) you cite sources in your writing?* Responses to this question are drawn into the discussion of citation functions to explain some of the findings. It should be borne in mind, however, that citation functions are the most vaguely defined area in citation analysis and that, even with interviews, it is of course impossible to check every function with the writer. As a result, my attempt to analyse citation functions in this study was not without its problems.

The first function, background references, includes citations referring to methodology, definitions, explanations and historical references. They are not directly related to the writer's argument and

are normally presented without evaluative comments (Bloch & Chi 1995). Although the background function was quite evident in the analysed texts, no participant mentioned the function during interviews. This is probably because the function is overshadowed by that of acknowledgement which, in my view, somehow covers other functions such as background and support. Whether writers cited to give background or to support arguments, they would be acknowledging sources of the cited information. This points to a typical conceptual overlap in functional categorisation, a problem that earlier researchers have also experienced (see Chapter 2, § 2.1.3.2). Also, this shows the multifunctional characteristic of citations that was observed by Harwood (2009) in his interview-based study.

Generally, background citation appears mostly in introduction chapters or sections where writers would be introducing their readers to their subject matter, as exemplified below.

16. *Despite numerous attempts by many governments in Africa to either wish away traditional leadership or to actually attack it through various reform measures with a view to abolishing it (Owusu, 1997:138), many parts of the continent are still characterised by dualism of political authority (Sklar, 1999a: 168). [DSD1]*

In extract 16, writer DSD1 was introducing and contextualising his study, showing how it had been difficult or impossible for African governments to do away with traditional leadership. This indirectly shows the relevance of his topic, namely that since traditional leadership had proved to be indispensable, it was therefore worth studying. To introduce his work effectively and persuasively, writer DSD1 used two non-integral assimilations which enabled him to report the cited authors' ideas in his own words as background to his study.

The second citation function, support, was common in the study corpus. Citations perform the support function when they are directly related to supporting the writer's argument or point of view. Mansourizadeh and Ahmad (2011, 155) expanded the support function, taking their subtypes from the different purposes for which it is used: "to provide evidence for the significance of the topic; to justify the procedures and materials; to support the writer's argument or claim, and to justify the results of the study". Below is one response by writer ELD1 that mentioned support among other functions, as well as extract 17 from her text to illustrate the function.

*ELD1: …You cite to **support**, you cite to establish your standing point …You cite because you would have used people's writings. You've got to **acknowledge** because you do not want to plagiarise; we know the disadvantage of plagiarising.*

17. *The data presented in section 4.2 revealed that meanings of constituents interrelate and yield different meanings of a compound word which is different from that of constituents in isolation… The present study aligns with Anderson's (1992: 294) statement that "a newly formed compound word now occupies a new lexical category and so a new meaning". [ELD1]*

This extract reports part of the findings, which is presented in the first sentence. To support the results, the writer quoted directly from Anderson whose statement agrees with the results. The citing sentence begins with a phrase (*the present study aligns with*) that marks the citation as belonging to the support category.

The third function, acknowledgement, also known as attribution (Hyland 1999; Petrić 2007), was another common citation function that occurred throughout the texts irrespective of sections or chapters. This was supported by the presence of high frequencies of acknowledge RVs in all genres, as shown in the quantitative analysis chapter and also discussed in the next section. But the fact that this RV type was more prevalent in the MA group could suggest that this genre also cited for acknowledgement more than the other genres did. Acknowledgement happened when sources were cited simply to acknowledge the originators of the cited information without passing evaluative comments. Petrić (2007) had a similar finding in a comparison of rhetorical functions of citations in high- and low-grade MA dissertations in gender studies. She found that attribution was the most common rhetorical function in both groups of texts. She then postulated that this could be a characteristic of student writing in general, since the function helps writers to "display the knowledge of the topic" (Petrić 2007, 247). Knowledge display is an implied reason for acknowledgement in the present study, but acknowledgement was also done to avoid plagiarism as revealed in the above cited response from ELD1. Text ELM3 recorded the highest frequency for acknowledge verbs in the MA genre and extract 18 below was taken from it.

18. *Cann (1993:8)* **defines** *syntactical ambiguity as the presence of two or more distinct meanings in a sentence. He further* **explains** *that "we call a sentence ambiguous when a sequence of words can be structured in alternative ways that are consistent with the syntax of the language or when a given lexical item has more than one semantic interpretation." Cann further* **describes** *ambiguity by differentiating it from vagueness. He* **says** *a word or phrase is said to be ambiguous if it has at least two specific meanings that make sense in context. [ELM3]*

Writer ELM3 used a chain of four citations from the same source to define the term *ambiguity*. All the citations are integral with the acknowledge verbs *define*, *explain*, *describe* and *say* that do not signal an explicit evaluation. The dominance of the acknowledgement function found in the MA corpus tallies with Greene's (1993, in Petrić and Harwood 2013, 111) finding that the L1 learners studied used citations "primarily as sources of information rather than to support an argument". It was also observed that text ELM3 stood out in that it used about seven times the number of citations as the number of sources on its reference list. Such citing practices could be equated to those of the low-rated MAs in Petrić's (2007) study, who tended to describe rather than to analyse cited information, simply displaying knowledge of the subject. Similarly, Dong (1996, 432) observed, in a study of the introductory chapters of science theses by L2 Doctoral students, that immature writers tended to use a "knowledge telling model" whereby they merely narrated the knowledge acquired from their reading.

The analysis of postgraduate interview responses showed that acknowledgement and support were the most common functions: support was mentioned by nine out of ten participants and acknowledgement by eight. These functions were mentioned in initial responses, before any probing from me and before I referred to extracts from their texts, which means they are the ones that immediately came to the interviewees' minds. For example,

*Current DSM: Sometimes I'll cite some sources to **strengthen my point** or to **acknowledge** that those are not my words.*

*DSM5: I think the first reason is to **acknowledge** that that information is not mine, to ensure that people know that that information is not mine, so I have to **acknowledge** the source, and also to ensure that **I cite facts from other people**. So, I think those are the reasons why I cite in my writing, and also, I think it's the issue of honesty.*

The fourth function, critique citation, occurs when a writer partly or totally disagrees with the cited proposition (Bloch & Chi 1995; Hu & Wang 2014). This was the most uncommon function. Although it did not come immediately to their minds, when probed, the interviewees indicated that they would sometimes quote to criticise. This function was mentioned by five interview participants. It is not surprising that out of the five, four were PhD writers, both completed and current ones, and only one was a current MA student. This trend is in line with the quantitative results that indicated that the MA writers did not use contest verbs. Some of the interview responses were as follows:

*ELD1: … sometimes you cite because you're **critiquing** another person's writing…. Whatever you've read does not necessarily support what you're saying; maybe it goes against it in some aspect, so you'll be critically looking or trying to connect the two views. So, it did happen that sometimes I would feel that no, there is more from my own point of view which might be different from what my source says.*

*Current ELD: I used citations to **support** and also to **critique** because I feel even when you're critiquing, contrasting a certain author, you're still sort of strengthening your own argument. To say "so and so looks at this this way but I think it's wrong, the right way is this one" it also strengthens your work.*

Contest verbs are an important pointer to critique citations in this study, and they were used together with other critique phrases to identify the examples discussed here. In the analysed examples, this function tended to occur in introduction and literature review chapters, where writers were justifying their studies and establishing a research gap. Coffin (2009) made a similar observation in her study of referencing in a doctoral film studies thesis, where the writer created research space for her work in the first chapter by locating gaps in previous research. As implied by the quantitative findings of RVs in Chapter 4, such citations were likely to occur in higher

genres than the MAs. Below is an example of the few critique citations that were found in the corpus.

19. *The latest of these studies ((Pratchett, et al., 2008)* **has a limited scope and focus** *in that it endeavors to assess the general strengths and weaknesses of the new local government system at the local level.* **It pays little attention** *to the main concern of this study. Besides,* **it does not address** *the broader national context within which the current local government system works... More precisely,* **it ignores** *the roles and impacts of national political parties...* [DSD1]

This extract was taken from the first chapter on justification of the study, where I discovered it after expanding the concordance line to see the RV and citation forms. The bolded phrases drew my attention as they point to critique function of citations. The extract demonstrates the critique function by describing the cited work as having a "limited scope and focus", and paying "little attention" to important issues, for example. It is clear that the writer cited the source in order to critique it, exposing its weaknesses, especially that it "ignores" certain aspects of the subject area. *Ignore* is one of the few contest verbs found in the literature (Hu & Wang 2014; Thompson & Ye 1991). Referring to his study in the comment shows that 'creating research space' (Swales 1990) was another reason for citing the source. The fact that this latest study cited by the writer "pays little attention to the main concern" of his study partly justifies the existence of his study. The excerpt below is another example of a citation meant to create a research space.

20. *They exemplify white-collar as an exocentric compound word and claim that even though its entity is neither a collar nor a white thing, its meaning is related to a worker. Why a worker?* **Ningsih and Rosa (op. cit.) provide no further explanation** *beyond this observation, which the present study finds* **insufficient***. Another* **limitation** *regarding their study is that they use only one newspaper found in Indonesia, 'The Jakarta Post'. This may be found* **too thin** *to represent compound types and processes in newspaper discourse.* [ELD1]

Excerpt 20 was taken from the literature review. I discovered it as I was analysing the citation and, again, the bolded phrases pointing to negative reporting attracted my attention. Writer ELD1 reported that the authors she cited "provided no further explanation" for the naming of a compound word that they described, and mentioned that she found the observation "insufficient". This implies that her study was going to provide a fuller explanation, thus contributing something to the field of study. She also identified a "limitation" of too small a sample that might be regarded as a "too thin" representative. This, again, implied that she intended to use a more representative sample than that of the cited study.

Writer ELM4 indicated that he did not cite to critique during his MA writing, but he was doing it in his PhD writing. Although this writer participated in the interviews as the author of ELM4, he would often allude to his current PhD writing while responding to the questions regarding his MA

work. Interestingly, he is the only writer who raised the function of establishing a gap or creating research space. Creating research space is closely related to the critique function since it is done through negative reporting, and this could probably be treated as another conceptual overlap in functional categorisations. Because of this, most of the reviewed studies (e.g. Bloch & Chi 1995; Gilbert's 1977; White 2004) did not list it among their functions. As shown by extract 20 discussed above, critiquing is done for reasons such as justifying one's study by establishing a gap in the body of knowledge, thus creating research space. Writer ELM4 said,

*One reason I cite other people is when I mention a point which I think I'm not an authority on, so then I need someone to **support my arguments**. Eh, sometimes I cite when I'm aware that a particular point, even if it's common knowledge, actually can be **traced to a certain source**. So that is one way which I cite sources, but also for instance in Literature review I cite sources to show that X did this so **there seems to be a gap,** so those are some of the reasons I cite the sources, eh.*

*(After probing) Ah, for my MA, I don't recall my critiquing a source. I think what I did sometimes was showing contrast between the sources, but then lately I've been in a situation in which I do **criticism**. When I **criticise**, I borrow from other people because a lot of times I've found that my arguments actually are similar to arguments other people have raised. For instance, the theory that I set out to use right now at PhD, there were a lot of criticisms against it.*

The fact that only the PhD writers critiqued sources and that writer ELM4, who realised the research gap function, proceeded to PhD studies, could be linked to Petrić's (2007) study, where one of the clearest differences she found between low- and high-rated MAs was that the latter more often used evaluation as well as comparison and contrast between sources. Petrić (2007, 251) interpreted this practice as showing "the writers' analytic skills that seem to lack in low-rated theses writers who mostly cited to attribute."

Lastly, other functions than those listed in the analysis framework were raised by writer ELM1. In her response below, she raised 'better expression' as one of the reasons for citing sources in her writing. Also, she alluded to 'knowledge display' that was raised by Petrić (2007) concerning the attribution function.

*ELM1: I wanted to add weight to my argument, and I also wanted to **better express myself** because as a student you would find that, ok my grammar is (laughing) is a problem and this one maybe has put this opinion in a better way, let me take this one and use it. So, I used them because I wanted to support myself, to **support my argument**, to add weight and to better express myself, and also **to show that there are some people before me who wrote about the same issue in this field.***

### 5.1.4 Conclusion

Basically, the postgraduate writers managed to integrate external sources into their arguments to make them effective. Nonetheless, there are certain weaknesses revealed by the qualitative analysis in this section that point to citation areas that may need attention. These could be useful for academic writing teaching. It is hoped that the suggested complex citation classification of 'chain' and 'split' may provide future researchers with categories to deal with complex forms of citation. A relationship seems to exist between the level of writers and the complexity of their citing practices. Also, citation forms chosen by writers seem to have evaluative effects on the cited propositions, meaning writers should mind the reporting forms that they use since it is not just a matter of varying the forms to break monotony. Lastly, an attempt was made to understand the functions of citations from the postgraduates' point of view. This shows that there is more to learn about citation than just its various forms.

## 5.2 Stance

This section further explores stance resources, namely RVs, hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention, to understand their use and the quality of writing across groups in response to research question 3b. This involves discussing differences in the use of stance resources as well as rhetorical functions and possible dialogic effects of the resources. Section 5.2.1 discusses RVs and section 5.2.2 discusses other stance markers to gain more insights into how the resources contribute towards stance construction.

### 5.2.1 Reporting verbs

Recognition of the importance of RVs in student writing is reflected in what seems to be a growing practice for university writing centres to prepare RV information guides for students, especially undergraduates (e.g. University of Adelaide; University of Technology Sydney; University of Warwick; Wits University). The University of Adelaide Writing Centre's (2014) Learning Guide defines RVs as words used to report on other people's work. It further explains that while RVs can be quite useful in academic writing, students normally find it difficult to use them effectively because they are many, and each of them has a "slightly different and often subtle meaning" (https://www.adelaide.edu.au/writingcentre/sites/default/files/docs/learningguideverbsforreporting.pdf).

The task of using appropriate RVs seems more difficult to L2 writers (Bloch 2010; Shin et al. 2018), yet the verbs are an integral part of citation that helps writers to position themselves in the ongoing disciplinary debates. They provide room for writers to comment as they report propositions; hence they become an important device for evaluation. In my study, RVs were classified into 'acknowledge', 'distance', 'endorse' and 'contest' classes as created from the

Appraisal based "four types of writer stance which indicate different degrees of dialogic expansion and contraction" (Coffin 2009, 170). (See Chapter 3, § 3.4.2.1 for more details).

To effectively deliberate on dialogism in this section, RVs were further grouped into two categories of dialogically expansive and dialogically contractive verbs. Previous studies usually grouped verbs according to their activity or process functions and semantic categories (Charles 2006a, 2006b; Hyland 2002b; Thomas & Hawes 1994; Thompson & Ye 1991). For example, Hyland grouped reporting verbs according to three different processes of Research Acts, Cognition Acts and Discourse Acts. Research seems to have been concentrated on the variation of the process and semantic RV categories used in different disciplines, while dialogism in RVs received less attention. My study joins later research such as Coffin (2009) and Hu and Wang (2014) to explore dialogism of RVs in academic writing, attempting to group them systematically.

Before discussing the two broad categories mentioned in the previous paragraph, it is necessary to briefly revisit the relationship between RVs and dialogism which was explained in Chapter 3. Hu and Wang (2014), using Coffin's (2009) approach, defined the four RV categories in terms of their relationship with stance positions and their dialogic effects. On the one hand, acknowledge and distance verbs imply stance positions that are dialogically expansive, accommodating alternative perspectives and voices. Hu and Wang (2014) explain 'acknowledge' as a stance where reporting writers take neutral positions and make no evaluation of the cited propositions with RVs such as *state*, and 'distance' as showing a position by the writers to distance themselves from the reported propositions using such verbs as *claim*. It is important, however, to note that RVs are classified as 'acknowledge' or 'distance' considering their evaluative potential out of context, but their stance effects are sometimes altered by their contexts of use, as stated by Thompson and Ye (1991).

On the other hand, endorse and contest verbs point to dialogically contractive stance positions, shutting out alternative views. 'Endorse' is a stance by the reporting writers to agree with the reported propositions, presenting them as "authoritative, trustworthy, or convincing" as exemplified by verbs such as *demonstrate* (Hu & Wang 2014, 16). 'Contest' stance, however, applies when writers show a negative attitude towards the cited information by directly criticising or rejecting it with such verbs as *ignore*. (See Chapter 3, § 3.4.2.1 for more information on RV dialogism).

Extracts from the corpus are analysed in the subsequent sections in an attempt to consider appropriateness of use and to infer RVs' dialogic effects. Selection of the extracts is guided essentially by the quantitative results obtained in Chapter 4. As in section 5.1.2, here dialogic space is treated as a continuum with different degrees of engagement that open, increase, decrease or close dialogic space.

**5.2.1.1 Dialogically expansive verbs: acknowledge and distance**

Two of the most valid cross-genre patterns revealed in the quantitative analyses were that the MA writers from both disciplines employed significantly more acknowledge and distance verbs than the RA writers. They also tended to use more of both categories of verbs than the PhD writers, so that the patterns show decreasing use of these RVs as one moves up the genre hierarchy. Because of this interesting pattern, the use of these verbs was investigated more closely to shed more light on differences between the groups.

When acknowledge verbs are used in citations, they signal neutrality, presenting a proposition as one of the available options (Coffin 2009). This means that the verbs tend to be dialogically expansive since their use creates space for different points of view. Quantitative results revealed that acknowledge verbs were the most used category in the whole corpus, constituting 9.5% of all stance markers. This tends to be the case in academic writing generally (Lee et al. 2018; Hu & Wang 2014; Ramoroka 2014). Hu and Wang (2014, 21) explain that writers use acknowledge verbs to present cited propositions "strategically to show their familiarity with the relevant knowledge claims or literature without passing any evaluative judgement". And Ramoroka (2014) found that undergraduate students at the University of Botswana used more informing verbs that signal neutral passing of information by the writer than argumentative verbs that signal evaluation. 171 verbs and phrases were identified in this category and *according to*, *state, note, observe,* and *point out* were at the top of the list in that order. In cross-genres comparisons, the MA group used relatively more acknowledge verbs than the PhDs and the latter more than the RAs. This pattern suggests the MAs' lack of explicit evaluation of sources.

The prepositional phrase *according to* was counted as an acknowledge reporting phrase since it is also used to introduce reported information, and it was most frequent in postgraduate texts, where it ranked first, ahead of all the acknowledge RVs, in ELM, DSM and DSD and second after *state* in ELD. Some previous researchers also listed *according to* under RVs and found it to be one of the most used in their student corpora (e.g. Liardét & Black 2019; Ramoroka 2014). A comparison of the two disciplines showed that DS postgraduates used the phrase more than EL ones. The DSM group used about twice as many citation instances of *according* to as the ELM and the DSDs also had frequencies almost twice those of the ELDs. So, the EL postgraduates used less of this relatively neutral and 'formulaic' acknowledge expression.

A marked ranking order in the use of *according to* was observed among the DS genres, whose top four most frequent verbs were in the following order: DSM had *according to*, *state*, *observe* and *note*; DSD had *according to*, *note*, *observe* and *state*; and DSRA had *note*, *according to*, *state* and *point out*. The DSD writers used the phrase about four times as frequently as the DSRA writers and the DSMs about eight times as frequently. On the other hand, a less marked ranking order was observed among the EL genres. The ELM writers used *according to* about twice as frequently as

both the ELDs and the ELRAs, but there was no noticeable difference between the two senior genres. This ranking, especially the DS one, suggests that not only do the postgraduates use more acknowledge expressions than the RAs but they use more of the most 'neutral' expressions, and especially *according to*, than the RAs.

Below is an example from DSM1, a text that had the highest acknowledge verb frequencies and the highest occurrences of *according to* in the DSM group.

21. **According to** *Dahlerup (2005), 'quotas for women entail that women must constitute a certain number of the members of a body', while Lips (2008)* **views** *the political gender quota system as 'a new method for balancing power between men and women in the political arena.' [DSM1]*

The reporting phrase *according to* acknowledged the originator of the cited definition. In this case, the reporting is neutral since this quotation is a definition that could hardly be argued with. In the second citation, the writer used the verb *views* to report another explanation of the concept under discussion. But in this case, the verb appears more dialogically expansive compared to *according to* because it indicates that the proposition is a particular author's view, thus acknowledging a little more explicitly the presence of alternative views.

Distance verbs signal a stance that indicates writers' reduced commitment to reported information, "thus casting some doubt on the proposition" (Coffin 2009, 171) and so they are also dialogically expansive and tend to open more space for dialogue than the acknowledge ones. Overall, this RV category recorded the second-highest frequency counts (2.8% of all stance markers). In this category, overall, 16 verbs were identified, with the ordering of the most frequent ones being as follows: *argue, claim, indicate*, *suggest* and *contend.* Interestingly, the verb *argue* ranked first in all the genres and disciplines. This result tallies with that of Charles (2006b) who found *argue* to be the most frequent in international relations theses. But in my study, there were discipline-based variations regarding the second most frequent verbs. While the DS postgraduate corpora had *indicate* in the second position, the EL ones had *claim*. In the RA corpus, the second most used verb in DSRA was *suggest* and that in ELRA was *contend*. One could argue that *claim* and *contend, as* preferred by the EL writers have a stronger distancing effect than *indicate* and *suggest*. *Claim* and *contend* depict a typical Appraisal distance stance with an obvious effect but *indicate* and *suggest* are verbs of tentativeness (Hyland 2002b) with a less obvious effect. This demonstrates the distancing continuum suggested in my proposal of a broader conception of distance RVs explained in Chapter 3 (§ 3.4.2.1). The proposed classification includes verbs of tentativeness and other similar ones that are of considerable interest in academic writing instead of simply regarding them as acknowledge verbs. One possible explanation for the DS and EL choice of verbs is the nature of the sources cited in the two disciplines to build arguments. As explained in Chapter 4, while the DS writers often cited institution generated texts that are hardly disputed, the EL writers

mostly cited individuals' texts that are open to debate. Examples below illustrate how writers used distance verbs to show less commitment to the cited propositions.

22. *Ellis and Ter Haar (2004)* **argue** *for the privileging of religion in studies of African questions in the human and social sciences. They (Ellis and Ter Haar, 2004: 2)* **claim** *that "it is largely through religious ideas that Africans think about the world today". [ELD2]*

The first citation has a distance verb *argue*. Generally, the verb opens space for dialogue with readers by indicating that the cited proposition is the cited writers' argument, not an acknowledged fact. The dialogic space is increased by the integral citation form that assigns the reported proposition to the cited individuals. The second citation has another distance verb *claim,* which is often regarded as one of the most definite distancing verbs, thus, increasing room for alternative views. The dialogic space is further increased by an integral insertion, described in section 5.1.2 as the most expansive form that clearly personalises the proposition, reporting it in the cited authors' words. Thus, the combination of rhetorical devices in excerpt 22 illustrates a stance that invites voices of dissent. The following extract is interesting in similar ways.

23. *On this point, Ntsebeza* **contends** *that to recognise these structures of government, as the ANC has done, is tantamount to returning to the Apartheid's policy of "retribalisation" (ibid:258). He* **suggests** *that "the only way in which traditional authorities could play a public and political role would be for them to abandon their hereditary status and subject themselves to the process of election by their people" (ibid: 35).* **What is not clear in this suggestion** *is whether or not by subjecting themselves to elections, the chiefs will still be chiefs or politicians since what makes them chiefs is, in the first instance, precisely their hereditary claim to public office.* [DSD1]

In the extract above, the first reporting statement exhibits quite a good example of *contend* being a typical distance verb. The writer maintains his distance stance in the next statement where *suggests* is used to introduce a related idea and mediate a critical comment that follows in the next statement. The latter shows quite clearly how *suggest* can be associated with writer doubt or distance.

As stated earlier in the introduction, the general classification of RVs into acknowledge or distance is based on their evaluative potential out of context, but their potential stance effects are of course sometimes altered by their contexts of use (Thompson and Ye 1991). In the study corpus, such instances were observed where writers would use modifiers, especially adverbs, which changed the verbs' effects. Text DSD1 often exhibited this practice, as illustrated in the extracts below.

24. *Keulder (1998:24)* **argues, rightly,** *that the concept of traditional leadership in the Weberian sense no longer applies in the so-called traditional communities.*

*25. It does help to elucidate and conceptualise democratic consolidation, at least in what Koelble and Lipuma (2008) **appropriately term** the "EuroAmerican" sense. [DSD1]*

Although the writer used a distance verb *argue* in example 24, he qualified it with the attitude marker *rightly* to show his agreement with the argument, resulting in an endorse stance. In 25, the writer used the attitude marker *appropriately* to qualify the acknowledge verb *term*, which also produced an endorsing effect. By qualifying distance and acknowledge verbs positively, writer DSD1 made his reporting in these instances assertive, resulting in a dialogic contractive effect.

**5.2.1.2 Dialogically contractive verbs: endorse and contest**

Unlike verbs in the previous section that invite different views from fellow discourse community members, endorse and contest verbs do not leave room for dissenting voices and as such are dialogically contractive. Endorse verbs signal a stance supporting a referenced proposition and in my study are limited to what Thompson and Ye (1991) called 'factive' verbs, since writers use the verbs to present the reported information as true or correct. Endorse verbs were the third most frequent category in the overall study corpus (1.4% of all stance markers). Out of the 16 verbs identified, *show, find, demonstrate, confirm* and *reveal* were, in that order, the most frequent ones. Genre-based patterns were observed for this verb category. In the postgraduate corpus, irrespective of discipline, *show* was the most frequently used verb. *Find* was the second most frequent in all groups except ELD, where it ranked third and *demonstrate* second. On the other hand, *find* was the most frequently used verb in the RA corpus, followed by *show*.

Text DSM1 had the highest frequency of endorse verbs in the group and used them more than distance ones. The writer used the two most frequent verbs in the postgraduate corpus, *show* and *find* as illustrated in extracts 26 and 27.

*26. As **shown** in Hlalele (2011), children travelled long distances to get to school. The distance posed a threat to girl children and as Colclough et al. (2000) **has shown** elsewhere, parents would often protect daughters by withdrawing them from school or in the particular case of Lesotho, parents would stop sending children to school during hostile weather (Hlalele 2011). [DSM1]*

*27. Second, after graduating from initiation schools, the new men's next stage was marriage, and Hlalele (2011) **found** that the potential wives were often younger girls. [DSM1]*

In 26, the verb *show* was used twice to report findings from previous research that the writer used to support a point of view, and the same applies to extract 27 where f*ound* was used. As observed by Hu and Wang (2014, 21), such verbs help writers to present cited propositions "explicitly as true knowledge claims, invest commitment at stake and/or back up their own argument with the

propositions". By using the endorse verbs, the writer accepted the cited propositions as correct. In the two examples, the reported ideas were assimilated into the writer's argument and the combination of an endorse verb and an assimilation form contracted space for dialogue with readers.

Contest verbs express a stance of disapproval of an aspect of the cited information, using such verbs as *ignore*. Such verbs were classified by Thompson and Ye (1991) as 'counter-factive' because they are used by writers to portray the cited information as incorrect. Similar to endorse verbs, contest ones are dialogically contractive. This was the least used verb category in the corpus (with six verbs only), possibly because academic writers, especially inexperienced ones, usually avoid openly criticising fellow researchers (Coffin 2009; Thompson & Ye 1991). Examples of contest verbs that were found in the corpus are *ignore* and *brush off*.

28. *In support of these varying structures of compound words, Crystal (2003: 34)* **brushes away** [sic] *the question on structure of compound words by relating it to spelling and not to morphology. [ELD1]*

Extract 28 shows the writer's critical attitude towards the cited work, meaning the writer reduced chances for acceptance of the work by readers as correct. The use of such contest verbs decreased dialogic space by drawing readers' attention to the weaknesses of the cited propositions or studies. As pointed out in the discussion of citation functions (§ 5.1.3), writers sometimes critiqued previous works to create space for their own research. The interview responses indicated that some of the MA writers were not comfortable to openly criticise other researchers, and this explains the absence of contest verbs in their corpus. This is supported by their responses to the interview question on whether they would sometimes cite in order to criticise. For example, writers DSM5 and ELM1 responded as follows:

*DSM5: Um, I think there are instances where we have to cite because we're disagreeing with that particular author, especially in the literature review, yes. In the literature review such citation can come…. Umm, I wasn't comfortable, (laughing). Maybe with my PhD I will be more comfortable to say, "No no no I don't think this thing has to be like this". You are not yet confident, even if you have the right view.*

*ELM1: No, in my case I always agreed. It's now when I'm doing my PhD that I realise or my supervisors have made me aware that I have to have a voice in whatever I'm doing. As for Honours and MA, really, I just wrote…. I didn't want to argue. In fact, I thought that those people whom I was referring to, whom I'd taken their opinion to incorporate in my writing were specialists, were people with expertise in this field, so I didn't realise that I could critique whatever they were saying.*

More generally, it was observed that writers also used other means to critique cited propositions than RVs. These are discussed under other stance markers in the next section. It was also observed from interview responses that most of the interviewed writers, especially the MAs, were not aware of the evaluative implications of the RVs that they used. The writers stated that they chose the verbs without putting much thought into it. Some of the responses to the question which enquired if writers made conscious choices about RVs and if they were aware of the verbs' evaluative potential are presented below.

*ELM1: Not at all, I didn't realise that I had to do that. I just used them to support me like "states', 'says'. I didn't really choose or I was not aware that maybe they have certain effect on what I'm writing. …. Yah, that's what we did; it's now that your interview is opening my eyes that aaa, I've to be very careful when using these verbs.*

*Current ELM: I don't really think much about it; I think it happens naturally because I will say "Parker reports that…" In the next paragraph I will say, "Parker suggests that…" It just depends on the point I am trying to put across. I wouldn't say it's conscious, it just depends on the point I am trying to make.*

As can be seen from the above responses, the interviewed MA writers seemed mostly to use RVs without much reflection and were not aware of their evaluative potential. To be specific, while writer ELM1 confessed her ignorance of the evaluative potential of RVs, the current ELM student implied that she was concerned about varying her verbs. On the other hand, the interviewed PhD writers, except DSD2, revealed some level of awareness, as shown by the responses below.

*ELD1: To some extent I think so, but not that much, but to some extent maybe, yah…uum…that I made a deliberate choice that this one I should say "support" because actually this one is to support what I'm saying. But I don't think I'm very very particular on those reporting verbs. I try as much as I can, but like I'm saying not 100%.*

*Current ELD: I think I do it consciously; I always do it consciously as you can see those reporting verbs there given to me by my supervisor (pointing at a list of reporting verbs posted on his door). Yah, I do it consciously.*

It is interesting to note that the supervisor of the interviewed current ELD student went to the extent of providing a list of RVs and their inherent meanings after realising the challenge faced by his student in using appropriate RVs. This is one of the services normally offered by writing centres which, unfortunately, NUL does not have at the moment. But part of the value of such verb lists depends on whether they are categorised in useful ways.

### 5.2.1.3 Variety of RVs in the core groups

As this qualitative chapter involves looking at certain patterns in more detail, especially with regard to RVs, the variety of RVs used by writers in each core group was compared. Table 5.1 shows first the number of different RVs used – in other words the RV types. Each verb can of course be used a number of times and if one counts all the repetitions of each verb too the result is the total number of RV tokens, as given in the second row of the table. The relationship between the number of types and tokens can then be calculated in order to get an idea of the variety of RV vocabulary used in the groups. For instance, DSM and DSD writers both used about the same number of RV tokens but DSM writers only used 67 different types, while the DSD writers used 103, indicating that they employed a wider range of RV vocabulary. Thus, the higher the type-token ratio, calculated by dividing the number of types by the number of tokens, the more variety of vocabulary is indicated.

*Table 5.1. Reporting verb ranges and ratios*

|                     | DSM  | ELM  | DSD  | ELD  | DSRA | ELRA |
|---------------------|------|------|------|------|------|------|
| RV types            | 67   | 99   | 103  | 130  | 73   | 105  |
| RV tokens           | 406  | 494  | 396  | 462  | 248  | 351  |
| RV type-token ratio | 0.17 | 0.20 | 0.26 | 0.28 | 0.29 | 0.30 |

Given that the core corpora are also of comparable size, it can be argued that the increase in type-token ratio as one moves up the genre scale for both disciplines indicates an increase in the overall variety of RV types used. Thus, a pattern emerged showing that reporting vocabulary increased with genre where the MA writers used a lower range of vocabulary than the PhDs and the PhDs used less variety than the RA writers. A similar observation was made in Campbell's (2016) study, where RA writers used a wider range of RVs that collocated with *that* than undergraduate writers. The type-token ratios in my study also revealed a cross-disciplinary pattern in that for each genre level, the EL ratio was higher than the DS ratio. This result obtained possibly because the EL writers had had English as an academic focus and not just as the medium of communication, suggesting that they had developed larger vocabularies in general.

To conclude the RV discussion, though the investigated writers successfully deployed RVs that facilitated effective arguments as illustrated by the examples discussed in this section, there are still issues that need attention. The lack of awareness of evaluative and dialogic implications of the RVs revealed by the interview responses points to a need for more systematic ways of raising students' consciousness about the importance of RVs. This area seems to have been largely overlooked at postgraduate level. Previous research has also identified the use of RVs as a particularly challenging aspect of academic writing, especially for L2 writers. Pecorari (2008, in Bloch 2010), for example, reports that students do not always consciously decide on which RVs to use; they often randomly choose the verbs. On the other hand, Bloch (2010) observes that L2

writers often seem concerned with varying their vocabulary choices without much consideration of how they affect their stance towards the reported propositions.

## 5.2.2 Other stance markers

Four categories from Hyland's (2005a) taxonomy were used to classify stance markers other than RVs. These are hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention. They are rhetorical devices used by academic writers to project their voices into their arguments to take a stance towards propositions as well as in relation to readers. Similar to the RVs, other stance resources were further grouped into dialogically expansive and dialogically contractive categories to facilitate the discussion of dialogism. How the resources were used by the different groups is discussed in the next two sections, with illustrations from the corpus.

### 5.2.2.1 Dialogically expansive resources: hedges

According to Hyland (2005b, 179), hedges are devices that indicate the writer's decision not to fully commit to a proposition but presenting information as an opinion, not approved facts, for instance, *possible, may, perhaps.* They allow writers to create an opportunity for readers to dispute their propositions because they are dialogically expansive. Hedges were the most frequently used stance devices in this study corpus such that they constituted 42.8% of the total stance markers. This suggests that all writers were aware of the significance of negotiating meaning by distinguishing facts from their views. Abdollahzadeh (2011) found that over half of the total interpersonal metadiscourse used in a corpus of conclusion sections of applied linguistics papers were hedges, and Sefako Letsoela (2012) also identified more hedges than any other interactional resources in her study of undergraduate report discussion sections. Abdollahzadeh commented that the density of hedges in his corpus reflected the need for applied linguistics authors to weigh their arguments in ways that are likely to be sound and persuasive to their readers. He further noted that by using hedges the writers could show "humility and respect" to readers and give them some room to disagree, "thereby highlighting the socially grounded nature of enquiry patterns and knowledge construction in their disciplines" (Abdollahzadeh 2011, 292). In my study, DS and EL writers displayed some genre-based variations in their use of hedges, as discussed in the next paragraphs.

One of the most valid findings of the study was that the ELM group used significantly more hedges than the ELD writers. This outcome could be interpreted as indicating that the MA writers were being more tentative, partly because of their status and possible lack of confidence as indicated in some interview responses discussed at the end of this section. It should be noted again that in this study most of the verbs with a hedging effect, for example, *suggest,* were considered under distance RVs, and when the same verb was used in non-citing contexts, it was categorised as a hedge. Hedges were mostly used to give estimations, to show possibility and to show uncertainty or doubt.

Examples of such instances are discussed at this point to show why and how these hedges were used in the study corpus.

Estimation was done when writers presented propositions with approximate figures, to estimate unspecified quantities and also to present information that is not exact and it was achieved by using such adverbs as *about, around, approximately, almost* and *roughly*. These hedges seemed to be used especially when writers were reporting other authors' findings and discussing their own. DS writers tended to use such approximations more, partly because their arguments were more likely to cite figures and statistics as evidence, when compared to the EL writers, as illustrated in extract 29.

29. *Between 1988 and 1992* **about** *13 000 Malawian mine migrant workers were repatriated from South Africa after 200 of them had tested HIV positive the previous two years (Chirwa, 1998). [DSM4]*

The estimation hedge*, about*, informs readers that the given figure is just an approximation. Interestingly, in the same example, there is also an exact figure, 200 mine workers, which is not hedged.

Writers also used possibility hedges to show that in their opinions, the presented propositions were possible, but not established facts. Hedges in this category decreased the writers' responsibility for the truth of propositions (Hyland 2005b). The most frequent hedges included the modal verbs *may, could*; the adjective *possible*; the adverbs *possibly, probably, likely* and the phrasal verb *tend to.* This is demonstrated by an example from ELM5, a text that had the highest frequency of hedges in the whole MA corpus.

30. *Brown and Levinson (1987: 101-129) have a list of fifteen positive politeness strategies that* **could** *be employed to win the approval of the hearer (cf. Thomas. 1995: 171). The use of the assumption of agreement, hedge opinion, avoidance of disagreements …are some of the examples that confirms and builds a friendly relationship and mutual reciprocity between the speaker and the hearer.* **Perhaps***, the view of Thomas (1995: 172)* **may** *be correct, that a number of Levinson and Brown's positive politeness strategies* **may** *be synonymous with Leech's (PP): be sympathetic, be optimistic, seek and avoid disagreements. [ELM5]*

Extract 30 is a discussion of Brown and Levinson's theory. The writer used three possibility hedges and one uncertainty hedge. In the first sentence, *could* was used to show that the listed strategies would possibly work. In the last statement, *may* was used twice also to mark the possibility of the propositions. The writer used *perhaps* to reduce the force of the statement through uncertainty. By creating space for other possible interpretations, these hedges helped the writer to present his propositions acceptably to enhance his credibility.

Another common function of hedges was to express uncertainty and doubt. The verbs *seem, appear, suggest*; the adverbs *perhaps, somehow*, *generally* and the adjective *general* were among the most frequently used. Hedges in this category had the effect of reducing the impact of the statements by showing the writer's lack of commitment. Text DSD2 had the highest frequency of hedges in the PhD corpus (and this was an important reason for the potentially valid finding that the DSD writers used more hedges than the ELD writers). The text referred to statistics and figures quite often and therefore, it had *about* as the most frequent hedge. In addition, it had various other hedge types like the one in 31. Here the writer presented her finding which she was not certain if it would apply to all communities, therefore, it was appropriate for her to hedge the proposition to reduce commitment.

31. *Since evidence has shown in the case of the three communities in Maseru that female-headed households are not significantly different from the male-headed households in their poverty status, it **appears** that women were able to survive through income generated from small informal businesses such as brewing and selling beer.*

Writers sometimes expressed uncertainty and doubt by using hedges to make statements indefinite through frequency adverbs such as *often*. Also, a few hedges were used to explicitly inform the reader that the propositions were the writers' personal views by using, for example, *in my view* (one of the few phrasal hedges listed in Hyland 2005a) and *in the researcher's view*. For instance, in extracts 32 and 33, writers clearly showed the reader that the propositions were their personal views, thus creating space for alternative opinions. The two examples also show a difference in the use of another stance resource of self-mention that will be discussed towards the end of this section. While the MA writer preferred *in the researcher's view*, the RA one used *in my view*.

32. *However, this distinction does not **in my view** derive from the use of two distinct variants of just. Rather, it derives from the tense/aspect choices that combine with just in each case. [ELRA12]*

33. ***In the researcher's view**, the ability of a nurse to perceive ambiguity is crucial in saving lives. [ELM3]*

The interviewed writers confirmed that they used more hedges than other stance markers such as boosters. Some of their responses are as follows:

ELM1: *I used hedges because I didn't want to commit myself. I was not sure of what I was saying at that particular moment, so I had to secure my character.*

ELD1: *You know as a student, as much as you'd be thinking that you know what you're talking about, but you're a student; you're learning. And there are people who are more, who are experts on what you're talking about, so I don't think it would be wise for you to place yourself in a tight*

*corner of sounding as if you know all, which means that your writing, somehow, should be cautious so that you avoid that element of overconfidence because you may be disappointed. So, I do hedge when I write for that very reason.*

Students in my study seemed concerned about the impression they would make to their readers, especially supervisors and probably examiners, as indicated by their responses. Hyland (2010) made a similar observation that students in his study seemed to have been concerned about impressing their supervisors. This points to the role played by the target audience or readership in influencing writers' choices of rhetorical strategies to use in their arguments.

### 5.2.2.2 Dialogically contractive resources: boosters and attitude markers

Boosters are linguistic devices that enable writers to express their certainty in what they say or confidence in an assertion and to show involvement with the topic and solidarity with their readers (Holmes 1988; Hyland 2005b). Unlike hedges, which create space for alternative views, boosters decrease dialogic space so that there is very little or no space for alternatives. This device is sometimes used to balance arguments so that they do not sound too tentative. In my study corpus, boosters ranked second on the overall positions of stance markers, and they constituted 20.1% of all the markers.

The words mostly used as boosters were adverbs (e.g. *actually, clearly, in fact, indeed, always*) and adjectives (e.g. *clear, evident, certain* and *true*). Similar to verb hedges, some verbs (e.g. *find, show* and *demonstrate*) were discussed under endorse RVs, and it is only those that were used in non-citing contexts that belong here. Text DSM4 recorded the highest frequency of boosters and it had more of the devices than hedges. The verbs *find* and *show* (used in non-citing contexts) were among the most used boosters, and in the example below, writer DSM4 used the verb *found* and the adjective *true* to present his findings with certainty and confidence.

34. *This was **found** to be **true** because the researcher also observed that all the interviewed examiners were involved in agricultural production in the form of ploughing maize, sorghum, beans, peas and some vegetables. [DSM4]*

Writer ELD2 had the highest use of boosters in the PhD corpus. The writer tended to use the adverb *indeed* to increase the force of his propositions as illustrated in extract 35.

35. *This is supported by the historical fact that the perception of discourse in terms of the conflict between dominant classes and dominated ones is not unique to a few scholars. After all, the history of literary criticism in England offers many examples of class-conscious criticism, such as early bourgeois criticism, reactionary petit bourgeois criticism exemplified by Scrutiny, and Marxist criticism (Eagleton, 1976). **Indeed**, CDA studies offer ample evidence of the notion*

*that language use is a major stake in hegemonic struggles and that hegemony shapes discourse. The uniqueness of CDA lies in its use of tools of linguistic study to reveal and explain power-based relations. [ELD2]*

In this extract the writer was concluding his theoretical framework discussion, justifying why CDA was appropriate for his study. He began his argument by laying a historical background which he then supported with a non-integral assimilation citation, a form with the most contractive effect. After the citation, the writer began his proposition on the appropriateness of CDA with the adverb *indeed* to show confidence and commitment. He made a follow-up statement with an underlying boosting tone depicted by the noun *uniqueness*. Overall, the writer managed to argue his case effectively, using the supporting evidence presented in the most contractive citation form together with a booster, leaving the reader with no room to disagree.

Overall, writers in all genres demonstrated their ability to use boosters in ways that sharpened their arguments. As illustrated by the two cited instances, boosters were brought in at points where writers were convinced that their propositions were correct. As they used such rhetorical devices, writers of these extracts pulled readers along, involving them in their arguments (Hyland 2010). At the same time, by presenting their propositions as facts, the writers directed readers towards their preferred interpretations, thus contracting dialogic space. However, some postgraduate writers said that they were not aware of their use of boosters. This unawareness was revealed by interviewees such as ELD1, who did not think she used any such devices even though she had used a considerable number. The interviewed writers generally indicated that they did not use much boosting in their writing to avoid sounding too confident since this kind of attitude would invite criticism from readers, especially their supervisors, I suppose. This is reflected in the responses provided by ELD1 and ELM1, for example,

*ELD1: Well, I can't deny that but I don't remember instances where I did that, but I can't deny that maybe there are areas whereby you feel very sure of what you're saying and you really can stand up to it.*

*ELM1: As for boosters, I just, I think maybe I didn't use them much because I thought that I was still a student and then I had no voice to argue about anything I was writing about. I thought so, yah.*

It is important to note that hedges and boosters are complementary resources in managing dialogic space in academic writing. To this effect, Hu and Cao (2011, 2796) provide a concise summary of how hedges and boosters work together in constructing persuasive arguments. They say:

> Thus, hedges and boosters are, in a sense, two sides of the same coin: they are metadiscursive resources that the writer can capitalize on to express uncertainty or certainty about a proposition,

withhold or strengthen commitment to a position, entertain or dismiss alternatives, open or close dialogue with the reader, and attenuate or boost illocutionary force.

In the humanities where my two studied disciplines belong, there is a tendency to open more space for alternative views, unlike in the hard sciences where writers tend to contract dialogic space since they mostly deal with facts (Hyland 2005a; Taki & Jafarpour 2012). Expanding dialogic space is thus more necessary in the humanities, where meaning is negotiated with fellow discipline members. This partly explains why the writers used more hedges than boosters.

Attitude markers indicate writers' affective attitude to propositions. Unlike hedges and boosters, which are used to express writers' degree of certainty and confidence in a proposition, attitude markers are used to express writers' personal feelings towards propositions. The expressed feelings include surprise, agreement and disappointment. Attitude markers seem to contribute more towards a contractive stance whereby readers are persuaded to agree with the writer's view through such persuasive devices as adverbs, adjectives and verbs. Unlike NUL undergraduate students in Sefako-Letsoela's (2012) study, who very rarely expressed their attitude towards propositions, postgraduate writers in my study from the same institution did it fairly often. These markers were used by all writers and they constituted 13.3% of all stance markers.

In the cross-discipline comparisons, the DSDs used significantly more attitude markers than the ELDs. On the other hand, in the cross-genre ones, the ELMs, a little surprisingly, and the ELRAs used significantly more attitude markers than the ELDs. Adverbs such as *unfortunately, interestingly, significantly* and *appropriately* were used to portray attitude in the study corpus to communicate how writers felt about their propositions and to persuade readers into agreeing with their points of view. This is illustrated in extract 36 where writer ELM4 justified a theory used in his study.

36. *The theories of Difference and Dominance, which Boakye used to describe the language patterns of males and females in her study, were employed in the current study. **Significantly**, in contrast to the findings of the majority of the recent studies such as McElhinny's, Boakye produced evidence that the 'new domain' (Shaw, 2005) did not seem to affect participants in how they use language. [ELM4]*

Besides adverbs, adjectives such as *important, unusual, interesting* and *unexpected* were also used by writers to communicate their attitudes towards the propositions they advanced, as in the following example.

37. *One **unexpected** finding was that children were very accurate on the explicit judgment questions in Experiment 3 as compared with Experiments 1 and 2. [ELRA18]*

In this case writer ELRA18 presented one of the study findings as unexpected, an attitude anticipated to be transferred to the reader. Similar to adverb attitude markers, adjectives were also used to implicitly direct readers to share the same feelings with the writers, and this tended to decrease space for dialogue. In addition to adverbs and adjectives, attitude verbs were also used by writers to take a stance that indicated how they felt about their propositions. Such verbs as *agree, disagree* and *prefer* were mostly used, for example,

38. *A large body of the literature on African political systems points to divergent views between the modernists and the Africanists/traditionalists (or what I **prefer** to call pragmatists for the reason that they acknowledge the crucial role played by these indigenous African institutions in the lives of African) on the nature of democracy suitable for the continent as discussed in chapter two of this thesis. [DSD1]*

In extract 38, the writer stated the term that he preferred and explained why he preferred it in order to share his feelings with readers, thus persuading them to hold the same view.

It was observed that while MA writers adhered to the usual attitude markers such as *important, appropriate, surprisingly* and *interestingly*, higher genre writers were adventurous enough to include unusual ones such as *dramatic*, *dramatically* and *disappointingly* as illustrated in the extracts below.

39. *Those implemented through projects, which mostly emphasized improvement in agriculture, were **disappointingly** unsuccessful, as they used a top-down approach. (Matlosa, 1999:10). [DSD2]*

40. *The passing on of founders has frequently plunged Zimbabwean AICs into **dramatic** succession battles pitting the founder's close relatives and aides against each other. [ELD2]*

In extract 39 the writer used the attitude marker, *disappointingly*, to describe the failure of some development plans that were attempted to reduce poverty in Lesotho. Writer ELD2 used the adjective *dramatic* to describe the succession squabbles he reported in extract 40 to show how he felt about these activities. In those two examples, the writers expressed their feelings which were likely to be transferred to readers, thus influencing the way they viewed and interpreted the propositions.

Besides the functions discussed in the previous paragraphs, some writers also used attitude markers such as *insufficient* and *inappropriate* together with some verb phrases to critique cited propositions. Such expressions appear less confrontational and are not as "face threatening" (Brown & Levinson 1978) as contest verbs. Petrić (2007, 245) observed similar expressions in Gender studies high-grade theses which he called "mild critical remarks". In my study, the expressions were more likely to appear in senior genre texts which suggests that the practice

required a higher level of competence. The expressions functioned the same way as RVs did to indicate the writers' disagreement with the cited propositions. As indicated earlier (§ 5.1.3), they also helped in a way to create research space for the citing writers as exemplified in extract 41.

*41. Ningsih and Rosa (op. cit.)* **provide no further explanation** *beyond this observation, which the present study finds* **insufficient**. *[ELD1]*

Although the investigated writers frequently used attitude markers in their writings, those who were interviewed indicated that they were not quite aware of the existence of attitude markers and their evaluative effects on their propositions.

### 5.2.2.3 Self-mention

Unlike other stance resources that tend to have one kind of dialogic effect, self-mention can contribute towards either dialogic expansion or contraction, depending on the context of use. Self-mention is the use of first-person pronouns, possessive adjectives and noun phrases referring to the writer to present propositional, affective and interpersonal information (Hyland 2005b). Hyland (2001a; 2005a) reports that writers can hardly write without expressing their presence and their stance concerning their arguments and readers, and that self-mention is one of the choices used to express the presence of a writer in a text. Hyland sees the practice of personal projection through first-person pronouns as probably the most powerful means of self-representation or positioning used to emphasise a writer's contribution in texts. Hyland (2002a) found that writers in humanities and social sciences displayed a stronger identity, as opposed to those in the hard sciences, who preferred to hide their personal role and foreground the subject matter. In the present study, DS and EL writers also explicitly showed their presence in their arguments by using self-mention, which constituted 9.9% of all stance markers.

The search for self-mention markers revealed the following first-person pronouns: *I, me, my,* used in single-authored texts; and *we, us*, *our,* used mostly in co-authored texts such as some of the RA texts. In the RA corpus, text ELRA7 outstandingly used self-mention resources and although this text was written by one person, first person plural pronouns were used throughout the text. Upon further investigation, I learnt from the author's biographical information that at the time of her writing she was a teaching assistant at a university where she was studying towards a PhD. This made me assume that she wrote her paper under the guidance of her supervisor, hence her use of plural pronouns to acknowledge the fact that she did not do the work alone. However, since the supervisor was not recognised in name, there is a slight possibility that this writer was one of those who prefer to use *we* as a way of appearing less personally responsible. Close to half of these pronouns, particularly *we*, were found in the Data and Methodology section as in the next example.

*42. **We** have divided **our** corpus into two subcorpora available for comparison: the Speeches*
  *(26,462 words) and the Comments (17,436). [ELRA7]*

In addition to pronouns, occurrences with the noun phrases *the researcher*, *this paper* and *the author* were found, especially in EL postgraduate texts. Self-mention resources can be roughly categorised into explicit self-mention, comprising first-person pronouns (e.g. *we* in extract 42) and implicit self-mention with noun phrases as in extract 43.

*43. Feature stories are chosen because **the researcher** believes that they are more general than*
  *other columns that make up a newspaper. In feature stories, there are voices of editor and*
  *readers of the newspapers. [ELD1]*

Writers of both extracts 42 and 43 used resources for self-representation, but while ELRA7 directly mentioned herself, ELD1 did it indirectly. The use of such resources made authors visible in their arguments. Charles (2006a, 493) commented that "by choosing I as the grammatical subject, the writer makes a clear personal commitment to the proposition advanced…" Self-mention was sometimes used together with verbs like *agree* and *concur* to mark the writer's commitment to a reported proposition. It also occurred with RVs, particularly the distance verb *argue* to show one's position as in examples 44 and 45.

*44. With these observations in mind, **I concur** with Keulder on this conceptualisation and note that*
  *different nomenclatures have been used to refer to Africa's indigenous governance institutions*
  *depending on contexts. [DSD1]*

*45. The model used in the 2005, which is the subject of this study, **I argue**, is highly skewed against*
  *rural women. [DSM1]*

It was found that the majority of MA writers (8 out of 10) avoided first-person pronouns and opted for an indirect form of self-mention, *the researcher*. To be specific, all ELM writers and three DSM ones did not use pronouns, but the noun phrase instead. This indicates that writers in this category were uncomfortable about directly intruding into their arguments. Hyland (2002a) made a similar observation that students in his study tended either to underuse writer pronouns or use them "unadventurously", referring to their texts rather than their ideas. He interpreted this practice as a result of the teaching students receive, especially from first-year English teachers and writing style guides, that academic writing "involves an objective exploration of ideas that transcends the individual. They must 'leave their personalities at the door' and subordinate their views, actions and personality to its rigid conventions of anonymity" (Hyland 2002a, 351). Also, Charles (2006a) found that postgraduate writers in the discipline of politics tended to hide their identity by using such noun phrases as *the study*, and the majority of L2 postgraduates in Lee's (2009) study shunned the use of *I* because they were discouraged from using it by their academic writing instructors.

On the other hand, PhD writers, except ELD1, used first-person pronouns. But it is important to note that it was mostly the DSD1 writer who used a lot of first-person pronouns. Similar to the PhDs, the RA writers also used first-person pronouns, but they also had a few instances of *this paper* and *the author*. In fact, the pronouns were used quite substantially in the whole RA corpus, constituting 72.5% of self-mention resources. This indicates that the RA writers were confident enough to explicitly intrude into their writing to show their presence and to position themselves. Interview responses from postgraduate writers (both completed and current) revealed that most supervisors discouraged their students from using first-person pronouns, for example, writers ELM1 and Current DSM quoted below.

*ELM1: I didn't use those personal pronouns, except in the acknowledgement page. I did not use them because I was told not to do that, yah by the time we were being prepared to begin the research we were told that we were not supposed to use the personal pronouns, but we should use the third person pronoun.*

*Current DSM: I totally do not use that because my supervisor told me not to use it because he said I do not have authority yet.*

Additionally, the majority of the interviewed supervisors confirmed that they discouraged students from using *I*, as shown by the responses of supervisors ELS1 and DSS2 below.

*ELS1: …And in actual fact, I'll go for the second view that these postgraduate students are not yet authorities in the fields in which they are. They're still students who are learning and they're being guided, so there is no way that they can really take a view of their own. Before they even take any view, it's because they have been guided to see that, so somehow, they have to acknowledge the fact that somebody made them see this view, which they're now bringing up.*

*DSS2: I personally do not encourage my students to use 'I, we or the researcher', you know? I encourage my students to use the research as the subject matter. I prefer the research speaks to the reader.*

Although the use of first-person pronouns in academic writing is controversial, this 'blanket' approach of dismissing all first-person pronouns overlooks the issue of context. There are certain cases where first-person pronouns are appropriate, for example, when explaining the rationale and research procedures of one's work. In addition, the pronouns can help to avoid ambiguity where *the researcher*, for example, could have two possible referents. For instance, instead of disambiguating by saying '*the researcher of the present study*' as writer ELD1 sometimes did, one could simply use the first-person pronoun *I* for word economy. Sefako-Letsoela (2012) aired the same view in her recommendations that the academic writing teaching approach at NUL should expose students to different academic texts where personal pronouns are used, such as research

articles. This would help them to explore the different contexts in which they could use them in their own writing.

### 5.2.3 Conclusion

It has been illustrated through the discussed excerpts how the studied writers utilised different stance resources to argue effectively, though with variations at group and individual levels. The study corpus generally conformed to humanities disciplinary expectations by accommodating readers' alternative views. This finding is in agreement with previous research which found that soft disciplines attempted to interact with their texts and readers through the use of stance markers (Hyland 2005b; Lee 2009; Navidi and Ghafoori 2015; Taki and Jafarpour 2012). The study also revealed genre-based and discipline-based differences that may be useful for teaching advanced academic writing. Besides, lack of awareness of certain resources by some postgraduates suggests that there is a need for direct tutor intervention which could be in the form of teaching them how to use the resources in a balanced way that presents their arguments forcefully but also leaving space for alternative views. This is necessary because advanced writing entails "balancing conviction with caution" (Hyland 1998a, 349) as a persuasive strategy. This helps to construct "dialogically controlled arguments" that are "authoritative but also dialogically open" (Lancaster 2011, 275).

## 5.3 Reader engagement

This section responds to question 3c of the study, which enquires about the rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects that reader engagement markers had in the study corpus. For this study, as seen in Chapter 4, engagement markers were categorised into five classes proposed by Hyland (2005a), namely directives, questions, reader pronouns, shared knowledge and personal asides. Reader engagement markers are "utterances which strongly urge the reader to act in a certain way" (Hyland 2002b, 216). Writers use these expressions to explicitly address the readers in order to focus the readers' attention, include them in the discourse and lead them to the writer's preferred interpretations (Hyland 2005b). Engagement markers are important for establishing rapport between writers and readers and they play a significant role in presenting persuasive and credible arguments.

Reader engagement resources were the least used in all genres compared to citations and stance markers and they were significantly more frequent in the RA corpus than in the postgraduate ones. All resources in this category tend to contract dialogic space since writers would be persuading and "positioning the readers by maneuvering them to see things in the same way as the writer" (Hyland 2001b, 551). The remaining part of this section discusses, with illustrations, how the writers utilised these rhetorical markers to construct effective arguments.

### 5.3.1 Directives

Directives were the most used reader engagement devices in the study corpus. They instruct the reader to perform an action or to see things in a way determined by the writer, hence somehow managing the reader. Brown and Levinson (1978, as cited in Hyland (2002b, 216) viewed directives as "bald on record" speech acts, because they portray the speaker or writer as having authority over listeners or readers, which means that in terms of the analysis of politeness in speech acts, directives seem to violate "the conventional fiction of democratic peer relationship diligently cultivated in research writing". Based on this, Hyland views directives as complex rhetorical resources with different degrees to which they imply a threat to the reader's face. This view sees directives as dialogically contractive. Similarly, Martin and White (2005, 11) regard directives in the imperative form as monoglossic, because they do not allow for the possibility of alternative action. But on the other hand, when the modal verb *must* is used in directives they are heteroglossic, being seen as an assessment by the speaker of an obligation on the listener rather than as a speaker command, and so they open up space for alternatives. This means that directives can either expand or contract dialogic space depending on how they are used in a text. However, my study corpus being on academic arguments seems to have used directives mostly to contract dialogic space as a way of directing readers towards agreeing with the writer's propositions.

There were no valid findings of differences between the disciplines in the number of directives used. However, cross-genre results were among the most valid, showing significantly more use of directives by DSRA writers than DSD and DSM writers, and also showing ELRA writers using significantly more than the ELM writers. This implies that the more experienced writers more fully utilised directives to guide their readers through their texts. More importantly, it also points to the different status relations between writer and perceived reader in the RAs relative to the student writers. Whereas RA readership includes colleagues with equal status, student texts' prime readers are their superiors, such as supervisors and examiners. However, directives were also correctly used by postgraduates when necessary and were also their most commonly used reader engagement markers. As noted in Chapter 4 (§ 4.3), postgraduates, especially the MAs, used a limited range of directives with very basic expressions such as *see* as in example 46, but the RAs used a greater range of expressions (e.g. *let us*, *consider*, *look at*, *noteworthy*, *it is important*) to interact with their readers as illustrated in 47 and 48.

46. *Thomas (1995 166-168) stipulates a considerable number of problems about Leech's approach on maxims. A number of people had indeed discussed his approach (**see** Dillon et al. l995, Thomas 1986, Brown and Levinson 1987, and Fraser 1990). [ELM5]*

47. ***Let us also consider*** *another Latin American example which shows that, in addition to the scenario mentioned above, a similar process can in fact take place under an authoritarian (albeit moderately so) regime. [DSRA16]*

*48. In this context, **it is important to remember** that, unlike previous research that assessed language-analytic ability, the present study operationalized the construct by means of an L2-based measure. [ELRA3]*

The imperative *see* was used in 46 to direct readers to engage in a textual act through reading other texts that also discussed the approach under discussion. Similar to Hyland's (2001a) findings, the imperative *see* is one of the most frequent directives in my study corpus. It was mainly used to refer readers to other relevant literature, but it would sometimes refer them to other parts of the writer's own text. According to Hyland, reference directives such as *see* are less face-threatening than cognitive rhetorical acts such as *consider* and *let us note*. This is true because when used as a directive, the former has become highly conventionalised. This implies that by using it more frequently writers maintained the status quo of their relationship with readers, and maybe that is why students could also use it often. While in examples 47 writer DSRA16 invited readers to *consider* another example that helped to introduce the next point, in 48 writer ELRA3 drew readers' attention to the importance of remembering that, in the context of his/her study, an approach different from the previous studies was used. The next example presents an additional marker, *cf*, that was not listed by Hyland.

*49. Related to the discussion of these rules is the proposal that authentic texts be used in the second language class-room from the very beginning (**cf**. Morrow 1977 for discussion). [ELRA1].*

In extract 49 readers were instructed to compare the presented proposition with that of another author to get more information supporting the writer's argument. The directive *cf* was most frequent in the ELRA corpus, especially ELRA1, but it was also used noticeably by DSM5 and ELM5. The ELDs fell in between the ELMs and the ELRAs in terms of directive frequencies and they displayed more variety of expressions (e.g. *noteworthy*, *consider*) than the ELMs, for example,

*50. It is, however, **noteworthy** that there is no Biblical account of Jesus using water in ways similar to those reported by Mwazha. Mwazha therefore uses Jesus' voice purely for rhetorical effect: to persuade believers to submit to this practice as well as to pre-empt mainstream Methodist detractors likely to regard such use of water as superstitious or charlatanic. [ELD2]*

In the extract above, the phrase *it is noteworthy* was used to draw the readers' attention to a point meant to discredit Mwazha's practice of using water for healing purposes, after which the writer presented his own interpretation. This can be seen as an attempt by the writer to persuade readers to agree with his point of view.

**5.3.2 Questions**

Questions are another involvement strategy used to guide readers, invite their participation in the argument, raising interest and persuading them to take the writer's viewpoint (Hyland 2008). As explained in Chapter 3, all types of questions were counted in this study: research, rhetorical and indirect ones. Direct questions were identified from the corpus using a question mark as a search item and indirect questions were searched for using the word *question*. Only one valid finding of difference was made: the DSRA group used more questions than the ELRA one, and the questions included both research and rhetorical ones. This section discusses research questions then rhetorical ones and during the discussion, the dialogic effects of the questions are also deliberated on.

Focus is now on two major functions that were mainly performed by research questions in my study corpus: 'framing the discourse' and 'organising the text' (Curry & Chambers 2017). Framing questions provide questions to be answered by the research but text organisers are used as "in-text signposts to guide the reader" and also as sub-headings to structure texts (Curry & Chambers 2017, 333). In the study corpus, research questions were usually found in the introductory chapters or sections. These are questions asked in order to fill a gap in the body of knowledge and they can only be answered after conducting the research (Curry & Chambers 2017). Such questions can be seen as specific objectives presented in their interrogative form (Rakotsoane & Rakotsoane 2007). Extracts below were presented as the first research questions in their texts.

51. *To what extent are advanced English L2 learners able to perceive potentially ambiguous sentences? [ELM3]*

52. *How have forms and patterns of urbanization led to varied experiences of poverty in these areas and what are the coping mechanisms adopted by the urban poor in these areas? [DSD2]*

Research questions or sub-questions were sometimes repeated in the methodology sections and findings sections. In the former, they were repeated for easy reference as the writer would be explaining how he or she intended to address the questions. In the latter, they were used as organising frames to manage the structure of the argument and the flow of information in the texts. Writer DSD1 outstandingly used questions in the DS group, including research sub-questions to organise his text. For example, he used a question as a sub-heading for suggestions in the final chapter under which suggestions were listed.

53. *7.4. Which model of chieftainship-councils' integration is appropriate for Lesotho?*
    *The answer to the above question depends entirely on what the country's authorities want to do. However, the following suggestions would be useful in this regard.*

Besides research questions, there were rhetorical questions that seemed to feature in different places where writers deemed it necessary either to arouse readers' interest or guide them towards preferred interpretations. It should be noted that rhetorical questions were very rare in postgraduate texts, but they seemed rather more common in the RA genre. The questions also enabled writers to move their arguments in a certain direction. They guided "the reader's thinking and questioning in the same direction as that of the author" (Curry & Chamber 2017, 334). For example,

54. *In example (4), we see evidence of a similar tactic where the speaker conventionally appears to apologise for the actions of another; yet here it is clear from the linguistic context that he is, in no way, assuming responsibility for these actions. The utterance is one of a series of pointed criticisms.* ***So why does the speaker use an attitudinal hedge which implicates an illocutionary force other than the one he wishes to convey?*** *[ELRA6]*

Writer ELRA6 asked a question in extract 54 to make readers realise how authors sometimes use words to imply other meanings than the ones on the surface. Commenting on this type of question, Hyland (2005b, 186) said it presents "an opinion as an interrogative so the reader appears to be the judge, but actually expecting no response". The question in 54 was meant to drive readers towards the writer's line of thinking, thus contracting dialogic space.

55. *This raises the* ***question*** *of what are the implications of lack of social networks on livelihood. The household of Mokete in the Sekamaneng community was an example of such households faced with hardships of coping with life; it had no social networks, a situation which impacted on survival. [DSD2]*

Extract 55 illustrates the signposting function of questions. Writer DSD2 asked her readers an indirect question to lead them to her next point as a way of involving them in the argument. She then provided an answer revealing part of her findings. This strategy would, hopefully, persuade readers to agree with the writer's point of view, thus contracting dialogic space. As commented by Hyland (2009), such questions help to take the reader through an argument with less difficulty and they reduce the chances of rejection of propositions.

Rhetorical questions used in my study corpus tended to contract dialogic space, as suggested by Hyland's (2001b, 2009) explanation that they lead the reader towards agreement with the writer. But on the other hand, Chang and Schlepegrell (2011) listed rhetorical questions under Entertain resources in their Appraisal based study of RA introductions, meaning they considered them as expansive resources. Therefore, it could be concluded that the dialogic effect of such questions in academic writing depends on the context of use and the writer's motive.

### 5.3.3 Reader pronouns

Reader pronouns are meant to solicit solidarity with readers and are probably the most overt way of acknowledging the reader's presence (Hyland 2005a). Quantitative results showed that postgraduate writers used reader pronouns very sparingly. Nevertheless, partly because the ELM writers used no reader pronouns at all, the DSM writers' use of 15 of them led to a significant difference that met criteria for validity. Text DSM4 had the highest frequency of reader pronouns. The writer used the pronoun *we* once and *us* seven times. The latter was mainly used in the discussion of findings to directly involve readers in the argument as illustrated in extract 56 below.

56. *In terms of educational qualifications, most of them had standard seven qualifications (which is primary school leaving certificate), while three did not attend any school and only two ex-miners were having junior secondary certificate. This gives **us** the implication that mining job did not require any educational qualification probably because mining job requires physical strength. [DSM4]*

In the EL discipline, comparisons revealed that the ELRAs used the resources significantly more than the ELMs. Due to genre differences, reader pronouns are not expected much in students' writing since their anticipated readership includes their seniors whom they cannot engage as equals. Besides, the academic communication skills course that some of the writers attended at first year at NUL taught them not to address readers directly using second-person pronouns because this creates a personal style (CSS Course Reader 2008). They were rather encouraged to use an impersonal style when writing academic texts.

Inclusive first-person pronouns *we, us* and *our,* were the only resources used in my corpus to mark solidarity with readers. When these items were searched for in the RA corpus, where some texts were co-authored, all instances were checked manually in their concordance lines to distinguish them from self-mention ones to get the correct counts. For example, text DSRA12 was co-authored and the writers used *we* as self-mention as in "*One potential problem with the static model **we** used in the estimation …*" which is different from *we* as reader pronoun as given in the next extract from ELRA16. The writer outstandingly used reader pronouns, especially *we* and *our*, for example,

57. *Together, analysis of the corpus and interview material suggested that culture and context shape **our** communicative practices in significant ways, influencing **our** preferences for structuring information, the relationships **we** establish with **our** readers, and how far **we** want to personally appear in **our** texts. [ELRA16]*

In the ELRA16 extract the present tense plays an important role in distinguishing reader pronouns from self-mention, as it tends to generalise the scope of relevant propositions to include the reader as part of the scope of *we* too. On the other hand, DSRA12 writers report on something that they

did in the past. Writer ELRA16 used the pronouns *we* and *our* to include readers as participants in the unfolding text in a persuasive manner and to build solidarity. Thus, this practice seems to contract dialogic space by soliciting agreement with readers and persuading them to go along with the writer's point of view.

The second person pronouns *you* and *your* did not feature in the corpus. In his study of engagement strategies in RAs from eight disciplines, Hyland (2001a) interpreted second-person pronoun avoidance as an indication of writers' effort to avoid giving an impression of detachment from readers. Writers preferred the inclusive pronouns that showed their connection with readers as members of the same disciplinary community. Regarding the use of the inclusive pronoun *we*, Hyland (2001a, 558) commented that "reference to the discourse participants in this way sends a clear signal of membership, textually constructing both the writer and the reader as participants with similar understanding and goals".

### 5.3.4 Shared knowledge

Appeals to shared knowledge seek to position readers within "apparently naturalised boundaries" of disciplinary understandings (Hyland 2005b, 183). The notion of "sharedness", according to Hyland, refers to instances where writers ask readers to recognise something as familiar or accepted by use of explicit markers such as *obviously* and *naturally*. Hyland (2009) points out that the use of shared knowledge devices is less imposing than either questions or directives, and less directly personal than reader pronouns. He adds that by using such devices writers are getting into their texts to address readers as members with the same background knowledge and interests, presenting themselves as having a common ground with the readers. When writers use these devices, they, in a way, propose that what they are saying is true. In such cases "the textual voice sets itself against, suppresses or rules out alternative positions", thus contracting dialogic space. (Martin & White 2005, 98).

Cross-genre comparisons revealed that the ELRAs employed significantly more shared knowledge markers than the EL postgraduates and that the DSRAs had more than the DSDs. The overall results thus point to much more frequent use of these markers by the RA writers. Texts DSRA17 and ELRA14 recorded the highest frequencies in this category. Shared knowledge markers found in the whole research corpus included the adjective *obvious* and the adverbs *obviously, naturally* and *of course* as in the following extracts:

58. *The* **obvious** *question to ask is why did the MDG set up to portray universal failure in Africa when actually there were important successes? There are two possibilities—that it was accidental or that it was intentional. [DSRA17]*

*59. By the eighteenth century, women of all classes were being advised that they should confine their speech to the private domestic sphere, cultivate the art of listening and drawing out male interlocutors, and avoid any display of wit, erudition, coarseness, or aggression. We do not, **of course**, know whether women followed this advice, but the stereotype of 'feminine' speech contained in it was still going strong in the 1950s. [ELRA14]*

DSRA17 used the adjective *obvious* to imply that the question he was posing was common knowledge to the discourse community and to mark unity with readers. He used this sharedness strategy to present a question that was meant to organise the text. The phrase *of course* in excerpt 59 has the same effect of presenting the proposition as common knowledge. This, in a way, persuaded readers into agreeing with the writers' view. These two instances are inclined towards dialogic contraction since readers are directed towards sharing the writer's viewpoint.

### 5.3.5 Personal asides

Using personal asides (interjections) is a reader-oriented strategy that makes it possible for writers to speak directly to readers by briefly interrupting the argument to comment on the writer's proposition (Hyland 2005b). Put differently by Markovic (2013, 44), "they express short dialogues between the writer and the reader". Also, Hyland (2001b, 561) noted that "asides express something of the writer's personality and willingness to intervene explicitly to offer a view". The given comments are personal views that often add more to the relationship between the writer and readers than to the development of the advanced argument. Thus, they are interventions that are simply meant to connect. Personal asides were the least used devices and no significant differences in use were found among groups. However, they were mostly found in PhD and RA texts as illustrated by the examples below.

*60. Among them was the most remarkable woman entrepreneur 'Mamak'hanakisi (this was a name gained from her reputation of cooking lik'hana-k'hana, a word which means food which is both spicy and delicious). [DSD2]*

*61. The skills which applied linguists bring to the creation, investigation, and evaluation of programmes of language teaching and learning are capable of being adapted to communication training, and in my view (a view I would hope at least some providers of training might see the sense of) this would be a constructive development. [ELRA15]*

Writer DSD2, in extract 60, went out of the mainstream discussion to tell the reader an interesting explanation of the nickname of the *remarkable woman entrepreneur*. This information did not contribute any significant information to the proposition, but rather connected the writer and her readers in a more personal mini-conversation. In extract 61, writer ELRA15 conversed aside directly with readers to share with them his or her feeling about the stated view. Here the writer

made a personal comment not necessarily meant to develop the stated proposition. The two extracts show the writers' willingness to interrupt the argument to make more personal contact with the reader. It appears that interesting asides are not as contractive as the other engagement markers.

### 5.3.6 Conclusion

In conclusion, the reader engagement discussion has shown that the studied writers, especially the RA ones, made an effort to persuade their readers by employing various engagement markers. This was meant to connect with readers to establish rapport and engage them persuasively, "responding to the potential negatability of their claims" and "recognizing their uncertainties" (Hyland 2001b, 552). Postgraduate writers used reader engagement resources less frequently than the RAs because engagement resources such as reader pronouns and shared knowledge are not typical features of the dissertation genre. Therefore, using them frequently could invite criticism from supervisors and assessors. Nonetheless, including them in academic writing courses may help to alert students to acceptable and unacceptable reader engagement practices.

## 5.4 A sample of citation and reporting verb problems

To investigate more specific problems in the postgraduate writing relating to citation and reporting verbs, I examined the first 50 citations of each postgraduate text, paying close attention to these two key features, as reported in the next two subsections.

### 5.4.1 Citation problems

Some student problems with citation were touched on in the discussion of chain and split citation in section 5.1 but here the focus is on citations more generally. It was observed that most of the problems with citation were to do with technical aspects, and generally speaking, they were more prevalent in the MA texts than the PhD ones.

Firstly, four DSM texts and three ELM texts had problems with when to include page numbers for in-text-referencing. Page numbers were sometimes omitted where there was an insertion or insertion + assimilation, and sometimes they were included where it might seem unnecessary, as when there is no insertion but only an assimilation, as in extract 62. Including page numbers in assimilated citations could not really be described as an error but it could be argued that writers who do this might be expected to be consistent. However, there was no consistency of practice, for instance, text ELM5, besides assimilated citations with page numbers as in extract 62, also had some assimilated citations without page numbers. This is perhaps partly because assimilations, as has been shown, are used much more frequently than insertions. Writer ELM5's omission of page numbers despite using an insertion, as in 63, is more problematic.

62. *According to Ochs (1979: 1), the scope of context is not easy to assess and define because a relevant context may not always be directly available to the researcher. [ELM5]*

63. *Concerning politeness as an utterance level phenomenon, Walter (1979a) states his interest as being 'to investigate how much politeness could be squeezed out of speech act strategies alone,' and to investigate the perception of politeness alone by native and non-native speakers of English and Spanish, using 'standard lexical context' so as to establish the 'hierarchy of politeness.' [ELM5]*

Still concerning page numbers, some writers, such as ELM1, ELM4 and DSM4 had problems with citing secondary sources. In a number of cases, either page numbers of secondary sources were not provided or page numbers of primary sources were provided instead, as illustrated in 64.

64. *They based themselves on the point that **Polio (2001:96) cited in Muñoz et al. (2010)** argues that syntactic complexity occurs when there is a wide variety of both basic and sophisticated structures in a text while lack of complexity is judged by the presence of only a narrow range of basic structures. [ELM1].*

In this excerpt, the page number of the primary source (Polio) is given, instead of the page number of the secondary source (Muñoz et al.). The appropriate and reader friendly way of using secondary citations is to give the page number of the secondary source so that readers can access what is said about the primary source. By doing things this way, the writer also makes it clear that the primary source was not consulted directly.

Secondly, the MA writers, particularly the ELM ones, tended to use integral citation as shown by the quantitative findings. However, instances were found where non-integral forms would have been better. Though this is not a problem as such, it shows failure by some of the MA writers to take stylistic advantage of non-integral citation as illustrated in extract 65.

65. *This finding shows how English L1 and L2 speakers differ. According to Shultz (1973), Brodzinsky (1977) and Brause (1977), English L1 speakers move from the ability to understand lexical ambiguity to the ability to comprehend deep structure ambiguity. [ELM3]*

In the last sentence, writer ELM3 cited three separate authors in an integral form, but the citation could be better presented as non-integral in order not to disrupt the flow of the sentence. It would be better to focus on the shared view instead of on the authors sharing the view. More generally, group citation seems to work better in non-integral than integral form as demonstrated in extract 66 taken from the ELRA group, which used significantly more non-integral citations than the ELM ones.

*66. Second, researchers report that some rules and categories of pedagogical grammar had been acquired and were applied more successfully than others (Bialystok 1979; Green and Hecht 1992; Renou 2000). [ELRA3]*

The third problem identified was that in some texts, such as DSM2, DSM3 and ELM1, in chain citation, full details of sources were repeated in an integral form where pronouns could have been used in place of authors' names to break the monotony. For example, in extract 67, the citation is not very good stylistically because the writer extended it by repeating all source details four consecutive times. The citations would have been better with, for example, a 'split' where the pronoun *them* would replace the author's name in the second citation and the other details coming at the end in a non-integral form.

*67. Nevertheless, **Moyo et al. (2000) argue** that private sector play a low profile in funding local NGOs. Various reasons behind this range from lack of incentives in private companies to fund NGOs, absence of organically inter-link between NGOs and private companies because of the nature of their membership and composition, to NGOs' failure to convince the private sector to play a significant role in funding their activities.*

*__According to Moyo et al. (2000)__, lack of incentives for private companies to fund NGOs is based on the notion that so far private companies have tended not to perceive any gains from such support. In some countries, tax laws for profit-making organisations or firms do not provide for rebates on funds provided to NGOs and this is the case in Zimbabwe's tax laws (__Moyo et al, 2000__). As a matter of fact, companies under such circumstances tend to lose when supporting local NGOs as there is no any form of payback, hence they are demotivated…*

*With regard to NGOs' failure to convince private sector that they can play a fundamental role in providing a support, **Moyo et al. (2000)** contend that NGOs have not been successful in delivering fundable public relations causes, or projects with economic values that can attract funding from numerous private firms… [DSM2]*

Still on citation style, it was observed that there was no uniformity in chain citation practices within the DSM group. While writers DSM2 and DSM3 repeated full references, similarly to extract 67, writers DSM1, DSM4 and DSM5 used *ibid* in their citations, either to represent all source details (author, date and page number, where applicable) or part of the details, such as the date, as was illustrated by extracts in the section on chain and split citation (§ 5.1.1). In addition, the abbreviation *ibid* was sometimes used inconsistently by the DS postgraduates, as was illustrated in the same section.

It seems the issue of not having a prescribed referencing style contributed to some of the citing issues raised here. If departments could stipulate their preferred styles, that would provide students

with specific and clear guidelines to follow. Their supervisors could then reinforce what the departments require, instead of leaving students to try and choose what they prefer.

### 5.4.2 Reporting verb problems

Besides citation errors, some problems were identified in the use of RVs, for example, unusual collocations were observed, as in text ELD1, where the verbs *clarify* and *define* were followed by *that*, as in the following citation:

68. *It is **defined by Plag (2005) and Nordquist (2013) that** it incorporates ways in which new words are made on the basis of other words or morphemes.*

Another issue that related to reporting verbs was a tendency among the MA writers, especially the ELMs, to use the adverb *further* before a reporting verb, for instance, *further points out*, *further emphasises*, *further explains*, *further describes*, *goes further to say, further shows, further indicate.* I came across the word often and that is why I investigated its use further. I suspected that the practice could be a result of first language influence, also known as linguistic knowledge transfer (Cummins & Swain 1986) or native rhetorical transfer (Wu & Paltridge 2021). I then consulted two colleagues whose first language is the same as the MA writers, Sesotho, and they explained that it is a common practice in their language to use the word 'hape' (again) as a discourse marker for introducing a new or additional point in a conversation or discussion. And the English word that is close in meaning to 'hape' in the academic writing context is the adverb *further*. In the majority of cases, there was nothing very wrong with the word usage except one instance by ELM3 (the last one in extract 69), where *further suggest* was used for a source that was being mentioned for the first time. Possibly this was because, according to my colleagues' explanation, it was simply being presented as an additional point.

69. *Cann (1993:8) defines syntactical ambiguity as the presence of two or more distinct meanings in a sentence. He **further explains** that "we call a sentence ambiguous when a sequence of words can be structured in alternative ways that are consistent with the syntax of the language or when a given lexical item has more than one semantic interpretation." Cann **further describes** ambiguity by differentiating it from vagueness… Asher and Simpson (1994:69) **further suggest** that… [ELM3]*

Comparing the two disciplines, there is evidence of more errors in the EL texts than the DS ones possibly because, as indicated in some of the interview responses, the former does not emphasise the issue of editing theses before submission. Although editing is a university requirement, for some reason, the English department seems to take it lightly, as indicated by one of the supervisors.

*ELS1: Ah, it is a requirement for theses to be professionally edited, yah. But I'll say I have not really had serious language challenges with my, the students I've supervised so far. And because of that, I personally don't recommend…*

Unlike the English department, the Development Studies department seems to be quite strict with the editing issue, as pointed out by the supervisors, and I think that is one reason why their texts had fewer errors. Although some of the supervisors were not happy with the work of external or professional editors and one of them even preferred doing the editing himself, all of them emphasised that editing of work is a must. For example,

*DSS1: I no longer recommend; I require it… I don't want to be distracted by silly grammatical mistakes when somebody could have edited that.*

*DSS3: It's always necessary, I don't care what a student thinks or how good they think their English is, it is absolutely necessary.*

To conclude the above main section (5.4), three main points should be noted. Firstly, the citation and reporting verb problems discussed indicate that there is some need to provide more writing tuition to postgraduates and that having a prescribed citing style and observing the editing requirement should be more seriously considered. Secondly, however, there seems to be a relatively low incidence of these kinds of specific problems among the postgraduate students in my study, and this can be partly attributed to the fact that, though not mother-tongue speakers of English, they have most of their school education through this medium. Thirdly, the low incidence of these problems provides further support for the value of analysing trends and significant differences in the use of citation, stance and engagement across the two disciplines and the three genres, and so arriving at more general insights about how different groups use metadiscourse resources to achieve their communicative goals. Such insights can also serve to raise the awareness of writing specialists, and even - ideally - of postgraduate tutors and supervisors, about the needs of their students.

## 5.5 Conclusion

The qualitative analysis revealed that, to a considerable extent, the studied writers had good citing practices and used stance taking and engagement devices appropriately to position their voices in relation to the authors whom they cited and prospective readers, and to build effective arguments. To a fair extent, their writing was dialogically controlled, using coordinated patterns of citation forms, stance and reader engagement markers, and this helped them to present their arguments effectively. Concerning academic writing, Hyland (2002b, 215) observed that "utterances must both carry appropriate authority and engage readers in ways that they are likely to find both credible and persuasive". In the same vein, Lancaster (2011) concluded that a more valued style

of writing is, on one hand, being authoritative and on the other hand, being dialogically open to alternative perspectives and possibilities. Lancaster (2012) added that this kind of style facilitates a balanced argumentative stance that is valued in tertiary level writing, especially the upper-level ones. Writers in this study balanced their arguments to a fair extent, however, some areas that need improvement were also identified and for these, direct and focused teaching of the rhetorical resources would help to improve student writing practices, particularly postgraduate ones. Postgraduates are often assumed to be competent enough to write successfully, yet they still need further training to improve their writing skills to produce effective and balanced arguments.

# CHAPTER 6: CONCLUSION

## 6.0 Introduction

The overall aim of this study was to examine the extent to which the MA, PhD and RA writers in the EL and DS humanities disciplines differed in their use of interactional metadiscourse resources (an essentially quantitative investigation) and how these resources were used to achieve communicative goals with regard to rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects (a qualitative account). The study corpus was analysed using a suitable analytical framework based on interactional metadiscourse (Hyland 2005a, 2005b) and dialogic engagement within the Appraisal system (Martin & White 2005). This chapter reviews core findings of the study, highlights its main contributions and discusses its pedagogical implications. It is hoped that the latter may shed light on how the teaching of academic writing practices of citation, stance expression and reader engagement can be improved. The chapter also discusses limitations of the study, the basis on which suggestions for future research are made.

## 6.1 Review of findings

The investigation of citation, stance and reader engagement in this study revealed different writing practices in terms of both genres and disciplines. More consistent patterns of difference were observed in the cross-genre comparisons than in the cross-discipline ones, perhaps partly because the latter involved comparisons between disciplines from the same field, namely the humanities. On the other hand, the cross-genre comparisons involved writers at three distinct academic levels, involving different degrees of academic writing experience, and different writer-reader relationships, as informed by different genre norms and requirements. This section summarises the main findings of the study, focusing essentially on those that were both significant and met the validity criteria set for its quantitative results.

### 6.1.1 Citation integration

The research questions addressed here are whether there were genre-based (MA, PhD and RA) differences (Q 1a) and discipline-based (DS and EL) differences (Q 2a) in the way citation forms were used, as well as what rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects could be associated with the citation forms (Q 3a).

With regard to cross-discipline comparison, a broad pattern was observed in that the DS postgraduates tended to use more non-integral and assimilation citations than the EL ones. But the most significant results within this pattern were for the MA comparisons, where the DSM students used more of the two citation forms than their ELM counterparts. On the other hand, the latter used more insertion + assimilation citations than the former. This combination of patterns points to

interesting discipline-related differentiation in the identified texts, which will be taken up in the discussion of potential dialogic effects later in this section. However, less salient factors such as the topic being researched and the nature of sources being reported on were noted in the study and, ideally, any kind of academic writing intervention could touch on such matters too.

Cross-genre analyses showed evidence of a citation pecking order in the EL groups, where non-integrals increased with the levels, the ELM-ELRA comparison, in particular, showing a substantially valid result. This result could be because at school students tend to encounter and use integral citation first (Swales 2014), and that it is possible that at undergraduate level the textbooks in literature and language studies tend to use more integral citation than those for development studies and as a result, the models for these students tend to differ. Regarding textual integration, all writers used more assimilations than the other textual integration forms, showing a general preference for summarising and paraphrasing cited information.

It was found that besides the author and textual integration categorisations used for quantitative analysis in this study, some citation patterns could also be classified as what I label 'chains' and 'splits', though very little research appears to have been done in this area. These citations were explored qualitatively to see how writers used them in their arguments. It was observed that splits, which involve a combination of integral and non-integral citation, were more likely to appear in the writing of the more senior genres than in the MA ones and that when used appropriately, they improved the flow of information. On the other hand, if chain citations (repetitions of the same reference) were overused this could lead to monotony and also, more problematically, to giving an impression that the writer was being too dependent on a particular source or sources.

Dialogic engagement in citation was investigated by way of analysing the different combinations of author and textual integration forms in terms of the dialogic space continuum proposed in this study (§ 5.1), where integral insertion was the most expansive form and non-integral assimilation the most contractive one. The valid cross-disciplinary findings thus show that the DSM writers used many more non-integrals and assimilations than the ELM writers and so point to the tendency more generally for DS texts to be more contractive than EL ones.

The last aspect that was investigated under citation was its functions. It was not easy to assign functions to citations since it is one of the most poorly defined aspects of citation analysis. However, with the help of interviews, I found some specific reasons for citing from a sample of postgraduate writers. Acknowledgement was found to be the most common function and it was more prevalent in the MA corpus, as also supported by acknowledge verb frequencies from the quantitative analysis. Background and support functions were common throughout the corpus but the critique function was rare and seemed mostly to feature in the PhD and RA genres. This result indicates quite clearly the greater reluctance among MA students to openly criticise published works.

During the further exploration of citation, it was found that postgraduate texts, especially the MA ones, had citation problems that were mainly technical, for example, inconsistent use of the abbreviation *ibid.* and inappropriate use of page numbers for in-text referencing. The lack of prescribed citation styles and not following the regulation that theses and dissertations should be edited were considered important causes of such problems.

Results of this study support the importance of citation, a practice that has been identified by previous studies as the most salient feature of academic writing, through which writers show their disciplinary affiliation and position their work within the disciplines (Agbaglo 2017; Hewings et al. 2010; Yeganeh & Boghayeri 2015).

### 6.1.2 Stance

The research questions addressed in this part are whether there were genre-based (MA, PhD and RA) differences (Q 1b) and discipline-based (DS and EL) differences (Q 2b) in the way RVs and other stance markers were used, as well as which rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects could be associated with the RVs and other stance markers (Q 3b).

Regarding the cross-discipline comparisons, the ELM writers tended to use more total markers and hedges than the DSM ones, but not all criteria were met for including this difference in the valid findings. On the other hand, valid findings included the DSD writers' use of more hedges and attitude markers, which signalled that they explicitly took a stance towards texts and readers more often than the ELD writers did. These results obtained possibly because the DS writers had to be more cautious but at the same time express their feelings as they negotiated meaning for their more debatable human development topics. On the other hand, the EL language-related topics can be regarded as less debatable than the DS ones, hence less use of the resources. Lastly, the DSRA writers used significantly more distance verbs than the ELRA ones, suggesting a tendency by the DSRA writers to maintain a more critical distance in reporting.

In the cross-genre comparisons, there was a consistent pecking order of acknowledge and distance verbs, where the MA writers tended to use more of the verbs than the upper genres. The MA writers showed a preference for reporting propositions with a neutral stance by using more acknowledge verbs and this should, other things being equal, have a dialogically expansive effect (as in Coffin 2009; Hu & Wang 2014). By also using more distance verbs, these writers distanced themselves from the reported propositions, which also increased space for alternative views. The combination of these two findings seems to suggest that the MA students are more tentative when presenting information from other sources. The two verb categories were further investigated qualitatively to shed more light on how they were used across genres and disciplines. The reporting phrase *according to* was the most frequent in the acknowledge category, and *argue* was the most frequent distance verb.

I adopted a broader conception of 'distance' RVs, as explained in Chapter 3 (§ 3.4.2.1), to prevent verbs of tentativeness and other similar ones that are of considerable interest in academic writing from being simply regarded as acknowledge verbs. Also problematic is that, typically in the Appraisal literature, distance verbs are restricted only to *claim* and one or two others.  RVs were identified as one of the topics that need to be covered in academic writing courses. This is supported by students' comments that indicated that they were not as aware of the importance of RVs as they should be. Students should be made more aware of the evaluative potential and dialogic effects implied by different RVs.

Regarding other stance markers, there was not a genre-related pecking order in the EL use of hedges, attitude markers and total stance markers. The ELD writers used them the least, while the ELM writers rather unexpectedly, and the ELRA more expectedly, both used them considerably more. An explanation for this outcome could be found by way of a detailed analysis of the individual RVs involved, but this is beyond the scope of the study.

Overall, postgraduate and RA writers used stance markers substantially, showing the significance of these linguistic resources in academic writing. So, all writers employed, to some extent, both dialogically expansive and dialogically contractive resources to build their arguments. Selections of extracts in the qualitative part of the study (Chapter 5, § 5.2.2) revealed that while writers tried to reduce imposing arguments and tone down their claims, they also had to argue clearly for their position, projecting their voices appropriately to persuade readers. Thus, it was important to balance between creating solidarity and giving their readers a platform to participate in discourse while exercising or maintaining their authorial power and autonomy (Hyland 2002b; Lancaster 2011).

### 6.1.3 Reader engagement

The research questions addressed in this section are whether there were genre-based (MA, PhD and RA) differences (Q 1c) and discipline-based (DS and EL) differences (Q 2c) in the way reader engagement markers were used, as well as what rhetorical functions and potential dialogic effects could be associated with the reader engagement markers (Q 3c). It was found that engagement markers were much less common than stance markers in all the genres and disciplines. By allowing readers active participation, writers recognised their presence as important stakeholders.

In the cross-discipline comparisons, the DSM writers used significantly more reader pronouns than the ELM writers. Though this resource is more typically found in textbooks and study guides, the DSM writers displayed an awareness of the fact that it is sometimes possible to directly include readers in one's argument as a persuasive strategy. The DSRA writers used significantly more questions than their ELRA counterparts, so these findings suggest greater reader awareness on the part of the DS writers. While research questions informed readers of the issues to be addressed by

the study and framed the discourse, rhetorical questions were intended to arouse readers' interest, inviting them to share the same line of thought as the writer (Hyland 2009; Curry & Chambers 2017).

The cross-genre comparisons showed a consistent pattern in both disciplines in that the RAs used significantly more total markers than the postgraduates. This is partly because the RA genre, as one where experts write for their peers as well as students, seems to allow writers to directly engage readers more often. A related reason could be that the RA writers' experience over the years put them in a better position to make use of such rhetorical strategies. Similarly, the RA writers also used more directives than the postgraduates.

In the EL comparisons, the ELD writers tended to use more directives and used significantly more total markers than the ELM ones, which indicates that generally, it was the ELM writers who made the least use of reader engagement. The ELRA writers used significantly more appeals to shared knowledge than both postgraduate groups. This same pattern also obtained in DS where the DSRA writers employed significantly more shared knowledge resources than the DSD ones, partly because RA writers, in general, may more directly involve colleagues with whom they share disciplinary knowledge. The ELRA writers also used significantly more reader pronouns than the ELM ones. Again, RA writers can directly address fellow discipline members, while this is more difficult for MA students because they 'write up' primarily to supervisors and examiners as their main readers. These patterns confirm that the RA writers engaged readers more often than the postgraduate students, and in particular the MA ones. Considering these reader engagement results, it may help to make students aware of the importance of such linguistic resources, but bearing in mind that there are devices such as reader pronouns which are not generally expected in their writing.

## 6.2 Study contributions

The contributions of this study can be considered in terms of essentially two levels: methodological and empirical. On the methodological level the main contribution was the development of a suitable overall analytical framework, adapted from different conceptualisations informed by research on both interpersonal metadiscourse (Hyland 2005a, 2005b) and Appraisal engagement (Hu & Wang 2014; Martin & White 2005). This framework facilitates the combination of quantitative analysis of metadiscoursal features of citation, stance and reader engagement with qualitative interpretation of what some quantitative results imply in terms of individual writers' use of dialogic engagement.

A second methodological contribution was the redefining of the 'distance' category of RVs as elucidated in Chapter 3 (§ 3.4.2.1). Because Appraisal system researchers restrict distance stance to *claim* and very few other verbs with obvious distancing effect, this means that those with a less

obvious effect, such as verbs of tentativeness like *postulate* and *suggest*, are simply included in the very broad 'default' category of acknowledge verbs. Given the importance of 'tentative' verbs in academic writing, it was necessary to go beyond the Appraisal construal of distance by adding to the category from Hyland's (2005a) verb hedges and especially from his 'discourse' RV category of 'doubt' verbs (Hyland 2002b). It could then be argued that the rhetorically important 'distance' stance in RVs may be seen as a broader continuum where *claim* has the highest distancing effect and along the scale are other verbs with different degrees of tentativeness or hedging effects.

A third contribution at the methodological level is the identification of 'split' and 'chain' citations. It must be noted that they were not included as categories in the quantitative analysis of the study but they were illustrated and discussed in the qualitative part (Chapter 5, § 5.1.1), where it was argued that split citations tended to improve the flow of information in texts, while chain citations could be an indication of overdependence by writers on certain sources. The issue of chain citations prompted me to use a related quantitative measure implied in Swales (2014), namely the ratio of the number of citations in a paper relative to the number of references in it. The average ratios for the three genres indicated that generally, the MA writers were more inclined towards chaining than the more senior genres. But when compared, the ELM group had a higher mean ratio than the DSM. A fourth contribution, also relating to citation, is that the study is one of very few that analyses both author and textual integration, and it also proposes a dialogic space continuum with regard to the six possible combinations of citation (see Chapter 5, § 5.1.2).

A final methodological contribution worth noting is that the overall research design was relatively complex, involving three genres in two disciplines, quantitative and qualitative analysis and triangulation by way of student interviews.  The relatively narrow cross-discipline comparison between DS and EL, departing from many wide cross-discipline studies that compared, for example, soft disciplines and hard sciences (e.g. Charles 2006a; Hyland 2005b, 2010) helped to bring to light some less pronounced differences and confirm that researchers and instructors should not overlook the importance of subject-specific differences in academic writing.

With regard to the empirical contributions of the study, the first half of this chapter has reviewed the significant findings, and here the focus is on a few of the most important. In citation, across disciplines, the DS texts tended to use the dialogically most contractive non-integral citation and assimilation citation, partly because of their topics and the nature of their sources of information. These differences mark discipline specific features that could be of value to for example writing instructors and supervisors in helping students to improve their writing in the discipline. Cross-genre comparisons showed that the MA writers, particularly the ELM group, tended to use integral citation (which considerable research indicates is easier to master) while the writers in the more senior levels were more inclined towards non-integral citation. Again, this finding is relevant to

raising students' awareness, especially at MA level, about the roles and advantages of different citation forms.

In the stance category, a pecking order in the use of acknowledge and distance RVs was realised, where the MAs had the highest use compared to the PhDs and RAs. As indicated earlier, this pattern suggests tentativeness in the MA writing. Besides, in EL comparisons, the ELMs used hedges significantly more than the ELDs and so this supports further the idea that the MA writers presented their propositions more tentatively than the more senior writers.

The last important aspect to be noted here is the findings of a specific study of the variety of RVs used by writers in the six core groups. The RV ranges, and in particular their type-token ratios, showed consistent increases in line with genre levels in both disciplines (Chapter 5, § 5.2.1.3), with the MAs using a narrower range of vocabulary than the PhDs, and the RAs showing the widest range. There was also a discipline effect, with the EL writers at each level using slightly wider ranges of RVs than their DS counterparts. Although this finding is not surprising, it could be seen as an indication to writing instructors of the importance of RVs in academic writing and that at both postgraduate levels, in an L2 context at least, students may not have similar levels of vocabulary to published researchers.

## 6.3 Pedagogical implications

The analyses and comparisons in this study have shown how crucial citation, stance taking and reader engagement are in high stakes academic writing genres. This is because these rhetorical resources enable writers to position themselves in ongoing dialogues with fellow writers from their disciplines and with readers of their texts. It is clear enough from the interviews, analyses and discussion of problems that although the postgraduates in this study managed these resources fairly well, they would benefit from some form of writing support, partly because they were writing in an L2 context. In fact, the NUL Department of English has recently identified a need to introduce an advanced academic writing course for postgraduate students to address more specifically the challenges that they face. My study should be of value in designing the course. I intend to assist the course developers in translating the key concepts of my analytical framework and my findings into pedagogically effective content. The course would facilitate explicit and proactive teaching of citation, stance (including RVs) and engagement as advocated by other scholars (e.g. Badenhorst 2019; Ma & Qin 2017; Petrić 2007; Petrić & Harwood 2013), giving students feedback on their metadiscoursal performance (Lee & Deakin 2016; Wu & Paltridge 2021). Such a course could also be helpful in the teaching of postgraduate writing in other tertiary institutions in similar contexts to NUL. I recommend that academic writing instructors who would teach the course include corpus-informed instruction in teaching the various metadiscourse features (Peng & Zheng 2021; Shin et al. 2018). Seeing the rhetorical features in the context of academic writing may help

developing writers, especially L2 ones, to understand how to use them in a nuanced manner to enhance their arguments.

Until such a course is available at NUL, and more generally where tertiary institutions do not run such courses, an alternative means of support would be online resources such as those on RVs provided by university writing centres (e.g. The Adelaide University Learning Guide). Most online resources are however generic and the assumption that students can apply the generic knowledge to their discipline areas has been shown to be problematic (Strauss, Goodfellow & Puxley 2009). Although Goodfellow, Strauss and Puxley (2012) indicate that various subject-specific online materials and resources have been developed, the most feasible solution for postgraduate students at NUL would seem to be, in line with the work of these authors, to raise the students' awareness of available generic and discipline-specific resources and enable them to access relatively easily suitable materials on specific aspects of academic writing. The postgraduate students would then be in the same sort of position, in terms of learning about academic writing, as the subject tutors reported on in this article on the development and testing of a system that interfaces with web-based writing support resources (Goodfellow et al. 2012). This article includes appendices on open web-based writing support sites and on writing problem types and topics, many of which relate to citation, stance and engagement. It is with the help of this kind of mediation that motivated postgraduate students could improve their understanding of what good academic writing involves – assisted where possible by academic writing researchers and teachers at NUL, who could focus more on what is available on writing support sites, and also on further interface sites that would make this task easier.

## 6.4 Limitations

This study had three limitations that are discussed in this section. The first limitation was that, as explained in Chapter 3, the study corpus could not be as varied as desired regarding the PhD theses. Therefore, only two PhD theses in each discipline were selected. Ideally, there should have been - as with the MA texts - five theses for each discipline, so that the Mann-Whitney U-test for statistical significance could be used alongside Log-likelihood. There were, however, fewer than five theses available in each of the two disciplines. Also, given that the PhD theses were by far the largest of the three text genres and because I needed, for correct categorisation, to check a substantial portion of the target features in my corpus searches manually (by inspecting the concordance lines and sometimes also their expanded contexts), I had to limit the size of my corpora. Selecting two PhD texts for each discipline meant that the total PhD corpus was still the largest but that it was generally not very different in size to the MA and RA corpora. Because the Mann-Whitney U-test could not be used in statistical comparisons involving the PhD texts, in such cases I had to resort to RSD calculations to ensure that where the internal variability of a feature count between the two PhD texts in each discipline was high, a valid finding of difference could

not be made, no matter what the Log-likelihood finding and the effect size might be (see Chapter 3, § 3.6.3).

A second limitation in relation to the corpus is that, as presumably in most corpus studies involving MA and PhD writing, some of the student texts did undergo editing (as noted above, differences in policy and implementation regarding the issue of editing was one of the main findings to emerge from the interviews with students and supervisors). This means that various language errors in the edited texts, including those concerned with reference technique, would probably have been corrected. However, given the more specific focus in my study on identifying differences between the disciplines and the genres concerning citation, stance and engagement features, which relate to issues of authorial voice rather than grammatical correctness, I think the editing issue is not a major one (though this would perhaps be more important in situations where English is more like a foreign language for the students concerned).

Thirdly, concerning citation, I counted and compared author integration and textual integration forms separately, but I did not undertake a quantitative study of the use of combinations of the two forms of (e.g. integral + insertion and non-integral + assimilation) across genres and disciplines. I only dealt with those combined forms qualitatively, though I there also suggested, as noted above, a dialogic space continuum for the combinations.

A fourth limitation is that as also in for example Hyland (2005b), my study did not provide a comprehensive account of where in the texts the examined rhetorical features tended to cluster. Although I examined some parts, for example, introductions of the RA texts that recorded outstandingly high frequencies for certain features, this was not done systematically for the whole corpus.

A final limitation concerns the relationship between the quantitative and qualitative aspects of the study. Discussion of qualitative aspects in Chapter 5, particularly about potential dialogic effects and their role in effective writing, is guided primarily by key quantitative findings presented in Chapter 4, with the aid of student writing extracts representative of these findings. There is then a reasonably clear connection between the quantitative and qualitative parts of the study but it should be noted that a 'holistic' qualitative account of how and to what extent individual writers achieved their communicative goals was not possible. This was partly because the 'analytic' quantitative research, with its focus on specific sets of features, needed to be carried through into the qualitative discussion. This meant that in the extracts only one or sometimes two or three citation, stance or engagement features could be considered at a time, even though an extract of writing that is valued for being both authoritative and open (Lancaster 2011) may of course depend on a variety of features working in conjunction with one another.

## 6.5 Suggestions for further research

My first suggestion for further research derives from the limitation noted above concerning combinations of author and textual citation forms. As revealed in the interviews, postgraduate students seem not to show high awareness of what it means to use different author citation forms or different textual citation forms, and raising their awareness as part of any kind of intervention is indicated. In this study, the further step of exploring the combinations of citation forms was only brought to light during the analysis write-up and so I only dealt with it qualitatively. However, a comparison of the occurrences and potential effects of the different combination of author and textual integration in a smaller scale but more in-depth quantitative and qualitative study across genres or disciplines could prove to be a valuable contribution that might also throw more light on the validity of the dialogic space continuum for citation as proposed in this study.

Concerning another limitation of the study, further research could investigate and compare the use of citation, stance and engagement features in the different parts of dissertations and theses. Although each chapter in these two important subgenres of academic writing tends of course to play a distinct role, and a fair amount of research has been done on this, a similar quantitative and qualitative study would add further to knowledge about how differently citation, stance and engagement features are distributed across the chapters and what underlies the distribution.

A final suggestion for further research derives partly from one of the contributions of the study, namely the redefining of 'distance' RVs. This is the category that revealed fairly consistent quantitative patterning across both disciplines, with the MA writers using it most, followed by the PhD writers and then the RA writers using it least. It is surely also the most interesting, rhetorically, of the four RV categories in this study as it is associated with both critique and tentativeness, stances that are central to academic writing. A possible explanation for the somewhat unexpected finding that the least experienced group of writers used distance RVs most could be that, given the continuum suggested from critique to tentativeness, the MA writers were mostly using verbs of tentativeness, while the RA writers were using verbs toward the critique end of the spectrum. However, *claim* was found to be one of the most frequently used RVs in the ELM writing. Still, a closer investigation of the role of this key category of RV in the current study and in academic writing more generally is suggested.

## 6.6 Conclusion

The present study has provided a framework for studying both quantitatively and qualitatively how MA, PhD and RA writers from two humanities disciplines compared and contrasted in their use of citations, stance and engagement markers and how they used these features rhetorically in constructing their arguments. Both cross-genre and cross-discipline comparisons revealed statistically significant differences that could be regarded as valid, shedding light on how the

various groups differed in their writing practices, and interesting patterns were examined further qualitatively, including with regard to students' use of dialogic space.  Although the postgraduate writers demonstrated to a considerable extent the ability to use citation, stance and reader engagement (with interactional markers listed in Appendix J), there was evidence of problems in some areas. These problems were made most explicit in the interview data, where for instance, some postgraduates indicated that they were not aware of the evaluative potential of resources such as citation forms and RVs that they used. It appears that such problems are exacerbated by the fact that although English is the main language of teaching and learning at higher levels of education, it remains the students' second language. And so, MA students in particular need to grapple with new forms of discourse, while still having language competence issues. It is hoped that, apart from the methodological and empirical contributions of the study, it will be of some use to academic writing instructors at tertiary institutions in general. And it is also hoped that at NUL, in particular - as noted under the earlier section on pedagogical implications - more awareness among writing specialists about academic writing websites (and also about other 'mediating' sites) will be generated so that the specialists would be better placed to assist postgraduate students and, importantly, to help them help themselves.

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# APPENDICES

Appendix A: List of RVs found in the study corpus

| Acknowledge verbs | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| accept | consider | give | recognize |
| according to | construct | give an insight into | recommend |
| acknowledge | continue | highlight | refer to |
| add | contrast | hold | refine |
| address | correspond with | identify | reflect |
| admit | counsel | illustrate | refute |
| adopt | cover | include | regard |
| advise | create | inquire | regress |
| advocate | debate | interpret | reiterate |
| aggregate | defend | introduce | rely on |
| aim at | define | investigate | remark |
| analyse | deliberate | justify | remind |
| approach | depart | lament | report |
| arrives at | describe | level | represent |
| articulate | develop | liken | return |
| assess | devote | link | say |
| assign | differentiate | list | see |
| associate | discuss | look at | seek |
| attempt | distinguish | measure | set |
| attribute | do | mention | share |
| become aware | document | merge | state |
| believe | draw attention | note | stipulate |
| blame | dub | notice | stress |
| build on | echo | observe | study |
| calculate | elaborate | offer | summarise |
| call | emphasise | organise | support |
| call for | employ | outline | talk of/about |
| capture | engage | perceive | term |
| categorise | ensure | pick | test |
| characterize | equate | point out | think |
| cite | espouse | prepare | trace |
| classify | examine | prescribe | track |
| come up with | exemplify | present | underscore |
| commend | explain | presuppose | undertake |
| comment | explore | proclaim | use |
| compare | expose | produce | view |
| compile | exposit | provide | warn |
| complain | express | put | wonder |
| compose | extrapolate | question | write |
| concede | feel | quote | |
| conceive | focus | ratchet up | |
| conceptualise | follow | read | |
| conclude | formulate | realise | |
| conduct | generate | reason | |

| Distance verbs | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| argue | estimate | opine | propound |
| assert | indicate | posit | purport |
| claim | insist | postulate | submit |
| contend | maintain | propose | suggest |

| Endorse verbs | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| agree | clarify | establish | make clear |
| affirm | confirm | evidence | reveal |
| attest | corroborate | find | show |
| concur | demonstrate | know | uncover |

| Contest verbs | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| brush off | disagree | ignore | overstate |
| criticise | fail | | |

Appendix B: Interview questions and transcriptions

Interview questions for the MA and PhD writers (completed and current students)
1. What sort of teaching or guidance did you receive on dissertation writing as a new postgraduate student, particularly on the use of sources and citation style?
2. Did your supervisor(s) at some point comment on your style of citing sources? In other words, did they make a direct input towards your citations?
3. As you were writing your dissertation/thesis, did you encounter any problems with citing sources? If you did, what are the problems?
4. Why do you cite sources in your writing?
5. When you referred to other authors' ideas, did you make a conscious choice of reporting verbs? Are you aware that reporting verbs can have evaluative effect on the reported proposition?
6. Which citation forms do you prefer and why? (Integral, non-integral, summary/paraphrase, direct quotes, and a combination of paraphrase + direct quote).
7. Are there instances when you would hedge or boost your statements? If so, what were the reasons for doing that?
8. Did you use attitude markers to clearly show your attitude towards the propositions that you cited?
9. Did you use first-person pronoun 'I' in your dissertation/thesis? If you did, what was the motivation behind the use?
10. Did you make an effort to involve your readers in your argument, e.g. by asking them questions or referring them to some part(s) of your dissertation/thesis?
11. Was your work edited by a professional editor or someone else besides you? If so, did the editor(s) make an input towards your writing in connection with citations?
12. Are there specific aspects of academic writing that you think postgraduates should be taught to prepare them for thesis writing?

Interview questions for supervisors
1. Would you please give some background on your supervising experience – how long you have supervised postgraduate students, the levels you have supervised and how you supervise your students?
2. What sort of processes do intending masters and PhD students go through in your department before selection and straight after acceptance?
3. To what extent do your new and continuing students receive some teaching or guidance on dissertation writing, particularly on the use of sources and citation style?
4. Do you sometimes correct your postgraduate students' citing styles, for example, recommending or discouraging use of certain citation forms and reporting verbs?
5. What are the common citation problems that you have observed in your postgraduate students' work?
6. To what extent are your masters and PhD students encouraged to evaluate information that they cite from different sources, and in this regard do they measure up to your expectations?
7. What do you think about the use of first-person pronoun 'I' by postgraduate students in their writing?
8. Are there instances where you would either recommend or discourage use of hedges and/or boosters by your students?
9. Do you sometimes expect or encourage your students to use attitude markers to clearly show their attitudes towards the propositions that they cite?
10. Do you encourage your students to involve or engage readers in their arguments, for example, by using reader pronouns and asking them questions?
11. Do you recommend your students to send their work for professional editing? To what extent is this usually needed?
12. Apart from the academic writing skills taught at first year, what else do you think can be done to enhance postgraduates' thesis writing?

**Interview with writer DSM5**

**BM**: As a starting point, would you please tell me about your previous studies before you enrolled for MA program? Which qualification or which degree program had you completed?

**DSM5**: Ok, ah I did my first degree in Roma. It was development studies and Human development. I don't even remember the dissertation that I did then (laughing). I don't, I don't, I don't, the project that I did I don't remember. I've never even visited it so.

**BM**: You should revisit it and even try to make it a paper or something; I think it's possible.

**DSM5**: Ok, I'll try, I'll try.

**BM**: I did it with my honours dissertation; that was my 1st paper that I published in Tsebo.

**DSM5**: No, no, no. mine is in the archives mama (laughing). Mine is in the archives; I've never revisited it. I don't even know what I had written about, ok 'me.

BM: Ok, so from there you then proceeded to your MA or maybe you worked for some time?

**DSM5**: I worked for some time. I graduated in 2000 and in 2001 I worked for the ministry of Gender, Youth, Sports and Recreation in the department of youth, so I have been working with the youth since 2001 to 2010. But in 2007 I came here to do my Masters, but the Masters didn't start until 2008 but we had to do a postgraduate diploma. It didn't start because we didn't have teachers, lecturers then. We didn't have enough lecturers with PhDs.

**BM**: So, what was your research about during MA?

**DSM5**: During MA my research was about Lesotho Highlands water project. I was looking at resettlement, packages and stakeholder participation.

**BM**: Ok, and who supervised your research?

**DSM5**: I was supervised by [name provided].

**BM**: Alright, thank you. So, when you were enrolled here for your MA, did you receive any teaching or guidance ah to do with dissertation writing, particularly how to cite sources of information?

**DSM5**: No, I don't remember us being taught specifically about citations. I don't remember that. Yes, I even went back to my notes aaa, I didn't see that.

**BM**: So how did you go about it? You just used your previous experience and knowledge.

**DSM5**: I used my previous experience and knowledge, yes, the knowledge that I got from undergraduate.

**BM**: So, as you were writing, did your supervisor(s), at some point, correct or comment on your citing style or even comment on the use of reporting verbs, how to quote or any direct input on citation from the supervisor?

**DSM5**: (Laughing), I'm not going to lie to you. Really 'me Bertha I don't remember my supervisor highlighting the issues of citations, even the reporting verbs I was going to ask you what is that? What is a reporting verb? I've seen that I have to learn a lot about citations.

**BM**: Reporting verbs are those verbs which we use when introducing ah or when we report information from other sources, for example, maybe now I'm citing your dissertation, maybe I can say, 'M (2010) asserted that…', 'reported', 'suggested', 'argued', you know them.

**DSM5**: Yes, I know them but I did not know these are the reporting verbs. Ok, ok, thank you for the lesson. (Laughing)

**BM**: The next question is now looking at the general problems about citation. As you were writing you dissertation, did you encounter any problems with citing sources? It could, for example, not know how to deal with an online source, or how to cite a chapter in a text book, or how to arrange details of sources, any problem.

**DSM5**: The problem that I had was citing many authors, that's point number 1. Citing journals, no, I didn't know how to cite journals and I still struggle up to today, and also arrangement of the authors or even information that I get on the internet. There are those articles that we find on the internet and I will, maybe it's a paper from UNDP, I don't know how to treat such information, yes that's the problem that I had.

**BM**: So how did you manage this one?

**DSM5**: Oh, I had a lovely supervisor. He was arranging things for me so now I have to go back and say, "Oh this thing I was supposed to have written it this way; he corrected like this".

**BM**: So, the supervisor had to assist.

**DSM5**: Yes, he had to assist, but I don't think it helped me that much because I still struggle. Now that's when I have to go back and see how the internet or the book how they were being done.

**BM**: Maybe he should have just commented saying, "You should do this this this this", and then you do the corrections.

**DSM5**: He was a good person (laughing).

**BM**: The next question ah, as you were writing, why did you cite sources in your dissertation?

**DSM5**: I think the first reason is to acknowledge that that information is not mine, to ensure that people know that that information is not mine, so I have to acknowledge the source, and also to ensure that I cite facts from other people. So, I think those are the reasons why I cite in my writing, and also I think the issue of honesty. People should know that this thing is not mine, and also to ensure that maybe in the future people will know that I'm an authentic writer by knowing that that person knows how to acknowledge other people. And also to ensure that when people read my papers, they can see the authors that I have cited, yes, they can go back, if they need more information they can go back and find out from the real author what has been said in order to further their information.

**BM**: Ok, thank you. Still on that one, did you feel at some point that you would want to cite someone in order to critique them, where you sort of disagree?

**DSM5**: Um, I think there are instances where we have to cite because we're disagreeing with that particular author, especially in the literature review, yes. In the literature review such citation can come.

**BM**: And at that level of MA, how comfortable were you with criticising?

**DSM5**: Umm, I wasn't comfortable, (laughing). Maybe with my PhD I will be more comfortable to say, "No no no I don't think this thing has to be like this". You are not yet confident, even if you have a right view.

**BM**: Alright, the next question is ah, when you referred to other authors' ideas, did you make a conscious choice of reporting verbs, I think we have talked about that, and are you aware that reporting verbs can have evaluative effect on the reported propositions?

**DSM5**: No no no. It just happened unconsciously, it just happened unconsciously, and it is now that I'm talking to you that I'm being made aware that I have to be cautious when I choose reporting verbs.

**BM**: I guess the fact that you chose verbs unconsciously also means that you were not aware of the verbs' evaluative effect. For example, if you say, "So and so claims", by using 'claims' you're sort of distancing yourself from the idea and you're sort of criticising because you're not sure whether the criticism is valid or not.

**DSM5**: Yes.

**BM**: Thank you. Question number 6, this one is to do with how we present our citations. Ah integral citations are the ones where the surname of the author is part of the sentence, for example, "Thebe (2010) observed that…" whereby Thebe is the subject of our sentence. Let me just quickly pick one example from your dissertation, yah this is an example of an integral citation.

**DSM5**: Wow! Ok.

**BM**: "This process, Fiterman (1998: 27) refers to…." So, this one is the subject of our sentence so we bracket the year and page, and this is our reporting verb "refers to" so these are integral citations where you foreground the author, "Muringani (2009) reported that…" And then with the non-integral you give us the point and then at the end you bracket everything as you did here.

**DSM5**: Non-integral?

**BM**: Yes. …. (FAO, 2003), so you begin with the information, maybe you paraphrase it like here, then in brackets you give us the surname if it is a person and the year or the name of an organisation and the year as here; that's non-integral

**DSM5**: Thanks for the lesson (laughing).

**BM**: Then there are other ways. We've already talked about summarising and paraphrasing, like here you paraphrased or summarised what FAO said. Besides, you can choose to quote word for word when you use direct quotations, then some writers mix paraphrases and direct quotes. Considering these forms, is there one that you prefer over the others? Or maybe looking at the type of sources that you used such as FAO,

UN reports which forms did you used mostly, if you can recall? I know it's now a long time since you wrote the dissertation; you might not remember.

**DSM5**: But to be fair I do not remember if I used integral or non-integral, but from the way I have cited I think I used both, and even the direct quotes I have them especially in the analysis, and also the combination of paraphrasing and direct quotes.

**BM**: Alright, ok, I see. So, it's like you were using all the forms depending on what information you were presenting.

**DSM5**: Yes 'me.

**BM**: My research has three parts: citation which we have been discussing now, how to report other people's information, how to include the quotation in your own writing including reporting verbs, etc. It also looks at what we call stance, which is your position as a writer. That's where we talk about hedges and boosters. A hedge is a word which you use when you're not very certain of something. You don't want to commit yourself ah to that idea; so, you're reducing the force of your statement, for example, when you're quoting someone, you can say, "Thebe seems to be correct..." by using the word 'seems' you're reducing the force of your statement. So, hedges are words like 'appears', 'possibly', 'probably', 'may' e.g. when reporting your findings you can say, "This may show that villagers in the Highlands areas benefited …" By using 'may' you're saying I'm not very certain, there might be other possibilities. Whereas with boosters you're very sure about you're saying using words like "Obviously, the villagers were very angry," 'definitely', 'certainly', so you're boosting your statement; you're making it a fact.

**DSM5**: Ok.

**BM**: So, do you remember using such words at some point in your writing?

**DSM5**: I'm not sure mam, I'm not sure even if I used it, but I'm not sure kannete (really).

**BM**: But as you were presenting your findings, how did you feel? Were you confident to say this is it or you would tentatively show that these are possibilities?

**DSM5**: I think there were instances where I was showing possibilities and where I was certain these things were happening especially after I had spoken to those people or villagers, but when I had spoken to some officers that's where I could use hedging because in some instances, they would claim things that had not happen. So, you would use the words depending on how you assessed the information.

**DSM5**: Yes.

**BM**: Ok, thank you. The next question is still to do with how you took your position as a writer which is stance. We have talked about hedging and boosting. There is also what we call 'attitude markers'. This is where you clearly state how you feel about something, for instance, words like 'surprisingly', 'interestingly', 'important' and others. Words such as 'agree' that clearly show your attitude towards what you're reporting.

**DSM5**: Ok, 'surprisingly' that's when I would have spoken to the officers and the community are reporting something else, that's when I would say, "Surprisingly, the officers have said this and that".

**BM**: Yes.

**DSM5**: Yes, I have, I have.

**BM**: You used them?

**DSM5**: Yes, I used them. Ok, alright.

**BM**: Number 9, ah this one is a bit controversial. Did you use first-person pronoun "I" in your dissertation? If you did, what was your motivation?

**DSM5**: In the acknowledgement I have. I wanted you to feel me in the paper that this is mine. I am the writer of this paper (laughing).

**BM**: Number 10 which is the last part of my research. Besides looking at citation and how you take your stance as a writer, I also look at how you try to involve readers in your argument, for example, by use of rhetorical questions, those questions meant to involve readers but not expecting them to answer. For example, "Can this be acceptable?" where you're directly addressing the reader or use of the inclusive pronoun 'we' e.g. "As we have already discovered in chapter 2…" where you're trying to involve your readers or in brackets you can direct them to some parts of your work and say, (see chapter 3).

**DSM5**: That I think I've used it.

**BM**: Why did you direct your readers to certain sections? What did you intend to achieve?

**DSM5**: Basically, it was meant to show that what I was talking about at that particular point has been said before; it is not a new thing at all, just as a reminder.

**BM**: The next question: Was your work edited by a professional editor or someone else besides you?

**DSM5**: I think, I'm not sure whether he was a professional editor because he was suggested by my supervisor. It was edited by someone in Zimbabwe.

**BM**: Did this editor make an input towards your writing in connection with citations?

**DSM5**: I don't remember. I think I also have to go back to my supervisor and ask for the comments from that editor because at that time I was so excited; didn't get it. All I wanted was to get through with my paper (laughing).

**BM**: Alright, and the last question: considering your experience with dissertation writing during that time and even now as a lecturer, is there anything you would recommend that postgraduate students be taught in preparation for dissertation writing?

**DSM5**: Yes 'me. I think generally the university is still weak on research, so if we can have an institute of research where very postgraduate student can be taught from the beginning proposal writing, any stage of proposal writing and doing research. Even the publishing of papers, I thinking it will be important. Even these citations, it's not good that you have masters but you are still not very certain about how to cite. Yes, it's not good, so I'm thinking generally we're lacking in research so we have to make sure that us as lecturers even our students are well grounded about research.

**Interview with current DSM student**

**BM**: Ok Current DSM, I think we can begin our interview. As an introduction, can you please tell me what you're currently researching on; your masters study topic and your supervisor who is supervising you?

**Current DSM**: My supervisor is [name provided] and I'm researching on assessing the sustainability of SAD projects in Mafeteng district in Lesotho.

**BM**: Alright, it sounds interesting (laughing). Our first question is, I would want to know what sort of teaching or guidance you received on dissertation writing as a new postgraduate student, particularly looking at citing sources.

**Current DSM**: Ah, during my first year of this program we were formally taught about how to cite. There was a course specifically aimed at teaching us how to cite.

**BM**: Ok, when did you do you first year; when did you start your program?

Current DSM: I started during the 2016/2017 academic year.

**BM**: Ok, that's good. So, they were teaching you how to cite sources, the citing styles or …?

**Current DSM**: Yes, they were teaching us all those.

**BM**: Ok, and as were writing and as you are still writing, does your supervisor sometimes comment on your style of citing sources?

**Current DSM**: Yes, he does especially if he sees some of the mistakes or some of the problems in my writing in relation to citation.

**BM:** It's ok, and do you encounter any problems right now as you are writing your dissertation?

**Current DSM**: Yes, sometimes I may get, especially if I'm using the internet, I'll get some information but then if I go through the text it will take me time to or it'll be difficult for me to get the author of the text, yes.

**BM**: Yah, it happens with some internet sources. You find that there won't be an author or it would be difficult to locate one. So how have you solved that problem; did your supervisor help you somehow or you just found your way?

**Current DSM**: Um, I just find my way maybe by getting what, by going through the text and end up getting the website where the text came from.

**BM**: Ok, alright.

**Current DSM**: Or sometimes I may end up not using that information because I may not know how to include it in my citation.

**BM**: Alright. Looking at the practice of citing sources, you know writers cite sources for different reasons. Can you brief me on some of the reasons why you include citations or information from other sources in your own writing?

**Current DSM**: Sometimes I'll cite some sources as to strengthen my point or to acknowledge that those are not my words.

**BM**: Ok, and among the citations that you've done so far, have you sometimes cited in order to criticise a particular source or maybe you mostly cite in agreement to support what you're saying?

**Current DSM**: Most of the time I use them as to support.

**BM**: Alright, ok, and when you referred to other authors' ideas using those reporting verbs or a verb that introduces your quotation, did you make a conscious choice of the verbs as you were writing or do you make a conscious choice as you are writing?

**Current DSM**: Um, not necessarily.

**BM**: Um, so how do you select them? Does it just happen naturally?

**Current DSM**: It does happen naturally most of the time.

**BM**: Ok, and maybe related to that, are you aware that these reporting verbs have what is called evaluative effect on the idea that you cite. For example, if you say ah "X claims that …" ah and maybe you bring another one, "Y shows that…" When you use 'claim you're sort of distancing yourself from that idea because it has an implication that maybe it's just a claim that you do not agree with or that is not well supported but when you say this one shows you're sort of approving it.

**Current DSM**: I was not aware of those; I was just using them without any…

**BM**: Ok, the next question is looking at the different ways we use to incorporate other writers' work, in our own work. There is what is called integral citation where you begin with the surname of the author, followed by the reporting verb like this one we were talking about, Matjama, it's integral. It begins with the name of the writer, then a reporting verb. Another way is to begin by giving a point or the information then in brackets you give the details as in this case. This writer just started with the idea, "It particularly focuses on this this this" then at the end gives us the name, the year and page. That's another way of doing it. I'm sure you're using them although you were not aware of the names, so that's non-integral.

**Current DSM**: Which one is non-integral?

**BM**: This one where you bracket the name and the year. The integral is where the name is part of the sentence; um it's like the subject of our sentence. And sometimes you quote directly, sometimes you paraphrase, sometimes you can even mix direct quote and some paraphrase. Those are the different forms, so out of these, is there any that you prefer as a writer or maybe you just mix them?

**Current DSM**: I just use them, but most of the time I use integral and non-integral.

**BM**: Ok, alright I see. Question 7 is now on the other part of my research because I'm looking at citations and then what is called stance. Stance is your position as a writer, the way you take a position, the way you sort of evaluate whatever you're writing. There is what is called 'hedges' and 'boosters', I think we have already discussed them. So are there cases you can remember in your writing where you sometimes hedge statements or feel like you want to boost it to show that you're confident of what you're saying.

**Current DSM**: There are no such instances because I was not aware of that (laughing). I was not aware that the way I write my information reflect on how I understand that.

**BM**: Oh, you were not aware, ok. Still to do with showing your position as a writer, there are also what are called attitude markers, 'interestingly', 'surprisingly', 'important', 'correct'. Do you recall any situation where you had to use such words in your writing to clearly show how you feel or your attitude towards what you are writing?

**Current DSM**: No, I don't remember such instances.

**BM**: Ok, and number 9, are you using or do you use the first-person pronoun 'I' in your dissertation? If you do, what is the motivation behind, if you didn't, why didn't you use it?

**Current DSM**: I totally do not use that because my supervisor told me not to use it because he said I do not have authority yet.

**BM**: So which form are you using to refer to your work? I know that some writers when they don't use 'I', some use 'the study', 'the researcher', 'the work', so which one are you using or which ones?

**Current DSM**: The first two you talked about, 'the study' and 'the researcher'.

**BM**: I see. As you are writing, do you sometimes try to involve your readers in your argument or in your writing, for example, by asking them questions? I've seen some writers saying, for example, ah "Do you think this method can work?" this is a question they'll ask readers but he doesn't expect them to answer, to sort of involve them.

**Current DSM**: No, I never used such.

**BM**: Ok, what about directives where you say, "See chapter 3, see section 1.1 or see the work above". Do you sometimes refer your readers to some parts of your work?

**Current DSM**: I sometimes refer them to my work and say, "As mentioned above"

Ok, so it's something that you don't usually use?

**Current DSM**: Yes.

**BM**: Alright. So, when you're finally done with your work, before you submit the final copies, do you think it's necessary to send it for professional editing or maybe to someone competent enough to edit your work?

**Current DSM**: Yes, I think it's necessary because the person will be able to see some of the mistakes which I was not aware of and which my supervisor was also not aware of.

**BM**: Ok, alright, I see.

**Current DSM**: The last question is: considering what you have experienced so far during your 2-year program, looking at what you were taught at undergraduate and in that course did during the MA first year, what's the title of that course by the way; is it research methods or what?

**Current DSM**: I forgot.

**BM**: Ok, but looking at what you were taught, do you think there is anything else that you can recommend us to teach our new postgraduate students, something that can help to improve dissertation writing.

**Current DSM**: One, I can suggest that it should be given more time, not just to be a semester course, but a year course maybe. Secondly, it should not be taught by somebody from the department of Development Studies, but somebody from the department of English. I think somebody from the department of English will be able to guide students clearer than somebody from the department of Development Studies because the person is more onto the content of Development Studies than on how to write. I felt there was a gap somewhere which needs to be filled.

**BM**: Ok, so do you think maybe in that course, for example in your department, do you think it will be necessary to include things like hedges and boosters that we were discussing here?

**Current DSM**: That is true, um. And even though we are under the department of Development Studies, it should be taught by people from English department, because they'll be able to explain more than that person.

**BM**: Alright, I see. Thank you so much for sacrificing your time.

### Interview with writer ELM1

**BM**: Ok Ms. ELM1, we can start our interview. First of all, I would want to know what you did during your MA studies, because I'll interview you about your MA studies. What was your topic or area of study and who supervised you?

**ELM1**: Ok, ah I was looking at the syntactic complexity of the students'; in fact, the right term which I used is 'maturity', syntactic maturity in the students' writing at the National University of Lesotho.

**BM**: Ok, and who supervised you the study?

**ELM1**: I was supervised by two: my main supervisor [name provided] and the co-supervisor was [name provided].

**BM**: So, what type of teaching or guidance did you receive on dissertation writing as a new postgraduate student particularly on the use of sources and citation style? When you enrolled for MA did you receive any such type of teaching?

**ELM1**: No, nothing. Maybe it's because the two supervisors were still here by the time I enrolled in Honours program, and maybe they thought that I already knew what I was supposed to do. They didn't really guide me on how I should cite.

**BM**: How many were you in the MA program?

**ELM1**: We were four.

**BM**: So, you just started working with your supervisors.

**ELM1**: We were four at the beginning, but two didn't make it. Only two reached the finishing line.

**BM**: Oh, I see.

**ELM1**: Um, because one was short dead, and the other one just disserted.

**BM**: Oh, I recall; I see. So maybe still related to this, I understand you wrote a mini-dissertation during your Honours program, did you undergo some training on dissertation writing that was preparing you for dissertation writing that we may assume that it even helped you during your MA?

**ELM1**: Umm I don't know how to answer that one because, really, I did not receive a formal session on that, but as we went on with my supervisor, because I was supervised by [names provided]. Yah, but as we went on with the supervision process, that is when they said, for example, "You're not to say 'Z argues that', when that is not agreeing with what you're saying. You've to find an appropriate verb to use when you cite. Yah, they didn't really say, "Sit down; you're to do this and that". It was not a formal session. Yah, they corrected as we went on.

**BM**: Ok, so the second question I think you've partly addressed it. Did your supervisor(s), at some point, comment on your style of citing sources? In other words, did they make a direct input into your citation during the MA thesis writing?

**ELM1**: Yah, maybe as you rightly pointed out, they said you're not supposed to say this. How can you say, for example, this one affirms the already mentioned study yet you see this one that is the former. The former maybe his source, the source I used in the past paragraph was in 2002, and then the latter I say I took the information that was published in 1999, and then I say this one of 1999 affirms that one of 2002 (laughing). Maybe I did not understand this; we were really struggling 'me, yah because we didn't know what we were really doing as far as research is concerned.

**BM**: So, your supervisors were actually guiding you?

**ELM1**: Um.

**BM**: As you were writing your MA dissertation, did you encounter any problems with citing sources generally, and if you did what are the problems considering the types of sources that are there such as text books and the internet?

**ELM1**: I'm not sure I'm following. Do you want to know maybe if I encountered in finding sources?

**BM**: Not in finding sources, but in using them in your writing, for example, how to use information from the internet or how to cite.

**ELM1**: As for books, I didn't encounter any problem, but as for the internet sources, yes I encountered some problems because I didn't know from where to begin when writing the address of the source I found from the internet and where to end. Yah, my supervisors would say, "This is incomplete, then I really struggled up until they showed mw that, "You have to begin from here up to there."

**BM**: So, it was mainly to do with internet sources, the details to include up to the website address.

**ELM1**: Yes.

**BM**: So, the supervisors helped you in that area.

**ELM1**: Um.

**BM**: Ok. The next question: why did you cite sources in you writing? Can you brief me on some of the reasons why you cite sources?

**ELM1**: I wanted to add weight on my argument, and I also wanted to better express myself because as a student you would find that, ok my grammar is (laughing) is a problem and this one maybe has put this opinion in a better way, let me take this one and use it. So, I used them because I wanted to support myself, to support my argument, to add weight and to better express myself, and also to show that there are some people before me who wrote about the same issue in this field.

**BM**: Ok. Still on reasons for citing, did you at some point during your writing maybe feel like you want to quote in order to critique someone? Was it always the case that you would be in agreement or sometimes you would quote to disagree with the author?

**ELM1**: No, in my case I always agreed. It's now when I'm doing my PhD that I realise or my supervisors have made me aware that I have to have a voice in whatever I'm doing. As for Honours and MA really I just wrote for the sake of writing. I didn't want to argue. In fact, I thought that those people whom I'm referring to, whom I've taken their opinion to incorporate in my writing were specialists, were people with expertise in this field, so I didn't realise that I could critique whatever they were saying.

**BM**: Yah, it's interesting, but you're not the only one because at that level we feel like we're not in a position to challenge and we always accept whatever published as correct or as perfect.

**BM**: Our next question is: when you referred to other authors' ideas, did you make a conscious choice of reporting verbs?

**ELM1**: Not at all, I didn't realise that I have to have that. I just used them to support me like "states', 'says'. I didn't really choose or I was not aware that maybe they have certain effect on what I'm writing.

**BM**: Yah, because they have what we call evaluative effect; sometimes they carry some overtones of whether you agree, whether you're neutral or whether you're disagreeing.

**ELM1**: Hey 'me, I didn't realise that, I just wrote.

**BM**: Yah, it happens, especially at the levels of Honours and MA and even our undergraduates. It's that stage where I think most writers feel like we just have to alternate verbs in order to avoid monotony or overusing one verb.

**ELM1**: Yah, that's what we did; it's now that your interview is opening my eyes that aaa, I've to be very careful when using these verbs.

**BM**: Which citation form do you prefer and why? For you I don't think I have to explain a lot because you already have an idea. We talked about integral citation, they one which begins with the surname of an author, then it includes a reporting verb and then the idea. So and so argues or reports or states, and there is non-integral where you can just write the idea then in brackets you give the details. There are also direct quotes where you use the exact words, and there is a mixture where you can paraphrase in your own words, then you take a phrase in direct quotes. So, do you have any preference looking at those forms?

**ELM1**: I don't think I have any preference 'me. I just used them; I used a mixture of those. Why? Because I just told myself that I'm not supposed to bore the reader of my text, therefore, somewhere I've to begin with the surname, and then the verb, then the information. Somewhere I've to begin with the information and end with the source. Somewhere I have to quote directly, but the direct quotations were very few in my Honours and even in my MA because my supervisors showed me or made me aware that, "if you rely on direct quotations it seems that you do not understand what you're writing, so try to paraphrase". So, I used to paraphrase more, but I used a mixture of those.

**BM**: Ok, so maybe let's just look at your work briefly, maybe one or two of your citations where we can look at the forms we were talking about here, and maybe try to establish the reason for that citation. Yah, maybe we can read starting from here.

**ELM1**: (Reading aloud from the dissertation) "That is, they are embedded in a noun phrase. Relative subordinate clauses provide a way to talk about nouns…" (Chaffe, 1982).

**BM**: Yes, so this is an example of a non-integral citation where the surname of the author and the year are in brackets. Can you establish the function of this citation? Are you using the idea to support something or you're just acknowledging the source of that information?

**ELM1**: I'm acknowledging.

**BM**: Ok, alright. So, you used this non-integral citation to acknowledge the source.

**ELM1**: Yes.

**BM**: Question number 7 is now focusing on a different aspect of the research. Besides citation where we looked at functions of citations, different forms, reporting verbs, I also look at how you evaluate your information, what we call stance. So, we look at things like hedges and boosters, I think you've an idea of those ones. Are there instances when you'd hedge or boost your statements? When you're hedging you use those words or phrases to tone down your statement. You don't want to sound too certain when you can use 'possibly' e.g. 'this possibly shows that; probably this could be a result of that; this may cause students to do that' where you're being careful not to express your point as a fact because you're not sure. And then

boosters you're confident and say, 'definitely, this is shows that students are not understanding' or 'obviously', 'no doubt', such expressions.

**ELM1**: I think I used hedging, not boosters because I know that there are instances where I had to use words such as 'probably'; yah that's what I used, not boosters.

**BM**: Any reason for avoiding boosters but using a lot of hedges?

**ELM1**: I used hedges because I didn't want to commit myself. I was not sure of what I was stating at that particular moment, so I had to secure my character. As for boosters, I just, I think maybe I didn't use them because I thought that I was still a student and then I had no voice to argue about anything I was writing about. I thought so, yah.

**BM**: Ok, thank you. The next question is still to do with your stance position in relation to what you're writing. Did you use attitude markers to clearly show your attitude towards, for example, the propositions or ideas you were citing or even your own ideas? Attitude markers like where you say 'important' e.g. 'this is important' or 'surprisingly, these writers are doing this instead of that'.

**ELM1**: I didn't really.

**BM**: 'I agree with so and so' or you didn't use them.

**ELM1**: Yah, but as for that one of 'agree' even if maybe I didn't really put it directly, but you'd find that I agreed with what the source is stating even if I didn't use those exact markers.

**BM**: Ok, we're moving to the next one; the interesting one which you raised during the seminar (laughing). Did you use the first-person pronoun I in your dissertation? If you did, what was your motivation for using, if you did not use it, why?

**ELM1**: I didn't use those personal pronouns, except in the acknowledgement page. I did not use them because I was told not to do that, yah by the time we were being prepared to begin the research we were told that we were not supposed to use the personal pronouns, but we should use the third person pronoun.

**BM**: So which term, pronoun or noun phrase did you use? Some writers use 'the study' or 'the researcher'.

**ELM1**: I used both, somewhere: "the study blablabla", somewhere "the researcher".

BM: But you were basically avoiding 'I'.

**ELM1**: Um.

**BM**: The next question is now focusing on the third and last component of my research. I also look at how we academic writers involve readers in our writing. You can use rhetoric questions, or you can use the solidarity 'we' where you say, "We can discover here that", "as we can notice here" where you're making the readers part of the argument or even refer them to some parts of your work, in brackets "see chapter 1" or "see section 2.2." Did you at some point use these as you were writing your dissertation?

**ELM1**: No.

**BM**: You did not. And the next question: after working on your dissertation, did you take you work to a professional editor; was it edited by someone else besides you?

**ELM1**: No, after completing it I just bound it and then submitted it to the supervisor. I didn't pay any other different person to edit my work.

**BM**: So, you edited your work with the help of your supervisor.

**ELM1**: Um.

**BM**: Alright. The last question: looking at your experience when you worked through your MA dissertation, and probably considering what you're going through now as a PhD student, are there specific aspects of academic writing that you think postgraduates should be taught to prepare them for thesis writing or areas which you can recommend, for example, to the department that "I wish from my experience you could teach postgraduate students the moment they join the program before they do much, please let us teach them this, this, this?"

**ELM1**: Yes 'me, I think to mention a few, in my department, English the students are never taught theoretical framework, if I'm answering your question.

**BM**: Yes, you are.

**ELM1**: So, I would suggest that maybe the department of English should make sure that the students immediately when they arrive here as one of us, they have to be taught theoretical framework because they don't know what this theoretical framework is and how it should be incorporated in their dissertations or

theses, and they don't know where to include it; whether it has to be included at the beginning, in the middle or at the end or everywhere. They have to be taught that. And also, this citation, it is really a problem. Even today, maybe you happen to have realised what I observed in the slides of [name provided] , you would realise many problematic sections, so I think they need to work hard with regard to how we're supposed to write these dissertations, maybe the structure, how we are to reference. And if maybe you remember well, you'd remember that when he was acknowledging a source which was written by two authors, yah, throughout what he was giving us, it was problematic. So, this means that there is something which has to be done in our department in order for us to know what we are doing.

**BM**: Yah, I recall the student being corrected by one of our colleagues on how to cite an author cited by another author, that he had to cite the primary source, not the secondary one, meaning he was being corrected on citing style.

**ELM1**: In fact, what I can say 'me about our department is that really as I mentioned earlier, it doesn't really sit us down, it doesn't say, "This is how you're supposed to go about it". We just write it on our own, working with our supervisors.

**BM**: I think it would help to have some formal teaching. It might be a course which is not examinable just to teach our postgraduate students how to cite sources; how to structure the thesis; the theoretical framework issue you talked about; and other related issues.

**ELM1**: Kannete (really), they're not supposed to expect us to attend seminars which are held by CTL. They expect us to go there, but you find that due to various reasons, we don't attend such, but if it is a department which says, "Sit down guys; you have to do this and that about this research, I think maybe we would harvest good fruits if they can do that. Like in other courses that are assigned lecturers, why don't they assign a lecturer to tech students this theoretical framework? I think we need it.

**BM**: Yes, we do. Thank you so much Ms ELM1 for your time.

**Interview with writer ELM4**

**BM**: Ok thank you Mr ELM4, I think we can start. The first question is: would you please brief me on your MA study, what you were looking at and who supervised you and when you completed it?

**ELM4**: Ok, I was looking at intertextuality between females and males in South African parliament, comparing the way they use intertextuality, say in terms of is it explicit, implicit intertextuality and also vertical, and my supervisors, the main supervisor was [name provided] and the core-supervisor was [name provided], who was Doctor [name provided] at that time, and I completed my studies in 2013.

**BM**: Ok, so you had the same supervisors, I think, with Ms. ELM1?

**ELM4**: Yah, she had the same supervisors.

**BM**: Ok, so did you receive any teaching or any guidance concerning dissertation writing when you were enrolled as an MA student here when you came here? Any specific teaching or you just started right away with your supervisor?

**ELM4**: No, I think we just started right away even though in our case it was embedded in some of the programs that we did in Honours courses because we did research methods. So even though we were being taught techniques of research, also there was inclusion of a writing part because when one researches, there is an issue of eh writing, but it was not the core element. It was eh something that just came into the program. So, I may say I didn't get any training, but there was some element of it in what we were taught.

**BM**: Ok, so wrote some mini-dissertation or some research as part of the Honours.

**ELM4**: Yes, first semester it was research methods, and then second semester there was a mini-research project based on that, and then the following year it was wholly thesis and nothing else.

**BM**: So, I think they assumed that you had some knowledge from the previous program.

**ELM4**: Yes, I think so too.

**BM**: Ok, alright. So. when you started, did your supervisor(s) at some point comment on your style of citing sources? Ah in other words, did they make some direct input into your citation or citing style?

**ELM4**: Ah no, especially regarding the different styles of citing e.g. Harvard, no no no, those were not mentioned at all. The only thing that probably they would talk about, it wasn't on style per se. I think it was

mainly on the issue of content which I remember well is that they would emphasise, if you mention a point sometimes you quote q person verbatim so that it's clear for the reader what you're talking about. Yah, so that it's more, it's richer you see. You also show what they said, the examples that they provided, but not the citing itself.

**BM**: What about the, for example, reporting verbs? Do you recall any instance when the supervisor would maybe say, "This reporting verb is not appropriate, use this one" even your experience right now with your PhD writing?

**ELM4**: No, even for PhD, I think I've always, it's an area that I have to go out myself to find out, and also maybe try to imitate other writers but not formal training.

**BM**: Ok, I see. Alright, so as you were writing your dissertation, did you encounter any problems with citing sources? If you did, what are the problems?

**ELM4**: Ah, I do not remember encountering any problems, but I think it's not because there were no challenges. I think it's because I was not paying attention to it. So probably there were some things that I could not deal with properly. Eh but for now, I think there some points that I could mention. The first one, it's an issue of a situation where we're using a possessive marker and now we have a source, a year in brackets before the quote that is, for instance, Johnson's work, sometimes I'm not sure if it should be Johnson, possessive marker or Johnson (1980), possessive marker. That one even the work I've just submitted now, I think I didn't check that. I made a note to check it, but I didn't. Another one that is sometimes tricky for me is where we have multiple sources, for instance I say 'metaphor has been discussed' then I have Lakoff (1980) and then so and so 2010; Simino 2015. Sometimes I don't know whether to separate those sources using a semi-colon or commas, and for the last ones or the last two whether to link them by 'and' or if I've been using semi-colons to continue with semi-colons or comas.

**BM**: I see. So, did your supervisors assist somehow or advise you that for this one do it this way or you had to find your way out?

**ELM4**: (Laughing) Ah no generally, with the issue of style, they did not. The only thing they did, sometimes they would comment, underline it but there is no instruction on what to do.

**BM**: They would just highlight to indicate that there is something wrong, so you had to find out what was wrong.

**ELM4**: Yes.

**BM**: I see. Ok, so looking at citing sources in your writing, what are the reasons for citing? Why did you cite sources in your writing?

**ELM4**: One reason I cite other people is when I mention a point which I think I'm not an authority on, so then I need someone to support my arguments. Eh sometimes when I'm aware that a particular point, even if it's a common knowledge, actually can be traced to a certain source. So that is one way which I cite sources, but also for instance in Literature review I cite sources to show that X did this so there seems to be a gap so those are some of the reasons I cite the sources, eh.

**BM**: As you cited sources, besides the reasons that you have given me, do you recall at some point when you would cite a source in order to critique it or maybe you were in agreement most of the time?

**ELM4**: Ah, for my MA, I don't recall my critiquing a source. I think what I did sometimes is showing contrast between the sources, but then lately I've been in a situation in which I do criticism. When I criticise, I borrow from other people because a lot of times I've found that my arguments actually are similar to arguments other people have raised. For instance, the theory that I set out to use right now at PhD, there were a lot of criticisms against it. It's issues that also initially I had problems with, and then I looked at ways of dealing with it. I realised that some people had talked about the same issues, so all these years I've been doing that but I don't recall my doing that at MA.

**BM**: Ok, so it shows the level to which you've developed now as an academic writer.

**ELM4**: Yes, because initially we were told that we should criticise them but we didn't understand because when A makes an argument you feel like ah, this is a beautiful argument, then B criticises A then you say no, B is good, then C criticises B for criticising A then you say C is great, but now it has changed, I now have my stance.

**BM**: Ok, that's interesting. The next question is, when you referred to other authors' ideas, did you make a conscious choice of reporting verbs?

**ELM4**: Um, I think it's partly conscious in a sense that when I do it, for instance, I would find that 'argue' or 'claim' would sound like I'm distancing myself from that, it's not as our book says I did not choose them on the basis that I want to show agreement or distance myself. A lot of time I think what influences me is, it's almost, that's why I say it's partly conscious because it's an issue of language that if someone brought a theory, I don't even think about it. It's that he proposed; he introduced something like that. Yah of course, I don't know if I've answered your question, but it's not that conscious.

**BM**: Closely related to that or as a follow up, are you aware that these reporting verbs somehow evaluate or have evaluative effect to what you're writing?

**ELM4**: Yah no I'm aware, it's just that when I write like what I said, I don't pay a lot of attention to it. I just write and then choose the word that I feel fits the context best, like suggests this and this.

**BM**: Still on citation, there are two broad categories; I think you have an idea of this. There are integral and non-integral. The integral citations are those that include the surname of the author as part of the citing sentence, for example as a subject, and then non-integral is when you give an idea from a source then at the end you give the details of the source in brackets. Looking at these ones, do you have any preference? And there also the direct quotes and the indirect ones, as you write do you find that maybe you tend to use one form, whether integral or non-integral or direct or indirect quotes or maybe a mixture?

**ELM4**: By the way, you said the one which begins with the name is the integral, and that one with all details in the brackets is non-integral?

**BM**: Yes.

**BM**: Eh, even though I don't remember what I was doing in MA but I think initially I was using the one that was integral where I began with the source more. But even if it wasn't more, lately I've been using this one with the source in brackets. I think it has been influenced by the fact that sometimes the issue has not been to quote a person, but sometimes I write and then I decide to include a person that maybe had a similar idea before. Whereas early the issue was so that my supervisors to see that there were sources, so it's a little bit different. Regarding the issue of direct and indirect quotes I think now there is a mixture because for definitions, for instance, sometimes I prefer to go direct and then provide my own explanation afterwards. Yah and also, I sometimes realise that a certain piece needs to be there so I also include it, so I think it's almost a mixture. Eh but I think in terms of integral and non-integral I think now I'm using more non-integral.

**BM**: The next question is now on to stance. By stance we're referring to how you sort of evaluate what you're writing, either your own ideas or the ones you're quoting. So, there are words which we call hedges and some which we call boosters. Hedges are those words which we use when we want to sort of reduce the impact of our statements, we don't want to sound too certain or very certain like we can use 'may' as in "This may show that…" or 'probably' e.g. "This probably results from…", 'possibly' and all those others where we're trying to be careful. When we use boosters, we're very certain; we want to show that we're committed to what we are saying, e.g. 'definitely', 'obviously', 'no doubt' and other expressions. So, did you, in your writing, sometimes use these rhetorical devices?

**ELM4**: Yes, and I think it's hedging a lot. Actually, in one of the papers that I was resubmitting on Friday, one of the comments from the editors, it's a chapter, they pointed out that in one case I was too tentative because I was saying 'it seems', 'as if' so they said I should be sure. So, I do it a lot of times even when I discuss findings because I think I want to be cautious because sometimes I think that they suggest patterns. So, I do not say, "These are the patterns" but I say, "They show patterns" or "suggest something" so I think sometimes I just do it too much from what those guys said because I think it was not once but twice.

**BM**: Ok, alright. What about boosters? As you were writing, are there certain points where you would feel like this one, I'm very sure and you would want to say, "Definitely", "certainly", "no doubt", etc.

**ELM4**: I don't know if I used them, but I don't like them (laughing).

**BM**: Why don't you like them?

**ELM4**: I think, even when I'm discussing with someone then they say, "Definitely", "certainly", "it's obvious", (laughing). I think it's because in one of my studies I was dealing with dialogic expansion and staff like that.

**BM**: Oh, I see. So, you don't like them because you close out other views?

**ELM4**: Yah, yah. I think it makes a discussion, a dialogue to me difficult especially because I think when you make statements or when you propose it is always the case that what you say can be revised.

**BM**: Ok, that's interesting. Still on taking a stance in your writing, there are also what we call attitude markers where you clearly show your attitude towards something like, "surprisingly, importantly, correctly" such words as these you're clearly showing the reader that this is your attitude towards something. It surprises you; you feel it's an important point or you think it's correct.

**ELM4**: I do use them, but I try to be as sparingly as possible, but I think the ones that I use usually are "significantly" and "interestingly" particularly when I show a situation where there is an element of surprise, so I'll say, "Significantly" and "interestingly" for the readers to be aware but I use them very sparingly. In my current work I don't think I've used them more than three times. And the third one is where actually I was trying to be modest because I said, "The work attempts to contribute in a small way", something like that, not to appear too confident.

**BM**: Ok, thank you. The next question is related to stance again. It's the use of the first-person pronoun. This one is controversial; did you use it in your writing?

**ELM4**: (Laughing) No, in my work I, except for publications, in publications I always use it, even for the work I've talked about. Actually, in some instances even the editors themselves said, I had said, "It was suggested" and they said no, you should come out more confidently and say, "We suggest" or something like that, but in the school work ah, no, no, no I never used it. If there are such cases, they are few.

**BM**: Is there any reason why you were avoiding the first-person pronoun?

**ELM4**: Ah, MA I'm trying to recall why I didn't use it. Ah because with the PhD I think, I actually wanted to use it but I was advised by my supervisors not to use it. Yah it was interesting because even in in my methodology I had used it, but after being made aware that maybe I should not use it. I should just use the passive voice.

**BM**: So which forms did you use? Some would say 'the study', 'the researcher'. Do you recall the phrase that you were using to refer to yourself?

**ELM4**: No, I left myself out. I felt that 'researcher' is better. First of all, I thought it was right to mention myself but then I was not using that I would go for the passive like "It was found that…" otherwise if it's a situation where we must have an agent I'd use 'the study'.

**BM**: I see, and the next question is now looking at engagement. My study has three parts; citation which takes the greater part and then stance which we have discussed to do with hedges, boosters, attitude markers. And the last part looks at how you try to involve readers in your argument which we call here engagement. So did you make an effort, as you were writing your MA or even PhD, to involve readers somehow in your argument? Some use rhetorical questions, some use the inclusive pronoun 'we' e.g. "As we can see from chapter 2…" where you're one author but this 'we' is meant to include readers, or use of directives e.g. in brackets (see chapter 1, see section 1.2). You're sort of directing them to something, or even bringing in what we call interesting asides. Bringing something that is not quite related to your topic, but you think it might be interesting to the reader in brackets. So, do you recall thinking of your reader or trying to involve your reader somehow?

**ELM4**: No no no, I tried because at one point I wanted to point to at something that the reader should note, but I felt that maybe the supervisors or even the examiners sometimes they may feel I'm too confident. So whenever, because I have a lot of examples in my data, so whenever I'm referring to the terms and figures I say, "As can be seen in Figure 2; or Figure X demonstrates" and so forth.

**BM**: ok, I see. Was your work edited by a professional editor or someone else besides you? If so, did the editor(s) make an input towards your writing in connection with citations?

**ELM**: No, it was not edited.

**BM**: So, in that case the second part of the question is irrelevant. And the last question: now considering your experiences in MA dissertation writing and PhD thesis writing, are there any specific aspects of

academic writing that you think postgraduate students should be taught ah in preparation for thesis writing? Maybe, if there is something you can recommend to the department.

**ELM4**: Yah, there are so many things, and I think they've been covered by the questions that we have answered here. There are so many things which I think if people are taught, they could at least spend most of their time eh focusing on content rather than now correcting ah mistakes of style after being corrected by supervisors. For instance, you talked about the issue of pronouns, they should know and if they're not using pronouns at lest they could be made aware that they could use passive voice in a certain way. The issue of referencing itself, even though it's ah, especially at NUL here, and the last time it is touched is at first year, and at that time I think people are not even aware what's going on. Yah and after that they forget about it. At third year they meet it again, so maybe if also it's touched again, some of the points such as the issue of the evaluation of the verbs and so forth, those things are very important for people to know why am I using this one and what function does it serve. Those are some of the things that I have, but most of the issues that you raised, as I indicated in my responses, I was not taught those things. So, I think those things should be taught including, which of course is a bit irrelevant here, the reason why we're carrying out a research and how to carry out a research, for instance, you find that in some instances people pick a gap. As I was conducting out my research I just guessed, oh maybe this is a gap. I don't know if this is relevant to your question.

**BM**: It is; thank you so much Mr ELM4 for sacrificing your time.

**Interview with current ELM student**

**BM**: Can you briefly explain your present research topic and state your supervisor?

**Current ELM**: Okay. Umm, my topic is… it just went out of my head, I can't believe this.

**BM**: It happens.

**Current ELM**: My topic is 'Effects of Chinese culture on L2 acquisition'.

**BM**: That's an interesting one. So, who supervises you?

**Current ELM**: Dr [name provided].

**BM**: Okay. When you enrolled for your MA, did you receive some teaching or guidance specifically to do with dissertation writing or citing sources? Anything to do with project dissertation writing?

**Current ELM**: Umm, yes. When I enrolled, there was a semester course that is offered here at the university that teaches on project writing, dissertation writing and it's taught by Dr [name provided].

**BM**: Okay, so is it like sort of methodology or?

**Current ELM**: Yes. It's research methodology actually.

**BM**: So, it touches on how to write…

**Current ELM**: Dissertation? Yes. Even though as time went on I realised that it just wasn't enough. I think it should be offered for an entire year.

**BM**: Oh! So, it was just for a semester?

**Current ELM**: Yes, second semester at that.

**BM**: Alright. So, in that course, was there any coverage of citing sources or a topic on how to cite sources?

**Current ELM**: No! I think they assumed we already knew from undergraduate so there was no topic specifically on that.

**BM**: Okay. So, when you are writing now, looking at the process that you have gone through so far with your supervisor, does she at some point comment on your citing or even correct your citing style? Anything to do with your citing?

**Current ELM**: It does actually. The first time I submitted, she commented on my referencing style. She told me that there is a particular style that is used here at the university, which is Harvard. So, I had to change my entire referencing style to Harvard.

**BM**: So, you are now using Harvard Style?

**Current ELM**: Yes, I am now using Harvard style.

**BM**: So, as you write your thesis so far, are there any problems to do with citing sources, besides the issue that your supervisor asked you to change the style to Harvard. Any other challenges maybe looking at the

types of sources you use, the internet sources, journals, chapters and text books? Is there any problem that you can say "yah, I think this is it"?

**Current ELM**: I don't know if it is a problem in the aspects you have mentioned but the only problem that I have encountered so far is secondary sources. I can't seem to find the original texts so I have to try really hard to reference from the original text and that is…yah! That is the only challenge so far.

**BM**: Okay, so it's like you come across a text when you're reading another text?  Then you try to look for that text and then…

**Current ELM**: …and then it's impossible. So now I have to…I can't exactly cheat so I have to state that it's cited by so and so.

**BM**: Yah, you're right because at this level we prefer that you get the original source.

Current ELM: Yah, it's kind of a challenge to do that.

**BM**: I understand because I sometimes experience that with my supervisor. I say "this one cited by this one" and they say "why can't you find the original source?" You look for it and you can't find it.

**Current ELM**: It's a pity because most of my…where I have cited, well, not most but it happened a lot that I can't find the original text and I tell her "no, I'll come back to it. I know that you said I should not use it but, in the meantime, let me just continue while I'm still searching".

**BM**: Okay, I understand. Another question is, why do you cite sources in your writing? Try to think of some reasons as to why you quote.

**Current ELM**: The main reason is that you cannot write an entire dissertation on your own and just not cite anybody. Another reason is that it helps in supporting my arguments, to make my dissertation to carry more weight and also, you're able to see what other people have been going through, what they found out, so yah that is why I mainly cite my sources.

**BM**: Still on those reasons, have you experienced a situation whereby you cite in order to critique someone or those are rare cases?

**Current ELM**: Yes. Mostly in my literature review because we were taught that in literature review, you don't just review the literature but you also review it in how it relates to your work. Sometimes in reviewing it, you find that the outcomes of a particular study are not in your favour, maybe in the methods they use so in a way, you'll find that you still have to critique that particular method and things like those. So yes, it just happens in my literature review.

**BM**: Alright, thank you. So still on citation, you find that when you use what we call integral citation, you include reporting verbs such as argues, reports, says, states, suggest and others. As you write, do you make a conscious choice of these reporting verbs or it just happens naturally or as habit or you don't really think much about it?

**Current ELM**: I don't really think much about it; I think it happens naturally because I will say "Parker reports that…" In the next paragraph I will say, "Parker suggests that…" It just depends on the point I am trying to put. I wouldn't say it's conscious, it just depends on the point I am trying to make.

**BM**: Okay. Still on reporting verbs, are you aware that they have what we call "evaluative effect" on whatever you are reporting? For an example, if you say "so and so claims", you are sort of distancing yourself because by saying "claim"; there are implications that maybe it is his own claim but I don't fully agree.  But if you say "so and so shows or demonstrates", you are sort of showing that you take whatever he says as the truth. Are you aware that different verbs can have different implications on what you are saying to show whether you are in agreement or whether you sort of distance yourself? Unless if you comment after that, "I agree with this" or "I think this suggestion is correct", if you end there, the reader might think you are just saying this as a suggestion. So, were you, maybe from your teachings, did you get that kind of information?

**Current ELM**: No.

**BM**: Okay, so you just pick them depending on how you want to use them?

**Current ELM**: Yes. I never realised that they do have that kind of impact on my point or what I'm trying to say and sometimes I do say "suggests that" and after that I comment but it's not because I am conscious that I have sort of distanced myself from what I am trying to say. It's interesting, I should look at that.

**BM**: Alright, thank you. The next question looks at how we incorporate citation in our own writing. We have integral citation where we start with the surname of the writer, for example, and we also have non-integral where you put all the details at the end. Maybe I can quote from this extract that I have "Matjama (2007:18) states", this is integral because this one is part of the sentence, the surname is like the subject of the sentence. But if you look at this one, the writer begins by giving us the points maybe from here up to the end then in brackets we have all the details surname, year and page. I think you know direct quotation, indirect ones and a mixture of both?

**Current ELM**: Yes, I do.

**BM**: Out of these forms, is there any ones or some of which you prefer or is there a mixture in your writing?

**Current ELM**: Uhm, I wouldn't say I prefer any but I try not to make too any direct quotations because we were taught to minimise as much as we can on direct quotations except where you feel that you have to put that point as it is. As for the other ones, no. I don't have a preference, it just depend on how I write.

**BM**: Alright. Is there any specific reason given by your lecturers or supervisor to why you should not use a lot of direct quotations?

**Current ELM**: I think the reason he gave…but I think this was undergraduate. I think the reason was that, when you put too many direct quotations, you don't show that you have learnt something, you don't show that you can argue or report in your own words, so we are encouraged to paraphrase.

**BM**: The next question is now on the part of my study which is called stance. By stance we are simply looking at how as a writer you take a position. Here we talk about hedges and boosters. For example, if you're not very certain of what you are reporting, you want to be tentative and say, "this finding may be an indication of this and this" or "this probably results from this and this", you're not very sure although this is what you have found but maybe the evidence is not very strong. But when you boost, you take a stance that 'this is correct', 'this is the exact thing', 'definitely', 'certainly', 'obviously'. So, when you write, do you sometimes find yourself using such words?

**Current ELM**: I do, but hedges not as much because I prefer to stand with whatever I found out even though I researched on it even if I don't agree much with the results. But the boosters, I use them a lot more than the hedges.

**BM**: Okay, what about attitude markers? These are words which clearly show your attitude. Maybe after reading some literature you find that the researcher is saying exactly the opposite of maybe the majority then you say that "surprisingly, interestingly, or this is important" or those other statements which clearly show your attitude?

**Current ELM**: Yes, I do use them.

**BM**: Okay, you sometimes use them. The next one is the use of the first-person pronoun, "I". Do you use this one in your dissertation?

**Current ELM**: I didn't in my first draft because I think we were taught not to; it was inappropriate then in my undergraduate. In my second draft, which was after a conference we had here for post graduates by professor…I don't remember his name. He told us that we should use the first-person pronoun to show that you own your work, to show that whatever you are researching on you are passionate about it and that you are part of it.

**BM**: Before that, what were the reasons given for prohibiting the use of the first-person "I"? Well, I know that in English department they've been prohibiting students from using it.

**Current ELM**: I don't remember the exact reason but I do know that we were prohibited.

**BM**: Ooh. Even myself before I started this study, I was also prohibiting my first-year students but now I have a different view after reading a lot.

**Current ELM**: After that conference we were talking with some of the lecturers here, we asked them "okay, so this is how we do it now?" and they told us that "Yes, things are changing, you should show some…". We laughed about how they should have told us sooner. Had there been not this presentation, we would have completed the study without having used the first-person pronoun.

**BM**: Yes, things have changed. So, before the conference, which forms were you using? Because you find that some people use "this work, the research, the study" or some way of hiding?

**Current ELM**: There was a lot of "the research, the researcher, the study", yes, that's what I used.

**BM**: Interesting. The next question, in your writing, do you sometimes think of your readers and try to involve them? I know it depends on the topic, by asking rhetorical question to arouse their interest or by using the inclusive pronoun "we". For example, "As we have seen in chapter two, a lot of research has been done on Chinese language…" where you are one author but writing to sort of include your readers? Other examples include; "See chapter one or see table 2.2 above". Have you experienced that?

**Current ELM**: Yes, I think in my undergrad mostly, not so much now.

**BM**: Yah, I think it's an uncommon feature in academic writing, you find it here and there.

**Current ELM**: I'm not sure if using "as it has been seen…", that's still including my readers but yes, that is what I use mostly.

**BM**: Yes, indirectly because it is sort of reminding them of what has been said or seen. At this point, I don't know if this applies to you now but do you think it's necessary when you are through with your work, to need services of a professional editor?

**Current ELM**: Yes, I think so because sometimes when you have been writing a lot, there are words you can miss and I think someone else can pick those mistakes up. I feel not necessarily a professional editor but anyone who can go through it. I think it's very important.

**BM**: Yah, that's very important. Okay, last one, considering what you have learnt at first year, because from our discussion, some of the knowledge of citing sources you learnt form first year, and also what you learnt in the methodology course, is there anything else that you feel postgraduate students must be taught in order to prepare them well for thesis writing? I have already picked the fact that one semester you feel it was not enough, you should have had this throughout the year. So besides that, anything you feel our department should do in order to improve our thesis writing as post graduates? Any suggestions you want to give us?

**Current ELM**: Um. In addition to what you have just said, that is very important. Again, I have just learned things I wasn't even aware that they make such an impact in my dissertation so those are some of the things I feel we need to be aware of. Some of my colleagues are having a tough time in writing their dissertations because they come from different faculties like the faculty of education, whereby they don't write a research but go for teaching practice so it's important to take such things into consideration. The person teaching must not come with the mentality that we all have some background in research methods. With this mentality, it becomes a challenge. And also, for some, it may have been years since their research days so it would be vital to assume that they don't know anything.

**BM**: Okay, what about these seminars, are they helpful?

**Current ELM**: Oh yes! Very. I think more of them would be…awesome! And also, something we discussed with Dr [name provided] that it would be helpful if presentations were made for every chapter of the dissertation. This would help some of us who have fear of public speaking and stage fright to sort of get used to speaking in front of people.

**BM**: So, in other words, you'll be the one organising your own seminars?

**Current ELM**: Yes. For instance, in our department we have not presented, others have and still they only presented when they were towards the end of their dissertations. I find this frustrating because only then do lecturers and colleagues make valuable points but you can't change much in that stage of a dissertation. And also, more organisation in that department would be very helpful.

**BM**: Okay, thank you so much for your helpful contribution. I hope those issues will be addressed in the near future.

**Interview with writer DSD2**

**BM**: What sort of teaching or guidance did you receive on dissertation writing as a new postgraduate student, particularly on the use of sources and citation style?

**DSD2**: I received teaching of some sort. My supervisor gave me some orientation on different approaches to thesis writing, and I was taught different styles of referencing both within the text and at the end of the thesis.

**BM**: Did your supervisor(s) at some point comment on your style of citing sources? In other words, did they make a direct input towards your citations?

**DSD2**: Yes, because at first, I had no idea how sources are incorporated in the text. My supervisors helped me to know about different referencing styles, e.g. Chicago and Harvard.

**BM**: As you were writing your dissertation/thesis, did you encounter any problems with citing sources? If you did, what are the problems?

**DSD2**: Yes, some problems included how to insert a page number where necessary. At first, I didn't know when to include a page number and when to exclude it until my supervisor corrected me.

**BM**: Why do you cite sources in your writing?

**DSD2**: I mainly cite sources to acknowledge the originator of the idea and also to avoid plagiarism.

**BM**: When you referred to other authors' ideas, did you make a conscious choice of reporting verbs? We use reporting verbs when introducing when reporting information from other sources, for example, one can say, 'M (2013) reported or argued that…". Still on reporting verbs, are you aware that reporting verbs can have evaluative effect on the reported proposition?

**DSD2**: No, I did not make a conscious choice of verbs, but I chose them subconsciously. I was not aware of the evaluative effect of the verbs, but today I have learned about how these verbs may impact on my writings.

**BM**: I see, the next question is on citation forms which you prefer and why you prefer them? Citation forms are different ways we use to incorporate other writers' work, in our own work. There is what is called integral citation where you begin with the surname of the author, followed by the reporting verb. Another way is to begin by giving a point or the information then in brackets you give the details as in this case. This writer just started with the idea, "It particularly focuses on this this this" then at the end gives us the name, the year and page. That's another way of doing it. These forms also include whether the information is a direct quote, a paraphrase or a combination of paraphrase and direct quote.

**DSD2**: I think I used all those forms in my work, but I prefer using non-integral citations with paraphrases because they show that I have understood the material that I'm quoting, but I sometimes use integral ones. As for direct quotes I use them where necessary like when quoting direct interviews by participants.

**BM**: As part of my study, I'm also investigating expression of stance by writers. This involves strategies used by writers to communicate somehow, how they feel about the ideas that would be writing. Hedges and boosters are some of the resources used to achieve this. Hedges are used when you're not fully committing yourself to an idea, for example, "may, possibly, sometimes" and boosters are used when you're are certain and you want to express a point with force, for instance, "definitely, certainly, without doubt". So, are there instances when you would hedge or boost your statements? If so, what were the reasons for doing that?

**DSD2**: I would often hedge my statements when I was not certain about the information, but boosting no. Boosting statements may invite criticism from my supervisors and readers if they hold different views from mine. Maybe if I used them, I didn't subconsciously without thinking much about it.

**BM**: Still to do with showing your position as a writer, there are also what are called attitude markers, 'interestingly', 'surprisingly', 'important', 'correct'. Do you recall any situation where you had to use such words in your writing to clearly show how you feel or your attitude towards what you are writing?

**DSD2**: No, I didn't use attitude markers because I feel they are not part of academic writing.

**BM**: Did you use first-person pronoun 'I' in your dissertation/thesis? If you did, what was the motivation behind the use?

**DSD2**: Yes, I used the pronoun 'I' in my writing because sometimes there was a need to emphasise certain issues for the reader to understand that I actually did something or was directly involved, for example, when explaining research procedures under methodology.

**BM**: Did you make an effort to involve your readers in your argument, e.g. by asking them questions or referring them to some part(s) of your dissertation/thesis?

**DSD2**: Yes, I involved readers, who are mainly students, by referring them to some sections of my thesis so that they have a better understanding of what I would be writing. Students are my prime readers because ultimately, they are the ones who will frequently read my thesis during their research or studies. I also did that to avoid repeating the information that I would have written in earlier parts of the thesis.

**BM**: Was your work edited by a professional editor or someone else besides you? If so, did the editor(s) make an input towards your writing in connection with citations?

**DSD2**: My thesis was edited by Professor Love and she corrected my citation where I had failed to do so.

**BM**: Are there specific aspects of academic writing that you think postgraduates should be taught to prepare them for thesis writing?

**DSD2**: There are a number of areas that I feel our postgraduate students should receive assistance. The first one is sentence construction. I think some of them should be taught how to construct grammatical sentences as part of their first lectures because their grammar is poor. The second thing that they should be taught is use of active voice in writing; in our discipline of development studies, we use active voice. The last thing which I think needs attention is in text referencing. A number of students don't know which details to include and when to put the author's name in brackets and when to put it outside brackets.

## Interview with writer ELD1

**BM**: Would you please inform me about your previous program or your Master's program that you completed before you enrolled for PhD. What was your area of study and who supervised it and when you completed it?

**ELD1**: MA was…ah… supervised by Professor [name provided], it was on compounding; it was on word formation processes. I completed 2008.

**BM**: Considering that you completed your MA in 2008 and then started your PhD, was there any teaching or guidance that you received on dissertation writing as a new postgraduate student, particularly on the use of sources and citation style?

**ELD1**: No, no.

**BM**: Did your supervisor(s) at some point comment on your style of citing sources? In other words, did they make a direct input towards your citations?

**ELD1**: Yes, my supervisor did…eeh…comment. She did comment on my style of citing, especially on the preferred style when you are quoting from a multi-authored kind of source whereby you have more than one author for a source, because from my Masters studies that's where we were introduced to courses, to kind of training on writing. So, for my PhD I was using what I gathered from that level, but my supervisor being a different person now had her own way, I think. That is why she had to comment here and there, though it wasn't that different, but to make me aware of new maybe new conventions which had to be considered like use of op cit. stuff like that.

**BM**: meaning that you received some training or some teaching during your Master's program.

**ELD1**: Oh yes, I did. Why did I think that you were referring to the PhD for the first question? But for Masters yes, I received some teaching.

**BM**: Ok, yah, you're right; I was referring to the PhD, but now I'm following up your response. I've learnt that you had actually received some teaching during your MA, so it helped you now as you proceeded with you PhD.

**ELD1**: Yah.

**BM**: Ok, I see, and then the supervisor had to help you correct here and there on citation.

**ELD1**: Um.

**BM**: And the next question is: as you were writing your dissertation/thesis, did you encounter any problems with citing sources? If you did, what are the problems?

**ELD1**: Yah, there were some challenges because in this digital era you use more online sources than print, and you find that some elements which are expected to be in the bibliographic details, because you now have to cite an author, and it's not quite clear how to present such point. For example, if there is no date, how do you present such a source without a date, and if there is no page, things like that because once it is a direct quotation, you're expected to show a date and page, and if such is not there you kind of become confused as to how appropriate the information should be presented.

**BM**: So, it was mainly to do with internet sources.

**ELD1**: It was to do with internet sources. Yes, it was internet sources because for print most of the time you find them available; details that are needed you find them available in the book.

**BM**: So, considering that challenge, how did you manage it?

**ELD1**: By referring, by sharing that challenge with my supervisor, then agreed on how to go about it.

**BM**: Yah, because it looks like it's a fairly recent source of information and the way authors or writers cite it, there tend to be more variations compared to the traditional text books and the like.

**BM**: Now we are looking at the reasons why you cited sources in your writing? Can you tell me some of the reasons why you cited sources? Here I just pulled out two pages from your very first chapter, the Introduction, so that we can use them as an example.

**ELD1**: Eeh…I guess eeh… that's a very straightforward question, being a communication skills lecturer, reasons for citing a source are clearly written because I also advise my students to do that because I know it is important to cite. You cite to support, you cite to establish your standing point because you don't want to, no, not that you don't want, but you cite because you want to get support of what you're saying. You cite because you would have used people's writings. You've got to acknowledge because you do not want to plagiarise; we know the disadvantage of plagiarising. These people that you cite from, you would have used them to inform your statement and to inform your writing as a whole so you need to be showing them; you need to cite them because these are the people who have helped you to critique your eh eh eh , your stand point as well. And as a linguist I know that there is no (academic) text which is 100% original. Each writing, mine not being an exception, has been influenced by previous writings so I need to cite. I need people's writings and once I've used them, I have to cite so that I acknowledge and appreciate their writings.

**BM**: So, you've pointed out the issue of acknowledging sources to support your points of view. Can I briefly take you to your work and just pick one or two citations? If we can look at those first two citations so that you can tell me that when I cited this, I specifically wanted to do this; whether you were supporting a point or you were just acknowledging a source since you had used the information for defining, for example.

**ELD1**: If you're looking at the first Matjama (author), if you realise that the first statement was introducing post-apartheid and the citation is used to support that statement. The second one by Reah (author)…um…the second one by Reah even though I've forgotten this now, but by just mere looking at it, Reah is supporting what Matjama said about apartheid regime. That is why…eeh…those two actually followed one another because when we look at the third sentence, "The situation did not only affect the content of what should be broadcasted but also the words..." which means the situation is referring to what Matjama talked about the apartheid regime, so this second one by Reah is supporting what Matjama has said.

**BM**: Still on functions of citation, would you feel sometimes after reading literature, and then you're using the information in your writing, are there points or situations where you would feel like criticising what the author said?

**ELD**1: Yes, yes it does happen because even though you're citing somebody, you're citing somebody, like I said in the previous question of why, sometimes you cite because you're critiquing another person's writing or your own point of view. Whatever you've read does not necessarily support what you're saying; maybe it goes against it in some aspect, so you'll be critically looking or trying to connect the two views. So, it did happen that sometimes I would feel that no, there is more, from my own point of view which might be different from what my source says.

**BM**: The last point related to citations is that you find that there are different reasons why we cite as writers, including acknowledging sources, support, critiquing, which we have already mentioned here, background and others. So generally, from how you used your sources, for which function do you think you mostly used those sources?

**ELD1**: Ah…using.... (Interruption by a colleague). I really cannot say, I really cannot say because almost eh eh eh, I used citation almost throughout for almost everything that I had written about, whether it was for arguing, for what, for what, so I can't really say like…eeh… supporting, that I quoted more when I was supporting than when I was critiquing. So, I can't pin down the most reason.

**BM**: When you referred to other authors' ideas, did you make a conscious choice of reporting verbs? Are you aware that reporting verbs can have evaluative effects on the reported proposition?

**ELD1**: To some extent I think so, but not that much, but to some extent maybe, yah…uum…that I made a deliberate choice that this one I should say "support" because actually this one is to support what I'm saying. But I don't think I'm very very particular on those reporting verbs. I try as much as I can, but like I'm saying not 100%.

**BM**: Are you aware that reporting verbs can evaluate or have some evaluative effect?

**ELD1**: Uum…uum…uum, I know, I was aware of that, but when you're a student, no matter how old you're, there are some things that you don't, you don't…eeh…do with full consciousness even though they should be done. I think being under the umbrella of being a student, because when you finish that journey you now see things differently and you want people to do things differently, which mean you were aware but for you, you did not pay much attention. But I do agree with you because this is what I've realised.

**BM**: Yah, because when we write it normally happens like we're just talking. Sometimes you don't really think about something so much.

**BM**: And looking at the fact that there are different ways of incorporating other writers' ideas into our own work, which citation forms do you prefer and why? (Integral, non-integral, summary/paraphrase, direct quotes, and a combination of paraphrase + direct quote).

**ELD1**: For me I think I, I use, I don't have a preferred form because I try as much as I can to avoid monotony. So, I think in an attempt to do that I try to vary myself, I mean my writing. As you can see from this very one, in one paragraph you see I tried that integral that we've talked about, but the one that follows immediately is a non-integral. I'm trying to vary them because I try to avoid monotony.

**BM**: And still on the forms of writing do you think maybe there is one form which we mostly use in our writing or which you mostly used in your writing, maybe for some reason. For example, did you use more summaries and paraphrases than the direct ones or a mixture?

**ELD1**: I use a mixture but I do not like direct quotations that much, so even though it would be a mixture but my writing is more of paraphrasing than direct quotes.

**BM**: Why don't you like direct quotes?

**ELD1**: It does not have that voice aspect that I like. It's not, that's not my voice; I'm actually copying somebody's voice. That is why I don't like direct quotes. For me it's more stylistic than communicating you know. It's funny. Direct writing is more stylistic for me than communicative that is why I do not use it that much.

**BM**: We're now moving on to another segment of my research. I look at citations, I also look at stance; how we express our attitude towards the propositions that we cite, how we evaluate them. There are ways of doing that in writing besides citations themselves. Are there instances when you would hedge or boost your statements? If so, what were the reasons for doing that?

**ELD1**: You know as a student, as much as you'd be thinking that you know what you're talking about, but you're a student; you're learning. And there are people who are more, who are experts on what you're talking about, so I don't think it would be wise for you to place yourself in a tight corner of sounding as if you know all, which means that your writing, somehow, should be cautious so that you avoid that element of overconfidence because you may be disappointed. So, I do hedge when I write for that very reason.

**BM**: What about boosting; would you feel in some instances that you should boost?

**ELD1**: Well, I can't deny that but I don't remember instances where I did that, but I can't deny that maybe there are areas whereby you feel very sure of what you're saying and you really can stand up to it.

**BM**: It's interesting that you've pointed out that as a student you want to be careful; you don't want to sound very certain because you're not sure whether the reader, especially your supervisor in this case will agree with you.

**BM**: Still on stance markers, there are also words and expressions we call attitude markers. They're still related to these hedges and boosters because they also express your position or standpoint, e.g. 'surprisingly this one says what is contrary to that one'. Did you use attitude markers to clearly show your attitude towards the propositions that you cited?

**ELD1**: I avoid those 'me Bertha you know ['me is a Sesotho term of address for women]. Even now as a lecturer, I avoid making, I insist on making students aware of avoiding such, because to me it is too emotional and it is making your writing somehow personal. Rather I use the word 'touched' when you're touched or when you get too much into your writing. I believe an academic writing should be a detached kind of exercise where you do not personally get absorbed, so words like those, well, it depends, I'm not talking about all markers. But for example, if I take the 'surprising' that you're talking about, surprising to who; to you as the writer? And you're surprised that so and so could think like that while you're thinking like that? How can somebody write like this when it's so clear that it shouldn't be like that? That is why I said I avoid attitude markers. I avoid them; at the same time there are cases where they are necessary.

**BM**: Yah, because there are some like 'it is important'.

**ELD1**: I remember that, that is why my undergraduate and MA supervisor would say, "If it is important to you, why do you think it is also important to me?" that is what she would say. "It should be noted that this and that", Yah, I use that but with caution.

**BM**: Did you use first-person pronouns in your thesis writing?

**ELD1**: Rarely, rarely, I did that but rarely.

**BM**: For example, the first-person pronoun 'I' or maybe you would rather use other forms because there are noun phrases such as 'the researcher', 'the writer'.

**ELD**1: That is why I'm saying rarely, but I prefer third person reference, those like "the researcher" and that is also what I got from my...when I was doing undergraduate and postgraduate training for my Masters when I was presenting my proposal. That is one point that I'll always remember. They made me, they made us aware to avoid the use of "I" and instead go for the neutral ones.

**BM**: Did they explain during the research why they discouraged the use of "I"?

**ELD1**: They said you're not yet an authority to what you're writing; that was the only reason.

**BM**: So, they recommended you would rather use 'the researcher', 'this study'.

**ELD1**: Um.

**BM**: The next question is on the third and last segment of my research, which is engagement. I'm now looking at the involvement of readers. Did you make an effort in your writing to involve your anticipated readers in your argument, e.g. by asking them questions or referring them to some part(s) of your dissertation/thesis?

**ELD1**: One would understand that, there is this example that I'm thinking of, if that is what you're looking for and rhetoric questions as well. I think I'm right to use those as a way of involving my readers.

**BM**: So, you were conscious of your readers as you were writing. I know there are two, let me categorise them as two groups of readers. There is your supervisor and other readers in your area of study who would read your work like me. Which reader mattered most at the time of your thesis compilation?

**ELD1**: Not supervisor really, the role of the supervisor when you're writing this kind of writing is clear and is limited, but you know that after that, she won't even go back to your thesis so there is that broader audience that you've actually written for. So, I think, eeh the supervisor at some point will know that if ever there will be such a moment, she'll be part of that broad audience. So, I do not think that I consciously wrote for the supervisor.

**BM**: Was your work edited by a professional editor or someone else besides you? If so, did the editor(s) make an input towards your writing in connection with citations?

**ELD1**: Yes, yes.

**BM**: If it was, did that editor(s) make an input as far as your writing is concerned, especially with your citations?

**ELD1**: Um, um, they did. They did because writing a voluminous thing like this one, you're likely to make mistakes. Even if you're so sure that this is the style that you've used, there'll always be somewhere where you'll go wrong and it is that third eye which will make you aware that this is wrong; it's better to have this one.

**BM**: So, it was mainly to do with the citation style itself?

**ELD1**: Yes, style also, the style and the mistakes in the style that you've decided to use.

**BM**: But did they say anything to do with, for example, the use of reporting verbs like recommend this instead of that?

**ELD1**: Yes, yes even that, they did that.

**BM**: The last question: considering what you experienced during your thesis writing process, and considering that when you started this academic journey you didn't receive any specific training, are there specific aspects of academic writing that you think postgraduates should be taught to prepare them for thesis writing?

**ELD1**: 'Me Bertha really, for somebody like me, who has been a lecturer for quite a long time on the writing skills which you're now focusing on, I don't know if it'll be proper to talk about challenges, you know, as a major issue because for me I was aware of what I should be doing. But of course, eh now if I have to reverse my role and now think of me as a lecturer teaching students, then I'm quite aware because I realise from their writings that they do need training. So, you see, I'll be approaching this question from that level, that's when I can respond.

**BM**: So, for you it was better because you were a student, but already a communication skills lecturer (interruption). We were talking about what you would recommend for teaching, considering even what you're experiencing with your supervisees.

**ELD1**: That eem, reporting manner, our students do not, do not write well. They do not write well in terms of differentiating different sentence constructions. If you're going direct this is how you've got to construct your sentence. If you're going indirectly, this is how. If you're intending to pose this as a question; if you're… you know all those, they're not aware of how to do them. So, I think that's the kind of training that they need to prepare them to write constructive sentences which have followed grammar rules. The very reporting verbs that you've asked me about, our students are not aware of them. For them it is almost "state, state, state" throughout so they can be made aware of such things.

**Interview with current ELD1 student who had just submitted his thesis**

**BM**: As a starting point, would you please tell me about your previous research, the MA one. What did you research on for your MA?

**Current ELD1**: For my MA I was researching on culture and identity.

BM: Who supervised you during MA?

**Current ELD1**: I was co-supervised by Professor [name provided] and then Dr [name provided].

BM: Oh, ok, so you maintained your supervisors? I see. And coming to your PhD, what is your topic or your area of research?

**Current ELD1**: My area is basically on the use of the internet in reading and learning literature.

**BM**: Oh, that's interesting.

**Current ELD1**: whether it enhances that reading or it negates it. I am looking at the learners' and lecturers' perceptions of the internet in learning literature, and also the way in which the internet shapes the metaphoric language of literature or the metaphoric language shapes the internet.

**BM**: So maybe looking at both of your postgraduate studies, your MA and your PhD, did you receive any teaching or guidance on dissertation writing as a new postgraduate student, particularly to do with use of sources or citation style or any other issues to do with academic writing.

**Current ELD1**: Ah, I think…eeh… I received a lot of assistance on citation styles, how to quote, how to edit, I mean from start to finish I received it, starting with proposal, doing the data collection, carrying on with the writing. And sometimes I would receive it from supervisors. At first when it was taught, I thought it was play, but once I entered into the supervision and I met my supervisors then it began to bear fruits, especially because the person who taught me that was neither of the supervisors and is not here even now. When I was commencing my studies that is when I realised how important that was.

**BM**: So, was this taught in a formal course like research methods or it was just some tuition you received from mentors or lecturers?

**Current ELD1**: I don't know how to call it, but it was in some arranged departmental postgraduate workshops. It was not an examinable course; it was those workshops.

**BM**: Ok, I see, and looking at the time now when you were writing your thesis, your PhD thesis, did your supervisors at some point comment on your style of citing sources. In other words, did they sort of make some input directly into your citations?

**Current ELD1**: One did, but a little. One of them commented that "don't mix different styles of citation". The other comment was "don't quote from one source twice in one paragraph or something like that". But apart from that there isn't much.

**BM**: But generally, looking at the whole process of your thesis writing, did you encounter any problems with citing sources?

**Current ELD1**: I think I would say I didn't meet challenges because where I'm working at LCE (Lesotho College of Education), I also work part time at IEMS, the course I teach at LCE and IEMS deals strictly with citation and it's the whole course, citing newspapers, journals, online sources. So, I think it is right at my fingertips, and at IEMS we've even received training by the Commonwealth, by UNISA on how to cite sources. I've specifically dealt with that course for their MED program at IEMS and I teach strictly citing sources.

**BM**: Ok, so this helped you a lot as were writing your thesis.

**Current ELD1**: This helped me a lot; it helped a lot.

**BM**: Still on citing, why did you cite sources in your writing? Would you say some of the reasons why you cited sources in your thesis?

**Current ELD1**: There are traditional reasons. One is to avoid plagiarism, which we all want to avoid, but basically what I acquired through my professional career was to give credit to the work that you're benefiting from. Yah, to say this is the work I was looking at, this is how beneficiary it has been. I learnt there is nothing that impresses writers like acknowledging their sources. You know even if you've plagiarised them a lot of work, but once here and there you've acknowledged that you've read the work, that also impresses people who have written the work. Apart from that it even strengthens your own work. You know, when you quote from let's say Chinua Achebe or whoever is the author, you're sort of aspiring to that person. People who hear you quoting that sort of listen to your work as though they were listening to that highly esteemed person unlike if you were to talk on your own, they would say, "ah this is Bertha, we can't even listen to her", but if you start quoting Buchi and Chedar for example, they'll say "ah, let's listen to what she's saying".

**BM**: Still on these reasons, did you sometimes feel like you wanted to criticise a certain point from an author or maybe all the time you were just using them to support or to strengthen your argument?

**Current ELD1**: I used to support and also to critique because I feel even when you're critiquing, contrasting a certain author, you're sort of still strengthening your own argument. To say "so so looks at this this but I think it's wrong, the right way is this one" it also strengthens your work.

**BM**: The next question is still related to citing. When you referred to other authors' ideas, did you make a conscious choice of reporting verbs? Or related to this, are you aware that reporting verbs can have evaluative effect on the reported proposition? Do you do it consciously or it just happens without reflecting on it?

**Current ELD1**: I think I did it consciously; I always do it consciously as you can see those reporting verbs there (pointing at a list of reporting verbs posted on his door).

**BM**: I remember you once told me about these reporting verbs that you were given by your supervisor as some guideline on how to choose appropriate reporting verbs in your writing.

**Current ELD1**: Yah, I did it consciously. I'm not sure if they're the ones you're referring to.

**BM**: Um, this is what I'm referring to because I can see reporting verbs for acquisition of knowledge, enhancement of… which means you actually think about it and see whether the verb is suitable.

**BM**: Our next question is on citation forms. By citation forms I'm referring to what we call integral, I think you know that.

**Current ELD1**: Yah, I know that.

**BM**: Now I can quote saying Kolobe (2017) reports that… where I make your name the subject of the sentence or maybe I can just borrow your idea and at the end I put your details in brackets, and sometimes

you find that as authors we even mix, here you make a direct quote, here you paraphrase. Do you have any preference?

**Current ELD1**: I prefer direct quotes. Personally, I prefer direct quotes.

**BM**: OK, you prefer direct quotes.

**Current ELD1**: Yah, unless when I'm trying to critique, to differ with the work that I want to refer to, but whenever I think it is in agreement with what I'm saying I prefer direct quote.

**BM**: Is there any specific reason why you prefer direct quotes?

**Current ELD1**: Because, so that you don't misinterpret the person that you're quoting. Again, I've a fear that if you, any writer who offers paraphrases, you're likely to reproduce the work that you're quoting. I think your work is hiding behind the work you're paraphrasing but if you were to stick to your own voice and then you later support with direct quotations.

**BM**: You make sure you represent the author correctly and you don't somehow steal the work pretending it is yours?

**Current ELD1**: Yah.

**BM**: Yes, is it because paraphrasing normally gives challenges. You end up reproducing almost the same thing changing a few words here and there but still it's the same thing?

**Current ELD1**: Um.

**BM**: Our seventh question focuses stance because my study is in three parts: citation, which looks at these citing practices we were discussing, then stance is to do with the evaluation of the quoted information or even your own ideas how you evaluate them. Whether you're presenting them as facts or maybe you're a bit careful; you're not very sure and you don't want to sound very certain so this is where we use hedges and boosters. So, as you were writing, did you in some cases use hedges or maybe boosters for your points when you were confident?

**Current ELD1**: I would use hedges sometimes. In some instances, you don't want to sound very certain of an assumption that you can't even prove yah.

**BM**: Ok, so you would use hedges in that case.

**Current ELD1**: Yes.

**BM**: What about boosters; did you sometimes feel like you have to use words like 'certainly', 'definitely', 'obviously', 'no doubt'?

**Current ELD1**: I didn't use those. I didn't use those honestly because you use it today; tomorrow when you look at it again you say I shouldn't have said this.

**BM**: So, you would rather be careful with the way you present your information.

**Current ELD1**: Yah

**BM**: Ok, I see. And the next one is still to do with stance. Did you use attitude markers to clearly show your attitude towards the ideas that you cite or even your own points? Attitude markers are those statements like where you say, 'this is important', surprisingly'.

**Current ELD1**: Yah, I used them. We normally call them 'sign posting'; I use them.

**BM**: Ok, so how did you find them useful as you write to use those sign posts?

**Current ELD1**: because they sort of take your reader and put the reader into your own shoes. The reader will travel with you in your path.

**BM**: Ok, I see. And the next question still to do with your stance is the use of the first-person pronoun 'I'. I know it's controversial, especially in the teaching of academic writing as some lecturers discourage learners from using the first-person, some don't mind, some encourage them that "it's your view so say it". So, do you use it in your thesis?

**Current ELD1**: I also didn't use it until my…, the person who was proofreading my work was the one who suggested that, but I had already finished when he said maybe you want to say with your PhD you may want to say 'I', use the first-person for some of those suggestions you made. But then it was already too late, I was tired and I even asked him if he could check the work for the use of the word 'one' and then cancel it and write 'I'.

**BM**: So, it's the person who edited your work who suggested the use of 'I'?

**Current ELD1**: Yes, but as I said by that time, I didn't want any association with the thesis. I wanted it thrown away so I instructed him to try and find where he could substitute, but then it also messed my dissertation.

**BM**: So which form were you using? I know most people when they avoid 'I' there are various ways; you can talk about 'the study' or 'the researcher', indirect ways of referring to yourself.

**Current ELD1**: I used 'the study'.

**BM**: Ok, you were using the study, I see. Ok, that's interesting because this is always controversial in academic writing, and sometimes you find that it depends with disciplines.

**Current ELD1**: But I think 'I' is better; at this level of PhD, I thought 'I' is better.

**BM**: And did you make an effort to involve your readers in your argument? This is the third part of my research. Besides looking at citation practices, how you evaluate your information, I also look at how, as writers, we try to bring in readers or to make them part of our argument, for example, by using rhetorical questions or even the solidarity 'we'.

**Current ELD1**: I didn't use them in my thesis because I thought they would not be acceptable in my writing; I will only use them in my defense. I will use them in my defense, but for writing I didn't use them.

**BM**: What about referring your readers to certain parts of your thesis like 'see chapter 1'?

**Current ELD1**: Yah that one I did; that one I did.

**BM**: Yes, it's part of reader engagement; that one you used it, ok.

**Current ELD1**: Yah I would refer them to chapter 2; I would refer them to chapter 1; I would say something and say "this is elaborated in chapter 5".

**BM**: Which means there are some markers which you avoid like the rhetorical questions, like the 'we', but you use this one of guiding them to certain parts of your work.

**Current ELD1**: Yah.

**BM**: Ok, I see.

**Current ELD1**: Why were you referring them to some parts of your work; any specific reason?

**BM**: I think it was also helping me in the writing as I was trying to establish a link between several chapters, trying to make them look one.

**BM**: So you would relate the work referring readers to certain parts?

**Current ELD1**: Um, um.

**BM**: Our next question, I think I partly have an answer from what we've been discussing. Was your work edited by a professional editor or someone else besides you?

**Current ELD1**: It was; it was.

**BM**: Did that editor(s) make an input towards your writing in connection with citations or any other aspect of academic writing practices?

**Current ELD1**: No, except the use of 'I' and other professionally or publishing related issues. That is where he did make a lot of input, but in terms of academic writing style, um I think he didn't make a lot of input. I assume that since I come from English department, so that he didn't touch it and unfortunately, I thought he would touch there so he ignored it and I also ignored it and it nearly made a mess to my work, but other publishing finishing touches I think he did a good job. He made a lot of good suggestions.

**BM**: And the last question now, looking at the experience that you had from your thesis writing, right from the beginning to the end, are there specific aspects of academic writing that you think postgraduates should be taught to prepare them for thesis writing.

**Current ELD1**: Yah, yah, in the area of reporting and action verbs. I think there are a lot of academics here who do not know the use of action verbs. You can even see this in the departmental meetings (laughing) when we are discussing question papers. You think you've actually phrased your question properly, somebody who knows nothing about your question thinks it's wrong. I think both undergraduates and their supervisors should be taught these verbs. I think they should be taught the proper action verbs. I think we should also teach citation of online sources; it seems the department, especially your unit (Communication & Study Skills), is overlooking online sources which the students are now using more than any other source.

**BM**: And they're readily available than traditional sources.

**Current ELD1**: Yah, they're readily available, but when we teach them citation skills, we still refer them to the books. Even here some lecturers are discouraging students from using sources like Wikipedia. I think it still has to be taught; how to evaluate online information. What are the criteria to be used; how can you recognise a good online source. What links are there to tell that this is a good or bad source irrespective of whether it is Google scholar or Wikipedia or Wiki how or Wiki what? I still think we need that.

**Interview with current ELD2 student**

**BM**: What sort of teaching or guidance did you receive on dissertation writing as a new postgraduate student, particularly on the use of sources and citation style?

**Current ELD2**: None, I don't remember receiving any teaching or guidance on academic writing or even citation style.

**BM**: Did your supervisor(s) at some point comment on your style of citing sources? In other words, did they make a direct input towards your citations?

**Current ELD2**: Yes, they complained that I was mixing two citing styles, Harvard and APA so I should use one style only and be consistent.

**BM**: As you are writing your thesis, have you encountered any problems with citing sources? If you have, what are the problems?

**Current ELD2**: Yes, I did. First of all, I had problems citing sources with more than three authors; I didn't know whether to write all the names or the first one only. Secondly, some authors have difficult long names, for example, Chinese writers, and with others it's difficult to tell which one is the first name. Lastly, I had problems with citing sources that are cited by another author; I didn't know how exactly to include such things in my work.

**BM**: Ok, so how did you overcome those citation problems?

**Current ELD2**: My supervisors just indicate where there is a problem and then I have to find out how to correct it.

**BM**: I see. The next question is: why do you cite sources in your writing?

Current ELD2: I mainly cite sources to provide evidence or proof to support my ideas.

**BM**: When you referred to other authors' ideas, did you make a conscious choice of reporting verbs? Are you aware that reporting verbs can have evaluative effect on the reported proposition?

**Current ELD2**: Sometimes yes, I choose reporting verbs consciously, but other times I use them subconsciously. But I'm aware of the impact or implications they make in my ideas.

**BM**: Which citation forms do you prefer and why? (Integral, non-integral, summary/paraphrase, direct quotes, and a combination of paraphrase + direct quote).

**Current ELD2**: I prefer paraphrasing the information that I cite from other writers because it shows a thorough understanding of what I read. It also enables me to make my own interpretation.

**BM**: Are there instances when you would hedge or boost your statements? If so, what were the reasons for doing that?

**Current ELD2**: I use hedges if I'm not 100% sure of the information or what is in the discussion. As for boosters I'm not using them yet, maybe later when I have collected enough data to conclude that 'something is like this'.

**BM**: Did you use attitude markers to clearly show your attitude towards the propositions that you cited?

**Current ELD2**: I have not used attitude markers in my writing because they are not allowed in academic writing.

**BM**: Did you use first-person pronoun 'I' in your dissertation/thesis? If you did, what was the motivation behind the use?

**Current ELD2**: No, I'm not using the first-person pronoun 'I' in my writing.

**BM**: Why are you not using it?

**Current ELD2**: I'm not using it because the academic orientation that I received during my undergraduate studies informed me that using the first-person pronoun 'I' is not academic style; it is personal and informal.

As a result of this teaching, I avoid it for my work to be objective. I would rather use 'the study' or 'the researcher'.

**BM**: Did you make an effort to involve your readers in your argument, e.g. by asking them questions or referring them to some part(s) of your dissertation/thesis?

**Current ELD2**: So far, I've used engagement markers to a lesser degree, but I'm hoping to use more at a later stage of my writing.

**BM**: After completing your work, will you send it for editing by a professional editor or someone else besides you?

**Current ELD2**: So far, my supervisors are doing the editing as they mark my work, and they make an input as they do that. If I'm to send the work for editing, I prefer an editor in my field who is familiar with the discourse so that they will not distort my work.

**BM**: Are there specific aspects of academic writing that you think postgraduates should be taught to prepare them for thesis writing?

**Current ELD2**: I suggest that postgraduate students be taught the following before they begin thesis writing: citation or referencing, how to edit your own work, and how to work out a theoretical framework.

## Interview with DS Supervisor 1

**BM**: Thank you very much DS Supervisor 1. Would you please give me some background of your supervising experience; for how long you've done this, and how you supervise your students in general?

**DSS1**: Um, that's an interesting question. Eh, let me say, now that I reflect on this, I think it will be fair to say that my supervising experience goes as far back as the 1980s when I left NUL, eh because I left NUL with Development studies and History as my majors and then I went to teach at a high school level where I taught History and Development studies. One of the features of development studies since it was introduced in this country as a subject is the research element. Even at high school level, students do projects. The projects are not as intensive as they are for our 4th year students here, but they do projects and they're supervised. So, when I started teaching in 1982, eh part of my job was supervising development studies students' projects at high school level. But if we are to talk exclusively about the university experience, still it goes back to the late 1980s, because I joined NUL in 1988 to teach DS. Now one of the distinguishing features of DS since then up to now, and I still sort of brag about this, is the project. We have a course by the name DS401; it's a research project. This is a project that students do for the whole academic year. In the past, we used to make it a point that students eh would start working on their project at the end of third year. So soon after examinations just like now we've ended the examinations, they would start working on their projects and they would be collecting data. But, of course, with the problems that NUL has gone through that has sort of slowly slide downwards such that these days our students only begin their projects in the middle of the first semester, which does them a lot of injustice. So, at that time, it used to be the case that, at the end of examinations, 3rd year students, eh prospective 4th year students would start working on their projects. It used to be the case that, come December, students would have finished collecting data. It used to be the case that by the 31st of March students would have completed their projects. So, we were quite systematic, eh and that is where my supervision experience comes from. That's for undergraduate, but for graduate studies, eh we started in the mid-2000s; I can't remember exactly when. I think I do have a note of that in this document here. We probably started in 2006 or so with a diploma, eh then later on we started with Masters. We introduced a graduate diploma in the 2008/2009 academic year, whilst the Master of Arts program was introduced the following year. Since then, we've been running this MA program, and each year we are supervising students. Our students start their research in the second year. Our program is basically 2 years; I think it is 18 months but it often extends into 2nd year. Second year that's when they do their research, so that's how we run this and that's perhaps how far my experience goes with supervision.

**BM**: So, you have a very long supervision experience.

**DSS1**: Yah, so to say.

**BM**: In your department when you admit these MA students, what sort of processes do they go through before selection and straight after acceptance? Do you sort of test them to see if they'll cope with the studies or you just look at the qualifications?

**DSS1**: Frankly, we just look at the qualifications. So, they apply on the basis of academic qualifications that are spelled out in the program, and we take it from there. It's only in the cases where we admit a person with eh not quite the criteria we set out, academic qualifications we set out, but with what we consider to be an equivalent, so in that case we do conduct an aptitude test or in the form of an interview. Eh, because one of the things about any field of study as we know is that it has its own jargon and we would like to see or to assess how familiar a student is with the jargon of Development, and also the extent to which such a person is familiar with the leading authorities in the field. So, it is only in that regard that we do conduct some assessment and we have not had many cases like that.

**BM**: To what extent do your new and continuing students receive some teaching or guidance on dissertation writing, particularly on the use of sources and citation style? Maybe looking at the course that you are now offering to your students, is dissertation writing or citing sources part of the content of that course?

**DSS1**: Yes, it is. Eh, but I must also mention that, previously, what we used to emphasise on was the issue of proposal writing and not so much dissertation writing. Dissertation writing only featured in the context of someone, and invariably that would be a person teaching proposal writing. Eh, someone outlining the main items, the main sections, the standard sections of a dissertation, eh but the process of writing itself, is something the people learn out of doing, yes. Eh, and definitely this is something that also comes with experience. Most of our students, unfortunately, read in order to prepare themselves for exams, and I see a lot of this even at graduate level. Our students do not become habitual readers so to say, eh they do not regard reading as a vocation, but they read because they're preparing for a test, they're preparing for an assignment. So, I think something gets lost there. So, the idea of an exam is still sitting very firmly in their minds and I think it influences the way they read, and ultimately even the way they cite material. One of the elements that I have seen over the years for both undergraduates and graduate students is that generally, our students fail to internalise what they have read. Eh, these verbs, what did you call them, the verbs?

**BM**: The reporting verbs.

**DSS1**: These reporting verbs are done in most cases not consciously, but out of eh habit. When they say, ah "Stefan argues that …" in a number of cases it will not be an argument that Stefan actually advances, but it will be a small paragraph that they happen to come across, so again I think even reading strategies, we still have to train our students. A lot of times our students don't read the material from the beginning to the end. When you give them an article, journal article, they just look at it and sometimes they look at the abstract; they simply refer to what appears in the abstract and that is it. The practice or the good habit of reading material from A to Z is generally not there. So, I think that academic side of things is largely missing in our students, and whether it has to do with the way we teach them, whether it has to do with the way the system operates at NUL, frankly I don't know. One of the problems which I think is a recurring one that our students at undergraduate level face again is the fact that they don't have enough time to read. Their timetables are literary packed; they're running from one class to the other throughout the day and by the time they get to the evening they are tired. They can't even read. Eh I think that also negatively affects the ability to do things right for our students. So that is how I would respond to that question.

**BM**: Ok, so considering your observations you've been explaining, when supervising your students, do you sometimes correct your postgraduate students' citing styles, for example, recommending or discouraging use of certain citation forms and reporting verbs? And related to that question, do you have a specified citing style as a department?

**DSS1**: That's one weakness that we have as a department. We've been talking about it. We're going to develop one. Eh, there was a point, somewhere along the way where we almost had something but for undergraduates, but with time we've abandoned that. So, we're trying to bring those things together once again; so, we don't have a uniform standard way of citation as such. Eh, largely our students do the citation not according to the departmental preference, but according to the preference of individual supervisors, so that's why you find variations in the citation styles. My personal preference is the Turabian style partly

because there is a historian in me, so I like footnotes. So, to answer this question, we don't have any standard method, but corrections, yes, we do that a lot or I do that a lot.

**BM**: The next question I think you've already touched on that, but maybe you could give me a summary of some of the common problems that you have observed in your graduate students' writing.

**DSS1**: Yah, that's right, but one of the elements which I still don't understand why the graduate level it still happens is that there is a lot of informality creeping into the academic world these days. Whether it is a result of technology, it is a result of social media, I don't know. What I have observed over the past 5 years, especially from the South African context is that increasingly people are being addressed by their first names. So, Professor Joseph Stephens would be called Professor Joseph. That's very common these days, very very common, and I think because these students are getting to school when these things are happening, they adopt it, so even at graduate level you still have to reteach them that kind of thing. Frankly, where it is coming from, I don't know. It could be that the reasons are good, maybe I'm not aware of that, but there is a lot of informalisation of academic work, yes. And you actually pick it even in citations. So that's one of the problems that I find quite often. Maybe it's because I also cannot ignore this because it annoys me. Another problem is that they rely on secondary source, so they're comfortable being told what Muringani said and not reading for themselves. Even when it is controversial, they end there instead of being edged to go and read themselves, so I normally encourage them to find reading material in the original source. Our students are not ready to deal with heavy academic material. Academic writing in its nature is very complex and sometimes can be boring, sometimes very dense.

**BM**: When they write, to what extent do you encouraged your students to evaluate information that they cite from different sources, and in this regard do they measure up to your expectations?

**DSS1**: No, they don't.

**BM**: Do they evaluate or you end up hearing voices of the cited authors without hearing their voices?

**DSS1**: Taking a position is one dimension of academic writing that most of our students are not able to do even at Masters level, and I think it happens partly because of what I have already said. They cannot do it; they hardly evaluate. One of the things I do with my students in this course that I am teaching is that towards the end I require them to scout the most reputable journals on the subject, on development and identify a review article. Last year they had a hard time because I think some of them did not know what a review article is. So, when they finally locate one, they have difficulty reading through that. The significance of a review article is that it will take you through the journey of what issues were debated. From that exercise it became very clear that they shy away from evaluating. This is why I am saying taking a position is something that they avoid doing I think at all costs. And I think they avoid doing that because they don't feel comfortable, they don't feel confident enough to do that just because they have not read sufficiently.

**BM**: Ok, thank you. Another question is on the use of the first-person pronoun 'I'. What's your view; do you accept it when your students use it?

**DSS1**: Maybe I've come to accept it; I'll tell you why. I got caught up myself in between that and a more reserved standard academic work of distancing yourself and rather using we. Then when I went to the US under the Fulbright scholarship, we were given orientation for 2 weeks where we were introduced to the American way of doing things. So, as we were there, one of the things that those of us who were coming from these places with a British background were severely criticised for was the use of this distancing yourselves sort of approach and one of the facilitators there really encouraged this thing, which is a recent issue. The idea of people expressing themselves, being yourself and Americans like that; this is why they encouraged this. So, eh again as being a student there it was very difficult for me to whittle out of this, but at the same time having grown up in the tradition of this distancing yourself. So I found it difficult, in any case I came to eventually accept it saying this is the way it's happening, and when you look at a number of very good academic books Americans do that. They use the first-person pronoun, so this thing has increasingly encroached and I think it has become a reality. Ah so what I do in the course I teach is just to make students aware of these variations, of these opposing sides of traditions, and I end up leaving it up to them.

**BM**: So, they decide whether they want to use it or not?

**DSS1**: Yes, they decide, because again as I said, contextually, I think it'll be very harmful for us to say don't use the first-person. If you look at what is coming up now it is used quite largely. It's only where people write for institutions that they try to avoid it, but invariably they use it. I don't know, maybe this is the victory of the American system over the British. So really this one I leave it up to them; I make them aware of the implications, the difficulties.

**BM**: We're now looking at stance. You talked about students being uncomfortable or having problems with taking positions; do you sometimes recommend or discourage use of hedges and/or boosters by your students? Hedges are words we use in or writing when we want to be cautious. We don't want to sound too certain, for example, when reporting my findings and say "This may indicate that or this seems to portray our students as having problems with taking positions; probably this is a result of that". So, where you use words like 'possibly, probably, may' so I want to be careful; I don't want to commit myself; I'm leaving room for other views. But when you boost, you're very sure, for example, 'certainly, definitely, obviously'. So, as you write with such terms, you're quite certain; you're boosting your statements.

**DSS1**: Yes, there are two issues that I see involved here. I didn't know what these words actually meant. Thank you for this free education. At least this is the fee you've paid for my time. Ok, the two things I'm seeing are that, I'm quite, I use hedges quite a lot in my own writing. Eh this is partly because of experience. This is partly because of having read a lot of work. You become attracted to certain expressions because of what you read, but also because of my exposure to epidemiology. My work is basically on health development. In epidemiology one of the issues there is that you don't prove anything. Epidemiologists don't prove; they talk about likelihoods. So as a result of this experience, as a result of what I read, as a result of people who have influenced my writing style, I use a lot of hedges. Now, the second thing that I see eh with our students is that a lot of the times they use boosters without meaning it, yes. Somebody would say, "Certainly…", so they are not in the habit of seeing probability. I think they use boosters most definitely, eh not because that person would have assessed something and would have become convinced, eh eh that's the situation, but because that's the way he or she expresses himself, yes. Eh this is not going to be a good example because again it's in Sesotho. If you listen to most news readers in Sesotho, they'd use the word 'or' which is kapa in Sesotho. They use that word to correct what the read wrongly, which is wrong because this will be interpreted wrongly as an alternative of what was read. As I said, this is not a direct example of what you're asking here, but I see a relationship. So, a lot of times they will use these boosters not because they consciously wanted to do so.

**BM**: Still connected to this issue, can we maybe assign this problem to some of the challenges we face as second language users of English language because this is not our first language and our students are likely to have problems with such words?

**DSS1**: Exactly, yes. That is one dimension of it, but then I think another dimension is what we've already talked about. They don't have the time to revise what they have written.

**BM**: The next one deals with attitude markers, but they are closely related to hedges and boosters. Do you expect your students to clearly express their attitude in their writing? For example, "I agree with so and so; I agree with Macbeth (2004); surprisingly this one says this or this theory reports this" and also the word 'important', it's like is evaluating or showing attitude towards what they are writing. Is it correct, is it not correct?

**DSS1**: I would encourage that, but the problem is as I said earlier on, I don't come across much of this evaluation because of this shyness to take a position. A lot of the material that we come across in our students' dissertations lack this, but of course a few daring ones would agree which shows that they're taking a stance and they're able to evaluate. But we do come across these things and the reason why I like to encourage it is that it is an indication of the analytical ability of the student as far as I'm concerned. A person who would say, "Macbeth, surprisingly, says this not taking into account…" that's the level of analysis that you're expecting from a graduate student, which we are missing, but some of them, of course, are close to that. It shows how engaged a person is in the material that they are reading.

**BM**: Thank you. My study has three aspects. The first one is citation that we were discussing at first, the second one is what we call stance – the act of taking a position like that we're discussing right now, so hedges, boosters, attitude markers they are part of stance or evaluation. And the last part of my studies is

called engagement where we look at whether students attempt to involve their readers or anticipated readers in their argument. So, do you sometimes recommend your students do that? They can involve readers by either asking rhetorical questions or by using what we call inclusive pronouns like 'we'. For example, they can say, "As we can see from chapter 1" trying to include readers as part of the argument, or even refer readers to certain parts of their dissertation and say, for example, "see section 1, see chapter 2" trying to involve a reader directly. Do you find it happening in your students' dissertations?

**DSS1**: Ok, I encourage that, but it doesn't happen a lot. I have no explanations why it happens that way, but it happens a lot. There is a very very large tendency for students to do these things as discrete entities. Eh, I should have mentioned as we were talking about problems in question 5 that one of the weaknesses which I fail to imagine or whose origin I fail to imagine is that our students these days write an essay and we encourage them that a standard essay should be at least 8000 words, at least that is what happens in the social sciences and the humanities, unlike what happens in the sciences. Now in the process of doing that, our students these days would write that document of 8000 words with no pagination. But I would certainly encourage these engagement markers. I like them and I think for me they are an indication of growth in academic work, but unfortunately, they are missing in most cases because our students don't engage.

**BM**: Ok, thank you. Our last question, because we've already dealt with 12, is do you recommend your students to send their work for professional editing?

**DSS1**: I require it.

**BM**: Oh, so it's a requirement?

**DSS1**: I no longer recommend. I require it. Again, it is related to the other issues that we have discussed. Eh, in the past, we used to do a lot of editing as we marked assignments, tests and other things and students used to learn from them, those who really took the trouble to read the comments. Even the comments that you made at the end of the essay used to matter a lot to students in the past, but these days you can't do that because of the numbers. So, this one I make it a requirement. My 4th year students who were here this week, they were going to give me a complete draft of their report and I said send it for editing before you submit it because it distracts my attention. I want to concentrate on the flow of your arguments. I want to concentrate on your use of evidence. I want to concentrate on your methods. I don't want to be destructed by silly grammatical mistakes when somebody could have edited that, so go and pay for this, and you should know that they're going to charge you. Students should know that I'm not an editor, I'm just a supervisor.

**BM**: Apart from the academic writing skills taught at first year and the proposal writing course currently offered by your department, what else do you think can be done to enhance postgraduates' thesis writing?

**DSS1**: I suggest the university establishes something akin to a writing centre. What exactly this writing centre would do will depend on how we decide to run it. Eh, but typically what other universities do is to employ people who would assist with basic things in writing, so students are free to go there for guidance. Eh, maybe that could also be done under the auspices of the CTL here, but that means the CTL would also have to be significantly capacitated. There would be no point having a writing centre or something equivalent to it when you don't have people manning it so that when students come, they can be assisted. So the end point of that response would be that yes, I think postgraduate students still need training in academic writing. We do have in the department a course on academic skills, on academic writing. I'm teaching this course for the second time this year. Eh, I think it was called something different previously, or it was taught as part of proposal writing, and it came to the awareness of the department that proposal writing is one thing. Writing a proposal is one thing and writing a dissertation is quite another animal. So, it being in its second year, we haven't had the time to assess its effectiveness, eh but I think it's a useful course eh it should be strengthened; we should find ways of doing it better. One of what I consider to be limitations of that course is that it comes in the second semester of the taught part of our program. So, it might be it sort of defeats the purpose in that it is this thing at the end when you could have done it at the beginning so that you go along. But maybe the intention really was that it was a course intended to eh to prepare students for their dissertations. So maybe it's not a complete failure because I think when and if we revise it, we'll talk about those issues.

**BM**: Thank you so much DS Supervisor 1, I think we are done.

**Interview with DS supervisor 2**

**BM**: Would you please give some background on your supervising experience – how long you have supervised postgraduate students, the levels you have supervised and how you supervise your students?

**DSS2**: Well, we take students from some disciplines where the research component is very weak…we take students on the basis that they did some development studies…but students from the education department, they did not do any research part. Some come from the science departments, BSC, some have degrees in Philosophy. But when it comes to issues of theory, they are a bit shallow and weak so we teach research methods in the first year as one of the courses. But what I learned is that you can teach research methods and all those things but when it comes down to it, they don't seem to be reflecting on its reapplication. At the end of the day after teaching them that course, you give them an exercise on research proposal, you find that it's like you are starting from the beginning, those principles and all that you have taught them are gone, they ended just like that.…you know? Another thing is that we don't get first class people, I have never gotten anyone coming into our program at a 2:1 level, it's always 2:2, so maybe again the nature of our academic program is very weak.

**BM**: So, it means when you enrol the MA students, you just consider their qualifications?

**DSS2**: Yes, because we are more concerned with whether these guys can cope. Another thing is that some of them might be working in development programs, socio development aspects, police department so… the academic core…we think they can pick up; you know. Again, maybe doing research requires a lot of experience on its own, it requires the use of particular faculties to shape things up so we have to keep on supporting them or they will be blank.

**BM**: Looking at your own supervision, how do you as a supervisor generally supervise them? How do you conduct your own supervision?

**DSS2**: There are many …. that lecturers use but of course, in my case, I want them to tell me what they want to research on. On the basis of that, then we basically workshop each other. We want them to identify the problem statement, the issue of concern, to tell me what that particular issue they want to research on is. I want them to give me a clear idea of what they want so that I can help them get there, without that, I don't think we can go anywhere, we'll keep struggling, you see?

**BM**: Okay, so before even getting to that part, to what extent do these students get some guidance on dissertation writing, maybe particularly to do with citations? What to do with sources, how to quote different types of sources such as journal, textbooks, etc.?

**DSS2**: You know here, we have a taught program as part of that research part, the second part is an academic writing exercise where they present term papers. They do not write examinations. The second part is the dissertation writing. At the end of the day, we are expecting them to be able to present academic papers, the presentation part of it and all. We have the taught content which tells us when they are working on the assignments and it aims at dealing with technical issues of grammatical and whatever. But there is also a course on academic writing also, the issues to do with their research, the manner in which they present and express themselves as well as citing sources.

**BM**: So, it gives them a good starting point?

**DSS2**: Yes, slightly comprehensive. When you supervise, it's not only about content and ideas, it's also about expression and representation.

**BM**: When it comes to your students whom you supervise, when it comes to their various drafts, do you sometimes correct their citation styles or even the way they cite?

**DSS2**: Yes, we do. Somebody will put the source in brackets when it should have been the year in brackets, you know? The author should be outside the brackets. You cannot say "according to S…" and put that in brackets, no, the year should be in brackets… the statement itself plus the source have to be presented accordingly.

**BM**: So, it seems they have problems of knowing what to put inside the brackets and when, and of knowing what not to put inside the brackets.

**DSS2**: Yes, you see something like that would have been cleared at undergraduate but now, some of them have probably forgotten, probably gotten rusty, academically. So, this means we have to start all over again.

**BM**: The next question is, what are some of the common citation problems that you come across with your students besides this one of not knowing what to put inside and outside the brackets? Probably to do with how they include other information from other sources in to their own arguments or their own writing?

**DSS2**: Well, sometimes they include a huge chunk of quoted statements… and sometimes it's in that area where you have several authors who have contributed to that particular subject matter, you don't just dump them there, you manage them…. You should be talking as you are citing sources rather than a situation where you just cut and paste. But I think the way I see it, it's like maybe every student should… earn an education at a Masters level not undergraduate. They are still very raw at that level.

**BM**: Whilst still on citation, as a department, do you have one style that maybe you recommend to your students or it varies?

**DSS2**: I think we follow more on the assumption that we speak the same academic language. We have not yet, as a department decided on that in fact, even on dissertation writing, we still assume that there is one structure on dissertation writing, you know, that chapter one is this, chapter two is that so yah. We have not really come together and sat down to make the rules.

**BM**: So which means it now depends on the supervisor on which style they will follow?

**DSS2**: Yes, I guess so. As long as it's an acceptable style. We just assume that we all speak the same academic language.

**BM**: So when your students incorporate information from different sources, to what extent are they encouraged to evaluate information which they are citing and to what extent in that regard do they measure up to your expectations as a supervisor?

**DSS2**: They try but that is one area that we have to work very hard to appreciate. Like I have said, that is where you come in as a teacher, show them that they can't just dump sources like that, they have to be managed. You are moving from here, to cross there so you must consciously present these things. The idea is that they must manage. They are not dictated by laws but they should put appropriately what they choose.

**BM**: When they write, you find that some writers prefer the use of the first-person pronoun 'I', what do you think about the use of first-person pronoun 'I' by postgraduate students in their writing? What is your view on this one?

**DSS2**: I personally do not encourage my student to use 'I, we or the researcher', you know? I encourage my students to use the research as the subject matter. I prefer the research speak to the reader.

**BM**: Are there instances where you would recommend or discourage use of hedges and/or boosters by your students? I think we have talked about this before where they don't want to fully commit themselves or when either they are certain and want to make a punch.

**DSS2**: You know, when it comes to science or knowledge, we say something based on some kind of evidence and if that evidence is inconclusive, we say this suggest this particular situation. We say that basing ourselves on that evidence, at that time but I think as it goes on, it is better to state that so far, the evidence we have here suggest a bigger picture…

**BM**: Do you sometimes expect or encourage your students to use attitude markers to clearly show their attitudes towards something? Where they actually show their feelings where they felt surprised by their findings by so and so?

**DSS2**: As I said before, I would rather they make some kind of lesser judgement but still they should be part of it, you know? They shouldn't make themselves some kind of authority still, they shouldn't appear as though they are taking sides of some sorts. If there was some kind of debate and presentations, people are allowed to give their opinions and in debates especially, one can be subjective. But when it comes to processing data, one must show what the data means, be objective more than being subjective.

**BM**: The next question is what we call reader engagement, it involves writers trying to include readers in their writing through using strategies such as asking rhetorical questions depending on the topic or field of study or by using what we call directives where you can say "see section 1.1, see chapter 2" where we address our readers directly. Or maybe where they can use those inclusive pronouns such as 'we' to try to include the reader as part of the argument?

**DSS2**: It is sometimes a style of writing where the context is perhaps you put yourself in a position of a debate, sometimes the language you use, "we would think …" 'we' here is used in a more objective way,

as contrasted to 'I', which is more subjective. In my field, I wouldn't want them to do that, I would like them to be as objective as possible.

**BM**: So, when working on the final draft, towards the end of the supervision, do you recommend your students to take their work for professional editing?

**DSS2**: I have never applied that myself because I do that myself. At every stage of the expression, I make sure that I correct that. I leave the work clean which means I agree with the final form of the construct in terms of the grammatical form. I always correct statement construction so when we finish, I say go through this and maybe you might have overlooked something, maybe put a full stop right in the middle of the sentence (something which is quite common amongst our students) or a gap between a full stop right at the end of the sentence. So, we are also teachers of language as well as that of intellect but I haven't used it myself. However, I just know of one colleague who actually picks editors himself… there have been situations where they have this thing that members of the department could go through such a piece of work to check for errors but…when I read through, I find no evidence that this thing has been checked. The university does well to ask that everything should be professionally checked but the people who implement that sometimes take short cuts, you find a lot of silly errors and you now wonder what the point of having it edited anyway was. That sort of thing then, when it comes to things like this, you find that you cannot really trust anybody because you let someone check it and…that kind of risk I don't want it so I make sure that when we move one, everything is done, you know?

**BM**: Okay, thank you. Looking at your experience so far with post graduate supervision, besides what you are already doing as a department in regard to academic writing course, do you think there is anything else you feel that our students might need to improve or enhance their thesis writing? Any recommendations form you as an experienced supervisor?

**DSS2**: In my case, things seem not to be working. I have to be more than a teacher in this course, I also have to be a teacher in all these other things that have got little to do with…particularly the technical issues of language and all that. They still reflect weaknesses sometimes, we have workshops but at the end of the day, you still don't know how much a student has absorbed in there, you know? So maybe the faculty will come up with some kind of workshop to say maybe we have to standardise these or discover our variations within the faculty in terms of the way we handle things and to move towards a more common…you know? Some people don't think it's necessary but ...I don't know how it can be done. Some of our lecturers here make them present their term papers so as to help in terms of the way they do things so…I find things like those very helpful. Maybe also as a department we could come together and share these methodologies to help improve our abilities to write research and reports.

**BM**: Before we end, would you inform me about when you started offering this course on dissertation and academic writing as a department, do you perhaps know the year?

**DSS2**: Maybe in the second or third intake of our Masters, we always have our own orientation. We have different lectures to present on different topics, we try to show them what we expect of them, try to mould them into the professional boundaries of the academic world here. Even the extent of knowing what kind of relationship they should have with their supervisor, never ever allow certain things from your supervisor and things like that. We don't want situations where you know, you just cry, you know that it's getting tough because the supervisor just tells you off. So, we do the presentation just before they start their dissertation writing. We have a workshop just on dissertation. We introduce them to the real academic world.

**BM**: So, you also have a workshop as a department?

**DSS2**: Yes, we do a full orientation. At the moment they just presented their topics and of course that does not mean their topics will all be accepted. We have even told them that people who fail to… their topics will be… we've never done that before. Sometimes you find that one person choses the same topic as the other one yet there are other areas of importance. You should be able to identify areas of interest so that is also important.

**Interview with DS supervisor 3**

**BM**: I would like to know, briefly, your postgraduate supervising experience, be it here or elsewhere?

**DSS3**: I can't even remember the year but I think it was in 2010 because in our department, people holding a master's degree are not allowed to supervise masters' students.

**BM**: Moving on to question 2, what are the selection processes taken into consideration for aspiring masters students? Is it to do with their qualifications, a test maybe?

**DSS3**: NO, no tests. They are taken on the basis of their qualification. I think we only had one case where we had to interview a student because her certificates were not exactly what we were looking for but her CV showed a lot of work experience. Also, one of her referees indicated that she was in the development industry so we decided to give her a chance to show that she can actually manage our content. Other than that, students who come from other fields like philosophy, language and others, that is, students who don't have development background, we make them attend undergraduate development courses, especially 4th year courses so that they get acquainted to the language of development. So far, we have had only two students who had to take such courses and they came from the philosophy field.

**BM**: After being accepted, to what extent do the new and continuing students receive some teaching or guidance on dissertation writing, particularly on the use of citations and referencing styles, do you have a course which caters for that?

**DSS3**: Yes, we do have a course.

**BM**: At which level is it offered?

**DSS3**: It is a one-year content course basically meant to prepare them for dissertation writing.

**BM**: Do you sometimes correct your students' citing styles, maybe telling them to us Harvard or MLA or even the language they use when reporting? These include reporting verbs.

**DSS3**: Well, when one corrects students as a supervisee, you don't necessarily say use Harvard but you correct a student's way of citation … In regards to verbs and all that, I think when a sentence is incorrect, you correct it, not necessarily focusing on a verb or anything. On issues regarding citation, let me call it referencing, here it will be different aspects and yes, we do that. When I first meet my students for supervision, I normally tell them to do some literature search around the topic they have selected and also to look at how people write, not just the content and understanding the area but also how they put verbatim, how they quote as a way of directing them to writing styles. I do this to avoid teaching them because my understanding is that they did this as a course on research writing. From last year, we introduced a course on academic writing because we were getting frustrated by the way students wrote. We noticed that it didn't help teaching research methods if their writing skills were that bad so we are still waiting to see if that course will have an impact. From term papers to…you can see that we are still experiencing some of the problems that we are trying to combat, look at this (showing some marked scripts). These are some of the things that we come across and were hoping that at this stage the students would have really mastered them, look….

**BM**: I see corrections of citation problems that I was actually asking about as to what should be in brackets and what should be outside the brackets.

**DSS3**: Yes, you see? These are the things that you cannot ignore, in fact, for me, the student actually knows that they irritate me. When you read it, you just don't understand how the students read it themselves. So the course aims at addressing some of these problems.

**BM**: The next questions is "what are the common referencing or citation problems that you have observed in your postgraduate students' work"?

**DSS3**: I think I have just showed you one. They also have a problem of citing internet sources. There are very few students that I have seen who have mastered citing internet sources.

**BM**: What exactly is their challenge with internet sources?

**DSS3**: They place the whole website within the text, you see?

**BM**: To what extent do you encourage your students to evaluate other sources? What do you expect from your post graduates and do they measure up to your expectations?

**DSS3**: There are not many of those who can do that. I think it's a matter of critical thinking. Otherwise, I think there is this weakness of literature review as part of critical thinking. Most students think they have to tell you about what they read about, they do not engage with the text, the debates that come out of the review and you find that this impacts on their discussion chapter. If they were able to internalise the narratives that they got from the literature, it would be easy for them when they discuss the finding, to relate the literature to their finding so you find that there is some kind of disconnection between the literature and what they discuss. I find there is always a problem when it comes to the literature chapter, and unfortunately, it's one that you cannot write for the student even if you wanted to.

**BM**: What is your view on the use of the first-person pronoun 'I'?

**DSS3**: For me, it depends on the context. There are some instances where I ask the question "who are you?", "what do you think is the importance of mentioning yourself here?" when the student uses the first-person pronoun. There are contexts where I don't have a problem such as when the student says "I don't think this theory can stand in today's development…" but when the student says "We Basotho, I as a Mosotho think…" that's when I have a problem. The student must engage in the debate; they must show that they have internalised the debate to the extent that they can take a stand.

**BM**: So, in other words, you accept it if is used appropriately?

**DSS3**: Yes, appropriately. If the student says "the researcher thinks…" who is the researcher? He must be bold to say "I".

**BM**: Are there instances where you would either recommend or discourage use of hedges and/or boosters by your students in their academic writing? Hedges are those words we use in writing where the writer would want to reduce their level of commitment using "probably, possibly", where they avoid sounding committed.

**DSS3**: I don't have a problem with these phrases. Qualitative research can be very subjective, if you use phrases that show that you are so sure, that could be very dangerous. I find that the student would be much safer if they use "probably my study could contribute to the existing of knowledge" because you cannot know everything and cannot be very certain with qualitative research especially if you are looking at perceptions, opinions and views of people.

**BM**: What about boosters? Here the writer is certain by using words such as "in fact, actually, certainly, no doubt".

**DSS3**: Well, I have seen them using 'in fact' when they mean 'the fact', especially when there is no evidence to "the fact". I think they are too loose on the use of those words. I really don't think they were meaning certainly; I think they were just using the words; I don't even think they understand what it really means.

**BM**: So probably the problem might be because we use the language as a second language or even the influence of mother tongue language? I remember DS Supervisor 1 gave me an example of news readers who read news in Sesotho, when they make a mistake, they use the word "kapa" then they read correct the word but yet if you were to translate the word, "kapa" it means "or" meaning an alternative…

**BM**: Another question, still related to hedges and boosters because they contribute toward the stance of the writer where they take position; do you sometimes expect or encourage your students to use attitude markers to clearly show their attitudes towards what they are saying, words such as "surprisingly, correct, interestingly, I agree with so and so", where they actually show how they feel or felt about…

**DSS3**: I really don't have a problem with that. Not all students can do that and I don't really see a student who can just report and use those words. For me, it shows that a student has really internalised and can really engage with content. They internalise whatever discourse or debate they are following so I really don't have a problem.

**BM**: Still to do with another part of my research, this has to do with how writers try to involve readers in their writing through using strategies such as asking rhetorical questions depending on the topic or field of study or by using what we call directives where you can say "see section 1.1, see chapter 2" where we address our readers directly.

**DSS3**: That's what we encourage students to do and you find that they are not even mastering it. You find that a student can write a whole chapter without referring to something that they have already mentioned

and that tells you that the student is not really following what they are writing about because you find that at one point it could have really boosted their argument to have referred back to what they talked about.

**BM**: The next question is to do with editing. When your students are done with their final draft, do you recommend them to send their work for professional editing? To what extent is this usually needed?

**DSS3**: It's always necessarily, I don't care what a student thinks or how good they think their English is, it is absolutely necessary. Even at my stage, at the level I'm at now, I still need someone to read my work so we even refer them to some of which we have read about from other students. The challenge we have found is that development studies is a discipline, it's not about writing English as a language, it has its own language. So, a student may return with distorted information because of the use of its own language. Sometimes I think the student also gets frustrated and we normally say at least they can take that for silly mistakes that they normally perform which I as a supervisor will not have to look out for. But these issues of citations and all, the editors don't know anything about and they go straight into language, grammar and you find that the student thinks they are done but it comes back form the Senate and…. you know?

**BM**: I wish we could have editors in our own departments, amongst ourselves, I feel it would be very helpful.

**DSS3**: Yes, I agree.

**BM**: Our last question now, besides what you are already doing as a department with regard to academic writing course, is there anything else you feel that our students might need to improve or enhance their thesis writing? Anything you might suggest to us?

**DSS3**: I have been telling some of my colleagues in the department that, well, it can sometimes be taken as bragging when you say "where I studied, this is what happened", but I find this very helpful. At Wits, we had what is called Academic Writing Unit, it was even housed under the students' umm…. the SRC was very helpful. You would find tutorials on academic writing, sometimes even conducted by students. Secondly, at Wits, every week there is a workshop on research, including research writing. The postgraduate unit, its work is to assist students on research process including writing skills and there is a person who is specifically employed for that. When they want to present on maybe ethnographic studies, they subcontract somebody to assist you in that so when they encourage you to do full time studying, it is because they want you to have the full benefits of that. There is that session in Honours, Masters and PhDs n research methods and academic writings and there are symposiums for students to present their small works and so on to expose them to writing. I think that is what we are lacking here and if the student didn't get what was being said then from the lecturer on the course, it means that is the end and it is going to be a problem for you as a supervisor.

**Interview with EL Supervisor 1**

**BM**: Would you please give some background on your supervising experience – how long you have supervised postgraduate students, the levels you have supervised and how you supervise your students?

**ELS1**: I've been supervising since 2011, honours, masters and PhD.

**BM**: So, it has been some time now since you started supervising?

Response: About 7 years, yah.

**BM**: What sort of processes do intending masters and PhD students go through before selection and straight after acceptance?

**ELS1**: Yah, there are processes. Firstly, they have to apply to the department concerned, so then the department will look at their application and see if they qualify. And then if they qualify the department will recommend and then the faculty will meet. Then once they're admitted, ah, I think now it depends now on the department. For us in the English department, once they're admitted the first thing that they do is to present their proposal, and then after they've presented their proposal and it's accepted they're now given a supervisor and then the supervisor now takes the student. For the honours, normally honours is mostly course work and mini-dissertation, so the students they do the research methodology already, among the different courses that they're doing. For MA, in the past it used to be just by research and we didn't have any specific course for them after the honours, the understanding being that at the level of the honours they

would have done all the necessary courses, so they would just go straight into their thesis with the guidance of the supervisor. But now we have taught masters, so now they still do, they also do, we no longer have honours so kind of we've merged. I can say we've merged the honours and the masters by research to become taught masters. So, they do courses in the first year, including methodology, a research methodology course and then in the second year they do the dissertation.

**BM**: So, the research methodology course is the one which sort of prepare them.

**ELS1**: Yah, and then for PhD it's just by research, the understanding for the PhD is that you've already been prepared, you know how to do research and all that.

**BM**: To what extent do your new and continuing students receive some teaching or guidance on dissertation writing, particularly on the use of sources and citation style?

**ELS1**: Yah, I think mostly it is in the methodology course that they're taught all of this, and then the individual supervisors also assist the students in guiding them with this. But currently we're taking, we're trying to, especially for the PhDs who're not taught, we're thinking that, I mean in the masters even though they're taught the research methodology but we still think they need workshops, some seminars on different aspects of writing a dissertation. So, we've already started giving them a series of workshops and seminars on proposal writing, dissertation writing and others. So, with time we're going to touch all these aspects. We've not yet prepared a seminar on citation and sources in particular, but I think we're going to do that.

**BM**: Do you sometimes correct your postgraduate students' citing styles, for example, recommending or discouraging use of certain citation forms and reporting verbs?

**ELS1**: Um, yah of course I do that because as a supervisor it is your place to help the student come out with the best, so where you think there is something that would have been more appropriate you have to indicate. So yes, I do the corrections. I do change some of their writing and put them the way I think will appeal more to the reader, and also their way of citing sometimes I do recommend that they cite in a way that I think is more appropriate.

**BM**: What are the common citation problems that you have observed in your postgraduate students' work?

**ELS1**: Yes, I think one of the things is that, first, some of them don't know how to cite. There will be something that, let's say for instance, well, they mix, most of them mix the styles. They put so many styles and sometimes it even makes their style very cumbersome. For instance, instead of maybe just saying "according to X, 2000 and this", they'll write and write and put the author in brackets and the year and then continue citing the same person again and then at the end again they'll put the year and so sometimes it makes it so cumbersome and even unpleasant to the eye just by reading, you know. So yah, I'll correct, that's one of the things I've realised, so I think they really need to be given even though they have that methodology course, but I think along the line as they write their theses, they also need to be refreshed on some of these. So, some of them don't cite the way you really want them to do.

**BM**: Still on citation, do we have a specific citing style we prefer as a faculty or do we leave it to supervisors to recommend what they feel is the best?

**ELS1**: I think as of now it's the supervisors who recommend what they think is best for them and then we kind of, I find myself, I don't know if what I tell my students to do is what all others are doing. We don't really have a uniform citation style, but I'm aware that the Communication and Study Skills Unit is working on that.

**BM**: To what extent are your masters and PhD students encouraged to evaluate information that they cite from different sources, and in this regard do they measure up to your expectations?

**ELS1**: Yah, I think they have a problem when it comes to that. Most often they would just be saying what another person has said, but you won't even see them trying to even relate it to their own work; they won't do that. You find they'll be talking about "X has said this; V has said this". They don't even try to synthesise all those. They may all be talking about the same thing, so instead of finding a way of bringing that together, then putting in their own views, yah, they fail to do that most often.

**BM**: So, in other words, as a supervisor you sometimes you hear voices of other writers but the writers are silent; they're just reporting others.

**ELS1**: Most often most of my students don't and I comment, especially with the literature review. Yah, most of my students you find those comments recurring because they'll just be; it's like they'll just be

narrating a story, but what are you yourself saying? You don't just narrate, "This has said that" yes. How has what the person has said influenced what you're doing? What do you yourself say about what this person is saying?

**BM**: What do you think about the use of first-person pronoun 'I' by postgraduate students in their writing?

**ELS1**: You know this one is a little bit controversial because like you rightly said, different people have different views. Some people will think you should go for "I" on your work, don't shy from it on the work. They say it's your work, but others will say you can't say it because you were being guided by somebody so you have to be impersonal. And in actual fact, I'll go for the second view that these postgraduate students are not yet authorities in the fields in which they are. They're still students who are learning and they're being guided, so there is no way that they can really take a view of their own. Before they even take any view, it's because they have been guided to see that, so somehow, they have to acknowledge the fact that somebody made them see this view, which they're now bringing up. Yes, even though the thesis is theirs, but for them to come up with that, it's because they were guided by somebody, and in that case, it would be wrong to attribute everything to you by saying "I, I," so I think I go with that view, the fact that they are not yet authorities in that domain and that they're in a learning process whereby they're being guided by somebody.

**BM**: Which terms do you recommend that they use instead of the "I"?

**ELS1**: I think it'll depend. You could use ah, you could be very impersonal. I don't know, some people would say "we" in which case they're now including the supervisor, but not only the supervisor but even the people they've read, who have given them those ideas because those ideas they didn't just get up with them. They read from somebody and this person gave them this idea and because of that they now know something because of that person. So, some people go for "we" and the "we" like I said will be the writer, the supervisor and the others that this person has read. Others would want to be very impersonal to just say "the researcher". To an extent, "the researcher" is referring to the "I" in a way; it's actually referring to the "I" indirectly. But the advantage of saying "the researcher" is that once somebody sees the word "research", already you see the involvement of others in that. Once you say "I" we see "I", we don't see anybody else.

**BM**: Are there instances where you would either recommend or discourage use of hedges and/or boosters by your students?

**ELS1**: Yah, well, yes, I think there are instances like that where I, there are instances where I discourage; there are instances where I won't have a problem if they use it, so it will now depend with the context in which they were used. But generally, as a student like I said, here you're still in the learning process, you don't want to be seen to be overconfident in the writing. Sometimes some people may get offended when they see you too much confidence, it's like, though for others, for myself I'll take it positively to say this person is confident in what they're saying. But then like I said, if you're a student, you're in the learning process, you're not yet an authority in the field in which you are. It's not; I won't advise that you go for those definite kinds of expressions. They'll be more on the hedging side than the boosting side.

**BM**: Do you sometimes expect or encourage your students to use attitude markers to clearly show their attitudes towards the propositions that they cite?

**ELS1**: Yah, I think they, I do. If they, I may not say that I encourage them as such, but when I see some of my students because I have some of my students who use that, I feel ah, it gives me some assurance that they know what they're doing. Yah, because when you find eh, before the student agrees, for instance, with a certain proposition, they must have their reasons, and it should be clear from what they're saying, why they're doing that. So, to a certain extent they give me an assurance of what they're doing or what they're saying. But I don't really encourage them; I don't tell them that we should do this or do that, but when I see it in their writing, it kind of assures me that this person knows what they're talking about.

**BM**: Are your expectations about evaluation different for MAs and PhDs?

**ELS1**: Yah, they are different. At the level of the masters I don't expect I don't expect much, but for the PhDs I do, because even though they're still students in the learning process, they're at a higher level. These are people who, immediately they're awarded a degree, they'll be expected to be philosophising out there, so to an extent we want to see some degree of what they really know as individuals, yah, in their writing. So I expect more from the PhDs.

**BM**: Do you encourage your students to involve or engage readers in their arguments, for example, by using reader pronouns and asking them questions?

**ELS1**: Yah, yes, I do that a lot. Actually, I make my students to understand that what they're writing is not for them or me as the supervisor; it's for the public. So, if you're writing for somebody, you want to be sure that that person identifies with what you're presenting to them. So, you have to write in such a way that the person can see that you're addressing this to them. So yah, I do encourage them that when they're writing they have the reader in mind. They're not writing just because they want a certificate, just because they want to please the supervisor. They're writing because that work has to go out for people to read and get something out of it, and therefore, they've to address the work in such a way that that population that has to read the work is incorporated in the work. So, they find that this was written for me, I can see.

**BM**: Do you recommend your students to send their work for professional editing? To what extent is this usually needed?

**ELS1**: Ah, it is a requirement for theses to be professionally edited, yah. But I'll say I have not really had serious language challenges with my, the students I've supervised so far. And because of that, I personally don't recommend, but I always make them aware that when I finish the final copy that has to be submitted for evaluation, I always tell them that make sure that you go through this final copy very carefully and see if you can identify any editorial issues. So, in saying that, I don't want to insist that they must go to the editor, but then the student will see if he or she can do the job themselves or can send the work to an editor. But officially it's a requirement that they go for professional editing so that the evaluators will not require you to do a lot of editing. You also don't want, as a supervisor you don't want the evaluators to say, "There were so many spelling errors, grammatical errors and so and so forth". So yah, I think professional editing I think it's necessary, especially if there is time. I think one of the things that I've faced here is that most of our students or my students submit very close to the graduation period. So, when they finish, by the time they finish, if you've to go through the professional editing before sending them to the evaluators, you find that they may not be able to graduate, so we find ourselves skipping that stage, but the ideal thing would be for them to go for professional editing and I'd like to say that it's not their fault to submit like that but it is the way we've structured their calendar. Their calendar has not been well structured in a way that can give them time. For instance, we're supposed to submit at the end of May. Now we have only have June, July and August for the examiners to evaluate the thesis and submit their reports. And for the PhD thesis it's even worse because after the examiners submit the reports, they have to defend thesis and things like that so it's also the timing. The time given for the whole process is a bit short for everything. So that's why most of us end up skipping the professional editing but of course as a linguist I do my best to make sure that there will be very little editorial problems. But you know when you interact with something for so long, sometimes you see things which are not what is actually on the paper. So, it's always good for somebody else who will be seeing it for the first time to look at it. He can pick things that you couldn't see because what you're now reading is not what is actually on the paper but what is in your head just because you've interacted with the paper for so long.

**BM**: Apart from the academic writing skills taught at first year and what is covered in the methodology course, what else do you think can be done to enhance postgraduates' thesis writing?

**ELS1**: Yah, I think eh, like I said before we've also realised that what they get is not enough. The first-year writing skills, even the methodology writing course at the master's level is not enough. They need to have refresher courses in terms of thesis writing, and these we're preparing in the form of workshops and seminars, so what we've started with now is to be organising seminars for them from time to time. We just had one last month on proposal writing, so very soon we're going to have another one. And from time to time we'll offer them some seminars to give them some presentations on thesis writing, yah to enhance their writing skills.

**Interview with EL Supervisor 2**

**BM**: As a starting point, I would like to know your supervising experience, how long you've been supervising and the levels supervised.

**ELS2**: Ok, eh I've been supervising graduate studies since the department started offering graduate studies, and I've supervised undergraduates especially those who have been writing projects on Shakespeare, and I've also supervised honours students and masters. Currently, I'm supervising PhDs, and I normally supervise through coursework. We teach courses sometimes and I'll be specific on that and I also supervise individual students through individual meetings, and I also supervise through correction of written work.

**BM**: I see.

**ELS2**: Now, the department has a research methodology course, which is offered to mostly honours students, masters and PhDs, but as you know we're no longer offering honours. We're opening in August we'll be offering masters. So, for those two levels we teach a course which is called 'Research methods'.

**BM**: Ok, thank you Prof. Looking at our masters and PhD students, what sort of processes do they go through before selection or straight after acceptance? Do we do anything maybe as far as thesis writing is concerned?

**ELS2**: Um, before they start their programs, there is nothing special we normally do, but then after acceptance we usually expect the students to read broadly in order to choose a topic and also to be able to handle the other aspects of a research proposal. In my own case I've referred to that period of intense reading as a period of immersion. It's like you're immersing yourself; you just read broadly in order to enable you to choose a topic, and some scholars refer to that as a period of scholarship review where you read different sources in order to come up with a topic and to enable you to handle the other aspects of a research proposal.

**BM**: Ok.

**ELS2**: But I guess your question also was trying to find out whether we test students in terms of writing itself before they're accepted.

**BM**: Yes, to assess their ability to see whether they'll cope with this kind of intensive writing.

**ELS2**: I don't remember us doing that. They mostly use the grades which the students have, but I think it's something that we should look into; to do some writing before they're accepted and then we accept on the basis not only of the grades but the writing ability.

**BM**: Yes, and maybe even identify some weaknesses that we may need to address as they are beginning.

**ELS2**: Aha.

**BM**: Thank you.

**ELS2**: Number 3 I think I've partly answered that one.

**BM**: Yes, because we're now looking at when they've started do we give them some teaching or guidance on dissertation writing.

**ELS2**: Yah, I've indicated here that there is a fully fledged course in research methodology which deals with the theory and practice of research and one word for this theory and practice is a word called 'pracsice'.

BM: Looking at that course, does it touch on use of sources?

**ELS2**: It does; it touches on uses of sources. It also takes students to the library to show them how things are done. I don't know about these days when they use computers, but during our time we would be shown how to use information in the catalogues, and a certain lecturer used to take them there, and how to arrange eh information let's say in items of the bibliography. What comes first, the writer, the article, the title of the book or journal like that?

**BM**: Ok, so they would be sort of be reminded of what they learnt at first year.

**ELS2**: Exactly yah.

**BM**: Thank you. The fourth question is, do you sometimes correct your ah postgraduate students' citing styles, for example, recommending or discouraging use of certain citation forms or reporting verbs?

**ELS2**: I normally advise my students to stick to one citation mode like let's say the Harvard style, and this other mode, I don't know what it is called. It used to be called the MLA guide. The Harvard style is easy to handle. The other style which is mostly used by Historians is quite involved; you write notes, sometimes at the bottom if it is a footnote. Now the problem which I find with students is the problem of arranging the information; the name of the critique or the scholar, and then the year of publication, the pagination. There are always problems, there are always differences there, so I teach them how to do it, like if a book has been written by ntate S, I've S then I've brackets, opening brackets and then I've the year of publication

then the page number and I close the bracket. Then I'm also particular about how this information and where it is placed. There is a citation there; at the beginning of the citation, that information is there, and at the end of the citation how is it handled. You don't have a full stop at the end of the citation and then a bracket, no. a bracket first and then the information is inside and then you close the bracket and then the full stop. They have problems with that.

**BM**: So, you address all that as you supervise their work.

**ELS2**: Um, I address all those yah.  So I, they have a failure to handle technical aspects like punctuation, like arrangement of years in publications and paginations and authorial comment itself.

**BM**: I think you've already touched on number 5: what are the common citation problems that you've observed in postgraduates' writing.

**ELS2**: That's number 5 now?

**BM**: Yes, so they are arrangement of publication details, what comes first, punctuation…

**ELS2**: Yah, also placing of names, bracketing at the beginning or end of a citation. They usually have problems there.

**BM**: Ok, number 6, I would want to know to what extent you encourage your masters and PhD students to evaluate information that they cite from different sources, like we normally see that our students have a problem that they just take ideas and report them without evaluating or commenting on them to say what they think about that particular information.

**ELS2**: Here I think you're talking about the way the students handle the citation in terms of buttressing up their argument, not just having a citation which is just there to show that the student has carried out a research. So usually, they inject their own critical perspective after citing the scholar either siding or refuting, which I've called here engaging with the scholar. Normally, their citations lack justification; why is this citation here? Is it supporting your argument or what? In most cases you find that there is a citation there, but it doesn't seem to serve its purpose, and then I've referred to these as authorial comments. The student as an author, normally the student must comment perhaps before the citation is given or immediately after the citation has been given in order to justify. Now most of them cannot handle this.

**BM**: So you would also want to hear their voices as they write, not to report others all the time.

**ELS2**: Exactly, because by doing so they're already evaluating; they're already evaluating. There are also essays which seem to have a catalogue of citations. They just write Shava, then year of publication, and then they quote from Shava; they don't comment. That way you don't know where the student stands, yah.

**BM**: Looking at the two levels of our students we are discussing here, the MAs and the PhDs, do you expect some difference in the level of how critical they should be? How are your expectations?

**ELS2**: The PhD student must show a higher level of analysis, but students are gifted differently. You might find that there are students in honours who are even better than those in PhD. I have a student at The Post (name of a newspaper) there called [name provided], he is gifted; he is highly gifted. So, their levels of analysis are different although we expect the PhDs to do better. Then there is this one; I should give you a chance.

**BM**: This one is to do with the way they write. How do you take the use of the first-person pronoun 'I' or self-mention in the thesis writing? What's your position?

**ELS2**: This one is usually discouraged in our specialty. We don't encourage the student to use the 'I'. We encourage students to use what is called the historical present tense and through the use of the third person to distance themselves from what they are writing. So normally it's just like that, and I've said here the idea is to use historical present tense mostly through the third person to inject academic neutrality.

**BM**: Ok, you've answered my follow up question; I wanted to ask why you discourage students from using first-person pronouns.

**ELS2**: For academic neutrality.

**BM**: The next question is, are there instances where you would either recommend or discourage use of hedges or boosters. By hedges I'm referring to those words like 'possibly', 'probably', 'may', 'might' so that the writer is not very committed and wants to be cautious and leave room for other views. Then when they boost, they use words like 'definitely', 'certainly' to show confidence.

**ELS2**: I think my own students use both styles. Sometimes they hedge, then sometimes they boost.

**BM**: So, do you recommend that kind of writing?

**ELS2**: Yah, I think the hedging part of it comes when the student is not completely sure, so I allow them to write like that, but I also allow them to take positions. Yah, what is your position?

**BM**: Do you sometimes expect or encourage your students to use attitude markers to clearly show their attitudes toward the information they're presenting? There are attitude markers like 'obviously', 'surprisingly', where they clearly show their feelings and attitude towards what they're writing.

**ELS2**: It depends on the theoretical framework which the student has taken. Let's say they use Marxism for example, they are forced to take certain direct definite positions. Yah, because I remember even when I was taught here myself by certain professors like [name provided], who passed away, he used to say, "What is your position? Show me your stance".

**BM**: Yah, you're right because attitude markers, hedges and boosters they are part of stance.

**ELS2**: Yah, what is your stance; what is your position here? Now that stance is determined by the theory which the student has taken and of course the analysis and conclusions as the study progresses.

**BM**: And then our next question is, do you encourage your students to involve or engage readers in their arguments, for example, by using reader pronouns such as 'we' to sort of include readers in your argument or by asking rhetorical questions or any other strategy?

**ELS2**: There is a girl whom I taught here who likes those rhetorical questions. The problem with those is that sometimes the style becomes too conversational, so rhetorical questions I mostly discourage. The 'we' I think there is nothing wrong with it in the sense that it also avoids the 'I'. Yah, so the 'we' I normally don't discourage, but the rhetorical questions I encourage them to use that but not too much because I'm supposed to hear from the student. And then like I said, the problem is that the style quickly degenerates into something which is chatty, conversational then it lacks its academic punch.

**BM**: Um, still as part of engagement markers, there is also use of what we call directives, where says, "See chapter 2" or "compare S (2008)", that kind of interaction with readers.

**ELS2**: In our discipline as historians, the idea of saying, "See this" is encouraged, or "See so and so" or "for further elaboration on this point, see so and so". And that is also, it has something to do with the type of citation mode which a student has chosen. It's like historians do not believe in the Harvard style that much, it's too simplistic according to them. They believe in this style where they have footnotes and then they write a lot there, and in there they direct the reader, "See so and so; for a more elaborate treatment of this, read so and so".

**BM**: Our next question is, do you recommend your students to send their work for professional editing, and to what extent is this usually needed considering the students you've supervised so far?

**ELS2**: The professional editing I always encourage it towards the end, before the defense in case there are errors, I have overlooked, particularly errors of style, so I encouraged my recent supervisee [name provided] to take that to specialists for professional editing. It's also like a final cleaning up of both style and content. So, in short, I would say I encourage them as a final resort, so that we come up now with a finished product, yah. It has to foster evenness and eliminating errors left out by the supervisor.

**BM**: Thank you, and our last question: considering what we've discussed and considering your experience with supervision, apart from academic skills taught at first year, and the course you've informed me about which also touches on citation practices, is there anything else that you think we should add to what we're teaching so far in order to enhance our postgraduate thesis writing?

**ELS2**: There is the taking of the methodology course, one, and then they should eeh, the students themselves should do a lot of reading in what I've called here the mechanics of writing on what they're expected to do. And then lately I think you've seen that graduate students attend workshops and seminars where they meet academics and students from other institutions and they compare notes in terms of handling this, and I remember [name provided] and [name provided] brought some books from Bloemfontein on this mechanics of writing and how to handle the whole process of a research proposal, so they discuss with other students. There were two workshops; there was that one in Bloemfontein, and then there was another one which was held in Kwazulu-Natal. So, I think those are other methods of teaching proper writing and proper handling of citations, because I've also seen that the way we cite, I mean arrangement of material, it differs from university to university, but then in the end you've to be consistent. Where we use a colon

here, in other universities they might say you use a semi-colon, so it depends on what the department has chosen in terms of how to arrange the material. Should Shava the name be in the bracket or outside the bracket? Then you compare with what other institutions are doing. So, it's the research methodology, one, and also a great deal of reading on the side on their own to familiarise with how things are done, and then they are trained at these workshops and seminars.

**BM**: Thank you so much Prof. for your participating in my study.

**Interview with EL supervisor 3**

**BM**: As a starting point, would you brief me on your supervising experience, how long you have supervised and the levels at which you supervised your students?

**ELS3**: For continuous supervision of postgraduate students, I started in 2016, yes, because earlier than that I had breaks, so I didn't complete. I supervised masters, first degree and PhD.

**BM**: Ok, so looking at our students who enroll here, masters and PhD students, do they go through certain selection processes? And also, what happens after their acceptance, do they start straight away with their supervisors?

**ELS3**: No, the post graduates have got masters at first year, which is taught, they are introduced to research methods which is taught and then in the second year are given supervisors. For PhD students they just write concept notes with the assistance from one of the lecturers with specialisation in the same area and then once the concept note has been approved by the body, the department being the body, then they start working on it. There is no fast course for them.

**BM**: Looking at what I am studying now, citation, stance and engagement in post graduate writing, to what extent do your new and continuing students receive some teaching or guidance on dissertation writing particularly the citation styles or citing sources in general?

**ELS3**: That is normally done by one of the lecturers during orientation by highlighting issues that are important. It is usually a 20-30 minutes presentation and from there they are expected to depend on their supervisors for guidance. This is not very helpful especially if one is not very familiar with dissertation writing; it's just an introduction aiming to be a summary that covers everything. They rely on their supervisors as there is no in-depth teaching.

**BM**: Okay, I see. So, it's not much guidance that they receive? The next question is now to do with your supervision directly. Do you sometimes correct your postgraduate students' citing styles, for example, by recommending certain or discouraging use of certain citation forms or reporting verbs as you go through their work?

**ELS3**: Yes, that is exactly what happens. Most of the time they do have problems. The first-degree students are the worst. Masters students, here and there you find that you still have to do some thorough teaching. But with post graduates ah, I think it's because the postgraduates that I have supervised are actually in linguistics so the two that I have supervised are lecturers in communication and study skills which means they teach their course and it's not very far from them and it's a matter of deciding on which style to use. But sometimes they do have problems with being accurate.

**BM**: the next question, I think you have partly addressed this, what are the common problems that you have observed in your post graduate students' work?

**ELS3**: Mixing of the citation quotes in the sense that they're not consistent as is expected. Another one, sometimes they do not even know how to place a quotation amidst the text. The third problem is that in some cases you also find that the quotation and the text don't really merge. I think this is because most of the time when they see a quotation that they think is directed to what they are writing, they just take the quotation and put it in without introducing it or coming up with an explanation that will... with the quotation. They further move on to not commenting on the quotation. That's the major problem. With the one I am supervising now, PhD, they don't even come up with these quotations. She just lists the observations that she draws from the data that she is analysing but there is no comment which means there is no voice on it, and there is no reference to other people's work which made me bring her here to show her this is what you are supposed to do and it was only after that she told me she was not aware that in the findings you're

supposed to say "I found this despite the fact that so and so discovered that". Either as a compliment or as something that negates what the first one said. She doesn't bring up her own voice to show the new contribution on the basis of what she has quoted from somebody because normal quotations would be to say "this is what so and so said", either in agreement or disagreement with what you find as a writer.

**BM**: thank you, the next question is: To what extent are your students, your masters and PhD students encouraged to evaluate information they cite from different sources and in this regard do they measure up to your expectations?

**ELS3**: No.

**BM**: It's because I heard you say they do not comment; we don't hear their voices.

**ELS3**: Yes, it's because they think that in the area of findings for example, they put factors as they are, without weaving them with what other people have said or have discovered earlier so that those earlier discoveries become a framework on which they can base themselves on and measure their new findings on because I believe that if they say "Muringani discovered that…. I have discovered this which agrees with what Muringani's finding that says", now you're citing what Muringani found. That is the major problem that I have discovered in all of them. They just want to say, the situation is A, B, C, D, think that is the finding and it stops there.

**BM**: Looking at the two levels, do you have different expectations as far as the level of being critical and their level of evaluation is concerned?

**ELS3**: Yes, there should be a difference in that the masters students are still doing what the PhD are doing, the only difference is that the PhD are doing it at a much bigger measure than the masters. This means those doing PhD should be even more sensitive to the different styles, consistency, to the ways of introducing quotations and commenting on it and indicating where new observations arise.

**BM**: So, you expect more from the PhDs?

**ELS3**: Yes, particularly because they have got a bigger volume than the masters ones. The masters ones are struggling with the size, something about 150 pages but PhD can go up to more than 250 pages.

**BM**: I'm now moving on to stance; this is where post graduate writers take positions in relation to what they are citing or even their own ideas; it includes the use of the first pronoun 'I' by postgraduate students in their writing. I know it's a controversial, but what's your view about its use by postgraduate students?

**ELS3**: It should be there but it should be limited because the fact that they are discussing information they got from other people, it means those people should be given that appreciation by saying "it has been observed", being impersonal. Although it will be of necessity for somebody to bring out the personal pronoun, for instance, in some controlled or limited way one can say "I claim, I observed", but it should be very controlled. It should be there but it should be very very controlled otherwise it becomes monotonous and some scholars may feel that this person is walking on top of our heads so in scholarship, I think it is not acceptable. You have to come to the level of everybody else and be aware that there are other people who can even find loop holes in what you think is your thing. In those loop holes, your position of 'I' begins to lose weight and value so it's best for people to indicate that yes, the discoveries are theirs but here and there. But by and large, it should basically be impersonal.

**BM**: So, you do accept the use of the first-person pronoun?

**ELS3**: Yes, but with control.

**BM**: Still to do with stance, are there instances where you would either encourage use of boosters or hedges by your students? Hedges when they are not certain and not want to commit themselves such as "it appears, this may appear" and instances where they feel like they're convinced this is the thing, using "definitely, no doubt, of course"?

**ELS3**: I always discourage them, especially the boosters because, to me, such expressions such as "obviously, definitely and so forth" make a piece of work sound informal, it is as though someone is speaking, not writing. So, I prefer to have a written text with no boosters. Bring your view in, don't overuse "I", don't mention the boosters. Not unless you are explaining what somebody said, for instance, "it was obvious in so and so's claim when he said da…da…da… that this is the situation", but using it in your observations, no.

**BM**: What about the use of these ones which don't commit them so much such as "probably, possibly"?

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**ELS3**: In the same manner, I don't want them to be overused because they make me feel like the person is…cannot make up his/her mind even though there is clear data in front of the person. So, I want the person to take a stance on the basis of the content the person has. You'd rather explain the situation, in an impersonal manner, "the new observation in this regard is…. because" ... and that 'because' is explaining what the stance was rather than saying "maybe here and there" where the writer is talking about an assumption. For instance, you say, "the word grammar is misspelled with an er at the end or with a terminal element maybe it is because of …. But don't use it to convey what you should be taking a stance on, but to show the difference of possibility, then it makes better sense for me.

**BM**: The last aspect of stance is what we call attitude markers; do you sometimes expect or encourage your students to use them? Expressions such as "surprisingly, interestingly…." that clearly show their attitude?

**ELS3**: Yes, those ones I am not worried as long they use them appropriately and accurately. For instance, to say, "It is important to note", is an attitude marker but it says the person is taking a stance in relation to what they are writing and the facts that have been brought forward. This means if it is important, the importance is drawn from the context of writing and it is not a matter of what I think, you see. The writer brings out the significance of the issue in discussion.

**BM**: Moving on to engagement, here I am looking at how our postgraduate writers try to involve readers in their argument. You find that some do it by using rhetorical questions and some use inclusive pronouns such as "we", for example, "as we have seen in chapter 2…". The inclusive pronouns here serve to include the readers even though there can be one writer. Some refer readers to certain parts of their work such as "(see chapter 1)", that's engaging the reader directly and other strategies that can be used. Do you encourage your students to engage their readers?

**ELS3**: Um, although I still don't like overuse of "see page what what, section what what", that could be used if there is a lot of information that needs to be brought forth to the new area of discussion. But if it's something small, why not just pick out that part and use it? But if it's something like half a page, then you can say "see such and such" because you cannot take out half a page and bring it forth. It should be in relation to what the writer is discussing. As for the "we" part, as it happened with importantly" and all others, I want them to be used appropriately and accurately and with a measurable amount because it cannot be "we" throughout, otherwise it will end up being monotonous and diluting the quality of the writing. As a writer, one must be flexible and use a structure that fits into that expression or into that discussion.

**BM**: Okay, do you recommend your students to send their work for professional editing before submitting the final copy?

**ELS3**: Yes, at postgraduate level I do just to have a second opinion because we're language specialists and we also teach editing. Taking it to somebody, as it happens with my papers as well, helps, because there can be some mistakes one did not intend to make so a second opinion is always the best remedy for any irregularities where necessary.

**BM**: I think you have touched on the second part of the question where you talked about the extent to which you think professional editing is necessary.

**ELS3**: To a large extent because, this is why I love the idea of peer reviewing, it doesn't matter what you have read. Somebody must look at something you have written in case there is something that you did not put properly or something that you fell short of better words for and that person can say "maybe you can say this here, put that there" and you find that it's quite helpful so you scratch out yours because you find theirs of better quality. It's not marking as such, it's just suggesting, you know, especially with the PhDs because their writing has to be very original. It's true even at master's level people still do that, but it's wise to do so.

**BM**: Last question, considering what you have experienced so far with your supervisees, apart from the academic writing skills that we teach our students at first year, what else do you think can be taught to our postgraduate students to enhance their thesis writing especially when they start, any recommendations?

**ELS3**: Workshops. These are important because firstly, for some students, there has been a gap between the time they studied for their masters and the time they do their PhD so that will serve as a reminder. Secondly, there is always new information that can help them in knowing the new trends in thesis writing. This can be done by just lecturers who will take postgraduates in that university and put them together to

just show them what is expected of them. It can be cross seminars, a two-day workshop, four days' workshop, with material prepared especially for them to have a general view. Lastly, there should be a handbook that is prepared by the university's writing centre because I wish at this university, the body that is a communication skills unit at the moment can be changed into a university writing centre because there can be listening, speaking, writing, reading for academic purposes because these four are always entangled. This centre would cater for everybody, not just the first years but everyone, even lecturers because there are some lectures who are not fully aware of what is needed in academic writing. This is my opinion and I wish the university would see the necessity of having this centre.

**BM**: Thank you so much EL Supervisor 3 for participating in my study.

Appendix C: Lists of articles in the RA study corpus

**Development studies**

DSRA1: Bank, L. and R. Southall. 1996. Traditional leaders in South Africa's new democracy. *Legal Pluralism*. HeinOnline. 37-38, 407-429.

DSRA2: Joseph, R. 2008. Challenges of a "Frontier" Region. *Journal of Democracy*. 19 (2), 94-108.

DSRA3: Nugent, P. 1996. An abandoned project? the nuances of chieftaincy, development and history in Ghana's Volta region. *Legal Pluralism*. HeinOnline. 37-38, 203-225.

DSRA4: Ouedraogo, J. B. 1996. The articulation of the Moose traditional chieftaincies, the modern political system, and the economic development of Kaya region, Burkina Faso. *Legal Pluralism*. HeinOnline. 37-38, 249-261.

DSRA5: Ray, D. I. 1996. Divided sovereignty traditional authority and the state in Ghana. *Legal Pluralism*. HeinOnline. 37-38, 181-202.

DSRA6: Skalnik, P. 1996. Authority versus power democracy in Africa must include original African institutions. *Legal Pluralism*. HeinOnline. 37-38, 109-121.

DSRA7: Doig, A. 2003. The national integrity system: Assessing corruption and reform. *Public Administration and Development*. 23, 317-332. Available online at www.interscience.wiley.com. DOI: 10.1002/pad.287.

DSRA8: Stren, R. and R. Cameron. 2005. Metropolitan governance reform: An introduction. *Public Administration and Development.* 25, 275–284. Available online at www.interscience.wiley.com DOI: 10.1002/pad.381.

DSRA9: Asthana, A. N. 2008. Decentralisation and corruption: evidence from drinking water sector. *Public Administration and Development*. 28, 181-189. Available online at www.interscience.wiley.com. DOI: 10.1002/pad.496.

DSRA10: Pinto, R. F. 1998. Innovations in the provision of public goods and services. *Public Administration and Development*. 18, 387-397.

DSRA11: Ariyo, A. and A. Jerome. 1999. Privatization in Africa: An Appraisal. *World Development*. 27 (1), 201-213.

DSRA12: Wang, S. and Y. Yao. 2007. Grassroots democracy and local governance: Evidence from rural China. *World Development*. 35 (10), 1635–1649. Doi: 10.1016/j.worlddev.2006.10.014.

DSRA13: Ramamurti, R. 1999. Why haven't developing countries privatized deeper and faster? *World Development.* 27 (1), 137-155.

DSRA14: Moser, C. O. N. 1999. The asset vulnerability framework: Reassessing urban poverty reduction strategies. *World Development*. 26 (1), l-19.

DSRA15: Herna´ndez-Trillo, F. and B. Jarillo-Rabling. 2008. Is local beautiful? Fiscal decentralization in Mexico. *World Development*. 36 (9), 1547–1558.

DSRA16: Hadenius, A. and F. Uggla. 1996. Making civil society work, promoting democratic development: What can states and donors do? *World Development.* 24 (10), 1621-1639.

DSRA17: Easterly, W. 2009. How the Millennium Development Goals are unfair to Africa. *World Development*. 37 (1), 26–35. Available online at www.sciencedirect.com.

DSRA18: Clemens, M. A., C. J. Kenny and T. J. Moss. 2007. The trouble with the MDGs: Confronting expectations of aid and development success. *World Development* Vol. 35, No. 5, pp. 735–751. Available online at www.sciencedirect.com.

DSRA19: Kopecky, P. and C. Mudde. 2003. Rethinking civil society. *Democratization*. 10 (3), 1-14.

DSRA20: Ouma, S. O.A. 1991. Corruption in public policy and its impact on development: The case of Uganda since 1979. *Public Administration and Development*. II (5), 473-490.

**English and Linguistics**

ELRA1: Canale, M. and M. Swaine. 1980. Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics.* 1 (1), 1-47.

ELRA2: Schleppegrell, M.J. 1996. Conjunction in spoken English and ESL writing. *Applied Linguistics.* 17 (3), 271-285.

ELRA3: Roehr, K. 2007. Metalinguistic knowledge and language ability in university-level L2 learners. *Applied Linguistics*. 29 (2), 173–199. Doi:10.1093/applin/amm037.

ELRA4: Shaw, P. and E. T. Liu. 1998. What develops in the development of second-language writing. *Applied Linguistics*. 19 (2), 225-254.

ELRA5: Hyatt, D. 2005. Time for a change: A critical discoursal analysis of synchronic context with diachronic relevance. *Discourse & Society*. 16 (4), 515-534.

ELRA6: Stewart, M. 2013. 'Denuncio pero lo lamento …': Attitudinal hedges and the pragmatics of the explicitly performative verb in Spanish. *Multilingua*. 32 (1), 33–50.

ELRA7: Vukovic´, M. 2012. Positioning in pre-prepared and spontaneous parliamentary discourse: Choice of person in the Parliament of Montenegro. *Discourse & Society*. 32 (2), 184-202. DOI: 10.1177/0957926511431507.

ELRA8: Hinkel, E. 2003. Adverbial markers and tone in L1 and L2 students' writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 35, 1049–1068. Available online at www.elsevier.com/locate/pragma 0378-2166/

ELRA9: Le, E. 2004. Active participation within written argumentation: Metadiscourse and editorialist's authority. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 36, 687–714. Available online at www.elsevier.com/locate/pragma 0378-2166/

ELRA10: Ellis, N. C. and D. Larsen-Free. 2006. Language emergence: Implications for applied linguistics – Introduction to the special issue. *Applied Linguistics*. 27 (4), 558-589. Available online at https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/aml028.

ELRA11: Le, E. 2009. Editorials' genre and media roles: Le Monde's editorials from 1999 to 2001. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 41, 1727–1748. Available online at www.elsevier.com/locate/pragma 0378-2166/

ELRA12: Lee, D. 1987. The semantics of *just. Journal of Pragmatics* 11, 377-398.

ELRA13: Schegloff, E. A. 1988. Presequences and indirection: Applying speech act theory to ordinary conversation. *Journal of Pragmatics*. 12, 55-62.

ELRA14: de Beaugrande, R. (2001). Interpreting the discourse of H.G. Widdowson: A corpus-based critical discourse analysis. *Applied Linguistics* Vol. 22, No.1, pp.104-121.

ELRA15: Cameroon, D. 1994. Verbal hygiene for women: Linguistics misapplied. *Applied Linguistics*. 15 (4), 382-398.

ELRA16: Hyland K. 1996. Writing without conviction? Hedging in science research articles. *Applied Linguistic*. 17 (4), 433-454.

ELRA17: Dupret, B. and J. Ferrié. 2008. Legislation at the shopfloor level: Background knowledge and relevant context of parliamentary debates. *Journal of Pragmatics.* 40, 960–978. (Replace with Lancaster)

ELRA18: Koening, M. A. and P. L. Harris. 2005. Pre-schoolers mistrust ignorant and inaccurate speakers. *Child Development*. 76 (6),1261 – 1277.

ELRA19: Chen, R. 2001. Self-politeness: A proposal. *Journal of Pragmatics.* 33, 87–106.

ELRA20: Fairclough, N. 1992. Discourse and text: Linguistic and intertextual analysis within discourse analysis. *Discourse & Society*. 32 (2), 193-217.

Appendix D: Hyland (2005a, 219-224) stance & engagement search items list

| STANCE MARKERS | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Attitude markers** | | | |
| admittedly | desirably | hopefully | shockingly |
| agree | disappointed | important | striking |
| agreed | disappointing | importantly | strikingly |
| agrees | disappointingly | inappropriate | surprised |
| amazed | disagree | inappropriately | surprising |
| amazing | disagreed | interesting | surprisingly |
| amazingly | disagrees | interestingly | unbelievable |
| appropriate | dramatic | prefer | unbelievably |
| appropriately | dramatically | preferable | understandable |
| astonished | essential | preferably | understandably |
| astonishing | essentially | preferred | unexpected |
| astonishingly | expected | remarkable | unexpectedly |
| correct | expectedly | remarkably | unfortunate |
| correctly | expectedly | significant | unfortunately |
| curious | fortunate | significantly | unusual |
| curiously | fortunately | shocked | unusually |
| desirable | hopeful | shocking | usual |
|  |  |  | usually |
| **Self-mention** | | | |
| I | we | me | us |
| my | our | mine | the author |
| the author's | the writer | the writer's | the researcher |
| the researcher's |  |  |  |

| **Boosters** | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| actually | demonstrates | know | shows |
| always | demonstrated | known | showed |
| believe | doubtless | must | shown |
| believes | establish | no doubt | sure |
| believed | establishes | obvious | surely |
| beyond doubt | established | obviously | think |
| certain | evident | of course | thinks |
| certainly | evidently | prove | thought |
| clear | find | proves | true |
| clearly | finds | proved | truly |
| conclusively | found | realize | undeniable |
| decidedly | in fact | realizes | undeniably |
| definite | indeed | realized | undoubtedly |
| definitely | indisputable | really | without doubt |
| demonstrate | indisputably | show | |

| **Hedges** | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| about | estimate | mainly | somehow |
| almost | estimated | may | suggest |
| apparent | fairly | maybe | suggests |
| apparently | feel | might | suggested |
| appear | feels | mostly | suppose |
| appears | felt | often | supposes |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| appeared | frequently | on the whole | supposed |
| approximately | from my perspective | perhaps | suspect |
| argue | from our perspective | plausible | suspects |
| argues | from this perspective | plausibly | tend to |
| argued | generally | possible | tends to |
| around | indicate | possibly | tended to |
| assume | indicates | postulate | to my knowledge |
| assumed | indicated | postulates | uncertain |
| broadly | in general | postulated | uncertainly |
| certain amount | in most cases | presumable | unclear |
| certain extent | in most instances | presumably | unclearly |
| certain level | in my opinion | probable | unlikely |
| claim | in my view | probably | usually |
| claims | in this view | relatively | would |
| claimed | in our opinion | roughly | would not |
| could | in our view | seems | |
| doubt | largely | sometimes | |
| doubtful | likely | somewhat | |

**ENGAGEMENT MARKERS**

| Questions | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | ? | question* | |
| **Reader pronouns** | | | |
| you us | your | we | our |
| **Directives** | | | |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| assume | it is important | notice | see |
| cf | key | observe | should |
| compare | let us | ought | think about |
| consider | look at | recall | think of |
| consult | must | refer | |
| imagine | note | remember | |
| **Shared knowledge** | | | |
| natural | obvious | obviously | of course |
| naturally | | | |
| **Interesting asides** | | | |
| ( ) | _ _ | | |

Appendix E: Relative standard deviation for PhD interactional features

| Relative standard deviation for citation integration | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| **Citation integration** | | **DSD** | **ELD** |
| Author integration | Integral | 41.68 | 77.12 |
| | Non-integral | 33.22 | 90.00 |
| Textual integration | Assimilation | 50.43 | 60.37 |
| | Insertion | 101.28 | 90.33 |
| | Insertion + assimilation | 113.49 | 75.01 |
| Total | | 7.92 | 18.96 |
| **Relative standard deviation for stance markers** | | | |
| **Stance marker** | | **DSD** | **ELD** |
| Reporting verbs | Acknowledge | 49.06 | 80.28 |
| | Distance | 2.67 | 47.14 |
| | Endorse | 30.00 | 100.28 |
| | Contest | 141.42 | 141.42 |
| Other markers | Hedges | 0.10 | 0.47 |
| | Boosters | 31.22 | 13.22 |
| | Attitude markers | 13.29 | 21.81 |
| | Self-mention | 121.91 | 90.91 |
| Total | | 25.67 | 15.84 |
| **Relative standard deviation for engagement markers** | | | |
| **Engagement marker** | | **DSD** | **ELD** |
| Reader pronouns | | 70.71 | 141.42 |
| Personal asides | | 56.57 | 141.42 |
| Shared knowledge | | 20.20 | 28.28 |
| Directives | | 36.89 | 53.48 |
| Questions | | 116.83 | 70.71 |
| Total | | 25.58 | 36.59 |

Appendix F: List of postgraduate general topic areas

| Text | General topic area |
|------|--------------------|
| DSD1 | Local governance |
| DSD2 | Urban economic development |
| ELD1 | Morphology |
| ELD2 | Religious discourse analysis |
| DSM1 | Politics and gender |
| DSM2 | Non-governmental organisations funding challenges |
| DSM3 | Urban housing shortage |
| DSM4 | Basotho mine workers' retrenchment |
| DSM5 | Highlands Water Project |
| ELM1 | English grammar |
| ELM2 | Engagement in newspapers |
| ELM3 | Semantics |
| ELM4 | Parliamentary debates discourse analysis |
| ELM5 | Classroom communication |

Appendix G: Ethical clearance certificate

UNISA | university of south africa

Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages
03 March 2014

Ref: AL_BM5_2014

Ms B Muringani
National University of Lesotho
PO Roma 180
Maseru
LESOTHO

Dear Ms Muringani

**Registered D Litt et Phil student: Ms Muringani  (50851365)**

**Proposed title:**
**Citation and stance: A comparison of postgraduate and published academic writing**

The Ethics subcommittee of the Department of Linguistics hereby approves your proposed research study and your abidance with ethical principles and procedures, as set out in the **Research Proposal Ethical Clearance Form** in Appendix 6 of MLINALL Tutorial Letter 2013, submitted to the subcommittee on 27 February 2014.

- The approval applies strictly to the protocols as stipulated in your application form.
- Should any changes in the protocol be deemed necessary during the proposed study, then you must apply for approval of these changes to the Linguistics Ethics subcommittee.

The date of the approval letter indicates the first date that the project may officially be started.

The Linguistics Ethics subcommittee wishes you everything of the best with your research study. Please do not hesitate to contact us should you have any further enquiries or requests for assistance.

Yours sincerely

Prof EJ Pretorius
Chair: Higher Degrees Committee and Ethics subcommittee
Department of Linguistics
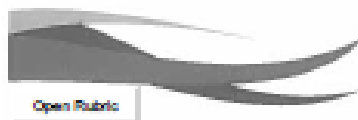
Open Rubric

Appendix H: Consent form sample

**CONSENT FORM**

**BACKGROUND INFORMATION**

**Title and researcher.** My name is Bertha Muringani and I am doing a D Litt et Phil in Linguistics at the University of South Africa in the Department of Linguistics and Modern Languages. The title of my research is 'Citation, stance and engagement: a comparison of postgraduate and published academic writing'.

**Reason for the research.** I am collecting data from postgraduate candidates and supervisors to examine how writers at this level cite sources, pronounce their stance, and engage readers as compared to published writers.

**Details of participation.** The research involves answering interview questions to establish how postgraduate writers cite sources, choose citation forms and select reporting verbs to use in citations. Some questions are also asked on why they cite sources; how they show their attitude towards the propositions that they cite, and how they involve readers in their arguments. With regards to supervisors, the questions asked are to a greater extent similar to the ones asked postgraduate writers. However, they also examine how much input the supervisors give to their students as far as citing practices are concerned. This session should take about 45 minutes. Please feel free to ask questions now if you have any.

**CONSENT STATEMENT**

1. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I may withdraw from the research at any time, without giving any reason.
2. I am aware of what my participation will involve.
3. I understand that there are no risks involved in the participation of this study.
4. All questions that I have about the research have been satisfactorily answered.

I agree to participate ☐ (Please tick this box if you agree to participate)

Participant's signature: _____

Participant's name (please print): _____

E-mail: _____

Tick this box if you would like to receive a summary of the results by e-mail: ☐

Appendix I: Citation to reference ratios

| Text | References | Citations | Ratio |
|---|---|---|---|
| DSM1 | 154 | 178 | 1.1 |
| DSM2 | 110 | 148 | 1.3 |
| DSM3 | 58 | 236 | 4.0 |
| DSM4 | 48 | 114 | 2.3 |
| DSM5 | 116 | 180 | 1.5 |
| **TOTALS** | **486** | **856** | **1.8** |
| ELM1 | 44 | 130 | 2.9 |
| ELM2 | 30 | 113 | 3.7 |
| ELM3 | 16 | 120 | 7.5 |
| ELM4 | 36 | 104 | 2.8 |
| ELM5 | 53 | 100 | 1.8 |
| **TOTALS** | **179** | **567** | **3.2** |
| DSD1 | 162 | 460 | 2.8 |
| DSD2 | 342 | 638 | 1.8 |
| **TOTALS** | **504** | **1098** | **2.2** |
| ELD1 | 156 | 300 | 1.9 |
| ELD2 | 288 | 494 | 1.7 |
| **TOTALS** | **444** | **794** | **1.8** |
| DSRA1 | 24 | 40 | 1.6 |
| DSRA2 | 32 | 21 | 0.6 |
| DSRA3 | 28 | 25 | 0.8 |
| DSRA4 | 21 | 9 | 0.4 |
| DSRA5 | 19 | 34 | 1.7 |
| DSRA6 | 32 | 10 | 0.3 |
| DSRA7 | 29 | 60 | 2.0 |
| DSRA8 | 43 | 52 | 1.2 |
| DSRA9 | 47 | 43 | 0.9 |
| DSRA10 | 10 | 10 | 1 |
| DSRA11 | 22 | 31 | 1.4 |
| DSRA12 | 22 | 20 | 0.9 |
| DSRA13 | 36 | 41 | 1.1 |
| DSRA14 | 68 | 62 | 0.9 |
| DSRA15 | 41 | 32 | 0.7 |
| DSRA16 | 47 | 88 | 1.8 |
| DSRA17 | 22 | 23 | 1.0 |
| DSRA18 | 62 | 55 | 0.8 |
| DSRA19 | 37 | 21 | 0.5 |
| DSRA20 | 33 | 54 | 1.6 |
| **TOTALS** | **655** | **731** | **1.1** |
| ELRA1 | 148 | 128 | 0.8 |
| ELRA2 | 44 | 41 | 0.9 |
| ELRA3 | 57 | 63 | 1.1 |
| ELRA4 | 32 | 31 | 0.9 |
| ELRA5 | 37 | 50 | 1.3 |
| ELRA6 | 38 | 33 | 0.8 |
| ELRA7 | 56 | 35 | 0.6 |

| | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| ELRA8 | 41 | 83 | 2.0 |
| ELRA9 | 50 | 57 | 1.1 |
| ELRA10 | 42 | 42 | 1 |
| ELRA11 | 42 | 41 | 0.9 |
| ELRA12 | 12 | 29 | 2.4 |
| ELRA13 | 9 | 14 | 1.5 |
| ELRA14 | 42 | 26 | 0.6 |
| ELRA15 | 29 | 32 | 1.1 |
| ELRA16 | 18 | 23 | 1.2 |
| ELRA17 | 42 | 37 | 0.8 |
| ELRA18 | 46 | 37 | 0.8 |
| ELRA19 | 42 | 49 | 1.1 |
| ELRA20 | 21 | 33 | 1.5 |
| **ELRA Totals** | **848** | **884** | **1.0** |

Appendix J: List of stance and reader engagement markers found in the corpus

**STANCE MARKERS**

### Hedges

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| about | from this perspective | probably |
| almost | generally | relatively |
| apparent | in general | roughly |
| apparently | in most cases | roughly |
| appear | in my opinion | seem |
| approximately | in my view | seemingly |
| argue | in the researcher's view | somehow |
| around | indicate | sometimes |
| assume | indicates | somewhat |
| assumed | largely | suggest |
| assumed | likely | suggested |
| broadly | mainly | suggests |
| certain amount | may | supposed |
| certain extent | may be | supposedly |
| claim | might | tend to |
| could | mostly | tended to |
| doubtful | often | tends to |
| estimated | on the whole | uncertain |
| estimates | perhaps | unclearly |
| fairly | plausible | unlikely |
| feel | possible | usually |
| felt | possibly | would |
| frequently | postulate | would not |
| from our perspective | probable | |

### Boosters

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| actually | established | realised |
| always | evident | realize |
| certain | find | really |
| certainly | finds | show |
| clear | found | shown |
| clearly | in fact | surely |
| decidedly | indeed | think |
| definite | know | thought |
| definitely | known | true |
| demonstrate | must | undeniable |
| demonstrates | no doubt | undeniably |
| doubtless | of course | undoubtedly |
| establish | prove | without doubt |

### Attitude makers

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| admittedly | hopeful | strange |
| agree | hopefully | striking |

| appropriate | important | strikingly |
|---|---|---|
| appropriately | importantly | surprised |
| concur | inappropriate | surprising |
| correct | inappropriately | surprisingly |
| correctly | interesting | unbelievable |
| curious | interestingly | understandable |
| desirable | not significant | unexpected |
| disagree | not surprising | unexpectedly |
| disappointing | prefer | unfortunate |
| disappointingly | preferable | |
| dramatic | preferably | unfortunately |
| dramatically | preferred | unsurprisingly |
| essential | refer | unusual |
| essentially | remarkable | unusually |
| expected | shock | usual |
| fortunately | significant | usually |
| | significantly | |
| **Self-mention** |||
| I | our | this paper |
| me | | us |
| my | the author | we |
| | the researcher | |

**ENGAGEMENT MARKERS**

| Directives | | Reader Pronouns | Shared knowledge | Interesting asides | Questions |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| cf | see | our | natural | (…) | ? |
| compare | should | us | naturally | e.g. John the | question |
| consider | | we | obvious | Baptist (after | |
| it is important | | you | obviously | whom both | |
| key | suppose | your | of course | Johane Marange | |
| let us | | | | and Johane | |
| look at | | | | Masowe named | |
| must | | | | themselves) | |
| note | | | | | |
| noted | | | | | |
| noteworthy | | | | | |
| notice | | | | | |
| observe | | | | | |
| recall | | | | | |
| refer | | | | | |
| remember | | | | | |