

KARADENİZ TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ*SOSYAL BİLİMLER ENSTİTÜSÜ

BATI DİLLERİ VE EDEBİYATI ANABİLİM DALI
UYGULAMALI DİLBİLİMİ YÜKSEK LİSANS PROGRAMI

STANCE IN THE DISCUSSION: A GENRE-BASED COMPARATIVE STUDY

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

NURAY ÇAYLAK

EKİM-2012

TRABZON

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Tez Danışmanı: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Mustafa Naci KAYAOĞLU

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TRABZON

ONAY

Nuray aylak tarafından hazırlanan *Stance in the Discussion: A genre-based comparative study* adlı bu alıřma 04/10/2012 tarihinde yapılan savunma sınavı sonucunda oy birlięi ile başarılı bulunarak jürimiz tarafından Batı Dilleri ve Edebiyatı Anabilim Dalında **yüksek lisans tezi** olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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Yukarıdaki imzaların, adı geen öğretim üyelerine ait olduklarını onaylarım./...../.....

Prof. Dr. Ahmet ULUSOY
Enstitü Müdürü

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without whom *eye* cannot see

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ÖZET

Bu çalışma, İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak konuşan Türk yüksek lisans öğrencilerinin ve İngilizceyi anadil olarak konuşan yüksek lisans öğrencilerinin tezlerini tür analizi açısından ele almaktadır ve iki gruba ait tezlerin tartışma bölümlerini retoriksel ve yazımsal duruş açısından incelemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca her iki gruptan üçer öğrenciyle de açık uçlu görüşme yapılmıştır. Analiz her gruptan alınan Uygulamalı Dilbilimi alanındaki 10 tez üzerinde Dudley-Evans'ın işlev taksonomisi ve Hyland'in yazımsal duruş motifleri taksonomisi baz alınarak yapılmıştır. Her iki grup arasında istatistiksel açıdan farkları ortaya koyabilmek için AntConc 3.2.4w bütüncü analiz programı ve Log-Likelihood testi kullanılmıştır. Kelime sıklığı 37298 olan bu bütüncü, kodlamanın güvenilirliği için üç araştırmacı tarafından kodlanmıştır. Sonuçlar iki grup arasında etkili bir yazımsal duruş sergilemede istatistiksel açıdan anlamlı farklar olduğunu ortaya koymaktadır. İngilizceyi anadil olarak konuşan öğrencilerin genelleme yaparken daha ihtiyatlı bir tutum sergiledikleri ve aynı zamanda genellemelerini destekledikleri görülmüştür. Öte yandan, Türk yüksek lisans öğrencilerinin daha iddialı savlar ortaya koydukları, daha az ihtiyat belirteçleri kullandıkları ve genellikle sonuçtan direkt genel yargılara ulaştıkları sonucu ortaya çıkmıştır. Görüşmelerin sonucunda İngilizceyi anadil olarak konuşan öğrencilerin yazımsal duruşlarının ve söylemsel argümanlarının gelişmesinde, aldıkları eğitimin, yürütmekte oldukları çalışmaların ve bireysel çabalarının etkisinin olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Türk öğrencilerin akademik anlamda diğer gurup kadar aktif olmamalarının ve akademik üslup anlamında yeterli düzeyde eğitim almamış olmalarının, onların üslup ve argümanlarının şekillenmesinde etkili olduğu sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Tür analizi (genre analysis), işlev (Move), yazımsal duruş (stance), ihtiyat belirteçleri (hedges), kesinlik belirteçleri (boosters), tutum belirteçleri (attitude markers), öz-bahisleri (self-mentions)

ABSTRACT

The present study is a genre analysis carried out on Turkish and native speaking English (NS) master's students' theses. It aims to investigate the probable differences between these two groups in terms of rhetorical organization and stance taking in the discussion sections of master's theses. The analysis is based on 10 master theses in Applied Linguistics from each group. Additionally, a semi-structured interview was conducted with six students with the aim of commenting on the results more clearly. The rhetorical patterns (moves) and stance markers (hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions) used in the realization of the moves were examined by a top-down genre analysis based on Dudley-Evans's move framework and Hyland's stance taxonomy. In order to determine the statistically significant differences between the two corpora, a concordance programme AntConc 3.2.4w was employed to apply log-likelihood test on the data. The 37298-word corpora were tagged by three researchers to validate the coding. Results revealed that there was a statistically significant difference in projecting stance in the discussion section between Turkish and NS students. The results indicate that NS students appeared more cautious in making claims. NS students support their claims with evidence and tone them with hedges. However, the reverse was apparent in the case of Turkish students, who tend to make bold claims with boosters which are not down-toned by hedging and they seem to favour quick generalizations and jumps from specific results to general claims. Additionally, both groups project differences in terms of move organization and frequency. Interviews revealed that the background, active involvement in academic field and individual efforts could have helped NS students to exhibit a distinguished stance and rhetorical organization in discussion parts of their theses. Not all Turkish students received required education in academic writing; yet, they tend to show reluctance towards actively engaging in the academic disciplines and compensating the gaps in their genre awareness. These factors might have influenced the performance of Turkish students in academic writing.

Keywords: Genre analysis, move, stance, hedge, booster, attitude marker, self-mention

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

- L1** : First language, mother tongue
L2 : Second language, foreign language
NS : Native Speaker of English
NNS : Non-native speaker of English (Turkish Master's Students in this study)
ESP : English for Specific Purposes
EFL : English as a Foreign Language
ESL : English as a Second Language
HG : Hedge
BR : Booster
AM : Attitude Marker
SM : Self-mention

GLOSSARY

English for Specific Purposes: teaching of English to meet specific needs of learners

Genre: a distinctive type of text

Genre analysis: the study of situated linguistic behaviour in institutionalized academic or professional settings

Move: the logical manoeuvre adopted by the communicator/s in written or spoken discourse (Mirador, 2000)

Stance: the personal attitude, feelings, or position that a speaker or writer has about the information in a proposition

Hedge: words which allow presenting claims with appropriate caution, such as *maybe, seem, might, probably*

Booster (emphatic): words which indicate certainty, such as *apparent, real, fact, definitely*

Attitude markers: words which point affective attitude to propositions, and convey surprise, agreement, importance, frustration and so on, rather than commitment, such as *interestingly, importantly, prominent, should*

Self-mention: the way writers identify themselves through using the first personal pronouns; for instance, *I, my, we, our, researcher*

Marker: a word or expression which shows the connection between what is being said and the wider context

Corpus (plural corpora): a large, structured, electronically stored and processed set of texts used to do statistical analysis

Corpus analysis: the process of checking occurrences or validating linguistic rules on a specific corpus using a specific computer programme

Concordance: an index of all main words in a book along with their immediate contexts

AntConc: a freeware concordance program which allows for creating word lists and searching through natural language text files for words, phrases, and patterns

Reference corpus: a corpus of text used for comparative purposes (Scott, 2010)

Log-likelihood: a statistical test used to compare the fit of two models, one of which (the *null model*) is a special case of the other (the *alternative model*). This test identifies the statistically significant difference between these two models

Key words: words which are unusually frequent (or infrequent) in the corpus in comparison with the words in a reference corpus (Scott, 2010)

Keyword analysis: identifying characteristic words in the corpus employing a specific statistical test such as Loglikelihood or Chi-Square

Move keyness: keyness value indicates key Moves which are unusually frequent (or infrequent) in the corpus in comparison with the Moves in the *same* corpus

Reference corpus keyness: keyness value indicates key Moves which are unusually frequent (or infrequent) in the corpus in comparison with the Moves in a *reference* corpus

Token: the number of individual words in the text (Scott, 2010)

Type: the number of types in a word frequency list is the number of unique word forms, rather than the total number of words in a text (Scott, 2010)

Hit: occurrence of words

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

To be accepted by the academic world, research writers are required to follow a conventional style and language use. Ignorance of these styles and conventions, which means not practicing the persuasive language of the related discipline, can impede writers' membership into the academic community (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2009; Duszak, 1997).

Academic writing is the area from which L2 research writers suffer most (Paltridge & Starfield, 2011; Li, 2006; Uzuner, 2008; Tardy, 2004; Cho, 2004; Hanauer & Englander, 2011) not only in the phase of submission of their dissertations but also in submitting their papers to journals (Flowerdew, 1999; Burrough-Boenisch, 2003; Kaplan & Baldauf, 2005; Lillis & Curry, 2006; Li, 2006; Uzuner, 2008; Tardy, 2004). Although most of both native and non-native postgraduate students take academic writing courses, they still have difficulties in taking advantage of academic stance and in acquiring genre competence in writing (Chang, 2010; Hinkel, 2011). This could be explained by the theoretical aspect of writing courses which try to squeeze "complex conventions of the discourse community" (Masshadi, Manzuri & Dusti, 2011: 43) into prescriptive writing rules which fall somewhat far from being practical and professional. These courses are less able to capture the discursive aspects of academic writing (Chang, 2010; Hyland, 2005a, 2004b).

Second language writers seek to acquire a professional identity, and to be socialized in this specialized community. However, second language writers face linguistic and discursal challenges plus the challenge of being non-native and at the periphery of the English speaking world. Their writing exhibits differences from that of natives' (Hinkel, 2011; Thomas, Wareing, Singh, Peccei, Thornborrow and Jones, 2004; Hinkel, 2002;

Abdullahzadeh, 2011; Connor, 2002; Hyland, 2005b; Paltridge & Starfield, 2011). L2 writers wrestle with both mastering a second language and professional discourse at the same time. In this respect, native writers could enjoy the advantage of having already mastered linguistic and grammatical features as well as the logic and rhetoric of the language. Probably, the only thing native writers need to improve is discipline-specific academic writing style. Nevertheless, a non-native writer has to cover all the issues mentioned of the native writers as an advantage. Those issues constitute the gap between natives and non-natives in academic writing. As the current literature indicates, the difficulties L2 writers experience could be attributed to the factors of genre and language competence, as well as culture and educational background (Gabrielatos & McNery, 2005; Hinkel, 2011; Masshadi et al., 2011).

Making of knowledge claims and taking an effective authorial stance to establish a credible authorship is a predicament for L2 novice research writers especially in the fields termed soft sciences (e.g. anthropology, economics, education, geography, history, law, linguistics, political science, psychology, sociology). The credible stance depends essentially on the writers' interpretive and reasoning capability to convey convincing arguments appreciated by their disciplinary community (Hyland, 2000, 2006). The rhetoric of the language by which the data are illustrated in the research report is as important as the research itself. Failure to present an effective authorial stance may result in poor evaluation by audience. Therefore, L2 research writers need to strike a fine balance between being humble and authoritative by employing linguistic and discursive patterns (Chang, 2010).

Turkish research writers as speakers of English as a foreign language face the challenge of being at the periphery of English speaking world and the difficulty in acquiring professional identities through socializing in their specialized communities (Uysal, 2008; Uzuner, 2008; Buckingham, 2008). In this respect, the writing conventions and rhetorical features of native speaker writers, as well as the dissimilarities of native and non-native writing has recently gained importance.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Studying research articles which are generally written by expert writers is a traditional area in English for Specific Purposes; however, there has been a shift towards studying advanced academic literacy of non-native English speakers at postgraduate level, especially in their own cultural environments where English is not the national language (Paltridge & Starfield, 2006). Thesis writing as an indispensable step in seeking membership into the academic community, has become a prominent research area in genre studies in recent years (Hyland, 2004a; Cho, 2004; Gabrielatos & McEnery, 2005; Li, 2006; Flowerdew & Li, 2007; Samraj, 2008; Cheung, 2010; Nodoushan & Khakbaz, 2011; Parkinson, 2011; Masshadi et al., 2011).

It is well established in the literature that novice L2 writers are the ones who face the greatest difficulty in academic writing, especially in conforming to conventional styles of academic English rhetoric and text organization (Basturkmen, 2009, 2011; Thomas et al., 2004; Hinkel, 2002; Abdullahzadeh, 2011), taking an effective authorial stance (Hyland, 1998d, 1999, 2000, 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2005b; Blagojević, 2009; Bondi, 2008), and less contextualized acquisition of linguistic skills (Paltridge & Starfield, 2011: 113).

There exist few studies (Uysal, 2008; Uzuner, 2008; Buckingham, 2008) on the discursal and linguistic features of Turkish EFL writers' academic writing, and the problems they encounter in the process of surviving in an English language-dominated research world. To this end, the study attempts to illustrate the differences between native-novice academic writers and non-native novice academic writers in terms of text organization and stance taking in the discussion parts of their master's theses, and the awareness behind these practices.

1.3. Significance of the Study

Although genre studies have been favoured in language teaching and academic writing research, there is lack of studies (Uysal, 2008; Uzuner, 2008) in Turkey concerning, particularly, postgraduate students' stance and rhetorical organization in academic writing. In this respect, the study aims to contribute to academic writing by

comparing the rhetorical preferences and stance taking of Turkish and NS master's students, and their background and consciousness related to these aspects of academic writing.

The study may also contribute to postgraduate academic writing by arousing awareness and consciousness of students towards discourse community they try to become members of. L2 writers may not necessarily be aware of how and in what ways their writing is different from that of native speakers'. In this sense, the study may contribute to increasing L2 writers' awareness of academic writing conventions of the English language. Despite the limited extent, this study may also provide insights into the discursive differences between Turkish and NS master students' text organization and effective stance taking, which also might help L2 writers gain an awareness of the differences between non-native and native speakers' writing. To some extent, it might help picture the understanding and experience behind the practices related to these features. Additionally, from this aspect, the study may have some academic and pedagogical implications for material developers, syllabus designers and instructors teaching academic writing.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The study aims to compare native and non-native English speakers' academic writing with a specific focus. Although the number of speakers of English as a second or foreign language is greater than native English speakers, English language academic writing conventions are accepted as a base for academics in academic writing. In this sense, the effect of first language in writing conventions and the logic behind the organization of the written text play an important part in academic writing. Unfortunately, these dissimilarities are not explicit to L2 writers in the discussion parts of master's theses.

To this end, the study is to explore the distribution patterns of stance markers in different moves in the discussion of master's theses to identify the regularities in each move. Additionally, the study attempts to illustrate the differences between native and L2 writers of English in terms of taking authorial stance and rhetorical organization of discussion sections with the help of a concordance programme. Moreover, the present study attempts to explore what characteristic stance markers are used in specific moves by

Turkish and NS students, with a specific focus on how these practices differ from each other. Apart from statistical analysis, the study also seeks to describe the experiences and understanding of these master's students with a semi-structured interview with the aim of commenting on results with clearer evidence.

The study adopts Ken Hyland's stance taxonomy, which is one of the most comprehensive and detailed taxonomies. There are also other researchers who study stance; however, their perspectives and classifications are different from that of Hyland's. Therefore, the methodology of identifying and classifying stance plus literature review of this study are shaped and based heavily on Ken Hyland's studies.

1.5. Research Questions

The study aims to answer the following questions:

- What rhetorical patterns for discussion parts in MA dissertations are preferred by Turkish students in comparison to native-English speaking students?
- What stance features are typically found in discussion parts in MA dissertations of Turkish students in comparison to native-English speaking students?
- What are the characteristic stance markers in moves? Do these markers differ in Turkish and NS Corpora?
- What are the possible reasons behind these practices?
- Are the students aware of their practices and academic writing conventions of their disciplines?

1.6. Outline of the Study

Consisting of five chapters, the study begins with an introduction where the statement and the significance of the problem are presented. The introduction also hosts the purpose of the study, together with the research questions guiding the process.

The second chapter is allocated to the review of literature, covering the issue of academic writing with a special focus on L2 writers' practices and characteristic features of L2 text in the first part of the chapter. Then, socio-cultural theories are mentioned as an

important aspect in defining the reasons behind the differences between L1 and L2 writers' practices. In the second part of chapter two, discourse and genre analyses with three genre theories are defined, and the concept of discourse community is described in the light of genre. Then, genre analysis within English for Specific Purposes is handled in detail with the accounts of rhetorical organizations and stance in academic writing.

The third chapter is dedicated to the methodology of the study and clarifies the research approach besides data collection and data analysis procedures with examples from the authentic data.

The fourth chapter deals with the statement and discussion of the results. The data obtained from corpus analysis programmes and the interviews are analysed, and the results are discussed.

The fifth chapter summarizes the conclusions that are drawn from the study and indicates pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research, and closes with the researcher's epilogue which reflects on the writing process of this study with a particular focus on the discussion section.

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter is organized into two parts. The first part considers the challenges and complexities of academic writing, L1 and L2 writer differences, and the role of culture in this process, along with the socio-cultural aspect of academic writing. In the second part, after discourse analysis and discourse community issues are handled, genre analysis and genre theories with a focus on rhetorical organization are covered. Lastly, stance in academic texts from English for Specific Purposes Approach is reviewed.

2.2. Part One

2.2.1. Product and Process Approaches to Writing Instruction

Product and process approaches dominated the writing instruction until genre approaches gained importance over the last decades (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2003a; Badger & White, 2000).

In product approach, writing is considered to be a skill heavily based on linguistic knowledge which requires the employment of appropriate vocabulary, syntax and cohesion (Badger & White, 2000). In fact, writers' development is seen as a result of input imitation. In this sense, model compositions are used for the students to emulate. The writer's skill and the process that the writer goes through until writing the final draft are underestimated in product approaches. The product should:

- meet certain standards of prescribed English rhetorical style,
- reflect accurate grammar,

- be organized in conformity with what the audience would consider to be conventional (Brown, 2007),
- consist of a one-draft writing assignment,
- hold the assumption that each student should be working alone or only with the instructor on summative feedback (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996).

Process approach considers writing a problem solving activity (NAEP, 1996). It focuses on linguistic skills, such as planning and drafting, and pays less attention to linguistic knowledge, such as grammar and text structure, which are valued in product approaches. Process is analysed under four basic stages (Seow, 2002):

1. *Planning*: In this phase, students are stimulated to generate ideas for writing. Some activities (e.g. brainstorming, wh- questions, and writing down single words or phrases related to the topic) are used to encourage students to produce ideas.
2. *Drafting*: This phase requires writers to be productive and fluent rather than accurate. Writers should visualize their audience and construct their styles and texts accordingly.
3. *Responding*: This part, which differentiates this approach from others, is the most important phase of the process, and it is realized either by peers or the instructor. This application plays a crucial role in the creation of an effective text. The failure of good and welltimed feedback would affect the writers' on-going and forthcoming performances.
4. *Editing*: Students revise their draft in the light of the feedback that they receive, improve the content and organization of the ideas, polish the language, and make it as clear as possible. These three steps (drafting, responding and editing) could circulate until the texts reaches the final evaluation point.

However, process approach is criticized because the disciplinary context, the subject and the audience are disregarded in the process. Learners of writing exercise the linguistic skills and go through an unconscious process of writing development which does not guarantee successful writing. A process which ignores the audience, organization of the texts and its purpose should not be sufficient for successful academic writing which aims to serve a particular audience with a particular purpose (Badger & White, 2000).

Academic writing requires thinking, drafting and revising as well as some specialized skills which are not developed naturally (Brown, 2007), such as building and developing arguments, organizing ideas in a logical and direct way, backing the argument with related evidence, presenting a balanced authoritative voice, being persuasive in terms of cohesion of the ideas and of lexical elements. In this sense, the insights of product and process approaches to writing can be incorporated into an effective methodology with a concern for genre. The combination of these approaches can address the requirements of academic writing as Badger & White (2000) suggest: A method which values knowledge about language, knowledge of the disciplinary context, the purpose of writing, and the skills in using language would be effective in teaching academic writing.

2.2.1. Academic Writing

There seem to be two approaches in academic writing. One is positivist and advocates that academic prose should be impersonal and objective, and it sets rigid rules for anonymity. The other is post-positivist, which welcomes writers' presence in a text. It is easy to come across academic writing books, instructors and supervisors that advise the students to "leave their personalities at the door" and wear an impersonal voice (Hyland, 2002b:351).

Over the last decade, the post-positivist approach has gained recognition by some scholars (Hyland, 2002b; Johns, 1997; Hyland, 2005a; Clark & Ivancic, 1997; Casanave, 2003). According to Hyland (2002b), the positivist approach towards academic writing "oversimplifies a more complex picture"(p. 352); however, academic writing is a variety of subject-specific forms, which indicates that all the disciplines grasp and reflect on the reality differently. While hard science writers (e.g. writers in the fields of chemistry, biology, physics, and astronomy) follow a less personal style, in humanities and social sciences, writers prefer a stronger identity in their writings. Yet, students, and even some instructors, have misconceptions about the academic writing conventions of their own disciplines, which communicates poor genre competence.

Academic writing is the presentation of information in the text. It is the presentation of the personal identity as well (Hyland, 2005a). No matter how hard the

researchers try to make the data speak for themselves, there has to be a subject to sense the data. When data is sensed, it evolves into knowledge, and becomes known. In other words, data is contaminated by human touch, filtered by sense and it loses its objectivity. In a sense, texts cannot represent the world as it is because representation is sifted by the writer's acts of selection and foregrounding which are determined by the disciplinary matrix (Hyland, 2004c), as well as filtered by the sensory manifolds and synthetic *a priori* judgments (Critique of Pure Reason, Immanuel Kant). As data cannot speak for themselves, humans speak on behalf of data. Consequently, observations are translated into academic knowledge by research-writers. Therefore, research-writers try to be clear and credible while writing their own observations and interpretations of data.

Notably in soft sciences, writers' credibility, to a great extent, is established through projecting a balanced authoritative identity which displays sensible confidence and commitment to the propositions and ideas. There are reference guides (Lester, 1995; Gong & Dragga, 1995) which prescribe that academic writing should be *author evacuated* or free from personal intervention. The perspective of academic writing has recently shifted from the view which obliged that academic writing must be objective, faceless, and impersonal form of discourse, to a persuasive one in which the "writers seek to offer a credible representation of themselves and their work" in order to "build a convincing argument" (Hyland, 2005a: 173). Now that every text not only conveys disciplinary 'content' but also represents the identity and perspective of the writer, as a matter of fact, no data in nature is independent of its observer, and this perspective of the observer needs to be perceived as credible to the reader.

Clearly, if communication is the act of talking "about your thoughts and feelings, and helping other people to understand them" (Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 2008: 247), then, academic writing, just like any other communication means, is expected to be effective "when writers use conventions that other members of their community find familiar and convincing" (Hyland, 2009:5). This may sound like an inflexible perspective which hinders writers' creativity; however, it is very similar to everyday communication, namely, one is free to say what s/he thinks or what s/he wants to share but s/he is not free to convey them by non-agreed-upon codes and unconventionalized structures of those codes. Hyland interprets the activity of writing as follows:

Essentially the process of writing involves creating a text that we assume the reader will recognize and expect, and the process of reading involves drawing on assumptions about what the writer is trying to do. It is this writer reader coordination, which enables the co-construction of coherence from a text. Scholars and students alike must therefore attempt to use conventions that other members of their discipline, whether journal editors and reviewers or subject specialist teachers and examiners, will recognise and accept. Because of this, discourse analysts have become a central tool for identifying specific language features of the target groups. (Hyland, 2009:5).

Then, concluding from the aforementioned statements, lexico-grammatical knowledge or merely language competence does not count enough towards becoming a member of any community. Obviously, communication does not consist of mechanical combinations of words, but it requires making acceptable choices in ways of using words appropriately regarding the context, which is called pragmatic competence and in academic writing genre competence. Genre competence is assessed by writers' ability to construct a credible representation of themselves and their work.

2.2.2. L1 and L2 Writer Differences

Based on Canale and Swain's (1984) framework, Hyland (2003) describes what writers need in order to write successfully in English:

- grammatical competence – a knowledge of grammar, vocabulary and the language system,
- discourse competence – a knowledge of genre and rhetorical patterns that create them,
- sociolinguistic competence – the ability to use language appropriately in different contexts, understanding readers and adopting appropriate authorial attitudes, and
- strategic competence – the ability to use a variety of communicative strategies

Hyland (2003) suggests some potential factors that influence the L2 writers' competence and success. Different learning backgrounds and personalities have an influence on the successful L2 writing. A person's goals, attitudes and abilities are among the factors that hold importance in writing competence besides the cultural schemata, practices and attitudes of the society, of which they are the members.

Second language writers' mother tongue and the strategies used to cope with the difficulties they face are as follows:

Second language writers have a different linguistic knowledge base than native English speakers. So while most of us have a vocabulary of several thousand words and an intuitive ability to handle the grammar of the language when we begin to write in our L1, L2 writers often carry the burden of learning to write and learning English at the same time. Largely because of this developmental aspect of language learning, research frequently finds texts written by L2 students to be less effective than those of their native English-speaking peers (Silva, 1997: 34).

Being a successful writer in the first language does not guarantee success in L2 writing; it cannot even be considered an advantage. When they write in L2, successful L1 writers may not be able use the “sophisticated cognitive abilities and metacognitive strategies” (p.35) they deploy writing in L1.

L2 writers have problems in discourse structuring (ideational cohesion, reviewing and revising) compared to L1 writers. This could result from either L2 writer's developmental constraints or the transfer of L1 rhetorical paradigms, or both. Based on these studies, Hinkel (2011: 527-529) introduces discourse features (macro properties) of L2 writing and very similar features are identified by Grabe and Kaplan (1996). Here are some differences related to this study. L2 writers:

- organize and structure discourse moves differently,
- take a logically and conceptually different approach to rhetorical development, argumentation, persuasion, and exposition/narration,
- often neglect accounting for counterarguments and anticipating audience reactions,
- support their arguments and claims by means of statements of personal opinions and beliefs in lieu of more substantive information,
- significantly more often leave their argumentation unsupported,
- sequence ideas and explanatory information differently: the norms of rhetorical structuring of discourse often do not conform to those expected in comparable written genres in English,
- produce shorter and less elaborated texts,
- rely more on personal opinions and include less fact-based evidence in argumentation and exposition, and
- often take moralistic and emotionally appealing approaches to argumentation and persuasion.

These differences influence the credibility and persuasiveness of L1 text. The logic and rhetorical organization of L1 might hinder the perspective of L2 writer no matter how successful he/she is in L1 writing. As for linguistic features (micro properties), L2 writing:

- exhibits less lexical variety and sophistication,
- has smaller lexical density, lexical specificity, and more frequent vocabulary misuses,
- relies on shorter sentences and clauses with fewer words per clause,
- repeats content words more often (i.e., nouns, verbs, adjectives, and adverbs),
- uses shorter words (fewer words with two or more syllables), more conversational and high frequency words (e.g., *good, bad, ask, talk*), and
- incorporates fewer modifying and descriptive prepositional phrases, as well as a higher rate of misused prepositions.

L2 texts also employ some features which are related to stance. These features also have an impact on the persuasiveness of the text as much as macro features do. L2 writers employ:

- inconsistent uses of verb tenses,
- more emotive and private verbs (e.g., *believe, feel, think*),
- significantly higher rates of personal pronouns (e.g., *I, we, he*) and lower rates of impersonal/referential structures,
- pronouns (e.g., *it, this, one*),
- fewer epistemic and possibility hedges (e.g., *apparently, perhaps*) and more conversational hedges (e.g., *sort of, in a way*),
- more conversational intensifiers, emphatics, exaggeratives, and overstatements (e.g., *totally, always, huge, for sure*),
- fewer down-toners (e.g., *almost, hardly*), and more lexical softening devices (e.g., *maybe*).

Knowing these differences could help establishing awareness in L2 writing. Explicit instruction is needed in L2 writing because writers do not find out the differences from the text by reading (Kaplan, 1997). Comparative studies on L2 and L1 writing have proven to be useful for L2 writing instruction. Interestingly, these results do not exclude even advanced and highly educated L2 students, such as doctoral students.

2.2.3. Socio-Cultural Theories

Both culture and language inhabit the same place in the human mind. Culture is “a distinctive type of thinking” (Sapir, 1949:84), and language serves as a model for the society. It provides the forms and categories by which the mind communicates: a perspective and logic in perceiving and analysing the events and phenomenon (Whorf, 1956).

There exist a number of studies (Thomas et al., 2004; Hinkel, 2002; Abdullahzadeh, 2011; Connor, 2002; Hyland, 2005b) which observe the influence of culture on text organization. In this respect, Robert Kaplan (1997) hypothesizes that “...the logic expressed through the organization of written text is culture-specific; that is, it posits that speakers of two different languages will organize the same reality in different ways” (p. 18). Regarding this, Thomas et al.’s (2004) study revealed that language users were unaware of the affects of their linguistic system and the cultural thought patterns on their thinking. Its findings are also in line with the findings of Kaplan (1997).

Writers:

- are not aware of the way in which their L1 influences the way they organize text logic,
- are not aware of the way in which an L2 writer organizes text logic, and
- are not aware that there is a difference.

Therefore, no matter how successful writers they are in their L1, it is natural for L2 writers to fail to meet the demands of English academic writing and fail to predict these thought patterns as their minds are run by a different system of logic. In other words, “the linguistic and rhetorical conventions of the first language interfere with the writing of the second language” (Connor, 1996: 5). L1 cultural thought patterns and linguistic features gain an important role in L2 writers’ success in academic writing. Contrastive Rhetoric perspective can be a fruitful tool in teaching some aspects of L2, such as paragraph organization, with awareness promoting exercises. Besides, comparing L2 cultural patterns and logic with that of L1 could be useful in developing awareness in students.

2.3. Part Two

2.3.1. Discourse Analysis

Discourse analysis has become an invaluable tool for scholars and teachers, highlighting typical patterning, salient features, and problem-causing points in academic writing. It provides evidence for language variation across disciplines and informs classroom materials and practice with real language samples instead of native speaker institutions (Hyland, 2009).

It is the study of language in use, language in social reality and the logic behind the appearance and it attempts to discover for what purpose language is used. Trappes-Lomax (2004:136) gives a comprehensive definition of the concept of discourse:

- the linguistic, cognitive and social processes whereby meanings are expressed and intentions interpreted in human interaction,
- the historically embedded sets of conventions which constitute and regulate such processes,
- a particular event in which such processes are instantiated, and
- the product of such an event, especially in the form of visible text, whether originally spoken and subsequently transcribed or originally written.

There exists a two-way relationship between language and its context. Context as a dynamic situation environs, feeds and shapes language. It is also fed and shaped by it as described in Table 1. Because of its dynamic and multi-faced structure, analysing discourse out of its context will be incomplete:

Discourse reflects and creates human beings' "world views". People bring words into being by talking, writing and singing...Like other words, "nature" is not "just a word" that refers to something that already exists in the world, but rather an idea which is created and contested as people name it and talk about it (Johnstone, 2008:33).

Indeed, there should be a relationship established between the phenomena and the word. Things are unthinkable unless they are experienced by the people of the community. Various languages which are spoken throughout the world justify the different perceptions of different communities.

Table 1: How Discourse Shapes and Is Shaped by Its Context

-
- Discourse is shaped by the world, and discourse shapes the world.
 - Discourse is shaped by language, and discourse shapes language.
 - Discourse is shaped by participants, and discourse shapes participants.
 - Discourse is shaped by prior discourse, and discourse shapes the possibilities for future discourse.
 - Discourse is shaped by its medium, and discourse shapes the possibilities of its medium.
 - Discourse is shaped by purpose, and discourse shapes possible purposes.
-

Source: Johnstone, 2008:10

2.3.2. Discourse Community

Discourse community can be sensed in terms of speech or writing. Writers can “react and respond to the writings from the past” (Swales, 1987: 3-4). A discourse community is created by its discourse and conventions of discourse communities are defined by their members. Apart from these characteristics, discourse communities provide a paradigm to the members and govern the perceptions of their members by fostering stylistic and discursive conventions (Bizzell, 1992). Swales defines six characteristics of a discourse community, which distinguishes it from other communities:

1. communality of interest,
2. mechanisms for intercommunication between members,
3. survival by providing information and feedback,
4. development of genre-specific discursal expectations,
5. possession of an embedded dynamic towards an increasingly shared and specialized terminology, and,
6. a mass of members with a suitable degree of relevant discursal and content expertise.

Different discourse communities, “value different kinds of knowledge and display and package it in ways unfamiliar to those outside the community” (Murray, 2001:284). Therefore, writers should employ community-sensitive linguistic resources to engage themselves in that community (Hyland, 2005a). To communicate with the members of the particular discourse community, members need to know not only its specific language and the way of creating meanings with language, but also pragmatic and strategic uses of it.

2.3.3. Genre Analysis

Genre is a fixed text type and stylised form that serves specific conventionalized purposes of the communities (Johnstone, 2008). Although genres are identified as fixed forms, they are not static; they adopt themselves to evolving rhetorical situations (Bhatia, 2004). Genres shape and are shaped by their discourse communities.

Genre analysis examines the characteristic features of particular genres, and the language used within an institutionalized, academic or a professional setting, and seeks answers to the question of “why members of specific discourse communities use the language the way they do” (Bhatia, 1997: 134). Genre analysis attempts to identify how language users create and manipulate generic conventions to achieve their communicative goals. It provides insights into the ways in which “disciplines create a view of the world through their genre conventions” (Hyland, 2008b: 549).

2.3.4. Genre Theories

Genre analysis evolved in three approaches: New Rhetoric, Systemic Functional Linguistics, and English for Specific Purposes. New Rhetoric considers genre a social action that evolves and develops in contexts. Being competent in a genre requires employing the discursive strategies to respond to rhetorical situations (Coe, 2005).

New Rhetoric targets post-secondary students and workplace writers and aims to help this group of people to adapt the stylized forms and appreciated discursive features of their professions. New Rhetoric considers itself functioning as a critic in genre world, and seeks to answer some specific questions such as: What sorts of communication does the genre encourage? What sorts does it constrain against? What does the genre signify for its discourse community?

Genre analysis from the New Rhetoric perspective looks for logos (logic), pathos (emotion) or ethos (credibility). It could be considered a new version of old rhetoric which is derived from Aristotle’s framework for rhetoric. Logic, emotion and credibility are considered key aspects of rhetoric in other genre approaches as well.

The New Rhetoric approach includes the analysis of repeated patterns, rhetorical moves and regularities that are essential to their interpretation and production. It also examines sentence and paragraph length, use of active and passive voice, references to self or to readers, specialized terminology, set phrases and tone (Pare & Smart, 2005:123).

The second approach is Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL hereafter), also known as the Sydney School. The SFL is based on a socio-anthropological framework which upholds classifying texts regarding their social function and context (Bruce, 2008; Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). The developmental history of SFL suggests that it emerged as a reaction to process approach which only served for middle class students. SFL targets particularly publicly supported primary and secondary schools and adult migrant education (Johns, 2002).

SFL aims to enable learners who are linguistically disabled to acquire relevant discursual competence that can help them to be successful in education or in the community. SFL is proved to be a helpful model especially for school-age children, working class, and migrant students. Therefore, SFL deals with pre-genres, such as explanations, recount and description (Feez, 2002).

Thirdly, genre analysis has been used as a research and pedagogical tool in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP hereafter) since the 1980's. This approach to genre analysis is also known as Birmingham or British School. It was most fully theorized and developed by John Swales (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). Genre analysis is considered a teaching and research tool that serves for non-native and native writers, post-graduates, novice and expert academic writers within ESP. Swales (1990) defines genre as communicative events driven by the common goals, rationale and conventions of its members. The rationale behind the genre is shaped by the expert members of the society. The measures for style, expectations of the audience, organization of the text and epistemic logic behind the credibility change and evolve over time.

After 1970s, the thought of enabling L2 writers to become autonomous in identifying insufficiencies and errors of their writing began to guide writing instruction. However, the difficulties L2 writers face in reading and producing academic texts in their

disciplines has remained a serious problem in academic writing. ESP emerged in the early 1960s as an answer to this problem and gained authority in academic writing instruction (Hinkel, 2002; Anthony, 1997; Brunton, 2009; Dudley-Evans & St Johns, 1998).

ESP attempts to rescue learners from the burden of swimming in an ocean of English to survive in it, that is, the burden of learning “an item simply because it is ‘there’ in the language” (Nunan, 2004:7) by providing them the language skills they need in their professions. In this respect, needs assessment and discourse analysis appear to be distinguishing characteristics of ESP (Master, 2005). Its practical aspect aims to prepare learners for effective communication required in rhetorical situations. What is more, it holds research-based features as well as applied aspects together (Dudley-Evans & St Johns, 1998). ESP provides students with effective communication skills and discourse competence that is required to become members of their discourse communities. In this sense, ESP bases its method on identification of the specific language features and discourse practices of expert users and needs of the learners (Hyland, 2002c).

2.3.5. Genre Analysis from ESP Perspective

Genre analysis from the ESP perspective begins by “identifying the genre within a discourse community and defining the communicative purpose the genre is designed to achieve” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010: 47). This leads us to schematic structure of the genre, which is constructed by rhetorical moves, and then to the smaller components (style, tone, voice, grammar, syntax) that realise the rhetorical moves.

There exist two methods in genre analysis: top-down and bottom-up methods. With the top-down method, the analysis begins with a set framework in which the corpus is analysed according to these previously determined discourse units. As in the case of having a hypothesis at the outset of the study, the researcher looks for the pre-determined patterns in the data. However, in bottom-up method, there are no predetermined units. For this reason, the analysis itself seeks to find out possible structures.

Genre is considered a rhetorical category rather than a linguistic one; therefore, the rationale behind the text can be captured by the rhetorical units. Move analysis

identifies text parts which carry the rhetorical functions and captures beyond the sentence in the text (Swales, 1990).

Move is a discourse unit in a text “that performs a specific communicative function” (Biber et al., 2007:23). Discourse moves are essential components of written prose and are actualised by a variety of linguistic features. Moves are functional units but it is their organization which fulfils the overall communicative purpose of the specific genre. The unity and integrity of a typical genre, therefore, crucially depends on the nature and function of moves employed in the textualising process.

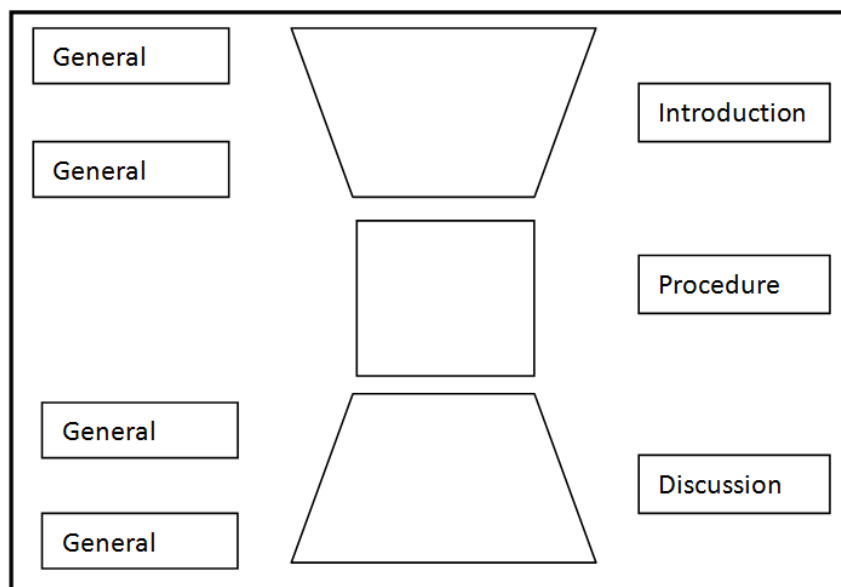
Swales (1990) presents a move model for research article introductions whilst some other scholars (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988; Dudley-Evans, 1997a, 1997b; Yang and Allison, 2003, 2004) expand this framework for other parts of research articles or introduce new frameworks based on their bottom-up studies. Lewin, Fine and Young (2001: 18) suggest a possible explanation of this variety in move frameworks. They assert that because the “analysis of the research genre lacks uniform standards for move identification,” scholars come up with different move models.

Swales (1990) asserts that discussion sections are the reverse forms of introduction sections. As illustrated in Figure 1, it moves from specific findings to general implications. Additionally, discussion sections have a cyclic pattern. Namely, the movement from specific to general repeats itself throughout the sections evolving into wider development (Yang & Allison, 2003). Another characteristic of discussion sections is flexibility and inclination to overlap with conclusion sections. Because of this reason, for some scholars (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Basturkmen, 2011; Yang & Allison, 2003) discussion and conclusion sections are considered alternative to each other and treated as having the same rhetorical organization.

Many studies (Samraj, 2002, 2008; Ozturk, 2007; Nodoushan & Khakbaz, 2011; Basturkmen, 2011, 2009; Holmes, 1997; Peacock, 2002; Pho, 2010; Mashadi, Manzuri & Dusti, 2011) investigate the variations across disciplines in terms of rhetorical organization of research articles and dissertations, some with NS/NNS variation, in order to identify the discipline-specific rhetorical schemata with the aim of developing genre awareness on the

part of instructors and learners, specifically L2 students. The results indicate that the type, frequency and cyclical patterns of moves differ across disciplines.

Figure 1: Overall Organization of Research Paper



Source: Hill et al., 1982 cited in Swales, 1990: 134.

Some Moves appear frequently in some disciplines. For instance, a background information Move is less frequently used in applied linguistics (Peacock, 2002) because rhetorical organization of social sciences is different from that of natural sciences (Holmes, 1997), which supports Hyland's (2002a, 2005a) claim that scientific discourse is discipline-specific. In terms of the variations between NS and NNS authors, both groups employ different Move frequencies and types. Furthermore, NNS authors tend to make more generalizations than NS authors (Peacock, 2002).

Moreover, Nodoushan and Khakbaz's (2011) study on the theses and dissertations of postgraduate students suggests that L2 writers organize their texts without following a certain framework that is discipline-specific and project highly dispersed rhetorical movements which could indicate that L2 writers are not aware of the perspective and mentality of the discourse community they try to become the members of. A seemingly outstanding problem in L2 learners' academic writing stems from their unawareness of genre conventions. Some of the genre analysis studies are devoted to developing genre

awareness (Samraj, 2008; Nodoushan & Khakbaz, 2011; Lee & Swales, 2006; Yasuda, 2011; Paltridge, 2002; Martinez, 2001; Hyon & Chan, 2004), and a few focus on developing genre competence and genre awareness through inductive methods (Coxhead & Byrd, 2007; Charles, 2007, 2012; Chang, 2010; Chang & Kuo, 2011).

Hyland (2003) proposes that the thought patterns and mental schemata of L2 learners affect their way of organizing ideas. Consequently, this rigid cultural perspective has a role in the maintenance of effective communication. In this respect, Hinkel's (2002) study supports this aspect of culture affecting the writers' practice, which outlines cultural differences in logical organization, lexico-grammatical and rhetorical features, and describes the way L1 and L2 texts demonstrated differences from each other in terms of discourse organization and lexico-grammatical features.

Hinkel (2002) suggests that many Asian rhetorical traditions value the indirect and implied position of authors, adopting an inductive flow mentioning the purpose of the text at the end instead of the beginning. On the other hand, Anglo-American rhetorical tradition adopts a direct paradigm which values individualistic and direct style. The text is overtly persuasive and organized inductively, and the purpose is mentioned at the very beginning of the text. As for Arabic tradition, repetition of ideas and lexis for the purpose of persuasion are permitted. Arab ESL students' texts differ from other L1 users. Arabic is a Semitic language which is often characterized by non-hierarchical progression of ideas in topic development. This case pushes Arabic students to allow for more repetitions and unsupported claims in their texts. All of these features of Semitic rhetorical tradition are considered inappropriate in Anglo-American rhetorical tradition.

2.3.6. Stance in the Moves

Being a member of a community is seeing the world from a particular perspective, and sensing and interpreting the reality in the set ways. In order to have their work taken seriously, academic writers have to display a disciplinary competence that reflects their knowledge and awareness of professional context. Hyland (2002a) elaborates on the issue as follows:

...we do not simply report findings or express ideas in some neutral, context-free way, we employ the rhetorical resources accepted for the purpose of sharing meanings in a particular genre and social community. Writers have to select their words so that readers are drawn in, influenced and persuaded (p. 1093).

Academic writers select words that are acceptable and persuasive in their particular discourse community. Therefore, how writers “stand in relation to their arguments, their discipline, and their readers” (p. 180) becomes important in genre analysis. In this sense, genre analysis is an attempt to discover the linguistic and discursive features used by writers in order to establish a credible organization of ideas and stance in their writings.

Stance is a textual voice presenting itself through making judgements, opinions and commitments, and adopting a point of view regarding the issues discussed in the text. Scholars deal with stance from different perspectives, which results in different terms referring to somewhat the same concept, such as *evaluation* by Hunston (2011), Thompson and Hunston (1999), and Du Bois (2007), *persuasion* by Hyland (2004c), and *stance* by Biber (2004, 2006a, 2006b) and Hyland (2000, 2005a).

Unlike natural sciences, which adopt a positivist approach and value objectivity by downplaying the role of scientists in experiments, academic writers in social sciences and humanities prefer to adopt a convincing style for the research report, striking a fine balance between letting the data speak for themselves and not offending the audience by positioning the self into the research field with an effective authorial stance (Hyland, 2008b).

Hyland (2004b) suggests that an effective stance enables an author to claim solidarity with readers, evaluate and critique the work of others, acknowledge alternative views, and argue for a position. He further distinguishes the sources of stance as hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention but there exist similar taxonomies (Biber et al., 1999; Biber, 2004, 2006a, Perez-Llantada Auria, 2008; Hunston, 2011; Koutsantoni, 2004) as in the case of Moves. Natural scientists can construct knowledge without rhetoric in laboratories with experiments and falsifications; however, social scientists are in a dynamic

laboratory, the world of people, which is different from that of natural scientists, and need rhetoric to thoroughly project the world they perceive (Hyland, 2008b).

Hedges and boosters are important strategies for writers in taking effective stance and attitude towards ideas, and in constructing the balance between objective information and subjective evaluation, which increases the likelihood that the claims are accepted (Hyland, 1996; 2005a; Silver 2003). Hedges reflect the “writer’s degree of confidence in the truth of a proposition” (Hyland, 2000:86).

A fine combination of these two features can make an argument convincing and effective. However, it should be noted that every discipline has its own conventions in practicing stance markers in different frequencies and distributions (Hyland, 2009). Hedges appear to be the most frequent stance marker in social and natural sciences. However, social sciences employ the highest frequency of hedge markers, followed by attitude markers, boosters and self-mentions, respectively (Hyland, 2005a; 2004b). Adjective usage in realizing stance is quite common and hedging is generally used in occupying the niche in applied linguistics (Perez-Llantada Auria, 2008).

Attitude markers (AM hereafter) commonly occur as the second most frequent stance marker used in applied linguistics and overall in social sciences (Hyland, 2005a; 2004b), and they exhibit higher frequencies in L2 texts compared to L1 texts (Blagojevic, 2004b; Hinkel, 2011). AM provide a distinctive presence in texts by conveying evaluative language through appraisal, agreement, and importance, thus, enabling writers to influence and orientate the readers’ way of understanding and interpreting the propositions (Blagojevic, 2009; Hyland, 2004b).

Another effective stance marker is self-mentions by which a writer can either “downplay his or her personal role in the research in order to highlight the phenomena under study” as in the case of natural sciences, or identify his or her study as well as strengthen his or her viewpoint within an argument and contribute to the field, as in social sciences (Hyland, 2003b: 256).

Self-mentions can be projected in stating a goal or outlining the structure of the paper, explaining a procedure, stating a result, making a claim, and elaborating on an argument (Hyland, 2003b; 2002a). As for applied linguistics research articles, self-mentions are used mostly in stating a procedure, results and claims (Hyland, 2002a, 2002b, 2003b, 2004c), and are used nearly as frequently as those used in sociology and philosophy (Hyland, 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2004c). Notwithstanding, this frequency is projected in lesser amounts in L2 texts (Hyland, 2002a). The weak authorial presence may be affected by L2 writers' cultural background or academic style guides which adopt a positivist approach or it could be explained by the writers' lack of genre competence.

2.4. Summary

Academic writing, especially in soft sciences, is not considered an act of presenting information objectively, but as a persuasive act where writers try to gain credibility for their observations and interpretations of data. Through the practice of writing, research writers attempt to build a convincing argument with readers. Reasonably, being persuasive and convincing requires more than having lexico-grammatical knowledge, or language competence. It also calls for certain communication means in specific contexts, as in the case of casual conversations. Therefore, research writers need to employ agreed-upon academic writing conventions to credibly present themselves in their texts, and gain an identity in the professional community.

To follow specific conventions of a professional community is not easy most of the time, particularly for L2 writers. L2 writers are affected by different learning backgrounds, personal goals and abilities, and, more importantly, the culture in which the writer acquires a specific logic. Unfortunately, the effects influencing successful academic writing cannot easily be recognised by the writers themselves. For this reason, there is a need for comparative studies which identify the dissimilarities between native and non-native practices. Motivated with this aim, genre studies have recently gained popularity. Many studies focus on differences between native and non-native academic writing practices from the same or different disciplines. The studies attempt to discover the differences at rhetorical level (text organization and flow of logic) and micro level (lexico-grammatical and pragmatic level).

The comparative genre studies on academic writing suggest that NNSs and NSs organize their texts differently. NNSs and NSs are also diverse in building arguments, holding objectivity and following academic conventions. Besides, they are different at lexico-grammatical level. For example, NNSs employ less sophistication in presenting ideas, fewer down-toners, fewer types of words and shorter sentences, but more word repetition, and higher rates of personal pronouns.

Those aforementioned differences might indicate a lack of genre competence on the part of NNS writers. These differences might also signal the function of culture in L2 competence. Besides, it might be quite complicated for a non-European mind to understand the logic of Anglo-European mentality. Consequently, culture is a significant factor affecting writers' performance.

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides detailed information regarding the research approach and the design of the study. Sampling, data collection and analysis procedures are handled in depth in this section.

3.2. Research Design and Data Collection

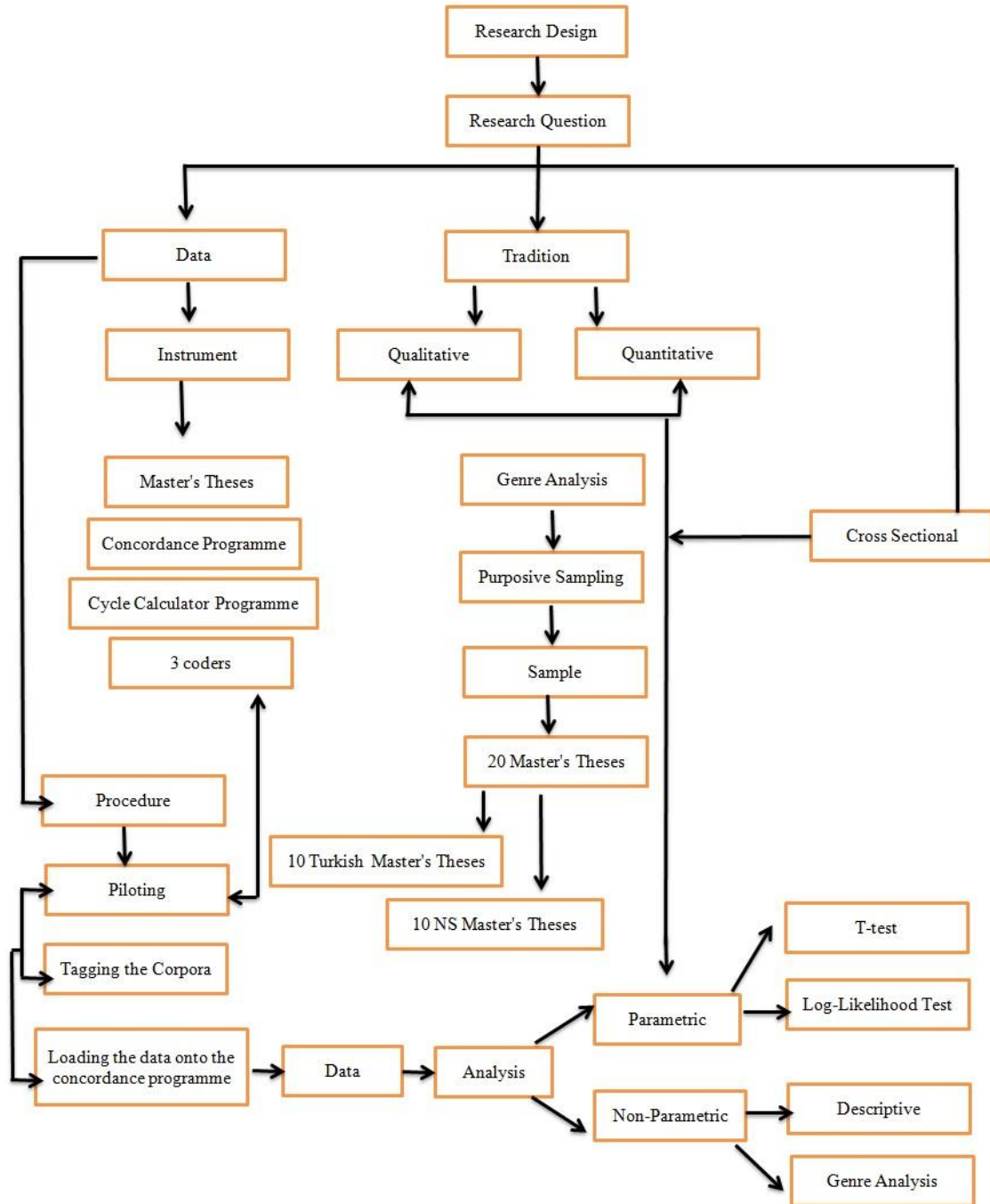
This genre study is set within the context of ESP which is discussed in detail in Literature Review chapter. The discussion sections of the theses were chosen for the analysis as they are considered to be the parts where arguments become more important and because decisions, claims and justifications are found mostly in those sections (Yang & Allison, 2003:366).

A mixed method research design was adopted for the present comparative-descriptive study, because it was thought that using solely quantitative method would be inadequate to provide sufficient answers. A qualitative wing was expected to enable the researcher to gain a holistic view about the phenomena under study and interpret the data with regard to multiple realities (Celik, 2009). Because of the fact that the sample size for quantitative analysis is not enough to reach a generalization, qualitative data would help in commenting on and deducing from the results (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

This study seeks to discover outstanding patterns that are peculiar to both groups within genre analysis from ESP perspective, which is inherently a qualitative approach (Biber, Connor & Upton, 2007; Gabrielatos & McEnery, 2005). However, this study is also

corpus-aided which makes it both quantitative and qualitative orientated, as can be deduced from Figure 2.

Figure 2: Research Design of the Study



*This research design schema was prepared by the researcher

The study attempts to identify the differences between two groups of master's students in terms of academic writing style. It is also an attempt to describe the picture behind the practice with semi-structured interviews which aim to answer the questions "How the writers choose certain maneuvers and stance markers?" and "Are they aware of this process?" The aim of the interview is to allow clearer understanding about the practices of the participants. Based on the interviews that some of the writers responded to, the reasons and the processes behind the practices were described. It is also expected to enlighten the researcher in deducing sensible comments from quantitative analysis of the texts and understanding the relationship between practice and background of the master's students. This picture would provide some pedagogic implications in academic writing instruction as well.

All the interviewees were asked the same open-ended questions and supplementary questions, when the need arose. Open-ended questions allow the participants to voice their experience without any constraints from the researcher (Creswell, 2012). The interview schedule was prepared on the basis of research questions and the piloting was carried out with both native speaking English students and Turkish students. On the basis of comments from the informants, the interview schedule was refined accordingly before it was used with the target group (See the protocol, Appendix A). The semi-structured interview allowed the researcher to analyse the commonalities and created certain flexibility for uncommon themes as well (Gillham, 2005). The following points were explored:

- academic writing background of the students,
- factors and sources affecting their academic writing development and awareness,
- factors and sources affecting their writing process of their theses, and
- awareness of discursive features of their academic discipline.

Only four Turkish students and three NS students participated in the interview. Not all the participants were accessible for face-to-face interviews. Therefore, the researcher conducted two of the interviews face-to-face, four of them via e-mail and one on the phone. The same questions were asked to all those involved and the interviewees were prompted by supplementary questions. Face-to-face and telephone interviews were

recorded and then transcribed by the researcher. After the data collected through interviews were analyzed, the findings were checked by the participants to validate the results.

3.2.1. Sampling

The study employed purposive sampling technique, which allows the researcher to choose samples that “meet some specific predetermined criteria” (Dornyei, 2007:128). The data for the study comprise the discussion sections of a total of 20 master’s theses in applied linguistics. 10 of them were written by native-English speaking students and 10 by Turkish EFL students. They were submitted between the years of 2005 and 2011 to universities in Turkey and in the U.S.A. Some of the theses were obtained in electronic format and a reference list was added at the end of the study where the bibliographical information regarding all of the theses used in the study can be found.

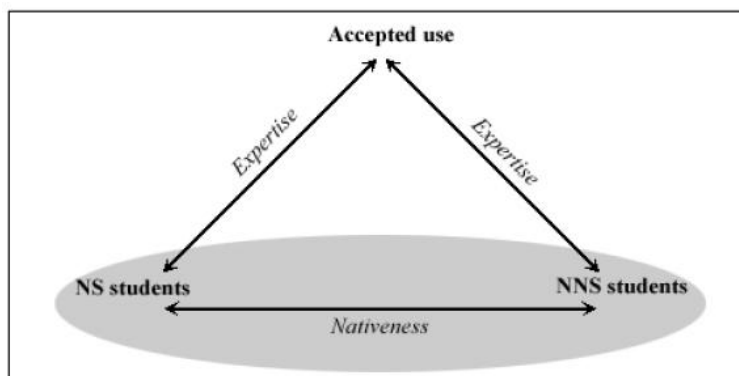
The researcher contacted either the writers themselves or their supervisors via e-mail and received information considering the editing processes of the theses. The theses by Turkish master’s students which were chosen for the present study were not edited by a native speaker or a supervisor in terms of rhetorical organization and stance markers. As for the NS theses, those which were chosen were written by native speakers and were reported not to have been edited by their supervisors in detail according to the aforementioned features. The native speaker issue is one of the most ambiguous concepts in linguistics. In this study, a native speaker refers to one who acquires a language from birth (Davies, 2004).

The difficulty in this process was the accessibility of the texts. It was difficult to obtain theses from other universities. Besides, not all the theses were suitable for analysis. Some of them did not have separate discussion sections or they had quite different methodologies, such as library research. Apart from the technical difficulties, the majority of the available writers disagreed to participate and cooperate.

After this procedure, the theses to be used were selected. They all had a similar layout. Library research or pure qualitative studies were discarded because they had slightly different organization from other quasi-experimental studies. As this study

concerns itself with a comparison in terms of nativeness (see Figure 2), 10 of the theses are by Turkish students and 10 by native-English speaking students.

Figure 3: Three-way comparison



Source: Gabrielatos & McEnery, 2005: 313.

3.2.2. Data Analysis

Data analysis was carried out on qualitative and quantitative data. The qualitative data collected from the telephone and face-to-face interviews were transcribed, along with the e-mail interviews. The data from the interviews were organized into relevant categories and the themes that emerged from these categories were analyzed. The following topics emerged from the interviews:

- writing background of the students,
- academic writing instruction,
- factors affecting students' development and awareness,
- awareness of academic discourse and stance features, and
- style awareness.

The quantitative data analysis was carried out within corpus-based genre analysis approach. The corpora obtained from both groups were tagged manually by three coders and analysed on a concordance programme, AntConc 3.2.4w (Windows, 2011). The analysis of Moves was carried out according to the adapted version of the Dudley-Evans (1997a) model. As for stance analysis, this is carried out according to Hyland's (2005a) stance framework. Moves, which are semantic units, reveal the writer's purpose, and can consist of one step or a set of steps (Yang & Allison, 2003: 370). Yet, the focus of the

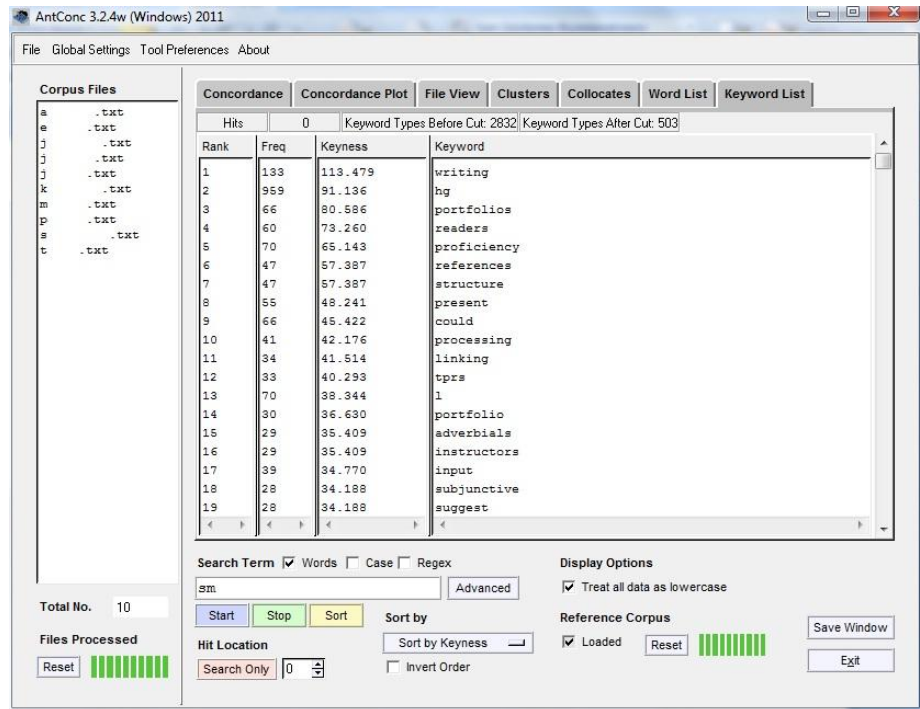
study is stance analysis in the moves; therefore, the study adopted one level move analysis, so that the steps in the moves were not treated separately.

Concordance programmes have recently been used in stance and Move analysis (Hunston, 2007; Pho, 2010; Biber, 2006a; Nodoushan & Khakbaz, 2011; Upton & Cohen, 2009; Hyland, 2004c) and the researcher employed corpus analysis as a tool, to assist, rather than drive, the study, as it adds a distributional perspective to the analysis of data by providing the frequency of items and their systematic tendencies within the texts (Hyland, 2004c).

Initial to the tagging process, quotes were excluded from the theses. After all the theses were converted into text files, an electronic corpus of 19913 words on the part of Turkish corpus and 23373 words on the part of NS students were generated. The whole corpora were coded manually for the Moves. Then stance markers were tagged in these Moves (Upton & Cohen, 2009). Two more coders validated this procedure. Both are specialists in academic writing and one of them is a native speaker of English. One of them works at Recep Tayyip Erdogan University and the other at Karadeniz Technical University.

The tagged corpora were analysed via a concordance programme, AntConc 3.2.4w (Windows, 2011), developed by Laurence Anthony. This programme reveals the distribution of the Moves and the stance markers across the Moves. It also allows statistical analysis, to determine the marked differences between the two corpora. In this sense, keyword analysis is used to identify the statistically significant differences. It was carried out through Log-likelihood test (Anthony, 2011; Gabrielatos & McEnery, 2005) with a 0.05 probability value. Graphic 1 illustrates a snapshot of the Keyword process from the programme:

Graphic 1: Keywords Display on the Concordance Programme



In order to identify the recurring Move cycles, an analysis programme designed by a computer scientist from Recep Tayyip Erdogan University was used. This programme calculates the frequency of recurring Move clusters in a tagged text.

Corpus analysis method is “the analysis of very large collection of electronically stored texts, aided by computer software” and “firmly rooted in empirical, inductive forms of analysis” (Baker, 2010: 93-94). Over the last decade, corpus linguistic has gained importance and become a key tool in genre and discourse analyses. Corpus analysis has also become a tool in discourse analysis and served as a source in teaching vocabulary, grammar, spoken and written language in specific contexts (Hunston, 2002). It has created a flow in language research and teaching with the help of the rapid pace of technology and statistical developments has arisen in the last few decades (Ferris, 2011).

Corpus linguistics is “an approach to research and teaching that makes use of computer-assisted analyses of language” (Conrad, 2005:393). It does not consist simply of technology, but of some principles which make it a distinguished approach. Corpus analysis is an empirical endeavour which allows researchers to observe and study great amounts of natural language with more variables than they can manage manually in their

contexts. However, corpus analysis also requires qualitative interpretations of the linguistic patterns and frequencies (Baker, 2006).

3.2.3. Move Analysis

Dudley-Evans' Move framework is considered one of the most comprehensive frameworks (Yang & Allison, 2003). Previous studies on discussion and conclusion sections (Hopkins & Dudley Evans, 1988; Swales, 1990; Holmes, 1997, Basturkmen, 2009) and the move frameworks these studies suggest guided the adjustment process of the Dudley-Evans' move framework used in the present study, as Table 2 shows:

Table 2: Move Framework for Discussion Sections

Dudley-Evans' Model	Adapted Version
1. Background information	1. Background information
2. Statement of results	2. Statement of results
3. (Un)expected result	3. Comment on results
4. Reference to previous research (comparison)	4. Reference to previous research (either comparison or in support of a claim)
5. Explanation of unsatisfactory result	5. Make generalizations and claim
6. Exemplification	6. Indicate limitations
7. Claim	7. Indicating pedagogical Implications
8. Reference to previous research (in support of a claim)	8. Recommend further research
9. Recommendation	
10. Justification	

Source: Dudley-Evans (1997:152-153)

Some steps were found to be fully-fledged Moves in some frameworks and some Moves were found to be steps (Holmes, 1997, Basturkmen, 2009; Yang & Allison, 2003). Considering these frameworks and the pilot tagging of the corpora used in the study, the Dudley-Evans model was adapted. Some Moves were merged and the most frequent ones were selected, as Table 2 demonstrates. In stance analysis, Move 4 was excluded because its content included paraphrases of some small amount of quotations from the literature. Here are two sample texts from the discussion sections of Turkish and NS students' theses:

By this study, the researcher_SM aimed to analyze vocabulary teaching and learning regarding audio jokes_M1. So, it was conducted to determine which method for vocabulary instruction was most_HG beneficial_AM: learning words through audio jokes or through mother tongue translation_M1. Two groups, each including 20 students, were taught the same selected 40 vocabulary items through different methods_M1. In order to implement this study a pre-test was administered to the groups before the instruction and the results were compared using Mann- Whitney U and Wilcoxon Tests_M1. The analysis of the Pre-test scores of the groups indicated_HG that there is not a significant_AM difference between the experimental and the control groups, that is to say the groups were equal to be compared in terms of the target vocabulary_M2. (Turkish Corpus, Text 5)

Concerning the first part of research question two, whether high proficiency readers show more_HG reliance on phonological information compared to low proficiency readers, the results suggest_HG that the answer is in the affirmative_M2. For the high proficiency readers, phonological similarity to primed words (i.e. homophones) caused readers to make more_HG errors than when words were orthographically similar _M2. On the other hand, such an effect was only evident_BR in low proficiency readers under certain orthography- based conditions (orthographically less-similar words)_M2. Therefore, it appears_HG high proficiency readers had a more_HG general_HG reliance on phonology than low proficiency readers did_M3. (NS Corpus, Text 7)

Move 1 – Background Information

The communicative function of Move 1 is to give background information regarding the theory, research aims, general procedure and methodology (Peacock, 2002). The following examples were extracted from the corpora which were used in this study. Move 1 across two corpora was tagged manually. Here are some examples both from Turkish and NS Corpora:

e.g. Therefore, the study sought for the relationship between teachers' computer knowledge and attitudes towards the DynEd_M1. (TR Corpus, Text 1)

e.g. Also it sought to find out students' and teachers' perceptions of the role of teacher as motivator_M1. (TR Corpus, Text 4)

e.g. NS The organization scores were given based on the organization of the essay as a whole_M1. (NS Corpus, Text 1)

e.g. Every_BR activity, even_AM the silent pantomimes, was designed to enhance the students' communication skills_M1. (NS Corpus, Text 3)

Move 2 - Statement of Results

Move 2 represents statement of results with evidence. It can be “a numerical value or reference to a graph or table” (Peacock, 2002:481) without any comment. The following examples illustrate the tagged Move 2 across the two corpora:

e.g. Also 62,8% of the teachers had attended computer training courses_M2. (TR Corpus, Text 1)

e.g. Students didn't arrive at a consensus on this strategy, but teachers broadly_BR agreed on the motivating effect of this strategy_M2. (TR Corpus, Text 4)

e.g. All_BR of the students spoke more_HG after the drama than they had before_M2. (NS Corpus, Text 3)

e.g. As about_HG sixty-seven percent of the respondents to the questionnaire indicated_HG, peer reviews were considered valuable_AM primary sources of revision information, and where most_HG of them got a large_HG portion of the commentary that they needed_AM in order to polish up their essays for inclusion in their final portfolios_M2. (NS Corpus, Text 4)

Move 3 - Commenting on Results

Move 3 communicates commenting on results. It includes stating expected and unexpected results. It is used for giving explanations for unexpected results and subjective judgements about the results. Namely, Move 3 is the interpretation and evaluation of the findings (Nodoushan & Nafiseh, 2011:114). Move 3 across the two corpora was tagged as follows:

e.g. It is thought_HG that the instruction that the control group received cannot_HG be named as 'implicit strategy training' because there was no intention of teaching strategies and no systematic and regular exposure to metacognitive strategies_M3. (TR Corpus, Text 6)

e.g. All_BR these results show that teachers have very_BR positive attitudes towards computers_M3. (TR Corpus, Text 1)

e.g. They may_HG have understood their main_BR claims, but did not understand the means of support_M3. (NS Corpus, Text 1)

e.g. They were then able to put this knowledge into practice in their writing_M3. (NS Corpus, Text 1)

Move 4 - Reference to Previous Research

Move 4 represents comparing and contrasting the findings with the related literature or referring to the literature to support the claims made by the writers. Move 4 was tagged across the two corpora as illustrated in the following examples:

e.g. Tuzcuoglu (2000) found nearly same results in his study_M4. (TR Corpus, Text 1)

e.g. As Reid (2007) emphasizes that working in groups can be a great motivator_M4. (TR Corpus, Text 4)

e.g. When the time comes for speech production, Krashen and Terrell (1983) recommend random volunteered group response_M4. (NS Corpus, Text 3)

e.g. Krashen and Terrell's (1983) success with the practices of using pre-speech activities and random volunteered group response explains why the sixth and seventh grade students clearly preferred the pantomime activities over all other drama activities_M4. (NS Corpus, Text 3)

Move 5 - Making Generalizations and Claims

Move 5 stands for making generalizations deduced from the results and making assertions. The following examples were extracted from the corpora which were used in this study. Move 5 across the two corpora was tagged and here are some examples:

e.g. Thus, we can_HG conclude that when students like English and are motivated to learn, they can_HG get higher marks_M5. (TR Corpus, Text 2)

e.g. If teachers want their students to give their best_AM when attending to a task, they need_AM to see the point in what they do_M5. (TR Corpus, Text 4)

e.g. Too_HG often_HG, teachers and administrators consider play, and by extension drama, a frivolous_AM activity_M5. (NS Corpus, Text 3)

e.g. It shows that references are not, in fact_BR, required_AM in the discussion and conclusion sections of research articles, though they may_HG be used in some_HG disciplines more_HG than others_m5. (NS Corpus, Text 7)

Move 6 - Indicating Limitations and Significance of the Study

Move 6 corresponds to evaluating the study in terms of its limitations, strengths and weaknesses. The following examples illustrate the tagged Move 6 across the two corpora:

e.g. Time limitation was another important_AM limitation of this study_M6. (TR Corpus, Text 7)

e.g. We_SM got some_HG results rlying on the analysis of the survey but we_SM couldn't_HG have any chance to observe any of the participant teachers in their classroom environment_M6. (TR Corpus, Text 9)

e.g. One of_HG the limitations was the small_AM sample size_M6. (NS Corpus, Text 2)

e.g. There are still several_HG limitations in relation to the study and the listening test itself_M6. (NS Corpus, Text 8)

Move 7 - Drawing Pedagogic Implications

Move 7 communicates “the applicability or usefulness of a study for language teaching and learning” (Yang & Allison, 2003: 383). The following tagged sentences are from the two corpora exemplifying Move 7 identification:

e.g. A specific time should_AM always_BR be separated for vocabulary teaching_M7. (TR Corpus, Text 3)

e.g. One of_HG the implications of this study is, the other types of native folk literature should_AM be used to teach the foreign language_M7. (TR Corpus, Text 7)

e.g. In addition, the use of games as a motivating_AM and fun_AM way to engage students may_HG help to increase their desire to develop further vocabulary_M7. (NS Corpus, Text 1)

e.g. There is clearly_BR a need_AM for teacher education programs to include drama as one of the methods courses for pre-service teachers_M7. (NS Corpus, Text 5)

Move 8 - Recommending Further Research

Move 8 embodies making suggestions for further research. The following tagged sentences are from the two corpora exemplifying Move 8 identification:

e.g. Future research should_AM examine how different types of drama activities affect students of differing English abilities_M8. (TR Corpus, Text 3)

e.g. There is a need_AM for replications of this study with more_HG participants from different cities and schools in Turkey_M8. (TR Corpus, Text 1)

e.g. For a larger_HG, more_HG in-depth study, a comprehensive comparison between classes that use extensive peer reviews and those that use little_HG to none_BR could_HG identify their true_BR value_AM to students, as well as the circumstances under which peer reviews are best_AM implemented_M8. (NS Corpus, Text 4)

e.g. An exploration of the feature in spoken English registers would_HG particularly_AM be in order, as the results of this study indicate_HG that the structure may_HG

prefer_AM an animate subject (which tends_HG not to be the case in some_HG scholarly writing, especially_AM in the sciences)_M8. (NS Corpus, Text 7)

3.2.4. Move Cycles

Move cycles were analysed because they could help in commenting on results and explaining the logical deductions related to the organization of Moves across the texts. A special programme was developed by a computer scientist/engineer from Recep Tayyip Erdogan University. The programme calculates the frequency of Move clusters. Moves are evolved in a series of Move cycles within a framework which is predictable. The three-part framework and Move cycles are described in Peacock (2002:481) but some moves are adjusted in relation to the framework used in this study:

- I. Introduction (background information Move; or background information and reference to previous research Moves; or statement of results and commenting on results Moves),
- II. Evaluation (statement of results Move; or commenting on results and information Moves; or background information and reference to previous research Moves; or making claims and reference to previous research Moves; or reference to previous research and making claims Moves), and
- III. Conclusion (commenting on results and making claims Moves; or indicating limitation Move).

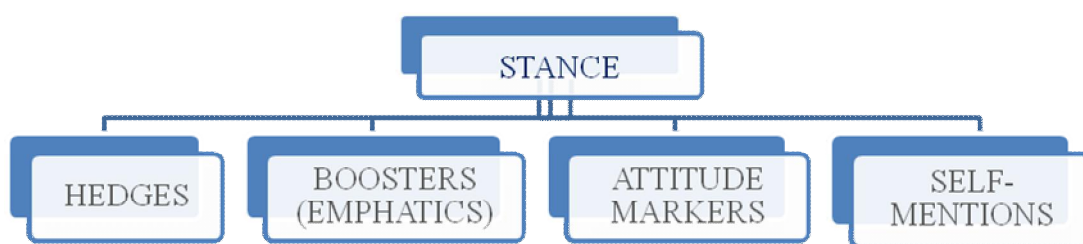
The move cycles were analysed through the 2- and 3-stepped cycles across texts. The cycle analysis gives information about the organization of the Moves throughout the discussion sections.

3.2.5. Stance Analysis

The present study carried out stance analysis according to the Hyland's stance taxonomy because it is a detailed one which defines stance under four subheadings: hedges, boosters (emphatics), attitude markers and self-mentions. There exists a variety of stance taxonomies (Biber et al., 1999; Biber, 2004, 2006a, Perez-Llantada Auria, 2008; Hunston, 2011) and there are researchers such as Susan Hunston, Douglas Biber, John W. Du Bois who study stance, but these researchers and aforementioned taxonomies consider stance in a more general framework which is not classified under certain subheadings and

which makes analysis more difficult to carry out. Stance, a way of writers' exposing evaluation in the language, can be achieved through verbs, modals, semi-modals, nouns, adverbs and adverbials, adjectives and pronouns. In the tagging process of stance, previous studies were taken as guides in the study (Biber et al., 1999; Biber, 2004, 2006a, Perez-Llantada Auria, 2008; Hyland, 2005a, 2008).

Figure 4: Stance Resources



Source: Hyland, 2005a, 2008.

3.2.5.1. Hedges

Hedges in the corpus were tagged according to Hyland's definition (2005a). Similar studies which identify hedges also guided the tagging process. Additionally, Salvager-Meyer's (1997) classification was used in the tagging and analysis phases. There are researchers who studied hedges such as Holmes (1995) and Lakoff (1973) but their focus is not academic writing.

Hedging is one of the most effective ways of being cautious and influential in order to down-tone the oppositions that could possibly come from the audience. It is also preferred by expert writers in order "to reduce the strength of claims simply because stronger statements would not be justified by the experimental data presented" (Salvager-Meyer, 1997:107). This does not mean "saying less than what they mean" but just "saying what they mean by not overstating their experimental results" (p. 107). That writers do not act as an authority on the subject might also be considered a politeness strategy. The following tagged sentences are from the two corpora exemplifying identification of the hedges:

e.g. The results of this study indicated_HG that there was a significant_AM difference between the control group and the experimental group_M2. (TR Corpus, Text 8)

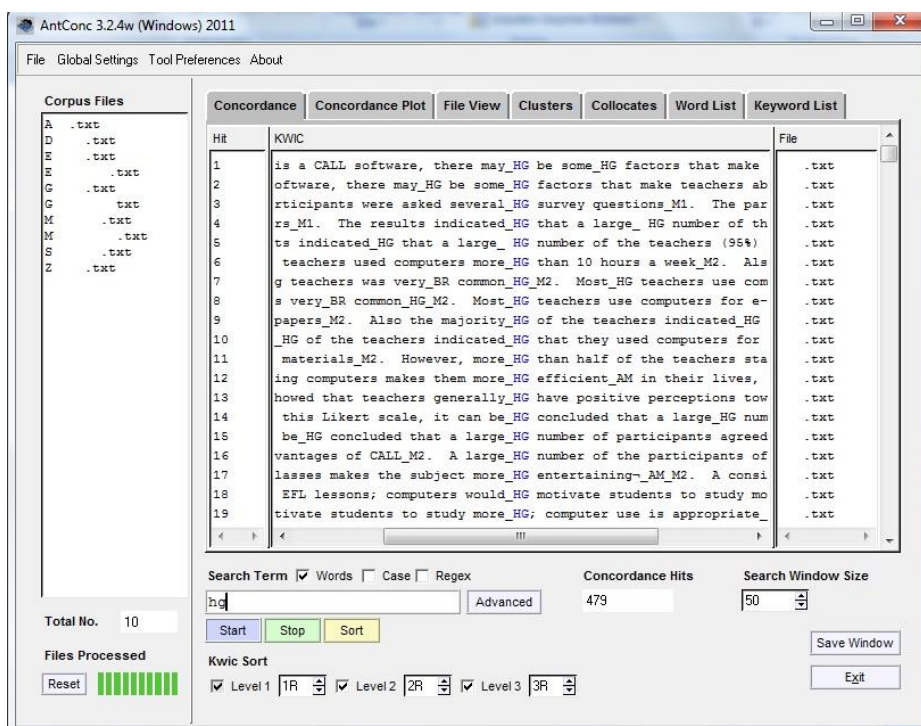
e.g. In other words although just about_HG all_BR of the teachers have positive views on CLT many_HG of them may_HG not practice it precisely_AM _M5. (TR Corpus, Text 9)

e.g. A fourth direction for future research could_HG be to investigate the actual_BR focus of test takers when given a video listening task_M7R. (NS Corpus, Text 5)

e.g. The comments provided in this study may_HG indicate_HG that anxiety does have some_HG effect on listening comprehension_M5. (NS Corpus, Text 4)

The tagged text was uploaded into the concordance programme. The programme processed the data and revealed results, as shown in Graphic 2:

Graphic 2: Hedges in Turkish Corpus on the Concordance Programme



Hedges allow writers to balance their confidence to their commitment by labelling the presented information as provisional, as “opinion rather than accredited fact” (Hyland, 2000:88). They save writers from the risk of contradicting with the literature, by refraining

from a position “which might put scientists (and the institution they work at) in an embarrassing situation if subsequent conflicting evidence or contradictory findings arise” (ibid: 107).

Salvager-Meyer (1997:107) classifies hedges used in academic written English under seven categories, which is also taken as guide in evaluating the hedge markers in the present study:

1. Modal Auxiliary Verbs (widely used means of expressing modality in English academic writing): the most tentative ones being: *may, might, can, could, would, should*.

- ✓ Such a measure *might* be more sensitive to changes in health after specialist treatment.
- ✓ Concerns that naturally low cholesterol levels *could* lead to increased mortality from other causes *may* well be unfounded (observe the cumulative hedging effect: the main and the subordinate clauses are both hedged.)

2. Modal Lexical verbs (or the so-called “speech act verbs” used to perform acts such as doubting and evaluating rather than merely describing) of varying degrees of illocutionary force: *to seem, to appear (epistemic verbs), to believe, to assume, to suggest, to estimate, to tend, to think, to argue, to indicate, to propose, to speculate*.

- ✓ Our analyses *suggest* that high doses of the drug can lead to relevant blood pressure reduction. (Here too we have a cumulative hedging effect.)
- ✓ These results *indicate* that the presence of large vessel peripheral arterial disease may reflect a particular susceptibility to the development of atherosclerosis. (Cumulative hedging effect)
- ✓ In spite of its limitations, our study *appears* to have a number of important strengths.

3. Adjectival, adverbial and nominal modal phrases:

- Probability adjectives: e.g., *possible, probable, un/likely*
- Nouns: e.g., *assumption, claim, possibility, estimate, suggestion*

- Adverbs (which could be considered non-verbal modals): e.g., *perhaps, possibly, probably, practically, likely, presumably, virtually, apparently*.
 - ✓ Septicemia is *likely* to result, which might threaten his life.
 - ✓ *Possibly* the setting of the neural mechanisms responsible for this sensation is altered in patients with chronic fatigue syndrome.
4. Approximators of degree, quantity, frequency and time: e.g., *approximately, roughly, about, often, occasionally, generally, usually, somewhat, somehow, a lot of*.
 5. Introductory phrases such as *I believe, to our knowledge, it is our view that, we feel that*, which express the author's personal doubt and direct involvement.
 6. "If" clauses, e.g., *if true, if anything*
 7. Compound hedges: These are phrases made up of several hedges, the commonest forms being:
 - a) A modal auxiliary combined with a lexical verb and a hedging content (e.g., *it would appear*)
 - b) A lexical verb followed by a hedging adverb or adjective where the adverb (or adjective) reinforces the hedge already inherent in the lexical verb (e.g., *it seems reasonable/probable*)

Such compound hedges can be double hedges (e.g. it may suggest that; it seems likely that, this probably indicates), treble hedges (e.g. it seems reasonable to assume that); quadruple hedges (e.g. it would seem somewhat unlikely that) and so on.

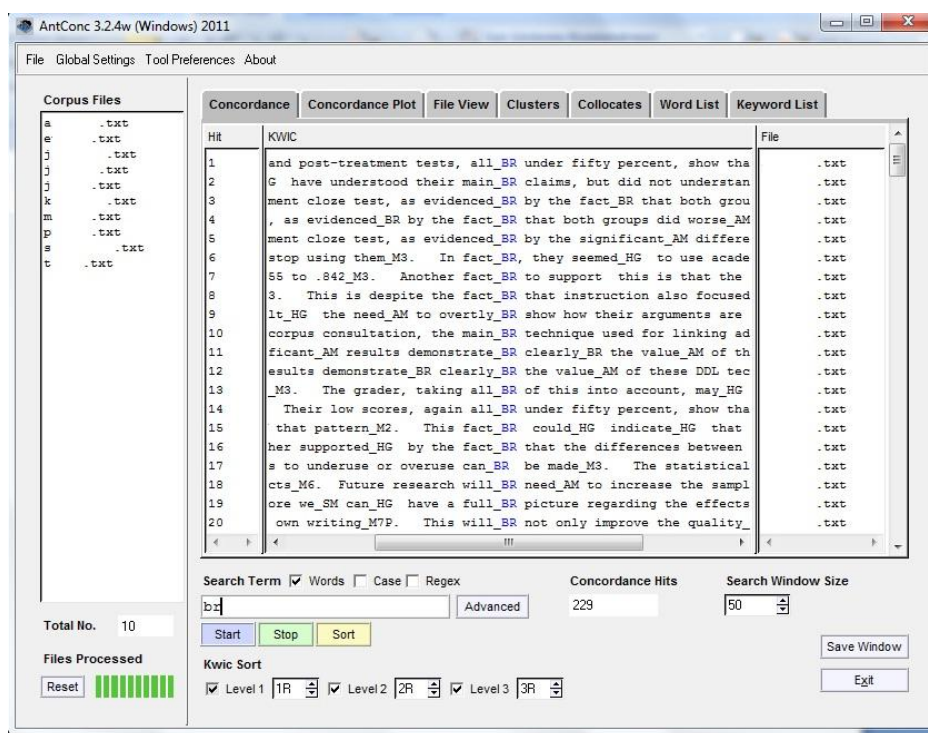
3.2.5.2. Boosters

Boosters, like hedges, were identified according to Hyland's (2005a) definition in this study. Although Hyland's studies were taken as basis for the tagging of the corpus, related studies also guided the tagging and analysis processes when the need arose. Boosters are not classified as detailed as hedges, but can be realised through adverbs,

adverbials, nouns and verbs like, *know*, *sure*, *certain*, *apparent*, *real*, *fact*, *definitely*, *certainly*, which indicate certainty and assertion.

Boosting is a relatively new phenomenon compared to hedging and is generally implemented in the introduction and the conclusion sections in order to highlight the significance of the study. Boosters indicate writers' certainty in their claims and emphasize the force of their claims. They underline shared information and writers' "involvement with the topic and solidarity with the audience" while, at the same time, enabling writers to present their work with assurance (p. 179). Writers balance their cautious and self-effacing positions with a degree of assertion. The tagged text was uploaded into the concordance programme. The programme processed the data and revealed the results, as shown in Graphic 3:

Graphic 3: Boosters in NS Corpus Exhibited on the Concordance Programme



The following examples illustrate the tagged boosters across two corpora:

e.g. I_{SM} thought_{BR} that repeating these songs would_{HG} provide learning some_{HG} short expressions and be fun_{AM} for the students_{M1}. 9Tr Corpus, Text 2)

e.g. That is to say, audio jokes have a greater_BR influence on motivation than translation sheets_M5. (TR Corpus, Text 5)

e.g. The results of the present study, however, suggest_HG that the degree to which L1 orthography affects L2 reading may_HG actually_BR be more_HG variable, with higher_HG proficiency readers showing less_HG of an L1 orthographic effect than lower proficiency readers_M5. (NS Corpus, Text 7)

e.g. It is possible_HG that the developmental results found in this study are common_HG to all_BR learners of English, regardless of the nature of the L1 orthography_M5. (NS Corpus, Text 7)

Hedges and boosters are important strategies for writers in taking effective stance and attitude towards ideas, and in constructing the balance between objective information and subjective evaluation, which increases the likelihood that the claims are accepted. They reflect the “writer’s degree of confidence in the truth of a proposition” (Hyland, 2000:86). A fine combination of these two features can make the argument convincing and effective.

3.2.5.3. Attitude Markers

AMs were tagged in the two corpora according to Hyland’s interpretation. Also related studies which examine AMs were used as a guide to identification and tagging process. AMs can be realized through:

- adverbs and adverbial phrases like *interestingly*, *importantly*,
- adjectives, such as, *prominent*, *significant*, and
- modal verbs like *must*, *should*.

AMs demonstrate “the writer’s affective, rather than epistemic, attitude to propositions, conveying surprise, agreement, importance, frustration and so on rather than commitment” and are realized through the use of subordination, comparatives, progressive particles, punctuation, attitude verbs, adverbs and adjectives (Hyland, 2005a: 180). Like self-mentions, they reflect a writer’s presence in the text. The following examples are from the tagged texts from both corpora:

e.g. The role of passive vocabulary knowledge is significant_{AM} in language learning_{M5}. (TR Corpus, Text 5)

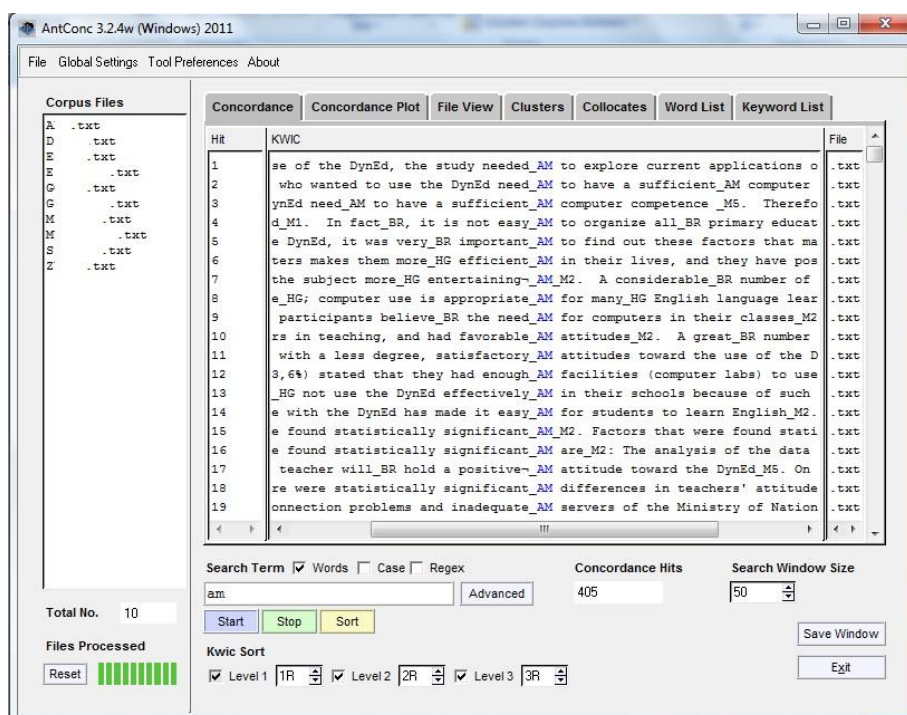
e.g. Appropriate_{AM} and ideal_{AM} methods and materials should_{AM} be chosen to reach the aims and to meet the demands of the students_{M7P}. (TR Corpus, Text 4)

e.g. No significant_{AM} general correlations were found; however, of the 50 structures identified as mandative subjunctives, 44 (88%) were triggered by MSTs occurring in present tense_{M2}. (NS Corpus, Text 8)

e.g. Therefore, it appears_{HG} that the structure is faring quite_{HG} well_{AM} in other written registers_{M5}. (NS Corpus, Text 9)

Graphic 3 illustrates the AMs on the concordance programme:

Graphic 4: AMs in Turkish Corpus Exhibited on the Concordance Programme



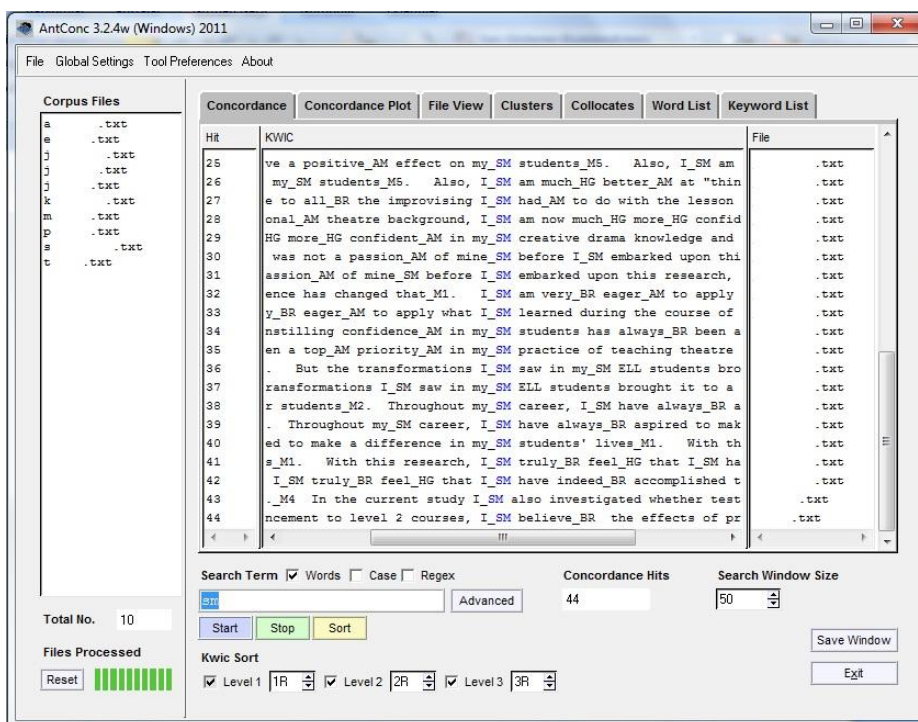
This is also a strategy used by writers as a way of directing their readers towards a certain paradigm and controlling “the interpretation of the presented content, the way they want their statements to be interpreted and comprehended” (Blagojević, 2009:72).

3.2.5.4. Self-Mentions

Self-mentions are clear and easy to tag because they are in small numbers and, therefore, do not give way to speculation in the identification process.

Self-mention indicates the writers’ presence in the text and the extent to which the writer takes responsibility for the content (Ivanic, 1998:26). By using the first personal pronouns like *I, my, we, researcher, our*, etc., writers identify themselves “as the source of associated statement” and seek an agreement for their own contributions to the field (Hyland, 2002a: 1093). The below graphic shows the self-mentions on the concordance programme:

Graphic 5: Self Mentions in NS Corpus Exhibited on the Concordance Programme



Self mentions were tagged across the two corpora, as illustrated in the following examples:

e.g. The researcher_SM thinks_BR that this result is because of the inefficient_AM use of CALL and DynEd_M3. (TR Corpus, Text 1)

e.g. I_SM also included improvisation game in seasons and weather conditions_M1. (TR Corpus, Text 2)

e.g. In other words, perhaps_HG the researchers saw references were characteristic of, but not limited to, realizing comparisons and support_m3. (NS Corpus, Text 9)

e.g. This teacher researcher_SM believes_BR that games can_HG be effective_AM in acquisition and retention of vocabulary_M7. (NS Corpus, Text 3)

Using an authoritative language is considered to be a key element of successful academic writing and of establishing an effective academic *persona*. Self-mention is a tool to control the “level of personality in a text”, and is a way of presenting authorial identity, and identifying oneself with a particular argument (Hyland, 2002b:354). It is determined by seniority experience, confidence, personality, and by the discourse community that the writers belongs to.

Additionally, it emphasizes the writer’s own perspective, his/her role in the research, contribution to the field and authorial self. In hard sciences, writers rely on the strength of the laboratory procedures while the writers in the soft sciences have to support their quasi-experimental studies with the strength of the argument and have to gain credit for an individual perspective. In this sense, self-mention plays an important role in presenting individual perspective and personal contribution in argumentation.

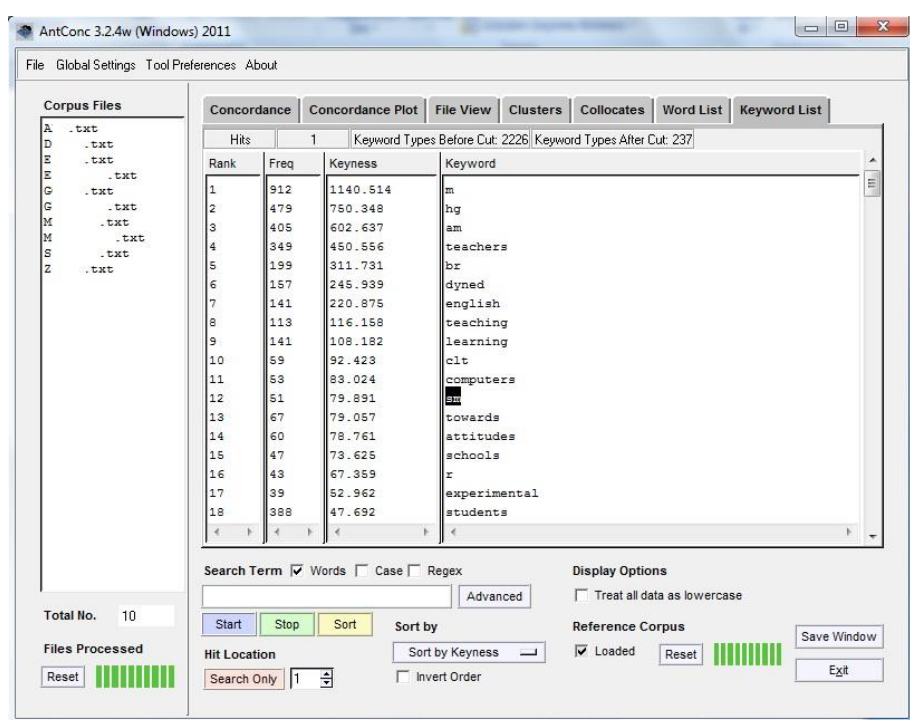
3.2.6. Keyword Analysis

Keywords were analysed via the Log-Likelihood test on the concordance programme, AntConc 3.2.4w (Windows, 2011). Keywords are “the most significant lexical differences” between two corpora which also yield information about the “aboutness and style” of the corpora. Alternatively, more specifically:

A word is key if it occurs in a text at least as many times as a user has specified as a minimum frequency, and its frequency in the text when compared with its frequency in a reference corpus is such that its statistical probability as computed by an appropriate procedure...is smaller or equal to a p value specified by a user (Baker, 2004: 346-347).

The researcher employed keyword analysis to identify the descriptive accounts of the two corpora used in the present study. The frequencies of Moves and stance markers in one corpus were compared against the other to determine which Moves and markers occur statistically more often in each wordlist. Graphic 6 illustrates a snapshot of the Keyword results from the programme:

Graphic 6: Keywords in Turkish Corpus Exhibited on the Concordance Programme



The comparison was carried out through the Log-likelihood test on AntConc3.2.4w (2011) with the 0.05 probability value ($p=0.05$). Then, the researcher compared each Move against the other Moves within the same corpus in order to identify the frequency and characteristic stance markers of each Move.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Introduction

In this chapter, rhetorical patterns (Moves) and their organization plus distribution across the discussion sections of master's theses in applied linguistics by Turkish EFL students and by native-English speaking students are analysed quantitatively. The study also looks into stance markers (hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mentions) in these Moves.

4.2. Quantitative Data Analysis

In order to measure the word type and word token differences between the two corpora, independent samples t-test was employed with the 0.05 probability value. The results show that although there are differences between the two corpora in terms of type and token frequencies, these are not statistically significant, as evidenced in Table 3 and Table 4. For the type ratio p is 0.131 and t is 1.606, for the token ratio p is 0.583 and t is -.563. The results indicate that the two corpora can be compared.

Table 3: Group Statistics

		Moves	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
type	TR	8	606	281.924	99.67519
	NS	8	828.75	272.82373	96.45775
token	TR	8	2462.125	1683.92895	595.35879
	NS	8	2895.375	1381.62626	488.47865

TR: Turkish students' theses

NS: Native speaker students' theses

First, the researcher analysed and coded the moves, then identified and tagged the stance markers in the Moves. To validate the coding, she had two other researchers who are specialists in academic writing from Recep Tayyip Erdogan University and Karadeniz Technical University code the texts. One of the coders is a native speaker of English. As a concordance programme, the researcher used AntConc 3.2.4w (Windows, 2011), developed by Laurence Anthony, to identify the frequency and distribution of Moves and stance markers. Keyword analysis was carried out through log-likelihood test (Anthony, 2011) with a 0.05 significance level.

Besides, an analysis programme designed by a computer scientist/engineer from Recep Tayyip Erdogan University was used to identify the cycling patterns of the Moves. Two types of move analysis were employed: intra-corpus and inter-corpus. In intra-corpus analysis, each Move was compared to the Moves within the main corpus to identify Move characteristics among the other Moves constructing the same corpus. In inter-corpus analysis, each Move was compared to the Moves in the target corpus.

Table 4: Independent Samples T-Test

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	
Type	Equal variances assumed	0.006	0.938	-1.606	14	0.131	-222.75	138.70559	-520.24391	74.74391
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.606	13.985	0.131	-222.75	138.70559	-520.27393	74.77393
Token	Equal variances assumed	0.105	0.751	-0.563	14	0.583	-433.25	770.10615	-2084.9634	1218.4634
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.563	13.485	0.583	-433.25	770.10615	-2090.895	1224.395

Move 4, which stands for referencing and comparing the results with previous studies, was not subjected to stance analysis, because it is different from other moves in that it includes quotations and paraphrasing.

4.2.1. Move Analysis

Although the differences between type and token frequencies of both groups of corpora are not statistically significant, the proportion of words for each Move is around 21 words in Turkish students' theses, and 27 words in NS corpus, which indicates that NS students incline to employ longer sentences than Turkish students do.

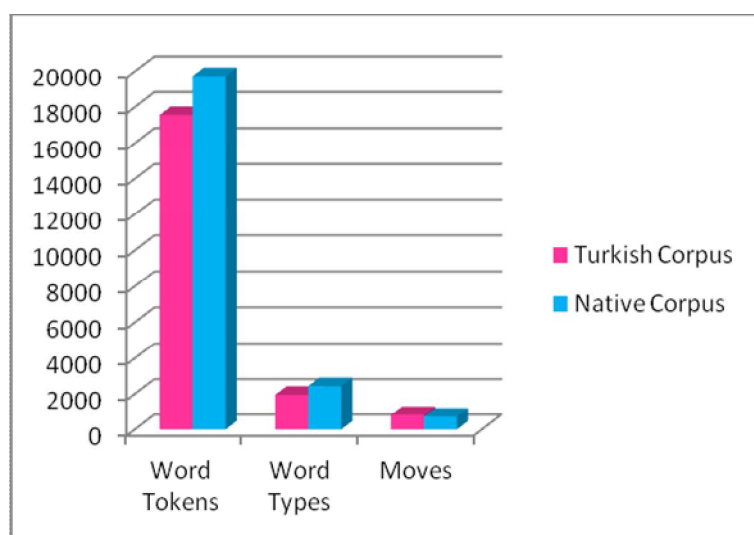
Overall analysis was carried out excluding Move 4 (reference to previous research). Table 5 below shows the frequencies.

Table 5: Moves and Stance Markers across Turkish and NS Corpora

	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
		Freq	Keyness	Freq	Keyness	
Total Number Of						
Word Tokens		17560	-	19738		-
Word Types		1948	-	2438		-
Moves		813	24.901	722		-
Move 1		159	17.43%	62	7.40%	-
Move 2		221	24.23%	161	19.23%	-
Move 3		97	10.63%	164	19.59%	-
Move 4		98	10.74%	111	13.26%	-
Move 5		213	23.35%	155	18.51%	-
Move 6		24	2.63%	54	6.45%	-
Move 7		56	6.14%	56	6.69%	-
Move 8		43	4.71%	72	8.60%	-
Hedges		479	2.71%	959	4.85%	91.136
Boosters		199	1.13%	229	1.60%	-
Attitude Markers		405	2.30%	647	3.27%	22.205
Self-Mentions		50	0.28%	44	0.22%	-

Looking at the overall picture in Table 5, in Graphics 7 and 8, Moves appeared key in Turkish corpus, which could be the result of the fact that Turkish students prefer to keep the number of words for each Move lower than NS students do. The commonest Moves in Turkish corpus are Move 2 (Statement of results) (24.23%), Move 5 (Making claims and generalizations) (23.35%), and Move 1 (Background Information) (17.43%), respectively. In NSs' theses, Move 3 (Commenting on Results) (19.59%) appears most frequently, followed by Move 2 (Statement of Results) (19.23%) and Move 5 (Making claims and generalizations) (18.51%). These results indicate that NS students pay more importance to evaluating the findings than giving background information regarding the study in discussion sections.

Graphic 7: Word Tokens, Word Types and Moves across Turkish and NS Corpora

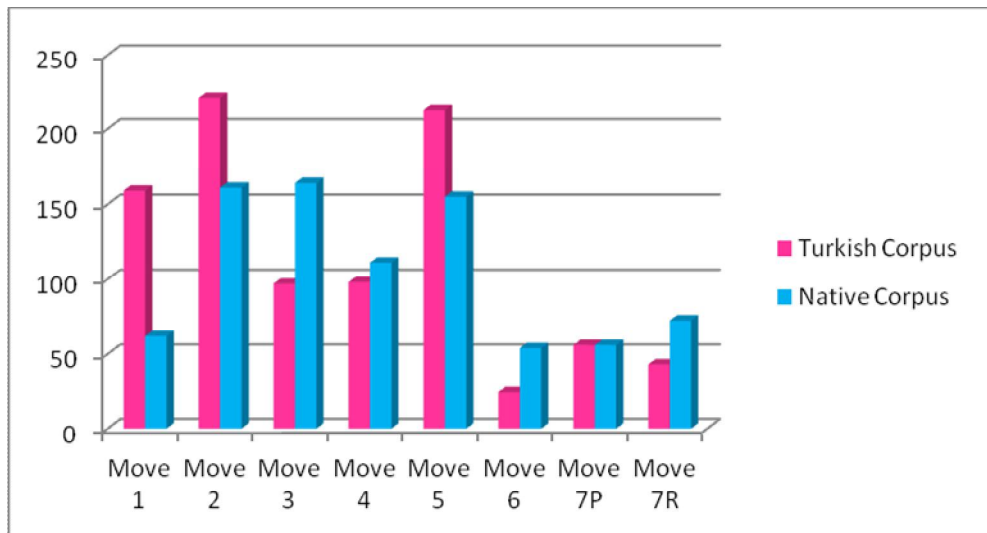


Besides, it is apparent from Table 5 that Turkish students avoid hedging when compared to NSs in that the amount of hedges used by NSs is twice the amount that Turkish students use. Hedges (91.136) and AMs (22.205) appeared to be key markers of NS corpus.

Considering the Move and token ratio shown in Graphics 7 and 8, in the Turkish corpus, each Move consisted of about twenty words on average, whereas the rate is about twenty six words for NS corpus, which means that Turkish students, when compared to

non-native students, prefer shorter sentences, as is the case in previous studies (Hinkel, 2002, 2004, 2011; Hyland, 2003a).

Graphic 8: Move Frequencies across Turkish and NS Corpora



4.2.1.1. Move 1 - Background Information

The communicative function of Move 1 is to give background information concerning theory, research aims, and methodology. Table 7 shows that, as in the case of overall Move rate, frequency of Move 1 usage is statistically significant in Turkish corpus, compared to NS corpus, which is characterized by self-mentions among other Turkish Moves. Considering the NS corpus, hedges, boosters and AMs determine the Move character with keynesses 18.083, 5.008, and 8.604, respectively, compared to Turkish corpus, as Table 6 indicates. NS students use statistically significantly more hedges, boosters and AMs than Turkish students in Move 1. However, these are not the characteristics of the Moves compared to other Moves of NS corpus. Move 1 frequency of Turkish corpus is nearly 3 times higher than NS corpus move frequency, which indicates that Turkish students give more credence to background information in the discussion sections.

As shown in Table 6, Move 1 was found to be a key marker in the Turkish corpus, which indicates a remarkable difference between Turkish and NS corpora use of Move 1. Move 1 frequency of Turkish corpus is more than double the amount of NS corpus.

Table 6: Stance Markers in Move 1 across Turkish and NS Corpora

	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Cor. Keyness	Move Keyness	Freq	Ref. Cor. Keyness	Move Keyness
Moves	157	3.672	-	60	-	-
Word Types	686	-	-	577	-	-
Word Tokens	3058	-	-	1533	-	-
Hedges	21	-	-	34	18.083	-
Boosters	10	-	-	13	5.008	-
Attitude Markers	18	-	-	23	8.604	-
Self-Mentions	20	-	14.075	6	-	-

Table 6 indicates that Move 1 in Turkish corpus, giving background information, is characterized by self-mentions with 14.075 keyness, which indicates that writers try to emphasize their role in the background of the study and in the process of carrying out the research procedures by using pronouns in this Move. However, Move 1 in NS corpora is characterised with hedges (keyness 18.083), boosters (keyness 5.008) and AMs (keyness 8.604), which indicates that they exhibit more evaluative posture and emphasize their stance and attitude towards carrying out the procedures, as demonstrated in Graphic 9.

Graphic 9: Stance Markers in Move 1 across Turkish and NS Corpora

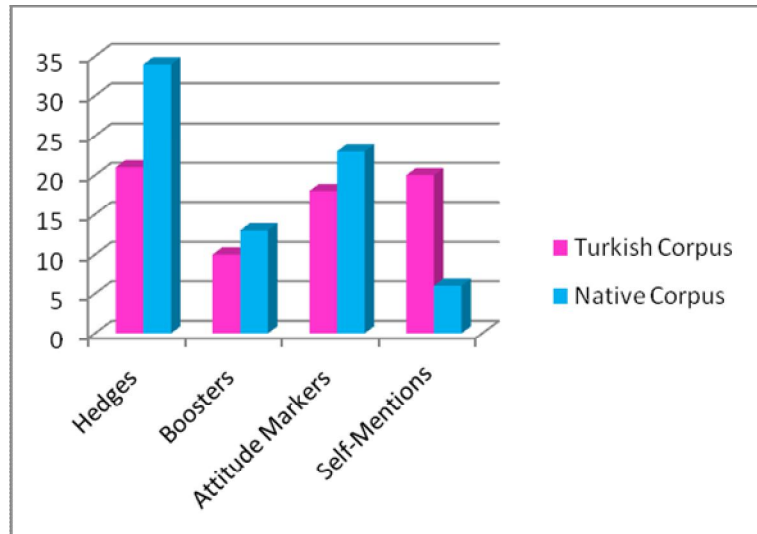
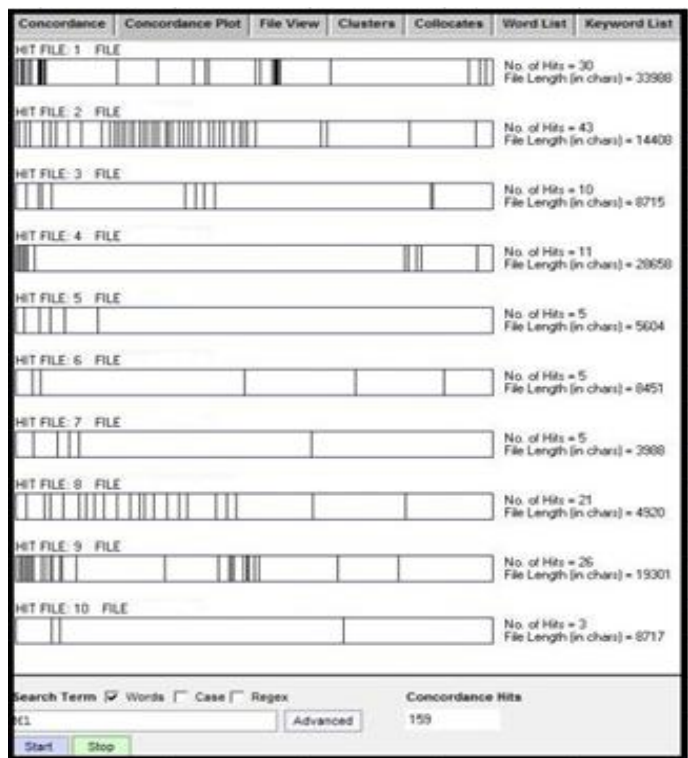


Figure 5 demonstrates that in Turkish corpus, Move 1 clustered mostly at the initial parts of the discussion sections. Four of the theses (Files 2, 1, 8 and 9) absorbed the higher frequencies with 43, 30, 26 and 21 hits, which makes the distribution imbalanced and hard to estimate the regularity of the dispersion.

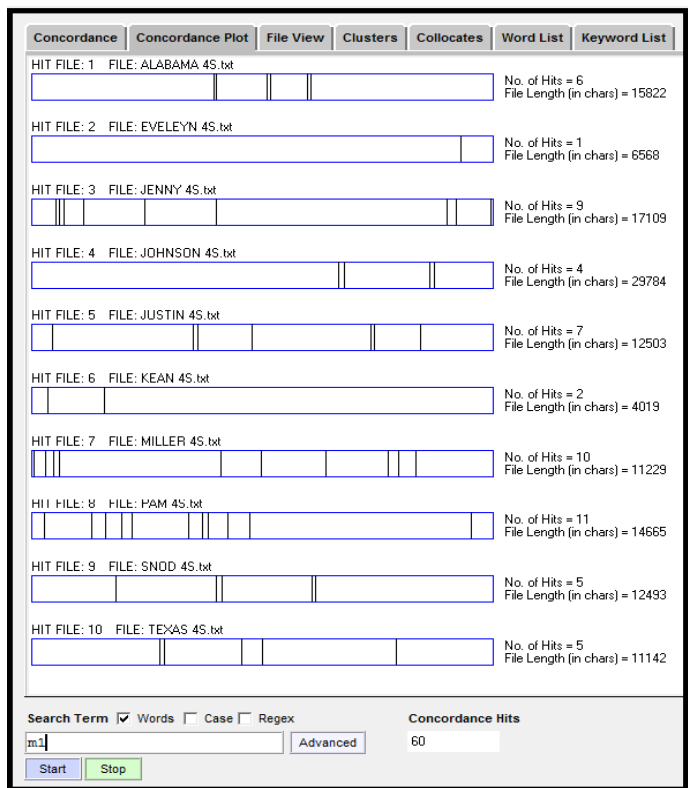
The most frequent hit is 11 in NS corpus and the picture of distribution is more balanced compared to Turkish corpus. NS students seem to avoid using Move 1 in the discussion sections, whereas Turkish students prefer to save more room for background information in the discussion sections. Move 1 could be considered obligatory among both groups of theses as it exists in all of them (Peacock, 2002).

Figure 5: Distribution of Move 1 across Turkish and NS corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

4.2.1.2. Move 2 - Statement of Results

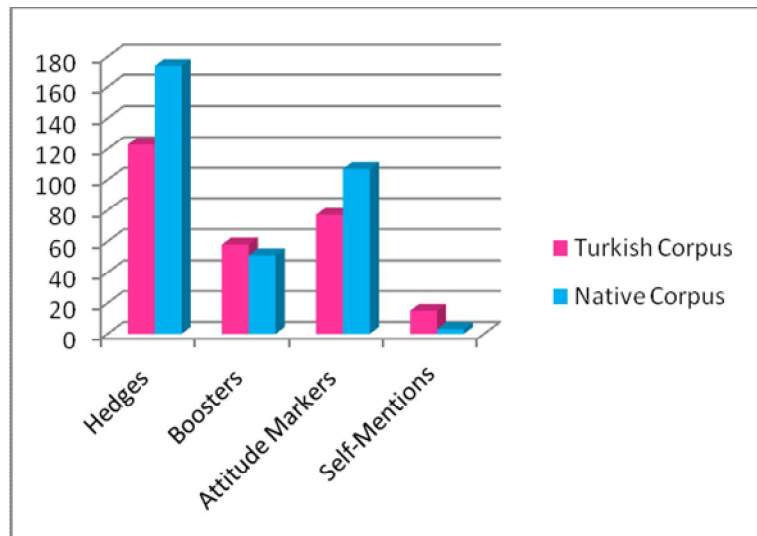
Move 2 stands for statement of results. It tends to be positioned at the beginning of the discussion sections of Turkish theses and exhibits a more balanced picture but at a lower frequency when compared to the theses by NSs. Figure 5 shows that Move 2 clustered quite heavily in two theses with 71 and 68 hits, which makes the distribution imbalanced.

Table 7 and Graphic 10 demonstrate that two of the Turkish theses, File 1 and File 4, occupied a great amount of Move 2 with 71 and 68 hits, respectively. Also, Turkish writers allow for more Move 2 (reporting results) in discussion sections, whereas this frequency is moderately lower in NS corpus. It is evident from Figure 6 that NS corpus demonstrates a more balanced picture and the distribution tends to be positioned at the beginning of the sections.

Table 7: Stance Markers in Move 2 across Turkish and NS Corpora

	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move keyness
Moves	221	-	-	161	-	-
Word Types	866	-	-	977	-	-
Word Tokens	4907	-	-	4097	-	-
Hedges	123	-	-	174	18.911	-
Boosters	58	-	-	51	-	-
Attitude Markers	77	-	-	107	10.92	-
Self-Mentions	15	6.921	1.28	3		-

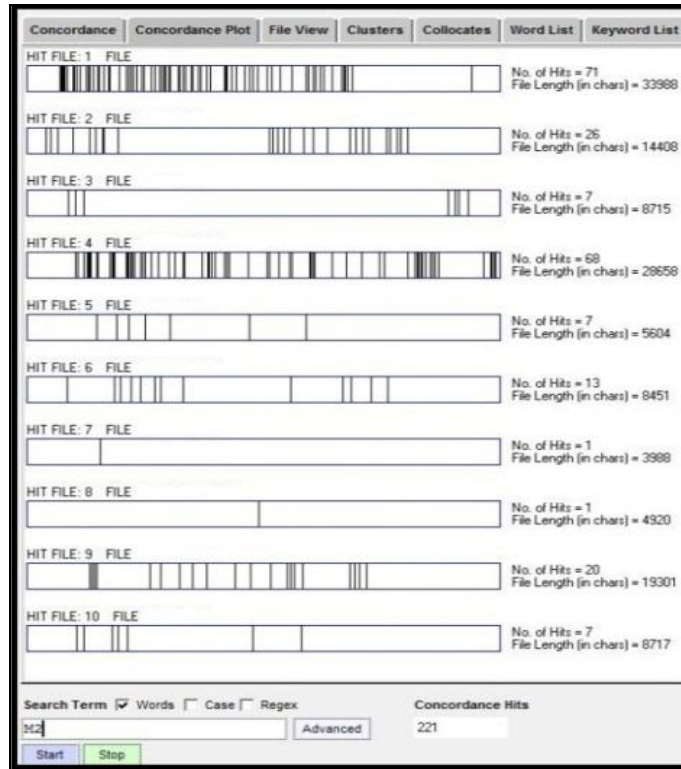
Graphic 10: Stance Markers in Move 1 across Turkish and NS Corpora



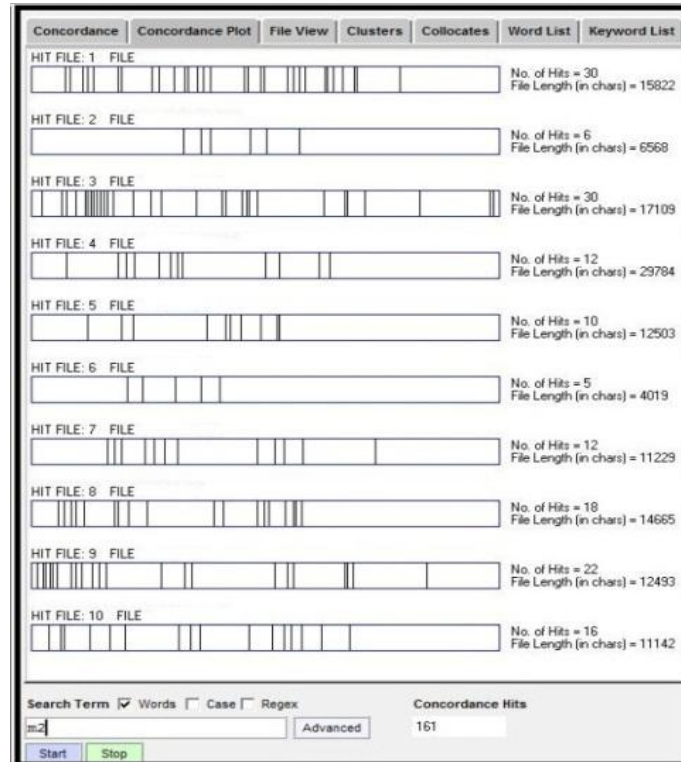
Turkish writers employ more Move 2 than NS writers do. However, this difference is not statistically significant. Surprisingly, self-mentions are displayed as a key marker of Move 2 in Turkish corpus. Regarding NSs' theses, hedges and AMs were found, again, to be key markers, with 18.911 and 10.920 keynesses, respectively. Move 2 is also considered obligatory for both groups of theses as it exists in each group of theses.

Figure 6: Distribution of Move 2 across the Turkish and NS corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus

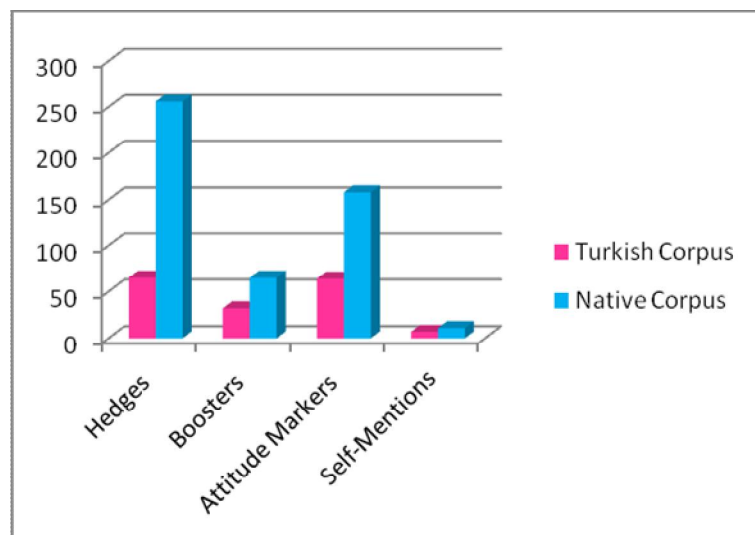


Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

4.2.1.3. Move 3 – Commenting on Results

Move 3 corresponds to commenting on results. That includes making explanations for the results, providing subjective judgements about the results, and interpreting findings. Although NSs' theses employed more Move 3, this Move is displayed as key in Turkish corpus apparently because of the fewer number of words in proportion to Move amount used by Turkish students.

Graphic 11: Stance Markers in Move 3 across Turkish and NS Corpora



According to Table 8 and Graphic 11, the higher frequency of the Moves accompanying higher amounts of tokens indicates that NS students attach importance to evaluating the results and making comments on results.

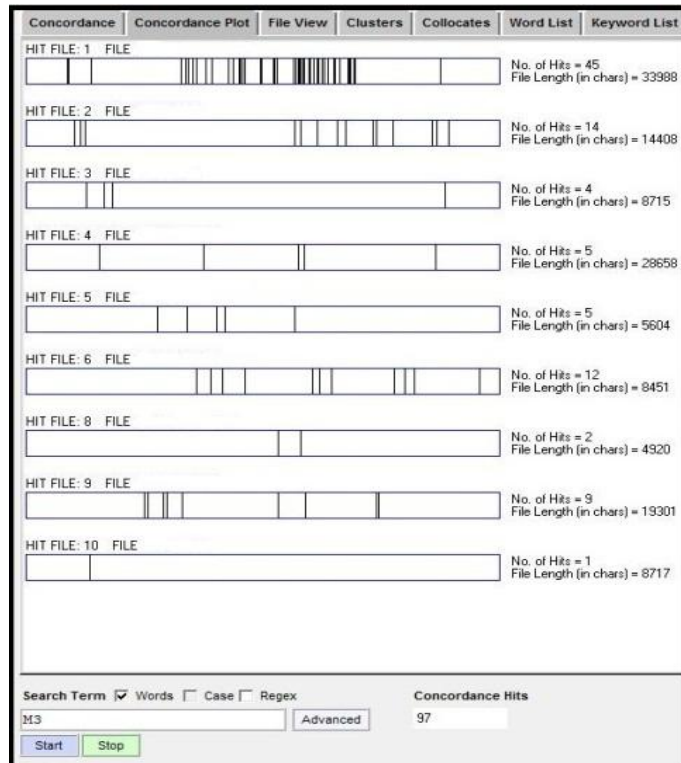
Table 8: Stance Markers in Move 3 across Turkish and NS Corpora

	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness
Moves	98	5.177	-	167	-	-
Word Types	559	-	-	1113	-	-
Word Tokens	2089	-	-	4728	-	-
Hedges	65	-	-	256	16.988	3.26
Boosters	32	-	2.429	65	-	2.166
Attitude Markers	64	-	4.424	158	-	-
Self-Mentions	7	-	-	11	-	-

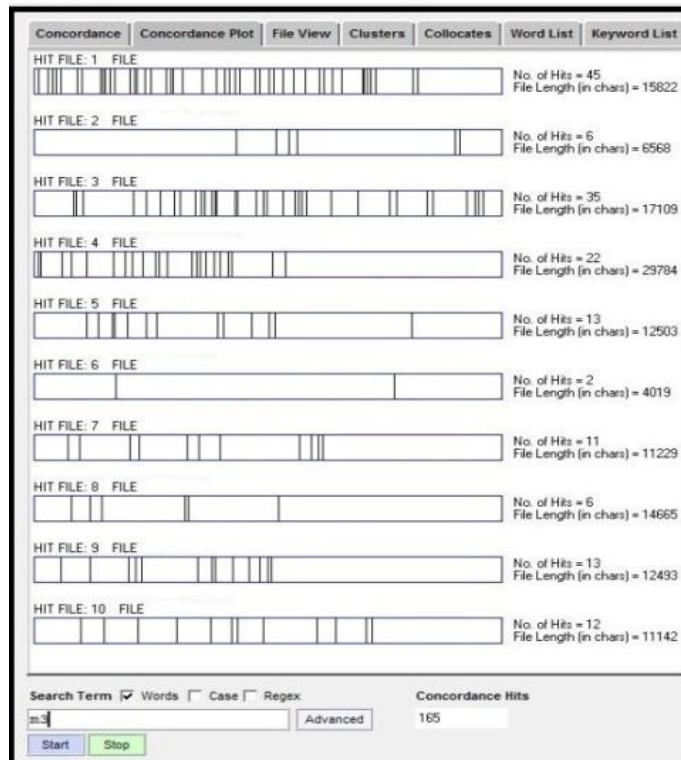
As is apparent from Table 8, in Move 3, the difference in hedging usage by both groups is quite striking with 16.988 keyness, and NSs' hedging frequency is nearly 5 times higher than that of Turkish students' (65 and 256, respectively). Considering Turkish corpus, boosters and AMs are characteristic markers of Move 3. As for NSs, hedges and boosters emerge as key markers compared to other moves in NS corpus. Self-mentions are used more often by NSs in this Move.

Figure 7: Distribution of Move 3 across the Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

Figure 7 shows the distribution of Move 3 in Turkish theses. Only one thesis absorbed the highest number of frequency, with 45 hits. As regards to NSs, a dispersed distribution similar to Turkish corpus is the case. Two of the theses occupied the highest frequencies with 45 (File 1) and 35 (File 3) hits, and the dispersion is located slightly towards the initial parts of the discussion sections on the part of the NSs' theses.

4.2.1.4. Move 4 – Referencing Previous Research

Move 4 represents comparing and contrasting the findings with literature, or applying to literature to support the claims made by the writers. As mentioned in the Methodology chapter of this study, Move 4 has not been analysed in terms of stance markers because quotations and paraphrasing require a different kind of analysis from other Moves.

As is apparent from Table 9 and Figure 8, although NS corpus employed many more Move 4s than Turkish corpus, Move 4 appeared a key Move on the part of Turkish corpus, which is most probably because of the high rate of the word tokens of Turkish theses.

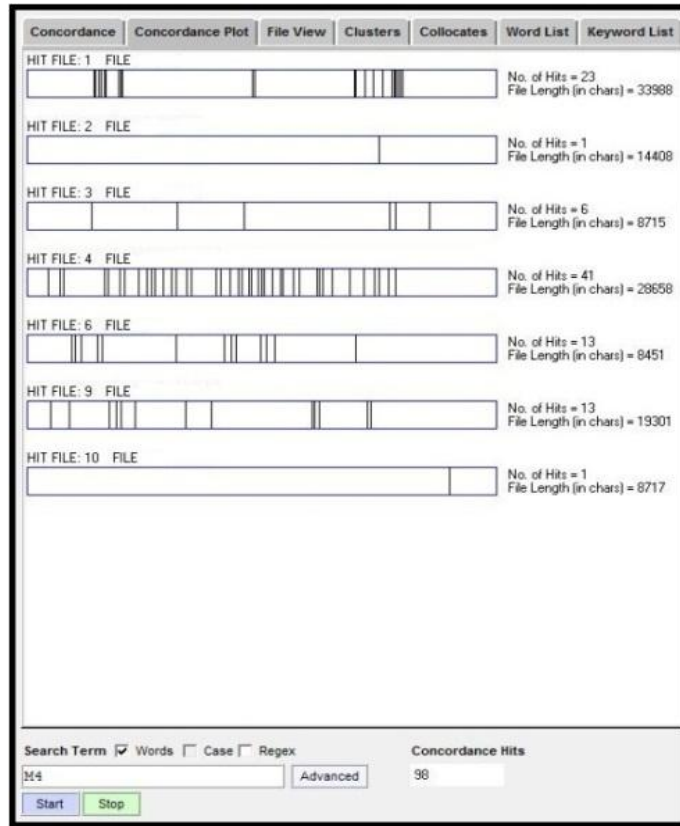
Table 9: Move 4 across Turkish and NS Corpora

	Turkish Corpus		Native Corpus	
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness
Total Number Of				
Moves	99	3.25	116	-
Word Types	811	-	1130	-
Word Tokens	2373	-	3597	-

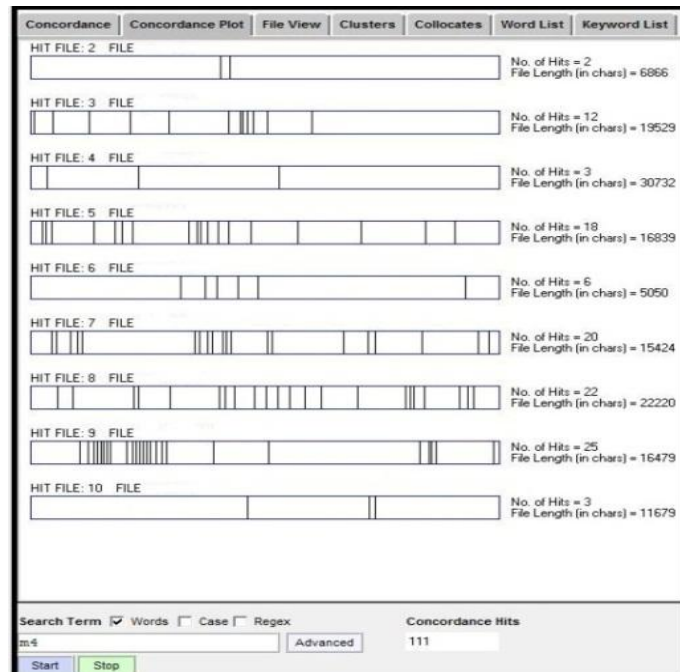
This Move is not considered obligatory as it is not employed by all of the writers from both groups of theses. The distribution does not follow a regular alignment.

Figure 8: Distribution of Move 4 across the Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

4.2.1.5. Move 5 - Making Generalizations and Claims

Move 5 stands for making generalizations arising from the results and making assertions.

Table 10 indicates that theses 1 and 4 ingested the highest frequencies among Turkish theses with 44 and 52 hits, respectively. Regarding NSs, the picture of distribution is more balanced despite relatively small frequencies like 2 and 5 hits in some of the theses (Files 6 and 2, respectively).

Table 10: Stance Markers in Move 5 across Turkish and NS Corpora

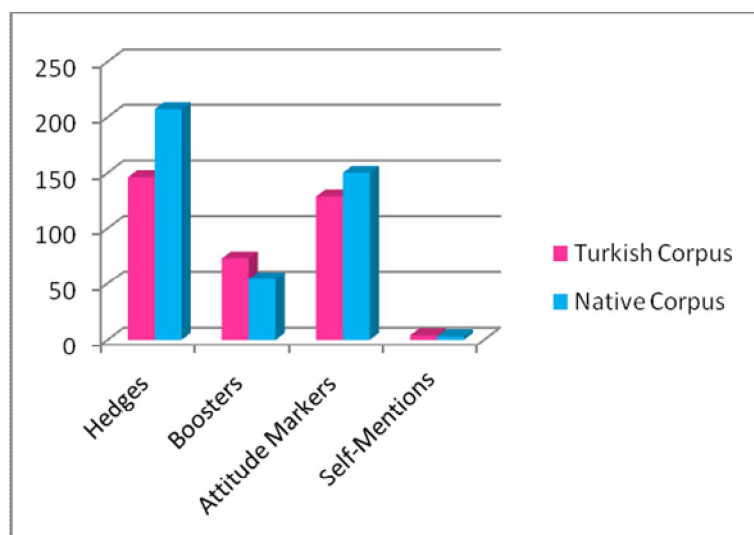
	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move keyness
Total Number Of Moves	214	6.645	-	151	-	-
Word Types	999	-	-	1051	-	-
Word Tokens	4758	-	-	4036	-	-
Hedges	146	-	7.066	207	13.604	-
Boosters	73	-	12.87	54	-	-
Attitude Markers	129	-	9.408	150	2.702	2.38
Self-Mentions	4	-	-	3	-	-

Move 5 was found to be a key marker in Turkish theses with 214 frequency, 6.645 keyness and high tokens of words (4758), which indicates that Turkish students tend to make more generalizations. Turkish students seem to fail evaluating findings and following a logical way to the conclusion without exposing it as a fact.

Hedges, boosters and AMs were found to be key markers in Move 5 compared to other Turkish Moves, which characterize the Move and differentiate it from others. As evidenced in Table 10, hedges (keyness 13.604) and AMs (keyness 2.702) were found to be key markers in NS corpus compared to Turkish corpus. It was also found that AMs were key markers with 2.380 keyness of Move 5 compared to NS Moves. Although Turkish word tokens are larger in number, hedges and AMs are used less frequently, but

the number of boosters is higher compared to NSs' theses. This case implies that in making claims Turkish writers seem more assured and committed to propositions.

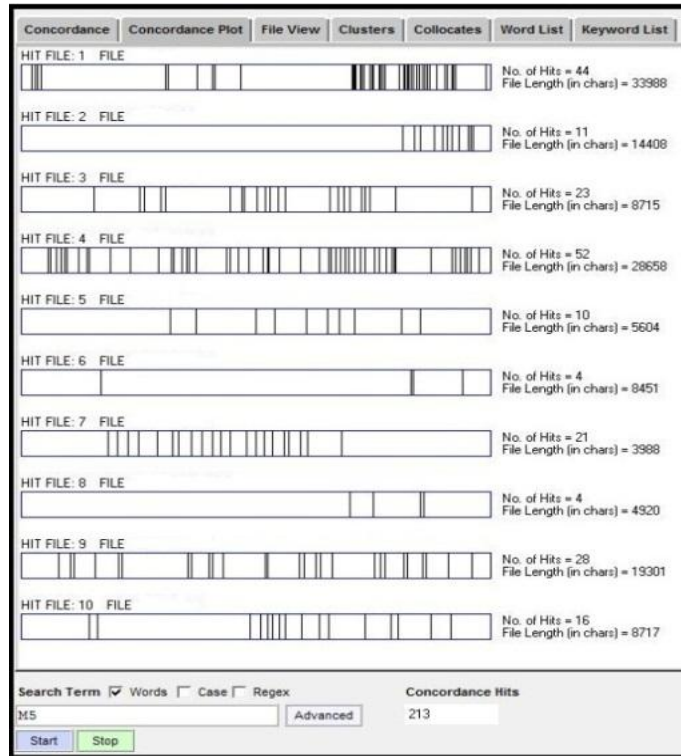
Graphic 12: Stance Markers in Move 5 across Turkish and NS Corpora



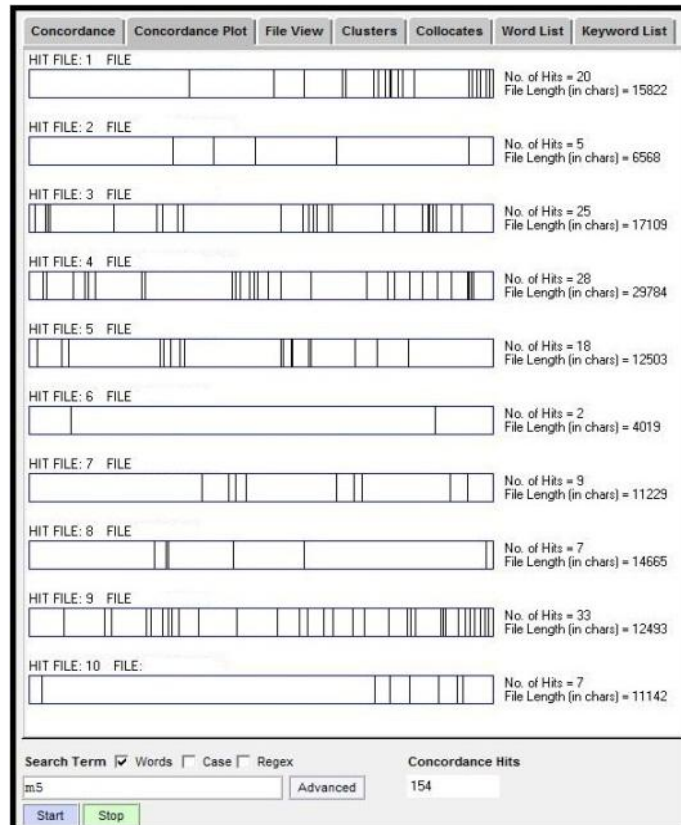
Graphic 12 indicates that, when compared to NS corpus, Turkish students prefer using more hedges, boosters and AMs when making claims but this rate is not statistically significant, as is evident from the keyness value shown in Table 10. Compared to Turkish theses, NSs' theses include fewer tokens and fewer Moves.

Figure 9: Distribution of Move 5 across Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

Figure 9 shows that Move 5 tends to cluster at the end of the section with an imbalanced distribution for both groups, which indicates that both group of students prefer placing their claims at the end of the discussion section after evaluating the results and arguing in favour of their findings.

4.2.1.6. Move 6 - Indicating limitations

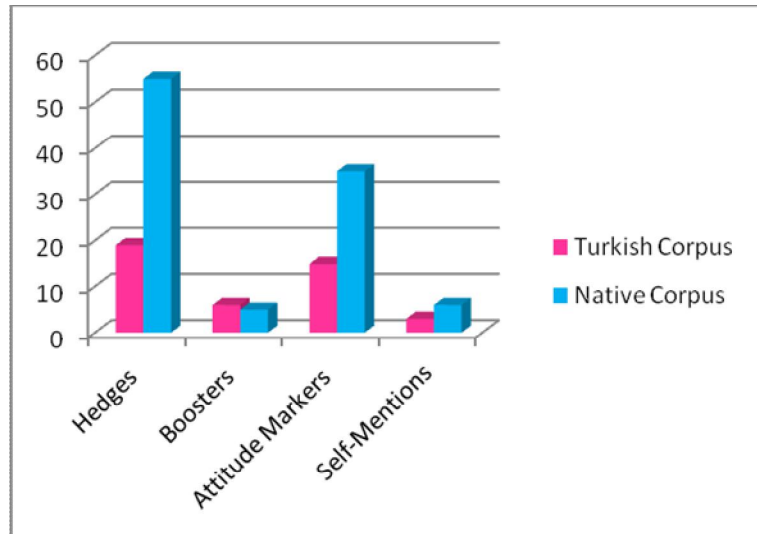
Move 6 corresponds to evaluating the study in terms of its limitations, strengths and weaknesses (Nodoushan & Nafiseh, 2011:114). As is clear from Table 11 and Graphic 13, although NSs' theses exhibit relatively more Move 6s, this rate is not statistically significant because NS corpus has a higher amount of word tokens compared to Turkish corpus, and it could be concluded that NS writers give more room for evaluating the methodology than Turkish writers do.

Table 11: Stance Markers in Move 6 across Turkish and NS Corpora

	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness
Moves	27	-	-	54	-	-
Word Types	204	-	-	421	-	-
Word Tokens	499	-	-	1038	-	-
Hedges	19	-	-	55	1.544	-
Boosters	6	2.305	-	5	-	-
Attitude Markers	15	-	-	35	-	-
Self-Mentions	3	-	-	6	4.847	-

Table 11 demonstrates that hedges and self-mentions are key markers compared to Turkish theses with 1.544 and 4.847 keynesses, respectively. However, these markers were not characteristic markers of the Move compared to other Moves in NS corpus.

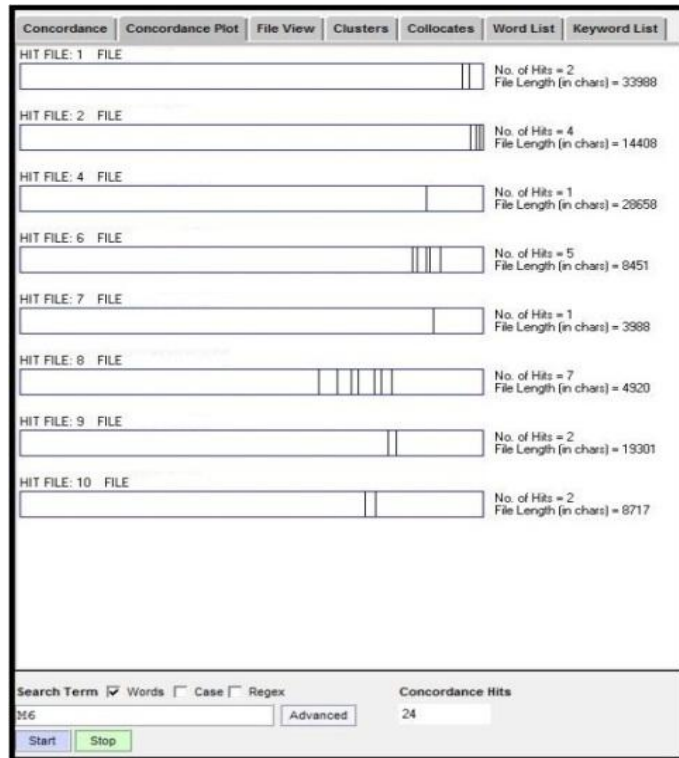
Graphic 13: Stance Markers in Move 6 across Turkish and NS Corpora



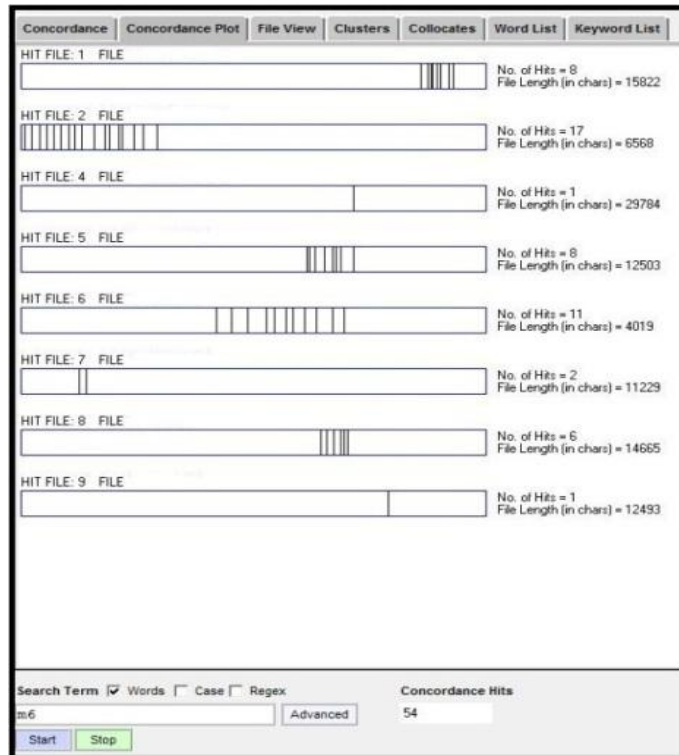
Regarding the distribution of Move 6 in Figure 10, throughout the discussion sections, Move 6 tends to cluster at the final parts of the sections in both groups of theses. Some of the theses include just one Move (Turkish theses, Files 4 and 7; NS theses, Files 4 and 9), and some do not (Turkish theses, Files 3 and 5, NS theses, Files 3 and 10), which implies that Move 6 is not obligatory for either group of theses in discussion sections.

Figure 10: Distribution of Move 6 across the Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

4.2.1.7. Move 7 - Drawing Pedagogical Implications

Move 7 represents drawing pedagogical implications. Table 12 indicates that Move 7 is a key marker in Turkish corpus, because of the small amounts of tokens accompanied by slightly higher amounts of Moves in contrast to the case with NS corpus.

Table 12: Stance Markers in Move 7 across Turkish and NS Corpora

Total Number Of	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness
Moves	56	8.141	-	55	-	-
Word Types	397	-	-	633	-	-
Word Tokens	1066	-	-	1857	-	-
Hedges	32	-	-	91	6.864	-
Boosters	8	-	-	20	-	-
Attitude Markers	73	2.61	-	96	-	-
Self-Mentions	1	-	-	11	5.309	-

As is apparent from Table 12, NS students use more AMs. Yet, because Turkish students use fewer words when compared to NSs, AMs were found to be key markers in Turkish students' theses with 2.61 keyness.

Graphic 14: Stance Markers in Move 7 across Turkish and NS Corpora

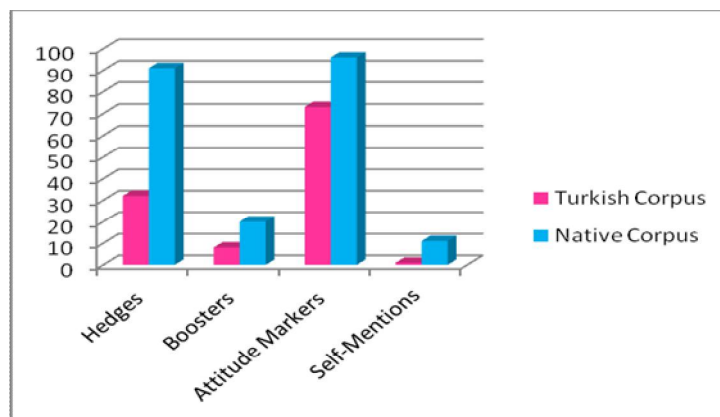
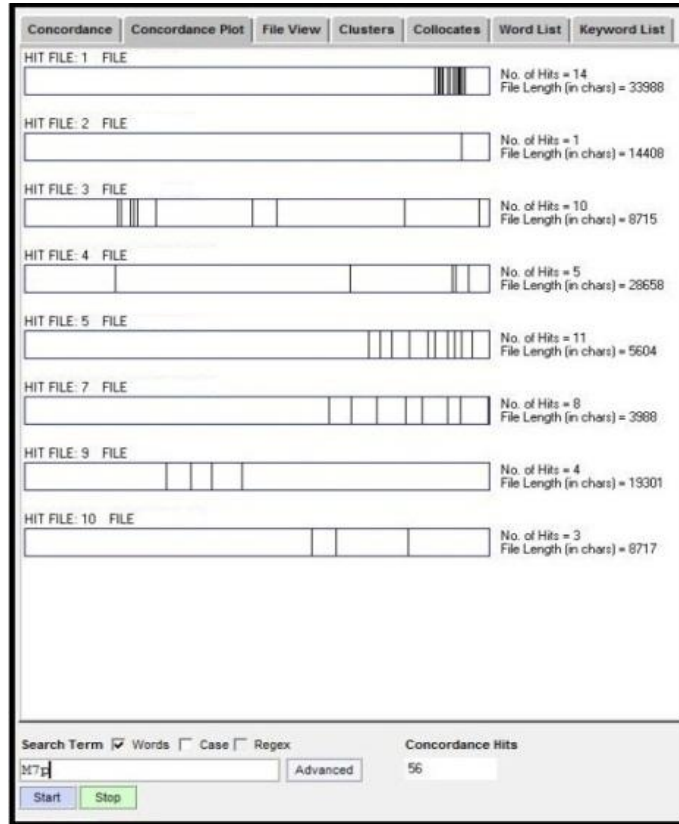
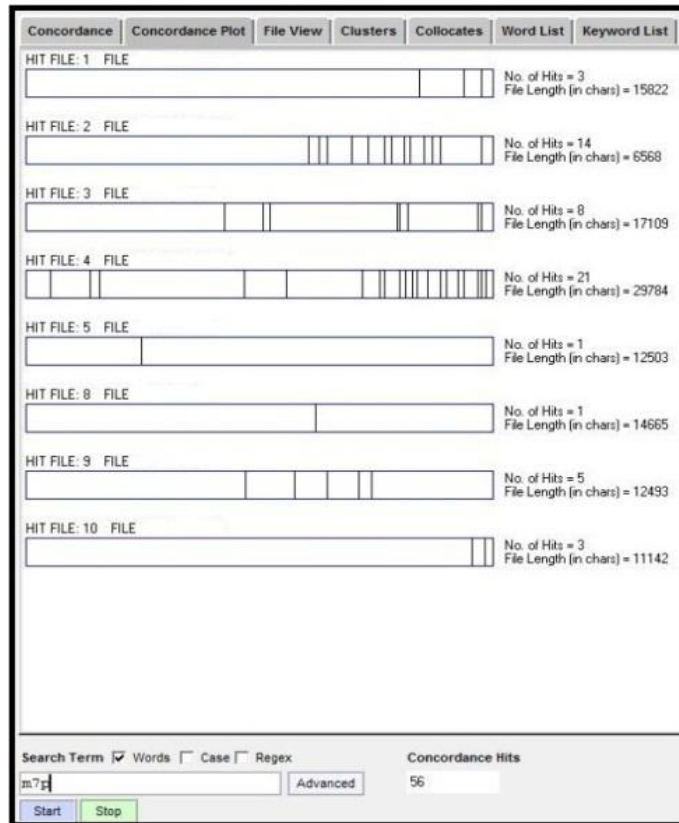


Figure 11: Distribution of Move 7 across the Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

In Table 12 and Graphic 14, self-mentions and hedges were key markers in NS corpus compared to those in Turkish theses. It is clear from the high rate of hedging that NS students seem to approach the pedagogical implications quite cautiously.

Figure 11 indicates that with a few exceptions, Move 7 is preferred in the final parts of the discussion sections in both groups (See Figure 11). Some of the theses only include one Move for pedagogical implications (Turkish corpus, Files 5 and 8; NS corpus, File 2) and some do not have any pedagogical implications Move (Turkish corpus, Files 6 and 7; NS corpus, Files 6 and 8), which demonstrates that this Move is not obligatory in either group.

4.2.1.8. Move 8 - Recommending Further Research

Move 8 represents making suggestions for further research. Table 13 and Graphic 15 indicate that the frequency of Move 8 was found to be key (keyness 3.103) because of the small amounts of tokens accompanied with slightly higher amounts of Moves, in contrast to the case with NS corpus. However, NS corpus includes relatively higher amounts of Moves and twice the amount of tokens compared to Turkish corpus.

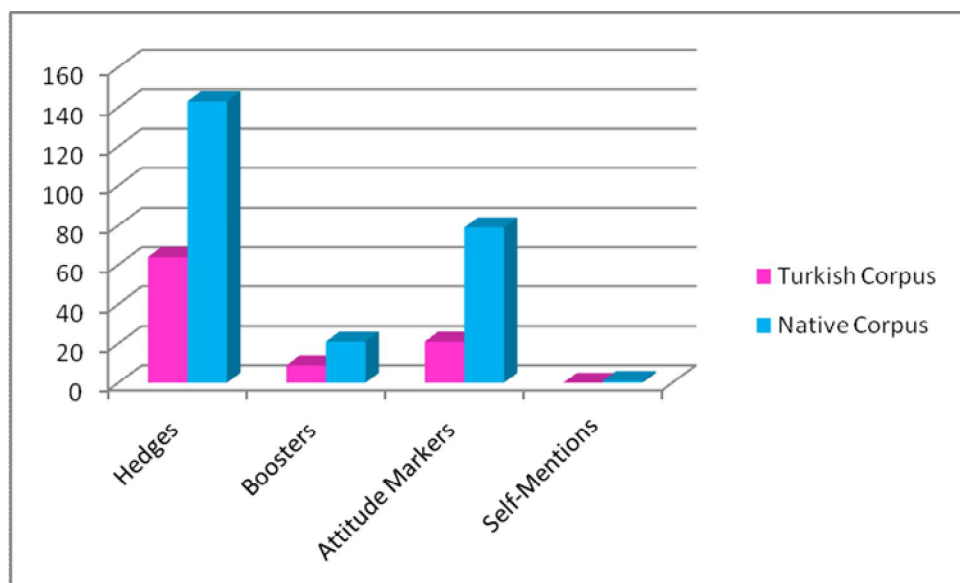
Table 13: Stance Markers in Move 8 across Turkish and NS Corpora

	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move keyness
Total Number Of						
Moves	43	3.103	-	72	-	-
Word Types	326	-	-	728	-	-
Word Tokens	947	-	-	2277	-	-
Hedges	64	-	36.536	143	-	7.399
Boosters	9	-	-	21	-	-
Attitude Markers	21	-	-	79	3.894	-
Self-Mentions	0	-	-	1	-	-

AMs were found to be key markers in NS corpus (keyness 3.894) compared to Turkish corpus, as indicated in Table 13. Notwithstanding, the frequency of hedges in NS corpus are twice more frequent than in Turkish theses. Hedges are not key on the part of

NS corpus, as evident in Table 13. This could be the result of the higher numbers of word tokens in NS corpus. Nevertheless, Table 13 indicates that hedges in both groups are key markers of the Move compared to other Moves. This means that hedging is the characteristic marker of Move 8 for both groups.

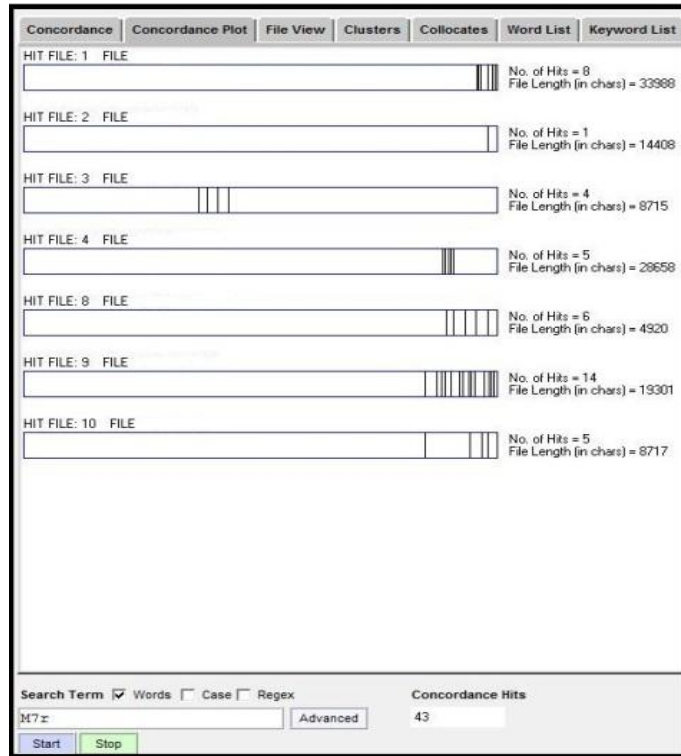
Graphic 15: Stance Markers in Move 8 across Turkish and NS Corpora



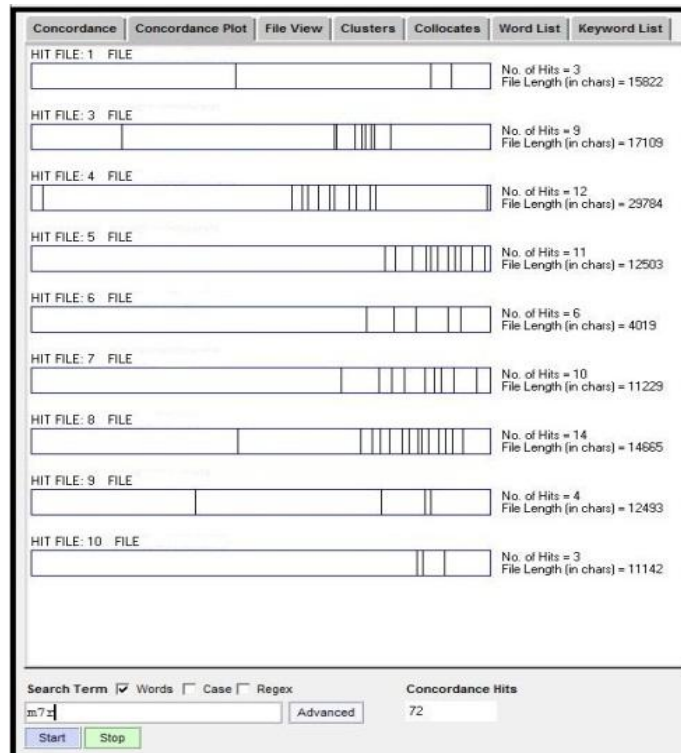
Concerning the distribution, the case is similar to that of pedagogical implications Move (Move 7). The clusters tend to appear in the final parts of the discussion sections (See Figure 12). Some of the Turkish students' theses do not include any Move for further research (Files 5, 6 and 7), which means Move 7 is not considered obligatory by Turkish students.

Figure 12: Distribution of Move 8 across Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

4.2.1.9. Move Cycles

Unlike introductions, discussion sections work from inside out and progressively widen the scope (Swales, 1990; Peacock, 2002; Yang & Allison, 2003). A similar case largely holds true for both groups of corpora; however, it is also possible to observe the reverse case in some of the theses which do not follow the same evolving patterns. Table 14 demonstrates that all Turkish students' discussion sections begin with "background information" and nearly all of them move on to reporting results. Nevertheless, no such regularity is the case for NSs' theses. A large number of the NSs' theses close with *pedagogical implications* or *recommendations for further research* and *making claim* Move cycles. Slightly similar cycles appear in the closing parts of discussion sections of Turkish students' theses, as evident in Table 14.

Table 14: Move Cycle Patterns across Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus	
	Cycle Pattern	Freq	Cycle Pattern	Freq
1	Move 1- Move 2	28	Move 3- Move 2	42
2	Move 2- Move 1	18	Move 2- Move 3	55
3	Move 2- Move 3	38	Move 5- Move 2	19
4	Move 3- Move 2	33	Move 2- Move 5	13
5	Move 2- Move 4	23	Move 5- Move 7	22
6	Move 4- Move 2	18	Move 7- Move 5	16
7	Move 2- Move 5	27	Move 4- Move 5	16
8	Move 5- Move 2	24	Move 5- Move 4	15
9	Move 7- Move 5	25	Move 3- Move 5	21
10	Move 5- Move 7	30	Move 5- Move 3	13

Table 14 shows that the cycles of Move 2-Move 3 and Move 3-Move 2 are the most frequent ones in both corpora. Turkish students, like NS students, mostly seem to locate their comments immediately after reporting results. It can be concluded from Move 2-Move 4, Move 4-Move 2 and Move 4-Move 5 cycles (23, 18 and 30 hits, respectively) that Turkish students use Move 4 to compare the results of the study with the literature and to support their claims. Regarding NSs' theses, Move 5 (making generalizations and

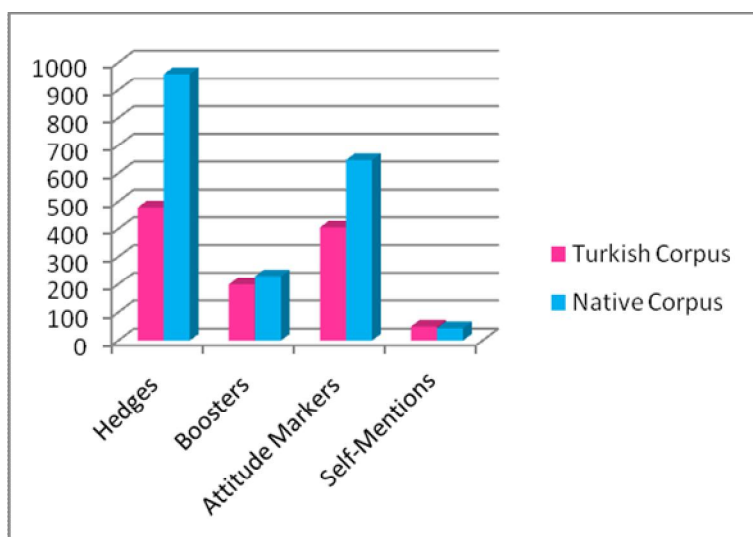
claims), is used after Move 3 (evaluating results) or is followed by it. Yet, the reverse is the case for Turkish students: They avoid using Move 5 (making claims) after or before evaluating the results. Rather, they prefer to use Move 5 after or before reporting results, which might be interpreted as their tendency to arrive at quick generalizations.

4.2.2. Stance Analysis

Stance analysis can be conducted in different ways (Biber, 2004, 2006a, Perez-Llantada Auria, 2008), but this study adopts Hyland’s (2005a) stance taxonomy within an ESP approach, which includes the analysis of hedges, boosters, AMs and self-mentions.

Table 16 demonstrates key stance markers in both corpora. In Turkish corpus, *can*, *think*, *we*, *some* and *should* exhibit high frequencies. *Can* is the most frequent stance marker (121 hits) of Turkish corpus with the highest keyness (39.277). That can be considered a weaker hedging compared to other modal hedges used by NSs’ with higher frequencies and keyness such as *could* (58 hits, keyness 39.952), *would* (76 hits, keyness 32.037), *may* (85 hits, keyness 19.108) and *might* (30 hits, keyness 17.009).

Graphic 16: Stance Markers across Turkish and NS Corpora



Graphic 16 and Table 15 illustrate that NS students prefer modal hedges whereas Turkish corpus is not rich in (modal) hedges; mostly AMs appear in the top ten keywords list. *Should* occurs as the most frequent AM with 48 hits in Turkish corpus. The high

frequency of some in Turkish corpus might be the result of “the need for guarded generalizations” (Biber et al., 1999:277). Also, *a lot of*, which signifies casual speech, occurs rather less frequently in Turkish corpus.

Quite surprisingly, Table 15 demonstrates that none of the stance markers were found to be key markers in Turkish corpus, which suggests that Turkish students seem to avoid presenting clear and marked stance compared to NS students in the discussion parts of their theses.

Table 15: Keywords across Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus				Native Corpus		
	Keyword	Freq	Keyness	Keyword	Freq	Keyness
1	Can	121	39.277	Could	58	39.952
2	Think	30	37.636	Would	76	32.037
3	We	15	12.83	May	85	19.108
4	Some	61	9.079	Might	30	17.009
5	Considerable	4	6.027	Fact	18	10.205
6	Easily	4	6.027	Advantage	8	10.182
7	Efficiently	4	6.027	Appears	8	10.182
8	A lot (of)	4	6.027	Appear	8	10.182
9	Should	48	5.945	indeed	8	10.182
10	Indicated	23	4.922	Best	20	9.855

4.2.2.1. Hedges

Hedging enables writers to handle facts more cautiously, to present their arguments and ideas as a tentative fact or an opinion which “is based on plausible reasoning” rather than accredited fact (Hyland, 2005:178). Hedges also have a different function which is quite weightier than other stance markers: They indicate respect to readers’ views allowing them “a discursive space where readers can dispute their claims” (p. 179) and save writers from the risk of contradicting with the literature.

Graphic 17: Hedge Distribution in All Moves across Turkish and NS Corpora

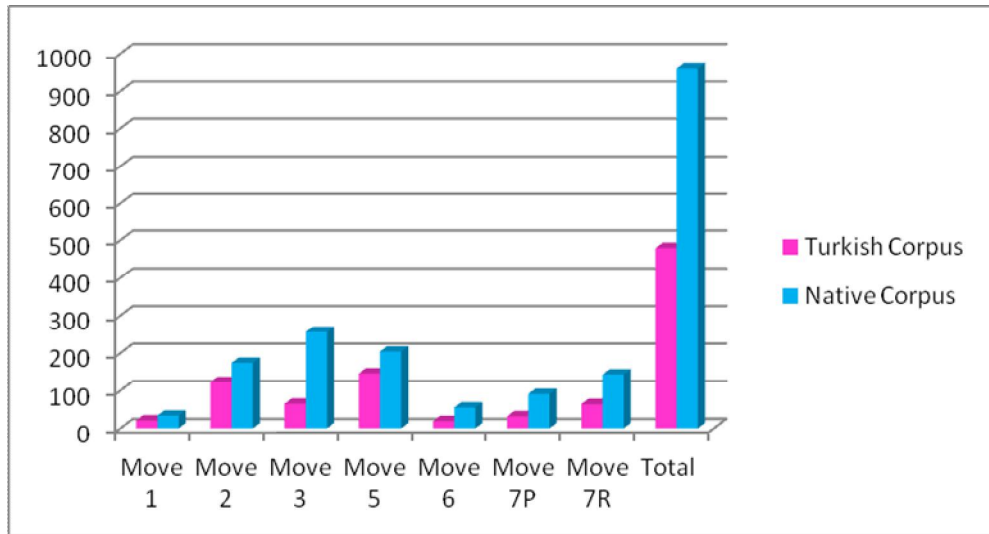


Table 16 and Graphic 17 demonstrate that hedges are the most frequent stance markers used by both Turkish students and NS students; however, NS students use stance markers twice more frequently than Turkish students do (959 and 479 hits, respectively).

Although not statistically significant, hedges mostly appeared in Moves 2 (123 hits) and 5 (146 hits) on the part of Turkish students, which means hedges are mostly used in reporting results and making claims; however, this rate is quite low compared to NS students. Hedges did not appear to be a statistically significant character of Turkish corpus. As is apparent from Table 16, in Move 8 (recommending further research), hedges appeared characteristic (statistically significant) of Move 8, among other Moves in Turkish corpus.

Table 16: Distribution of Hedges in the Moves across Turkish and NS Corpora

	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move keyness
Move 1	21/3058	-	-	34/1533	18.083	-
Move 2	123/4907	-	-	174/4097	18.911	-
Move 3	65/2089	-	-	256/4728	16.988	3.260
Move 5	146/4758	-	-	204/4036	13.604	-
Move 6	19/499	-	-	55/1038	1.544	-
Move 7	32/1066	-	-	91/1857	6.864	-
Move 8	64/947	-	36.536	143/2277	-	7.399
Total	479/17560	-	-	959/19738	91.136	-

Regarding NS corpus, with the exception of Move 8, frequency of hedges is statistically significant in all of the Moves when compared to Turkish corpus. Besides, overall hedging was found to be the characteristic of NS corpus with 91.136 keyness. This suggests that NS students handle the propositions more cautiously by leaving room for readers' discussion, and that they avoid being challenged by the discourse community and contradicting with the literature.

Table 17 indicates that *can* is the most frequent hedge marker in Turkish theses, whereas it came fifth in NS theses. The first ten most frequent hedges of NSs include modals such as *may*, *would*, *could*, *can* and *might*. This rate is scant on the part of Turkish corpus. Turkish students use *can*, *may* and *would* with lower frequencies, and prefer using quantifiers as hedges.

Can was a characteristic marker in Turkish corpus with 39.277 keyness. The words *some* and *indicated* follow with keynesses 9.079 and 4.922, respectively. *More* (keyness 3.403), *may* (keyness 19.108), *would* (keyness 32.037), *could* (keyness 39.952), *might* (keyness 17.009), and *much* (keyness 10.772) were keywords in NSs' theses, as shown in Table 17.

Epistemic possibility refers to “writer’s assessment of truth” or possibility (Hyland, 1998a). Table 17 indicates that Turkish students tend to avoid epistemic modals (i.e. could, may, might) which carry a stronger possibility, rather than practice *can* for hedging. Although “can” indicates possibility, it is not considered an epistemic modal and functions weakly in hedging (Hyland, 1998d; Gabrielatos & McEnery, 2005). Notwithstanding, epistemic modals were found to be the most frequent keywords and the most frequent hedge markers in NS corpus. Turkish students prefer quantifiers as initial hedging markers unlike NS students, as Table 16 and Graphic 11 indicates.

Table 17: Most Frequent 10 Hedges across Turkish and NS Corpora

		Turkish Corpus		Native Corpus		
		Freq	Ref. Corpus keyness		Freq	Ref. Corpus keyness
1	Can	116	39.277	More	116	3.403
2	More	73	-	May	85	19.108
3	Some	61	9.079	Would	76	32.037
4	May	32	-	Could	58	39.952
5	Indicated	23	4.922	Can	50	-
6	Most	22	-	Some	37	-
7	Many	19	-	Most	37	-
8	A large number of	10	-	Might	30	17.009
9	Would	9	-	Many	22	-
10	Possible	8	-	Much	21	10.772

May is the most frequent epistemic modal (85 hits) used by NS students with 19.108 keyness which functions epistemic possibility like *might* (30 hits) with 17.009 keyness. *Might* exhibits a higher degree of tentativeness than *may* (Hyland, 1998d).

Would was found to be a key hedging marker in the NS corpus (32.037) which indicates hypothetical prediction and “tentative expression rather than a genuine hypothesis”. Another frequent hedge marker *could* (58 hits), which functions “tentative possibility” (Hyland, 1998d: 109), was found to be a key hedge marker in NS corpus with 39.952 keyness.

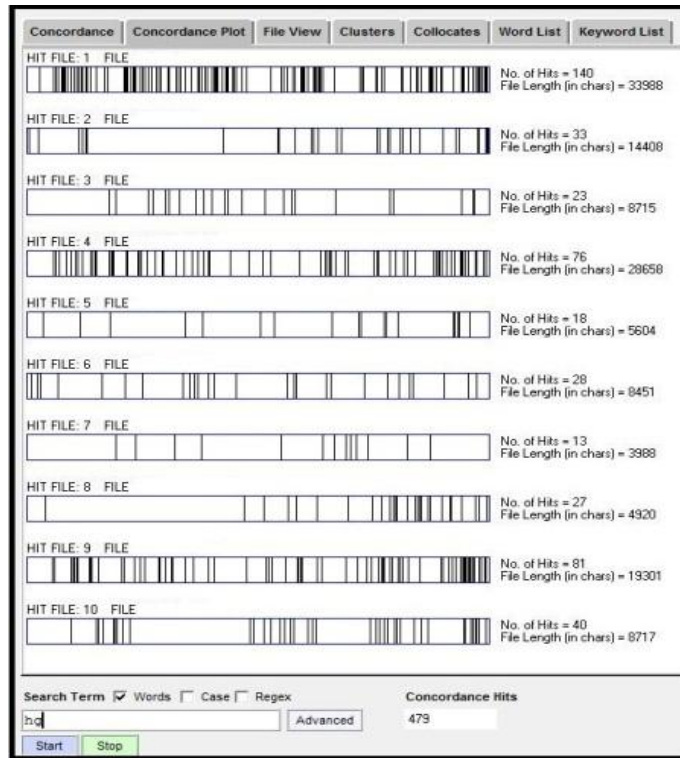
The results indicate that NSs try to create a secure atmosphere in which they can freely raise their ideas and search for approval by hedging. Modals might be considered stronger in hedging than quantifiers, as modals affect the overall stance of a sentence, whereas quantifiers have influence on the nouns they determine.

In Turkish corpus the epistemic lexical verb *indicate* as a means of tentative expression occurred as one of the most frequent hedge markers with 4.922 keyness. Epistemic lexical verbs function as “a linguistic sleight of hand by implying that any reasonable and informed reader would draw the same conclusions,” and enables the writers to impersonalize the source of data by making “the text or the data the source of epistemic judgements” (Hyland, 1998d: 123).

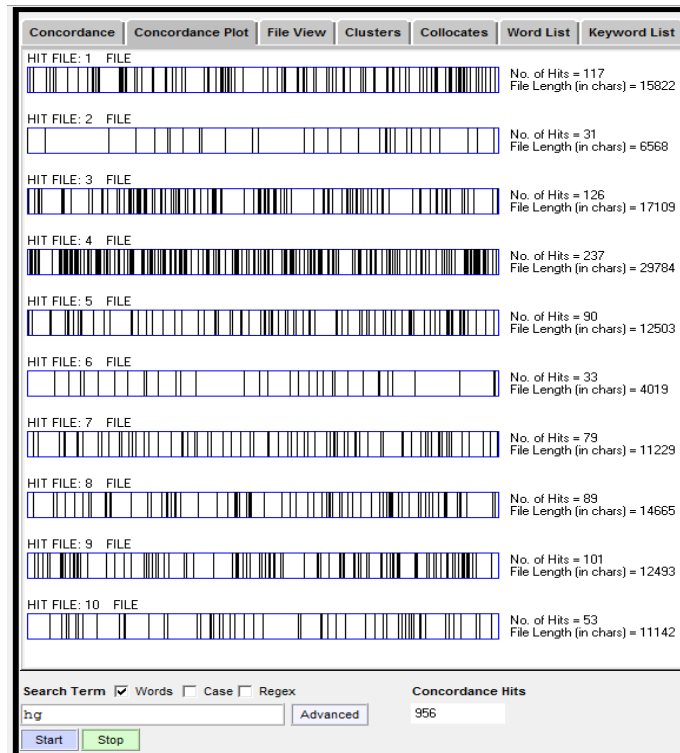
The distribution of the hedges throughout Turkish corpus shows that File 1 absorbs the heavier portion of hedges with 140 hits and the rest tend to scatter to the end of the discussion section, aligned to the right (See Figure 13). In NS corpus, File 4 employed far more hedges with 237 hits, but the overall picture reflects a more balanced distribution compared to the Turkish corpus distribution of hedges.

Figure 13: Distribution of Hedges across Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

4.2.2.2. Boosters (Emphatics)

Boosters communicate certainty and indicate “involvement with the topic” (Hyland, 2005a:179). Boosters are generally balanced through hedging in order to prevent any negation by the reader. Like hedges, boosters signify ideas and writers’ attitude towards the propositions.

Graphic 18: Distribution of Boosters across Turkish and NS Corpora

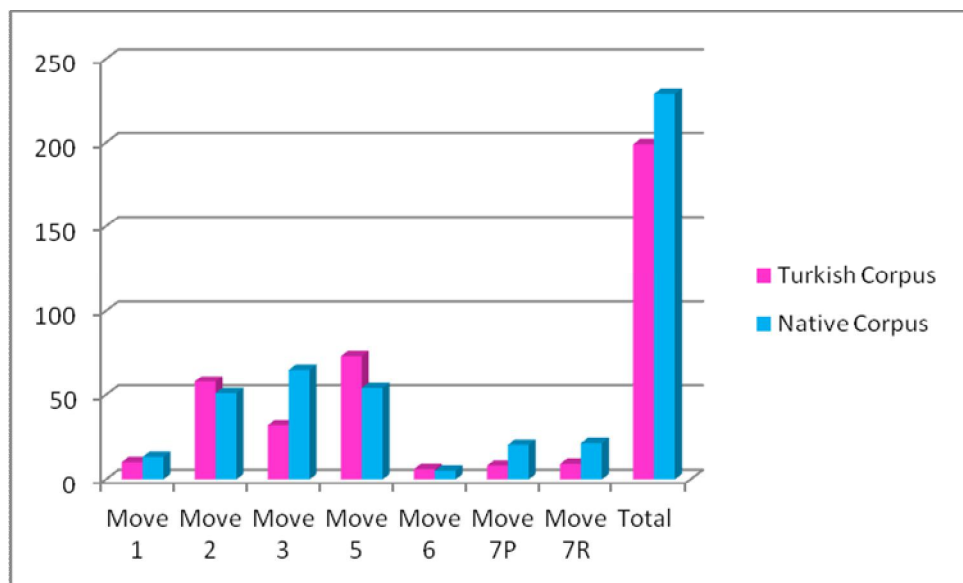


Table 18 and Graphic 18 show that boosters are used mostly in Moves 2, 3 and 5 in Turkish students’ theses. However, boosters function as key markers in Moves 3, 5 and 6, compared to other Moves of Turkish corpus. In other words, boosters are used to make claims and evaluate results and methodology. Compared to NS Moves, no keyness was recorded on the part of Turkish corpus. Especially in Move 5, usage of boosters by Turkish students is more frequent than that of NS students, which might result from the fact that Turkish students tend to load authority (Bondi, 2008) to their statements and make somewhat bold assertions compared to NS students in Move 5.

Table 18: Distribution of Boosters (emphatics) across the Moves

	Turkish Corpus			NativeCorpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness
Move 1	10/3058	-	-	13/1533	5.008	-
Move 2	58/4907	-	-	51/4097	-	-
Move 3	32/2089	-	2.429	65/4728	-	2.166
Move 5	73/4758	-	12.87	54/4036	-	-
Move 6	6/499	-	2.305	5/1038	-	-
Move 7	8/1066	-	-	20/1857	-	-
Move 8	9/947	-	-	21/2277	-	-
Total	199/17560	-	-	229/19738	-	-

Boosters were mostly used in Moves 2, 3, and 5, in NSs' corpus. Native speakers used boosters to state and evaluate the results, and make claims. Boosters appeared key only in Move 1, to give background information. Although boosters appeared highly frequently in NS corpus compared to Turkish corpus, there was not a statistically significant difference between NS and Turkish corpora in terms of booster usage. The overall distribution of boosters shows that NS students try to balance their certainty (Silver, 2003) with fairly high amounts of hedges.

As evidenced in Table 19, the most common boosters shared by both corpora are *all*, *very* and *will*. None of the boosters were found to be key in Turkish corpus, whereas some of the boosters such as *fact*, *greater*, and *indeed* were key in NS corpus.

Table 19: Most Frequent 10 Boosters across Turkish and NS Corpora

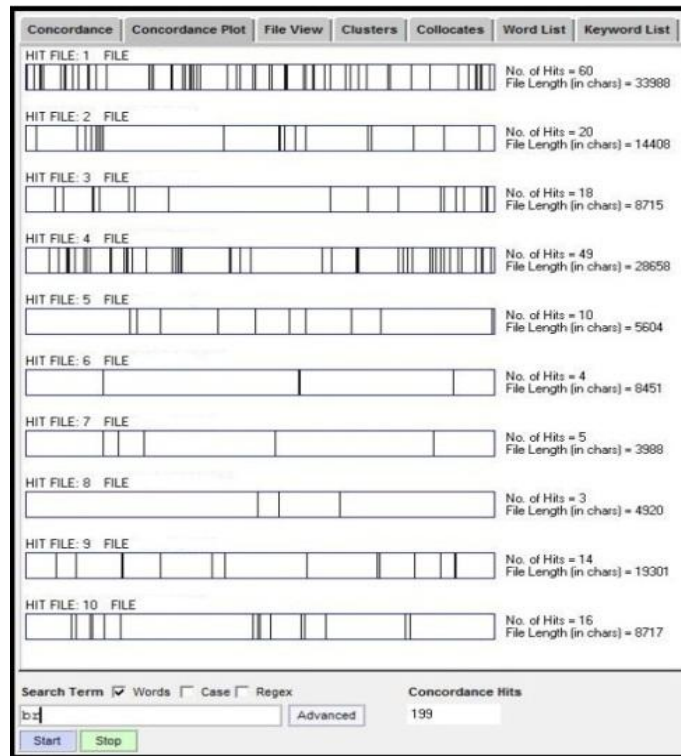
Turkish Corpus				Native Corpus		
		Freq	Keyness		Freq	Keyness
1	All	36	-	All	37	-
2	Very	29	-	Will	22	-
3	Think	25	-	Very	23	-
4	Will	21	-	Fact	18	10.205
5	Believe(d)	6	-	Greater	16	6.375
6	Every	5	-	Indeed	8	10.182
7	Fact	3	-	Demonstrate	7	-
8	Considerable number	4	-	Actually	6	-
9	Clear	4	-	Clearly	6	3.402
10	Impossible	4	-	Always	5	-

Figure 14 demonstrates that, concerning the NSs, theses 3 and 4 receive highest frequencies with 51 and 54 hits, respectively, which affects the overall regular circulation of boosters. In the NS corpus, boosters slightly tend to exist at beginning of the texts.

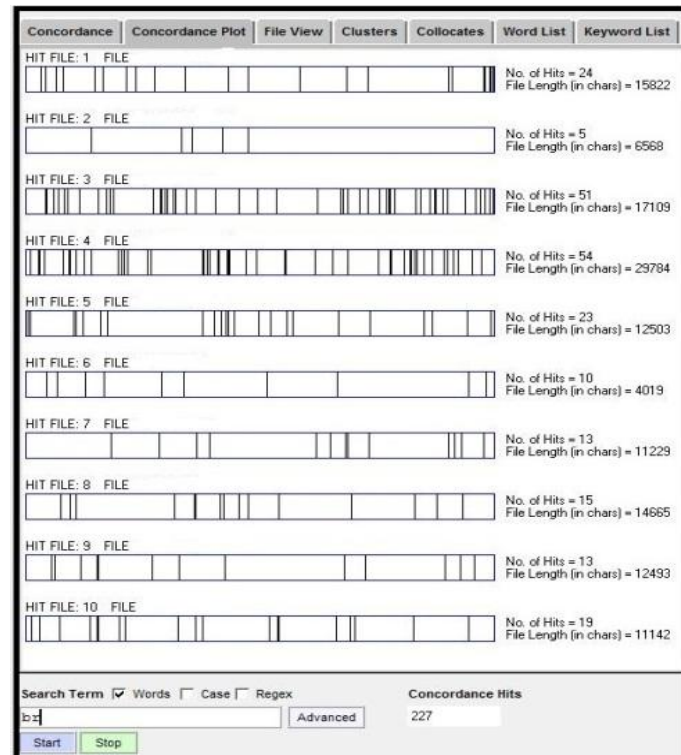
With regard to the distribution of boosters in Turkish corpus, most of them are heavily located in two theses with 60 and 49 hits, respectively (File 1 and File 4, see Figure 13). A slight tendency of boosters to be located at the beginning of the discussion sections makes circulation irregular.

Figure 14: Distribution of Boosters (emphatics) across Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

4.2.2. 3. Attitude Markers

AMs imply the author’s “affective rather than epistemic attitude to propositions”, which communicate appraisal, obligation, agreement, and importance (Hyland, 2005a: 180).

As evidenced in Table 20, the total of 405 attitude markers were mostly used in Moves 3, 5, and 7, and displayed as key in Moves 3 and 5 in Turkish corpus, which means AMs are mostly used by Turkish students to evaluate the results of the study for making generalizations and making claims.

Table 20: Distribution of Attitude Markers across the Moves

	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness
Move 1	18/ 3058	-	-	23/1533	8.604	-
Move 2	77/ 4907	-	-	107/4097	10.92	-
Move 3	64/ 2089	-	4.424	158/4728	-	-
Move 5	129/ 4758	-	9.408	150/4036	2.702	2.38
Move 6	15/499	-	-	35/1038	-	-
Move 7	73/1066	-	-	96/1857	-	-
Move 8	21/947	-	-	79/2277	3.894	-
Total	405/19913	-	-	647/2825	22.205	-

As for NSs, AMs (647 hits) were found to be key (in Move 1, keyness 8.604; 2, keyness 10.92; 5, keyness 2.702 and keyness 8, 3.894). Namely, they were used to give background information, to report results, to make claims, and to recommend further research, as indicated in Table 20. In total, AMs were revealed as key markers in NSs’ theses with 22.205 keyness. NS students presented a stronger and statistically significant stance in terms of AMs than Turkish students.

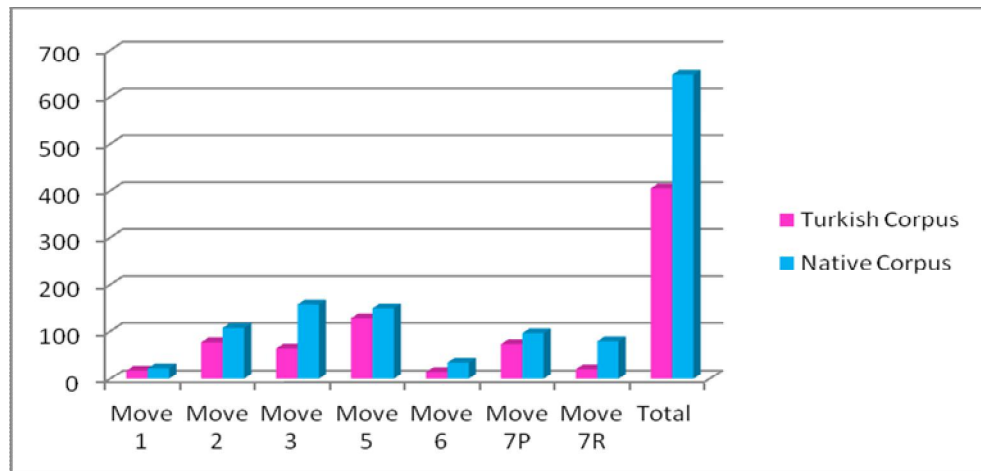
Table 21: The 10 Most Frequent Attitude Markers across Turkish and NS Corpora

		Turkish Corpus		Native Corpus		
		Freq	Keyness		Freq	Keyness
1	Should	48	5.945	Significant	33	-
2	Important	32	4.375	Should	31	-
3	Significant	29	-	Better	25	-
4	Need	18	-	Important	20	-
5	Better	16	-	Difficult	16	3.622
6	Effective	12	-	Effective	11	-
7	Importance of/to	11	-	Need	11	-
8	Enough	12	-	Good	11	-
9	Appropriate	6	-	Even	11	-
10	Difficult	6	-	Well	7	-

Should and *important* were found to be key AMs in Turkish corpus; however, in NS corpus, *difficult* was exposed as key, as Table 21 demonstrates. As regards frequency, both groups shared four common attitude markers: *should*, *important*, *significant* and *better*. Most of the AMs consisted of evaluative adjectives.

AMs allow writers to control the way data is to be interpreted by readers (Blagojevic, 2009); however, it is hard to come across adverbials and modals, with the exception of *should*, for both groups of theses. This may result from the fact that *should* is the AM that is used to express milder stance than other modal AMs like *have to* or *must*. Therefore, the other adverbials were used more often to express attitude in both corpora.

Graphic 19: Distribution of Attitude Markers across Turkish and NS Corpus

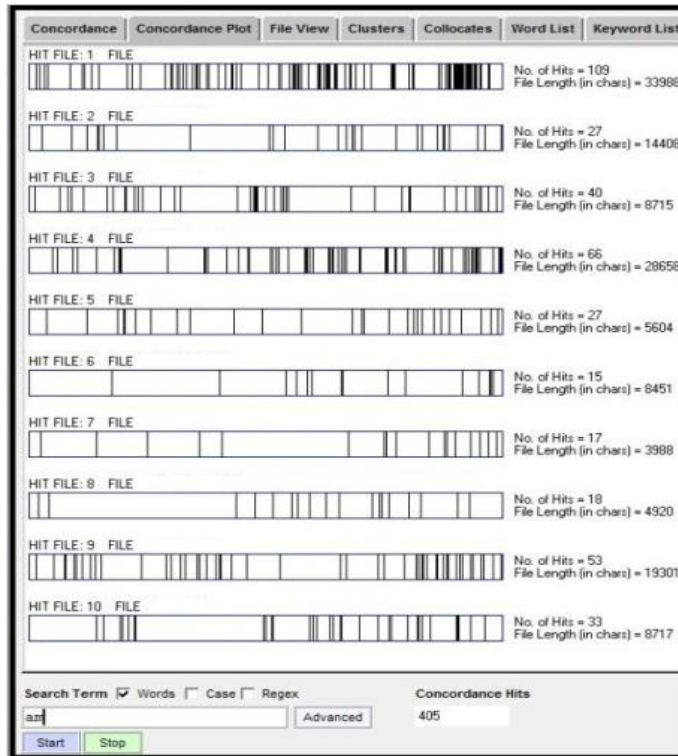


It should be clear from Graphic 19 that NSs students exhibit a greater tendency towards using AMs in their texts in comparison to Turkish students. This finding is in line with Abdullahzadeh's (2011) study examining the NSs and Iranian writers.

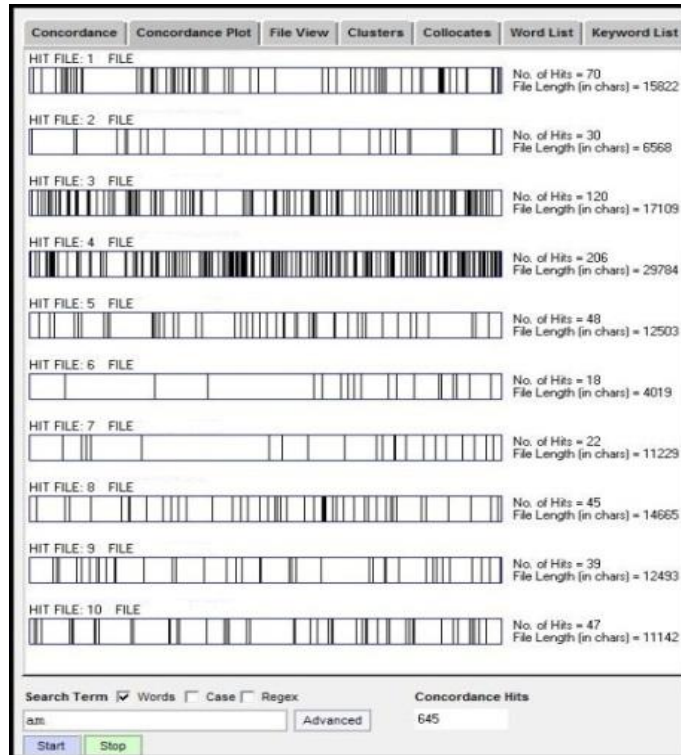
When the distribution of AMs within NS theses is examined in Figure 15, density is accumulated in texts 3 (120 hits) and 4 (206 hits) with balanced circulation. With regard to Turkish corpus, one thesis absorbed a great deal of frequency in terms of AMs (109 hits), and the distribution shows a tendency aligned to the right, towards the end of the texts.

Figure 15: Distribution of Attitude Markers across Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

4.2.2.4. Analysis of Self-mentions

Self-mentions feature writers' presence and personal contributions. As shown in Table 22, self-mentions were not displayed as keywords in both group of theses, but Turkish corpus included slightly more self-mentions than Native corpus. However, in Table 24, the pronoun "we" functions as a keyword with the frequency of 15 tokens and 12.830 keyness in Turkish corpus, whereas it appears to be one of the less frequently used writer pronouns in NS corpus.

Table 22: Distribution of Self-mentions across the Moves

	Turkish Corpus			Native Corpus		
	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness	Freq	Ref. Corpus Keyness	Move Keyness
Move 1	20/3058	-	14.075	6/1533	-	-
Move 2	15/4907	6.921	1.28	3/4097	-	-
Move 3	7/2089	-	-	11/4728	-	-
Move 5	4/4758	-	-	3/4036	-	-
Move 6	3/499	-	-	6/1038	-	-
Move 7	1/1066	-	-	11/1857	-	-
Move 8	0/947	-	-	1/2277	-	-
Total	50	-	-	44	-	-

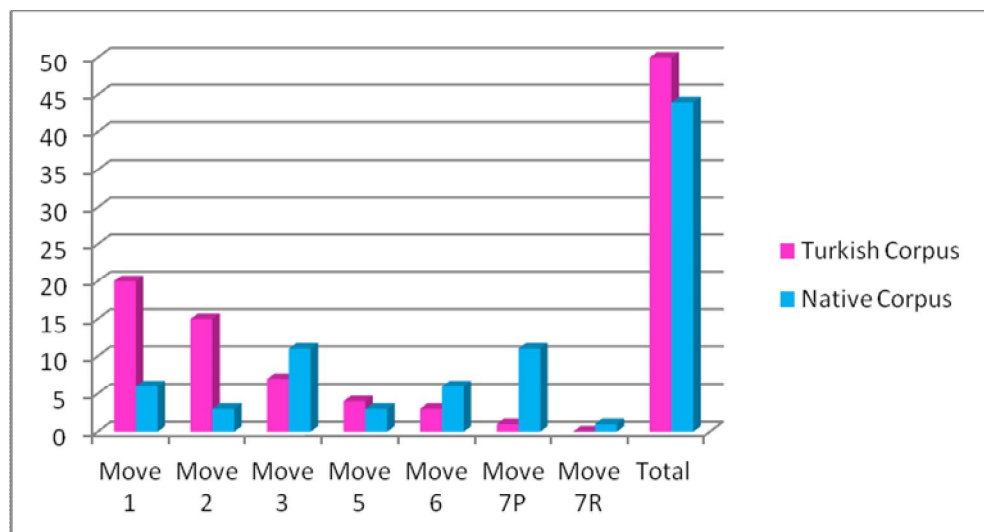
Table 22 demonstrates that Move 1 (background information) and Move 2 (reporting results) reflected highest frequencies of writer pronouns on the part of Turkish corpus. This might indicate that Turkish students take the responsibility of their research design and their results emphasize higher subjectivity than in any other parts. Yet, NS students are inclined to use a personal pronoun when commenting on results and indicating pedagogical implications.

Table 23: Self-mentions across Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus				Native Corpus		
		Freq	Keyness		Freq	Keyness
1	I	15	-	I	17	-
2	We	15	-	The researcher('s)	12	-
3	The researcher('s)	13	12.83	My	10	-
4	My	4	-	She	2	-
5	Herself	1	-	Me	1	-
6	Our	1	-	Mine	1	-
7	Her	1	-	We	1	-
Total		50	-		44	-

The most frequent pronoun used by both groups is *I*. In Turkish corpus, *we* is used as frequently as the pronoun *I*, as shown in Table 25. The higher frequency of *we* in Turkish corpus could imply that Turkish students try to establish a rhetorical distance while not completely eliminating their presence from the text, which provide them safer place than they have with *I*. They may prefer to use *we* instead of *I* in order to protect their stance against the threat of being excluded or challenged by the discourse community.

Graphic 20: Distribution of Self Mentions across Turkish and NS Corpora



According to Graphic 20, the first person was used most frequently to explain a procedure and to report results on the part of Turkish theses. For NS corpus, commenting on results and indicating pedagogical implications are the Moves in which personal

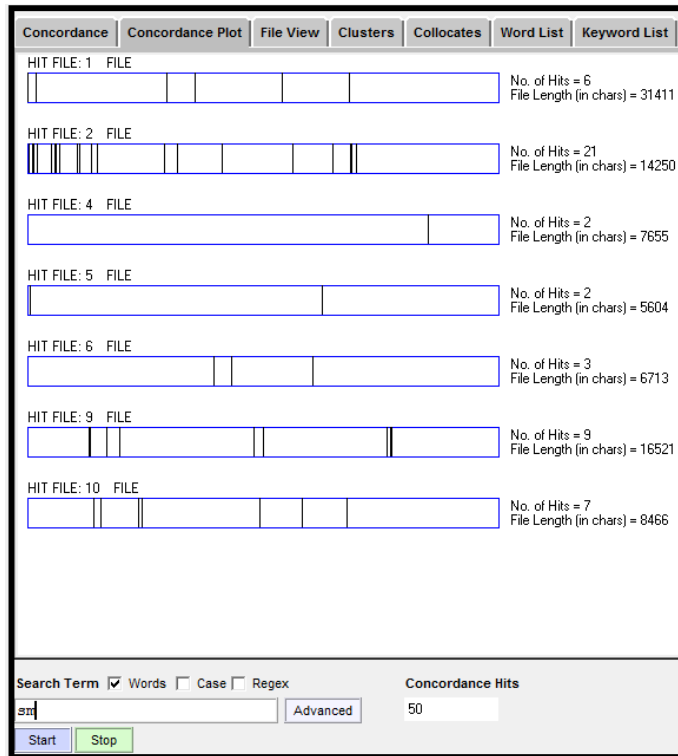
pronouns appeared most frequently. 20 of them were used to explain the procedure, 16 of them were used to state the results, 10 of them were used to make a claim, and 5 of them were used to state goals by Turkish authors.

In NS corpus, self-mentions were used by only 5 students, and appeared once in three theses. Two of the theses (Files 2 and 3) absorbed most of the self-mentions. In File 2, self-mentions were scattered throughout the discussion section and in File 3 self-mentions were squeezed into the end of the section.

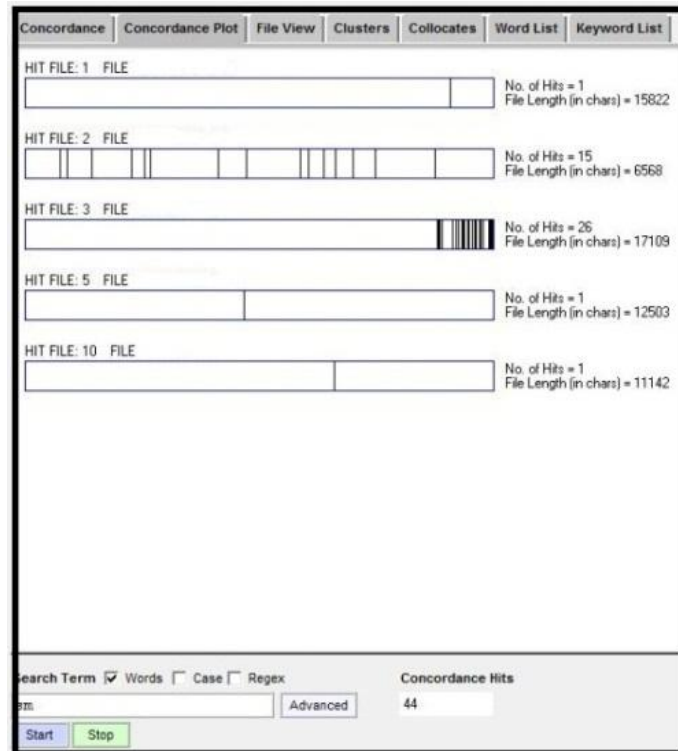
More than half of the self-mentions were employed by just one author in NS corpus. A similar case was also true for Turkish corpus: One thesis held 21 of 50 self-mentions, which indicates that the distribution was not scattered homogeneously. 21 of them were used to state results, 8 to explain procedure, 7 to state goals, and 3 to claim. Consequently, the amount and regularity of self-mentions were not enough to make any generalizations. Notwithstanding, considering the frequency and rate of self-mentions, it is possible to conclude that master's students showed much less visibility in their writing.

Figure 16: Distribution of Self-mentions across Turkish and NS Corpora

Turkish Corpus



Native Corpus



Each line in the horizontal boxes represents a Move.

It is clear from Figure 15 that the distribution of self-mentions in Turkish theses is relatively different from those of NSs'. Self-mentions were displayed in 7 theses and, used twice by two writers, and showed inconsistent tendencies by different authors.

Self-mentions are recognized as the strongest markers which signify a writer's presence in a text (Hyland, 2002b). Displaying a strong identity is needed to show individual contribution and to establish professional credibility. When compared to previous studies (Hyland, 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2003b, 2004c, 2005a, 2009), it can be concluded that self-mentions are used less often (approximately by half) by master's students' theses. This might show that creating a strong identity which links the writer with his/her critical contribution to the specific field can be difficult for master's students, or they might think that academic writing is anonymous.

The reason why self-mentions appeared in relatively lower numbers in theses might result from the fact that students might have avoided authoritative style. Avoidance of self-mention could also be related to recommendations from style manuals, uncertainties regarding disciplinary conventions, culturally shaped epistemologies, culture-specific views of authority, conflicting teacher advice, or personal preferences (Hyland, 2002a).

Reflecting authoritative self can be hard for students, while covering the topic being investigated and at the same time mastering the generic conventions of the discipline (Ivanic, 1998). This might suggest that master's students are not at the best phase "to declare an authoritatively independent self" (Hyland, 2002a:1109).

4.3. Qualitative Data Analysis

A semi-structured interview was conducted with seven of the students who volunteered from among the twenty participants, three participants from NS group and four participants from Turkish group, in order to gain a more holistic view of the phenomenon under investigation. Only four Turkish students and three NS students agreed to participate in the interview. Not all the participants were accessible for face-to-face interviews. Therefore, the researcher conducted two of the interviews face-to-face, four of them via e-mail and one on the phone. The same questions were asked to all those involved and the

interviewees were prompted by supplementary questions. One-on-one and telephone interviews were recorded, and then transcribed by the researcher. After the data collected through interviews were analyzed, the findings were checked by the participants to validate the results. The research questions and the interview questions enabled the researcher to identify certain themes:

- writing background of the students and academic writing instruction,
 - practicing writing
 - genre awareness
 - style awareness
 - the factors affecting sts' development and awareness
 - awareness of discursive features
-
- **Writing background of the students and academic writing instruction**

Two of the NS interviewees stated that they were taught writing in English but they did not receive any academic writing courses or seminars. One of the respondent stated that he took academic writing as a graduate course. However, they were all taught writing in their own language at high school. The instruction that they received at high school seem to have helped them to gain awareness towards writing for a specific purpose, selecting the words and organizing the ideas accordingly.

I am a native English speaker and was taught writing in English and Spanish. My English writing courses included basic high school English in which we learned how to write academic essays, literary analysis, persuasive essays, summaries, comparisons, and correspondence. (NSR3)

I was taught in English and French at high school. I learned how to write in different genres. I learned how to reflect on my own writing critically...not just accepting the facts at face value... I think my writing style is French rather than Anglo-European. (NSR1)

I received basic instruction in academic writing beginning in middle school. My courses in middle school, high school, and college all contributed to my success in writing an academic thesis. The most beneficial course was in research methods in graduate school. In that course I learned how to write for academic journals, and that is the style I used in writing my thesis. NSR3

Two of the Turkish respondents did not receive academic writing course. The respondents who took academic writing course stated that they did not learn about discursive and stylistic features of academic writing related to their discipline. Overall answers from the Turkish respondents seem to suggest that they were not taught academic writing conventions of their disciplines in terms of rhetorical organization and stance taking.

Yes, I attended academic writing course in university in my first year. At first, the lecturer showed us how write and we started to write short paragraphs and the lecturer read these and gave us feedback, so we learnt our mistakes. Later, we started to write longer and longer paragraphs. And finally, at end of the year, we could write academic essays in a short time. Also we learned how to quote from other essays without plagiarising. TR3

... I took writing classes in my preparatory year. We learned topic sentences, signal words, how to write a paragraph and an essay, etc. TR1

I did [take academic writing course]. It helped me choose formal words, formal structures, flow of thoughts, unity and coherence in a paragraph, introducing and concluding my ideas... TR1

I was taught to write in English when I was at university. We had writing classes during the first year of university education... Apart from the writing classes at university, I didn't take any academic writing course. TR2

We did not learn about rhetorical organization or stance markers in the academic writing course. TR1

I haven't received any academic writing as a graduate course. I took writing course in my first year at university but we only learnt how to write a paragraph and small scale essays. TR4

From the above it appears that writing instruction at high school still has an impact on learners' writing process and they continue to accumulate on this background. However, Turkish students started learning writing at a later age when compared to NS students. Probably they did not meet academic writing before they covered the basics and vitals of "writing". Moreover, the content and the method of the writing course appeared to be important, as the following response suggests:

I did not receive any detailed feedback about my writing in terms of the features you mentioned. The instructors generally graded after we completely finished the project. We only saw our grades, not the reasons behind the grades; that is, it was hard to know what makes an article a good one. TR4

- **Practicing writing**

Apparently, NS respondents carry out academic studies during their MA education. They wrote either for academic journals or conferences which suggests that they try to become active members of their disciplines. This practice must have contributed to their genre awareness, because they are in the process of communicating with the expert members of the discipline, responding to academia and being responded by it.

I currently write personal essays, fiction, and poetry in English. While in school, I did a lot of academic writing in English. NSR3

...Just in a Proceedings to a conference on Pronunciation and Second Language Learning and Technology (2010) and a review published in an online journal call TESLEJ. Just this week I submitted an article to the journal *English for Specific Purposes*. NSR2

..These things seem to come naturally to me, perhaps because I have several years of academic writing and teaching experience and I intuitively know where these things should go. NSR2

I write academic articles and conference papers, and I have been working as a tutor at the University Writing Center ... I think, working with the writing center as a tutor has enhanced my own practice and contributed to my understanding the stages of a paper's development, and the process through which writers go, from initial brainstorming to final proofreading. NSR1

However, none of the Turkish respondents have submitted an article to a journal or a conference during their MA education. They only wrote academic essays when needed for their MA courses. This may have affected Turkish writers' genre awareness and engagement to academia. If they had submitted an article to a journal or to a conference, they could have known much about conventions and become more aware of what is valued in their disciplines.

I wrote research papers as a requirement of the course but I have not submitted to any journal or got it published. TR1

I conducted academic research studies and wrote papers as a course project... I have not received any detailed feedback about my writing in terms of the features you mentioned. The instructors generally graded after we completely finished the project. We only saw our grades, not the reasons behind the grade; that is, it was hard to know what makes an article a good one. TR4

When Turkish respondents were asked why they did not submit any papers to journals or conferences they reported the following reasons:

I don't have enough encourage writing an academic essay alone. I want to consult someone who has more knowledge. TR3

I do not know the way to follow in getting my studies published so I did not consider getting my studies published. TR1

I would like to, but I feel that it seems really hard to submit a paper to a journal or conference. Although I conducted a study with my supervisor, it was rejected by some journals. This has really decreased my motivation dramatically. TR4

It is evident from the responses that Turkish students do not feel confident enough to submit research papers. They consider themselves quite novice in their professions and feel that they are still in need of guidance and support. Furthermore, becoming a research writer may not be a purpose of the masters' students.

As stated by one of the Turkish respondents, the content and timing of feedback from the instructors could have played a role in developing genre awareness and establishing students' confidence in terms of being academic members of the professional communities they are writing for. Yet, instructors might have thought it is the responsibility of writing courses and writing course instructors to teach and give feedback on academic discourse and style.

- **Genre awareness**

NS respondents stated that they were not aware of the writing conventions of their discipline till they wrote their theses which made them more confident in academic writing. Research articles and theses guided the writers to realize the features which are required in their disciplines. In the writing process of the theses, writers became more aware by referencing to research papers of their disciplines and reflecting on their writings. The responses suggest that they were not fully unaware of the conventions before they wrote their theses, but they developed and began to employ the conventions by practicing:

During the initial writing stages, I was less aware of these things. I took on a mindset of writing academically and wrote what came naturally to me through that mindset. During editing, I was very aware of the things you mentioned, and I made changes that seemed to fit the discipline better as I read through what I had written. I do feel that I used the conventions you mentioned effectively. For example, the entire thesis is organized like most published literature that describes experiments in linguistics. The jargon is appropriate and specific to linguistics (e.g., input, output, target form). NSR3

I was not aware of some of the conventions of academic writing prior to writing my dissertation. Though I knew much about the stylistic features of academic writing, I was less aware of how to organize my paper and develop rhetorical arguments. I think when I wrote my thesis I was just learning the conventions of academic writing. I think my thesis could have been better organized and I could have developed more arguments. I think I could have better identified gaps in previous research, and pinpointed how my study would help address these knowledge gaps. NSR2

I knew some features of academic writing from the linguistic courses and from my readings. I think, working with the writing center as a tutor has enhanced my own practice and contributed to my understanding the stages of a paper's development, and the process through which writers go, from initial brainstorming to final proofreading. Being a writing tutor has given me new perspectives on writing and this has helped me a lot in writing my thesis. NSR1

The theses of Turkish writers do not clearly support the interview data given below in which the Turkish respondents stated that they were aware of the writing conventions of their disciplines when they wrote their theses:

Yes, I was aware of the academic writing conventions required by my own discipline when I wrote my thesis; such as stylistic and discursive features. I exploited these effectively in my thesis. For example in my thesis you can see that I never used “I” subject pronoun which is not true in writing a thesis. Generally I preferred passive sentences which are more formal. I didn’t repeat the same words many times. I usually used a thesaurus and a dictionary to find synonyms of the words. Paragraph structure was important for me. Therefore I considered it in every paragraph. TR3

Yes, I was aware of the academic writing conventions. Although I haven’t taken any academic writing course, I read lots of theses related to my area and academic texts about academic writing conventions and I had interviews with my friends and teachers who are expert in academic writing. I used all of these in my thesis but I accept that there are many deficiencies in my thesis. TR2

I believe I was aware and I did employ them. As I mentioned before, I have been teaching writing and I believe I have put them into my thesis accurately. For example, I tried to use formal structures and words in my thesis. Also, I wrote topic sentences for each paragraph because it was formal, academic writing. I used signal words to guide my readers from one aspect to another. Also I paid attention to punctuation. TR1

Although not fully, I was a bit aware of the academic writing conventions of my discipline from the sample research papers I wrote for the courses. I did a lot of reading and imitate research articles. I think this practice helped me to recognize the conventionalized style of my discipline. TR4

It could be concluded from the responses that academic writing courses may not help in successful academic writing or provide awareness in terms of discursive and stylistic aspects of academic writing to the extent required in writing a full-fledged research paper to be published or to be a response to the academia. Writers sought help from other sources such as published literature, style manuals and tutors. Some of the respondents benefited from the tutorship they did in academic writing.

- **Style awareness**

The responses from NSs suggest that NSs seem to be aware of their writing style and they reflect on their writing. This awareness indicates that they should become

independent in tutoring their own processes of writing. The responses indicate that they have a clear understanding of writing style:

I am always somewhat aware of my writing style. When I begin writing, I always adopt a mindset appropriate to what I am writing. Then, when I read what I have written and begin revising, I become more conscious of style and make revisions to fine-tune the style. NSR3

I am verbose. I know this. I often provide far more context than is necessary for my reader to understand the most integral aspects of previous research relevant to the issues I am addressing. Because there was no word limit on the thesis, and verbosity is encouraged (especially amongst committee members who like to know the thesis writer has done a sufficient amount of background intervention). Since writing my thesis, I have worked hard to be more concise. NSR2

I am a story teller, so I take notes, tell my story and then rewrite it academically. NSR1

... I sought to interpret the data as objectively as possible and to keep my personal feelings out of my analysis... I worked to keep my personal experience from influencing the way I wrote about the methods and my findings. NSR3

I also looked for answers to some critical questions like 'Have I argued my argument properly?' 'Can I follow my own organization?' 'Have I given sufficient evidence?' 'Have I relied on one authority?' "Have I stated pros and cons, advantages disadvantages?' 'Is the problem solved?' NSR1

As for Turkish writers, they consider the term "style" quite different from NS writers. They commented on their writing style quite vaguely as follows:

Yes, I mostly used the APA style for the overall framework. TR2

If you are talking about APA and MLA as writing styles, yes I know these. While I was at university I studied MLA. Later while I was writing my master thesis, I used APA writing style. There are many rules on how to quote, how to decide on paragraph spaces, lines etc. in both APA and MLA writing styles. TR3

Actually I have never thought on it before... I think I like voicing my own perspective with I-language. TR2

I have never been asked such a question...I should think about it. TR4

... I never used "I" subject pronoun which is not true in writing thesis. Generally I preferred passive sentences which are more formal. I didn't repeat the same words many times... TR3

I think I am aware of my style. Now that I write for academic purposes and teach introduction to academic writing, I am aware of the requirements of my field and I believe I put them into my writing. TR1

Responses from Turkish writers seem to suggest that they are not clearly aware of their writing style. When they were asked subsequent questions related to personal style, they reported that they either had never considered it from another aspect or were not aware of another meaning of *style* in academic writing other than basic style frameworks. It would appear to the researcher that they have never been asked and have never asked this question. This might indicate that Turkish writers tend to neglect reflecting upon their own writing.

- **The factors affecting students' development and awareness**

NS respondents stated that they received feedback from their supervisors in terms of content. In terms of style, the responses below show that they received help from style manuals or guides specific to their discipline and mostly they used published literature of their discipline:

My thesis was not edited in detail by my supervisors. They gave comments and advice on content, but did not help with editing. NSR1

I followed the APA style manual and university specifications as required by my school. In deciding how to structure the thesis, I used other published literature in the field of linguistics and language acquisition as models. The academic style I used reflects the style of current literature in the field. NSR3

I didn't have anyone else edit or revise my thesis. I worked closely with my advisor as I was composing the entire thesis. Once I would finish a chapter of it (a section of the thesis) I would send it to him and get feedback about what I should add more detail to,

delete or revise. His feedback was rather limited and actually quite global, so I was the one who made the more specific changes to it. NSR2

I also consulted some style guides (such as the OWL website at Purdue University) for reference when I had question about in-text citations and bibliography guidelines in APA. NSR2

It is remarkable that NS respondents consider the writing process as an independent activity after they received a certain level of formal education. They also relate it with personal skill and effort. They seem to assume the responsibility of engaging in professional community and they pay a conscious effort to realize it. It is clear from the responses that they are well aware of the process of becoming member of the professional community:

I learned that not everybody is destined for the academia, it takes a certain mentality to do that and being a native speaker does not necessarily guarantee being a successful academic writer. NSR1

... At university we had writing centers, no tutors will do this for you. NSR2

We have 'sink or swim' attitude at universities and some of our friends failed not because they were lazy but they couldn't write academically. NSR1

I do not get help from writing manuals. I benefit from tutors' feedback and from checking other peoples' work. I think reading academic articles is the best way to become aware of the academic writing features. NSR1

It is clear from the responses below that supervisors were the most influencing sources at initial stages of academic writing for Turkish writers. Then students began to seek other sources to feed their style in writing. Previous theses appeared to be the main reference source for the respondents in terms of discourse and style in the reports of the informants:

At first my supervisor was my main source. Of course I really used other theses in the relevant area very effectively. I read a lot of theses many times. I examined their expressions and sentence structures in a very detailed way. TR3

My supervisor, style manuals, and other theses in the relevant area affected my practice. Before I wrote my thesis, I conducted a seminar study as a preliminary to my thesis. This study contributed greatly to my thesis, I practiced academic writing. TR2

My writing was affected by what I learnt in my writing classes, from what I have been teaching, from my supervisor's comments, from theses in my field written before, from peer colleagues' comments... TR1

... from my writing classes at the university and my own experience, I knew about the basic of elements of writing. TR2

My supervisor has never checked my rhetorical organization or the markers I used. Once he said "Make yourself heard", which means I should voice my own ideas on the subject. He also suggested me not to use the pronoun 'I'. TR1

My supervisor did not give me feedback about how to organize my thesis or my arguments, nor did he tell me about stance markers or authorial voice. He gave me feedback on the methodology of my study and the overall content of my thesis. I mostly benefited from the theses in my area and I followed the titles and organization of the sections employed in these theses. I mostly looked at NSs' theses and published research articles. TR4

... I sometimes tried to write similar statements while I was stating my ideas. TR3

It is important to note that supervisors of both groups gave feedback on the content and overall organization of the theses but they did not interfere with the stylistic and discursive aspects. They might have aimed to get their students to find their own voice or they might have thought that this was not a part of their supervision.

- **Awareness of Discursive features**

It is clear from the NS responses and from their theses that they are aware of the discursive features of academic rhetoric and they consciously use stance markers:

These things seem to come naturally to me, perhaps because I have several years of academic writing and teaching experience and I intuitively know where these things should go. I became more aware of them during the revision process. As I read what I had

written, I tried to look at the thesis as if it were the first time I had read it. This process helped me fine tune the elements you mentioned and their placement. NSR3

Yes. I was aware of what content needed to be presented in each chapter. I had read other students' theses prior to writing my own (or even prior to gathering data and analyzing the results), so I was definitely aware of what needed to be included. Using research articles as a reference also helped me know what elements are absolutely necessary in empirical research. NSR2.

I was aware of stance markers as I wrote and I used them carefully. I used such words when they were necessary to my meaning. If I used the words "significant," I was careful to use it only to mean 'statistically significant'. NSR3

Yes, I was definitely aware of authors' use of stance markers and the power and degree of certainty these markers convey to readers. I tried to use them appropriately according to the degree of certainty I had about my results or interpretation of results, all the while keeping in mind the reaction of my audience and how they would interpret the claims. NSR3

Not in the first draft but in my second draft in the editing process, I was looking for the markers... NSR1

... One way I did this was to attempt to imitate the style of published journal articles that were similar to mine. I also just tried to keep an objective mindset. NSR3

It seems they come to this awareness by doing much reading and practicing academic writing. They also have writing centers and style guides when they need help in academic writing in terms of style. Supervisors help students with the content of their theses. Yet, it is reasonable to conclude that supervisors may have affected the organization of thoughts and the flow of logic when giving feedback related to the content. This suggests that supervisors could have had an effect on the students' writings in terms of rhetorical organization.

Turkish students stated that they were mostly aware of the discursive and stylistics features of their disciplines and they implemented these features in their writing. They benefited from previous theses in their fields and imitated the flow and the lexical features

of these studies. They seem to be aware of the effects of the stance markers and consciously employed them. They reported:

I used these stance markers while expressing my thoughts especially in the conclusion parts of the chapters. I used these stances because I thought I should make myself heard in my thesis. TR2

I was aware of them and I used these markers considering their level of effect and the function they perform. TR3

In fact my writing process of my master thesis was difficult for me. I had never written a thesis before. Therefore I was not aware of particular discursive elements. So I examined other theses. Then I realized that there are some titles in every chapter. This is how I became aware of them. TR3

I remember from my education that it was risky to make clear-cut comments. Instead, I preferred to use *may, might* etc. Similarly, I avoided using expressions like *of course* or *evidently* in order to sound more formal. However, I thought I needed to use words like *important, should,* etc because they would show my stance. I was aware of where I needed to stand. In terms of self-mentions, I was taught not to use “I” in formal writing and I did not. Instead, I used *the researcher, the investigator,* etc. I did consider their impact and acted accordingly. TR1

To be honest, I was not aware of any of the stance markers you mentioned. But I know about hedges and boosters. I use hedges when I am not sure about the proposition or I use a proper one according to my evidence. TR4

Turkish respondents seem to be aware of the impropriety of being assertive in making generalizations in academic reports. Most of the Turkish respondents reported that they avoided using the pronoun *I*. They think it was not scientific to use *I* in academic writing. It is clear from the responses below that the supervisors’ advice and academic writing manuals were reported to influence this understanding:

I tried not to use ‘I’, it doesn’t sound scientific, this is what we were told by our instructors and style manuals, and I remember it from Lester’s book. TR4

In my conclusion part, my supervisor suggested that I should make myself heard. However, I still employed a formal discourse and never used the subject “I”. I believe that he was right. After all, I carried out a study and was proud of contributing to this field through my findings. I tried to have a say in the process employed by the Ministry of Education but at the same time I tried to avoid writing “I”. TR1

It seems that when Turkish students are asked about “style” they tend to think it means one of the global style frameworks, such as APA or MLA. Rather, as is clear from the below responses, they consider ‘voice’ to express original ideas about the issue. It is deducible from the responses that supervisors’ guidance has a role in students’ understanding of academic voice and stance:

I went through the document for how to write a thesis published by the Institute of Social Sciences at KTU and also I checked previously-written theses and had an idea of what I was expected to do. My writing classes as a student and those previously-written theses led me to writing the parts of my thesis. My supervisor gave me some advice on the conclusion part suggesting that I needed to make myself heard by touching upon issues like what happens in Turkey today and what ought to be done by relating to my findings. TR1

I try to make my voice heard in my writing because I like expressing my own thoughts or experiences. I think this makes my writing more original. TR2

In my thesis I made my own voice heard as much as possible. I used a questionnaire and an interview. After I had collected the data, I analyzed them and I stated my own ideas after nearly every result. To me, if I write my thesis it should reflect my voice and my ideas. TR3

... If you are talking about APA and MLA as writing style, yes I know these. While I was at university I studied MLA. Later while I was writing my master thesis I used APA writing style. There are many rules on how to quote, how to decide on paragraph spaces, lines etc. in both APA and MLA writing styles. TR3

The responses from Turkish informants suggest that they regard academic writing conventions as consisting of paraphrasing, quoting and passive structures. They seem to be aware of macro features of academic writing like stating the results and comparing the findings with the literature and giving pedagogic implications. However, when their theses

were taken into consideration, they tended to ignore micro features, such as stance markers. Moreover, they appeared to be reluctant to use stylistic features and rhetorical manoeuvres to make their voices heard or to establish their stance.

4.4. Discussion and Summary

This chapter presents the major findings obtained from the corpus-based genre analysis of the discussion sections of Turkish and NS corpora and the interviews conducted with 7 participants who volunteered among the writers of those theses.

Quantitative data obtained from the genre analysis of the discussion sections revealed that NS and Turkish students have similarities in terms of following certain Moves in discussion sections. Yet, they have different practices in the organization of these Moves which either make their texts *fluent, logical and effective* or *hard to follow and lack well discussion of the results*. Turkish students tend to make bold claims and are reluctant to discuss their findings thoroughly. Rather, they line up the results and remind the readers of previous studies, if any, then make claims, but leave the issue without discussing it. However, NS students seem more cautious when making generalizations, and they dedicate more Moves to the discussion of their findings.

Turkish masters' students include background information, findings and claims more than NS do. Yet, NS masters' students allow for commenting on results, comparing the results with the literature, stating the limitations of the study and recommendations for further research. This picture seems to suggest that Turkish students present a bold manner in the discussion sections of their theses when compared to NSs.

Turkish masters' students are liable to use more boosters but fewer hedges, compared to NS students. Furthermore, Turkish students seem reluctant to employ modal hedges which are more effective compared to adverbials. Rather, they prefer quantifiers when hedging. NS students employ hedges, boosters and attitude markers to realize Moves 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 8 more often than Turkish students do. However, Turkish students employ greater amounts of self-mentions in Moves 1, 2, 3, 4, 5. NSs employ a great deal of hedges, attitude markers and self mentions in the realization of Move 6, whereas Turkish

students prefer boosters. NS students favour self-mentions in recommending further research. Most of the hedges appeared in the statement of and commenting on the results and making claims (Moves 2, 3 and 5, respectively) which suggest that NS students act more cautiously when handling the results and making generalizations. The case differs in Turkish students' texts. Turkish students use fewer hedges particularly in commenting on results and overall Moves in general.

Boosters were employed in statement of the results, commenting on results and making claims in Turkish corpus. The percentage of the boosters in making claims Move of Turkish corpus is higher than NS Corpus. This suggests that Turkish students are more confident and authoritative in making claims. This is also evident from the flow of the move cycles.

The distribution of the AMs across the two corpora is nearly the same. In commenting on the results, Turkish students used fewer AMs which might indicate that NS students assume responsibility over the commenting on results whereas Turkish students try to reflect them as objective propositions with less authoritative stance. However, Turkish students employed most of the self-mentions in giving background information and statement of the results. Interestingly, they assumed responsibility in stating the results but avoided responsibility when commenting on the results.

It is important to note that Turkish students employ fewer words with more Moves, which indicates that they form short sentences. This picture also affects the percentages of the distribution in stance markers and Moves in Turkish corpus. Consequently, almost all of the Moves were found to be statistically significant in Turkish corpus. It is important to note that, despite the case mentioned above, none of the stance markers appeared to be key in Turkish corpus. This indicates a statistically significant difference between the two groups of theses in terms of exhibiting a remarkable stance and employing stylistic conventions of the professional community.

NS texts seem to follow a lacework in building the discussion rather than a string. This might be related to writing instruction and genre education in the institutions in the U.S.A. and Turkey. It is remarkable to note that Turkish students seem to have certain

genre knowledge, but apparently they have difficulties in organizing this information in meaningful and effective ways. In a much broader sense, this could be the result of the fact that Turkish language has different thought patterns which were nurtured by Altaic language family and Eastern cultures. This mental framework might have an influence in Turkish writers' organizing and arguing their ideas.

The interview data obtained from 7 respondents showed that although not all the participants have taken academic writing courses, they all hold general writing instruction with different contents. Although some of the respondents received academic writing course, they do not seem to be aware of the written discourse of their professional discipline apart from basic stylistic information prescribed in style framework to which the related discipline belongs. In this sense, their lack of confidence also suggests that they do not consider themselves competent enough in the related written genre. NS respondents reported confidently that they were aware of the conventions of their discipline. Having some research articles published may have influenced NS respondents' confidence in their writings and in their genre competence. It became clear from the responses that the content of the writing course and the feedback gained throughout the process constitute an important source of diversity in academic writing competence. Respondents' writing background, their active participation in the academic field and the style guides that they referred to may account for the differences between Turkish and NS respondents.

The interview data suggests that Turkish students regard the notion of writing style as confining to the adopted style frameworks of their discipline like APA or MLA, and they never considered their writing from the aspect which the term *style* refers to. I think this case might be linked to an overall knowledge on writing. The lack of awareness in this issue could have been related to the content and methodology of the writing instruction Turkish students received in their L1 and L2.

Both NS and Turkish master's students benefited from style manuals and the literature, especially from the theses related to the area they were studying. Apart from supervisors, academic writing courses and aforementioned sources, NS reported that they have writing centres and style guides at their universities. When these factors are considered with the education policy of the countries and universities in mind, the context

and system on which education is built become remarkably important actors in the writing competence of the students. In this sense it is noteworthy that the U.S.A. government runs National Assessment of Education Progress in Writing on certain intervals to observe the instruction process and evaluate the outcomes, which is not the case in Turkey at present.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter summarizes the study with some brief background information and a general discussion of the findings and pedagogic implications. The limitations of the study are indicated, and some suggestions for further research are presented.

5.2. Summary and General Discussion

This study presents the prescriptive move and stance analysis of the discussion sections in master's theses written by Turkish and native-speaking English students. The study also attempts to give insights into some steps of the writing process of the discussion section with semi-structured interviews.

The quantitative analysis is based on a total of 20 master's theses, 10 from each group. The rhetorical organizations of discussion sections are examined according to the adapted version of Dudley-Evans's (1997a) Move framework, and the stance students take within these Moves is explored in accordance with Hyland's (2005a) stance taxonomy. The results from both corpora are compared to each other. Additionally, each Move is compared to the other Moves within the same corpus in order to find the characteristic stance markers of that Move. The qualitative data is based on semi-structured interviews with 7 volunteers among the groups whose theses were chosen for the genre analysis. The interviews aim to acquire more holistic information about the practices of the writers and the reasons behind the certain forms they used in their writings.

The fact that Moves appeared key in Turkish corpus, leads to the conclusion that Turkish students prefer to use short sentences with fewer types of words. However, NS

students employ longer sentences which are rich in word types and tokens. These results seem to support previous studies which assert that Turkish students tend to employ short sentences with limited words and word types (Hinkel, 2002, 2004, 2011; Hyland, 2003a), demonstrating a lack of vocabulary and knowledge specific to the discipline.

The results of the quantitative analysis indicate that while Turkish students' discussion sections have a similar organization to NS students', there are differences in the preference frequency of Moves and their distribution. Move 2 (statement of results, 24.23%) and Move 5 (making claims and generalizations, 23.35%) occurred most frequently and were the key moves in Turkish corpus. Move 3 (commenting on results, 19.59%) and Move 2 (statement of results, 19.23%) were found to be the most frequent moves on the part of NS corpus, which seems to suggest that NSs prefer to evaluate the results of their studies instead of simply introducing results. In other words, they try to persuade readers and affect their style of interpreting results with a great deal of hedging (16.988 target corpus keyness and 3.26 move keyness), which also demonstrates the presence of the writer in the text.

The analysis shows that NS students avoid employing the overuse of claims and sweeping generalizations. Turkish students are inclined to make claims more often than NS students do and neglect to support their claims with evidence and to hedge their claims. Furthermore, Turkish students exhibit an insufficient evaluation of the findings (10.63%). They employ commenting on the results Move quite less frequently when compared to NS usage. In terms of Move cycles, Turkish students seem to leap from the specific to the general, without adequate hedging. These findings are in line with the findings in Baldauf and Kaplan's (2005) study on linguistic problems of L2 writers.

In Turkish corpus, Move 1 follows statement of results Move and making claims Move as the third most frequent move at a percentage of 17.43%. However, this rate is rather low in NS corpus (7.40%). NS students tend to give much more room for the evaluation of the methodology (6.45%) and suggesting further research (8.60%) when compared to Turkish students (2.63% and 4.71%, respectively).

Both Turkish and NS students tend to place their comments immediately after *reporting results*, and *commenting on the results* is followed by *making claims* in NS corpus. Whereas, *commenting on the results* appears to be one of the most frequent Moves in NS corpus. However, Turkish students avoid backing their claims with evidence and comments. They tend to arrive at quick generalizations and, due to lack of hedging, they seem authoritative and bold when making claims.

Stance is analysed with four components; hedges, boosters (emphatics), attitude markers and self-mentions. Comparison of stance markers across the two corpora revealed statistically significant differences. Major differences are found in the employment of hedging which appeared in NS corpus as frequently as the amount of Turkish corpus. This difference seems to suggest that Turkish students do not project a distinctive stance compared to NS students. However, the route of frequency is the same in both corpora. Hedges are followed by AMs, and they are followed by boosters and self-mentions, respectively.

Related to stance, previous studies (Hinkel, 2002, 2004, 2011; Hyland, 2003a; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996) on the comparison of native and non-native writers' practices suggest that non-native writers use fewer down-toners and more self-mentions. The findings of this study are in line with the studies mentioned above. Despite consisting of fewer words, Turkish corpus projects slightly higher numbers of self-mentions compared to NS corpus. Additionally, Turkish students avoid using down-toners and other stance markers which statistically significantly differentiate between native speaker usage of down-toners and other stance markers.

Another aspect of stance markers appearing in the Turkish corpus is that Turkish students prefer quantifiers in hedging while NS students employ modals. Turkish students use more conversational hedges like *a lot of*, *much*, and *can*. In fact, *can* was found to be statistically the most frequent hedge marker in Turkish corpus which carries considerably weak hedging load. On the contrary, NS students primarily employ strong hedge markers like *may*, *would*, *could*, and *might* and epistemic hedges like *indicate*, *seem*, *suggest*, which have strong hedging load. This incident may be due to the fact that the concept of modal does not exist in Turkish language. Similarly, lack of genre awareness and unfamiliarity

with academic writing conventions might be another factor influencing Turkish students' exercising modals in their writings.

Boosters are less frequent in Turkish corpus overall when compared to NS corpus. Turkish students used boosters in making claims and stating the results. This result suggests that Turkish students tend to make bold claims, or are reluctant to back their assertive stance with the use of hedging.

AMs, which allow writers to project a positive or negative attitude towards the propositions, are predominantly employed by NS students. This result indicates that Turkish students are reluctant to posit a distinguishing attitude towards the propositions and to lead the readers in the interpretation of the results or incidents.

As the last component of stance markers, self-mentions appeared in slightly higher amounts in the Turkish corpus, especially with a significant use of the pronoun *we*, which might indicate the writer's attempt to engage with the reader or share the responsibility of the propositions as a possible result of cultural perspective. However, the self-mention rate overall is low in both corpora compared to actual expert practice, which reflects the genre conventions (Hyland, 2001, 2002a, 2002b, 2003b, 2004c, 2005, 2009). Moreover, the uneven distribution of self-mentions across the two corpora seems to suggest that both groups of students are slightly unable to project their role in the research and hesitation in exposing their own voice.

Regarding the interviews, although some of the Turkish respondents reported that they took an academic writing course, it is evident from the responses to style- and discourse-related questions that they seem to be unaware of some fundamental formalities of the genre which reflects the conventions of the professional community they are to be the members of. Indeed, Turkish students' writings exhibit an organization which does not follow a certain discipline-specific framework and project highly dispersed rhetorical movements, which makes me think that Turkish writers fall short in internalizing and using discursive features. Furthermore, Turkish students seem reluctant towards active participation in their professional communities. This might be the result of their professional choice in terms of becoming a research writer or not. They might consider

themselves not professional enough to engage in the academic community yet. Another reason behind the reluctance might be the fact that not all the master's students earned the degree for becoming researchers.

Turkish students consider academic writing within basic style frameworks and seem to be unaware of logical maneuvers and organization of ideas. Furthermore, they exhibit weak performance in discussing findings. I conclude from the interview data that they tend to imitate the literature but with little consciousness. This might be the result of the fact that Turkish language has no methodology yet (Nerimanoglu, 2011). In this sense, it is true to say that Turkish students have been introduced to academia without any ideas on how to write in any language.

I think Turkish students suffer from process-oriented genre-based writing instruction and systematic and comprehensive feedback in terms of style and academic discourse in their initial introduction to academic writing. Of course, academic writing courses and feedback shouldn't be adequate. At later stages, students are supposed to head towards an independent process by reflecting on their writings and referring to peers' feedback with conferences and research articles. They are supposed to consider academic writing a personal and conscious effort which evolves in process and assume responsibility accordingly.

5.3. Conclusion

The results of this study suggest that although there is a slight consistency in the organization and realization of the Moves in both groups of theses, the number of texts used in the study is not enough to make a fuller generalization. It would appear to me that NS students are better at creating a safer atmosphere to introduce their claims and propositions cautiously with frequent hedging. Although hedges are the most frequent stance markers in Turkish corpus, I think, hedging in Turkish texts could have been strengthened through the use of strong hedge markers and should be used cautiously in certain Moves. Another point is that Turkish students show hesitation in criticising their own practice and evaluation of the study they present, when compared to NS students. The

aforementioned points could help Turkish students in their organization of the Moves as well as making cautious and evidence-based claims.

It is remarkable to view the issue from two broader aspects in the light of interviews. First, the differences between the two groups could be attributed to Turkish linguistic culture that can be seen to somewhat in linguistic and rhetorical aspects of the language, and is different from Anglo-American culture which values directness, justification, proof and cautious attitude towards evaluating and presenting facts (Hinkel, 1997; Kaplan, 1997; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996). Second, writing is the production of culture but writing instruction is shaped by social and educational policy of the state (Kroll, 2005). NS students meet academic writing courses either as *writing across the curriculum* or *writing in the disciplines* activities, which allows them to be more aware of the writing conventions of their discipline. Moreover, National Assessment of Educational Progress in Writing act in the U.S.A. shows that the state has a concern for writing which calls for a concern on the part of teachers and students and helps to develop awareness of instructed writing before students attend universities and start to write professionally in their disciplines. I believe that if Turkish master's students examined in this study came to universities with a rigid writing background, more specifically with the knowledge of what academic writing is, what the processes the writers go through are, what the steps getting from A to B are in writing and with the idea of organization of the thoughts, genre and jargon, the results would be different.

5.3. Pedagogic Implications

The Moves and stance markers employed in the discussion sections of master's theses written by Turkish and NS students are examined in this study. The results of the study could be useful in developing genre and discourse community awareness and in academic writing courses because Move structures and their organization, besides projecting effective stance, are important in research writing. To this end, similar tasks can be designed for practicing these features by comparing student writing with experts, which would give more insights into the actual practice of research writing not just in terms of style but in rhetorical organization and presenting affective stance. In this sense, electronic

concordance programmes would help instructors and students to make the examination more precise and easier.

In academic writing, like in classical music, writers generate content within a pre-existing form. In this respect, genre analysis exercises would help develop understanding in the students about the rigid expectations of particular text types. Genre analysis and close examination of academic discourse formats could help students to internalize the acceptable discourse and to socialize into the academic community. Furthermore, genre-based writing instruction should enable learners to become independent analytic readers and to employ the prescribed patterns in academically appropriate ways. Examining special features and predictable characteristics of research papers could enable students to gain self awareness of their own writing process.

Language awareness activities which aim to teach students to understand and to respond to certain written forms would help student writers to understand the requirements of their discipline they would be writing in and enable them to be successful in engaging into their academic communities. An analysis of the texts could be carried out to see the similarities between texts written for the same purpose and some grammatical, lexical components and logical manoeuvres in the flow could be looked into in the discipline specific courses on academic writing. This analysis can also be extended to contrast more genres with each other in order to emphasize the features of each genre and understand the outstanding features of particular genres using expert text samples.

Academic texts are highly structured and they call for more than merely practising writing (Kaplan, 1997). Consequently, students need to practice the features and conventions with exercises which allow them to manipulate newly realized forms, and then gradually move towards complete academic texts which embody the genre features and forms. Exercises should help students to understand their own composing processes and should aim to develop awareness toward identifying the:

- organization of the ideas and arguments,
- logical acts used in academic texts,
- structure and rhetorical purposes of different text types,

- the linguistic devices realize the personal voice and stance, and
- organize ideas coherently and in a logical flow.

Real examples from the related genre, like research articles, could be studied in the pre-writing phase to help students to become familiar with the style of the related discipline and the expectations of the audience in terms of written discourse. The course could be improved with discussion sessions on different texts types which allow learners to use genre information and discuss how and why texts are organized in certain ways, or peer editing sessions could enrich such discussions. Rich feedback options can be employed such as real audiences, peers, small feedback groups or through conferencing.

Merely writing does not lead students to success but a conscious process with explicit systematized instruction on the strict genre rules could help students at the initial stages of academic writing instruction. Because many features and aspects of academic writing are not implicitly learnable only by reading, the students can not be conscious of them this way unless these forms are taught or showed, as indicated in the literature. Direct instruction of text types and the features and aspects that differentiate them from other texts such as text organization, sentence structure, and vocabulary choice, and the aspects which make a text effective in certain contexts, is necessary for students to become conscious. Besides, sufficient writing practice in the light of these forms and features, and multiple drafts which are strengthened with multiple feedback, could help students head towards becoming conscious members of the professional community that they strive to engage in. Once students become aware of these differences and the aspects that particularize the texts, they could be independent in developing themselves and be effective in editing and revising process. Additionally, at this point reading becomes more efficient with the analytical and conscious genre mind.

5.4. Limitations of the Study and Recommendations for Further Research

This approach necessitated restriction of sample size because the quantitative data were tagged manually with a great deal of variables which made the tagging quite time consuming and laborious. In this study, only 10 theses from each group are used and 7 participants were interviewed; therefore, the rhetorical organization and stance taking

projected in the texts cannot be claimed to be entirely representative of all Turkish and NS students' master theses in applied linguistics. Further, studies with larger corpora and interviews with more participants could yield more reliable results. In addition, a cross-cultural linguistic analysis with a larger corpus may provide useful insights into cultural factors.

This study is based on a top down approach. Bottom up studies may yield different results and features of rhetorical organization of L2 academic writing. Additionally, other features, apart from stance markers or Hyland's stance taxonomy, in other sections could enlighten different aspects of the issue.

The present study compares NS and NNS master's students. Similar studies could make comparisons between NS and NNS doctoral students, or doctoral and master's students, or students and experts.

Lastly, a qualitative study which examines the process of writing from students' and instructors' aspects could be remarkable.

Researcher's Epilogue

I feel that after reading my thesis, most readers will ask whether I analysed my own discussion section and whether I posed the interview questions to myself. I am happy to share the analysis of my final discussion section and writing background with the readers and the master's students whose theses I used in my study and those who cooperated with me during this process.

Like some of my respondents, I was not taught academic writing in any language. At high school I wrote essays twice a week on a certain subject given by the teacher. However, I never knew the aspects of my writing which made the teacher comment on them as being bad or good. What makes an essay good is like playing blind man's bluff, and this is not different at university. Until I began to read about the concept of genre and develop my thesis on this subject, I considered academic writing any piece of writing which values creativity and polished words. Now I realize that if one wants to play classical music, s/he has to employ certain notes in a rigid systematized way. No word is there just filling the lines, I can sense and weigh the effects of the vocabulary items and the logical acts they perform.

Apart from the nourishing process I have gone through in completing this study, some of my instructors have changed my perspective towards academic writing and enlightened my mind with their valuable support and disciplined feedback. Although I feel I am aware of some certain stylistic and discursive rules of my discipline, it is hard to say I do not have any difficulty in realizing them in my writing as the genre analysis of my own thesis demonstrates.

As for the analysis of my final discussion section, it is clear from Graphic 15 below that I employed 113 Moves, 2746 word tokens and 743 word types which indicate that my sentences include approximately 24 word tokens and the ratio of my word types and tokens is % 27. I dedicated most of my Moves to stating and evaluating the results, as well as to giving pedagogic implications (24, 25 and 24, respectively). The reason why I devoted a great number of Moves to giving pedagogic implications is that this study is expected to contribute to ELT; therefore, I put conscious effort to give much room for this

Move. I referred to literature 10 ten times when discussing my findings. I made 8 claims which were placed after stating and evaluating the results. Surprisingly, the analysis revealed that I stated 3 limitations of my study. This may be due to the fact that I planted some limitations into the recommendations for further research.

Graphic 21: Wordlist of the Final Discussion of my Thesis

Rank	Freq	Word	Lemma Word Form(s)
1	175	the	
2	112	and	
3	107	of	
4	94	to	
5	87	in	
6	63	students	
7	40	turkish	
8	37	writing	
9	33	with	
10	32	a	
11	30	are	
12	30	be	
13	29	that	
14	26	ns	
15	25	their	
16	25	this	
17	24	which	
18	22	is	

As for stance markers, my final discussion section includes 85 hedges which constitutes %3 of the whole text analysed and this is in between NS and Turkish percentages. I mostly used modals, especially *could*, *would* and *might* (33 hits), quantifiers, e.g. *more*, *most* (22 hits) and verbs, e.g. *seems*, *indicate*, *seem to suggest* (14 hits). My text also includes 60 AMs, 18 boosters and 4 self-mentions. My move cycles follow the patterns of *stating the results-commenting on the results-stating the results, stating the results-commenting on the results-referring to literature, giving background information-stating the results-commenting on the results*. I employed most of my hedges when I stated and evaluated the results (17 and 32, respectively) which suggests that I am more cautious in stating and evaluating the results. However, I only used 5 hedges in making 8 claims. I think I do have trust in the data surrounding my claims; therefore, my claims do not strive for more hedges. As for AMs, they tend to be located in giving pedagogic implications (22

hits) which might be the indication of my personal attitude towards the outcomes of my study.

I have not compared all my findings with previous findings and I will not mention some features of my discussion section like flow of logic and organization of the ideas. I think these aspects should be left to the readers' appraisal.

Finally, genre analysis has enabled me to see the logic beyond the sentences and the voice behind the words, and now I read more analytically and consciously, and this helps me in editing my own writing professionally and stimulates me to search for more behind the scene. I would like to share one more thing I have learnt from this journey: I realised that I have a mind which is shaped by my language and culture and which pushes me towards circling around and making zigzags when I write. Nevertheless, I know my route in academic writing: it is direct to the argument, cautious and well structured with evidenced arguments.

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APPENDIX A: INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

1. Have you ever be taught writing in any language? If yes, please describe. If no, what would have helped you?
2. Do you write in any language? If yes, in what genre (academic, general, journalistic, etc.)?
3. Did you take an academic writing course? If yes, do you think you benefited from the academic writing course you took in consideration of writing a thesis? Please explain.
4. Do you think you are competent enough in academic writing? Why/ Why not?
5. Do you think you were aware of the academic writing conventions required by your own discipline when you wrote your thesis; such as stylistic (formality and appropriacy, word choice, etc.) and discursive features (cohesion, organization, paragraph structure, etc.) which are acceptable and considered to be persuasive in your discipline? Do you think you exploited these effectively in your thesis? Could you explain it with a few examples from your own thesis?
6. Are you aware of your writing style? Please explain.
7. Do you think which sources and factors (your supervisor, style manuals, other theses in the relevant area, previous experience such as submitting an article to a journal or instructing a writing course etc.) affected your practice when writing your thesis in terms of style? Please explain.
8. Were you aware of the particular discursive elements that you used in each chapter of a thesis while you were writing your own thesis (e.g. the logical maneuvers like giving background information, introducing the results, commenting on the results, deducing, etc.)? Please explain how you became aware of them.
9. Were you aware of the stance markers by which an author hides or makes himself/herself heard in a text and convey his/her commitment to propositions, such as hedges (may, might, perhaps, etc.), emphatics (will, of course, evident, etc.), attitude markers (important, should, significant, etc.), and self mentions (I, the researcher, we, etc.)? If you were, did you use these markers considering their level of effect and the function they perform?

APPENDIX B: TAGGED MOVE SAMPLES FROM CORPORA

TURKISH CORPUS		NATIVE CORPUS
<p>Therefore, the study sought for the relationship between teachers' computer knowledge and attitudes towards the DynEd_M1. T1</p> <p>Also it sought to find out students' and teachers' perceptions of the role of teacher as motivator_M1. T4</p> <p>Also 62,8% of the teachers had attended computer training courses_M2. T1</p> <p>Students didn't arrive at a consensus on this strategy, but teachers broadly_BR agreed on the motivating effect of this strategy_M2. T4</p> <p>It is thought_HG that the instruction that the control group received cannot_HG be named as 'implicit strategy training' because there was no intention of teaching strategies and no systematic and regular exposure to metacognitive strategies_M3. T6</p> <p>All_BR these results show that teachers have very_BR positive attitudes towards computers_M3. T1</p> <p>Tuzcuoglu (2000) found nearly same results in his study_M4. T1</p> <p>As Reid (2007) emphasizes that working in groups can be a great motivator_M4. T4</p>	<p>MOVE 1</p> <p>MOVE 2</p> <p>MOVE 3</p> <p>MOVE 4</p>	<p>NS The organization scores were given based on the organization of the essay as a whole_M1. T1</p> <p>Every_BR activity, even_AM the silent pantomimes, was designed to enhance the students' communication skills_M1. T3</p> <p>All_BR of the students spoke more_HG after the drama than they had before_M2. T3</p> <p>As about_HG sixty-seven percent of the respondents to the questionnaire indicated_HG, peer reviews were considered valuable_AM primary sources of revision information _M2. T4</p> <p>NS They may_HG have understood their main_BR claims, but did not understand the means of support_M3. (NS TEXT 1)</p> <p>They were then able to put this knowledge into practice in their writing_M3. T1</p> <p>When the time comes for speech production, Krashen and Terrell (1983) recommend random volunteered group response_M4. T3</p> <p>Krashen and Terrell's (1983) success with the practices of using prespeech activities...explains why the sixth and seventh grade students clearly preferred the pantomime activities over all other drama activities_M4. T3</p>

TURKISH CORPUS	MOVE	NATIVE CORPUS
Thus, we can_HG conclude that when students like English and are motivated to learn, they can_HG get higher marks_M5. T2	5	Too_HG often_HG, teachers and administrators consider play, and by extension drama, a frivolous_AM activity_M5. T3
If teachers want their students to give their best_AM when attending to a task, they need_AM to see the point in what they do_M5. T4		It shows that references are not, in fact_BR, required_AM in the discussion and conclusion sections of research articles, though they may_HG be used in some_HG disciplines more_HG than others_m5. T9
We_SM got some_HG results rlying on the analysis of the survey but we_SM couldn't_HG have any chance to observe any of the participant teachers in their classroom environment_M6. T9	6	One of_HG the limitations was the small_AM sample size_M6. T2
Time limitation was another important_AM limitation of this study_M6. T8		There are still several_HG limitations in relation to the study and the listening test itself_M6.
A specific time should_AM always_BR be separated for vocabulary teaching_M7P. T3	7	In addition, the use of games as a motivating_AM and fun_AM way to engage students may_HG help to increase their desire to develop further vocabulary_M7P. T1
One of_HG the implications of this study is, the other types of native folk literature should_AM be used to teach the foreign language_M7P. T7		There is clearly_BR a need_AM for teacher education programs to include drama as one of the methods courses for pre-service teachers_M7P.
Future research should_AM examine how different types of drama activities affect students of differing English abilities_M7R. T3	8	For a larger_HG, more_HG in-depth study, a comprehensive comparison between classes that use extensive peer reviews and those that use little_HG to none_BR could_HG identify their true_BR value_AM to students, as well as the circumstances under which peer reviews are best_AM implemented_M7R. T4
There is a need_AM for replications of this study with more_HG participants from different cities and schools in Turkey_M7R. T1		

CURRICULUM VITAE

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