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교육학석사학위논문

**Stance Markers in English Academic Writing
in Applied Linguistics:**

**A Corpus-based Comparison Between Korean Graduate
Students' Master's Theses and Published Journal Articles**

응용언어학 분야 영어 학술 작문에 나타난
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**Stance Markers in English Academic Writing
in Applied Linguistics:
A Corpus-based Comparison between Korean Novice
Writers and Expert Writers**

by
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APPROVED BY THESIS COMMITTEE:

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ABSTRACT

Based on the widely accepted view that acknowledges the interactive function of written language, the concept of metadiscourse has been investigated in terms of its pragmatic role to express the writer's communicative intent in a proposition. In this regard, previous studies indicated that the role of metadiscourse in the domain of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) writing is one of the foremost ways to successful writing. Stance, as a category of metadiscourse, involves more writer-oriented dimension in which writers express a textual voice to convey their judgments and commitments to potential readers (Hyland, 2005b). The ultimate goal of academic writing is to persuade readers of their arguments, for which effective employment of stance markers in a text is crucial.

Despite the relatively rich previous literature on stance markers in different terms, however, these existing studies primarily focused on non-native undergraduate student writings and only revealed quantitative differences. Further, according to genre analysis, it has been acknowledged that each IMRD section of research articles demands different kinds of rhetoric (Swales, 1990). However, there has been not many studies that focused on stance resources employed in different sections of research articles thoroughly.

Based on this research gap, the present study investigates stance resources

in EAP writing, by comparing master's theses written by Korean graduate students and published research articles. Focusing on the specific discipline of applied linguistics, the current study first compares the frequency and range of stance resources in four sub-categories: hedge, booster, attitude marker, and self-mention. This study then investigates any difference of frequencies depending on different sections of research articles. As for qualitative analysis, individual instances of stance resources are carefully examined within their extended context to find any meaningful variations of rhetorical functions.

The findings showed that Korean novice writers employ significantly fewer stance resources compared to expert writers. In terms of sub-categories, expert writers employed significantly more hedges and self-mentions whereas boosters were more heavily employed by Korean novice writers. Attitude markers presented no significant difference.

When it comes to comparison across different sections, Korean novice writers used stance resources more frequently in Introduction and Result section and expert writers in Discussion section. Qualitative analysis revealed more meaningful findings. First, Korean novice writers showed some inappropriate combinations of hedges and boosters in Result section and also a limited range of collocational patterns compared to expert writers. It did not contribute to the writer's attempts to make an effective appeal to members

since it fails to balance between objectivity and subjectivity of arguments. Further, in terms of self-mentions, expert writers not only referred to themselves in a text more frequently, but realized a unique rhetorical function in Method section to newly introduce and rationalize their methodology. It is worth discussing since Korean novice writers tended to employ self-mentions only to explain the general procedure in a chronological order with no attempt to emphasize their originality of the method.

These findings provide some pedagogical implications for Korean EAP writing. The present study first suggests the importance of genre knowledge of research articles to be aware of various rhetorical dynamics required for each section. Also, Korean novice writers should take more confidential status as an academic researcher to effectively address and emphasize their academic contributions. In this way, they can enhance the persuasiveness of their argumentation with more tactful strategies in employing stance resources.

Key Words: EAP writing, applied linguistics, metadiscourse, stance,
IMRD structure

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The present study aims to explore how stance resources are employed in English academic writing by Korean postgraduate students compared with published research articles by expert writers. Based on this goal, this chapter demonstrates the purpose of study and addresses the three main research questions of the study.

1.1 Purpose of the Study

Language, a representative means of communication, has been acknowledged in terms of its interpersonal function as well as informative function (Chafe, 1986; Hunston & Thompson, 1999; Hyland, 2000a; Sinclair, 1981, 2004). Since the advance in the field of discourse analysis was made, the focus on spoken language has been expanded to written language thereby interactive feature of written texts was paid much attention (Sinclair, 2004; Hyland, 2005a). In this regard, Sinclair (1981) earlier suggested two aspects of language in use: *autonomous plane* which involves developing and sharing record of experience and *interactive plane* which involves the way we use

language and present our texts. While the former focused on the organization and coherence of text structure, the latter centers on the interactive relationship between writers and readers in a text.

On these grounds, *metadiscourse* can serve to express the writer's communicative intent in an informative proposition. Williams (1981) defined the metadiscourse as "whatever does not refer to the subject matter being addressed" (p. 226). Similarly, it is defined as "the author's intrusion into the discourse, either explicitly or non-explicitly, to direct rather than inform, showing readers how to understand what is said and meant in the primary discourse and how to take the author" (Crismore, 1983, p.2). Although earlier investigations of metadiscourse acknowledged its important role as a signal of writer's engagement with readers, the discussions have been quite limited in that they still put this interactive feature of metadiscourse into supportive and secondary role (Hyland, 2005a). More recent approaches indicate that both informative and metadiscoursal elements occur together mostly in the same sentence and that it must somehow affect how the propositional meaning is presented by writers and understood by readers (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Thompson, 2001; Hyland, 2000a, 2005a). In other words, the propositional content in a sentence is not entirely separable from metadiscourse, a linguistic device to imply the writer's intent of how it will be presented to readers.

Based on the perspective that holds inseparable relationship between propositions and metadiscoursal markers employed for them, the role of metadiscourse in the domain of academic writing has been considered one of the foremost ways to successful writing. Academic writing comes to be regarded a writer's efforts involving interactions between writers and readers by 'using language to construct and negotiate' knowledge related to world outside (Hyland, 2005a, p.66), rather than simply presenting the absolute and flawless truth. In other words, the ultimate goal of academic writing is to convince readers of their interpretive arguments by employing effective linguistic devices in a text. Employing appropriate metadiscourse depending on the writer's intent within the context seems to be crucial for the purpose. Indeed, there is a considerable body of work that focused on the issue of metadiscourse in academic writing (Back, 2014; Hunston & Thompson, 1999; Hyland, 2000a, 2000b, 2001a, 2001b, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c, 2008, 2012; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Jin, 2015; Kuo, 1999; Lin, 2013; Park, 2006; Uhm, Kim, Nam, & Oh, 2009).

The present study mainly adopts Hyland's (2005b) newly developed framework of metadiscourse which is distinguished from his previous works (Hyland, 2000a, 2000b, 2001a, 2001b), in that interactional metadiscourse is divided into two broad categories (*stance* and *engagement*), by creating the independent category of engagement and clarifying the existing category of

stance with the remaining four sub-categories. Considering the fact that writing is also a form of dialogue between writer and readers, it is worth to note that the new framework more clearly shows the distinction between stance and engagement in that each represents the writer-oriented and reader-oriented nature of interpersonal metadiscourse. This study aims to investigate the concept of stance in depth, one of the essential element for successful academic writing.

Over the years, there actually have been numerous studies on writer's stance in a text, in different labels such as attitude (Halliday, 1994), appraisal (Martin, 2000), evaluation (Hunston, 1994; Hunston & Thompson, 2000), evidentiality (Chafe, 1986; Chafe & Nichols, 1986; De Hann, 1999), epistemic modality (Coates, 1983; McEnery & Kifle, 2002; Oh, 2007; Oh & Kang, 2013), intensity (Labov, 1984), and stance (Biber & Finegan, 1989; Hyland, 1999). By definition, stance is a writer-oriented category of interactional metadiscourse that involves the ways writers present themselves and convey their judgments, opinions, and commitment (Hyland, 2005b). Hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mentions are sub-categories of stance expressions. Considering the persuasive goal of academic writing, writers have to respond to the possible responses from readers and make a careful linguistic choice that readers think as persuasive. In that sense, writer's effective employment of stance resources contribute to enhancing the

credibility of writer's arguments, by positioning themselves on a continuum of certainty to an appropriate degree (Hyland, 2000; 2001; 2005a; 2005b; 2005c; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Milton & Hyland, 1999; Oh & Kang, 2013; Uhm et al., 2009).

On the other hand, in the field of genre analysis mostly interested in exploring specific rhetorical features which contribute to distinguishing different genres, it is believed that writer's choice of appropriate linguistic device may reveal unique characteristics of the genre (Swales, 1990). Difference in writer's linguistic choice can be said to reflect the different purpose of writers and the different kinds of interactions they create with their readers. In this regard, many empirical studies focused on the issue of NNS writers' practice of metadiscourse in academic writing compared to that of NS writers (Back, 2014; Boote & Beile, 2005; Kuo, 1999; Hu & Cao, 2011; Hyland, 2000a, 2000b, 2005a, 2005b; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Lin, 2013; Uhm et al., 2009). In general, analysis on different patterns of metadiscourse markers indicated that NNS writers tend to show somewhat limited strategies in employing them in an effective way to convince readers of what they are presenting in a text.

There has been some research on NNS writer's difficulty in using metadiscourse markers in their writings, in which cultural rhetoric of different languages may explain the difference between NNS and NS writers' writing

(Chafe, 1986; Crismore et al., 1993; Egginton, 1987; Koo, 2004). However, the literature shows no consensus on common rhetorical features of a particular language. Regarding self-mentions, for instance, it has been known that Asian writers tend to avoid self-mentions to disguise their authorial selves in a text (Kim, 1999; Koo, 2004) whereas Back (2014) recently showed that in academic writing Korean graduate students referred to themselves more frequently compared to native writers. This inconsistency may imply the possibility of other factors which influence writer's choice of which linguistic device they are using in a text. The present study puts *academic expertise* as such a variable, which assumes that there might be different patterns of stance resources between writers with more expertise in the academic field and novice writers just entering the field. Hyland and Tse (2004) also focused on the issue and compared doctoral and master students' dissertations to reveal that doctoral students showed more sophisticated attempts to present their arguments using metadiscourse markers. However, there is insufficient research on the issue of academic expertise especially in terms of Korean postgraduate students' academic writing.

Based on this research gap, the current study aims to explore internationally-acknowledged expert writers and Korean novice writer's practices of stance resources. For the purpose, we compared the published journal articles written by international expert writers and the master's theses

written by Korean novice writers, in terms of how stance resources are employed to enhance the persuasiveness of their arguments. It is worth to note that we focused on writer's academic expertise rather than nativeness, which means that the results will not be interpreted to emphasize the importance of nativeness that must be simply imitated by NNS writers in their academic writings. Rather, as a good model of good academic writing (Hyland, 2008), international writer's published research articles will be compared to master's theses to explain any different patterns of stance marker uses by Korean postgraduate students. Further, the study is distinguished from previous studies in that it considers in which section of research articles the writer is working can also influence what sort of position they are to take in their writings. That is, writers may construct and express their arguments by using different stance resources in a different way, according to on which section they are working. The corpus of journal articles and that of master's theses are thus manually separated into four different sections (Introduction, Method, Result, Discussion) and re-labeled for the analysis. Besides, the present study solely centers on the academic field of applied linguistics. It is based on previous studies that indicate stance expressions are more actively and explicitly employed in such soft disciplines as applied linguistics mostly dealing with human subjects and statistical probabilities to construct and represent knowledge (Hu & Cao, 2011; Hyland, 2004; Lin, 2013).

1.2 Research Questions

For the purpose, the study first compares the frequency and range of stance resources retrieved from the two corpora. It also investigates any significant difference in terms of frequency of stance resources depending on different sections of research articles. Individual instances are then further analyzed for their rhetorical functions within extended context. The study is expected ultimately to reveal any distinctive features or limitations regarding Korean novice writer's authorial attitude as an academic researcher and the kind of relationship they build with readers. Besides, it will also provide meaningful pedagogical implications in the field of Korean EAP writing. For the purpose of the study, the following research questions are considered:

- 1) What are the differences in the frequency and range of stance markers between Korean graduate students' master's theses and published journal articles in Applied Linguistics?

- 2) What are the differences of the frequency of sub-categories of stance markers between the two corpora in different sections of research articles?

3) How does the use of stance markers differ between the corpora in terms of their rhetorical functions within the context?

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter provides the theoretical background and previous literature on stance. The theoretical background of metadiscourse in writing is first presented in Section 2.1.1 and the concept of stance and its sub-categories in Section 2.1.2. Section 2.2 reviews the previous studies on stance in writing, including stance in L2 writing in Section 2.2.1 and stance in research articles in Section 2.2.2.

2.1 Theoretical Background of Metadiscourse in Writing

Metadiscourse in writing has been investigated in numerous studies and acknowledged of its importance in a text. In this section, the definition of metadiscourse is provided and the concept of stance within its framework is specified with its sub-categories.

2.1.1 Metadiscourse in Writing

The function of language that the writer uses to persuade and engage with an audience is defined as *metadiscourse* (Crismore, 1989; Hyland, 2000a, 2005a; Vande Kopple, 1985). The concept of metadiscourse have been investigated in different labels such as attitude (Halliday, 1994), appraisal (Martin, 2000), evaluation (Hunston, 1994; Hunston & Thompson, 2000), evidentiality (Chafe, 1986; Chafe & Nichols, 1986; De Hann, 1999), epistemic modality (Coates, 1983; McEnery & Kifle, 2002; Oh, 2007; Oh & Kang, 2013), intensity (Labov, 1984), and stance (Biber & Finegan, 1989; Hyland, 1999). The concept implied in these terms is fundamentally based on a view of writing as a social engagement. It corresponds to the view that writing is an interaction between the writer and reader (Thompson, 2001). Vande Kopple (1985) characterized metadiscourse as "discourse about discourse" (p. 83). This somewhat vague explanation was further developed by Hyland (2000a), in which he offered more concrete definition of metadiscourse as "the interpersonal resources used to organize a discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader" (p.109). In order to make a text an effective conveyor of the writer's argument, metadiscourse is regarded as a key linguistic device by which the writer situates the readers and also themselves in a text.

Particularly, the role of metadiscourse in the domain of academic writing has been considered to be crucial for successful academic writing. Instead of simply presenting the absolute and flawless truth, academic writing also comes to be regarded as interactions between writers and readers by writer's attempt to use language "to construct and negotiate" knowledge related to world outside (Hyland, 2005a, p.66). Since the ultimate goal of academic writing is to convince readers of their interpretive arguments, employing effective linguistic devices in a text is important. Indeed, employing appropriate metadiscourse depending on the writer's intent within the context seems to be crucial for the purpose. There is a considerable body of work that focused on the issue of metadiscourse in academic writing (Back, 2014; Hunston & Thompson, 1999; Hyland, 2000a, 2000b, 2001a, 2001b, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c, 2008, 2012; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Jin, 2015; Kuo, 1999; Lin, 2013; Park, 2006; Uhm et al., 2009), which will be further discussed in Section 2.2.2.

Over the years, many attempts have been made to identify and classify metadiscourse (Halliday, 1994; Crismore & Farnsworth, 1990; Crismore et al., 1993; Hyland, 1998). Halliday (1994) classified metadiscourse into two broad categories, one being textual function and the other being interpersonal function, which have been specified in detail over the years with slightly different labels by different researchers.

Hyland and Tse (2004) later suggested an organized model of metadiscourse consisting of two main categories, *interactive* and *interactional* resources, borrowing Thompson's (2001) terms. It is worth discussing in that it represents well interpersonal features regarding all kinds of metadiscourse. Compared to previous approach that adopted a term *textual markers* (Crismore et al., 1993) for interactive resources, any writer's attempts to organize and construct sentences in their writings are to be regarded as a form of interaction with readers. Interactive resources mostly focus on the writer's management of the information flow in a text by organizing the general and specific structure of sentences. Transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses are sub-categories of the interactive resources to guide readers into the intended direction through the text.

As for the interactional markers, they allow the writer to display the writer's identity and engage with the readers into the text. Hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions, and engagement markers are sub-categories of the concept of interactional metadiscourse. It concerns the way in which writers express their own voice and engage with their readers to convince them in an effective way. Interactional metadiscourse, compared to interactive metadiscourse, was said to be difficult for novice writers to employ in their writings (Hyland, 2005b). Interactional metadiscourse,

however, has not been paid enough attention for writers to fully make advantage of those resources in their writing even though it concerns more explicit dimension of interaction between writers and readers. In this regard, Hyland (2005b) reframed the categories of interactional metadiscourse into two newly developed branches, *stance* and *engagement*. See Figure 1.

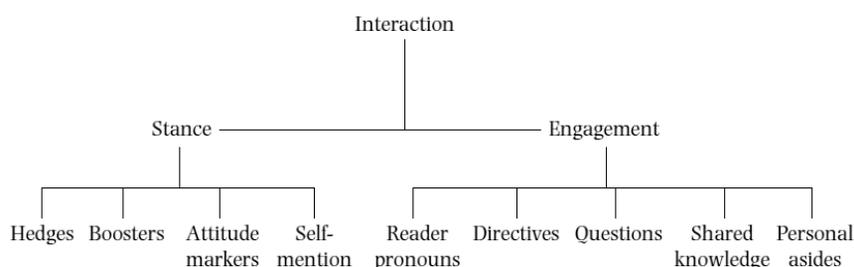


Figure 1. Key Resources of Academic Interaction (Hyland, 2005b)

Stance is a more writer-oriented dimension in which writers express a textual 'voice' to convey their judgments, opinions, and commitments. It relates to the ways that writers make attempts to construct their authorial identity as a member within a certain discourse community by controlling their authority within the text. *Engagement*, on the other hand, is more about reader-oriented dimension, by which writers relate to their readers with respect to the positions advanced in the text. It includes writers' attempts to connect to their possible readers by including them as discourse participants.

As can be seen, Hyland's newly developed framework (2005b) seems to well-represent the clear distinction of stance and engagement resources by rearranging the categories of stance and engagement. He elaborated the category of engagement which was once a sub-category of stance, by enriching it with the five elements represented above. The existing category of stance was more clarified in terms of its writer-oriented nature, with the remaining four elements (i.e., *Hedges*, *Boosters*, *Attitude markers*, *Self-mention*). Since the framework of Hyland (2005b) is relatively new, there has been little related research which investigated the recent framework through empirical studies. The present study thus adopted this framework to more clearly show the writer-oriented interactional resources by which writers connect to the content and the potential audiences in a text, which is distinguished from engagement, the reader-oriented metadiscourse. Four sub-categories of stance and each examples will be presented in the following section.

2.1.2 Stance and its Subcategories

As mentioned in the previous section, Hyland's newly developed framework (2005b) is featured by the fact that the nature of stance devices becomes clearer in terms of the writer-oriented features, consisting of remaining four sub-categories: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mentions. The definition of each sub-category according to Hyland (2005b) are as in Table 1.

Table 1
Four Elements of Stance in Academic Writing (Hyland, 2005b)

Element	Function	Examples
Hedge	Withhold writer's full commitment to proposition	might/ perhaps/ possible
Booster	Emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition	in fact/ definitely/ clearly
Attitude marker	Express writer's attitude Towards proposition	unfortunately/ surprisingly
Self-mention	Explicit reference to author(s)	I/ we/ my/ our

Hedges are devices that indicate the writer's decision to withhold full commitment to a proposition, acknowledging the subjectivity of a position. It

is particularly useful in a statement that is not based on a factual knowledge but from writer's plausible reasoning, so that writers may imply there might be room for discussion in the proposition ultimately to get credibility as a writer. An example of hedge devices is shown in example (1), which is taken from the corpus of journal articles built for the present study.

(1) **It is** also **possible that** higher motivation **may** be related to and stem from higher aptitude and that higher motivation and aptitude lead to the ability to use more and better learning strategies. (JA #10)

Boosters, on the other hand, allow writers to express their certainty by closing down the possibility of alternatives. It is to show that writers has made a choice to narrow potentially possible positions, confronting them with a confident authorial voice. Boosters serve to strengthen writer's argument by directly involving the topic and audience. The importance of the balance in use of hedges and boosters has been emphasized in a great deal of past studies (Hinkel, 1999; Holmes, 1982; Hyland & Milton, 1997; Oh, 2007; Oh & Kang, 2013). An example of booster is shown (2).

(2) Discrimination exercises aiming at training learners' discrimination of L1-L2 contrast pairs are **certainly** useful. (JA #27)

Attitude markers represent the writer's affective attitude to a proposition, such as feelings of agreement, importance, frustration, or surprise as shown in example (2). Although there can be other possible ways to express an attitude (e.g., progressive particles, punctuation, text location), the most explicit way is employing verbs (*agree, prefer*), adverbs (*unfortunately, hopefully*) or adjectives (*remarkable, surprising*). It also serves as an implicit linguistic device to "pull readers into a conspiracy of agreement" (Hyland, 2005b, p. 180).

(3) We expected that the participants would report recalling the text frequently with the LRS tasks; however, this strategy was reported **surprisingly** infrequently. (JA #12)

Self-mention indicates writer's reference to themselves in a text by using such devices as first person pronouns and possessive adjectives. It is distinguished from reader pronouns (e.g., *you/we*) in a category of engagement markers, in that self-mention only involves exclusive reference to the writer not to readers. Writers make a conscious choice whether to reveal themselves explicitly in a text. Personal projection through self-mentions is one of the powerful means of self-representation to stand in direct relation to their arguments (Hyland, 2005b). Example (4) shows an example of exclusive

we, a plural form of first person pronoun, retrieved from the current study.

(4) Indeed, **we** found such an interaction effect on written accuracy, which indicates that the difference in effect on the dative and comparative structure was larger for the recast than for the prompt group.

(JA #19)

Based on the discussion so far, the present study aims to reveal various features in writer's employment of stance markers. The list of stance markers in all of the four sub-categories was created for the process, referring to that of Hyland's (2005a). The previous studies on writer's practices in employing stance resources in writing will be followed in the next section.

2.2 Previous Studies of Stance Resources

Based on the theoretical background of stance resources as discussed in the previous section, previous studies have been conducted to reveal how stances resources are employed differently depending on different conditions. First, Section 2.2.1 reviews the studies on how L2 learners use stance resources in their writings and then Section 2.2.2 presents studies on stance resources in the genre of academic writing.

2.2.1 Stances in NNS Writer's Writing

Over the years, metadiscourse in texts written by non-native speakers of English have been investigated in different writing genres such as dissertations (Dahl, 2004; Hyland, 2000a, 2000b, 2005a, 2005b; Hyland & Milton, 1997; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Jin, 2015), undergraduate student writings (Kim, 1999; Oh, 2007; Oh & Kang, 2013), doctoral students' term papers (Back, 2014), Korean-medium published journals (Uhm et al., 2009), Chinese writer's published journals (Hu & Cao, 2011) and international L2 writer's published journals (Lin, 2013). These studies generally remarked that most of L2 writers of English find it difficult to employ metadiscourse resources in their writings for some reasons. Holmes (1982) suggested that the difficulty

in determining the degree of writer's commitment, a variety of English epistemic resources, and their possible different meanings in different contexts are the three reasons for the difficulties gone through by L2 writers. Further, Hinkel (1999) indicated that culturally different writing conventions in L1 may be transferred to L2 writing, which explains NNS writers' difficulties in interpreting rhetorical frameworks in their L2 writing. Overall, according to the empirical studies listed above, the writing of NNS writers often tended to show imbalanced argumentation which can be considered too subjective or assertive compared to that of NS writers.

The role of stance resources in academic research articles have been particularly emphasized (Hyland, 2005a). As for academic writing, it is the foremost purpose of writing for authors to convey their arguments and persuade the readers within their disciplines, and in that process the stance resources may serve as an effective linguistic device. There have been a majority of studies on stance resources in the genre of academic writing, comparing NNS writers' and NS writers' practices (Kuo, 1999; Hu & Cao, 2011; Hyland, 2000a, 2000b, 2005a, 2005b; Hyland & Milton, 1997). These studies mostly discussed some gaps between English native and nonnative writers in their use of stance resources. Moreover, Hyland and Tse (2004) analyzed L2 master and doctoral students' dissertations from six academic disciplines. They found out doctoral writers make more concerted efforts to

engage with readers and to be immersed into their disciplines. According to the study, the difference in writer's academic expertise and doctoral students' stronger desire to become a member in academia may explain higher frequencies of interactional metadiscourse devices (both stance and engagement) in doctoral dissertations.

Regarding hedges and boosters, there have been studies on L2 writings focusing solely on the two epistemic devices (Hinkel, 1999; Hyland & Milton, 1997; McEnery & Kifle, 2002; Oh, 2007; Oh & Kang, 2013). For instance, Hyland and Milton (1997) provided detailed analysis of the texts written by Cantonese speaking writers in English compared to those of British writers focusing on hedges and boosters. Although they observed similar frequencies between the two corpora, they found out some noticeable differences in that NNS writers tend to rely on a more limited range of epistemic devices and show problems in precisely adjusting the degree of certainty to a certain proposition.

Further, Hyland (2000b) discussed NNS writer's lack of awareness of the role of metadiscourse in writing, which leads to their poor performance in writing. It was observed that they even have difficulties in 'recognizing' epistemic devices in reading comprehension test. He examined Low's (1996) "Lexical Invisibility Hypothesis" in the study, which claims that hedges and boosters may be unnoticed by non-native readers of English. The study

revealed through interviews that hedges seemed to be less visible to second language learners whereas boosters seemed to receive relatively more attention. It was concluded that what is crucial to the acquisition of rhetorical competence is writer's awareness of the pragmatic impacts of hedges and boosters and ability to recognize them in texts of any discipline.

Within Korean EAP context, it was found that Korean EFL writers showed different ways of using interactional resources compared to native speakers (Back, 2014; Kim, 2009; Jin, 2015; Park, 2006; Uhm et al., 2009). In terms of academic genres, however, there are not many studies (Back, 2014; Park, 2006) that investigated Korean novice writer's practices in terms of employing stance markers. On the other hand, there have been some studies that only focused on other types of metadiscourse markers, such as engagement (Jin, 2015) and personal pronouns (Kim, 2009). In general, several studies drew similar results on the use of hedges and boosters by Korean EFL writers. They commonly suggest that Korean writers' use of more hedges and fewer boosters is partly explained by a cultural inclination for learners to hesitate to strongly assert their arguments (Kim, 2009; Uhm et al., 2009). It was also noted in these studies that Korean writers rarely boosted their argumentation as they seem to be afraid to be attacked by readers who do not agree with their own arguments. These results may be attributed to cultural norms, which relates to the general tendency of Asian languages such

as Korean, Japanese, and Chinese noted for their preference for indirectness (Egginton, 1987). It was also noted that Korean L2 writers' use of metadiscourse markers tends to be limited in type and excessively polarized (either too stronger or weaker voices) in representing their arguments from investigations of undergraduate student's argumentative essays (Oh, 2007; Oh & Kang, 2013).

Further, recent studies demonstrated more complicated aspects of stance marker usages especially in academic writing. For instance, Korean L2 writers overuse not only hedges in their writings to weaken and mitigate the possible counterarguments by readers, but also boosters to express rather direct authoritative voice to persuade readers when compared to that of natives' (Back, 2014). These results may show Korean L2 writers' imperfect awareness about the importance of controlling the personality in their academic writings. They are rather unskilled in employing more effective devices to establish their authorial identities as a member of specific disciplinary community. In this regard, it was pointed out that Korean academic writers should be able to perceive and use more appropriate forms of English metadiscourse in academic contexts (Uhm et al., 2009). Back (2014) also contends that pedagogical L2 writing resources should be given to Korean learners so that they learn proper strategies for both genre- and culture-specific devices to balance between subjectivity and objectivity in

their research articles.

In general, the majority of existing literature indicated that stance resources are deployed in a more effective and appropriate way by NS writers than by L2 writers. However, despite the rich literature on undergraduate students' writing, not many studies offered a comprehensive picture of Korean graduate students' use of stance markers in the specific genre of academic writing. As Hyland and Tse (2004) also discussed, writers with more academic expertise are likely to make sophisticated attempts to present themselves as a competent and credible researcher. The difference in writer's academic expertise may induce differences in metadiscourse patterns. Besides, the existing literature on Korean graduate students' writing described above provided quantitative comparisons but mostly without statistical verifications, and qualitative insights into how they are actually employed within context have been rather neglected. The present study is expected to offer a detailed analysis both on quantitative and qualitative aspects of stance markers within Korean EAP context.

2.2.2 Stances in Academic Writing

In the genre of academic writing, the importance of genre knowledge with which writers and readers more readily understand academic discourse has been widely acknowledged in a bunch of studies (Askehave & Swales, 2001; Holmes, 1997; Hyland, 2000a, 2001a, 2004, 2005a, 2005b, 2008; Swales, 1990; Ruiying & Allison, 2003). Research articles (RAs) is the central genre of academic writing involved with knowledge production, which has received much attention in genre analysis (Brett, 1994; Hyland, 2000a, 2001a, 2001b, 2004, 2005a, 2005b, 2008; Swales, 1981, 1990; Ruiying & Allison, 2003). There is a widely-accepted traditional framework of RAs, a macro-structure of ‘Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion’ (IMRD) suggested by Swales (1990). Although this conventional framework turned out to be not wholly without problems, it still provides a broad picture of RAs in terms of its typical structure and rhetorical moves demanded for each section.

It was also commonly acknowledged that the rhetorical functions in research articles may be realized in different ways depending on disciplines (Brett, 1994; Crismore & Farnsworth, 1990; Holmes, 1997; Hu & Cao, 2011; Hyland, 2000a, 2001a, 2004, 2005a, 2005b, 2008; McGrath & Kuteeva, 2012). In this regards, previous works mostly focused on the rhetorical moves of specific section in particular disciplines such as electronics (Cooper, 1985),

sociology (Brett, 1994), history, political science and sociology (Holmes, 1997) and applied linguistics (Lin, 2013; Ruiying & Allison, 2003). Although there have been few studies that conducted comprehensive analysis throughout the entire sections of RAs, relatively rich literature at least commonly indicates that each section of research article demands a different kind of rhetoric moves (Brett, 1994; Hunston & Thompson, 1999; Jordan, 1997; Swales, 1990). Many of the earlier studies in this area investigated different patterns of moves focusing on the corpus of a particular section in research articles such as Introduction (Cooper, 1985; Swales, 1981, 1990) and Results (Brett, 1994) and Discussion (Holmes, 1997).

For instance, Brett (1994) provided a description of the specific organization of Results section in sociology articles, in which writers make their knowledge claims through presenting the explanation and interpretation of numerical data. Particularly in terms of quantitative sociological research, the researcher's role of reconstituting the numerical data derived from human behaviors into meaningful arguments is said to be necessary for successful academic research. As for Discussion section, Holmes (1997) described and compared the structures of discussion sections in RAs from the three disciplines: history, political science and sociology. Disciplinary variations were found in the organization of rhetorical moves, in that it is more cyclic and unpredictable compared to that of natural science.

On the basis of the evidence currently available supporting different rhetorical demands of different sections of RAs, a few studies recently focused on these sectional differences in stance marker uses in the field of applied linguistics (Back, 2014; Hu & Cao, 2011; Lin, 2013). It was generally suggested that stance markers may serve as effective linguistic devices to realize rhetorical functions of different sections in RAs. For instance, Lin (2013) studied L1 vs. L2 experts' practices of self-representation in two disciplines (Electronic engineering vs. Applied linguistics) by building published journal corpora divided into different sections, although the research paid more attention to their rhetoric moves rather than stance markers themselves. For example, in Method section, writers in applied linguistics were observed to represent stronger authorial presence than writers in electronic engineering, by using human agents as subjects rather than the research techniques. On the other hand, in Introduction section where writers need to point out the value of their research topic through indicating the contributions that can be made through the research, writers in AL seemed to frequently employ hedges to tone down the potential contribution of their research. This finding implies that different sections of RAs influence writer's preference of strategies in fulfilling the rhetorical functions of specific moves.

While quite a many existing studies have mentioned different rhetorical demands for different sections of research articles, it has not been fully

examined particularly within Korean graduate EAP context. Within Korean context, Back (2014) investigated the different frequencies of stance markers in different sections, to report that more attitude markers occurred in Result section in Korean students' term papers than in NS writers'. It was said to reflect the transfer of Korean spoken register, in which more affective and personalized voice is preferred. However, since qualitative analysis was rather neglected in the study, further research in this area is expected to reveal more detailed aspects in sectional differences of Korean writers' stance practices. The present study thus aims to investigate different aspects of stance marker uses in terms of different sections of research articles, by building corpora divided into each section (Introduction, Method, Results, Discussion, IMRD). Overall, the study is expected to provide a full, in-depth picture of stance resources along with detailed analysis on individual instances depending on writers' academic expertise.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, materials and data analysis procedure for the present study are explained. Section 3.1 explains materials used in the study and Section 3.2 presents the analysis procedures to investigate research questions for the current study.

3.1 Materials

The present study investigated stance resources in two main corpora, published journal articles (JA) to represent expert academic writing and master's theses (MT) to represent novice academic writing. Published journal articles have been acknowledged by previous literature as comparable in parallel to those of novice writers', in that they may be helpful as a good model of good academic writing (Hyland, 2008). Along similar lines, Swales (1990) also referred to writings for publication as a "norm developing" practice. On the other hand, master's thesis was chosen for the novice corpus since it has been regarded to well represent early stage of apprentice writers

in academia, as a “key research genre, most highly valued kind of writing produced by students” (Hyland, 2008, p.47). Research articles and master’s theses may be considered two different genres, in that for example, the length of master’s theses is mostly longer than that of research articles. Hewings and Hewings (2002) also mentioned that the researcher needs to be careful in making comparisons between research articles and master’s theses since they may not necessarily be identical in terms of its organization and readership. However, with respect to the original purpose of the two genres, they are quite comparable to each other since they are both written in research-based context ultimately to find answers to the research questions (Boote & Beile, 2005). Moreover, a corpus of academic journal articles is said to be useful for comparative purpose because research articles serve as a role-model particularly for students concerned in the same field of discipline (Hewings & Hewings, 2002). As a writing product written by an academic novice writer who is first entering the academic discourse community, a master’s thesis seems to be the most basic and important genre to represent novice writing in the field of EAP writing. Therefore, the present study chose published research articles and master’s theses to investigate any differences depending on the writer’s academic expertise.

In terms of the MT corpus, theses from several Korean universities were chosen considering regional diversity, level of schools, and most importantly,

online accessibility as it would be converted into text format to be analyzed with concordance software for the quantitative analysis. The present study referred to Jin's (2015) list of selected university, since there were quite a few which provided the master's theses in electronic format available on the web. The selected four universities were *Hanyang University*, *Jeonnam National University*, *Kyungpook National University*, and *Sookmyung Women's University*. Among forty articles evenly selected from each university, twenty-six master's theses were ultimately chosen considering topic varieties, types of research and published year (2011-2015). Examples of excluded articles were theoretical researches and purely qualitative research including case studies or conversation analysis, since qualitative research articles may have their own distinctive features in writer's metadiscourse employment.

As for JA corpus, research articles only from a few journals in the field of applied linguistics that is highly-ranked according to quality indicators (Egbert, 2007) were chosen for the current study. The selected journals were *Applied Linguistics*, *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *Modern Language Journal*, and *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*. In total, thirty articles were ultimately chosen from those four journals through the same screening process by the researcher. Topic similarity was also considered in the corpus-building process. Although there were not pre-determined topics for both corpora, the researcher roughly

compared research titles, abstracts and keywords with those of master's theses, not to include too exceptional or marginal topics in the field of applied linguistics. All the research articles were also published in the years of 2011-2015 and written by a single author.

For both corpora, all the writings were available on the web in electronic files to be converted into text format. The process was required for concordance analysis using *Wordsmith* (Version 5.0, Scott, 2007) software. All the text files went through the cleaning process in which unnecessary parts including acknowledgements, abstracts, tables and figures, footnotes, examples, references, or quotations were removed to analyze only the main body parts. Each text file was labeled with the type of corpus and the randomly given file number. The text files were then manually divided into four different sections, *IMRD* (Introduction, Method, Result, Discussion), referring to Swales' (1990) analysis. As Lin (2013) also mentioned, however, it is not uncommon that Results and Discussion sections are combined into one section especially in the field of applied linguistics. The articles and dissertations that do not have a clear-cut section (especially for result and discussion) were thus separated by the researcher's own judgment. The general reference to factual results is classified into Result section and writer's interpretation or argument into Discussion section. All the segmented files were organized and saved in the name with the type of section to which it belongs added (e.g. MT #1, R). The

detailed description of the two corpora is presented in the table below.

Table 2
Description of the Corpora

	Journal Articles (JA)	Master's Thesis (MT)
Number of total words	245,933	249,913
Number of words by section	Introduction	74,622
	Method	62,567
	Result	38,084
	Discussion	70,660
Number of texts	30	26
Average number of words per text	8,198	9,612

Each compiled corpus consists of approximately 250,000 words in size although the number of articles for each corpus differed as these samples are mostly longer than journal articles. Regarding sectional corpora, the biggest difference in length was observed in Introduction section, since typically longer literature review was conducted in master's theses.

3.2 Data Analysis

To compare the differences in stance resources between the two corpora, the data analysis was divided into three major parts. First, the list of stance expressions was retrieved for each corpus to detect every instance of stance resources using *concordance* function of the *WordSmith Tools (ver. 5.0)*. As discussed in the previous chapter, the present study follows the framework of stance resources suggested by Hyland (2005b).

Based on the framework, the comprehensive list of stance markers in all of the four sub-categories was created mainly adopting that of Hyland's (2005a) and modified referring to previous studies (Hu & Cao, 2011; Hyland, 1998, 2000b, 2005a; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Im, 2013; Lin, 2013; Uhm et al., 2009). For instance, as for self-mention, while there were some studies in which only the first person pronouns were retrieved, the present study did include *the researcher/author/writer* based on Hyland's (2005b) definition of self-mention. As Hyland (2001b) and Kuo (1999) mentioned, however, their rhetorical functions may be different, which will be discussed later. On the other hand, some individual items were doubly listed since they may function as more than one sub-category of stance marker. For instance, *striking* can be used as a booster to emphasize the writer's certainty in a proposition but also

function as an attitude marker to express the writer's own attitude to a certain proposition. Another example of doubly listed items is *at least* (hedge or booster). Each instance was thus manually counted and classified into a sub-category although it was sometimes quite ambiguous to distinguish, as in '*As illustrated in these results, there are striking differences in the nature of the interactions that take place among learners in the FF and MF activities (JA #25)*'. Since both items were retrieved below 5 times in either corpus, it does not appear to influence the quantitative results to a large degree. In total, 137 stance markers were compiled for the list from the two corpora: 46 hedges, 40 boosters, 37 attitude markers, and 14 self-mentions. A full comprehensive list is represented in the Appendix.

All the retrieved instances were first carefully examined by the researcher to find only the ones functioning as a stance marker. Most of the instances were checked at the sentential level, and if necessary, at the paragraph level within the context. For example, in case of the word *correct* as an attitude marker, some irrelevant instances were also retrieved such as the one in '*Learners' errors were corrected according to their group assignment (JA #13)*', which was manually eliminated by the researcher. As for self-mention *we*, all the instances of inclusive *we* had to be detected with the researcher's judgment. In the recent framework by Hyland (2005b), the inclusive *we* and *our* are classified as Reader pronouns among engagement devices, since they

mostly perform in the writing to bring readers into the discourse by explicitly referring to the readers. Thus, only the cases of exclusive *we* and *our* used to refer to the writer were included for the present study. As one criteria that was used for the writer's judgment, the verb following self-mention devices was identified for each instance. For example, if self-mentions are followed by verbs for reporting results or factual information (e.g., find out, show, observe) or for explaining the procedures of research (e.g., collect, perform, analyze), they were chosen for appropriate of examples of exclusive self-mentions. Although this manual checking process may be time-consuming, it was still necessary for more credible results of the quantitative analysis.

Secondly, for the first and second research questions regarding the quantitative comparison of stance markers between the two corpora, the frequency and the range of overall stance markers and the frequency of each sub-category were calculated for each corpus. As mentioned above, to reconcile the length difference between the two corpora, normalized frequency was mainly used in making comparison, by dividing the raw frequency into the number of total words and then multiplying 10,000 or 100,000 depending on frequency size. Frequency was checked for its statistical significance using a Chi-square test. The frequency of stance resources was re-organized depending on the sections where they are used, based on Swales' (1990) study. He divided a whole research articles in the

field of humanities and social sciences into four main different sections: I(Introduction), M(Method), R(Results), and D(Discussion and Conclusion). The statistical significance of the difference in stance marker uses across different sections was also checked using a Chi-square test.

Lastly, to address the third research question concerning qualitative analysis, individual items were closely examined by the researcher at their sentential, paragraph, and sectional level to which it belongs. The specific purpose of individual item usage was identified within their extended context and compared between the corpora. Any distinct feature of its rhetorical functions was analyzed in terms of the writer's academic expertise, the demanded rhetoric of the sections, and disciplinary context. The items put into qualitative analysis were mostly high-ranked ones, or the ones that showed a great difference between the two corpora in terms of the frequency.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the findings of the present study are reported and discussed. Section 4.1 presents the quantitative analysis on overall stance resources and its subcategories and Section 4.2 demonstrates stance resources across different sections of research articles. Individual instances of stance resources with qualitative analysis are presented in Section 4.3.

4.1 Frequency and Range of Stance Resources

In this section, the results and discussion of quantitative analysis on stance resources are presented. First, the frequency of overall stance devices is demonstrated in Section 4.1.1 and the frequency and range of stance resources in four sub-categories are provided in Section 4.1.2 and 4.1.3, respectively.

4.1.1 Frequency of Overall Stance Resources

The results of analysis showed some different uses of stance resources

between expert writers and Korean novice writers in their English academic writing. First, regarding the overall frequencies of stance resources, the discrepancy between the two corpora was significant ($\chi^2 = 67.859$), which indicates that expert writers employ stance resources more frequently (i.e., 5542) compared to novice writers (i.e., 4708) in their research articles. See Table 3.

Table 3
Frequency of Overall Stance Resources (per 10,000)

Type	JA	MT	χ^2
Stance	225.3 (5542)	188.4 (4708)	67.859***

*** p<0.001

Notes. The normalized word frequency per 10,000 words was calculated by dividing the raw frequency of stance markers by the number of total words and then multiplied by 10,000. The number in parenthesis indicates the raw frequency of stance markers.

This finding corresponds to previous studies (Hinkel, 1999; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Lin, 2013) that showed the novice writers' underuse tendency of stance devices compared to expert writers. For instance, Hyland and Tse (2004) showed that doctoral students who were considered to have relatively more academic expertise employed stance markers more frequently than master's students. They also suggested that the higher frequencies in the doctoral student corpus represent the writer's more sophisticated efforts to present

themselves in an appropriate way as credible researchers entering into their academic disciplines. Concerning L2 novice writers, although there have been other previous studies (Hyland & Milton, 1997; Skelton, 1988) which revealed no difference of frequencies in stance markers between in the both NS and NNS corpora, it does not seem to represent L2 writers' full awareness of stance devices well. For example, in Hyland and Milton's (1997) study, they did reveal similar frequencies of the overall stance resources, but also pointed out some noticeable differences between L2 writers (Cantonese speakers) and L1 writers (British speakers) in terms of the range and distribution of stance resources. Cantonese students were observed to rely on a more limited range of items and often fail to convey a precise degree of certainty. Within Korean context, most researchers also focused more on the different distribution of metadiscourse markers in sub-categories rather than the overall frequencies (Back, 2014; Park, 2006; Uhm et al., 2009). That is probably because the overall frequency alone may not be enough to show the important features in detail of different uses of stance markers depending on the writer's expertise.

4.1.2 Frequency of Stance Resources in Sub-categories

The results of analysis in the frequency of stance resources in the four sub-categories in the two corpora are represented in Table 4.

Table 4
Frequency of Stance Resources in Sub-categories (per 10,000)

Type	JA	MT	χ^2
Hedge	124.2 (3054)	97.5 (2436)	69.567***
Booster	41.2 (1013)	51.5 (1288)	32.866***
Attitude	28.9 (710)	27.6 (689)	0.315
Self-mention	31.1 (765)	11.8 (295)	208.396***

***p<.001

Notes. The number in parentheses indicates the raw frequency of each stance marker..

Turning to the four sub-categories of stance resources in detail, the differences in frequencies of hedges, boosters, and self-mentions were significant in the two corpora ($p<.001$) and not for attitude markers. Korean novice writers used significantly more boosters (i.e., 1288) and fewer hedges (i.e., 2436) and self-mentions (i.e., 295) than expert writers did (i.e., 1013, 3054, 765, respectively). In other words, for the hedges and self-mentions, expert

writers employed significantly more stance resources in their writings and novice writers more relatively preferred using boosters. The frequency and proportion of stance resources in four sub-categories are presented in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

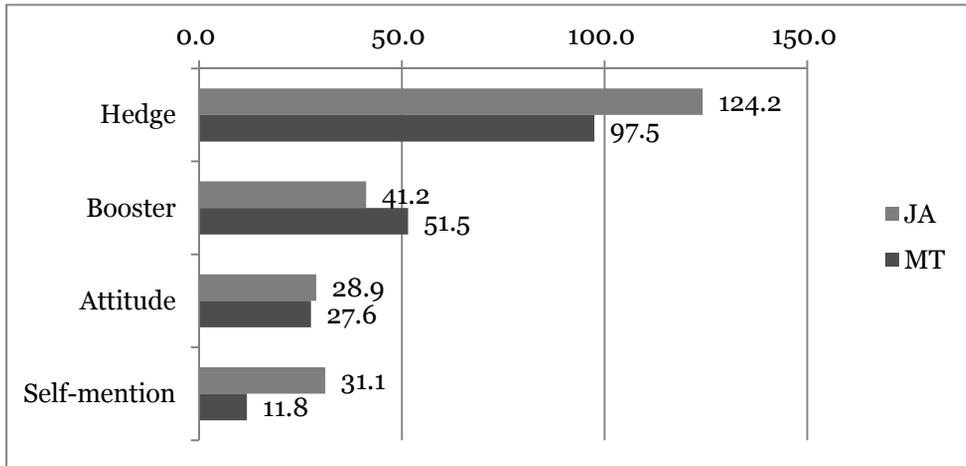


Figure 2. Frequency of Stance Resources in Sub-categories (per 10,000)

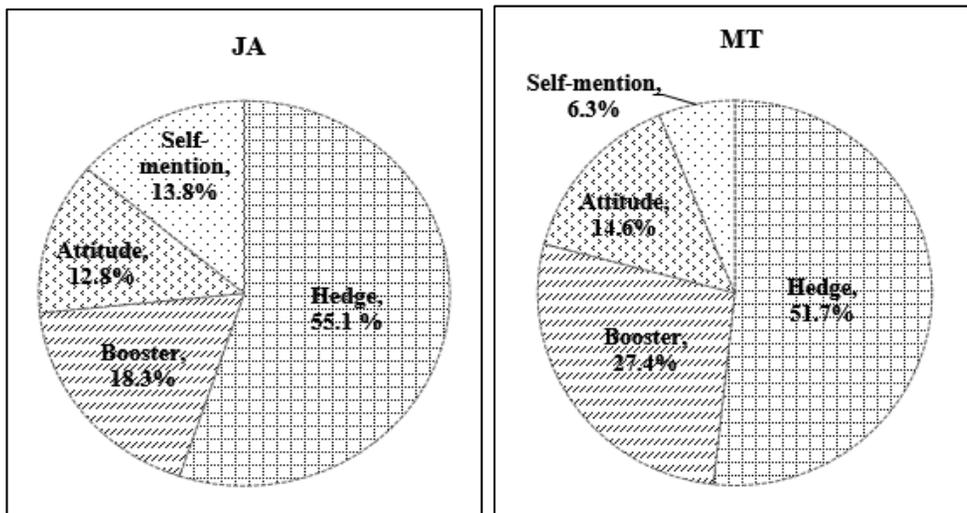


Figure 3. Proportion of Stance Resources in Sub-categories

The results revealed several notable findings. First, as for hedges, which accounted for the biggest proportion of all the stance markers in both corpora (55% for JA and 51% for MT corpus each), expert writers obviously employed more hedge devices than Korean novice writers did (a frequency of 124.2 for JA and 97.5 for MT per 10,000 words). On the other hand, boosters, the second most frequently used stance resources in both corpora, were more frequently used by Korean student writers in the theses than by expert writers in the published research articles. While no great difference was observed in the use of attitude markers between the two corpora, expert writers employed remarkably more self-mentions than novice writers, as discussed in the previous section. Expert writers' preference of self-mentions were also confirmed in that the third most frequently used sub-category of stance resources was self-mention in the JA corpus (13.8%), while it accounted for the smallest proportion in the MT corpus (6.3%).

As for hedges and boosters, the results in the present study concur with previous findings that revealed Chinese and Hong Kong L2 writers' tendency to express more direct voices in their arguments compared to native writers (Hyland & Milton, 1997). However, within Korean context, there have been contradictory results regarding the use of hedges and boosters by student writers. For instance, according to Back's (2014) analysis, a more frequent use of both hedges and boosters by Korean student writers was observed, which

may suggest their failure to balance in controlling the author's voices in a text. In contrast, other several studies indicated that Korean L2 writers employed more hedges but fewer boosters in their writings (Kim, 2009; Uhm et al., 2009). The result may be partly explained by a cultural inclination for L2 learners to hesitate to strongly assert their arguments, although the specific genre investigated in those studies was slightly different from research articles. Kim (2009) compared Korean and British newspaper science popularizations and Uhm and his colleagues (2009) analyzed published journal articles in applied linguistics written by Korean writers and NS writers. In the current study, the results showed fewer hedges and more boosters by Korean master students. These inconsistent results may suggest that the quantitative analysis is not sufficient to figure out the characteristics of Korean student writers in their use of stance resources.

As for self-mentions, expert writers were shown to use significantly more self-mentions than novice writers did ($\chi^2 = 208.396$, $p < .001$). This result contradicts Back's (2014) study which showed the overuse tendency of self-mention by students in master's degree, implying their belief that an explicit expression of authorial presence will make a claim more persuasive in their writing. However, the use of self-mention in English academic writing itself is not actually a strategy to be avoided according to many researchers (Hyland, 2001a, 2001b, 2005a; Ivanic, 1998; Kuo, 1999; Tang & John, 1999). In fact,

several researches (Hyland, 2012; Kuo, 1999; Tang & John, 1999) have shown disciplinary variations in the use of self-mention. According to them, research article in the field of applied linguistics is a kind of genre where explicit reference to the writer is more common compared to hard sciences (Hyland, 2001b). In the soft sciences such as humanities and social sciences where the author's rather subjective interpretation of the world outside is needed, writers may try to emphasize his or her own discovery by explicitly referring to themselves in order to get a credit from members in the same discourse community. However, according to previous empirical studies (Hyland, 2012; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Im, 2013; Kuo, 1999; Uhm et al., 2009), this tendency was only observed in expert practices and less marked in the student writers' reports. It may explain much smaller frequency of self-mention by novice writers than expert writers in our data. Hyland and Tse (2004) revealed that the most remarkable result was much higher use of self-mentions by doctoral students with more academic expertise compared to master students. It may be due to the doctoral students' relatively rich knowledge of the important role that the self-mention plays in academic writing.

In addition to lack of academic expertise to explain self-mention underuse by novice writers, cultural transfer is one of the crucial factors of different stance marker uses in writings (Hinkel, 1995, 2009; Hyland & Milton, 1997).

Back (2014) acknowledged this effect of cultural transfer and mentioned that Korean writers' overuse tendency of self-mention observed in her study was the only section that was inexplicable by socio-pragmatic transfer from L1 to L2. It has been commonly argued that an indirect voice is more favored by Asian writers such as Koreans compared to Anglo-American writers and that the tendency may be transferred across languages (Kim, 1999; Koo, 2004; Oh, 2007; Oh & Kang, 2013). These accounts may partly explain the significant underuse of self-mention by Korean novice writers in the present study, in that they might have been more reluctant to reveal themselves with self-mention devices in their arguments as a novice than expert writers who do not have to be much careful not to make a bad impression to potential readers. To figure out patterns of stance markers including self-mentions employed by Korean novice writers in detail, the findings will be further discussed in qualitative analysis with actual example retrieved from the corpus.

4.1.3 Range of Stance Resources in Sub-categories

In this section, ten individual items in each sub-category of stance resources are presented in the order of frequency and compared between the two corpora. First, Table 5 demonstrates ten most frequent hedge devices in the two corpora.

Table 5
Ten Most Frequent Hedge Devices

Rank	JA		MT	
	item	frequency (per 100,000)	item	frequency (per 100,000)
1	may	205.7	could	107.6
2	would	123.6	may	96.0
3	suggest*	120.0	suggest*	87.2
4	indicate*	89.5	seem*	79.6
5	could	82.9	indicate*	59.6
6	might	65.1	would	54.8
7	relative*	61.8	might	52.0
8	possible*	61.4	likely	50.8
9	likely	50.0	possible*	36.4
10	seem*	47.2	imply*	34.8

Notes. ‘*’ at the end of certain words means that the family words of that word (i.e., *suggest** includes *suggest*, *suggests*, *suggesting*, *suggested* and *suggestion*). Items in bold indicate the ones showing notable difference between the two corpora, which will be further discussed.

As for hedges, the most frequently used items are similar when we compare the top 10 items from each corpus. Eight out of ten items are same in each list except for *relative(ly)* and *imply*. Particularly, both corpora have

three modal verbs: *may*, *would*, and *could*. Modal verbs are known as one of the most common linguistic choices to express epistemic modality (Halliday, 1994; Hyland & Milton, 1997; McEnery & Kifle, 2002). Within Korean EFL context, several studies also found modal verbs as the most popular devices that the writers frequently employ as hedge devices (Back, 2014; Oh, 2007; Oh & Kang 2013). Considering their frequencies, however, *may* and *would* (i.e., 205.7 and 123.6, respectively) are used more frequently than twice of the novice writers' usage (i.e., 96.0 and 54.8, respectively), while novice writers preferred *could* most to the other two modal hedge markers.

The finding is comparable to Back's (2014) results that also compared NS and Korean L2 writers' academic writings in their use of metadiscourse resources. She found that *may* was the highest rank in NS but *would* was the highest in NNS, although the exact frequency value of each item was not presented. It was also suggested that Korean L2 writers mostly employ *would* to keep distance from the statement in a more personalized voice such as the one in '*I would like to*'. She explained this as Korean writer's politeness strategy. In the present study, however, there was no occurrence of '*would like to*' in the two corpora. Rather, more complicated patterns of hedges appeared in the two corpora, which will be discussed later in the qualitative analysis.

Table 6
Ten Most Frequent Booster Devices

Rank	JA		MT	
	item	frequency (per 100,000)	item	frequency (per 100,000)
1	show*	153.3	show*	255.3
2	will	54.1	will	90.0
3	strong*	28.9	prove*	22.0
4	demonstrate*	26.0	demonstrate*	18.0
5	the fact that	20.7	strong*	18.0
6	establish*	14.2	essential	11.2
7	in fact	13.0	the fact that	10.8
8	essential	10.6	in fact	10.4
9	indeed	10.6	find	8.0
10	true*	9.8	determine*	7.6

Notes. ‘*’ at the end of certain words means that the family words of that word (i.e., *show** includes *show*, *shows*, *showed*, *shown*, and *showing*). Items in bold indicate the ones showing a notable difference between the two corpora, which will be further discussed.

As a booster device, novice writers seem to overuse *show*, which accounts for almost half of all the booster occurrences in the MT corpus (255.3 out of 515.4). Although *show* was also ranked first in the JA corpus, its raw frequency was significantly smaller than that in the MT corpus. Hyland (2000a) has noticed rhetorical functions of the verbs conventionally employed in academic writing. Among those verbs, reporting verbs such as *show*, *observe*, or *study* have functions to represent knowledge, especially when they do not have any interpretive operations of researchers. In that sense, Korean novice writers in this study may have wanted to gain some credibility for their statements from readers by using *show*, the most representative

reporting verb. By keeping distance from the statement using reporting verbs, the writers may improve the objective validity for a certain factual statement. It is supported by the evidence that more than half of all the occurrences of *show* were in the Result section for the both corpora in the present study.

Novice writers' preference of *show* has been found also in Back's (2014) study. However, while the most salient difference reported in that study was Korean L2 writer's transfer of spoken features such as *actually* and *of course*, those two words were not ranked high in the present study. It may be due to the difference of specific genre of academic writing collected for building corpus: Master's theses were collected for the present study and term assignments for Back's (2014) study. In the master's theses, as one of the most refined genre of writings by novice academic writers, writers may have consciously made an effort not to adopt spoken registers in the process of writing, which seems to contribute to almost no occurrences of features typical of spoken registers (e.g., *actually* or *of course*) in the MT corpus for the present study. However, Korean novice writers' over-reliance on a certain verb such as *show* is still regarded problematic in terms of their limited range of possible booster resources compared to that of expert writers.

The second most preferred booster resources for the both corpora was a modal verb *will*, although its frequency in the MT corpus (90.0) was almost twice higher than that in the JA corpus (54.1). *Will* has a meaning of stronger

probability and usuality compared to *may* on a continuum of modalization (Halliday, 1994). It is noteworthy to recall their relative underuse of *may* as hedge devices compared to expert writers' in the present study. In other words, regarding their modal verb choices, Korean novice writers seemed to more willingly express his or her certainty toward the propositions rather than being reluctant to emphasize the writer's full commitment to their certainty.

Table 7
Ten Most Frequent Attitude Markers

Rank	JA		MT	
	item	frequency (per 100,000)	item	frequency (per 100,000)
1	important*	66.7	should	78.8
2	should	59.4	important*	52.8
3	need* to	44.7	need* to	44.8
4	even	30.9	even	34.0
5	must	17.1	essential*	12.4
6	expected*	15.5	interesting*	8.8
7	interesting*	13.8	expected*	8.4
8	essential*	12.6	appropriate*	8.0
9	appropriate*	6.1	remarkable*	8.0
10	surprising*	5.3	must	7.6

Notes. ‘*’ at the end of certain words means that the family words of that word (i.e., *important** includes *important* and *importantly*).

In terms of attitude markers, the top ten frequently used items were surprisingly similar between the two corpora. There were only two items that occurred in one corpus and not in the other (i.e., *surprising* in JA corpus and

remarkable/remarkably in MT corpus). Note that it was attitude markers that showed no significant difference between the two corpora in terms of frequency. This result is different from that in the previous study which pointed out L2 writers' overuse tendency of attitude markers (Back, 2014), which was interpreted as NNS writers' failure to implicitly convey their personal judgments or opinions to readers. In other words, their imperfect understanding of subtle rhetorical choices may have caused the writers' more affective and personalized voice. Along similar lines, both cross-cultural differences and register differences are also attributed in that in Korean spoken discourse it may be effective to strengthen arguments by expressing writer's personal voices, according to Koo's (2004) perspective. However, in the present study, Korean novice writers did not show a unique difference compared to expert writers in terms of their uses of attitude markers. Furthermore, we also have to consider that master's thesis is the genre basically written for assessment for an academic degree unlike other argumentative essays or term assignments. Novice writers must have avoided expressing their emotional voices in their argument to increase the objectivity and credibility as a researcher, which may be one of the reasons the overuse of attitude markers by Korean L2 writers found in other previous studies (e.g., Back, 2014; Koo, 2004) did not appear in the present study.

Table 8
Five Most Frequent Self-mention Devices

Rank	JA		MT	
	Item	frequency (per 100,000)	item	frequency (per 100,000)
1	exclusive <i>we</i>	191.5	the researcher	63.6
2	exclusive <i>our</i>	92.3	I	37.2
3	exclusive <i>us</i>	11.8	exclusive <i>we</i>	8.0
4	the researcher	7.3	exclusive <i>our</i>	4.8
5	I	4.9	the author	1.6

A sub-category of self-mention showed the most remarkable difference between the two corpora. Novice writers most preferred *the researcher* as self-mention resources in their theses. On the other hand, the two most frequently employed self-mention in the JA corpus was exclusive *we* and its possessive form *our*, while they were ranked third and fourth in the MT corpus. Expert writers' preference of exclusive *we* and *our* is worth mentioning in that most of their occurrences were observed in the writings composed by a single author. It is one of the strategies intended to mitigate the writer's authority in their writing, as previously noted by Tang and John (1999). According to their study, the exclusive *we* may suggest that writers may be operating a "safety in numbers strategy", in which writers are reluctant to strongly assert their individuality in their writings. Similarly, Kuo (1999) also suggested similar interpretations that first person plural pronouns in a single-authored article

may indicate their intention to reduce personal attributions.

However, considering novice writers' status as a researcher just entering the academic field and also the genre of master's theses, it is hard to say that they simply lack sufficient knowledge about other possible self-mention devices such as *we* and *our*. It may be more reasonable to attribute the difference in self-mention items between expert and novice writers to their writing conventions, in which *the researcher* is more commonly employed in the genre of master's theses. Another possible explanation can be derived from graduate students' reluctance of representing themselves in the master's theses with first person pronouns, since they are concerned about the unequal relationship between the writer and the potential readers who will typically assess their writings with more academic expertise. That may partly explain novice writer's different word choice, since they do not have to be deeply involved in their writing when they use *the researcher*, compared to when explicitly referring to themselves with first person pronouns.

However, there is still more room for discussion since word choice may not be the only difference when they refer to themselves in their writings. Indeed, it was not just a word choice that showed notable differences according to qualitative analysis. Besides, if self-mention devices are used more frequently in a particular section of articles, it may represent that the writer prefers taking advantage of a certain rhetorical function among various

ones of self-mentions. Swales (1990) has also pointed out that each section of research articles demands different kinds of rhetoric moves in a particular discipline. In this regards, another quantitative analysis was performed in terms of frequencies of stance markers across different sections of research articles. Some notable differences appeared between the two corpora. The results are presented in Section 4.2.

4.2 Frequency of Stance Resources in Different Sections

In terms of the frequency of stance resources in four different sections, the two corpora showed different patterns. Overall, the writer's academic expertise and different sections of research articles were shown to be associated with each other according to crosstabulation analysis ($\chi^2=701.838$, $p<.001$). Regarding differences across sections, Korean novice writers used significantly more stance resources in Introduction and Result sections, while more stance resources were employed by expert writers as for the Method and Discussion sections. The frequency and proportion of stance resources in different sections in the two corpora are presented in Table 9 and Figure 4.

Table 9
Frequency of Stance Resources in Different Sections

Section	Frequency (per 10,000)	
	JA	MT
I	65.1	82.1
M	40.3	16.4
R	29.8	45.8
D	90.2	44.0

$\chi^2=701.838$ (df=3, $p<.001$)

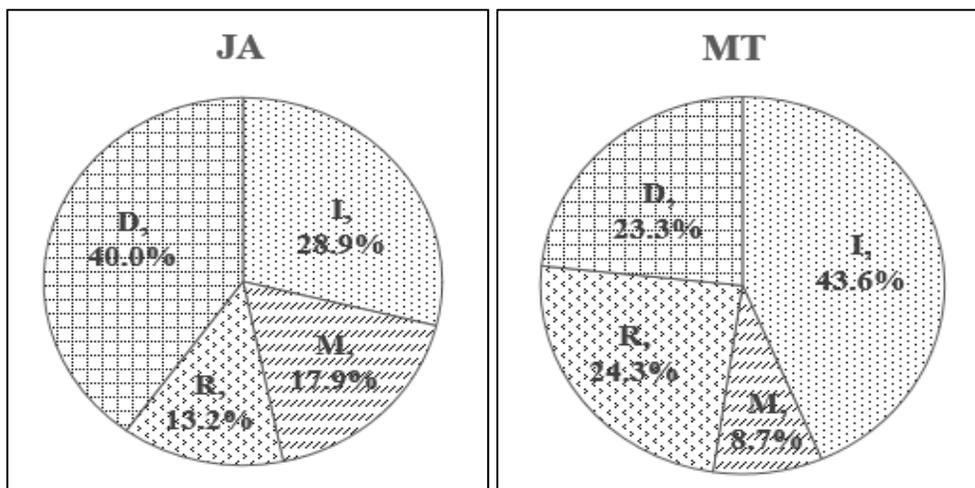


Figure 4. Proportion of Stance Resources in Different Sections

The section of research articles in which the most stance resources were employed in the JA corpus was the Discussion section (40.0%), followed by Introduction section (28.9%). On the other hand, in the MT corpus, stance resources were employed most frequently in Introduction section (43.6%), followed by Result section (24.3%), while it was the section with the smallest proportion of stance resources in the JA corpus (13.2%). Discussion section, the section with the highest proportion of stance resources in the JA corpus, was ranked third in the MT corpus. The section with the least occurrences of stance resources in the MT corpus was Method section (8.7%), which is much less than in the JA corpus (13.2%).

It is interesting to note that different sections of research article affect

writers' choice in employment of stance resources to some degree and that such choices have distinctive patterns between the two corpora. This result is consistent with previous literature in that novice writers do not fully take advantage of stance resources particularly in Discussion section in the present study. In an investigation on metadiscourse in the field of applied linguistics (Uhm et al., 2009), they only focused on Discussion sections written by NS and NNS writers to find that Korean writers deployed less interactional devices (including both stance and engagement markers) than NS writers did. It is particularly often the case in so called "soft knowledge disciplines" such as humanities and social sciences (Hyland, 2004, p.172), since they rely more on writers' interpretive statements and statistical probabilities of the acquired results which are associated with human behaviors. This rhetorical feature of soft knowledge disciplines may be observed in Discussion section most, since Discussion section requires writers' various efforts to show rhetorical dynamics, by revealing and sometimes hiding their intentions in the context, which is ultimately to show their contributions to the academic field and convince readers.

It is also worth mentioning that novice writers rather employed more stance resources in Result section than in Discussion section, whereas it was the section with the least proportion of stance markers in the JA corpus. In fact, in order to investigate whether their stance employment in Result or

Discussion section was appropriate for their rhetorical effectiveness, we have to take into account which sub-categories were more frequently used for those sections and also how they perform as a stance marker. First, the frequency of stance resources in sub-categories across different sections in the two corpora are presented in Table 10.

Table 10

Frequency of Stance Resources in Sub-categories across Sections

Category	Section	Frequency (Raw frequency)		χ^2
		JA	MT	
Hedge	I	36.7 (903)	43.5 (1086)	16.837***
	M	19.2 (471)	9.2 (231)	82.051***
	R	14.0 (345)	21.7 (543)	44.149***
	D	54.3 (1335)	23.0 (576)	301.455***
Booster	I	14.4 (354)	20.1 (502)	25.589***
	M	4.5 (110)	3.1 (77)	5.824
	R	7.2 (178)	17.8 (446)	115.103***
	D	15.1 (371)	10.5 (263)	18.397***
Attitude Marker	I	9.1 (223)	14.2 (356)	30.551***
	M	3.5 (85)	1.4 (35)	29.833***
	R	2.4 (60)	3.9 (97)	8.720**
	D	13.9 (342)	8.0 (201)	36.613***
Self-mention	I	4.9 (120)	4.4 (109)	0.528
	M	13.2 (325)	2.7 (68)	168.064***
	R	6.1 (149)	2.4 (59)	38.942***
	D	7.0 (171)	2.4 (59)	54.539***
Total		225.3 (5542)	188.4 (4708)	67.859***

Notes. Frequency was calculated by normalizing the raw frequency per 100,000. Numbers in bold indicates the ones that showed higher frequency between the two corpora.

***p<0.001, **p<0.01

Overall, stance resources in sub-categories were significantly different across sections in their frequencies between the two corpora except for only two cases (i.e., Boosters in Method section and Self-mentions in Introduction section). Concerning all of the four sub-categories, the analysis showed a general consistency with the general tendency that more stance resources for Method and Discussion sections in the JA corpus and more resources for Introduction and Result sections in the MT corpus occurred.

As for Introduction section, it was difficult to compare only in a quantitative analysis due to the difference in length of Introduction section between the two corpora. Since master's theses usually include longer part of literature review compared to research articles, which seems to have affected more frequent employment of all kinds of stance resources in the MT corpus. On the other hand, expert writers employed all the categories of stance resources more frequently in Method section than novice writers. This finding was interesting considering that Method section seemingly does not require any rhetorical dynamic to convince readers more effectively. One exceptional case which was deviant from the general tendency in the current study was self-mention in Result section, since expert writers used significantly more self-mentions in Result section than novice writers did (149 and 59, respectively). In fact, it was self-mention that showed the most salient difference between the two corpora in a qualitative analysis as well as in a

quantitative analysis. The results of qualitative analysis with actual examples will be followed in the next section.

4.3 Qualitative Analysis on Stance Resources

In the qualitative analysis following in this section, individual instances of stance resources were closely examined within their extended context, which showed some meaningful insights. The sub-categories of stance resources that showed significant difference between the two corpora were mainly dealt with for the discussion, including hedges and boosters in Section 4.3.1 and self-mentions in Section 4.3.2.

4.3.1 Hedges and Boosters

Hedges and boosters are the two essential stance resources which also have been discussed under the concept of epistemic modality by many researchers (Coates, 1983; Hyland & Milton, 1997; McEnery & Kifle, 2002; Milton & Hyland, 1999). Writers, by hedging or boosting a certain proposition in their writings, express epistemic modality to position themselves “on a continuum of commitment ranging from uncertain possibility to confident assurance” (Milton & Hyland, 1999, p.147). Not surprisingly, this pragmatic skill of using epistemic devices is considered more necessary and important in a genre of argumentative or persuasive writings.

However, for some reasons, it has been demonstrated that NNS writers have difficulties in their employment of appropriate epistemic devices in their English writings (Back, 2013; Holmes, 1982; Lin, 2013; Oh, 2007; Oh & Kang, 2013). It was commonly pointed out that NNSs tend to use epistemic expressions in limited types compared to NS writers and sometimes fail to adjust the degree of appropriateness in expressing epistemic modality by giving semantically polarized examples. Although Korean novice writers employed less hedge resources and more booster resources than expert writers in our quantitative analysis of the present study, it was still hard to judge that they successfully or wrongly took their positions on a continuum of certainty to an appropriate degree. Through the researcher's close examination of individual instances, some meaningful variations appeared between the two corpora.

First, the present study investigated various combinations of epistemic devices as discussed in previous studies (Hyland & Milton, 1997; Oh & Kang, 2013). Oh and Kang (2013) investigated English argumentative writings written by Korean undergraduates and suggested a well-linked combinations of epistemic devices from the same semantic category may contribute to the coherence of the writer's stance. However, there were some examples in the MT corpus of the present study that showed some erroneous combinations of stance devices. The examples are presented as follows. Hedge resources are

underlined and boosters are italicized for distinction.

(5) First, both groups overuse lexical verbs and adverbs, and underuse the modal verbs, nouns, and adjectives. These tendencies become more pronounced as proficiency level declines. In addition, the intermediate learners may *show a stronger tendency* to overuse the limited items than the advanced learners do. (MT #20, D)

(6) As the ANCOVA results show in Table 25, pre-survey anxiety appears to be significant (F=4.944, p<0.05). (MT #18, R)

In those two examples extracted from the MT corpus, Korean novice writers employed two representative hedge resources, *may* and *appear to* in Result and Discussion sections. They were accompanied by a reporting verb *show* (booster) in (5) and *be significant* to express statistic results in (6). In this case, however, writers would not have to employ hedge markers to withhold their full commitment to the certainty of the following proposition. They are both about a factual statement, showing results of the analysis itself in Result section. Rather, they should have kept impersonal voices to maintain the objectivity of the suggested results. Those confusing voices of writers, in which hedge markers and factual information occurred together, will make it harder for readers to interpret the writer's real stance to the results. As Oh and

Kang (2013) also suggested, the ability to make a proper combination of epistemic devices may depend on the writer's proficiency since there was no occurrence of any effective word combination in the corpus of writers at the beginning level. In the same vein, it may be concluded that Korean novice writers in the present study do not have a full awareness of hedge devices in terms of word combinations in that there was no such inappropriate example in the JA corpus.

On the other hand, a collocational pattern was observed in expert writer's employment of hedge markers, particularly in Discussion section. The study examined collocates of epistemic modal verbs and phrases with high frequencies in the two corpora. Those epistemic devices were usually accompanied by the writer's interpretative statement as in (7) and (8) below.

(7) The noticing of gaps while engaged in collaborative writing in the L2 **appeared to have a facilitating effect on** the children's processing and retention of information obtained from feedback. (JA #31, D)

(8) Because the results of this study indicate that variation in prior vocabulary knowledge among learners with a similar L2 learning background **may have a large effect on** vocabulary learning gains made through reading, it would be useful for future studies to examine

the gains across learners to provide an accurate assessment of learning.

(JA #30, D)

As in the highlighted parts of the excerpt above, the writer is providing his or her own interpretation of the results in Discussion section, regarding any correlation or causal relationship of relative factors. Typical examples of lexical phrases followed by modal expressions are *be related to*, *cause*, *come from*, *facilitate*, *be attributed to*, and *lead to*, all of which occurred more than five times in the JA corpus. However, MT includes much fewer occurrences of those collocates and narrower range of expressions compared to examples in JA.

Another interesting rhetorical function of epistemic devices was also observed in the JA corpus. See examples below.

(9) On the other hand, **our findings appear to be** in contrast to Trofimovich's (2005) low-intermediate learners, for whom, when the exposure and test were in the same voice, priming effects were not affected by the orientation of attention. **However, several key differences between the research aims and design of the current study and these previous studies render any comparisons tentative.** For example, .. (JA #4, D)

(10) **It may appear that** the use of analogy is a behavior specific to L2 learners. **However, there is evidence suggesting that orthographic similarities interfere with visual word recognition even among fluent L1 readers** (e.g., Bowers, Davis, & Hanley, 2005a, 2005b; Dunabeitia, Carreiras, & Perea, 2008; Nation & Cocksey, 2009) (JA #23, I)

In the two excerpts, writers seem to first acknowledge a possibly expected perspective when using such hedge markers as *appear to be* in (9) and *it may appear that* in (10). However, introduced by contrastive connectives such as *however* or *but*, their real intention is revealed to deny the previous statements and suggest a contrastive argument in the following sentence. In this way, writers can interact with potential readers in that they anticipate and defend possible criticism. Moreover, they can convey their own argument to readers in a more dramatic discourse at the same time. Such instances were mostly observed in Introduction and Discussion section. MT corpus in the present study rarely included such instances of rhetorical functions, which implies Korean novice writers still have much room for more developed skills in their various ways of employments of epistemic devices.

In a similar respect, JA contains more instances in which writers want to explicitly suggest their contributions to a certain academic field of research while novice writers seem to be too much reluctant to show their

accomplishments. Examples from the JA corpus are first presented below in (11) and (12).

(11) **Findings from the present study may provide some indication** as to whether extensive reading programs are effective for all learners or whether they need to be revised to provide greater support for lower level learners. (JA #30, I)

(12) Quasirandom sampling allowed the selection of words with different numbers of occurrences in the texts and varying frequency levels. **This may provide a more accurate representation of vocabulary learning gains** than frequency-based selection of items. (JA #29, M)

As can be seen, expert writers emphasize the meaningfulness of their findings in example (11) and clearly mention the strengths of their adopted methodology in example (12). They both employed hedge markers (*may*) to balance the degree of expressing certainty in their statement. Such an attempt seems particularly important since they have to express their confidence in their achievement, simultaneously not being too arrogant as a researcher. However, novice writers may have adopted this ‘not to be arrogant’ strategy too excessively as in example (13) from MT corpus.

(13) On the other hand, this newly exploited route (from L2 to concepts) **could** return to the old and accustomed route (from L2 to L1 to concepts) temporarily since it is hypothesized that the new route (from L2 to concepts) needs some time to be absorbed and subsumed. This situation **seems to imply** that L2 learners still **have possibility of** regressing into their previous state. This phenomenon **would** be similar to backsliding (Brown, 2007) in SLA. In backsliding, an L2 learner **appears to** have grasped the rule and principle but regresses to a previous state. Using the inveterate route (from L2 to L1 to concepts) tends to cause L2 learners' errors. (MT #30, D)

This is an excerpt of a whole paragraph at the very last part of Discussion section of a thesis in the MT corpus. As can be seen, the writer employed one or more hedge markers per each sentence. These practices do not function effectively to convey their arguments and also to highlight their academic achievements. When writers summarize their results and give their interpretation, employing too many hedge markers may indicate losing a balance on a continuum of certainty, which ultimately weakens the persuasiveness of their arguments. Moreover, the writer did not make an attempt to emphasize his or her academic achievements and contributions that can be made through the research. Thus, it can be inferred that novice writers

are relatively unskilled in making a balance in a degree of certainty even when they have to make an appeal to members in the same academic discourse community in terms of their academic contributions.

4.3.2 Self-mentions

As previously mentioned, self-mention was a sub-category of stance where the biggest difference was observed between the two corpora in terms of frequency. The frequency data showed that the JA corpus included more than twice self-mention resources than the MT corpus. It was observed that expert writers not only referred to themselves in their writings more often, but employed different resources according to the list of individual items (i.e., *we* and *our* in JA, *the researcher* and *I* in MT). Also recall that the frequencies of self-mentions were different most remarkably in the Method section (13.2 in JA and 2.7 in MT). Through examining individual instances of self-mentions in Method sections in both corpora, some notable differences appeared between the two corpora.

First, novice writers employed significantly fewer self-mention resources to show and emphasize the methodology used in the research they conducted by themselves. Moreover, in the JA corpus, a unique rhetorical function of self-mention in the Method section was to newly introduce and also rationalize the methodology they adopted for their research. Examples are represented as below.

(14) From a pilot study it appeared that some children kept trying the same word resulting in low scores. We therefore developed a procedure in which the examiner assisted the child by running a ruler down the card from word to word. If the child had not made any attempt after 10 seconds the examiner skipped the word. (JA #14, M)

(15) However, when we analysed their interpretations we found no clear evidence of any L1 influence and discussions with the students themselves yielded no examples of L1 cultural influence. **We therefore decided to eliminate this category.** (JA#16, M)

(16) However, a pure naturally occurring evaluation runs the risk of introducing many confounding variables. We therefore added a minimal researcher manipulation factor in terms of the pedagogical materials used and the procedures that the teachers adopted in using the materials. (JA #24, M)

The examples of self-mentions in the Method section seem to correspond to a role of self-mentions as a “recouter of the research process” (Tang & John, 1999, p.27), mainly to recount the steps of the research process. Self-mention having such functions is said to usually come with such verbs as *work*, *interview*, or *collect*, particularly in the Method section (Halliday, 1994;

Tang & John, 1999). Indeed, most of the occurrences of self-mentions in Method section in the JA corpus were accompanied with such verbs as shown in examples (*develop, decide, add*). However, self-mentions in the examples not only serve as an elaborator to detail the steps undertaken during the research, but have a certain interesting pattern in which writers rationalize and emphasize the methodology they used in the research. As seen in the highlighted part, writers first mention any methodologically unexpected or problematic variables (e.g., *However, a pure naturally occurring evaluation runs the risk of introducing many confounding variables.*), and then represent the newly adapted methodology as a result (e.g., *We therefore added a minimal researcher manipulation factor ~*). By explicitly referring to themselves by *we* followed by conjunctions such as *therefore* and *thus*, they may have wanted to show their logics so that they could gain credibility from readers. Using self-mentions in this way, therefore, they may effectively emphasize their originality of the thought, showing stronger authorship and more confident identity as a researcher.

However, this kind of rhetorical function of self-mention was rarely observed in the MT corpus, which may represent that the novice writers are more reluctant to emphasize their own judgment in adopting methodology due to their lack of academic expertise compared to experts. Novice writers not only showed much smaller frequency of self-mention in the Method

section but showed quite a limited rhetorical function as represented in the examples below.

(17) Instead of the definite article, “the”, **I used** a proper name and possessive pronouns to show givenness in its information status. **I also used** “one” instead of “a” or “an” to show newness. In addition, **I added** a contextual background to help participants to understand the difference in information status more clearly. (MT #3, M)

(18) Only the grades from language arts, science, social studies and math were used in the computation. The remaining grades were excluded because **I could not ensure that** the same types and number of courses were taken. (MT #24, M)

In most occurrences of self-mention in Method section retrieved from the MT corpus, they serve just to explain the general procedure of the method that the writer implemented during the research. As in example (17), self-mention (*I*) comes with no attempt to rationalize the methodology with logically supporting reasons. Although they added some reasons for the method itself, it is not well-connected to previous sentences and does not include well-designed methodological rationalization. It is also the case with *the researcher* which accounted for the most percentage of self-mention in

the MT corpus. In addition, as in example (18), self-mention is sometimes used to express the feelings of difficulty the researcher had gone through during the research process, in the phrase of *I could not ensure* (MT #24) or *I was afraid* (MT #3). It contrasts with those in the JA corpus which was employed to show the writer's stronger authorship and confidence as a researcher. Rather, this kind of self-mention uses in the MT corpus may reduce the powerful voice as an author who must show their responsibility for the adopted methodology in their research.

Turning to Result and Discussion sections, expert writers employed self-mention devices more frequently than novice writers for both sections. According to the qualitative analysis of the present study, self-mention in those two sections also showed meaningful differences in terms of their rhetorical functions within the context. As Gosden (1993) mentioned, the highlighting of the authorship with self-mention occurs most remarkably in the Introduction and Discussion sections, since they are the most rhetorically rich parts of the research papers. Although previous researches (Gosden, 1993; Hyland, 2001b) mostly focused on the rhetorical function of self-mention only in the Discussion section, we will cover both Result and Discussion sections since research articles in the field of applied linguistics often have Result and Discussion sections combined together (Swales, 1990). In the present study, less than half of self-mentions were employed by novice writers

in the Result and Discussion section (4.8 in total) compared to expert writers' usage (13.1 in total). Concerning self-mentions in the Result and Discussion sections, Hyland (2001b) previously focused on the persuasive use of self-mention in the Discussion section as one of the most powerful and widely used rhetorical strategies for emphasizing a writer's contribution. In Tang and John's (1999) terms, the role of self-mention as an opinion-holder and originator was regarded the most important function of self-mention. In other words, self-mention here in the Discussion section was mainly to suggest the writer's viewpoint or make a knowledge claim. In other words, it serves to explicitly state the writer's opinion or argument as an opinion-holder and originator of a certain idea. The JA corpus included many instances where this use of self-mention is well-represented as in the example below.

(19) **It might be noted that our conclusions for spoken language are similar to** those of Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski (2010) for reading lexical coverage: 98 percent coverage for optimal comprehension and 95 percent for "adequate" comprehension, **although in contrast, we also found** that 90 per cent coverage could lead to successful comprehension by L2 listeners, while Laufer and Ravenhorst-Kalovski could not recommend this level of coverage for reading. (JA #11, D)

In the excerpt above, the writer is first mentioning a previous study having similar results with his conclusion (*It might be noted that our conclusions for spoken language are similar to ~*), which is then followed by his another discovery with more powerful voice to emphasize contrastive results with previous one that he found by himself (*although in contrast, we also found that ~*). In other words, self-mention is used as a signal to draw the readers' attention to the writer's significant discovery or opinion distinguished from other previous studies. Another example of this use of self-mention is presented below.

(20) **Our failure** to identify a clear link between proficiency levels and frequency rates of the language categories noticed **is in line with the results reported by Hanaoka (2007a)** for two university students of different proficiencies who noticed a similar number of gaps during writing. **However, our findings contradict research on the processing of reformulations** by primary school children in Spain (Garcia, 2011), whose noticing of difficulties at the composing stage was found to be linked to their level of proficiency. (JA #31, D)

In example (20), the first combination of *our* and *failure* may seemingly be unrelated to the writer's strong authorship since the writer is mentioning the limitation of the research using self-mention (*Our failure ~ is in line with the*

results reported by Hanaoka (2007a) ~). However, here the writer is not only adopting ‘safety in number’ strategy using plural form *our* even as a single author, but also seeking the reader’s generosity by mentioning another previous research having similar problems. Moreover, in the next sentence, another combination *our findings* occurred in order to emphasize the nevertheless meaningful results in the research (*However, our findings contradict research on the processing of reformulations ~*). That is, this use of self-mention works to highlight the originality of the writer’s result or opinion usually with expressions in agreement/disagreement with the previous literatures, which makes his or her arguments more persuasive to readers.

What is worth discussing more in the excerpts above is the exclusive possessive form *our* accompanied by following nouns such as *conclusion*, *failure* or *findings*. As Hyland (2001b) also noted, the most common collocations along with the first plural possessive form *our* are such nouns as *analysis*, *approach*, *research*, *argument*, *results*, etc. These combinations seem to effectively work to closely connect and highlight the relationship between the writer and the research outcomes. The JA corpus showed various kinds of nouns as a common collocation with the exclusive *our*, including *data*, *participants*, *judgment*, *understanding*, *knowledge* as well as those suggested above. However, in the MT corpus, the possessive form of self-

mention including *our* and *my* rarely occurred and the type of following nouns were also limited only to *result* and *study*. The use of self-mention in the MT corpus showed some inconsistency in its patterns as well.

(21) During the first period of the study **we found** that both the EFL correlation score (.43) and the ESL correlation score (.40) was considered significant in predicting academic achievement. The deviation between the two correlations was (.02). During the second period of the study **we find** that the correlation of academic achievement within the ESL group remained at the significant level (.41) where the correlation score of the EFL study group dropped to the moderate range (.39). (MT #24, R)

In the excerpt above, although the paragraph mainly consists of two parts, the first period and the second period of the study, the self-mention *we* is being used with *found* and *find* in each part. It may be interpreted just as novice writer's elementary errors, which at least implies that the writer at least did not pay attention to the function of self-mention in research articles. Moreover, considering the various rhetorical functions of self-mention in research articles discussed so far, this inconsistent use of self-mention by a novice writer suggests his or her lack of understanding of its uses as a highlighter of the writer's involvement with his own findings.

In a similar respect, most occurrences of *the researcher*, accounting for the biggest percentage of self-mention in the MT corpus, do not function as a writer's rhetorically effective strategy unlike in the JA corpus. Although *the researcher*, *the author* or *the research team* is also considered as examples of self-mention terms by Hyland (2001b), some other researchers (Back, 2014; Park, 2006; Tang & John, 1999) did not include them as self-mention since they are not first person pronouns. This controversial status of those terms may indicate that their imperfect or limited performance as self-mention, not just as different writing conventions in the genre of master's theses. Indeed, most occurrences of *the researcher* in the MT corpus are mostly followed by some particular verbs such as *chose*, *measured*, *examined*, *intended*. They were mostly employed to explain the procedure of the research or just to locate readers in the article. Examples are presented below.

(22) The aim of the study is to investigate the effectiveness of teacher recasts on the learning accuracy of Korean middle school students. **The researcher compared a group** provided with sufficient recasts with a group where no recast was given during five sets of interviews. (MT #26, D)

As in example (22) above, novice writers employed *the researcher* mostly to recall what they did (*compared a group*) for the research even in the

Discussion section. It does not differ from the use of self-mention in the Method section where a function as a simple guide was most prevalent. In other words, novice writers preferred employing self-mention to inform readers of factual information such as procedures they implemented, mostly not to convey or highlight their own opinions or findings. There were quite a few instances showing the author's attitudinal position in the writing in the MT corpus, as in example (23) below.

(23) A possible reason might be that mechanics such as punctuation, capitalization and paragraph indentation simply require more practice in order to do them correctly. Also, **the researcher noted that** the dialogue journal writing activity was not very helpful in the studies done intermediate and high level student's mechanics. (MT #31, D)

In the example, the writer refers to himself using *the researcher* followed by a verb *note* in order to draw the readers' attention to what is discussed next. The verb *noted* shows the writer's positive or confident attitude toward the statement followed in the sub-clause (*that*-clause). As can be seen, however, it does not function as a highlighter of the writer's commitment to the research and of a unique discovery or interpretation suggested by the author as we observed in the JA corpus.

As discussed so far, Korean novice writers use significantly fewer self-

mention resources and employ different kinds of self-mention resources (i.e., *the researcher*) compared to those in the published research articles. Even though we acknowledge their different writing conventions in terms of ways to refer to themselves in the genre of master's theses, novice writers still show quite a limited range of rhetorical functions in their employment of self-mentions. However, there seem to be other options that can be considered as other possible ways of referring to the writer, which is realized by using *this study*, *the present study* or *the current study*. Indeed, those expressions are employed more frequently by novice writers than by expert writers (675 in MT and 440 in JA) and some of their occurrences actually have a function similar to that of self-mentions. Several examples worth discussing retrieved from the MT corpus are as follows.

(24) While free productive vocabulary tests encourage test-takers to display their unlimited vocabulary knowledge (Laufer et al., 1995), **controlled productive vocabulary tests expect test-takers to produce their limited vocabulary knowledge which is mainly effective at low proficiency level (Laufer & Nation, 1999). Thus, this study chose a cloze test** as a controlled productive vocabulary knowledge test asking test-takers to fill in the blanks from a master list which included all the missing words. (MT #15, M)

As shown in example (24), a writer is first mentioning limitations of a certain methodology of previous work (i.e., it may be only effective for students at low proficiency level), and then rationalize the methodology used in that study by using a phrase ‘*Thus, this study chose a cloze test.*’ Recall that the same rhetorical function using self-mentions in the Method section was only observed in the JA corpus. By placing *this study* in a subject position of the sentence and also personifying it even though ‘the study’ itself actually cannot do anything, writers can create similar effect as when referring to themselves with self-mentions. Another example is presented below.

(25) Since the provision of corrective feedback to L2 learners is one of the main tasks of language instructors, **the results of the current study offer significant pedagogical implications for form-focused instruction in SLA.** (MT #23, D)

The most frequently observed collocative pattern was ‘*the results/findings of the current/present study*’ as in example (25), with which a writer is mentioning the potential academic contribution that can be made through the research (~ *offer significant pedagogical implications for form-focused instruction in SLA*). It is also similar to what we discussed, in that expert writers showed confident voice to emphasize their achievements and

contributions to the field of academic discipline by referring to themselves. Likewise, *the results of the current study* is positioned as a subject and personified followed by active verbs (*offer*), instead of using ‘*our results/findings*’. Those two representative patterns in which the family of *this study* (i.e., *the present/current study, this research*) have similar functions as in self-mention resources were found in both corpora. However, it is worth to note that novice writers seem to prefer those expressions as a replacement of self-mention resources and that the limited rhetorical functions of self-mentions can be overcome to some degree, which is required to investigate in further research.

To summarize, in the present study, self-mentions from the students’ writings showed rather limited range of functions in terms of its contribution to emphasizing the writer’s commitment and stronger authorship over what is written in the text when compared to expert writers. Novice writers do not seem to be fully aware of various rhetorical functions of self-mention, in that most of self-mention instances were employed to provide factual information to readers rather than to make an interpretative statement with the writer’s confidence, even in the Result and Discussion sections. Even though we found some different ways of realizing those rhetorical functions in both corpora, it has to be further investigated in terms of how and what kinds of patterns can replace self-mention resources. Concerning self-mentions, since

it was found that writers in the JA corpus showed far more tactful and rhetorically-rich performance in their employment of self-mention resources, novice writers in the present study still have much room to reduce erroneous uses and to develop their abilities in making the best use of self-mentions in EAP writing.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, summary of the findings and pedagogical implications are provided. Some limitations and suggestions for further research are also presented.

5.1 Summary of the Findings

The current study aims to investigate internationally-acknowledged expert writers' and Korean novice writers' practices of stance resources in EAP writing. For the purpose, the study collected two kinds of corpus consisting of published journal articles and master's theses respectively. First, we compared the frequency and range of overall stance resources retrieved from the two corpora and in the four sub-categories of stance as well. We then examined the frequency and range of stance resources in different sections of research articles using the traditional framework, IMRD (Introduction, Method, Result, Discussion) structure. Further, individual instances of stance

markers were closely examined within the context for qualitative analysis, which was discussed mainly in two aspects: Hedges & Boosters and Self-mentions.

The findings showed that overall, Korean novice writers employed significantly fewer stance resources compared to expert writers. When it comes to the sub-categories of stance markers, the three sub-categories (hedge, booster, self-mention) indicated significant differences in terms of frequency between the two corpora except for attitude markers showing no significant difference. Further, different sections of research articles turned out to be significantly influence different practices on stance markers depending on writer's academic expertise. In general, Korean novice writers employed stance resources most frequently in Introduction and Result sections whereas expert writers did so in the Discussion section. It was also notable that Method section accounts for quite a significant proportion in the JA corpus but the smallest in the MT corpus.

A more detailed qualitative analysis was then conducted on epistemic devices (hedges and boosters) and self-mentions, all of which demonstrate the significant difference between the two corpora in terms of their rhetorical functions within the extended context. First, Korean novice writers showed some inappropriate combinations of hedges and boosters for a factual statement in Result section. In addition, a limited range of collocational

patterns was observed in the MT corpus. The failure in balancing on a continuum of certainty to propositions in a text did not contribute to the writer's attempts to make an appeal to members in the same academic discourse community. In terms of self-mentions, expert writers not only referred to themselves in a text more often, but employed different items (*we* and *our*) compared to Korean novice writers did (*the researcher* and *I*). Moreover, a unique rhetorical function in the Method section, which is to newly introduce and rationalize the methodology adopted for the study, was observed often in the JA corpus, but not in the MT corpus. Korean novice writers tended to employ self-mentions in the Method section only to explain the general procedure they implemented in a chronological sequence. Also, some examples in which writers express their feelings of difficulty in their research were found in the MT corpus, which may reduce their authority as an academic researcher responsible for the study. On the other hand, in the Result and Discussion sections, Korean novice writers sometimes showed erroneous examples of self-mentions and their uses were quite limited in functions of simply mentioning what they did for the research. It was hard to find any instance of self-mentions in which they perform to emphasize their meaningful results or to highlight their contributions to academic field.

5.2 Pedagogical Implications

Some pedagogical implications for EAP writing derive from the findings of the present study. Although Korean novice writer's underuse tendency of stance markers does not necessarily mean their lack of awareness, what is important to be emphasized is the importance of writer's effective and various applications of stance markers in their writings. According to our research, Korean novice writers appear to have some difficulties in making conscious efforts to acquire rhetorical competence in the actual process of writing. Thus, it is of great importance to first raise Korean novice writer's awareness towards stance markers along with their various rhetorical functions, ultimately for them to fully make advantage of stance resources in the most effective way to convince potential readers.

For the purpose, the present study first suggests the importance of students' genre knowledge of research articles. As Swales (1990) also indicated in his genre analysis, writers have to be aware of the rhetorical moves demanded for each different section (IMRD) of research articles to master the academic discourse. For instance, it might be commonly thought that the Method section does not seem to require writers to make that sophisticated efforts to employ stance resources for rhetorical dynamics. However, one notable

finding from this study demonstrated that there can be a dramatic conversion of rhetoric even in the Method section. In the process in which writers introduce and explain the methodology they adopted for the research, they can effectively emphasize the originality of their thoughts to readers by appropriately locating self-mentions in a sentence. It may serve as a signal to attract readers' attentions towards the significance of the following statement. Therefore, novice writers should recognize that this effective but subtle rhetorical function of stance markers is possible depending on the section of research articles, so that they can employ more tactful strategies to be realized in the process of writing.

In addition, Korean novice writers should take more confident status as an academic researcher who is wholly responsible for the study. The findings of the present study showed Korean novice writers' being reluctant to highlight their academic contribution in an authoritative voice. For instance, a novice writer overused hedge markers even when he or she has to finish the entire Discussion section for the study. It may be interpreted as cultural transfer from L1 to L2 in that Asian languages are generally known for their preferences of indirectness (Egginton, 1987). However, somewhat inconsistent results from previous studies on stance resources in Korean students' English writing suggest that there can be more complicated aspects as explanatory variables for their lack of authorship in research papers. One

possible reason derived from this study is the hierarchical relationship between Korean students in master's degree and potential readers of the papers (i.e., committee members), since they are likely to be the ones with much more expertise than the writers themselves. Students may be too much concerned with the assessment process in which the potential readers of master's theses are generally the ones with much more academic expertise than the writers themselves. Indeed, it was pointed out in the present study that Korean novice writers tended to employ too much hedging devices in the Discussion section in which they are supposed to represent their own interpretive arguments for the results in a convincing way. However, it should be noted to Korean novice writers that failure in effective employment of stance markers in fact hinders enhancing persuasiveness of a text. Therefore, it is crucial for Korean novice writers to learn conventionalized and preferred ways of self-projection allowed in their own disciplinary communities, which is expected ultimately to contribute to their successful settlement in the academic field as a researcher.

5.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Further Research

Some limitations of this study and suggestions for further research are presented. First, metadiscourse can be seen as an open category to which writers are able to add new items according to the needs of the context and actually there are other possible ways to practice metadiscourse, such as syntactic manipulation or punctuation (Hyland, 2005). There may be other numerous ways that we are able to both reveal ourselves and our purposes in our texts other than individual linguistic items. Although the researcher used the comprehensive list of stance resources collected from previous studies, it may not be sufficient in this regard.

Also in a strict sense, the two corpora collected for the current study consisted of two sub-genres of academic writing: published journal article and master's thesis. Although writers' ultimate goal is same in that they are to convince readers of their arguments with supporting evidence through Introduction to Conclusion, one notable difference was the length of Literature Review in master's theses. As Literature Review section was included in Introduction section (among IMRD) in the present study, it was hard to compare for any observed difference in the name of Introduction section. Since there is generally the word limit for the published journal

articles, the absence of the word limit for master's theses may be one of the reasons that most master's theses have much longer literature review. Further studies are thus expected to reveal any unique rhetorical features only for Literature Review section in the master's theses.

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APPENDIX

List of Stance Items Investigated

Hedge

	generally
about	imply
almost	indicate
appear	in general
approximately	kind of
assume	largely
at least	likely
believed (past participle)	mainly
a certain extent	may
a certain amount	maybe
a certain level	might
could/couldn't	mostly
doubt	often
essentially	perhaps
estimate*	plausible/plausibly
frequently	possible/possibly

postulate

presumable/presumably

probable/probably

relative/relatively

seem

seemingly

seen (past participle)

sometimes

somewhat

sort of

suggest

suspect

unlikely

uncertain

unclear

usually

would/wouldn't

little understood/not understood

Booster

actually

always

at least

apparent/apparently

believe

certain that

certainly

certainty

clear/clearly

conclusively

decidedly

definite/definitely

demonstrate

determine

doubtless

essential

establish

evident/evidently

in fact

the fact that	well-known
find	will/won't
indeed	
(I/we) know	Attitude marker
it is known that	"!"
it is known to	admittedly
must	appropriate/appropriately
never	(I/we) agree
no doubt	amazing/amazingly
beyond doubt	astonishing/astonishingly
obvious	correct/correctly
of course	curious/curiously
prove	desirable/desirably
really	disappointing/disappointingly
show	disagree
striking/strikingly	dramatic/dramatically
strong/strongly	essential/essentially
sure/surely	expected/expectedly
(I/we) think	even
true/truly	fortunate/fortunately
undoubted/undoubtedly	glad

hopeful/hopefully	understandable
inappropriate/inappropriately	usually
incorrect/incorrectly	
important/importantly	Self-mention
interesting/interestingly	I
like	me
pleased	my
prefer	mine
must	myself
need to	we (exclusive)
ought to	us (exclusive)
remarkable/remarkably	our (exclusive)
shocking	ours (exclusive)
should	ourselves (exclusive)
striking/strikingly	the researcher
surprising/surprisingly	the writer
unbelievable/unbelievably	the author
unexpected/unexpectedly	the research team
unfortunate/unfortunately	
unusual/unusually	

국 문 초 록

그간 글쓰기의 상호작용적 기능에 주목한 관점에 기반하여 작가가 자신의 명제적 의도를 표현하기 위한 역할로서의 상위담화에 대한 많은 연구가 있어 왔다. 이러한 관점에서 행해진 이전의 연구들은 특히 성공적인 학술 목적 영어 글쓰기에 있어 상위담화의 역할에 대해 명시했다. 학술 목적 글쓰기는 궁극적으로 독자에게 작가의 주장을 설득시키는 것을 그 주요 목적으로 하는데, 이에 있어 상위담화와 같은 언어적 장치의 효과적 활용은 필수적이기 때문이다. 그 중에서도 상위담화의 하위 범주인 작가태도어는 작가가 명제의 확실성에 대한 적절한 태도를 취하기 위한 작가 중심적 언어적 장치로서 기능한다. 하지만 작가태도어에 대한 기존의 연구들은 주로 비 원어민 학습자들을 대상으로 원어민의 글쓰기와의 양적인 차이에만 주목해 왔다. 또한 학술 연구 논문의 구조에 있어 각 부분에서 필요로 하는 다른 종류의 수사적 기법에 대한 기존의 연구에도 불구하고, 이에 대해 논문의 각 부분에서의 작가태도어의 세부적 역할에 대한 연구는 많이 이루어지지 못했다.

이에 본 연구는 응용언어학 분야에서 한국 대학원생이 쓴 석사 학위 논문과 세계적으로 저명한 학술지 게재 논문을 연구 자료로 하여, 전문가와 비교했을 때 한국 대학원생의 학술 목적 영어 글쓰기에서 학문적 초보자들이 작가태도어를 어떻게 사용하고 있는지에 대한 조사를 연구의 주 목적으로 하였다. 말뭉치 프로그램을 사용하여, 먼저 각 논문 자료에 있어 작가태도어의 전반적인 빈도와 하위범주의 빈도와 비율을 분석하였고, 이어 서론에서 결론에 이르는 논문의 각 부분에서의 작가태도어 빈도를 양적으로 비교하였다. 또한 이러한 양적 분석을

토대로 하여 해당 작가태도어가 작가의 설득적 글쓰기에 있어 어떻게 기능하고 있는지에 대해 질적으로 분석하였다. 본 연구의 주요 결과는 다음과 같다.

양적 분석에서는 한국 대학원생들은 전문가들에 비해 유의미하게 낮은 빈도로 작가태도어를 사용하고 있음을 확인하였다. 작가태도어의 하위 범주에 있어서는, 전문가들은 유보어(hedge)와 자기언급어(self-mention)를 유의미하게 더 많이 사용한 반면, 한국 대학원생들은 강조어(booster)를 더 많이 사용한 것으로 드러났다. 태도어(attitude marker)에 있어서는 유의미한 차이를 보이지 않았다. 논문의 각 부분별 비교에 있어서는, 한국 대학원생들은 서론과 결과 부분에서 유의미하게 더 많은 작가태도어를 사용한 반면, 전문가들은 논의 부분에서 더 많은 작가태도어를 사용했다. 이에 대해 행해진 질적 분석에서는 보다 유의미한 차이가 발견되었다. 먼저, 한국 대학원생들은 결과 부분에서 유보어와 강조어를 부적절한 조합으로 사용하거나 전문가들에 비해 한정된 언어적 양상을 보였다. 이는 작가의 주장에 있어 그 객관성과 주관성에 대한 불균형으로 독자들에게 설득력을 잃는다는 점에서 효과적이지 않을 수 있음을 논의하였다. 또한 자기언급어에 있어서는, 전문가들은 논문의 연구방법 부분에서 자신이 선택한 방법론을 새롭게 소개하고 그 근거를 제시함에 있어 자기언급어를 효과적으로 사용하는 경향이 있었지만 한국 대학원생의 경우 자기언급어의 사용에 있어 방법론을 기술하는 데 그치는 경향을 보였다.

본 연구 결과를 바탕으로 한 교육적 함의는 다음과 같다. 우선 본 연구는 한국 대학원생들의 학술 목적 영어 글쓰기에 있어 논문 장르에 대한 이해가 필요함을 시사한다. 즉, 논문의 각 부분에서 필요로 하는 다양한 수사적 기법을 인식하고, 이를 글쓰기에서 실현할 것이 요구된다. 또한 한국 대학원생들은 특정

학문 분야에 대해 자신의 연구가 기여하는 바에 대해 보다 적극적인 태도로 이를 제시하고 강조할 수 있어야 할 것이다. 작가태도어에 있어 다양한 사용 전략을 인지하여 실현시킴으로써, 궁극적으로 설득력 있는 학술 목적 글쓰기가 가능할 것으로 기대된다.

주요어: 학술 목적 영어 글쓰기, 응용언어학, 상위담화, 작가태도어

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