

**A GENRE ANALYSIS OF THE FINAL CHAPTERS
OF ELT DISSERTATIONS WRITTEN BY
TURKISH AND ANGLOPHONE RESEARCHERS**

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Doctoral Dissertation

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T.C.
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**İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ALANINDA TÜRK VE ANGLOPHONE
ARAŞTIRMACILAR TARAFINDAN YAZILAN DOKTORA TEZLERİNİN SONUÇ
BÖLÜMLERİ ÜZERİNE BİR TÜR ANALİZİ**

(A Genre Analysis of the Final Chapters of ELT Dissertations Written by Turkish and
Anglophone Researchers)

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ÖZ

DOKTORA TEZİ

İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ALANINDA TÜRK VE ANGLOPHONE ARAŞTIRMACILAR TARAFINDAN YAZILAN DOKTORA TEZLERİNİN SONUÇ BÖLÜMLERİ ÜZERİNE BİR TÜR ANALİZİ

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Amaç: Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türk ve Anglophone araştırmacılar tarafından İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanında İngilizce olarak yazılmış doktora tezlerinin sonuç bölümlerinin yapısal ve dilsel özellikleri açısından incelenmesidir. Çalışma, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanındaki doktora tezlerinin sonuç bölümlerini (Bulgu, Tartışma, Sonuç) aşama ve üstsöylem analizleri ile incelemeyi amaçlamıştır. Ayrıca, farklı dillere sahip araştırmacıların akademik yazımlarına dair karşılaştırmalı bilgiye ulaşmayı hedeflemiştir.

Yöntem: Çalışmanın metodu, söylem analizidir. Analiz şekli ise tür analizidir ve iki teknik kullanılmıştır: aşama analizi ve üstsöylem analizi. Çalışmanın örneklemini, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanındaki 50 doktora tezinden alınan 106 bölüm oluşturmaktadır. Veriler nitel olarak elde edilmiştir. İlk olarak, metinler Yang ve Allison'ın (2003) modeli ve Hyland ve Tse'nin (2004) sınıflandırması esas alınarak el ile kodlanmış, daha sonra betimsel ve kestirimsel istatistik süreci uygulanmıştır. Daha iyi bir açıklama için ayrıca analiz edilen metinlerden alıntılara yer verilmiştir.

Bulgular: Grupların, tezlerindeki sonuç bölümlerinin genel yapısı ve bu bölümlerde kullandıkları üstsöylem öğeleri açısından benzer oldukları görülmüştür. Bununla birlikte, belirli aşama ve üstsöylem öğelerinin kullanımında iki grup arasında farklılıklar bulunmuştur. Gruplar arasındaki benzerlikler, araştırmacıların sözkonusu tür ile ilgili akademik yazım kuralları hakkında bilgi sahibi olduklarını ve bu kuralları tezlerinde yaygın olarak uyguladıklarını göstermektedir. Farklılıklar ise araştırmacıların farklı ana dillere sahip olmalarıyla açıklanabilir. Diller ve kültürler yazma ilke ve kuralları açısından çeşitlilik gösterir ki bu da ikinci dilde yazmayı etkileyebilir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: söylem analizi, tür analizi, aşama analizi, üstsöylem analizi, İngiliz dili eğitimi, doktora tezleri, akademik yazma

ABSTRACT

DOCTORAL DISSERTATION

A GENRE ANALYSIS OF THE FINAL CHAPTERS OF ELT DISSERTATIONS WRITTEN BY TURKISH AND ANGLOPHONE RESEARCHERS

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Purpose: The purpose of this study was to investigate the structural and linguistic features of the final chapters of ELT dissertations written in English by Turkish and Anglophone researchers. The study aimed at analysing the final chapters (i.e., Results, Discussion, Conclusion) of ELT dissertations through move and metadiscourse analyses. The study was also to reach comparative data as to the academic writing practices of researchers with different language backgrounds.

Method: Discourse analysis was the method of the study. The form of the analysis was genre analysis and two techniques were used: move analysis and metadiscourse analysis. The corpus consisted of 106 final sections from 50 ELT dissertations and the data were collected qualitatively. First, elements were coded manually, based on Yang and Allison's (2003) model and Hyland and Tse's (2004) taxonomy. Then, descriptive and inferential statistics were performed. For a better description, excerpts from the analysed texts were presented.

Result: The groups were similar in the overall structure of their final chapters and metadiscourse markers they used in these chapters. However, there were differences between the two corpora in the use of specific moves and metadiscourse elements. The similarities between the groups indicate that the researchers are familiar with the academic writing conventions related to the genre and apply them widely in their dissertations. The differences, on the other hand, can be attributed to the fact that the researchers differed in their first languages. Languages and cultures differ in their rhetorical conventions and norms which may interfere with L2 writing.

Keywords: discourse analysis, genre analysis, move analysis, metadiscourse analysis, English language teaching, doctoral dissertations, academic writing

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ABBREVIATIONS

EAP	: English for Academic Purposes
EFL	: English as a Foreign Language
ELT	: English Language Teaching
ESL	: English as a Second Language
ESP	: English for Specific Purposes
L1	: First Language
L2	: Target Language /Second Language
MA	: Master
NR	: New Rhetoric
PhD	: Doctor of Philosophy
SFL	: Systemic Functional Linguistics
SPSS	: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

Background of the Study

In the last four decades, there has been a growing interest into the concept of genre. As a subject matter of genre analysis and a tool for language instruction, it has received extensive attention in the text analysis literature. The identification of academic writing conventions specific for each genre; structural and linguistic elements that make genres different from each other; linguistic, disciplinary and cultural effects on generic features; and effects of genre-based teaching on both language learning and academic writing have been investigated widely. However, there are several perspectives to the concept of genre and different approaches to genre analysis. Therefore, even the most studied genres may need further research and any genre-based investigation primarily needs a clear definition of the concept of genre and the type of genre analysis to be conducted.

In ESP tradition, genre can basically be defined as the collection of communicative events –written, spoken, audial, or visual—with a certain communicative purpose reflected in the structural and linguistic features. Books, research articles, periodicals, letters, dissertations, lectures, and posters are all different kinds of genres. Holmes (1997) defines the term genre as follows:

The essence of the concept of genre, as now used in applied linguistics, ESP and rhetoric, is an emphasis on the primacy of communicative purpose and the ways in which communicative needs shape or influence both surface form and deeper rhetorical structures. ... A genre then can be briefly defined as a class of texts characterized by a specific communicative function that tends to produce distinctive structural patterns (p. 322).

Genres have their distinguishing structures based on their individual communicative purposes and they differ in their conventional forms. For instance, conventions for research reports, theses, and business letters are all different. Even within the same genre, there may be variations because of factors such as context, discipline, or language. These genre-specific conventions, however, are recognized by the members of the related discourse communities because they are regularized. Tardy (2011) explains:

Genres are typified forms of discourse—that is, forms that arise when responses to a specific need or exigence become regularized. With repeated use, responses

begin to conform to prior uses until the shape of these responses become expected by users. Genres, then, are recognizable by members of a social group (p. 54).

Genre analysis, then, is the type of analysis which particularly focuses on these regular structures that distinguish genres from each other. How the text is organized structurally and linguistically is the basic matter in genre analysis although the procedures of this analysis can vary since approaches to genre and genre analysis vary in different traditions (i.e., Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics–SFL, English for Specific Purposes–ESP, and North American New Rhetoric–NR).

The literature on genre analysis has continuously been extended since the 1980s. To investigate the distinguishing features of genres, many researchers have conducted move-analysis which is based on the identification of several moves and steps employed in the texts (e.g., Swales, 1990; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Samraj, 2002; Yang & Allison, 2003), and many others have conducted metadiscourse analysis (e.g., Meyer, 1975; Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore, 1983a; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Adel, 2006) which is based on the identification of certain linguistic elements used by the text producers. In move analysis, first, the communicative purpose of the genre under investigation, influencing the schematic and linguistic features, is identified, and then moves and steps are determined. In ESP genre studies, a *move* is defined as a segment of text, which realizes a specific communicative purpose through one or more *steps* (Toprak, 2011). Nwogu (1991) defines the terms move and step as follows:

By the term “move” is meant a text segment made up of a bundle of linguistic features (lexical meanings, propositional meanings, illocutionary forces, etc.) which give the segment a uniform orientation and signal the content discourse in it. Each “move” is taken to embody a number of “Constituent Elements” or submoves which combine to constitute information in the move (p. 114).

In the related literature, the pioneering study was conducted by Swales in 1981. Analysing article introductions from different disciplines, Swales proposed a model with four moves. In 1990, however, upon the findings of research studies using this model (e.g., Crookes, 1986), Swales revised his model and offered a model of three moves, each of which has several steps. In this revised version, named *Create a Research Space (CaRS)*, the first move was for providing a rationale for the study, the second was for identifying a gap in the literature, and the third was for describing the present study. Following Swales’ (1990) study, move-analysis has received great attention and a large number of studies have concerned themselves with move-analysis. In terms of spoken genres, academic conferences and lectures have been studied commonly (e.g., Thompson, 1994; Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2003; Lee, 2009; Cheng, 2012; Shamsudin & Ebrahimi, 2013) although there also exist studies focusing on other genres such as PhD defenses (Mežek & Swales, 2016), EAP lessons (Lee, 2016), and thesis

presentations (Hu & Liu, 2018). Many of these studies have offered move-analysis models for the genres they studied. For instance, Thompson (1994) offered a two-move structure for lecture introductions and Cheng (2012) developed a framework with three stages for academic lecture closings. Such studies have not only provided data about the moves and steps taken in the spoken genres they focused on but also revealed how some variables such as class-size may affect the rhetorical structure of the studied genres. In terms of written genres, however, research articles and theses/dissertations seem to be the most studied genres although the written genres which have been investigated range from letters of application, sales promotion letters, conference proposals, and law reports to business letters, medical case reports, and call for papers for academic conferences (e.g., Henry & Roseberry, 2001; Upton & Connor, 2001; Dos Santos, 2002; Badger, 2003; Vergaro, 2004; Ding, 2007; Hung, Chen, & Tsai, 2012; Yang, 2015; Halleck & Connor, 2006). Among the studies analysing research articles and theses/dissertations, many studies have focused on a single section/chapter, especially introductions (e.g., Anthony, 1999; Samraj, 2002; Lakic, 1997; Ozturk, 2007; Hirano, 2009; Loi, 2010; Del Saz Rubio, 2011; Sheldon, 2011; Joseph, Lim, & Nor, 2014; Martín & Pérez, 2014; Wang & Yang, 2015). Though being fewer in number than those focusing on introductory sections, there also exist studies on the other sections of research articles. In many of these studies, all sections of the research studies with IMRD (Introduction, Method, Results, Discussion) structure have been investigated (e.g., Nwogu, 1997; Kanoksilapatham, 2005). In many others, however, specific sections have been focused on. Examples of this kind include the studies on abstracts (Salager-Meyer, 1990; Martín, 2003; Lorés, 2004; Ren & Li, 2011; Tanko, 2017), literature reviews (Kwan, 2006; Soler-Monreal, 2015), methods (Lim, 2006; Peacock, 2011; Cotos, Huffman, & Link, 2017), results (Thompson, 1993; Brett, 1994; Williams, 1999; Bruce, 2009; Lim, 2010), discussions (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Basturkmen, 2009, 2012; Le & Harrington, 2015; Liu & Buckingham, 2018), and conclusions (Bunton, 2005; Ebadi & Zamani, 2016; Soler-Monreal, 2016).

In general, these studies have identified common moves and steps in the genre they investigated. Many of them used previous models and showed the extent to which those models could explain the structure of their corpus whereas many others proposed new or modified move-analysis models. Among the most applied models for introductions is Swales' (1990) CaRS model. Using this model for texts from different disciplines and languages, several researchers discussed its applicability from several perspectives and many of them also offered modifications or discussed its limitations (e.g., Anthony, 1999; Samraj, 2002). Many other researchers, however, proposed new models. Brett's (1994) model for result sections; Hopkins

& Dudley-Evans's (1988), Dudley-Evans's (1994), and Holmes's (1997) models for discussion sections, for instance, are among the most referenced models in the literature. The seven-move model of Yang and Allison (2003) for the final sections has also been used widely in the move-analysis studies. This model covers all final sections (i.e., Results, Discussion, Conclusion, and Pedagogic Implications) and identifies several moves and steps for each of them. It shows that some moves are section-specific whereas some are common to all final sections.

Regardless of the models used, however, move-analysis studies commonly point to some variables, other than genre, which may affect the use of moves and steps in the given texts. Foremost among these variables are the discipline and the language of the texts analysed. Especially, cross-disciplinary and cross-linguistic studies (e.g., Bunton, 1998; Flowerdew, 2002; Martín, 2003; Samraj, 2008; Hirano, 2009; Loi, 2010; Sheldon, 2011; Peacock, 2011; Martin & Perez, 2014; Soler-Monreal, 2015) have emphasized that texts from different disciplines or written in different languages may differ in their moves and steps. As a result of these studies, not only rich data have been provided about the use of moves and steps in different genres but also disciplinary, cultural and linguistic effects on the use of moves and steps have been emphasized.

In addition to these move-based studies, genre analysis literature also includes studies devoted to the analysis of genres from a linguistic perspective. In these studies, another type of analysis, namely metadiscourse analysis, has been focused on. The term *metadiscourse*, which has also been called as *signalling* (Meyer, 1975), *non-topical material* (Lautamatti, 1978), *metatext and modalities* (Enkvist, 1978), *gambits* (Keller, 1979), and *metatalk* (Schiffrin, 1980), is commonly defined as “those aspects of the text which explicitly refer to the organization of the discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader” (Hyland, 1998a, p. 438).

While defining metadiscourse markers, a distinction is commonly made between propositional and non-propositional material, generally based on the three metafunctions of language—ideational, interpersonal, and textual—termed by linguist Halliday in 1960s. As stated by Hyland (2005), “the ideational function is the use of language to represent experience and ideas, the interpersonal function is the use of language to encode interaction, and the textual function is the use of language to organize the text coherently” (p. 26). Of these three metafunctions, those called textual and interpersonal constitute metadiscourse, and therefore the researchers studying metadiscourse tend to distinguish them from the function called ideational. Although there is no certain criterion to make such a distinction, researchers such as Vande Kopple (1985), and Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993) indicate that

metadiscourse markers are those which do not add propositional material but help the audience read or listen to the text.

The difficulty in identifying metadiscourse markers also stems from the multifunctionality of these markers. That is, these markers function in a text not only to organize the content but also to engage the audience and indicate the author's stance and perspective. Therefore, they can be realized through many linguistic devices from words and clauses to punctuation and typographical markers and, as a result, classified in many ways. Several classifications are based on the distinction of the three metafunctions mentioned above. However, depending on the approach followed (i.e., broad or narrow, also called integrative or non-integrative), many of them limit metadiscourse to only textual function while others also include interpersonal function.

Following the narrow approach and commonly using the term *metatext*, researchers such as Mauranen (1993a, 1993b) and Bunton (1999) offered classifications based on textual function. Broadening the scope of their classifications to the interpersonal function of metadiscourse, however, researchers such as Vande Kopple (1985), and Crismore et al. (1993) identified metadiscourse markers serving for two main functions: textual and interpersonal. Instead of these two categories, many studies with broad approach distinguish between interactive and interactional markers following Hyland and Tse (2004), who suggested that "all metadiscourse is interpersonal in that it takes account of the reader's knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs and it provides writers with an armoury of rhetorical appeals to achieve this" (p. 161). Both having an interpersonal function, "interactive resources help to guide the reader through the text, while interactional resources involve the reader collaboratively in the development of the text" (Thompson, 2001, p. 58). The taxonomy suggested by Hyland and Tse (2004) has been used widely in metadiscourse studies mainly because it clearly identifies the metadiscourse markers common to many studies (i.e., transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, code glosses, hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, self-mentions).

Regardless of the taxonomy they used, however, researchers (e.g., Valero-Garcés, 1996; Hyland, 1999a; Hyland, 2004a, 2007; Hyland & Tse, 2005; Ekoç, 2008; Mur-Dueñas, 2011; Çaylak, 2012; Kim & Lim, 2013; Cao & Hu, 2014; Yağız & Demir, 2014; Kawase, 2015; Geng & Wharton, 2016; Jiang & Hyland, 2017) investigate the use of metadiscourse in different genres, disciplines, languages and in the texts produced by students, professional writers, native and non-native language users. Like the researchers who make move-analysis, those who conduct metadiscourse analysis indicate similarities and differences between the uses of

metadiscourse in texts differing in their generic, disciplinary, or linguistic features. Many of them (e.g., Dahl, 2004; Burneikaitė, 2008; Lee & Casal, 2014) attribute the variations between the texts to the differences between *writer-oriented* and *reader-oriented* writing cultures, which are called *writer-responsible* and *reader-responsible* writing in the typology of Hinds (1987). The writing culture is considered important for academic writers since effective academic writing requires using the writing conventions appropriate to the target discourse community. In order that texts are perceived as coherent and convincing, text writers are required to meet the expectations of their readers (Mauranen, 1993b), and therefore they need to have the knowledge of the writing cultures of their readers.

Just as the use of metadiscourse is affected by writing cultures, text quality and comprehension are affected by the use of metadiscourse. Several studies have shown how texts may differ in their quality (e.g., Intaraprawat & Steffensen, 1995; Sanford, 2012; Uccelli, Dobbs, & Scott, 2013; Lee & Deakin, 2016) and comprehension (e.g., Meyer, Brandt, & Bluth, 1980; Perez & Macia, 2002; Kuhi, Asadollahfam, & Anbarian, 2014) because of the metadiscourse markers used. Based on the findings of such studies, metadiscourse teaching has received attention. The studies on how metadiscourse teaching may affect the writing (e.g., Steffensen & Cheng, 1996), reading (e.g., Jalififar & Shooshtari, 2011), speaking (e.g., Ahour & Entezari Maleki, 2014), and listening (e.g., Zare & Keivanloo-Shahrestanaki, 2017) have commonly revealed positive effects although these effects may vary in relation to some variables such as language proficiency (see Zarrati, Nambiar, & Maasum, 2014). As a result, metadiscourse teaching has been emphasized (e.g., Vande Koop, 1985, 2012; Hyland, 1999a; Ahour & Entezari Maleki, 2014; Crosthwaite & Jiang, 2017), and the reasons and ways to teach metadiscourse have been widely discussed. The discussions generally include the reasons and ways to teach metadiscourse. Among the main reasons come the contributions of the use of metadiscourse to the text itself, and the advantages of the awareness and use of metadiscourse markers for text producers, audiences and language learners. Additionally, materials and methods for metadiscourse instruction have been offered as in the studies conducted by Vande Koop (1985), Steffensen and Cheng (1996), Ergin (2013), and Hyland (2005). However, further research is needed to investigate how these suggestions can be realized in real classroom environments and to provide data about their strengths, weaknesses, and effectiveness.

In sum, the review of the related literature has shown that both move-analysis and metadiscourse analysis have been conducted widely in genre-based studies since the early 1980s. Using different analysis models and taxonomies, genres ranging from books, research articles, theses/dissertations, and letters to journals, reports, lectures, and conferences have been

analysed for the identification of their distinguishing structural and linguistic features. In spoken genres, lectures and conferences have been investigated more than other genres. In written genres, however, research articles have been studied widely, and introductory sections have received great attention. Also, linguistic, disciplinary, and cultural effects on generic features; and genre-based teaching for the improvement of both language learning and academic writing are among the issues investigated. However, further research is certainly needed since each genre can be analysed from different perspectives and with different approaches. The genre-based data obtained in research studies will contribute not only to the knowledge of the distinguishing features of genres but also to the teaching and learning of languages and academic writing. Thus, the present study, which is devoted to the genre analysis of doctoral dissertations, is expected to add data as to the structural and linguistic features of this genre. Conducting both move analysis and metadiscourse analysis and performing both qualitative and quantitative analyses, it aims to provide detailed data. Specifically, the study is concerned with the final chapters of the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers. With its focus on less investigated chapters and its corpus consisting of dissertations written by native and non-native speakers of English, it is to help the researchers writing in the field of ELT and contribute to the teaching and learning of this genre.

Statement of the Problem

Academic writing consists of various types of genres (e.g., books, research articles, theses, and dissertations). Each genre has its own writing conventions, and genre analysis serves for the identification of these conventions specific to each genre. The knowledge and application of these genre-specific conventions are of high importance mainly because “good writers are people who are better able to imagine how their readers will respond to their texts because they are familiar with the conventions and expectations which operate in particular settings” (Hyland, 2005, pp. 197-198).

Based on the importance of academic writing conventions, many research studies have been devoted to genre analysis. However, it seems that genre-based studies conducted since the 1980s have focused heavily on research articles rather than other genres. Sections of research articles written in different fields or languages have been analysed in terms of their structural and linguistic features. How researchers organize the sections of their articles, and which linguistic items they commonly use in each section have been investigated in these studies. Regarding the sections, it should be noted that the number of genre studies analysing the final sections of research studies is limited compared to those analysing introductory sections. Even in the studies of other genres (e.g., thesis/dissertations), introductory sections seem to be

focused more than final sections. Final sections of research studies and their organization are very important mainly because they summarize and discuss the results of the study, compare them with the results of previous literature and give way to further studies. However, these sections are difficult to write (Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2006) especially for novice researchers since they are not familiar with the academic writing conventions of the genre. Then, more research studies into the other genres than research articles and other sections than introductions are needed.

Moreover, most of the studies focusing on final sections have not included all but one or two of the final sections, commonly titled as Results, Discussion, Conclusion, and Implications. There seems to be limited number of studies (e.g., Yang & Allison, 2003) in the literature, devoted to the investigation of all final sections of the studies. These studies, however, have mostly been conducted in the fields other than ELT such as engineering, biochemistry, dentistry, applied linguistics, sociology (e.g., Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Holmes, 1997; Peacock, 2002; Basturkmen, 2012), and they have performed either structural or linguistic analysis. Although there are also studies in the literature, which include both types of analysis in the same study (e.g., Jiang & Hyland, 2017), these studies are not as common as those with only one type.

To fill this gap in the literature, this study will investigate both structural and linguistic features of the final chapters of doctoral dissertations written in the field of ELT. It will not focus on a specific but all final sections (i.e., Results, Discussion, Conclusion) in the selected dissertations and will conduct both move and metadiscourse analyses. The study will also be one of the comparative studies in the field with its corpus consisting of the dissertations written in English by Turkish and Anglophone researchers. It will examine how these groups differ in the employment of moves and metadiscourse markers in the final sections of their dissertations, and thus it will contribute to academic writing.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the structural and linguistic features of the final chapters of ELT dissertations written in English by Turkish and Anglophone researchers. Specifically, the study aimed at analysing the final chapters (i.e., Results, Discussion, Conclusion) of ELT dissertations through move and metadiscourse analyses. With its corpus consisting of two comparable corpora, the study was also to reach comparative data about the academic writing practices of researchers with different language backgrounds. The ultimate purpose of the study, however, was to extend the related literature and contribute to the understanding of the writing conventions of doctoral dissertations in the field of ELT. The

findings of the study are expected to lead higher awareness of the structural and linguistic organization of the final sections of ELT dissertations as regards how the content should be presented and which linguistic elements should be used or avoided. Therefore, the study also has pedagogical purposes.

Based on all these purposes, this study will address the following research questions:

- 1- What are the moves employed in the Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters of the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers?
- 2- Is there any statistically significant difference between the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the moves employed in Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters?
- 3- What are the metadiscourse markers employed in the Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters of the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers?
- 4- Is there any statistically significant difference between the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the metadiscourse markers employed in Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters?
- 5- What are the metadiscourse markers employed in each move of the Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters of the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers?
- 6- Is there any statistically significant difference between the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the metadiscourse markers employed in each move of Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters?

Significance of the Study

This study is mainly important for two reasons. First of all, it has a crucial role for the teaching and learning of academic writing. Since genre-based studies explore the rhetorical features of genres, they provide the knowledge of how to organize content and how to choose linguistic items appropriate for different genres. Consequently, they contribute to the teaching and learning of these genres. This study which will focus on an understudied genre, doctoral dissertations, will extend the knowledge as to the conventions of this genre and therefore contribute to both its understanding and teaching.

In addition to its pedagogical importance, this study has importance for the related literature. First of all, it will focus on the final chapters of ELT dissertations, on which there has been limited research in the literature. Secondly, it will not focus on a specific but all final

chapters (i.e., Results, Discussion, Conclusion) of these dissertations, which is also uncommon in the literature. Thirdly, in order to provide a detailed analysis of the texts, it will conduct both structural and linguistic analysis, and thus it will be among limited research studies that employ two types of analysis (i.e., move analysis and metadiscourse analysis) together. Finally, the corpus of the study, consisting of the dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers, will allow a comparative analysis of two groups and therefore will reveal comparative data about the features of dissertations written by researchers with different linguistic backgrounds.

Then, this comparative study will not only extend the literature in the field of genre-analysis and contribute to academic writing in the field of ELT but also provide insights into the structural and linguistic organization of Turkish and Anglophone dissertations and thus will have important pedagogical implications for the teaching of academic writing conventions in the genre of dissertations.

Limitations of the Study

Like most research studies, this study also has limitations that should be pointed out. First, the corpus was limited to 50 dissertations since the texts would be coded manually, and second, these dissertations were taken from a single discipline, ELT, since results may be affected by disciplinary variations. Therefore, the findings may not be generalized to all disciplines and all ELT dissertations.

Besides, only the dissertations with quantitative methodology were included in the study since studies with different research methodologies may differ in their rhetorical features. Thus, the findings of this study may not be generalized to dissertations with qualitative methods.

Another limitation is about data collection and analysis. Although the move-analysis model and metadiscourse taxonomy used for data collection were clear and reliable, and inter-rater agreement was obtained, the data were coded manually, and the coding was based on the personal decision of the coders. It is possible that different results may be reached in case different researchers would code the same texts.

In addition, the study only consisted of textual analysis. Interviews with the researchers who wrote the dissertations analysed in the study about their choices of structural and linguistic items in their texts may have provided more complete data.

Definition of Key Terms

English as a Second Language (ESL): “To learn English in a setting in which the language is necessary for everyday life or in a country in which English plays an important role in education, business, and government” (Richards & Schmith, 2010, p. 197).

English as a Foreign Language (EFL): “To learn English in a formal classroom setting, with limited or no opportunities for use outside the classroom, in a country in which English does not play an important role in internal communication” (Richards & Schmith, 2010, pp. 196-197).

Native language: “(Usually) the language which a person acquires in early childhood because it is spoken in the family and/or it is the language of the country where he or she is living” (Richards & Schmith, 2010, p. 386).

Non-native language (Foreign Language): “A language which is not the native language of large numbers of people in a particular country or region, is not used as a medium of instruction in schools, and is not widely used as a medium of communication in government, media, etc. Foreign languages are typically taught as school subjects for the purpose of communicating with foreigners or for reading printed materials in the language” (Richards & Schmith, 2010, pp. 224-225).

Native speaker: “A person who learns a language as a child and continues to use it fluently as a dominant language” (Richards & Schmith, 2010, p. 386).

Non-native speaker: “A language user for whom a language is not their first language” (Richards & Schmith, 2010, p. 397).

Anglophone: Someone who speaks English as a first language, especially in countries where two or more languages are spoken.

Discourse analysis: “Any study of language or, more specifically, text at a level above that of sentence” (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998, p. 87).

Genre : “A class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes” (Swales, 1990, p. 58).

Genre analysis: “The study of how language is used in a particular context. In the study of written texts genre analysis studies how writers conventionally sequence material to achieve particular purposes. This includes the identification of particular types of schema and how they are realized linguistically” (Richards & Schmith, 2010, p. 245).

Move: “A text segment made up of a bundle of linguistic features (lexical meanings, propositional meanings, illocutionary forces, etc.) which give the segment a uniform orientation and signal the content discourse in it” (Nwogu, 1991, p. 114).

Step: “Constituent Elements or submoves which combine to constitute information in the move” (Nwogu, 1991, p. 114).

Metadiscourse: “Those aspects of the text which explicitly refer to the organisation of the discourse or the writer’s stance towards either its content or the reader” (Hyland, 1998a, p. 438).

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review

Approaches to Genre

There has been a growing interest into the concept of genre since the 1980s. As a subject matter of genre analysis and a tool for L1 and L2 instruction, it has received extensive attention in the text analysis literature. The understanding of the term, however, requires an examination of the traditions in which it is defined since approaches to the concept vary in different traditions. Known as Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), English for Specific Purposes (ESP), and North American New Rhetoric (NR), main genre traditions differ in their approaches to genre and these differences are reflected in their genre terminology, analysis and pedagogy.

SFL, also called as Sydney School since it was developed by linguists in University of Sydney in Australia, is based on linguist Halliday's (1973) Systemic Functional Linguistics. In this view, language is a system used to achieve some communicative functions in certain contexts. Accordingly, the texts are connected to the contexts (i.e., situational and cultural) in which they are used. When texts are being produced, structural and linguistic choices are made and these choices are dependent on some elements. In terms of situational context, these elements are (1) the subject of the text (field), (2) the relationship between the participants (tenor) and (3) the kind of the text (mode). Linguistically, these elements are represented in the text as *ideational*, *interpersonal*, and *textual* material respectively, which Halliday calls *metafunctions of language*. In terms of cultural context, however, social purpose becomes the influencing factor. That is, texts are produced to achieve certain social purposes in the culture and these purposes influence the structural and linguistic choices of the language users. Then, "different genres are different ways of using language to achieve different culturally established tasks, and texts of different genres are texts which are achieving different purposes in the culture" (Eggins & Martin, 1997, p. 236). Differing in the purposes served, genres vary in their structural and linguistic properties. Therefore, the term genre refers to the texts similar in their structural and linguistic features.

As in SFL tradition, the notions of *context* and *purpose* are emphasized in the second tradition to genre, ESL. However, different from SFL, they are related to specific *discourse communities* which can simply be described as a group of people with certain goals to achieve.

Swales (1990) defines it as “a community that has a broadly agreed set of common (public) goals and has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members” (p. 25). Genres are related to discourse communities in that they consist of conventional forms recognized by the members of discourse communities and therefore enable the members to communicate each other effectively to achieve their goals. As cited in Deng, Chen, & Zhang (2014, p. 4):

Genre is a recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and mutually understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs. Most often it is highly structured and conventionalized with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form and functional value. These constraints, however, are often exploited by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognized purpose(s) (Bhatia, 1993, p. 13).

Then, it is the shared goals and communicative purposes of discourse communities that make genres different from other communicative events. Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) explain the difference as follows:

While a communicative event can be random or idiosyncratic, motivated by a unique, distinct purpose, a genre represents a class of communicative events that has formed in response to some shared set of communicative purposes. A genre, therefore, is a relatively stable class of linguistic and rhetorical “events” which members of a discourse community have typified in order to respond to and achieve shared communicative goals (p. 45).

The third approach to genre, New Rhetoric, also known as North American Genre Theory, differs from SFL and ESP in that it puts the emphasis foremost not on the linguistic forms or communicative purposes but on the *situational context* in which genre occurs (Hyon, 1996). By following the notion of *dialogism* (Bakhtin, 1986), it views genres as dynamic rather than as stable although they consist of regular and conventional forms (Hyland, 2004b). In this tradition, genres are recognized as “rhetorical responses to and reflections of the situations in which they are used” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 192), and they “embody socially established strategies for achieving purposes in rhetorical situations” (Coe, 2002, p. 198). Therefore, a detailed account of the situations in which genres occur and the role of genres in these situations are focused on. Flowerdew (2002) defines the situational context as “the purposes and functions of genres and the attitudes, beliefs, values and behaviours of the members of the discourse communities within which genres are situated” (p. 91). He argues that New Rhetoric approach can be classified as ‘nonlinguistic’ and the other two (i.e., SFL and ESP) as ‘linguistic’ because of their focal points. He explains:

ESP and Australian school take a linguistic approach, applying theories of functional grammar and discourse and concentrating on the lexico-grammatical and rhetorical realization of the communicative purposes embodied in a genre,

whereas New Rhetoric group is less interested in lexico-grammar and rhetorical structure and more focused on situational context (p. 91).

Such a categorization may give the impression that genre approaches focus on either linguistic or contextual elements. However, as noted by Flowerdew (2002), it does not mean that linguistic approaches ignore contextual elements and nonlinguistic approaches find the linguistic items unimportant. “The linguistic approach looks to the situational context to interpret the linguistic and discourse structures, whereas the New Rhetoric may look to the text to interpret the situational context” (Flowerdew, 2002, pp. 91-92). Carstens (2009) states that NR does not ignore the regularities in texts but just regard them in a different way, that is, “as evidence of how people respond to routine situations in ways that differ by culture and by community” (p. 83). According to the followers of this approach, “understanding genres involves not only describing their lexico-grammatical forms and rhetorical patterns but also investigating their social, cultural and institutional contexts” (p. 82). Similarly, it is argued that ESP has not only linguistic but also nonlinguistic aspects. Since it puts emphasis on both linguistic and contextual factors, it has been regarded as “a field that bridges linguistic and rhetorical traditions” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 41). Hyland (2004b) considers it eclectic and states that “Like NR, ESP employs notions of dialogism and contextual situatedness, but also draws on SFL understandings of text structure and, more sparingly, on SFL principles of pedagogy” (p. 44). He explains what makes ESP different from the other two positions by stating that it “is more linguistic than NR and more oriented to the role of social communities than SFL” (p. 44). Then, it can be concluded that as genre approaches differ in their perspectives to the concept of genre, they also differ in the level of emphasis they give to linguistic and contextual items. The categorization of these approaches as linguistic and nonlinguistic points to the difference in this level of emphasis rather than claiming that approaches are completely linguistic or contextual.

Genre terminology, analysis, and pedagogy.

Genre approaches are distinguishable by their perspectives on the concept of genre. Relating genres to communicative functions, SFL defines them “as staged, goal oriented social processes” (Martin, 2002, p. 56); associating them to discourse communities, ESP regards genres as communicative events (Swales, 1990); and putting much emphasis on situational context, NR describes genres as social and rhetorical actions (Miller, 1984). These differences in perspectives, which are commonly discussed in relation to the diverse aims and target populations of the genre approaches, are reflected in certain properties of the genre approaches. Among these properties are genre terminology, analysis and pedagogy.

In terms of terminology, SFL commonly uses the terms *genre* and *macro-genre*. Since it has initially targeted school-aged children and immigrant adults to improve their writing, it basically focuses on genres, such as *explanations*, *narratives*, *arguments* and *descriptions*, needed in school learning or public environments. These genres, also called as *pre-genres* or *instructional genres* (see Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010), can be specified as *elemental*, *curriculum* or *educational* genres (Carstens, 2009). To refer to more complex genres (e.g., a dissertation composed of genres such as explanation and discussion), however, the term *macro-genre* is used.

ESP differs from SFL in its target audience and accordingly in the genres it focuses on. It basically aims at helping advanced non-native speakers of English gain access to and participate in academic and professional discourse communities. Therefore, genres focused in the analyses of ESP are discipline-specific genres, consisting of *academic genres* (e.g., research articles, theses/dissertations, textbooks, conference abstracts) and *professional genres* (e.g., letters of application, legislative documents, medical texts, newspaper articles). Besides, compared to SFL, it seems to have a more varied genre terminology. Genre typologies in ESP tradition distinguish between *text types* and *text genres* (Biber, 1989; Paltridge, 2002), or *cognitive genres* and *social genres* (Bruce, 2005, 2008b). As defined by Bruce (2008a), the cognitive genre/text type (e.g., narrative, descriptive, argumentative) refers to “the overall cognitive orientation of a piece of writing in terms of its realization of a particular rhetorical purpose, something that is reflected in the way in which information is internally organized and related” (p. 8), whereas social genre/text genre (e.g., novels and academic articles) refers to “socially recognized constructs according to which whole texts are classified in terms of their overall social purpose” (p. 8). Biber (1988) states that text types “represent groupings of texts that are similar in their linguistic form irrespective of genre” (pp. 170-198). The reason why various terms such as social genre and cognitive genre, which are also called text genre or text type respectively, are commonly used for classifying genres is explained by Bruce (2008a) as follows:

Whole texts realizing different social genres (such as, for example, scientific reports) typically combine and frame a range of cognitive genres. ... However, some whole texts, such as, for example, instruction manuals, may be associated with a single cognitive genre by virtue of the fact that they have a single rhetorical purpose. It may be for this reason that there is considerable disagreement about terminology in the research literature. Thus, what is referred to here as social genre may be referred to in the related literature as either genre or text type (p. 9).

Regarding genre analysis, however, ESP and SFL have both comparable and different characteristics. Genre analyses in both approaches proceed from text to context. In SFL, each

genre is viewed to serve a purpose in culture and its genre analysis includes the schematic structure, described in terms of *stages*, and linguistic features of the text. Similarly, genre analysis in ESP consists of the structural organization, described in terms of *moves* and *steps*, and linguistic properties of these units. However, SFL is based on a linguistic theory and accordingly it has a linguistic approach to genre analysis whereas ESP is theoretically eclectic and tends to follow various approaches to texts, such as register analysis, rhetorical analysis, and genre analysis (Dudley-Evans, 2000). Nevertheless, researchers and theorists in both traditions typically begin their work by textual analysis. Commonly, extending their analyses by other methods such as interviews, they reach conclusions about the context in which genres occur (Johns, 2013). Such a process beginning with texts, however, differs the genre analyses in these traditions from those in the NR tradition. New Rhetoricians differ from Sydney School theorists and ESP researchers in their analyses because they “begin by studying the ‘context of use’, the cultures and situations in which texts from a genre are found, and then turn to how individuals and their spoken and written discourses are influenced by these cultures within a specific context” (Johns, 2013, p. 2). Since they place emphasis primarily on the context, their genre analysis primarily covers ethnographic rather than linguistic methods, serving for the description of the related context.

Like genre terminology and analysis, genre pedagogy also seems to be a matter of discussion among the approaches to genre. Typically, linguistic approaches tend to follow explicit/text-based teaching while rhetorical approaches prefer implicit/immersion-based teaching, and interactive approaches (e.g., Brazilian approach) synthesize different pedagogies (see Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). Among the three approaches to genre discussed above, NR has a strong commitment to immersion-based pedagogy. Since, in NR classes, focus is set on the interaction between situations and genres, immersion in these situations is believed necessary for the learning of genres. As summarized in Bawarshi and Reiff (2010), students in these classes begin with activities to explore the situation from which the genre emerges. By using ethnographic methods (e.g., interviews or observations), they try to get knowledge as to the place, time, occasion, and participants. Then, they analyse the genre in terms of its content and rhetorical patterns, which is followed by arguments about the relation between these patterns and context. Other two approaches, SFL and ESP, differ in their genre pedagogies from NR since they are in favour of explicit genre teaching. In SFL classes, *scaffolding* (see Vygotsky, 1978) is given importance, especially at the early stages of learning, and “the teaching-learning process is typically seen as a cycle which takes writers thorough modelling, joint negotiation, and independent construction” (Hyland, 2003, p. 26). In ESP, on the other hand, classes are mainly organized around the needs and interests of particular groups of learners. Activities in

these classes broadly include the introduction of the target discourse community and its communicative purposes, analysis of the organizational and linguistic features of the target genre, writing practices and independent writing. Belcher (2004) argues about the recognition of immersion in ESP classes and states that “most ESP theorists and practitioners, in fact, would not disagree that immersion is helpful, even essential to target discourse expertise. ... For learners faced with linguistic and literacy barriers, however, ESP proponents contend that immersion is not enough” (p. 171). Given that ESP has been influenced both linguistic and rhetorical approaches, such an argument seems reasonable. However, Cheng (2006) urges caution and says that “the different envisioning of genre, target student populations, instructional contexts, and the expected teacher/student roles makes the applicability of theories of learning from the other two schools to ESP genre-based teaching an open empirical question, rather than a given” (p. 84).

With regard to the genre teaching in linguistic tradition, Hyland (2004) argues that “beginning with the purposes for communicating and then moving into the features of a text that can express these purposes, teachers can help students to distinguish between different genres and to write them more effectively” (p. 31). Supportively, many research studies (e.g., Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Pang, 2002; Yasuda, 2011; Huang, 2014; Pessoa, Mitchell, & Miller, 2018) reveal the contributions of explicit genre pedagogy on the learning of genres. However, the critics (e.g., Benesch, 1993; Cheng, 2006; Pennycook, 1997; Freedman, 1993) discuss the implications of explicit genre pedagogy from several perspectives. It is argued that “such approaches are often subject to a pedagogy of accommodation, prescriptiveness, and genre competence rather than genre performance” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, pp. 51-52). As cited in Hammond and Macken-Horarik (1999), the genre model with “its emphasis on the direct transmission of text types does not necessarily lead on to a critical reappraisal of that disciplinary corpus, its field or its related institutions, but rather may lend itself to an uncritical reproduction of discipline” (Luke, 1996, p. 314). Questioning the sufficiency of the knowledge of genre conventions for effective genre performance, the critics offer a more critical and implicit genre pedagogy.

Despite accepting the possible negative consequences of ‘static and decontextualized pedagogy’, Hyland (2003) argues against these views and states that there is nothing prescriptive in a genre approach. In terms of its prescriptiveness, he finds the teaching of discourse no more prescriptive than the “description of a clause, or even of stages in a writing process” (p. 27). While discussing the classroom applications of New Rhetoricians, Hyland (2004b) indicates that the proponents of this approach reject the teachability of genres for two

reasons. First of all, they assume that genres are flexible not static entities, and this changing nature of genres means that genres are too flexible to be taught explicitly in classrooms. Secondly, they think that the classroom provides an inauthentic context for genre teaching because co-participation in community activities is required in order to learn how to write. According to them, genres have their true meaning in the contexts they occur and therefore they cannot be learned outside the community in which they are used. Otherwise, they become artifacts rather than resources for communication and even their teaching could be harmful as students could use genre conventions inappropriately. In response to these NR view, Hyland (2004b) comments:

I think, it would be a mistake to overestimate the flexibility of genres and constraints this places on teachability. After all, genres change relatively slowly while the extent to which individuals are able to manipulate established forms is relatively inhibited. If teachers had to wait for knowledge and practices to stabilize before they could be taught, then a great deal of what is taught in the science and technology curriculum would be out of bounds (p. 40).

To conclude, there exist differences between linguistic and rhetorical genre approaches in terms of their genre pedagogies. The main difference seems to be in their preferences for explicit or implicit teaching pedagogies. Since rhetorical approaches consider genres as strategies rather than regularities and give the priority to the contexts surrounding genres rather than their linguistic features, they advocate for implicit, critical and immersion-based genre teaching methods. These approaches “do not focus so much on the acquisition of a particular genre as they do on the development of a rhetorical awareness that can transfer and be applied to various genres and their context of use” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, pp. 196-197). In SFL and ESP, on the other hand, the primary focus is on the texts although context is also given importance. The similarities of texts in terms of their structural and linguistic features or communicative purposes are taken as criteria to distinguish between genres. Therefore, explicit teaching of these features and purposes is believed to help learners to write and communicate effectively in the given genres.

Genre Analysis in ESP

The concept of genre in ESP is broadly defined as the collection of communicative events—written, spoken, audial, or visual—with a certain communicative purpose reflected in the structural and linguistic features. Novels, research articles, journals, letters, dissertations, and posters, for example, are different kinds of genres and each of them has its own communicative purpose and specific patterns, the identification of which is the main concern of ESP genre analysis.

ESP defines genre with an emphasis on the *communicative purpose* and how it is related to rhetorical structures. Holmes (1997) defines the term “as a class of texts characterized by a specific communicative function that tends to produce distinctive structural patterns” (p. 322). Similarly, in his definition of genre, Swales (1990) accentuates communicative purpose. By explaining how it is related to the structure, content and style of the texts, he defines:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. The purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action (p. 58).

Thus, many ESP researchers indicate communicative purpose as the main distinctive feature of genres. It is considered by Swales (1990) as the prime determinant of membership of a genre and seen by Bhatia (1993) as the most privileged criterion for the identification of genres (Bruce, 2008a, p. 29). Accordingly, genre analysis in ESP commonly begins with the communicative purpose pursued by the members of the related discourse community (i.e., a group people with shared goals to achieve). Then comes the analysis and interpretation of the structural and linguistic features serving for the achievement of this communicative purpose. Such an analysis is usually made in a move-step format, first offered by Swales (1981, 1990). A move can simply be defined as a part of a text which can be subdivided into steps (i.e., strategies used as realizing the move). Achieving a particular communicative function, each move contributes to the overall purpose of the genre. “Decisions about the classification of the moves are made on the basis of linguistic evidence, comprehension of the text and understanding of the expectations that both the general academic community and the particular discourse community have of the text” (Dudley-Evans, 1994, p. 226). The identification of the moves and steps, however, is followed by the analysis of lexico-grammatical features with which those moves and steps are associated. During the analysis process, methods such as interviews can also be included to provide an ethnographic perspective (see Connor, 2000; Flowerdew & Wan, 2006; Lim, 2006; Lim, Loi, Hashim, & Liu, 2015; Samraj, 2008; Bruce, 2009; Yang, 2015; Lee, 2016; Lim, 2017). Procedurally, it is common that genre analysis within ESP proceeds “from identifying purpose to analysing a genre’s rhetorical moves and how these moves are carried out textually and linguistically” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 48). There is a general tendency to move from the macrostructure of the text towards its microstructure. However, Paltridge (2011) reminds that there exists no certain sequence to genre analysis. That is, genre analysis can begin with either the investigation of the structural and linguistic patterns

or the examination of the context of the text. Depending on the aim of the researcher, *text-first* or *context-first* approach to the analysis of a particular genre can be followed.

To summarize, genre analysis in ESP aims to identify the structural patterns of a given genre in terms of a series of moves and steps based on the idea that genres are identifiable by their organizational and linguistic features. Focusing typically on academic and professional genres, it deals with the communicative purposes and rhetorical structures of discipline-specific genres and therefore is defined as “the study of situated linguistic behaviour in institutionalized academic and professional settings” (Bhatia, 1996, p. 40). Bhatia (2002) explains:

Analysing genre means investigating instances of conventionalised or institutionalised textual artefacts in the context of specific institutional and disciplinary practices, procedures and cultures in order to understand how members of specific discourse communities construct, interpret and use these genres to achieve their community goals and why they write them the way they do (p. 6).

Referencing to Bhatia (1993), Henry and Roseberry (2001) note that genre analysis mainly aims at identifying “the moves and strategies of a genre, the allowable order of the moves, and the key linguistic features. The next step is to explain why these features were chosen by expert users of the genre to achieve their communicative purpose” (p. 154). Such an analysis, first of all, informs the text producers and audiences about the features of the genre they use and consequently contributes to the organization of the texts written and understanding of the texts read or listened to. Secondly, it shows how genres are used by the members of different discourse communities and thus helps text producers organize their texts in a way that will enable them to participate in the target discourse community and communicate with its members effectively. Thirdly, it contributes to the teaching and learning of writing in academic and research settings and makes crucial contributions to pedagogy. It is basically for these reasons that related literature has continuously been extended since the 1980s. Methodologically, many studies (e.g., Swales, 1990; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Samraj, 2002; Yang & Allison, 2003) have made move-analysis which is based on the identification of several moves and steps employed in texts. In addition to these move-based studies, many other studies have been devoted to the analysis of genres from a linguistic perspective. In these studies (e.g., Vande Kopple, 1985; Bunton, 1999; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Adel, 2006), another type of analysis, called metadiscourse analysis, has been focused on. The following sections provide information about these two types of genre analyses: move analysis and metadiscourse analysis.

Move analysis.

Move analysis which has received extensive attention in the last forty years is a type of genre study, which is based on the investigation of the rhetorical organization of texts. Its basic tenet is that “a text within a genre usually follows a typical structural pattern or organization, consisting of a series of moves sequenced in a particular order” (Kanoksilapatham, 2015, p. 75). It aims to identify the rhetorical features of particular genres in terms of moves taken to organize the text and steps used to realize these moves.

According to move-based approach to genre analysis, genres vary in their communicative purposes and therefore in their organizational features. In spite of these variations, however, each genre has a typical structure which can be explained in terms of moves and steps identified by the members of the related discourse community. In ESP genre studies, a move is defined as a segment of text, which realizes a specific communicative purpose through one or more steps (Toprak, 2011). The terms *move* and *step* are defined by Nwogu (1991) as follows:

By the term “move” is meant a text segment made up of a bundle of linguistic features (lexical meanings, propositional meanings, illocutionary forces, etc.) which gave the segment a uniform orientation and signal the content discourse in it. Each “move” is taken to embody a number of “Constituent Elements” or submoves which combine to constitute information in the move (p. 114).

Move analysis is, then, the identification of communicative moves employed in the texts. It typically begins with the identification of the communicative purpose of the genre under investigation, which influences the schematic and linguistic features. Then, moves and steps are determined. In such a kind of analysis, sample texts are analysed to find out how writers/speakers organize and sequence their texts, and this is usually accomplished through models developed for move-analysis.

Move analysis models.

Many genre-based studies (e.g., Swales, 1981, 1990; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Samraj, 2002; Yang & Allison, 2003) have provided move-analysis models to investigate the organizational features of texts. The pioneering model was developed by Swales in 1981. Based on the analysis of 48 research article introductions from the fields of physics, biology/medicine, and social sciences, Swales proposed a genre analysis model including four moves which could further be subdivided: *Establishing the field*, *Summarizing the previous research*, *Preparing for present research*, and *Introducing present research*. In 1990, upon the findings of research studies applying the model to texts from different fields (e.g., Crookes, 1986), Swales came up with the revised version of his 1981 model. In this model, named *Create*

a *Research Space (CaRS)*, the moves were reduced from four to three and Move 3 was extended to include a further concluding step in which the remaining parts of the paper are explained (Swales, 2011). According to this revised version, a research introduction typically consists of three moves (i.e., Establishing a territory, Establishing a niche, and Occupying the niche), each of which is subdivided into several steps which can be compulsory or optional.

In the first move, a rationale for the study is provided by indicating how the research area is significant and interesting. Example sentences include “Recently, there has been growing interest in ...”, “Knowledge of ... has a great importance for ...”, and “Many recent studies have focused on ...” In the second move, however, a gap in the related literature is identified or questions are raised. By using sentences such as “Little is, however, known about ...”, “However, it remains unclear whether ...”, “Although considerable research has been devoted to ..., rather less attention has been paid to ...”, it is shown that the related research area has limitations and weaknesses. This second move, which is commonly signalled by words such as *however*, *nevertheless*, *but*, and *yet*, is followed by Move 3 in which the present study is described in terms of its purpose and main features. In this move, how the gap or the questions stated in the previous move are planned to be filled or answered is specified. Example sentences to this last move include, “The aim of the present paper is to give ...”, “This paper reports on the results obtained ...” and “This study was designed to evaluate ...” (Swales & Feak, 2004, pp. 250-263). All these moves and steps are given below:

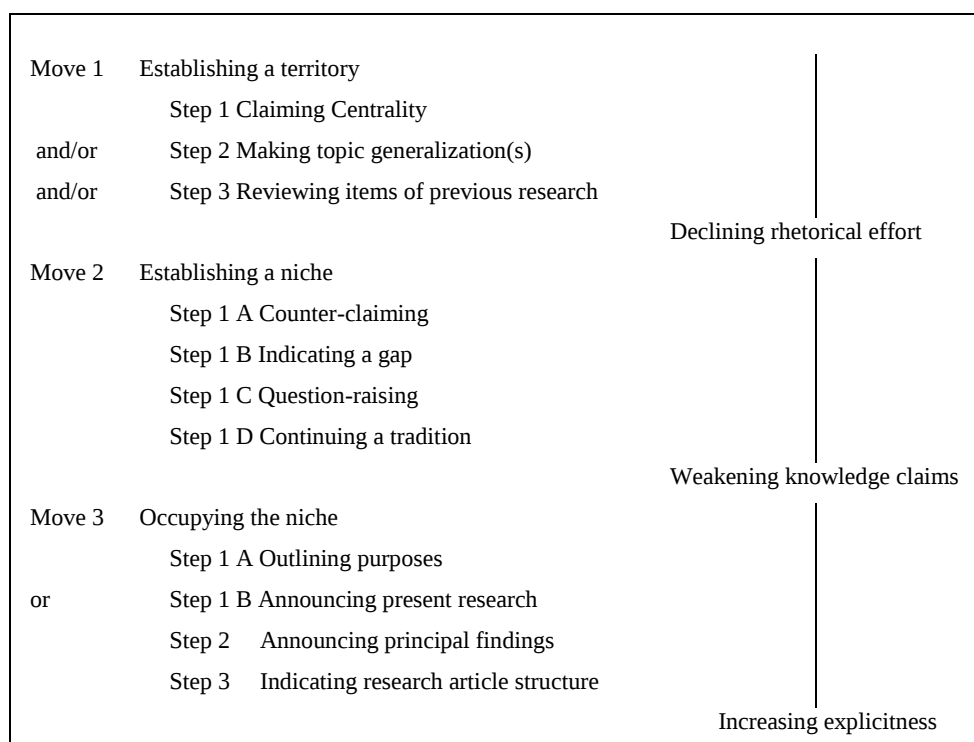


Figure 1. Swales’ Create a Research Space (CaRS) model

This model has been used by many researchers in their genre analyses consisting of different disciplines and languages. As a result of their analyses, researchers discussed its applicability from several perspectives and many of them offered modifications to the model. For instance, Anthony (1999) applied the model to research article introductions in the field of computer engineering and found it inadequate to account for certain features although it was effective to express the main framework of the texts. As the limitations of the model, he indicated the weak definitions of individual steps and lack of a step for evaluating the research. Applying the model to two related fields, Wildlife Behaviour and Conservation Biology, Samraj (2002) also found some limitations of the model such as the difficulty in distinguishing between the second and third steps of the Move 1. She offered a modified version of the model and indicated the need for a greater degree of embedding in the Swales' model in order that it can express the structures of the analysed research articles.

Criticisms for the model also covered the issues of *clearness* and *objectivity*. It has been argued that since moves are determined according to the personal judgements of the analysts rather than explicit rules, the outcome is rather subjective (Kanoksilapatham, 2005). Also, since the identification and classification of the moves are highly context dependent and usually done manually, it is very meticulous and time consuming, which causes studies to consist of a small sample size (Perez-Llantada, 2015). As a response to the questions about the validation of analysis, Dudley-Evans (1994) argues about two approaches. The first approach is to obtain inter-rater agreement, as achieved in Crookes (1986), and the second is to check the data with another specialist from the field and to compare the results with the analysis of other types, as achieved by himself. About the classification of moves, on the other hand, he states that decisions "are made on the basis of linguistic evidence, comprehension of the text and understanding of the expectations that both the general academic community and the particular discourse community have of the text" (p. 226).

In spite of possible factors which can reduce the reliability/validity of the data and limit the generalizability of the results, move-based studies which follow the Swalesian approach to genre analysis have provided valuable data about the organizational features of a diverse range of academic and professional genres. Therefore, inspired by Swales, many researchers have proposed move-analysis models and investigated the way texts are organized in different genres. In terms of spoken genres, it seems that models for the analysis of academic conferences and lectures are common although there also exist models for other genres such as PhD defences (Mežek & Swales, 2016) and EAP lessons (Lee, 2016). These models serve to analyse the whole genre or a certain part of it in a discipline-specific or cross-disciplinary way. In the early 1980s,

for instance, Dubois (1980) studied the generic structure of biomedical presentations and offered a model consisting of two parts (i.e., Listener orientation and Content orientation) for their introductions. In the early 1990s, however, Thompson (1994) studied the introduction sections of lectures from various disciplines and offered a clear framework with two functions (i.e., Setting up lecture framework and Putting topic in context), each of which consists of several sub-elements such as *Announcing topic*, *Indicating scope*, and *Showing importance/relevance of topic*. This model has been referenced by many analysts of spoken genres. For instance, consulting this framework and two other models (i.e., Dubois, 1980; Swales, 1990), Carter-Thomas and Rowley-Jolivet (2003) analysed scientific conference presentations in the disciplines of geology, medicine and physics. Their model included elements from the frameworks they made references and consisted of three moves (i.e., Setting up the framework, Contextualizing the topic, and Research rationale) with several steps. Similarly, using the Swales' move-analysis framework and functions found by Thompson (1994), Lee (2009) studied academic lecture introductions with an emphasis on class size and he offered a three-move framework (i.e., Warming up, Setting up the lecture framework, and Putting the topic in context). This framework was referenced by Shamsudin and Ebrahimi (2013) in their study into the engineering lecture introductions. They found the same moves in the Lee's model but extended it by adding a few new steps (e.g., Announcing the start of the lecture, and Reviewing earlier lectures). Also, just as Lee (2009), Cheng (2012) studied the effect of class size on the rhetorical features of academic lectures but she focused on lecture closings. She developed a framework with three stages (i.e., Pre-ending, Ending, and Post-ending) and 15 strategies (e.g., Indicating the end of lecture, Answering students questions, and Calling for attention).

In terms of the analysis of written genres, there also exist several models to identify the rhetorical features with a move-based approach. In many studies, all sections of the research papers with *IMRD* (Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion) structure have been investigated (e.g., Nwogu, 1997; Kanoksilapatham, 2005). In many others, however, specific sections have been focused on. Examples of this kind include the studies on Introduction (e.g., Swales, 1981), Method (e.g., Martínez, 2003), Results (e.g., Brett, 1994), Discussion (e.g., Dudley-Evans, 1994), and Conclusion (e.g., Yang & Allison, 2003). Among these studies, although introductory sections have received extensive attention, final sections (i.e., Results, Discussion, and Conclusion) have also been investigated. Nwogu's (1997) two-move structure (i.e., Indicating consistent observation and Indicating non-consistent observation), and Brett's (1994) three-move structure (i.e., Metatextual, Presentation, and Comment) for the results sections are among these studies. For the discussion section, the study of Hopkins and Dudley-

Evans (1988), which analysed MA dissertations in Biology and articles on Irrigation and Drainage, has an important place in the literature. In this model, an eleven-move structure was proposed for the discussion sections: *Background Information*, *Statement of Result*, *(Un)expected Outcome*, *Reference to Previous Research (Comparison)*, *Explanation of Unsatisfactory Result*, *Exemplification*, *Deduction*, *Hypothesis*, *Reference to Previous Research (Support)*, *Recommendation*, and *Justification*.

Many of the following studies have based their models for discussion section on this model. Swales (1990) suggested a model which includes slightly different moves than those proposed by Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988). In his model, eight moves, three of which were regarded compulsory, were identified: *Background Information*, *Statement of Result*, *(Un)expected Outcome*, *Reference to Previous Research*, *Explanation*, *Exemplification*, *Deduction and Hypothesis*, *Recommendation*. Another study (Holmes, 1997) which analysed 30 research article discussion sections from history, political science and sociology, also presented a model which seems to be a modified version of that of Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988). This model of Holmes (1997) included the moves of *Background Information*, *Statement of Result*, *(Un)expected Outcome*, *Reference to Previous Research*, *Explanation of Unsatisfactory Result*, *Generalization*, *Recommendation*, *Outlining Parallel or Subsequent Developments*.

Many other studies, however, proposed different moves and steps than those mentioned above. For instance, the model in the study of Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), which relates the structure of discussion section to that of introduction, included a three-move structure which reverses the moves given in the CaRS model: *Occupying a Niche*, *(Re)establishing the Niche*, *Establishing additional territory* (Allison, 2002, p. 63). According to Yang and Allison (2003), the first of these moves is typically a statement of principal findings, the second is a series of statements including the comparison of the present results to previous literature and the third is about the implications of the study and directions for further research. Swales and Feak (1994) who emphasized the variation in the discussion sections, however, argued that discussion sections generally have three moves: *Consolidate research space*, *Limitations*, and *Further research*. Similarly, Nwogu (1997) provided a three-move structure and identified the following moves: *Highlighting overall research outcome*, *Explaining specific research outcome*, *Stating research conclusions*.

Although there are several models in the literature, like those mentioned above, especially two models, except for that of Swales (1990), have been used widely for the analysis of the final sections of the studies. These are the nine-move model of Dudley-Evans (1994) and

seven-move model of Yang and Allison (2003). In the former, a three-part framework (i.e., Introduction, Evaluation, Conclusion) is suggested to the discussion section, the main part of which includes a nine-move sequence (i.e., Information move, Statement of Result, Finding, (Un)expected outcome, Reference to Previous Research, Explanation, Claim, Limitation, and Recommendation). In the latter study, however, a seven-move structure (i.e., Background information, Reporting results, Summarizing results, Commenting on results, Summarizing the study, Evaluating the study, and Deductions from the research) which is based on the previous frameworks is proposed. These two models are considered preferable mainly because they are clear and comprehensible. The model of Dudley-Evans (1994) gives a full description of the moves employed in the research article discussion sections (Peacock, 2002). The model of Yang and Allison (2003), however, is an expanded and modified version of some other models (Nodoushan & Khakbaz, 2011) and it is a detailed model which investigated all the final sections together. In this model, Results, Discussion, Conclusion, and Pedagogic Implication sections consist of several moves and steps. Through the use of these moves and steps, the results of the study are presented, interpreted and summarized. Also, pedagogical issues are dealt with and suggestions for further research are made. In the model, the moves employed for summarizing and evaluating the study and for making deductions from the research are common to all the concluding sections although some of these moves may differ in their steps. Unlike these common moves, however, the initial moves differ among the sections. Result sections begin with a move providing preparatory information for presenting the research results; Discussion sections initially give background information about the main points such as research questions, aims and purposes, theoretical or methodological information; and Conclusion and Pedagogic Implication sections make a beginning with a summary of the study.

To conclude, in the genre-analysis literature, there are several models with a move-step format, which serve for the analysis of both spoken and written genres. The common genres for which models have been offered, however, are academic conferences and lectures, as spoken genres; and research articles and theses/dissertations, as written genres. For the analysis of these genres, many studies have offered whole-genre or section-specific models, following the pioneering study of Swales (1990). These models, including the modified versions of the CaRS model, have commonly provided moves and steps for introductory sections. Many models, however, have been offered for the sections or chapters other than introductions. In general, all these models have served for the analysis of the structural organization of different types of texts, and studies based on these models have shown the applicability of the move-step analysis in different genres.

Research studies on move analysis.

Within ESP genre studies, move analysis has received extensive attention since the early 1980s. Preceded by quantitative studies on the linguistic features of certain registers, it emerged as a result of an interest into the rhetorical organization of texts with an emphasis on the communicative purposes and their effects (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). Currently, many genre analysts follow move-based approach to investigate the schematic structure of texts from different genres. Many of these studies propose move-step models for genre analysis and many others investigate the moves and steps in texts, commonly cross-disciplinary or cross-linguistically, using the existing models offered in earlier studies.

The pioneering study with a move-based approach to genre analysis is that of Swales (1990). In his work on research article genre, he studied the organization of moves and steps employed in the introduction sections of research articles, based on a model which he developed in 1981 and then revised considering the findings of subsequent research. In the model named Creating a Research Space (CaRS) model, he identified three main moves (i.e., Establishing a territory, Establishing a niche, Occupying a niche), each of which has its own steps with different functions. As a result of his analysis, Swales (1990) found that disciplines may differ from each other in terms of their moves and steps although there may exist many moves and steps common to all disciplines. The disciplinary differences, however, have lead many researchers (e.g., Anthony, 1999) to examine how well CaRS model can be applied to different fields. According to the findings of these studies, modifications to the model were offered for a complete explanation of the structures in the analysed texts and as a result modified versions of the CaRS model (e.g., Samraj, 2002) were proposed. Additionally, inspired by Swales, many researchers developed move-analysis models for the investigation of written genres (e.g., Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Brett, 1994; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Holmes, 1997; Nwogu, 1997; Yang & Allison, 2003) and spoken genres (e.g., Thompson, 1994; Carter-Thomas & Rowley-Jolivet, 2003; Lee, 2009; 2016; Cheng, 2012; Huang & Liu, 2018).

Following Swalesian approach to analysis, several studies have concerned themselves with move-analysis of different genres. In these studies, the rhetorical features of a variety of academic and professional genres (e.g., research articles, theses/dissertations, lectures, letters of application) have been examined. Although written genres have been investigated commonly, spoken genres have also been analysed. Mežek & Swales (2016), for instance, studied PhD defences, Chang and Huang (2015) explored TED talks and Lee (2016) analysed EAP lessons. In a recent study, Hu and Liu (2018) analysed three-minute thesis presentations

from four disciplines and proposed a model consisting of eight moves. They stated that presentations in hard and soft disciplines differed in the use of three moves (i.e., Framework, Methods, and Results). Hard discipline presentations employed more Methods but less Framework move than those in soft-disciplines, and pure discipline presentations included more Results move than their applied counterparts.

Move-based analyses of spoken genres commonly focus on the rhetorical features of conferences and lectures. In 1994, Thompson studied the introduction sections of lectures from various disciplines and observed a lack of order in the sequence of the moves and steps which she called *functions* and *sub-functions*, respectively. Using the functions found by Thompson (1994), Lee (2009) studied academic lecture introductions with an emphasis on class size as a possible factor affecting the rhetorical structures and lexico-grammatical features of the lecture introductions. His comparative analysis revealed differences between large- and small-size classes (i.e., classes with more than 100 students and less than 40 students). Among these differences was more use of pronoun *we* instead of the pronouns *I* and *you* in large classes. Such a difference was related to the class size in that the greater the affective and physical distance between the lecturer and students was the more the strategies to create a positive environment and to establish rapport with students were employed. However, the following study conducted by Cheng (2012) reached data comparable with Lee's finding which indicated more frequent use of first plural pronoun *we* in large classes. Specifically, she studied the effect of class size on the rhetorical features of academic lecture closings and, inconsistent with Lee (2009), she found that the pronoun *we* and its variants (i.e., *our*, *us*, *ours*) were used more frequently in small-class lectures. She found that large-and small-class (i.e., classes with students more or less than 40) lectures differed in their moves and steps which are named by Cheng as *stages* and *strategies*. She showed that unlike Lee's (2009) study there were more interactions between students and lectures in small-class lectures—a difference which could partly be reasoned by the fact that she studied lecture closings whereas Lee analysed lecture introductions.

Research on the move-analysis of written genres, however, covers a wide variety of genres such as research articles (Bruce, 2009; Lim, 2006, 2010; Peacock, 2011; Cotos et al., 2017), theses/dissertations (Bunton, 2005; Kwan, 2006; Kawase, 2018), letters of application (Henry & Roseberry, 2001; Upton & Connor, 2001; Ding, 2007), grant proposals (Connor, 2000), conference proposals (Halleck & Connor, 2006), online advertisements (Labrador, Ramón, Alaiz-Moretón, & Sanjurjo-González, 2014), sales promotion letters (Vergaro, 2004), law reports (Badger, 2003), business letters (Dos Santos, 2002), medical case reports (Hung et al., 2012) and call for papers for academic conferences (Yang, 2015).

Among these genres, research articles and theses/dissertations have been investigated widely. In many studies of these genres, a single section/chapter is focused on. The pioneering study of Swales (1990), for instance, was a study of this type and it analysed the introduction sections of research articles from different disciplines. Motivated by this study, many other studies have investigated research article introductions. These studies have identified the rhetorical structures of introductions from different disciplines such as computer engineering (Anthony, 1999), agricultural sciences (Del Saz Rubio, 2011), educational psychology (Loi, 2010), wildlife behaviour and conservation biology (Samraj, 2002), applied linguistics (Ozturk, 2007; Hirano, 2009; Sheldon, 2011, Wang & Yang, 2015), forestry (Joseph et al., 2014), health sciences and humanities/social sciences (Martín & Pérez, 2014), economics (Lakic, 1997), physical sciences (Taylor & Chen, 1991) and medicine (Jirapanakorn, Trakulkasemsuk, & Keyuravong, 2014). In general, these studies have identified common moves and steps in the article introductions, proposed move-analysis models, and showed the extent to which models for other disciplines could explain the structure of their corpus. For instance, Anthony (1999) applied Swales' (1990) CaRS model which is based on article introductions from different fields to a single discipline, computer engineering, and indicated that the model explained the overall structure in his corpus but needed some modifications such as the addition of a new step (i.e., Evaluation of research) into Move 3. Similarly, Del Saz Rubio (2011) applied Swales' model to her corpus from agricultural sciences and found that article introductions in this field followed the three-move rhetorical pattern offered by Swales but with some differences in the order proposed. As a result of such studies, new or revised models of move analysis (e.g., Swales, 2004) emerged and disciplinary differences in the employment of the moves and steps in research article introductions were revealed.

Disciplinary differences were also found in the introductions of theses/dissertations. In his doctoral dissertation, Bunton (1998), analysed the introductions of PhD theses from different faculties (i.e., science, engineering, medicine, social sciences, education, and arts). He indicated that except for one step (i.e., announcing principal findings), most of the steps identified by Swales (1990) and Dudley-Evans (1986) were found in the thesis introductions. However, he found disciplinary differences (e.g., lack of research questions/hypotheses in science and technology group) in the frequency of occurrence of the moves and steps. He stated that "ST (science and technology) introductions had a more limited range of steps within the three moves, and the HSS (humanities and social science) disciplines were more elaborate with a greater range of steps" (Bunton, 1998, p. 158). Based on his findings, he also proposed two distinct models for the introductions of the dissertations he analysed. In his following study, consisting of 45 theses introductions from the same fields he studied in his 1998 study, Bunton

(2002) also pointed to disciplinary differences in the steps employed (Flowerdew, 2002). His finding which indicates disciplinary differences in PhD introductions has found support in many studies. Kawase (2018), for instance, analysed PhD introductions within applied linguistics and when he compared his data to those reported in previous studies (e.g., Bunton, 2002; Soler-Monreal, Carbonell-Olivares, & Gil-Salom, 2011), he reached disciplinary differences (e.g., initial moves). Extending the data to master's thesis introductions, however, Samraj (2008) showed that introductions from three disciplines (i.e., biology, philosophy, and linguistics) differed in their rhetorical organization. *A preview of the organization of the thesis*, for instance, which was commonly included in philosophy introductions was absent in biology introductions, and although it existed in linguistics introductions it was not as detailed as those in philosophy. In general, research findings on the introductory chapters of theses/dissertations have indicated similar results to those on research article introductions. That is, although move/step format is commonly followed in the rhetorical organization of thesis/dissertation introductions, disciplines may differ in the employment of these moves and steps.

Cross-disciplinary data about the move structure of introductory sections have been extended by studies with a linguistic perspective, revealing data about the use of moves and steps in texts with different languages. Using Swales' CaRS model, for instance, Hirano (2009) analysed the moves and steps employed in the introductions of applied linguistics research articles written in Portuguese and English. His comparative study revealed differences between the two corpora. The pattern proposed in the model was found to be followed closely in the English articles but not in those written in Portuguese. In general, there were fewer moves in the Portuguese articles than those in English. Above all, the second move, indicating gap in the related literature, was absent in the majority (70%) of the Portuguese articles whereas it was employed in almost all (90%) of the English articles. The lack of explicit gap statements in much of the Portuguese corpus was related to the possibility that Portuguese writers tend to avoid criticism towards the local discourse community. This finding has found support from many cross-linguistic move-analysis studies. For instance, in his comparative study on the introductions of educational psychology research articles written in Chinese and English, Loi (2010) found that texts in Chinese not only had fewer moves than those in English but also employed Move 2 less (65%) than their English counterparts (80%). Also, in their contrastive analysis of the introductory sections of English and Spanish PhD theses in computing, Soler-Monreal et al. (2011) found that while the three-move pattern was followed closely in the theses introductions in English, Move 2 was absent in many Spanish introductions. In the Spanish corpus, Move 1 and Move 3 were obligatory but Move 2 was optional. Despite differing in the disciplines and the languages they analysed, such cross-linguistic studies have indicated

tendency in the introductions written in languages other than English to avoid Move 2. Such a tendency has been partly related to the more competitive nature of research in American and European contexts, face-saving issues and writing cultures considering the direct criticism of others inappropriate (Loi, 2010). However, comparable data were revealed in other studies with linguistic aspects. For instance, Sheldon (2011) investigated the applicability of the Swales' (2004) model to the research article introductions written by English and Spanish writers. Her study revealed that although the three moves in the model were employed in almost all the articles, there were differences between English and Spanish corpora, since Spanish writers were influenced by the written forms specific to Spanish culture. Inconsistent with Hirano's (1999), Sheldon (2011) found that Move 2 was employed in 88% of the Spanish articles in her corpus, suggesting that the tendency of writers with languages other than English to avoid Move 2 is questionable.

Although introductions have received wide attention in the move-based analyses of research articles and theses/dissertations, other sections/chapters of these two genres have also been examined, such as abstracts (Salager-Meyer, 1990; Martín, 2003; Lorés, 2004; Ren & Li, 2011; Tanko, 2017; El-Dhaks, 2018; Omidian, Shahriari, & Siyanova-Chanturia, 2018), literature reviews (Kwan, 2006; Soler-Monreal, 2015), methods (Lim, 2006; Peacock, 2011; Cotos et al., 2017), results (Thompson, 1993; Brett, 1994; Williams, 1999; Bruce, 2009; Lim, 2010), discussions (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Basturkmen, 2009, 2012; Nodoushan & Khakbaz, 2011; Le & Harrington, 2015; Liu & Buckingham, 2018), and conclusions (Bunton, 2005; Ebadi & Zamani, 2016). These studies, as those on introductions, first of all, have provided specific data about the rhetorical organization of the sections/chapters they focused on. Many of them also revealed comparative data about the different sections/chapters of the same genre or the same sections/chapters of different genres. Kwan's (2006) study analysing literature review chapters of PhD theses in applied linguistics comparatively with Bunton's (2002) revised CaRS model for PhD theses introductions, Ren and Li's (2011) comparative analysis consisting of the abstracts of master's theses and abstracts of research articles, and El-Dhaks's (2018) investigation into the move structures of PhD abstracts and research article abstracts, are of this type. Secondly, many studies proposed move-based models explaining the rhetorical structure of the sections/chapters they investigated. Among the models commonly referenced in these studies come Swales' (1990) three-move model for research article introductions, Brett's (1994) three-move model for result sections of sociology research articles, Dudley-Evans's (1986, 1994) three-part model for thesis discussion sections in biology, and Yang and Allison's (2003) model for the concluding sections of applied linguistics research articles, which consists of several moves for

each of the post-method sections (i.e., six for Results, seven for Discussion, three for Conclusion, and four for Pedagogic implications section). These models or their modified versions have been used in several studies. For instance, Williams (1999) applied a modified version of Brett's (1994) model to the result sections of medical research articles, Kanoksilapatham (2005) investigated the complete rhetorical structure of biochemistry research articles following Swales' (1990) model, and Liu and Buckingham (2018) explored the applicability of the model proposed by Yang and Allison (2003) to the discussion sections of applied linguistics research articles. Considering the models of Swales (1990) and Brett (1994), Posteguillo (1999) investigated the structure of computer science research articles with a focus on the sections of Introduction, Result, and Conclusion. He found that CaRS model was applicable to the introductions in his corpus but there existed some differences such as the use of the third step (i.e., review of previous research) of Move 1, which was defined by Swales as obligatory but found by Posteguillo (1999) in the 75% percent of the articles. His analysis of Results sections, however, provided supportive data for Brett (1994) who found that these sections include not only results of the study but also comments of the writers. Supportively, in their study into the concluding sections of applied linguistics research articles, Yang and Allison (2003) found that in the Results section results of the study were accompanied by comments on these results. However, the most frequent move in this section was expectedly *Reporting Results* whereas it was *Commenting on Results* in the Discussion section. Although conclusion and discussion sections were found to be similar since there were common moves in both sections, they were also different since "Discussion focuses more on commenting on specific results, while the Conclusion concentrates more on highlighting overall results and evaluating the study" (Yang & Allison, 2003, p. 379). Finally, the moves and steps of the section of Pedagogic Implications were found to overlap with those in the Discussion and Conclusion sections. Nevertheless, the step of *Dealing with Pedagogic Issues* was used more in the Pedagogic Implications section than the other two. In the light of these findings, it was concluded in the study that these four sections could overlap but still they differed in their communicative purposes and therefore presented under different titles.

In addition to these discipline-specific studies, there exist cross-disciplinary and cross-linguistic studies providing comparative data about the rhetorical structures of the sections/chapters other than introductions. Although there are exceptional studies which revealed no significant differences between the rhetorical structures of the sections/chapters within different disciplines or languages, such as the study of Ebadi and Zamani (2016) into the research article conclusions in two disciplines (i.e., civil engineering and applied linguistics) and two languages (i.e., English and Persian), many studies have shown that moves and steps

employed in the article sections and thesis chapters varied as a result of disciplinary and linguistic influences. To exemplify, in a recent cross-disciplinary study of the research article abstracts, Omidian et al. (2018) found differences between hard and soft disciplines in terms of the word combinations employed in the moves, possibly related to disciplinary conventions and purposes; Peacock (2011) explored the move structure of method sections from various disciplines and reached disciplinary variation in move and move cycles; and, Cotos et al. (2017) investigated the moves and steps employed in the method sections from thirty disciplines and revealed that the distribution of moves and steps in this section varied within and across disciplines. In his cross-linguistic study, Martín (2003) pointed to the effect of language on the rhetorical organization of research article abstracts in experimental social sciences. He comparatively investigated the texts written in English for international journals and those written in Spanish and published in Spanish journals. He found that although in general the pattern IMRD was followed in both English and Spanish texts, there were differences in both the number and the frequency/distribution of these four structural units, significantly in the announcing of the results. Unlike English abstracts which include four-unit pattern, there was a tendency in the Spanish abstracts to follow a three-unit pattern and to omit the results of the study. In terms of the moves and steps employed in the first unit (i.e., introduction) of the texts, a general consistency was observed with the moves and steps given in Swales (1990) model. In both corpora, Move 3 was found obligatory although the use of the steps of this move differed between the groups. Besides, a difference between the two corpora was found in the use of the Move 2. Consistent with the findings of many studies (i.e., Hirano, 2009; Loi, 2010; Soler-Monreal et al., 2011) which revealed that texts in languages other than English tended to avoid Move 2, Martín (2003) found that Spanish writers employed this move less (15%) than their English counterparts (41.77%). He related the Spanish writers' tendency to avoid to criticize the works of other researchers to the existence of less competition in their context as opposed to the international research area where there is more competition and therefore researchers may feel a greater effort to publish their work.

The post-method sections or chapters, similarly, have shown to differ in their rhetorical organization. In an early study to the discussion sections of research articles, Holmes (1997) investigated the moves and steps used in the discussion sections of research articles from social sciences (i.e., history, political science, and sociology). Sociology and political science research articles were found not identical but similar to each other and to those in natural sciences in terms of their moves, and therefore they were regarded as the members of the same subgenre whereas history research articles were suggested to be considered as a related but a distinct subgenre. In another genre, PhD theses/dissertations, Bunton (2005) analysed the conclusion

chapters from various disciplines. By classifying the disciplines as ST (science and technology) and HSS (humanities/social sciences) and separating them as thesis-oriented and field-oriented, he identified moves and steps for different disciplines. His findings revealed that disciplines in the ST group put greater emphasis on future research but were shorter in length and broader in results and claims than those in the HSS group. Compared to the data revealed in the studies on the final sections of master's theses and research articles (e.g., Dudley-Evans, 1986, 1994; Swales & Feak, 1994; Bunton, 1998; Yang & Allison, 2003), the data in this study showed that conclusion chapters of PhD theses consisted of a large variety of moves and steps than the discussion sections of master's theses and research articles.

All these section-specific studies have contributed to the understanding of text organization in the certain sections/chapters of research articles and theses/dissertations. In order to reach more specific data, however, many studies have limited their analysis to a certain move or step. For instance, Wang and Yang (2015) investigated the realization of the step *Claiming centrality* in the introductions of applied linguistics research articles, Lim et al. (2015) focused on the *purpose statements* in the PhD dissertations in language education, and Martin & Perez (2014) investigated the use of move *Presenting the present work* in research article introductions cross-linguistically and cross-disciplinary. In a recent study, Soler-Monreal (2015) investigated the use of Move 3 *Occupying the niche* (i.e., how the writers announce their works) in the literature review chapters of computer science PhD theses. With a linguistic perspective, she made a comparison between the theses written by English L1, Spanish L1, and English L2 researchers. The analysis resulted in differences between the groups in terms of the frequency of the occurrence of Move 3. Also, the data indicated relations between the use of the steps of this move and the places they positioned (i.e., initial, medial, final). In another study, Le and Harrington (2015) analysed the discussion sections of quantitative research articles in applied linguistics, with a focus on the *Commenting on Results* identified by Yang and Allison (2003) as the fourth move of the discussion sections of applied research articles. They listed the word clusters (e.g., results suggest that, finding is consistent with, as a result) used in three common steps (i.e., Interpreting results, Comparing results, and Accounting for results). The same move was also investigated by Basturkmen (2009). However, different from Le and Harrington (2015), she investigated this move comparatively in the discussion sections of research articles and MA theses in language teaching. Although in an earlier study consisting of research articles in applied linguistics, Yang and Allison (2003) had found four steps in this move (i.e., Interpret results, Compare results with the literature, Account for results, and Evaluate results), Basturkmen identified three possible steps (i.e., Explaining a result, Comparing a result to a result reported in the literature, and Evaluating a result) by pointing to

the difficulty in distinguishing the steps of Interpret results and Account for results proposed in Yang and Allison's (2003) study. Regarding the discussion chapters of the MA theses, she found the same elements in research article discussions but with some differences in their length and position. She stated that her findings were consistent with those of Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) which indicated similarities between the writing of discussions in dissertations and research articles. The following study conducted by Lim (2010) extended the data about the move *Commenting on Results* to its use in Results sections. Exploring disciplinary and methodological effects, he investigated how its use differed in research papers in applied linguistics and education. His analysis resulted in four commentary steps (i.e., Giving reasons for the findings, Expressing views on the findings, Comparing findings with literature, and Making recommendations for future research). The striking difference between the disciplines was that the majority of the comments (84.5%) were found in the applied linguistics research articles whereas only 15.5% of the educational corpus included comments. Besides, there was a significant difference between the disciplines in their use of the third step which compares the findings with those of previous studies. This step was found in more than half of the applied linguistics articles whereas it was used in only four of the 15 educational research papers. However, no significant effect of methodological differences was found between the two corpora in the way they comment on findings. With such data, it has been shown that "the necessity to include comments may be more dependent on the research community (or the targeted audience) involved rather than the research methods employed" (Lim, 2010, p. 291).

To conclude, research studies making move analysis have covered many genres ranging from research articles, theses/dissertations, and grant proposals to lectures, conferences and business letters. These studies, many of which also proposed move-step models for the genre(s) they investigated, revealed data about the rhetorical organization of texts from different genres, disciplines, and languages. Of these studies, those consisting of several genres, languages or disciplines, provided comparative data about the employment of moves and steps in different contexts. Those which consisted of a certain genre, discipline or language, however, revealed data about the organization of texts from these particular genres, disciplines, or languages. Additionally, limiting their analyses into a certain section(s), many studies revealed data specific to these units and there even existed studies investigating texts for the use of a particular move or step proposed in a model. Taken together, however, all these studies have shown how the structural organization of different types of texts can be analysed in a move-step format and what kind of moves and steps are employed in texts within different disciplines and languages.

Metadiscourse analysis.

Definition of metadiscourse.

In the studies of text structure, texts—written or spoken—can be analysed on two levels. The first one, which is usually called *ideational* or *informative* part and considered as primary discourse, consists of propositional content. On this level, the writer or speaker provides information on the subject discussed. The second one, which is usually called *interactional* part and considered as secondary, consists of non-propositional content. On this level, the writer or speaker does not expand propositional content but gives directions to the audience in order to provide a better understanding of the text read or listened to. In other words, first level serves to inform the audience and provide propositional content whereas the second level serves to direct rather than inform and contributes to the understanding of the propositional content given on the first level (Crismore, 1983a).

Of these two levels, the second one is typically called *metadiscourse* although many other terms have also been used to refer to the same linguistic material such as *signalling* (Meyer, 1975), *non-topical material* (Lautamatti, 1978), *metatext and modalities* (Enkvist, 1978), *gambits* (Keller, 1979), and *metatalk* (Schiffrin, 1980). The term was introduced by Harris in 1959 “to offer a way of understanding language in use, representing a writer's or speaker's attempts to guide a receiver's perception of a text” (Hyland, 2005, p. 3). In his study on linguistic transformations, Harris (1959b) asserted that texts can be reduced to and stored as sequence of kernels by making linguistic transformations, and *metadiscourse kernels* are among the types. According to his definition, metadiscourse kernels,

talk about the main material (e.g., discussing the problems of investigators). These contain words entirely different from those of the main kernels, except that they often contain one word from a main kernel or a pronoun referring to a main kernel (p. 944).

Focusing on information recall rather than information retrieval, Meyer (1975) also studied metadiscourse and used the term *signalling* to refer to the metalinguistic elements in texts. According to Meyer, signalling “does not add new content and relations but simply accents information already contained in the content structure. Signalling in a discourse shows an author's perspective on the content related in the primary discourse” (Crismore, 1983a, p. 6). From a different perspective, Lautamatti (1978) studied metalinguistic elements as a part of topical structure analysis. Focusing on coherence in texts, Lautamatti studied the relationship between topics and sentences and made a distinction between *topical* and *non-topical* elements in a text. Referring metadiscourse as non-topical elements, she dealt with their role in the understanding of a text when used with topical elements. Similarly, studying coherence in texts,

Enkvist (1978) emphasized that total coherence is a matter of cohesion on both textual and semantic levels and he used the terms *metatext* and *modalities* to refer to the metalinguistic elements as explaining what makes a text coherent or non-coherent.

Discussing metadiscourse for spoken discourse, however, Schiffrin (1980) wrote about *talk* and *metatalk*. She asserted that during conversations, within the ongoing talk there exist expressions such as *That's what I meant*, *I'm telling you that ...*, and *I'll put it this way*. She referred to these expressions used for organizing and evaluating the conversation as *metatalk*. In his study on conversational discourse, however, Keller (1979) used a different term for metadiscoursal expressions. With a different purpose from many previous studies on metadiscourse, Keller devoted his study to the psycholinguistic analysis of conversational discourse and put metalinguistic elements among the psycholinguistic strategies used by the participants of a conversation. He called these elements as *gambits* and defined them as follows:

A psycholinguistic analysis of conversational discourse is concerned with the strategies used by speakers to structure their content and their conversational procedure. Some of these strategies have an overt and verbal representation in the form of semi-fixed expressions that are here called 'gambits'. Typical examples are "The main point is", "I have something to add to that", or "What I really said is this". Such expressions serve a variety of functions, such as introducing a topic, structuring turn-taking, of indicating a speaker's readiness to receive some information (p. 219).

Studied from different perspectives (e.g., information retrieval, information recall, text coherence, or conversational strategy) and termed differently (e.g., signalling, metatext and modalities, gambits, non-topical elements and metatalk), metadiscourse has been defined in many ways by researchers. For example, Williams (1981) called it *writing about writing* and defined as "the language you use when you refer not to the substance of your ideas, but to yourself, your reader, or your writing" (p. 65). Vande Kopple (1985), however, considered it as *communication about communication*, corresponding to the level of writing on which "we do not add propositional material but help our readers organize, classify, interpret, evaluate, and react to such material" (p. 83). Hyland (1998a) used the term *discourse about discourse* and defined metadiscourse as "those aspects of the text which explicitly refer to the organisation of the discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader" (p. 438).

Although definitions of the term vary, they commonly point to a difference between propositional and non-propositional material. However, the criteria for making the distinction between these two types of content are far from clear. Generally, this distinction is based on three metafunctions of language—ideational, interpersonal, and textual—termed by linguist Halliday in 1960s.

When H started to apply systemic theory to the description of English in the early 1960s, he discovered a functionally-motivated organization of the grammar, and this came to be stated as the metafunctional hypothesis of systemic-functional theory: language is organized according to three highly generalized metafunctions- the ideational metafunction, concerned with 'ideation' and the representation of reality; the interpersonal metafunction, concerned with establishing and maintaining the interaction between speaker and listener and with the concomitant role assignments; and the textual metafunction, concerned with presentation of ideational and interpersonal meanings as text (Matthiessen, 1989, p. 863).

Of these three metafunctions, those called textual and interpersonal constitute metadiscourse and therefore the researchers studying metadiscourse tend to distinguish them from the function called ideational. Accordingly, many researchers have suggested criteria to make a distinction between these functions. Halliday (2004), for example, argues that propositional material is “something that can be argued about – something that can be affirmed or denied, and also doubted, contradicted, insisted on, accepted with reservation, qualified, tempered, regretted, and so on” (p. 110). According to Vande Kopple (1985), however, if the material adds to the ideational material, it is propositional but if it helps readers as they are reading the text, then it is non-propositional. He writes:

On one level, we supply information about the subject of our text. On this level, we expand propositional content. On the other level, the level of metadiscourse, we do not add propositional material but help our readers organize, classify, interpret, evaluate, and react to such material. Metadiscourse, therefore, is discourse about discourse or communication about communication (p. 83).

Similarly, Crismore et al. (1993) state that metadiscourse elements in a text are those, the purpose of which is not to add the propositional content but to help the audience as they are reading the text. They indicate that metadiscourse devices include words, phrases, clauses, and even punctuation and typographical markers, and these devices help writers not only show readers how different parts of the text are related but also express their attitudes toward the propositional content of the text and toward their readers.

All these criteria, however, seem to be of little help to distinguish between propositional and non-propositional mainly because these two content types are integrated. That is, they act interdependently to form the meaning of the text. As Hyland and Tse (2004) assert, if they are seen independent of each other and are separated firmly, then, metadiscourse which is crucial to the text meaning becomes secondary to the propositional discourse which is considered primary. Then, it would be wise to follow what Hyland and Tse (2004) suggest in their discussion of propositional and non-propositional content. That is, to make a distinction between the two types of content is necessary to study metadiscourse in academic writing, but it is not advisable to make this distinction rigidly.

Metadiscourse elements and classifications.

Metadiscourse is multifunctional. It functions in a text not only to organize the content but also to engage the audience and indicate the author's stance and perspective. Therefore, it can be realized through many linguistic devices from words and clauses to punctuation and typographical markers. As a result, it has been termed, defined and classified in many ways.

In defining and classifying metadiscourse, many researchers have made references to the three metafunctions offered by Halliday in his functionalist model in the 1960s. In his model, Halliday offered a distinction between three metafunctions of language (i.e., ideational, interpersonal, and textual) which are different from each other but act simultaneously. The *ideational function* is the use of language to express our experiences, the *textual function* is the use of language to create coherent and cohesive texts, and *interactional function* is the use of language to interact with each other.

This tripartite distinction of metafunctions has been taken as a starting point for many classifications of metadiscourse. However, there seems to be disagreement between many researchers about the metafunctions to be included in the scope of metadiscourse. That is, the studies have investigated and classified metadiscourse either for just its textual function or both its textual and interpersonal functions, mainly because of their approaches to metadiscourse: *broad or narrow*, also called *integrative or non-integrative*. According to Adel (2006), in broad approach, metadiscourse covers linguistic resources used for both organizing the text and communicative attitudes whereas in narrow approach it just consists of the elements used for textual functions (Cao & Hu, 2014). She states that "the key difference between the two approaches is the inclusion of interpersonal categories such as expressions of stance" (Adel, 2006, p. 171) and discusses that broad approach is too broad since it includes stance, and narrow approach is too narrow since it only considers the text itself and ignores the writer and the reader of the text. As a solution, she offers a reflexive model of metadiscourse. "The interactive approach views metadiscourse as a form of interaction between text participants, while the reflexive approach sees metadiscourse principally as a form of linguistic reflexivity" (Zhang, Sun, Peng, Gan, & Yu, 2017, p. 107). Based on the different functions of language, *metalinguistic*, *expressive*, and *directive* (Jacobson, 1960), corresponding to *text-code*, *writer*, and *reader* respectively, Adel (2006) classifies metadiscourse into four types: *text-oriented* (e.g., in this essay), *writer-oriented* (e.g., as I stated above), *reader-oriented* (e.g., so you may be thinking ...), and *participant-oriented* (e.g., as we have seen).

Unlike Adel, many researchers base their taxonomies on Halliday's macro-functions of language and follow a narrow or broad approach. Researchers following the narrow approach

limit metadiscourse to the textual function and they commonly use the term *metatext*, introduced by Enkvist in 1975. For instance, Mauranen (1993a), as a prominent researcher taking a narrow approach to metadiscourse, analysed the texts according to a classification of four types: *connectors* (e.g., however, for example, as a result), *reviews* (e.g., so far we have assumed that), *previews* (e.g., we show below that), and *action markers* (e.g., to express this argument, to illustrate the ...). Based on the degree of explicitness, Mauranen's (1993b) another study discussed the term *reflexivity*, called metadiscourse or metatext by many researchers. Classified into two main categories (i.e., High explicit and Low explicit), reflexive expressions were considered important to make the text more interactive and reader-friendly. In the following years, Bunton (1999) added new dimensions to the analysis (i.e., scope of the text referred to and the distance over which it operates). He made a distinction between the types of metatextual references and offered his own categories (i.e., Text references, Non-linear text references, Inter-text references, Text act markers, Text connectors, and Text glosses). His analysis of metatext in PhD dissertations revealed the efficacy of the model to investigate metatextual references at different levels (e.g., thesis, chapter, paragraph).

Researchers taking a broad approach, on the other hand, include both textual and interpersonal elements in their metadiscourse taxonomies. In one of the earliest studies of this kind, metadiscourse was discussed as a part of a writer's style. In this study entitled *Style: Lessons in Clarity and Grace* by Williams (1981), metadiscourse was defined as a language referring to the writer's intentions (e.g., to sum up, candidly, I believe), directions to the reader (e.g., note that, consider now, as you see), and the structure of the text (e.g., first, second, finally, therefore, however). In the study, Williams (1981) offered a classification of metadiscourse with three common types: *Hedges* and *emphatics*, *Sequencers* and *topicalizers*, *Narrators* and *attributors* (Crismore, 1983a). Hedges and emphatics indicate the level of certainty the writer has for the claim he makes. Hedges (e.g., possibly, in my opinion, perhaps, may, might) decrease the level of certainty, while emphatics (e.g., it is clear that, certainly, obviously, as everyone knows, of course) increase it. Sequencers and topicalizers, on the other hand, contribute to the coherence of the text and they are used to make the text easier to comprehend. Hence the name, sequencers (e.g., The first thing I want to say about this subject is ...) help to present to content sequentially, and topicalizers (e.g., in regard to, where x is concerned, in the matter of, turning now to, there is/are) serve to take the readers' attention to a certain point intended by the writer. Finally, narrators and attributors indicate the source of the ideas and facts given in the text. If the source is given directly by the writer in a narrative form, they are called narrators (e.g., I think, I have concluded), and if the source is given indirectly, then they are called attributors (e.g., it has been found, it is seen, it was noted).

As in Williams' (1981) study, metadiscourse was considered as a stylistic device in the study of Crismore (1983b). In this study, metadiscourse was emphasized to be one of the rhetorical styles required to create texts easy to comprehend (i.e., considerate texts) and a stylistic variable important in the description of rhetorical styles. Crismore (1983a) stated:

The amount and kind of metadiscourse and person used for it in a text can be viewed as an index of author intrusion, author personality, and the author/reader relationship. The use of metadiscourse is a stylistic variable - some authors use much, some use little (p. 15).

Based on the analysis of metadiscourse elements in school and non-school social science texts, Crismore (1983a) offered a classification with two general categories: *informational* and *attitudinal*.

Informational metadiscourse directs readers how to understand the primary message by referring to its content and structure or the author's purposes or goals. Attitudinal metadiscourse directs readers how to understand the author's perspective or stance toward the content or structure of the primary discourse (abstract).

The first category, informational metadiscourse, consists of four types: *goals* (e.g., the purpose of this unit is to ...) explaining the purpose, *pre-plans* (e.g., this chapter is about ...) introducing the content and structure, *post-plans* (e.g., we have argued earlier that ...) reviewing about the content and structure, and *topicalizers* (e.g., let us now turn to ...) making topic shifts. The second category, attitudinal metadiscourse, also has four sub-categories: *saliency* (e.g., the most crucial component is ...) referring to the importance of the idea, *emphatics* (e.g., this is, of course, is ...) indicating the degree of certainty of the writer of his claim, *hedges* (e.g., perhaps, worst of all was ...) indicating the degree of uncertainty, and finally *evaluative* (e.g., I think, it is interesting that ...) referring to the writer's attitude towards the idea or fact given (Crismore, 1983a, pp. 12-14).

Similar to that of Crismore (1983a) in form, having two broad categories, but differed from it in content, another metadiscourse taxonomy was offered by Vande Kopple in 1985. Based on Halliday's distinction between three metafunctions of language, the types of metadiscourse given in the book of Williams (1981) on style, and the discussions of Lautamatti (1978) on non-topical materials, Vande Kopple offered a classification with seven types serving for two main functions: *textual* and *interpersonal*. He explained these two types as follows:

Obviously, propositional content or primary discourse conveys what Halliday calls ideational meanings. And I suggest that the kinds of metadiscourse can convey either interpersonal or textual meanings. That is, some kinds of metadiscourse (the "interpersonal") are communication about communication in that they can help us express our personalities and our reactions to the propositional content of our texts and characterize the interaction we would like

to have with our readers about that content. ... Other kinds of metadiscourse (the “textual”) are communication about communication in that they can help us show how we link and relate individual propositions so that they form a cohesive and coherent text and how individual elements of those propositions make sense in conjunction with the other elements of the text in particular situation (pp. 86-87).

Vande Kopple’s (1985) classification consisted of *text connectives* (e.g., first, next) connecting different parts of the text, *code glosses* (e.g., defined as, which means) providing the appropriate meanings of words, *illocution markers* (e.g., I hypothesize that, we claim that, to sum up) expressing the performed discourse acts, *validity markers* (e.g., perhaps, may, might, clearly, undoubtedly) indicating the degree of certainty or uncertainty for the propositional content, *narrators* (e.g., according to James, Mrs. Wilson announced that) specifying the source of the information given, *attitude markers* (e.g., surprisingly, I find it interesting that) indicating the author’s attitude towards the content, and *commentary* (e.g., most of you will oppose the idea that, you might wish to read the last chapter first) addressing readers and so establishing a dialogue with them.

This classification, as well as many others such as those of Williams (1981) and Crismore (1983), was criticized by Beauvais in 1989 for being imprecise in terms of their categories. Beauvais explained the basic problem in many existing studies on metadiscourse as follows:

It seems clear, then, that a useful theory of metadiscourse must *first* use pragmatic terms to identify the functions that metadiscourse can serve in a text, and *then* use syntactic terms to identify the various forms that can serve each function. Both levels of analysis are needed for an adequate theory, but the functional categories constitute the primary level of analysis, with the formal categories serving a subordinate role. However, many of the existing theories of metadiscourse do not use functional and formal categories in this way, and the result usually is a theory that is unrevealing or confusing (p. 13).

In an attempt to create a more precise definition and classification of metadiscourse, Beauvais studied metadiscourse in the context of speech act theory and offered a new classification consisting of two main categories (i.e., Primary expositive illocutionary acts and Secondary expositive illocutionary acts). The first of these categories referred to the acts performed directly by the writer or speaker himself and was expressed in first-person subject pronouns. The second category, however, referred to the acts performed by someone other than the writer or speaker and was expressed in either second- or third-person subjects (Beauvais, 1989).

Based on the three macro-functions of language, Crismore et al. (1993) also suggested a metadiscourse taxonomy. By modifying the classification suggested by Vande Kopple (1985), they offered their own categories. First, they divided Vande Kopple’s seven types of

metadiscourse into two main groups as *textual* (including text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers, narrators) and *interpersonal* (including validity markers, attitude markers, commentaries), and then they formed their own categories still under the main categories of textual and interpersonal but with different sub-types. The first difference of this classification from the previous study is that textual metadiscourse was divided into two types—*textual* and *interpretive*—which were further subdivided. Textual markers were *logical connectives*, *sequencers*, *reminders*, and *topicalizers*, while interpretive markers were *code glosses*, *illocution markers* and *announcements*. The second difference, however, appeared in the category of interpersonal metadiscourse. In this category, *validity markers*, *attitude markers* and *commentaries* were included. However, three separate categories (i.e., hedges, certainty markers, attributors) were used instead of only one group named *validity markers*, and the type called *attributors* also consisted of elements named as *narrators* in Vande Kopple's (1985) classification since both types indicate the source of the information or idea given in the text. In the study, it was stated that although narrators (e.g., John claims that) are not references to authorities as attributors (e.g., Einstein claimed that), they also indicate the source of textual information and serve to support the argument. Besides, many categorizations of the expressions as narrators and attributors seem inconsistent and as a result these two groups were combined in their classification of metadiscourse. In addition to these differences from Vande Kopple's study, Crismore et al. (1993) also included punctuation in their analysis. Markers used to provide a further explanation (e.g., But the measures are not sufficient: mankind does not have time ...) or a better interpretation of the text (e.g., ... we, the general public "promote" smoking) were considered as metadiscourse elements.

Among the subsequent classifications, especially those provided by Hyland and his colleagues seem to be prominent since they were referenced by many other metadiscourse studies. In these classifications, like others with a broad approach, metadiscourse is discussed from not only textual but also interpersonal perspectives, "based on a view of writing as a social and communicative engagement between a writer and readers" (Hyland, 1998b, p. 3). By modifying Crismore et al.'s (1993) classification, Hyland (1998a, 1998b) divided metadiscourse elements into two categories as *textual* and *interpersonal* with their own subcategories. Similar to these modified versions, Hyland and Tse (2004) suggested another classification. The main difference between this classification and previous modified versions by Hyland was the terms used for main and sub-categories. For the subcategories, the terms *logical connectives*, *emphatics*, *relational markers* and *person markers* were replaced by the terms *transitions*, *boosters*, *engagement markers*, and *self-mentions* respectively. For the main categories of textual and interpersonal, however, two other terms—*interactive* and

interactional—were used, based on the idea that “all metadiscourse is interpersonal in that it takes account of the reader’s knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs and it provides writers with an armoury of rhetorical appeals to achieve this” (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 161). Then, both having an interpersonal function, “interactive resources help to guide the reader through the text, while interactional resources involve the reader collaboratively in the development of the text” (Thompson, 2001, p. 58). Including several types of metadiscoursal elements, this model, as well as many of those mentioned above, have been used in many text analysis studies. These models have served for the analysis of texts from different genres, disciplines and languages in terms of the metadiscourse they employed. The following section will summarize these metadiscourse studies conducted in the last few decades.

Research studies on metadiscourse analysis.

Metadiscourse has been investigated and discussed widely since it was first introduced by Harris in 1959. The early studies of metadiscourse, which generally focused on the identification, definition and categorization of metadiscourse elements, have been broadened by the studies devoted to the analysis of metadiscourse elements in different contexts, genres and languages. Differing in content and perspective to the issue, these studies have focused on written, spoken, audial, or visual material.

The majority of the related studies focuses on written material. In these studies, metadiscourse is analysed in genres such as books, research articles and theses/dissertations. Though fewer in number than those on written mode, studies also focus on spoken and visual metadiscourse. The studies on visual metadiscourse (e.g., Kumpf, 2000) extend the use of metadiscourse to non-linguistic design features “such as paragraph indentations, structure layout, consistency of tone (of a text) with format or with quality of paper-printing, among other things” (Ifantidou, 2005, p. 1326). The studies on spoken mode (e.g., Keller, 1979; Schiffrin, 1980), however, focus on the use of metadiscourse in oral communication. For example, Thompson (2003) investigated text structuring metadiscourse and intonation in university lectures and listening texts from EAP materials. Her study resulted in differences between the two genres in terms of the amount and types of the markers used. There existed more use of metadiscoursal signalling in EAP talks rather than authentic lectures. Similarly, academic lectures and EAP lessons (Lee & Subtirelu, 2015), monologic and dialogic academic speech (Zare & Tavakoli, 2017), seminars and interactive lectures (Lin, 2015) have been studied comparatively in many studies. Additionally, cross-genre studies such as the investigation of Webber (2005) into the use of metadiscourse in scientific conference talks, research articles and reviews; and cross-disciplinary studies such as the metadiscourse analysis of Yeo and Ting

(2014), consisting of lecture introductions within the disciplines of art and science, have also been conducted and yielded comparative data about the use of metadiscourse in different genres and disciplines.

Regardless of the mode (i.e., written, spoken, or visual) focused on, however, studies generally investigate the use of metadiscourse in different genres, disciplines, languages and in the texts produced by students, professional writers, native and non-native language users. These studies focus on a single genre (e.g., research articles, theses/dissertations, coursebooks, newspapers, student essays, lectures, and conferences) or make a comparison of two or more of them commonly in a cross-disciplinary, cross-linguistic and/or cross-sectional way. For example, Hyland (1999a) compared metadiscourse features in extracts from 21 textbooks in three disciplines with 21 research articles in the same disciplines. He found that the two genres were similar in the total frequencies of metadiscourse but different in the proportions of use for metadiscourse types. Specifically, both textbooks and research articles included more textual than interpersonal metadiscourse but in different proportions. While the use of textual metadiscourse was significantly higher than interpersonal metadiscourse in textbooks, almost half of all the metadiscourse used in research articles was interpersonal. Hyland commented that devices to enhance text comprehension (e.g., logical connectives and code glosses) were used more in textbooks while those to help persuasion (e.g., hedges, emphatics, evidentials and person markers) were employed more in research articles. A similar finding was found in the cross-genre study of Kuhi and Behnam (2011), which analysed the use of metadiscourse in applied linguistics textbooks and research articles comparatively. In this study, comprehension markers such as transitions and code glosses were found more in introductory textbooks whereas evidentials were found more in research articles. However, inconsistent with Hyland's finding that the two genres were similar in terms of the total frequencies of metadiscourse, the study showed more frequent use of metadiscourse, especially interactional markers, in the introductory textbooks. This difference was stated to be especially due to the higher frequency of engagement rather than stance markers in introductory textbooks.

Comparative research studies have also indicated similarities and differences between research articles and theses/dissertations in terms of the metadiscourse employed. Hyland and Tse (2005) indicated that L2 post-graduate dissertation abstracts (MA and PhD) and research article abstracts written in English had both similarities and differences in the use of stance expressed in *that-clauses*. The frequency analysis showed that the use of the structure is widespread in both types of abstracts but the two corpora differed in the density of use per 1000 words with a higher level of density in article abstracts. The frequent use of the structure in

dissertations was considered as a sign of post-graduate students' knowledge of the pattern, and differences were related to the experience of article writers in using linguistic resources in their texts. In the same study, similarities and differences were also found in the types of the stance used. The two corpora were similar in the types of stance they prioritized. Proportionally more epistemic than attitudinal stance was employed in both types of abstracts. More than 90% of the stance used was epistemic in both genres. However, there existed percental differences between them in the use of the types of stance. Attitudinal stance was used more in thesis abstracts (6.2%) but much less in article abstracts (1.5%), for instance. Similar to this finding, Kawase (2015) found that research articles and PhD dissertations written by the same researchers differed in the use of certain metadiscourse types in their introductory parts. For instance, the majority of the writers in the study used more interactive metadiscourse in their research article introductions than their dissertation introductions. Besides, almost all writers used endophoric markers in their thesis introductions but not in their research article introductions. More use of code glosses in research article introductions and less use of evidentials, self-mentions and attitude markers in dissertations were also among the differences found in the study. Kawase related the variations he found across the genres to the genre-specific features as well as educational focus of theses and competitive nature (professional focus) of research articles. Broadly, the relationship between the genre-specific features and metadiscourse use is that each genre has its own conventions for effective writing and use of metadiscourse is sensitive to these rules. To communicate successfully with the members of a discourse community, writers must choose the metadiscourse items that they will use in their texts according to the genre used by this discourse community. Thus, conventions of the genre to be used influence the choice and use of metadiscourse items in the texts. Since metadiscourse use varies across genres, however, genres can be recognized from their use of metadiscourse and texts can be classified into one genre or another according to their metadiscoursal characteristics.

Other than the variable of genre, *discipline* of the analysed texts has been considered a factor influencing the use of metadiscourse. Therefore, researchers either make a comparison between different disciplines or focus on a single discipline in their metadiscourse analyses. Among the above mentioned studies, for instance, Hyland (1999a) and Hyland and Tse (2005) selected the texts from different disciplines and emphasized disciplinary variations in the use of metadiscourse whereas Kuhi and Behnam (2011) and Kawase (2015) took the texts from a single discipline, applied linguistics and thus minimized the disciplinary effects on the use of metadiscourse they analysed. In cross-genre studies, researchers specify the discipline(s) of the analysed texts mainly to provide comparative data about the use of metadiscourse in different

disciplines of different genres. Besides, they emphasize that the variations and similarities found in their analyses may not be purely generic but also disciplinary. In single-genre studies, however, the main purpose of the analysis is to reach data about the use of metadiscourse in different disciplines of the same genre. In such studies, the variations indicate that the use of metadiscourse may vary even in the same genre because of the factor of discipline.

The cross-disciplinary data reached in both single- and cross-genre metadiscourse studies also contribute to the knowledge of disciplinary writing practices in hard and soft domains. Such data mainly serve to find out whether and how disciplines within different domains may differ in the amount, frequency and type of the metadiscourse used. For instance, Dahl (2004) indicated that among the three disciplines she analysed, medicine employed less metatext than linguistics and economics and more recently Jiang and Hyland (2017) found that hard disciplines in their study used significantly less metadiscursive nouns than the soft disciplines they analysed. In many of his cross-disciplinary studies on metadiscourse analysis, Hyland also reached similar findings. For instance, in his analysis of hedges and boosters in research articles from eight disciplines (Hyland, 1998c) and in his study of interactive and interactional metadiscourse in another genre, theses/dissertations (Hyland, 2004), he found that texts from hard disciplines contained less metadiscourse devices than the soft disciplines. In addition to this difference at the amount of metadiscourse, Hyland also reached data about the use of metadiscourse types. Comparing research articles from four disciplines in terms of the textual and interpersonal markers they included, Hyland (1998a) indicated both similarities and differences between the disciplines. As an example, logical connectives were the most frequent textual markers and hedges were the most frequent interpersonal markers in each discipline but they were used in different frequencies in each of them. The comparative data in his two other studies (i.e., Hyland, 1999b, 2007a) included the use of evidentials and code glosses. His analysis of citation practices of eight disciplines in the genre of research article resulted in more use of evidentials in soft disciplines. Specifically, more integral form was found in soft disciplines while non-integral form was employed more in hard disciplines and in general. In terms of code glosses, however, the use for exemplification was more frequent in soft disciplines, and the use for reformulation was more frequent in hard disciplines. With regard to these differences, Hyland (2007a) states:

Interestingly, these preferences point to fundamental differences in the ways that these broad domains construct knowledge and help to contribute to our understanding of disciplinary stereotypes. These differences, at least in part, are a consequence of the fact that the hard and soft disciplines mediate reality in very different ways (p. 272).

Many other research studies (e.g., Peacock, 2010) have provided cross-disciplinary data about the use of metadiscourse. Although analysed genres, disciplines, text types and metadiscourse items may vary in these studies, the findings commonly point to disciplinary variations especially between the disciplines within different domains. These variations coupled with the similarities found between same-domain disciplines suggest that disciplines, classified commonly as hard or soft domain (Becher & Trowler, 2001), may reflect the writing characteristics of the domain to which they belong. Hard domain writers' general preference for impersonal writing and soft discipline writers' typical tendency for making personal evaluations (see Hyland, 1998c), for instance, can be interpreted as the reflection of hard-soft domain discrepancies on disciplinary writing. However, in addition to domain-grounded commonalities in academic writing, there are also discipline-specific writing conventions since each discipline has "its own communicative purposes, discourse community members, academic expectations and disciplinary constraints" (Chen, 2017, p. 1). That's perhaps why no clear-cut disciplinary differences can be defined and why comparative research on metadiscourse use in hard- and soft-domain disciplines may provide exceptional or contrastive findings. As an example, in her investigation into the use of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse in research articles from six disciplines, Ünsal (2008) disputed the common view as to the essentiality of impersonal writing in hard disciplines. She found no much variation between different-domain disciplines in their use of some metadiscourse types. In her analysis, science articles included more interpersonal metadiscourse markers than social science articles although they used less metadiscourse markers and specifically less textual markers than social science articles. Ünsal commented:

The results show that there are differences in the use of metadiscursive devices in science and social science articles. However, these results do not support the expectation that there would be great differences between science and social science articles. Some types of devices are used equally while some others have differences. ..., social science RAs contain more markers than science but this result is not enough to stake a claim that sociological writers make use of metadiscourse more than science writers (p.56). Interestingly, science articles contain more interpersonal elements than social science articles. So, the conventional belief that science papers are purely impersonal seems not true for some disciplines (p. 57).

In the same study, within-domain analyses pointed to discipline-specific uses of metadiscourse. The variations found between the different disciplines of the same domain in terms of both frequency and type of metadiscourse use indicated that disciplinary variations may occur even in the same-domain disciplines. Among the three soft disciplines, econometrics used interpersonal metadiscourse more frequently than both sociology and history. Also, this discipline used the pronoun *we* most frequently whereas sociology used *I*, and history used none

of the pronouns. With respect to the hard disciplines, however, mathematics used more interpersonal than textual metadiscourse while other two disciplines (i.e., medicine and molecular biology) used more textual than interpersonal markers. In this group, mathematics was the discipline with the highest number of personal pronouns, while biology was with the lowest.

Comparable results were reached in many other within-domain studies. In their analysis of the use of interactive metadiscourse in research article abstracts within two soft disciplines, Khedri, Heng and Ebrahimi (2013) found differences as well as similarities. The sequence of the most frequently used metadiscourse markers was almost the same in both disciplines. However, there were differences in the frequencies and the purposes of use for the types of metadiscourse. For instance, more frequent use of transitional markers was found in economics abstracts and in these abstracts transition markers (e.g., and, also, as well) were used mostly for building cognitive relations between the sentences whereas in applied linguistics abstracts they were mostly used as comparative devices (e.g., however, but) for indicating logical relations. Based on the findings of the study, the researchers suggested that “each disciplinary community within the broad domain of the soft sciences has social authorization and contextual restriction for metadiscoursal occurrence” (p. 329). Though they focused on different disciplines and sections than Khedri et al. (2013), Cao and Hu (2014) and Hu and Cao (2015) also found that the use of metadiscourse in the same-domain disciplines may vary. Both of these studies investigated metadiscourse markers in the post-method sections of research articles within three soft disciplines. The first revealed that the texts differed in the use of certain interactive items such as transitional markers, exemplifiers and integral citations. The latter, on the other hand, pointed to the differences in the use of interactional items such as self-mentions, reader references, and boosters. Taken together, all these findings suggest that the use of metadiscourse may be affected by discipline-specific conventions and therefore the disciplines of the same domain may differ in their use of metadiscourse. Hyland (1998a) comments:

It is clear that the use of metadiscourse to ... is important in each of these academic fields, although to different degrees and in different ways. ... these results contribute evidence to support the view that metadiscourse is a universal feature of professional rhetorical writing in English. More interestingly however, the results also indicate disciplinary variability” (p. 447). ... The different textual practices observed in the corpus therefore suggest the possibility that metadiscourse is socially authorised and contextually constrained by the disciplinary communities in which it occurs (p. 448).

Like the factor of discipline, the language of the texts and texts’ writers have been shown to influence the use of metadiscourse. There are many studies in the related literature which suggest that “interpersonal features of writing are inexorably linked to the specific lingua-

cultural contexts in which texts are produced and consumed, even within the same discipline and (part-) genre” (Lee & Casal, 2014, p. 39). In these studies, how the variable of language influences the use of metadiscourse has usually been investigated comparatively. That is, the studies either make metadiscourse analysis in a specific language—commonly English—and compare how metadiscourse is used by the native and non-native users of this language (e.g., Valero-Garcés, 1996; Burneikaitė, 2008; Çapar, 2014; Özdemir & Longo, 2014; Yağız & Demir, 2014), or compare the use of metadiscourse across two or more languages (e.g., Hu & Cao, 2011; Zarei & Mansoori, 2011; Kim & Lim, 2013; Mur-Dueñas, 2011; Lee & Casal, 2014).

In the studies of the first type, although the languages, disciplines and writers of the analysed texts may differ, the findings frequently indicate differences between native and non-native writers in their use of metadiscourse. Among these differences come the amount and type of the metadiscourse used. Generally, less use of metadiscourse, especially interactional items, is found in the texts written by non-native speakers, compared to the texts written by native speakers of the given language. In many studies, the two groups are also found to differ in their use of certain metadiscourse items. For instance, in her contrastive study, Valero-Garcés (1996) analysed the use of metatext in the English papers written by Spanish and Anglo-American academics. She found that non-native writers put more emphasis on propositional content and used less metatext in their texts than native writers. Similarly, Çapar (2014) studied English texts written by native and non-native speakers. Specifically, she investigated the use of interactional metadiscourse in the English research articles written by Turkish and American academic writers. In her study, she also included the articles written by Turkish writers in their native language, Turkish. Compared to the metadiscourse used in American writers’ texts, less metadiscourse was found in the Turkish writers’ texts, both in Turkish and English. In the study, the two groups were found to differ in the use of certain metadiscourse elements. For instance, Turkish writers used more hedges, and American writers used more self-mentions in their texts. Although more hedges were found in the texts of Turkish writers, however, hedging markers varied more in the texts of American writers (cf. Söğüt, 2014). This finding was related to the structure of the English language allowing the use of many epistemic modal verbs (e.g., may, can, might, could) which could be replaced by only a few Turkish markers (e.g., *-Abil-Ir*). Such kind of differences between the hedging strategies of Turkish and English writers were also found by Yağız and Demir (2014). They analysed applied linguistics and ELT research articles written in English by L1 Turkish and L1 English academics to compare the hedging strategies. The study focusing on three specific sections of the articles (i.e., introduction, discussion, conclusion) revealed that both groups used hedges the least in the introduction and the most in

the discussion sections of their articles, but with differences in the frequency and type of use. Native writers used more hedges than non-native writers although non-native writers used certain hedging types more than their native counterparts. Data from the studies of another genres such as theses/dissertations provided similar data. For instance, Çaylak (2012) compared applied linguistics MA theses written in English by native and non-native writers. Limiting the analysis to the discussion sections of the theses, she found significant differences between the stance taking strategies of the two groups. Specifically, native English speakers were found to use hedges more than Turkish MA students who reversely favor boosters in their claims. All these data have shown that the use of metadiscourse can be influenced by the native language of text writers. Therefore, many researchers (e.g., Kawase, 2015; Ekoç, 2008) have limited their metadiscourse analysis to only native or non-native writers. However, it should be noted that there exist studies revealing differences between the texts of the writers with the same native language. For instance, in his study investigating the use of metadiscourse in the texts of ESL and EFL Iraqi graduate students, Al-Rubaye (2015) found differences between these two groups, which can be related to environmental effects. Compared to the EFL group, students in the ESL group used metadiscourse in a more similar way to the group whose native language was English. To exemplify, the EFL group used more boosters than hedges, but the ESL group used more hedges than boosters like the native group. Al-Rubaye (2015) related these differences to the ESL environment in which students could get feedback from English speaking professors and could attend classes teaching English rhetorical conventions. These findings showed that while reaching conclusions about the use of metadiscourse by native and non-native writers, environmental effects should be considered.

The studies of the second type, which make a cross-linguistic analysis of metadiscourse, provide comparative data about the use of metadiscourse in different languages. In general, these studies include English among the languages to be analysed and reveal differences between the texts written in English and those written in other languages. Their findings commonly indicate more use of metadiscourse in the English texts rather than the texts in other languages. For instance, Mur-Dueñas (2011), who analysed the use of metadiscourse in business management research articles written in Spanish and English cross-culturally, found more use of both interactive and interactional metadiscourse in English texts than Spanish texts. Similarly, Kim and Lim (2013) who compared the use of metadiscourse in the introductions of educational research articles written in Chinese and English, and Lee and Casal (2014), who investigated the use of metadiscourse in the results and discussion chapters of engineering master's theses written in Spanish and English, revealed more use of metadiscourse in English texts compared to those in the other language. With regard to the types of metadiscourse, these

studies revealed various data. In the study of Mur-Dueñas (2011), for example, more interactional than interactive elements were found in both corpora. In Kim and Lim (2013), however, it was interactive metadiscourse that outweighed interactional metadiscourse in all the texts. Such kind of inconsistencies between the studies can be attributed to the disciplines and the languages analysed in the studies. As shown by Dahl (2004) in her comparative study to investigate whether discipline or language is more effective on the use of metatext in research articles, the effects of these two variables vary according to the discipline or language analysed. In her study, Dahl stated that “the language variable is the most important one within economics and linguistics, where English and Norwegian show very similar patterns, using much more metatext than French; within medicine, all three languages display a uniform pattern of little metatext” (p. 1807).

However, contrary to the data showing significant differences between the native and non-native speakers in their use of metadiscourse and between the texts written in English and other languages, the results of many studies either indicate no significant differences between the groups analysed or find differences only in some categories of metadiscourse. In her study, comparing the use of metadiscourse in the linguistics MA theses written in English by L1 and L2 writers, Burneikaitė (2008) found that there was no difference between the two corpora in terms of the frequency of metadiscourse they employed but certain metadiscourse categories they used. Specifically, text-connectives were overused whereas endophoric, reader-oriented and emphatic markers were underused in the texts of L2 writers. In a more recent study, Geng and Wharton (2016) investigated the evaluative language in the discussion sections of applied linguistics doctoral theses written by L1 Chinese and L1 English writers and, unlike their hypothesis, they found no significant difference between the two groups in terms of the engagement resources they used. Such data suggest that there may not always be significant differences between native and non-native writers or between English and other languages in the use of metadiscourse.

Taken together, the studies mentioned above indicate that the use of metadiscourse in academic texts may be affected by both the language of these texts and the native language of their writers. It is partly because of these linguistic effects that differences in the use of metadiscourse may occur between the texts written in different languages or written by researchers having different native languages. In many metadiscourse studies (e.g., Valero-Garcés, 1996; Dahl, 2004; Burneikaitė, 2008; Kim & Lim, 2013; Lee & Casal, 2014; Yağız & Demir, 2014; Kaya, 2015), language-based variations between the texts are attributed to the differences between *writer-oriented* or *reader-oriented* writing cultures, which are called

writer-responsible and *reader-responsible* writing in the typology of Hinds (1987). Stating that “beliefs about the respective roles of reader and writer are culture-bound” (p. 142), Magennis (1996) exemplifies: “English, in this typology, is a writer-responsible language because the writer or speaker is ‘the person primarily responsible for effective communication’; Japanese on the other hand is a reader-responsible language because responsibility lies primarily with the reader or listener” (p. 137).

The knowledge and consideration of differences between writing cultures are important for academic writers since effective academic writing requires using the writing conventions appropriate to the target discourse community. In her article on the cultural differences in academic discourse, Mauranen (1993b) states:

As readers, we tend to respond to texts on the basis of our culturally learned expectations concerning good writing and persuasive argumentation. If texts do not meet these expectations we tend to perceive them as unconvincing, incoherent, or even illogical. ... Since it is natural for academics to wish to pass as good thinkers and convincing researchers, it is important for them to be aware of textual features which may create an unfavourable impression in readers from another culture (p. 158).

In terms of the use of metadiscourse, the importance of appropriateness arises from the fact that the functionality of metadiscourse depends largely on the way it is used. Crismore (1983b) states that metadiscourse can serve its functions when used appropriately. She argues that “it can bury the primary message if used too mechanically or obtrusively, or cause readers to react negatively to the text. ... it can impede understanding if used excessively or inappropriately” (p. 3). Accepting that metadiscourse is required in every written text and therefore its use should not be ignored, Williams (1981) also warns against too much use of it and as to the right use of metadiscourse markers he gives the rule of Goldilocks: not too much, not too little, but just right. He exemplifies (pp. 129-130):

Too certain: In my research, I prove that people with a gun in their home use it to kill themselves or a family member instead of to protect themselves from an intruder.

Too uncertain: Some of my research seems to imply that there may be a risk that certain people with a gun in their homes could be more prone to use it to kill themselves or a family member than to protect themselves from possible intruders.

Just right: My research indicates that people with a gun in their homes are more likely to use it to kill themselves or a family member than they are to protect themselves from an intruder.

The need for attention to the use of metadiscourse markers is also caused by the effects of metadiscourse on text quality and comprehension. In terms of text quality, Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995), in their metadiscourse analysis on the essays of graduate and undergraduates

in ESL context, found differences between the use of metadiscourse in good and poor essays and concluded that “metadiscourse is a facet of written text that varies with the overall quality of the essays. Better essays include a wider range of forms and more of them” (p. 268). Similar findings were found by researchers such as Sanford (2012) comparing the use of metadiscourse and writing quality in seventh-grade students’ essays, Lee and Deakin (2016) examining the use of metadiscourse in successful and less successful essays of ESL Chinese university students, and Uccelli et al. (2013) studying the relation between stance markers and writing quality in the persuasive essays of high schoolers. In respect to text comprehension, however metadiscoursal effects have been found on the comprehension of both written and spoken texts. Kuhi et al. (2014), for instance, investigated how the inclusion and exclusion of metadiscourse affected Iranian EFL learners’ lecture comprehension. The results of the listening comprehension test conducted at the end of the two lectures with and without metadiscourse markers showed that comprehension was facilitated by the use of metadiscourse markers. Unlike this study, revealing the facilitating role of metadiscourse items for text comprehension, some studies (e.g., Chaudron & Richards, 1986) have found no positive effect of metadiscourse items on comprehension or suggested that metadiscoursal effects on text comprehension may vary because of factors such as language proficiency, anxiety, types of metadiscourse used and reading strategies followed. Crismore and Hill (1988), for instance, investigated how metadiscourse and anxiety interact as sixth-grade children learn social studies textbook materials. Their study showed that the inclusion of metadiscourse in texts affected the performance of high- and low-anxious students differently. That is, “high anxious students did much better on the social studies test when voice metadiscourse was added and attitudinal was not. Conversely, low anxious students did poorly in this same condition” (p. 264). The suggested reasons for these differences included the typical reflections of high- and low-anxious students towards ambiguity and evaluative situations, and the effects of different kinds of metadiscourse for creating such situations when included in texts. In an earlier study by Meyer et al. (1980), the term *signalling* was used for metadiscourse elements and these signalling devices were investigated in the context of information comprehension and recall. Specifically, the relationship between the number of these devices and the level of text comprehension and recall of ninth-graders were investigated in the study. The results of the study showed that the use of signalling devices in the texts did not affect good and poor comprehenders but underachievers in terms of their recall and comprehension of the text. Similarly, Perez and Macia (2002), who studied the effects of metadiscourse use on lecture comprehension, indicated that metadiscoursal effects may vary according to language proficiency and types of the metadiscourse used. The topics of other studies investigating the relation between language

proficiency and effects of metadiscourse included the relation between discourse markers, proficiency and reading comprehension (Jafarinejad & Tavakoli, 2011); the use of stance markers by first year university students and advanced writers (Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Aull, Bandarage, & Miller, 2017); metadiscourse use of low- and high-proficiency undergraduates (Tan & Eng, 2014); metadiscourse in the persuasive texts of EFL students and those of proficient students from BAWE corpus (Rustipa, 2014); and the relation between language proficiency and misuses of metadiscourse markers in argumentative essays of EFL students (Gholami, Nejad, & Pour, 2014).

Studies having a pedagogical perspective have extended the issue to the effects of metadiscourse teaching on text quality and comprehension and they have commonly revealed positive effects. To exemplify, in terms of writing, Steffensen and Cheng (1996) found that composition students to whom metadiscourse was taught, produced better essays and commented more positively about the classroom experience they had than those students who were not taught metadiscourse. Ergin (2013), similarly, found that the teaching of metadiscourse markers improved the writing performance of Turkish EFL students. She stated that the students got higher scores and used a wider variety of markers in the post-test than they did in the pre-test. In terms of reading, however, Jalififar and Shooshtari (2011) investigated the effects of explicit hedging instruction on the reading comprehension of ESAP students and provided support for the positive effect of such instruction on the learners' awareness of hedging devices and consequently to their reading comprehension. Investigating the effect in relation to the students' language proficiency levels, Zarrati et al. (2014) found that although the level of improvement varies between the high, average, and low proficiency groups, all students benefited from metadiscourse teaching. Similar positive effects have been found on speaking and listening skills. As to the speaking skill, Ahour and Entezari Maleki (2014) investigated how this ability was affected by metadiscourse instruction and their study resulted in a significant difference between the speaking performances of the experimental and control groups in favor of the first group. As to the listening skill, on the other hand, Zare and Keivanloo-Shahrestanaki (2017) explored the effect of explicit teaching of importance markers (e.g., that is quite important, the main point about this is that ...) on the lecture comprehension of EFL university students and concluded that such teaching improved the students' understanding of the main points of lectures.

Because of such effects of metadiscourse and its teaching on text quality, text comprehension, and development of basic language abilities, metadiscourse teaching has been discussed widely. The discussions generally include the reasons and ways to teach

metadiscourse. Among the main reasons come the contributions of the use of metadiscourse to the text itself, and the advantages of the awareness and use of metadiscourse markers for text producers, audiences and language learners. First of all, as indicated by many of the research studies mentioned above, appropriate use of metadiscourse helps writers and speakers to create coherent texts and engage the audience in their texts. Consequently, this contributes to the persuasiveness, comprehensiveness and recall of the texts. Secondly, readers with the knowledge of metadiscourse are more likely to distinguish the propositional content from the author's attitude to this content and therefore tend to be more critical as reading or listening to the texts. Thirdly, the use of metadiscourse in a text indicates the text producers' knowledge of the interactional conventions of the discourse community and their sensitiveness to the audience's needs. As stated by Hyland (2005), "good writers are people who are better able to imagine how their readers will respond to their texts because they are familiar with the conventions and expectations which operate in particular settings" (pp. 197-198). Finally, the knowledge of metadiscourse helps students develop their language skills. Specifically, it enhances their generic knowledge, helps them produce more 'considerate' texts and understand texts better and easier, especially the pieces written or spoken in a second or foreign language. Since metadiscourse use may vary between different genres, the knowledge of metadiscourse helps students recognize the conventions accepted in each genre and follow them as writing or speaking, which enables them to produce appropriate texts in the given genre and communicate effectively with the members of the given discourse community. Additionally, students with the knowledge of metadiscourse would write and speak with the consideration of the need for meeting their audiences' needs and expectations and consequently organize their texts accordingly in terms of both coherence and stance, which would help to produce more reader-friendly texts. As stated by Vande Koop (1985), "exploration into the kinds and effects of metadiscourse might make our students more sensitive to the possibility that particular readers have more specific needs than most of them imagine" (p. 89). As readers and listeners, on the other hand, students themselves will benefit from the knowledge of metadiscourse in that they will be able to understand and recall the texts better and easier by following the markers which relate different parts of the text together, distinguishing the propositional content from the non-propositional part, recognizing the writer's attitudes and reading the text critically.

Based on the importance of metadiscourse for text producers, audiences and students, several studies (e.g., Hyland, 1999a; Vande Koop, 1985, 2012; Ahour & Entezari Maleki, 2014; Crosthwaite & Jiang, 2017) have emphasized the teaching of metadiscourse and, in many of these studies, materials, and methods for metadiscourse instruction have been offered. The materials generally include written texts such as authentic texts, sample essays, academic

articles, and news articles. Using these materials, learners identify and analyze the metadiscourse markers in texts and discuss the use and functions of metadiscourse. The methods, on the other hand, broadly include activities for instructing and practicing metadiscourse markers. That is, teachers first give information about the types and functions of metadiscourse markers, then provide the students with several exercises to use metadiscourse, and finally create opportunities for the students to produce their texts. However, there seems to be variation in the teaching activities offered in the literature. Ergin (2013), for instance, used essays from language exams (IELTS) to introduce metadiscourse markers and she included activities such as underlying and identifying metadiscourse markers, filling in the blanks, and writing essays. Steffensen and Cheng (1996), on the other hand, used scholarly articles for metadiscourse teaching. In their study, first, the students read articles about metadiscourse and wrote summaries and critiques about these articles, and then these student works were read by the researcher and discussed in the classroom. It seems that the variations in the steps offered for metadiscourse teaching generally occur not in the last step (i.e., producing texts) but preliminary steps. For instance, among the steps for metadiscourse teaching, which start with the activities to discover the use of metadiscourse elements, Vande Koople (2012) included discussions about the functions of these elements and their relation to culture. Analyses, exercises and other tasks came after these preliminary steps. Hyland (2005) suggests that for appropriate metadiscourse teaching, teachers should first of all consider why and to whom their students will write, in order that they can teach the appropriate use of metadiscourse in the given genre and community. They should also consider the cultural background of their students in terms of writing and learning, in order to identify possible differences between the students' and their audiences' views of appropriate writing conventions. After these steps, they should emphasize the importance of writing as interaction, use authentic texts to introduce the use and functions of metadiscourse markers, provide the students with several exercises to use metadiscourse and finally create opportunities for the students to produce their own texts in order to see their actual use of metadiscourse as writing (Amiryousefi & Rasekh, 2010). Further research is needed to investigate how these suggestions can be realized in real classroom environments and to provide data about their strengths, weaknesses, and effectiveness.

CHAPTER THREE

Methodology

Research Design

The purpose of this study was the identification and interpretation of the rhetorical features of ELT dissertations. In the study, the data were collected qualitatively but analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Therefore, it was not purely qualitative but quantitatively descriptive. As pointed out by Nassaji (2015), the terms qualitative research and descriptive research are sometimes used interchangeably, but a distinction can be made between the two:

The goal of descriptive research is to describe a phenomenon and its characteristics. This research is more concerned with what rather than how or why something has happened ... In such research, the data may be collected qualitatively, but it is often analysed quantitatively, using frequencies, percentages, averages, or other statistical analyses to determine relationships. Qualitative research, however, is more holistic and often involves a rich collection of data from various sources to gain a deeper understanding of individual participants, including their opinions, perspectives, and attitudes. Qualitative research collects data qualitatively, and the method of analysis is also primarily qualitative. This often involves an inductive exploration of the data to identify recurring themes, patterns, or concepts and then describing and interpreting those categories. Of course, in qualitative research, the data collected qualitatively can also be analyzed quantitatively. This happens when the researcher first examines the qualitative data thoroughly to find the relevant themes and ideas and then converts them into numerical data for further comparison and evaluation (p.129).

In this study, the data were collected qualitatively from written texts (i.e., final chapters of doctoral dissertations in ELT). For the analysis of the data, however, both qualitative and quantitative procedures were followed. First, the structural and linguistic elements in the texts were coded manually according to a reliable move-analysis model and a clear metadiscourse taxonomy given in the literature. For a better description of the elements used in texts, sample sentences and patterns taken from the analysed texts were presented. Then, the qualitative data were converted into numbers to be analyzed quantitatively. Both frequencies and percentages were calculated and statistical tests were performed.

On the qualitative side, “discourse analysis” was the method of study. Discourse analysis investigates written or spoken discourse at different levels. Existing texts are often used as data and the analysis is usually at a level beyond that of individual sentences. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) explain discourse analysis as follows:

Any study of language or, more specifically, text at a level above that of sentence is a discourse study. This may involve the study of cohesive links between sentences, of paragraph structure, or the structure of the whole text. The results of this type of analysis make statements about how texts – any text – work (p. 87).

This study was devoted to the analysis of existing written texts and this analysis was at a level beyond sentence. Therefore, discourse analysis was used as the method. The form of the discourse analysis, however, was genre analysis. Genres are forms of discourse which are recognized by members of related social groups. They are recognizable because they have distinctive rhetorical features. Genre analysis aims to describe these recognizable features of genres. Since this study focused on an academic genre (i.e., doctoral dissertations) and aimed to describe the rhetorical features of this genre, it conducted genre analysis. The techniques of the genre-analysis, however, were move analysis and metadiscourse analysis, which are used commonly in genre-based studies. “Move analysis, identifies text parts that work to carry out distinct rhetorical functions. Beginning with a corpus of texts representative of a genre within one or more social contexts, the analyst identifies common moves” (Tardy, 2011, pp. 55-56). Metadiscourse analysis, on the other hand, identifies those linguistic devices (e.g., cohesive links between the sentences) which writers use to show their presence as the author and to enhance the acceptability and understandability of the text content (Nasiri, 2013). This type of analysis is usually accomplished through metadiscourse taxonomies offered in the literature. In the present study, the investigation of the rhetorical features of the specific sections of ELT dissertations is aimed at, and, for this purpose, both move analysis and metadiscourse analysis were conducted. First, moves and steps within these moves were identified based on the move-analysis model of Yang and Allison (2003) and then metadiscourse markers employed in each move and step were analysed according to the taxonomy offered by Hyland and Tse (2004). In both types of analyses, the elements were coded manually. The data gathered at the end of the analyses were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively and put into tables and figures comparatively.

Corpus of the Study

The corpus of this study consisted of the final sections of 50 ELT dissertations written in English between the years of 2009 and 2019. The number of the dissertations was limited to 50 due to the manual analysis procedure which typically necessitates small corpus. Only the dissertations written between 2009 and 2019 were included in order that more current works could be examined. Half of the dissertations were written by Turkish researchers and half by Anglophone researchers.

The assignment of a researcher as Turkish or Anglophone was, first of all, based on a Turkish or Anglophone-sounding name as well as the background information provided in the Acknowledgements of the dissertations. Also, the researchers whose dissertations would be included in the study were mailed and requested to inform their native languages (see Appendix 1). All researchers in the Turkish corpus and ten in the Anglophone corpus mailed back and confirmed their native languages. Additionally, the locations of the institutions where the dissertations were written were considered for increasing the representability of the corpus and minimizing the contextual and cultural effects on the features investigated in the texts. Only those dissertations of Turkish researchers from the universities located in Turkey and those of Anglophones from the universities located in Anglophone countries were included in the study. For all these reasons, it was assumed in the study that the dissertations in each group were the representatives of the group they belonged: Turkish or Anglophone.

Online sources have been used to access the doctoral dissertations to be analysed. The dissertations written by Anglophone researchers were obtained through the database of ProQuest Dissertations and Theses which consists of graduate works from institutions all over the world and is accessible online on the Atatürk University library's website. The dissertations written by Turkish researchers, however, were obtained from the database of National Thesis Center of the Council of Higher Education which provides full-text access to theses and dissertations from institutions in Turkey and are allowed to be published open by their authors.

While searching these databases, advanced search was made to reach only those dissertations which met the purpose of this study. As a result, the dissertations which were (1) from the discipline of ELT, (2) in English, (3) between the years of 2009 and 2019, (4) had separate chapters for Results, Discussion, and Conclusion, (5) had a quantitative methodology, were accessed. The dissertations which were not from the institutions located in Turkey and Anglophone countries were ignored. Only those dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers were selected. It should be noted that the dissertations written by Turkish researchers in countries other than Turkey and those written by Anglophones in Turkey were also ignored in order to avoid contextual effects. From among the dissertations which met all these criteria, 50 were selected randomly, half of which written by Turkish and half by Anglophones.

Each dissertation in this final corpus had separate chapters for Results, Discussion, and Conclusion. However, only six of them had all these three chapters. In most of the dissertations, Result chapter, which existed in all dissertations, was followed by either Discussion or Conclusion. It should also be noted that many dissertations in the corpus varied in the titles of

their chapters for Results, Discussion, and Conclusion. In such cases, different approaches may be followed. That is, chapters with combined titles such as *Results and Discussion* may be excluded as in Brett (1994) or they can be included according to their communicative purpose as in Yang and Allison (2003). In this study, the latter approach was adopted. For instance, the chapters with the titles of *Findings and Discussion*, *Discussion and Conclusion*, and *Conclusion and Suggestions*, were analysed as the chapters of Results, Discussion, and Conclusion, respectively. All the titles appeared in the dissertations and their categorization in this study as Result, Discussion, and Conclusion are given in Appendix 2. The topics, total number of pages, and word counts, however, can be found in Appendix 3. The table below shows the distribution of the chapters by years.

Table 1. *Distribution of Chapters by Years*

		2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016	2017	2018	2019	Total
Results	T		5	3	4	1	2	3	1	3	3		25
	A	1	4	4	3			2	3	5	2	1	25
Discussion	T		1	2	3	1	1	3	1	3	3		18
	A	1	2	1	1			1	1	1	1	1	10
Conclusion	T		4	1	2		2	1	1	1			12
	A		2	3	3			1	2	4	1		16

* T= Turkish A=Anglophone

Data Collection Procedure

Using the purposive sampling technique, 50 quantitative dissertations were selected from the field of ELT. Written by Turkish (n= 25) and Anglophone (n=25) researchers, these dissertations had chapters for Results, Discussion and/or Conclusion. The data in this study were collected from these chapters through move analysis and metadiscourse analysis techniques. For analyses, Yang and Allison's (2003) model and Hyland and Tse's (2004) taxonomy were used.

The coding was done manually (see Appendix 4) and the data obtained from each chapter were recorded on a form created by the researcher (Appendix 5). Although several corpus tools such as Sketch Engine, AntConc, and Wordsmitt are available for the analysis of language in texts, manual coding was preferred in this study. In corpus linguistics, with the use of these corpus tools, large number of texts can be analyzed electronically. Genre analysis approach goes hand in hand with corpus linguistics (Burgess & Cargill, 2013), and these tools can also be used in genre analyses. However, genre analysis is not purely corpus linguistics. The identification and categorization of moves and metadiscourse markers are highly context dependent and therefore manual analysis is also a common practice in the related literature. In many analyses, interrater agreement is obtained to increase the reliability of the analyses. In our study, manual analysis was preferred and interrater agreement was also obtained.

Before the main coding process, ten dissertations (five from each group) were chosen randomly from the corpus and they were coded by the researcher herself. Then, another researcher coded the same dissertations. The native language of this second coder, a lecturer and a doctoral student at university, was Turkish and she had a master's degree in ELT. Since she studied academic writing in her research studies, she already had experience in move analysis and metadiscourse analysis. Nevertheless, before coding, she was provided with instructions for the model, taxonomy and the coding form. The level of agreement between the coders was determined based on the formula given by Miles and Huberman (1994). Based on the formula, the intercoder reliability was found 75% for move analysis and 84% for metadiscourse analysis. To identify the points of disagreement, a discussion session was held. In terms of move analysis, it was seen that there were text parts which could not be coded because no move or step in the model was found appropriate. Also, there were disagreements about the types of the comments made in the final chapters. In terms of metadiscourse analysis, disagreements appeared as to the categorization of some elements mainly because of the multifunctional nature of metadiscourse markers. Therefore, a faculty member at the department of ELT, with expertise in academic writing and experience in genre analysis, was consulted. The problematic points were discussed and consensus was reached. The coding process of all dissertations was managed with the guidance and consultancy of this academic. The second round of the intercoder process resulted in 90% reliability for move analysis and 93% reliability for metadiscourse analysis.

During the process, a top-down approach was adopted. In this approach, “the functional analytical framework is developed first; that framework is then applied to segment texts into discourse units (moves); and finally the moves and functional move types are analysed to describe their linguistic characteristics” (Biber, Connor, & Upton, 2007, p. 16). The present study used the model developed by Yang and Allison (2003) and applied it to the moves employed in the chapters selected. This was followed by the identification of metalinguistic elements used in each move, according to the taxonomy suggested by Hyland and Tse (2004). It should be noted that although the analysis was based on the moves and steps previously described in the literature, new moves and steps were proposed for text parts, the communicative purpose of which did not match any of the moves or steps in the model. That is, the move *Preparatory information* was divided into three steps (i.e., Introductory, Reminder, Pointer), and three new moves (i.e., Concluding the section or chapter, Introducing the next section or chapter, and Concluding the study) were added. Consequently, 11 moves and 13 steps were identified. Each move and step in the texts were assigned to one of these types according to its main communicative purpose. As in many move analysis studies (e.g., Yang & Allison,

2003; Lim, 2010; Joseph et al., 2014), a move was considered ‘obligatory’ if it occurred in all (100%) of the texts, ‘quasi-obligatory’ if it occurred in 51% to 99% of the texts, and ‘optional’ if it appeared in half or fewer than 50% of the texts.

Moves and metadiscourse elements were coded according to the principles given in the literature. During moves analysis, when a segment of text was believed to have more than one function, the text was categorized according to the more salient purpose. Also, lexical items metadiscourse markers, immediate context, and overall purpose of the chapter were taken into account. When the function of a text segment did not match any of the moves or steps in Yang and Allison’s (2003) model, a new move or step was identified. During metadiscourse analysis, on the other hand, the most sensitive issue was the identification of metadiscourse. To decide whether an item has a metadiscoursal function or not (i.e. propositional or non-propositional) was the main problem. The identification and categorization of the items were guided mainly by the definitions, explanations, examples, and criteria given by Hyland and Tse (2004), and Hyland (2005). The occurrence of each move, step and metadiscourse element was recorded on the coding form described above. Having two parts, one for move analysis and another for metadiscourse analysis, this form allowed to investigate the same moves, steps and metadiscourse markers in all three chapters and to record the coded data in frequencies. For each dissertation, a copy of this form was used and the data collected from all final chapters of a dissertation were recorded on the same form. Thus, at the end of the coding process, 50 copies of the form were obtained.

Data Analysis

The data were analysed both qualitatively and quantitatively. First of all, based on the coded data, frequencies were calculated for the moves, steps and metadiscourse markers employed in the final chapters of each dissertation. The frequency data obtained from each dissertation were recorded on a separate analysis form, and each form was coded as T1, T2, ... T25 for Turkish corpus and as A1, A2, ... and A25 for Anglophone corpus. All the analyses in the study were based on these frequency data on the forms. The data recorded on the forms were first analysed descriptively. Total frequencies and percentages were calculated for both Turkish and Anglophone groups and shown in tables. For each chapter (i.e., Results, Discussion, Conclusion), three tables were created, showing the total frequencies of moves and steps, of metadiscourse markers and of metadiscourse markers employed in moves and steps, respectively. Thus, comparative data were provided in the form of frequencies and percentages.

For further analysis, the data were transferred to SPSS 20.0 and non-parametric analyses were performed. This type of analyses are ideal for use when the data is categorical and the

sample is small (Pallant, 2007). Since this study had categorical data and a small sample, non-parametric tests were applied. Of several techniques, however, Chi-square and Mann-Whitney U were used. Chi-square test was used to find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the numbers of dissertations using each move/step. Mann-Whitney U test, on the other hand, was conducted to find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the groups with regard to the number of the moves, steps, and metadiscourse markers employed in each chapter. Chi-square test “is based on a cross-tabulation table, with cases classified according to the categories in each variable (e.g., male/female; smoker/ non-smoker)” (Pallant, 2007, p. 214). In this study, the comparison included two groups (i.e., Turkish and Anglophone) and categorical elements. Therefore, 2 X 2 Contingency Chi-square was used for the comparison. However, Chi-square test requires large sample sizes to be accurate. “When you have a 2×2 contingency table (i.e. two categorical variables each with two categories) then Pearson’s chi-square tends to produce significance values that are too small” (Field, 2009, p. 691). With 2X2 contingency tables, expected values (at least in the 80% of the cells) should be greater than 5. Otherwise, Yates’ Correction for Continuity or Fisher’s Exact Probability Test are used. Yates correction values are used to avoid the overestimation of the chi-square value when used with a 2X2 table, and Fisher’s Test is suggested to use with low expected frequencies. Both of these values are provided as part of the output from chi-square. For all these reasons, in this study, Yates correction values were used for all the comparisons. Also, when the expected value is less than five, Fisher’s Test value was additionally given.

The Chi-square tests were followed by Mann Whitney U tests to investigate whether Turkish and Anglophone groups differ in the use of moves, steps, and metadiscourse markers employed. This test is used to investigate the differences between two categorical, independent groups (e.g., male or female) on a continuous or ordinal measure. For example, “Do males and females differ in their language learning motivation?” In this test, large normally distributed samples are not required (Nachar, 2008), and “as the scores are converted to ranks, the actual distribution of the scores does not matter” (Pallant, 2007, p. 220). However, the observations for each group should be independent of each other. That is, the groups should consist of different participants, or, in other words, the scores from one participant should not be dependent on the scores of others. Since this study sought differences between two categorical groups (i.e., Turkish and Anglophone) and the observations for each group were independent of each other, Mann Whitney U tests were performed.

To ensure the accuracy of the quantitative analyses, the tests were carried out under the consultancy of an expert in the field of statistics. Besides, the data obtained through these tests were accompanied by qualitative data for a better account of the elements used in the texts. Sentences and patterns extracted from the analysed texts were presented.

Data Collection Instruments

The data were obtained from written texts (i.e., final chapters of ELT dissertations written in English) and two data collection instruments were used. To collect data about the moves and steps, Yang and Allison's (2003) move analysis model and to collect data about the metadiscourse markers, Hyland and Tse's (2004) metadiscourse taxonomy was used.

Yang and Allison's (2003) move analysis model.

This model uses a two-level format (i.e., move and step) to identify the communicative purposes and organizational patterns of the final sections. Although it was originally developed for empirical research articles in applied linguistics, it consists of moves and steps common to many disciplines and genres. The model offers several moves and steps for Results, Discussion, Conclusion, and Pedagogical Implications sections, many of which are common to all these sections. It proposes that there are six moves in Results, seven in Discussion, three in Conclusion, and four in Pedagogical Implication sections. Figure 2 shows the moves and steps in each section.

RESULTS	
Move 1- Preparatory information	
Move 2- Reporting results	
Move 3-Commenting on results	Step 1 –Interpreting results Step 2- Comparing results with literature Step 3- Evaluating results Step 4- Accounting for results
Move 4- Summarizing results	
Move 5- Evaluating the study	Step 1- Indicating limitations Step 2- Indicating significance/advantage
Move 6- Deductions from the research	Step 1- Recommending further research
DISCUSSION	
Move 1- Background information	
Move 2- Reporting results	
Move 3- Summarizing results	
Move 4-Commenting on results	Step 1 –Interpreting results Step 2- Comparing results with literature Step 3- Accounting for results Step 4- Evaluating results
Move 5- Summarizing the study	
Move 6- Evaluating the study	Step 1- Indicating limitations Step 2- Indicating significance/advantage
Move 7- Deductions from the research	Step 1- Making suggestions Step 2- Recommending further research Step 3- Drawing pedagogic implication

CONCLUSION	
Move 1- Summarizing the study	
Move 2- Evaluating the study	Step 1- Indicating significance/advantage Step 2- Indicating limitations Step 3- Evaluating methodology
Move 3- Deductions from the research	Step 1- Recommending further research Step 2- Drawing pedagogic implication
PEDAGOGIC IMPLICATIONS	
Move 1- Summarizing the study	
Move 2- Dealing with pedagogic issues	Step 1- Indicating necessity for pedagogic change Step 2- Drawing pedagogic implication
Move 3- Evaluating the study	Step 1- Indicating limitations Step 2- Indicating significance/advantage
Move 4- Deductions from the research	Step 1- Recommending further research

Figure 2. Yang and Allison's (2003) move analysis model.

According to the model, Results section begins with a move which provides relevant information for the presentation of the results (e.g., a general preview of the section). This move is followed by a move which serves for the presentation of the research results, usually with statistics and examples. Then, comments on these results take place. This third move consists of steps through which the results are interpreted, compared with literature, evaluated and accounted. After the comments, the results can optionally be summarized or the study can be evaluated. In this move for evaluation, limitations of the study are stated and the significance and advantages of the study are emphasized. Finally, deductions are made and further research is recommended.

The structure of the Discussion section is very similar to that of Results. However, the initial move Preparatory Information in Results section is replaced by another move, Background Information. In this move, main points about the study (e.g., research questions, aims, theoretical or methodological information) are restated to relate the discussion to the study (Yang & Allison, 2003). This section has a seven-move structure with the addition of a new move, Summarizing the Study, and, compared to Results section, it has more steps for evaluating the study and making deductions from the research. The last three moves of this section constitute the Conclusion section. These three moves are also included in the Pedagogic Implications section. But, in this section, there is also a distinctive move used to deal with the pedagogic issues.

How the moves and steps in the model are defined and exemplified by Yang and Allison (2003) can be found in Appendix 6.

Hyland and Tse's (2004) metadiscourse taxonomy.

This metadiscourse taxonomy is based on the idea that “all metadiscourse is interpersonal in that it takes account of the reader’s knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs and it provides writers with an armoury of rhetorical appeals to achieve this” (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 161). Therefore, unlike many taxonomies categorizing metadiscourse markers as textual and interpersonal (e.g., Crismore et al., 1993), it has the categories of interactive and interactional, which are the terms borrowed from Thompson (2001). Both having an interpersonal function, “interactive resources help to guide the reader through the text, while interactional resources involve the reader collaboratively in the development of the text” (Thompson, 2001, p. 58). These two main categories consist of ten metadiscourse markers, five in each. These categories, their functions and examples are provided in the figure below.

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

Figure 3. Hyland and Tse’s (2004) metadiscourse taxonomy

In many metadiscourse studies (see Chapter 2), the analysis is limited to a specific category or sub-category of metadiscourse. This seems reasonable since metadiscourse is multifunctional and therefore its analysis requires a detailed analysis of each item. In the present study, however, all the devices given in Hyland and Tse’s (2004) taxonomy were included. Although extending the scope of the analysis to several types of metadiscourse may add to the difficulty of metadiscourse analysis and create a daunting task for the researchers, it may be useful to reach comprehensible data about the metadiscoursal characteristics of texts and writing styles of researchers. It may also be useful to see possible relations between the use of different types of metadiscourse markers in texts. Therefore, both interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers given in taxonomy were included in the present study.

How the metadiscourse elements in the model are defined and exemplified by Hyland (2005) can be found in Appendix 7.

CHAPTER FOUR

Results

Qualitative Data

Qualitative data will be presented in two sections. First section will present the data for moves and steps and the second section will present the data for metadiscourse markers.

Qualitative data for moves and steps.

The moves and steps employed in the final chapters of the dissertations were analysed based on Yang and Allison's (2003) move analysis model. Table 2 shows the moves and steps found in Turkish and Anglophone corpora.

As can be seen in the table, all the moves and steps offered by Yang and Allison (2003) were employed in both corpora. However, additional moves and steps were identified. The move Preparatory information was divided into three steps (i.e., Introductory, Reminder, Pointer) and three new moves were added (i.e., Concluding the chapter/section, Introducing the next chapter/section, and Concluding the study). Thus, 11 moves and 13 steps were identified in total.

Table 2. *Moves and Steps in the Final Chapters of ELT Dissertations*

		Turkish (n=25)				Anglophone (n=25)			
Move	Step	Results	Discussion	Conclusion	Total	Results	Discussion	Conclusion	Total
Preparatory information									
	Introductory	41	20	8	69	21	8	20	49
	Reminder	407	1	0	408	298	0	3	301
	Pointer	316	9	8	333	195	6	16	217
	Total	764	30	16	810	514	14	39	567
Background information		0	108	23	131	0	47	63	110
Reporting results		731	229	85	1045	406	69	101	576
Commenting on results									
	Interpreting results	200	108	41	349	111	28	44	183
	Comparing with literature	18	122	47	187	9	41	33	83
	Evaluating results	104	61	6	171	59	27	32	118
	Accounting for results	103	102	21	226	18	31	22	71
	Total	425	393	115	933	197	127	131	455
Summarizing results		23	16	4	43	12	1	3	16
Summarizing the study		0	2	9	11	0	2	6	8

Table 2. (*continued*)

Evaluating the study								
Indicating limitations	2	18	16	36	1	13	24	38
Evaluating methodology	3	4	1	8	0	4	11	15
Indicating significance	0	10	4	14	0	4	13	17
Total	5	32	21	58	1	21	48	70
Deductions from the research								
Making suggestions	3	3	3	9	0	2	1	3
Recommending further research	4	29	17	50	3	24	64	91
Drawing pedagogic implications	3	30	20	53	0	13	39	52
Total	10	62	40	112	3	39	104	146
Concluding the chapter/section	3	3	0	6	12	1	0	13
Introducing the next chapter/section	1	2	0	3	13	0	0	13
Concluding the study	0	1	2	3	0	5	8	13
Total	1962	878	315	3155	1158	326	503	1987

Table 2 indicates that the groups differed in terms of the total number of moves they employed in each chapter. The total for each chapter was higher in the Turkish corpus. However, in both groups, the number of moves in Results exceeded the numbers in Discussion and Conclusion. In terms of the frequency of the moves and steps, the groups had both similarities and differences. Comparative data will be presented in detail in the section for quantitative data in order not to be misled by the raw frequencies. The following provides qualitative data about the moves and steps employed in both corpora. To illustrate each element and to show how these elements are used in the selected corpus, sample texts are provided.

Preparatory information.

This move was used in all chapters but most frequently in Results. The results showed that this move had three steps: Introductory gives the general preview of the chapter or the section (1), Reminder provides background information about the study such as the methodological instruments and statistical procedures (2), and Pointer points to the location of tables or graphs (3).

(1) This chapter presents the discussions on the results of the study organized into two sections. Each section addresses one of the study's main research themes. The first section presents a brief summary of the results obtained in the study. The next section presents the implications of the study for classroom practice. The chapter ends with the limitations of the study and implications for further research (*Discussion*, T23).

Chapter 4 contains an explanation of the results of the statistical analysis of the collected data using the SPSS output. Any statistically meaningful correlations among the variables and potential predictors are identified. An overview of the research methodology is followed by a description of the targeted sample population, a report of the ... The chapter concludes with a summary and an introduction to chapter 5 (*Results*, A11).

(2) The present study investigated the impacts of ... on incidental vocabulary learning of advanced EFL students. With this aim in mind, three instructional procedures were developed to present subjects ... Immediate and delayed post-tests were administrated after the completion of the treatment sessions. The post-test was ... (*Results, T18*).

The archival data containing all written assignments, records of peer interaction, student reflection, and ... were made available through downloads of record maintained by the original L2 writing course instructor. Before downloading the data used in this study, the course instructor declassified all the records by ... The data was then used to answer the research questions set forth in the study. The two general research questions in Chapter 1 drove the collection of the data and the subsequent data analysis. Those were aimed at determining: ... (*Results, A21*).

(3) Results are presented in Table 4.1.1. below (*Results, T2*).

Table 1 offers a summary of the participants' demographics (*Results, A20*).

According to the results, chapters commonly begin with Introductory. Subsequently, Reminder is employed and then results are presented by using Pointer (4). However, Reminders can be used at the beginning and then followed by Introductory. In such cases, Reminders usually restate the purpose of the study (5). It should be noted that Introductory can also be used at the beginning of the sections (6) whereas Reminder (7) and Pointer (8) can occur anywhere in the section.

(4) This chapter discusses the data from the survey that was conducted. After presenting the limitations, this section will discuss the descriptive statistics for the participants and outcome variables. ... Mean, median, range, standard deviation, and range were calculated for the participant variables. ... These descriptive statistics were as follows: Table 6 .. (*Results, A24*).

(5) The purpose of this quantitative, correlational study was to determine if a relationship existed between Chapter 4 begins with an introduction that reiterates the purpose of the study and how the research was conducted. Next, a description of ... (*Results, A17*).

(6) This section will present the results of the analysis of data between the control and study group. As mentioned above, first two parts will present the ... (*Results, T10*).

(7) For further analysis on these findings, one way ANOVA was conducted. The findings on between and within group comparisons are given in Table 32 below (*Results, T8*).

(8) The ANOVA results for listening comprehension (Table 4) revealed a significant main effect of The interaction between time of testing and proficiency level is illustrated in Figure 7 (*Results, T21*).

Background information.

This move was found in the chapters of Discussion and Conclusion but not Results. It was used to restate the main points of the study (e.g., the purpose of the study) (9) or to give

theoretical or methodological information related to the discussion (10). Although it was most commonly used at the beginning of the chapter, it could also be used in anywhere in the chapter.

(9) The aim of this study was to explore the role of two specific comprehension models, process model and interactive model, on the development of reading skills in English Language Teaching (ELT). To do so, a questionnaire investigating the role of these models was given to undergraduates at the ... (*Discussion, T1*).

(10) This study of the archiaval data from a second language (L2) composition course used a quantitative research methodology to analyse students writing in ways that would accuarately measure and reflect the learning outcomes of the course. This was done by using a pretest posttest design to measure ... (*Discussion, A21*).

Reporting results.

This move was the most frequent move in both corpora. Although it was used in all three chapters, it was most frequently employed in Results chapters. It was the main move to present the results of the study. Frequently, it was preceded by Reminders and Pointers (11) and followed by comments on results (12).

(11) The multiple regression was used to determine the predictive value of the independent variables of having taken a remedial course, race/ethnicity, gender, and race for ... A summary of the regression is displayed in Table 6 and the ANOVA is displayed in Table 7. The results displayed in Table 7 show that the variable of having taken a remedial course was not a statistically significant predictor of ... (*Results, A20*).

(12) The between group Welch test and Games Howell post hoc test showed that immediate and delayed post-test results of the two experimental groups were significantly higher than the CG. This result suggested that PI treatment had positive effects on the interpretation of NAI constructions (*Results, T3*).

Commenting on results.

This move was the most frequent move after Reporting Results. Both groups used this move frequently in their final chapters but especially in Results. In Turkish corpus, it was also frequent in Discussion. Although there were differences between the groups in terms of the frequencies of the steps, the most frequent step in both groups was Interpreting results and it was mostly employed in Result chapters. The texts below exemplify the use of the four steps identified: Interpreting results (13), Comparing results with literature (14), Evaluating results (15) and Accounting for results (16).

(13) The TGI and DDL groups had significant decreases from posttest to delated posttest, while the DCI group did not. This suggests that there may have been an instructional effect in the DCI group not present in other two instructional treatments (*Results, A1*).

(14) These findings are consistent with Wilson's (1993) research showing the correlation between higher TOEIC scores and oral proficiency (*Conclusion, A11*).

(15) Considering that the writing prompt is directly refer to the language teaching field, this finding is not surprising, in fact, should be expected. Nonetheless, this finding sounds important as approving the applicability of the ... (*Results, T8*).

(16) The simplest explanation for the unusually high pre-test scores on this measure by both the treatment and control groups is that the test was too simple for the level of musical aptitude of most of the participants (*Results, A14*).

Summarizing results.

This move was found in both corpora and it was employed most frequently in Result chapters. It was used to give a summary of the specific results (17).

(17) In sum, the results revealed that all groups processed English compound words significantly faster than noncompound words. The Turkish-English intermediate level bilinguals yielded no priming effects either for compounds or noncompounds. In contrast, ... (*Results, T22*).

Summarizing the study.

This move was less frequent than the moves mentioned above. It was not found in Results but other chapters, more frequently in Conclusions. In both corpora, it was used to state the main points of the study in brief (18).

(18) The current study presents an empirical study of the effectiveness of multimedia glosses and strategy use on second language listening comprehension and incidental vocabulary learning in a mobile environment (*Conclusion, T24*).

Evaluating the study.

This move was found in both corpora but more frequently in the Anglophone corpus. It was frequent in Discussion and Conclusion but not in Results. Of its steps, Indicating limitations (19) was employed more than Evaluating methodology (20) and Indicating significance/advantage (21).

(19) While this study offers numerous empirical findings and various practical implications, these results should be applied with caution and recognition of the study's limitations. One possible limitation of this study is the use of self-report (*Discussion, A3*).

(20) The current research compared mean scores. Without pairing, there was no way of knowing whether, for a subset of students, the texting had effect on learning. This point should be emphasized, as it possible that a different method would have led to differing results (*Conclusion, A4*).

(21) The study is significant as the first classroom-based study of corpus-informed grammar instruction to separate inductive instruction from using teaching materials based on corpora (*Conclusion, A1*).

Deductions from the research.

This move was used frequently by both Turkish and Anglophone researchers. Turkish group used it more frequently in their Discussion chapters while Anglophones used it heavily in the Conclusions. In both groups, however, the step Making suggestions (22) was employed much less than Recommending further research (23) and Drawing pedagogic implications (24).

(22) If future researchers want all subjects to report the same numbers of times and at the same locations in the videotext, then researcher-only pauses should be used (*Conclusion, A5*).

(23) Research on middle grades is, however, scant and thus, could be an area of further research (*Discussion, A9*).

(24) EIB and SLA stakeholders may use this information toward developing curricula and materials focusing on improving TOEIC scores with a goal of improving all English skills sets, speaking, listening, reading, and writing (*Conclusion, A11*).

Concluding the chapter/section.

This move was found in both corpora but more frequently in Anglophone corpus. It was employed in Results and Discussion chapters but not in Conclusions. In Anglophone corpus, except for one case in Discussion, all instances were in Results. The researchers used this move at the end of their chapters/sections to summarize the content of the chapter/section. It was frequently followed by introductory information about the next chapter (25).

(25) This chapter presented the results of the study. First, it demonstrated the homogeneity of the groups which eliminated the potential for pre-existing circumstances explaining the differences in the performance of the groups. Then, it illustrated how the experimental groups outperformed the control group using simple gain scores. ... In the final chapter, the researchers will explain ... (*Results, A9*).

Introducing the next chapter/section.

This move was more frequent in Anglophone corpus and all the instances in this group were in Results. Of the three in Turkish corpus, one was in Results and two in Discussion. This move was used at the end of the chapter/section to prepare the readers for the next chapter (26).

(26) In the next chapter, these findings will be discussed in conjunction with existing literature, conclusions will be explained, and recommendations for future research will be proposed (*Results, A16*).

Concluding the study.

This move was used by both Turkish and Anglophone researchers. No researchers used this move in Results. The move which was more frequent in the Anglophone corpus was employed to conclude the study with restatements or concluding remarks (27). In many

dissertations, it began with a summary of the study restating the purpose, methodology and results, and it concluded with deductions from the research (28).

(27) In summary, this study validated Bandura's (1977, 1997) sources of self-efficacy in the Thai context and provides an initial understanding of specific variables ... that predict Thai NNEST's of EFL teacher self-efficacy. Because strong self-efficacy has numerous benefits, it is critical to better understand factors that improve this construct. As a result of this study, it is now not only evident that longevity as a teacher and perceived English proficiency have an individually significant positive association with teacher self-efficacy, but it is also apparent which additional areas need further exploration (*Discussion, A3*).

(28) Some studies focused on students with learning disabilities and reading interventions that have demonstrated success in helping the learning disabled students to improve in reading. ... This study sought to answer questions related to assessments in reading. ... A quantitative causal-comparative design was used to conduct this research study. ... The results of the analysis demonstrated no significant differences between the two groups for the three assessments. ... It can be concluded that there is a positive effect on reading for ELL students with learning disabilities who participate in the Wilson reading system. This study contributes to evidence to the literature that there effective interventions for ELL students with learning disabilities in reading. Recommendations are made for future research to confirm the results of this study in order to add strength to the findings of this study (*Conclusion, A13*).

Qualitative data for metadiscourse.

The metadiscourse markers employed in the final chapters of the dissertations were analysed based on Hyland and Tse's (2004) metadiscourse taxonomy. The results indicated that interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in the taxonomy were employed in all final chapters of Turkish and Anglophone groups. Table 3 shows the metadiscourse markers employed in both corpora.

Table 3. *Metadiscourse Markers in the Final Chapters of ELT Dissertations*

Category	Turkish				Anglophone			
	Results	Discussion	Conclusion	Total	Results	Discussion	Conclusion	Total
Transitions	1364	1282	612	3258	855	483	656	1994
Frame markers	1147	725	397	2269	849	261	376	1486
Endophoric markers	970	129	22	1121	516	35	109	660
Evidentials	206	742	198	1146	253	340	451	1044
Code glosses	656	523	211	1390	444	205	264	913
Interactive	4343	3401	1440	9184	2917	1324	1856	6097
Hedges	1964	2142	1004	5110	1289	901	1261	3451
Boosters	1296	1160	418	2874	903	613	725	2241
Attitude markers	195	280	122	597	117	143	174	434
Engagement markers	100	321	180	601	47	141	230	418
Self-mention	31	23	12	66	94	64	56	214
Interactional	3586	3926	1736	9248	2450	1862	2446	6758
Total	7929	7327	3176	18432	5367	3186	4302	12855

As can be seen in Table 3, Turkish researchers used more metadiscourse markers than Anglophones in total. The total numbers for interactive and interactional resources were higher in the Turkish corpus. Except for one sub-category (i.e., self-mentions), Turkish researchers had higher totals in all sub-categories. However, the groups were similar in terms of the most and least frequent items, and the type of metadiscourse (i.e., interactive or interactional) employed in their chapters. That is, in both groups, Hedges was used the most and Self-mentions the least. Also, metadiscourse was more interactive in Results and more interactional in Discussions and Conclusions. The frequencies of these two categories by chapters and moves are given in Table 4.

Table 4. *Metadiscourse in the Final Chapters of ELT Dissertations (by moves)*

Move	Turkish Metadiscourse			Anglophone Metadiscourse		
	R	D	C	R	D	C
Preparatory information	1232	83	39	1203	28	117
Background information	0	304	75	0	145	256
Reporting results	2130	553	203	1133	134	225
Commenting on results	818	1618	336	371	587	289
Summarizing results	103	75	11	61	2	16
Summarizing the study	0	25	207	0	3	94
Evaluating the study	14	134	118	7	111	207
Deductions from the research	13	570	434	0	295	557
Concluding the chapter/section	32	15	0	113	0	0
Introducing next chapter/section	1	4	0	29	0	0
Concluding the study	0	20	17	0	19	95
Interactive	4343	3401	1440	2917	1324	1856
Preparatory information	501	45	19	726	24	99
Background information	0	200	43	0	132	186
Reporting results	1775	495	178	1043	192	254
Commenting on results	1161	1820	426	479	739	395
Summarizing results	89	54	9	49	5	29
Summarizing the study	0	26	199	0	3	86
Evaluating the study	21	187	136	10	201	271
Deductions from the research	26	1021	707	6	528	999
Concluding the chapter/section	13	57	0	108	9	0
Introducing next chapter/section	0	2	0	29	0	0
Concluding the study	0	19	19	0	29	127
Interactional	3586	3926	1736	2450	1862	2446
TOTAL	7929	7327	3176	5367	3186	4302

*R=Results, D=Discussion, C=Conclusion

Table 4 shows the frequencies of metadiscourse by chapters and moves. As can be seen in the table, in both corpora, metadiscourse was used most commonly in Reporting results and Commenting on results. The common type was interactive in Reporting results and interactional in Commenting on results. Despite containing less metadiscourse than these moves, Deductions from the research, Preparatory information and Background information were also the moves with frequent use of metadiscourse. Results indicated that moves differed in terms of the amount of interactive and interactional markers they included. The data showing whether these

differences were significant or not will be presented in the section for quantitative results. The following provides qualitative data regarding the use of each sub-category of metadiscourse:

Transitions.

Transitions were the most frequent interactive marker in both corpora. Although they were used most frequently in Result chapters, they were also common in Discussion and Conclusion chapters. Turkish researchers used more transitions than Anglophones. These devices were employed mainly for addition (1), comparison (2) and consequence (3).

(1) Moreover, since the study was conducted in a specific EFL contexts (L1 Turkish), the results cannot be generalized to other settings and this may be considered as another limitation of the study (*Conclusion, T12*).

Also, as is true for many studies that propose prediction models, the threat of omitted variable bias to internal validity is present (*Discussion, A3*)

(2) Likewise, these findings highlight the cognitive component of Bandura's (1997) reciprocal determinism as it is ... (*Discussion, A3*)

The results of their study revealed that Similarly, the present study showed that the writing quality regarding grammar in L2 has a significant correlation with working memory capacity (*Conclusion, T12*).

In contrast, as the results of the Turkish study revealed, Turkish native speakers accessed Turkish compounds significantly more slowly than noncompound items (*Discussion, T22*).

(3) Such differences do not occur for ETG. Hence, it could be said that differences between the immediate test and the delayed post-test mean scores are more observable for ... (*Results, T5*).

In this respect, re-exposure to PI can affect the learners' processing of the input relatively permanently. Therefore, re-exposure to PI can reinforce learning (*Discussion, T3*).

If the content of these courses varies widely and the faculty used for remedial education are frequently adjunct faculty, then there is the potential for a wide range of differences between what students are learning (*Conclusion, A20*).

Frame markers.

These devices were the second most frequent interactive markers in both Turkish and Anglophone corpora. Like transitions, these devices were most frequently employed in Result chapters. They were used as sequencers (4), discourse-labels (5), topicalizers (6) and announcers (7).

(4) There are two major reasons for choosing a written free recall over other measures. First ... (*Conclusion, A5*).

The fact that one-fifth of the participants didn't select English as a spoken language skill that they possessed also raised many questions: (1) ... (*Discussion, A3*).

(5) To conclude, the data from the present study prove that reading provides comprehensible input for vocabulary learning (*Conclusion*, T16).

(6) With regard to verbs, it appears that they posed the greatest difficulty in retrieval, as the median recall times were ... (*Results*, A29).

As for the access to glosses, glosses are more frequently used when they are encountered in the first listening (*Conclusion*, T24).

(7) The purpose of this chapter is to discuss the research findings in relation to previous studies, and, based on the findings, to reflect on the ... (*Results*, T24).

Endophoric markers.

These devices were more frequent in the Turkish corpus. In both corpora, they were most frequently employed in Result chapters. In the Conclusion chapters of Turkish researchers and Discussion chapters of Anglophones, they were much less frequent. The following exemplifies how these devices were used as linear references (8) and non-linear references (9).

(8) As noted in the previous section, this is almost the opposite result compared to subjects with higher level listening proficiency (*Conclusion*, A5).

(9) On the other hand, there was not statistically significant correlation between the age and the competence-oriented approach (see Table 4.3.1.2) (*Results*, T11).

Evidentials.

Unlike other interactive markers, these devices were most frequently employed in Discussion and Conclusion. Turkish researchers used these markers most frequently in their Discussions while Anglophones in their Conclusions. In both corpora, Results was the chapter in which evidentials were used the least frequently. They were found to be in two forms: integral (10) and non-integral (11).

(10) Descriptive statistics provide an overview of the sample's basic demographic features and other key variables (Field, 2013) (*Results*, A16).

(11) Block (2012) argues that social class is another characteristic that may impact second language learning, as it impacts ... (*Conclusion*, A7).

Code glosses.

These devices were found in all three chapters but most frequently in Results. In Turkish corpus, Conclusions were the chapters in which code glosses were used the least. In this chapters, Anglophones used more code glosses than Turkish researchers. They were used as exemplifiers (12) and reformulators (13).

(12) As proposed in literature, writing process depends on a number of cognitive sources, such as working memory and retention (*Conclusion*, T12).

(13) The participants might have a habit of blaming themselves for bad events. In other words, they experience learned helpless (*Results*, T7).

Hedges.

Hedges were the most frequent metadiscourse markers in both corpora. They were used more than all other sub-categories (both interactive and interactional). The total number of these devices was higher in the Turkish group. Although they were common in all three chapters, Turkish researchers used them less frequently in their Conclusions and Anglophones in their Discussions. Among the common hedging devices were verbs (14), adverbs and adjectives (15).

(14) Motivation seemed like an important and promising variable to include in the predication model, ... (*Discussion* , A21).

This result suggested that PI treatment had positive effects on the interpretation of NAI constructions (*Results*, T3).

(15) This is possibly due a disconnect between the listening strategy descriptors used in this study (*Conclusion*, A5).

It is more likely that these students are unprepared for college, perhaps due to racial or socioeconomic disparities (*Conclusion*, A20).

Boosters.

Boosters were used frequently in both corpora. They were the second most frequent devices in the interactional category. Turkish researchers used them the least in their Conclusions while Anglophones in their Discussions. Among the common boosters were verbs (16), adverbs and adjectives (17).

(16)The results clearly show that the attitudes of community college English teachers vary (*Conclusion*, A15).

Of the two incidental teaching groups, IT2 performed better than IT1 in terms of recognition of the collocation forms. This shows that ... (*Results*, T5).

(17) Certainly, other cultural contexts exert similar influence on the development and perceptions of teacher self-efficacy (*Discussion*, A3).

For the present study, it is apparent that explicit instructional focus on the target items led to richer elaboration, and this in turn led to higher learning gains for subjects in the ETG (*Results*, T5).

Attitude markers.

These devices were found in all three chapters. However, Turkish researchers used them most frequently in Discussions while Anglophones in Conclusions. They were signalled mostly by sentence adverbs (18) and adjectives (19).

(18) Unfortunately, there is far less information on the word retrieval skills of young bilingual Spanish-English speaking children, which complicated ... (*Conclusion*, A2).

(19) This finding is not surprising at all since similar cases have been observed in other studies (*Discussion*, T8).

It is logical to deduce that subjects who depended more on these strategies would focus less on information being delivered through the visual channel (*Conclusion*, A5).

Engagement markers.

These devices were more frequent in Discussion and Conclusion chapters. In both corpora, they were employed the least in Result chapters. They were signalled by reader participation pronouns (20), directives (21) and obligation modals (22).

(20) We should also remember that reading comprehension also depends on the development of various skills such as ... (*Discussion*, T21).

The findings of this dissertation and similar experiments provide us with hints about how languages are processed in general (*Discussion*, T15)

As we can see in the figure, from pretests to delayed posttests, the TGI group ...(*Results*, A1).

Our learners can develop their discovery skills and become self-sufficient individuals (*Conclusion*, T10).

(21) Recall that this model aims to describe how multimorphemic words, namely compounds, can be decomposed and assumes that ... (*Discussion*, T22).

(22) How can summer programs not receive the attention they deserve? A summer should never pass without books in the hands of the disadvantaged (*Discussion*, A19).

One might put forward different causes that could account for this conflict (*Discussion*, T9).

Self-mentions.

Self-mentions were the least frequent metadiscourse markers in both corpora. They were found in all three chapters but mostly in Results and Discussions. Anglophones employed them more than Turkish researchers. They were signalled by first-person pronouns (23) and possessive adjectives (24).

(23) In terms of the pattern of processing, we found similarities between ... (*Discussion*, T22).

(24) My prediction was based on the idea that L2 English processing could be affected by the linguistic and lexical structure of Turkish, which ... (*Discussion*, T15).

Quantitative Data

Quantitative data will be presented in different sections. First of all, comparative data for Results, Discussion, and Conclusion chapters will be provided. Then, the results of statistical analyses will be presented in three sections to show the data for Results, Discussion, and Conclusion chapters separately.

Quantitative data for moves and steps.

To quantitatively investigate the differences between the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the moves and steps employed in final chapters, first of all, descriptive analyses were made. Then, Chi-square and Mann-Whitney U tests were performed to investigate whether there were any significant differences between the two corpora. Descriptive data consisted of frequencies and percentages. Table 5 and Table 6 show the distribution of the moves and steps employed in Turkish corpus and Anglophone corpus, respectively.

Table 5. *Distribution of Moves and Steps in Turkish Corpus (by chapters)*

Move	Step	Chapters							
		Results		Discussion		Conclusion		Total	
Preparatory information									
	Introductory	41	(59.4)	20	(29.0)	8	(11.6)	69	(8.5)
	Reminder	407	(99.8)	1	(0.2)	0	(0.0)	408	(50.4)
	Pointer	316	(94.9)	9	(2.7)	8	(2.4)	333	(41.1)
	Total	764	(94.3)	30	(3.7)	16	(2.0)	810	(100.0) (25.7)
Background information									
		0	(0.0)	108	(82.4)	23	(17.6)	131	(100.0) (4.2)
Reporting results									
		731	(70.0)	229	(21.9)	85	(8.1)	1045	(100.0) (33.1)
Commenting on results									
	Interpreting results	200	(57.3)	108	(30.9)	41	(11.7)	349	(37.4)
	Comparing with literature	18	(9.6)	122	(65.2)	47	(25.1)	187	(20.0)
	Evaluating results	104	(60.8)	61	(35.7)	6	(3.5)	171	(18.3)
	Accounting for results	103	(45.6)	102	(45.1)	21	(9.3)	226	(24.2)
	Total	425	(45.6)	393	(42.1)	115	(12.3)	933	(100.0) (29.6)
Summarizing results									
		23	(53.5)	16	(37.2)	4	(9.3)	43	(100.0) (1.4)
Summarizing the study									
		0	(0.0)	2	(18.2)	9	(81.8)	11	(100.0) (0.3)
Evaluating the study									
	Indicating limitations	2	(5.6)	18	(50.0)	16	(44.4)	36	(62.1)
	Evaluating methodology	3	(37.5)	4	(50.0)	1	(12.5)	8	(13.8)
	Indicating significance	0	(0.0)	10	(71.4)	4	(28.6)	14	(24.1)
	Total	5	(8.6)	32	(55.2)	21	(36.2)	58	(100.0) (1.8)
Deductions from the research									
	Making suggestions	3	(33.3)	3	(33.3)	3	(33.3)	9	(8.0)
	Recommending further res.	4	(8.0)	29	(58.0)	17	(34.0)	50	(44.6)
	Drawing pedagogic imp.	3	(5.7)	30	(56.6)	20	(37.7)	53	(47.3)
	Total	10	(8.9)	62	(55.4)	40	(35.7)	112	(100.0) (3.5)
Concluding the chapter/section									
		3	(50.0)	3	(50.0)	0	(0.0)	6	(100.0) (0.2)
Introducing next chapter/section									
		1	(33.3)	2	(66.7)	0	(0.0)	3	(100.0) (0.1)
Concluding the study									
		0	(0.0)	1	(33.3)	2	(66.7)	3	(100.0) (0.1)
Totals		1962	(62.2)	878	(27.8)	315	(10.0)	3155	(100.0) (100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

Table 6. *Distribution of Moves and Steps in Anglophone Corpus (by chapters)*

Move	Step	Chapters								
		Results		Discussion		Conclusion		Total		
Preparatory information										
	Introductory	21	(42.9)	8	(16.3)	20	(40.8)	49	(8.6)	(28.5)
	Reminder	298	(99.0)	0	(0.0)	3	(1.0)	301	(53.1)	
	Pointer	195	(89.9)	6	(2.8)	16	(7.4)	217	(38.3)	
	Total	514	(90.7)	14	(2.5)	39	(6.9)	567	(100.0)	
Background information		0	(0.0)	47	(42.7)	63	(57.3)	110	(100.0)	(5.5)
Reporting results		406	(70.5)	69	(12.0)	101	(17.5)	576	(100.0)	(29.0)
Commenting on results										
	Interpreting results	111	(60.7)	28	(15.3)	44	(24.0)	183	(40.2)	(22.9)
	Comparing with literature	9	(10.8)	41	(49.4)	33	(39.8)	83	(18.2)	
	Evaluating results	59	(50.0)	27	(22.9)	32	(27.1)	118	(25.9)	
	Accounting for results	18	(25.4)	31	(43.7)	22	(31.0)	71	(15.6)	
	Total	197	(43.3)	127	(27.9)	131	(28.8)	455	(100.0)	
Summarizing results		12	(75.0)	1	(6.3)	3	(18.8)	16	(100.0)	(0.8)
Summarizing the study		0	(0.0)	2	(25.0)	6	(75.0)	8	(100.0)	(0.4)
Evaluating the study										
	Indicating limitations	1	(2.6)	13	(34.2)	24	(63.2)	38	(54.3)	(3.5)
	Evaluating methodology	0	(0.0)	4	(26.7)	11	(73.3)	15	(21.4)	
	Indicating significance	0	(0.0)	4	(23.5)	13	(76.5)	17	(24.3)	
	Total	1	(1.4)	21	(30.0)	48	(68.6)	70	(100.0)	
Deductions from the research										
	Making suggestions	0	(0.0)	2	(66.7)	1	(33.3)	3	(2.1)	(7.3)
	Recommending further res.	3	(3.3)	24	(26.4)	64	(70.3)	91	(62.3)	
	Drawing pedagogic imp.	0	(0.0)	13	(25.0)	39	(75.0)	52	(35.6)	
	Total	3	(2.1)	39	(26.7)	104	(71.2)	146	(100.0)	
Concluding the chapter/section		12	(92.3)	1	(7.7)	0	(0.0)	13	(100.0)	(0.7)
Introducing next chapter/section		13	(100.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	13	(100.0)	(0.7)
Concluding the study		0	(0.0)	5	(38.5)	8	(61.5)	13	(100.0)	(0.7)
Totals		1158	(58.3)	326	(16.4)	503	(25.3)	1987	(100.0)	(100.0)

* Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

As can be seen in Table 5 and Table 6, the total frequency was higher in the Turkish group. However, in both corpora, more than half of all the moves were employed in Result chapters and the most frequent move was Reporting results. According to the tables, the least frequent moves were Introducing the next chapter/section and Concluding the study in the Turkish group and Summarizing the study in the Anglophone group.

Preparatory Information was used most frequently in Results chapters. In both corpora, more than 90% of the move was employed in Result chapters. Turkish researchers used this move the least in Conclusion (2.0%) and Anglophones in Discussion (2.5%). Among the steps of this move, Reminder was the most common step with a percentage of more than 50%, and almost all Reminders were employed in Results chapters. In terms of percentages, this step was followed by Pointer. As Reminder, this step was most frequent in Results. In these chapters, its percentage was about 90%. Although it was used less than Reminder and Pointer, the step

Introductory was also used most commonly in Result chapters. However, the two corpora differed in terms of the use of this step in Discussion and Conclusion. That is, Anglophones used this step in Conclusion (40.8%) almost as much as they used it in Results (42.9%), while Turkish researchers used it in Conclusion (11.6%) much less than they used in Results (59.4%). In sum, Turkish and Anglophone groups showed similarities in terms of the most and least used steps of the Preparatory information move although they differed in the distribution of the steps by chapters.

Background information was found in Discussion and Conclusion but not in Results. Anglophones used this move commonly in both Discussion (42.7%) and Conclusion (57.3%), while Turkish researchers used it heavily (82.4%) in Discussion.

Reporting Results was the most frequent move in both Turkish and Anglophone corpora. In both groups, its percentage was about 30% of the total and it was mostly (70%) used in Result chapters. Turkish researchers employed this move the least in Conclusion (8.1%) and Anglophones in Discussion (12%).

Commenting on results was found in all three chapters but mostly in Results. In Results chapters, its percentage of use was more than 40% in both groups. However, there were differences between the groups in terms of the use of this move in Discussion and Conclusion. Turkish researchers used this move in Results (45.6%) and Discussion (42.1%) chapters in similar amounts, while Anglophone researchers used it in Discussion (27.9%) less than they did in Results (43.3%). Additionally, Anglophones used the move in Conclusion chapters almost as frequent as they used it in Discussion chapters but Turkish researchers used the move least frequently in Conclusion chapters. In terms of the steps, it was found that the most employed step in both groups was Interpreting results and it was used most commonly in Results chapters. In these chapters, Evaluating results was also very common and, like Interpreting results, it was used most commonly in Results chapters. However, there was a salient difference between Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the use of this step in Conclusion. In Conclusion chapters, Anglophones employed Evaluating results considerably more (27.1%) than Turkish researchers (3.5%).

Unlike Interpreting results and Evaluating results, Comparing with the literature was infrequent in Result chapters (nearly 10%). In both groups, it was used most frequently in Discussion (65.2% and 49.4%). The step Accounting for results was also common in Discussion chapters. However, Turkish and Anglophone groups differed in the distribution of this step by chapters. Turkish researchers used it commonly in both Results (45.6%) and Discussion (45.1%). This group used the step the least in Conclusion chapters (9.3%). Anglophone group,

on the other hand, used it heavily in Discussion (43.7%), and in Conclusion chapters they used it considerably more than their Turkish counterparts (31.0% vs. 9.3%).

Summarizing results was not very frequent in both corpora but it was found more in Turkish corpus (1.4% vs. 0.8%). Both groups used this move most commonly in Result chapters. However, they differed in the use of the move in Discussion. In this chapter, Turkish researchers used the move frequently (37.2%) but Anglophones used it only once (6.3%).

Summarizing the study was less frequent than the moves mentioned above. Its percentage of use was less than 0.5% in both corpora. The distribution of the move by chapters showed that it was not used in Results chapters. In both corpora, it was employed in Conclusion more than in Discussion.

Evaluating the study was found in both corpora. However, its percentage of use was higher in the Anglophone corpus (1.8% vs. 3.5%). The frequency data showed that it was employed the least in Result chapters. Turkish researchers used it more in Discussion (55.2%) while Anglophones in Conclusion (68.6%). In Results chapters written by the Anglophone researchers, this move was found only once. Among the steps of this move, Indicating limitations was the most employed step in both corpora. In Result chapters, it was used rarely. Turkish group used this move in Discussion and Conclusion with similar amounts. Anglophones, however, used it more in Conclusion, although they also used it in Discussion. The second most frequent step in the groups was Indicating significance/advantage. This step was found in Discussion and Conclusion but not in Results. Turkish researchers used it most commonly in Discussion while Anglophones in Conclusion. The least frequent step in both corpora was Evaluating methodology. Turkish researchers used it infrequently while Anglophones used it almost as frequent as the step Indicating significance/advantage.

Deductions from the research was found in both corpora. However, its percentage of use was higher in the Anglophone corpus (3.5% vs. 7.3%). Turkish researchers used it more in Discussion while Anglophones in Conclusion. The move was used least frequently in Results. Of the three steps of the move, Making suggestions was the least frequent. Turkish group used the other two steps (i.e., Recommending further research and Drawing pedagogic implications) in Discussion and Conclusion with similar amounts. Anglophones, however, used them more in Conclusion.

Concluding the chapter/section was found in both corpora. However, the frequency was higher in the Anglophone group (f=6 vs. f=13) and this group used the move only in Results chapters, except for one case in Discussion. The distributions showed that it was used in Results and Discussion but not in Conclusion.

Introducing the next chapter/section was found in both corpora. However, the frequency was higher in the Anglophone group (f=3 vs. f=13). With a few cases in Results and Discussion chapters, the percentage of use in Turkish group was 0.1%; and, with cases all of which in Results chapter, the percentage of use was 0.7% in Anglophone group.

Concluding the study was used by both Turkish and Anglophone researchers. However, the frequency was higher in the Anglophone group (f=3 vs. f=13). The distributions showed that it was used only in Discussion and Conclusion chapters.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the moves and steps they employed, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 7.

Table 7. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Moves and Steps in Turkish and Anglophone Corpora*

Move / Step	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	25	28.68	717.00	233.0	-1.544	.123
	Anglophone	25	22.32	558.00			
Background information	Turkish	25	25.36	634.00	309.0	-.069	.945
	Anglophone	25	25.64	641.00			
Reporting results	Turkish	25	30.94	773.50	176.5	-2.640	.008
	Anglophone	25	20.06	501.50			
Commenting on results	Turkish	25	31.60	790.00	160.0	-2.961	.003
	Anglophone	25	19.40	485.00			
Summarizing results	Turkish	25	29.12	728.00	222.0	-1.865	.062
	Anglophone	25	21.88	547.00			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	25	26.26	656.50	293.5	-.459	.646
	Anglophone	25	24.74	618.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	25	25.08	627.00	302.0	-.209	.835
	Anglophone	25	25.92	648.00			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	25	25.88	647.00	303.0	-.186	.852
	Anglophone	25	25.12	628.00			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	25	21.52	538.00	213.0	-2.331	.020
	Anglophone	25	29.48	737.00			
Introducing the next chapter/ sec.	Turkish	25	20.26	506.50	181.5	-3.189	.001
	Anglophone	25	30.74	768.50			
Concluding the study	Turkish	25	20.50	512.50	187.5	-3.001	.003
	Anglophone	25	30.50	762.50			
TOTAL (Moves)	Turkish	25	30.04	751.00	199.0	-2.202	.028
	Anglophone	25	20.96	524.00			
Introductory	Turkish	25	27.92	698.00	252.0	-1.203	.229
	Anglophone	25	23.08	577.00			
Reminder	Turkish	25	27.82	695.50	254.5	-1.127	.260
	Anglophone	25	23.18	579.50			
Pointer	Turkish	25	27.78	694.50	255.5	-1.109	.268
	Anglophone	25	23.22	580.50			
Interpreting results	Turkish	25	29.90	747.50	202.5	-2.140	.032
	Anglophone	25	21.10	527.50			
Comparing with literature	Turkish	25	30.14	753.50	196.5	-2.263	.024
	Anglophone	25	20.86	521.50			
Evaluating results	Turkish	25	25.70	642.50	307.5	-.098	.922
	Anglophone	25	25.30	632.50			
Accounting for results	Turkish	25	32.98	824.50	125.5	-3.646	.000
	Anglophone	25	18.02	450.50			
Indicating limitations	Turkish	25	25.04	626.00	301.0	-.231	.817
	Anglophone	25	25.96	649.00			
Evaluating methodology	Turkish	25	23.62	590.50	265.5	-1.091	.275
	Anglophone	25	27.38	684.50			

Table 7. (continued)

Indicating significance/ adv.	Turkish	25	25.08	627.00	302.0	-.236	.813
	Anglophone	25	25.92	648.00			
Making suggestions	Turkish	25	28.06	701.50	248.5	-1.726	.084
	Anglophone	25	22.94	573.50			
Recommending further research	Turkish	25	21.56	539.00	214.0	-1.977	.048
	Anglophone	25	29.44	736.00			
Drawing pedagogic imp.	Turkish	25	29.00	725.00	225.0	-1.835	.066
	Anglophone	25	22.00	550.00			
TOTAL (Steps)	Turkish	25	30.44	761.00	189.0	-2.397	.017
	Anglophone	25	20.56	514.00			

Table 7 shows that there was a statistically significant difference between Turkish group ($Md=30.04$, $n=25$) and Anglophone group ($Md=20.96$, $n=25$) with regard to the use of moves, $U=199.0$, $z=-2.202$, $p<.05$. The mean ranks point to the higher amount of moves in Turkish group. Similarly, there was a significant difference between Turkish group ($Md=30.44$, $n=25$) and Anglophone group ($Md=20.56$, $n=25$) with regard to the use of steps, $U=189.0$, $z=-2.397$, $p<.05$, and the mean ranks point to the higher amount of steps in Turkish group.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the moves and steps employed in each chapter, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 8 and Table 9.

Table 8. Mann-Whitney Tests for Moves in Turkish and Anglophone Corpora (by chapters)

Chapter	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Result	Turkish	25	30.70	767.50	182.5	-2.523	.012
	Anglophone	25	20.30	507.50			
Discussion	Turkish	18	16.08	289.50	61.50	-1.367	.171
	Anglophone	10	11.65	116.50			
Conclusion	Turkish	12	12.21	146.50	68.50	-1.278	.201
	Anglophone	16	16.22	259.50			

As can be seen in Table 8, there was no significant difference between the groups with regard to the moves employed in Discussion, $U=61.5$, $z=-1.367$, $p>.05$, and, Conclusion, $U=68.5$, $z=-1.278$, $p>.05$, but in Results, $U=182.5$, $z=-2.523$, $p<.05$. In this chapter, Turkish researchers ($Md=30.70$, $n=25$) used significantly more moves than Anglophone researchers ($Md=20.30$, $n=25$).

Table 9. Mann-Whitney Tests for Steps in Turkish and Anglophone Corpora (by chapters)

Chapter	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Result	Turkish	25	29.88	747.00	203.0	-2.126	.034
	Anglophone	25	21.12	528.00			
Discussion	Turkish	18	15.92	286.50	64.50	-1.224	.221
	Anglophone	10	11.95	119.50			
Conclusion	Turkish	12	12.75	153.00	75.00	-.976	.329
	Anglophone	16	15.81	253.00			

As shown in Table 9, there was no significant difference between the groups with regard to the steps employed in Discussion, $U=64.5$, $z=-1.224$, $p>.05$ and Conclusion, $U=75.0$, $z=-.976$, $p>.05$, but in Results, $U=203.0$, $z=-2.126$, $p<.05$. In this chapter, Turkish researchers ($Md=29.88$, $n=25$) used significantly more steps than Anglophone researchers ($Md=21.12$, $n=25$).

Quantitative data for metadiscourse.

To quantitatively investigate the differences between the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the metadiscourse markers employed in final chapters, first of all, descriptive analyses were made. Then, Mann-Whitney U tests were performed to find whether there was any statistically significant difference between the two corpora. Descriptive data for metadiscourse markers consisted of frequencies and percentages. Table 10 and Table 11 show the distribution of the metadiscourse elements employed in Turkish corpus and Anglophone corpus, respectively.

Table 10. *Distribution of Metadiscourse Markers in Turkish Corpus (by chapters)*

Category	Chapters							
	Results		Discussion		Conclusion		Total	
Transitions	1364	(41.9)	1282	(39.3)	612	(18.8)	3258	(100.0) (17.7)
Frame markers	1147	(50.6)	725	(32.0)	397	(17.5)	2269	(100.0) (12.3)
Endophoric markers	970	(86.5)	129	(11.5)	22	(2.0)	1121	(100.0) (6.1)
Evidentials	206	(18.0)	742	(64.7)	198	(17.3)	1146	(100.0) (6.2)
Code glosses	656	(47.2)	523	(37.6)	211	(15.2)	1390	(100.0) (7.5)
Interactive	4343	(47.3)	3401	(37.0)	1440	(15.7)	9184	(100.0) (49.8)
Hedges	1964	(38.4)	2142	(41.9)	1004	(19.6)	5110	(100.0) (27.7)
Boosters	1296	(45.1)	1160	(40.4)	418	(14.5)	2874	(100.0) (15.6)
Attitude markers	195	(32.7)	280	(46.9)	122	(20.4)	597	(100.0) (3.2)
Engagement markers	100	(16.6)	321	(53.4)	180	(30.0)	601	(100.0) (3.3)
Self-mention	31	(47.0)	23	(34.8)	12	(18.2)	66	(100.0) (0.4)
Interactional	3586	(38.8)	3926	(42.5)	1736	(18.8)	9248	(100.0) (50.2)
Totals	7929	(43.0)	7327	(39.8)	3176	(17.2)	18432	(100.0) (100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

Table 11. *Distribution of Metadiscourse Markers in Anglophone Corpus (by chapters)*

Category	Chapters							
	Results		Discussion		Conclusion		Total	
Transitions	855	(42.9)	483	(24.2)	656	(32.9)	1994	(100.0) (15.5)
Frame markers	849	(57.1)	261	(17.6)	376	(25.3)	1486	(100.0) (11.6)
Endophoric markers	516	(78.2)	35	(5.3)	109	(16.5)	660	(100.0) (5.1)
Evidentials	253	(24.2)	340	(32.6)	451	(43.2)	1044	(100.0) (8.1)
Code glosses	444	(48.6)	205	(22.5)	264	(28.9)	913	(100.0) (7.1)
Interactive	2917	(47.8)	1324	(21.7)	1856	(30.4)	6097	(100.0) (47.4)
Hedges	1289	(37.4)	901	(26.1)	1261	(36.5)	3451	(100.0) (26.8)
Boosters	903	(40.3)	613	(27.4)	725	(32.4)	2241	(100.0) (17.4)
Attitude markers	117	(27.0)	143	(32.9)	174	(40.1)	434	(100.0) (3.4)
Engagement markers	47	(11.2)	141	(33.7)	230	(55.0)	418	(100.0) (3.3)
Self-mention	94	(43.9)	64	(29.9)	56	(26.2)	214	(100.0) (1.7)
Interactional	2450	(36.3)	1862	(27.6)	2446	(36.2)	6758	(100.0) (52.6)
Totals	5367	(41.8)	3186	(24.8)	4302	(33.5)	12855	(100.0) (100.0)

* Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

As can be seen in Table 10 and Table 11, the total amount of metadiscourse was higher in the Turkish group. The distribution of the total metadiscourse by chapters showed that metadiscourse was used most frequently in Results chapters. According to distributions, the groups differed in the use of metadiscourse in Discussion and Conclusion chapters. Turkish researchers used metadiscourse less frequently in Conclusion (17.2%) and Anglophones in Discussion (24.8%).

The results indicated that Turkish and Anglophone researchers used interactive and interactional metadiscourse very frequently, but they differed in the percentages. In the Turkish group, there was a balance in the distribution of interactive and interactional resources. That is, about half of the total metadiscourse was interactive (49.8%) and half was interactional (50.2%). In the Anglophone group, however, interactional metadiscourse was more frequent (52.6) than interactive metadiscourse (47.4%).

The distribution of the interactive and interactional metadiscourse by chapters showed that both categories were employed in the chapters. However, Result chapters were more interactive while Discussion and Conclusion chapters were more interactional. The distribution of interactive markers showed that both Turkish and Anglophone researchers used interactive resources most commonly (nearly half of all interactive markers) in Results chapters. However, the groups differed in the chapters in which they used interactive resources the least. Turkish researchers employed interactive metadiscourse less frequently (15.7%) in their Conclusions, and Anglophones in their Discussions (21.7%). The groups were also different in terms of the distribution of interactive resources. Anglophones used interactional items frequently in Results and Conclusion chapters. Turkish researchers, on the other hand, used them frequently in Results and Discussion, but mainly in Discussion.

Regarding the subcategories, it was found that both Turkish and Anglophone researchers used Hedges the most and Self-mentions the least. In the interactive category, they mostly used Transitions, followed by Frame markers. In the interactional category, however, they mostly used Hedges, followed by Boosters. Although they were less frequent than these types, other metadiscourse devices were also found in both corpora. It should be noted that the percentage of use for each sub-category differed between the groups.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the metadiscourse they employed, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 12.

Table 12. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Metadiscourse Markers in Turkish and Anglophone Corpora*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Transitions	Turkish	25	30.94	773.50	176.5	-2.639	.008
	Anglophone	25	20.06	501.50			
Frame markers	Turkish	25	30.30	757.50	192.5	-2.330	.020
	Anglophone	25	20.70	517.50			
Endophoric markers	Turkish	25	29.62	740.50	209.5	-1.999	.046
	Anglophone	25	21.38	534.50			
Evidentials	Turkish	25	24.12	603.00	278.0	-.670	.503
	Anglophone	25	26.88	672.00			
Code glosses	Turkish	25	29.64	741.00	209.0	-2.010	.044
	Anglophone	25	21.36	534.00			
Hedges	Turkish	25	29.04	726.00	224.0	-1.717	.086
	Anglophone	25	21.96	549.00			
Boosters	Turkish	25	27.58	689.50	260.5	-1.009	.313
	Anglophone	25	23.42	585.50			
Attitude markers	Turkish	25	27.78	694.50	255.5	-1.107	.268
	Anglophone	25	23.22	580.50			
Engagement markers	Turkish	25	29.92	748.00	202.0	-2.146	.032
	Anglophone	25	21.08	527.00			
Self-mentions	Turkish	25	22.00	550.00	225.0	-1.752	.080
	Anglophone	25	29.00	725.00			
Interactive	Turkish	25	29.66	741.50	208.5	-2.018	.044
	Anglophone	25	21.34	533.50			
Interactional	Turkish	25	28.50	712.50	237.5	-1.455	.146
	Anglophone	25	22.50	562.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	25	28.96	724.00	226.0	-1.679	.093
	Anglophone	25	22.04	551.00			

Table 12 shows that there was no statistically significant difference between Turkish group ($Md=28.96$, $n=25$) and Anglophone group ($Md=22.04$, $n=25$) in terms of the total amount of metadiscourse, $U=226.0$, $z=-1.679$, $p>.05$, although the mean rank was higher in Turkish group. There was no significant difference between Turkish group ($Md=28.50$, $n=25$) and Anglophone group ($Md=22.50$, $n=25$) in the use of interactional metadiscourse, $U=237.5$, $z=-1.455$, $p>.05$, but interactive metadiscourse, $U=208.5$, $z=-2.018$, $p<.05$. Turkish researchers used this type of metadiscourse ($Md=29.66$, $n=25$) significantly more than Anglophones ($Md=21.34$, $n=25$). Regarding the sub-categories, Turkish group had higher mean ranks in all types except for Evidentials ($Md=26.88$, $n=25$) and Self-mentions ($Md=29.00$, $n=25$).

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the metadiscourse employed in each chapter, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 13.

Table 13. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Metadiscourse in Turkish and Anglophone Corpora (by chapters)*

Chapter	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Results	Turkish	25	29.28	732.00	218.0	-1.834	.067
	Anglophone	25	21.72	543.00			
Discussion	Turkish	18	15.47	278.50	72.50	-.839	.401
	Anglophone	10	12.75	127.50			
Conclusion	Turkish	12	13.50	162.00	84.00	-.557	.577
	Anglophone	16	15.25	244.00			

Table 13 shows that there was no statistically significant difference between Turkish and Anglophone group with regard to the use of metadiscourse in Results chapters, $U=218.0$, $z=-1.834$, $p>.05$; Discussion chapters, $U=72.5$, $z=-.839$, $p>.05$; and Conclusion chapters, $U=84.0$, $z=-.557$, $p>.05$. The distribution of the metadiscourse elements by moves employed in Turkish corpus (Table 14) and Anglophone corpus (Table 15) were given below.

Table 14. *Distribution of Metadiscourse in Turkish Corpus (by moves)*

Move	Chapters							
	Results		Discussion		Conclusion		Total	(of total)
Preparatory information	1232	(91.0)	83	(6.1)	39	(2.9)	1354	(100.0) (7.3)
Background information	0	(0.0)	304	(80.2)	75	(19.8)	379	(100.0) (2.1)
Reporting results	2130	(73.8)	553	(19.2)	203	(7.0)	2886	(100.0) (15.7)
Commenting on results	818	(29.5)	1618	(58.4)	336	(12.1)	2772	(100.0) (15.0)
Summarizing results	103	(54.5)	75	(39.7)	11	(5.8)	189	(100.0) (1.0)
Summarizing the study	0	(0.0)	25	(10.8)	207	(89.2)	232	(100.0) (1.3)
Evaluating the study	14	(5.3)	134	(50.4)	118	(44.4)	266	(100.0) (1.4)
Deductions from the research	13	(1.3)	570	(56.0)	434	(42.7)	1017	(100.0) (5.5)
Concluding the chapter/section	32	(68.1)	15	(31.9)	0	(0.0)	47	(100.0) (0.3)
Introducing next chapter/section	1	(20.0)	4	(80.0)	0	(0.0)	5	(100.0) (0.0)
Concluding the study	0	(0.0)	20	(54.1)	17	(45.9)	37	(100.0) (0.2)
Interactive	4343	(47.3)	3401	(37.0)	1440	(15.7)	9184	(100.0) (49.8)
Preparatory information	501	(88.7)	45	(8.0)	19	(3.4)	565	(100.0) (3.1)
Background information	0	(0.0)	200	(82.3)	43	(17.7)	243	(100.0) (1.3)
Reporting results	1775	(72.5)	495	(20.2)	178	(7.3)	2448	(100.0) (13.3)
Commenting on results	1161	(34.1)	1820	(53.4)	426	(12.5)	3407	(100.0) (18.5)
Summarizing results	89	(58.6)	54	(35.5)	9	(5.9)	152	(100.0) (0.8)
Summarizing the study	0	(0.0)	26	(11.6)	199	(88.4)	225	(100.0) (1.2)
Evaluating the study	21	(6.1)	187	(54.4)	136	(39.5)	344	(100.0) (1.9)
Deductions from the research	26	(1.5)	1021	(58.2)	707	(40.3)	1754	(100.0) (9.5)
Concluding the chapter/section	13	(18.6)	57	(81.4)	0	(0.0)	70	(100.0) (0.4)
Introducing next chapter/section	0	(0.0)	2	(100.0)	0	(0.0)	2	(100.0) (0.0)
Concluding the study	0	(0.0)	19	(50.0)	19	(50.0)	38	(100.0) (0.2)
Interactional	3586	(38.8)	3926	(42.5)	1736	(18.8)	9248	(100.0) (50.2)
Total	7929	(43.0)	7327	(39.8)	3176	(17.2)	18432	(100.0) (100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

Table 15. *Distribution of Metadiscourse in Anglophone Corpus (by moves)*

Move	Chapters							
	Results		Discussion		Conclusion		Total	(of total)
Preparatory information	1203	(89.2)	28	(2.1)	117	(8.7)	1348	(100.0) (10.5)
Background information	0	(0.0)	145	(36.2)	256	(63.8)	401	(100.0) (3.1)
Reporting results	1133	(75.9)	134	(9.0)	225	(15.1)	1492	(100.0) (11.6)
Commenting on results	371	(29.8)	587	(47.1)	289	(23.2)	1247	(100.0) (9.7)
Summarizing results	61	(77.2)	2	(2.5)	16	(20.3)	79	(100.0) (0.6)
Summarizing the study	0	(0.0)	3	(3.1)	94	(96.9)	97	(100.0) (0.8)
Evaluating the study	7	(2.2)	111	(34.2)	207	(63.7)	325	(100.0) (2.5)
Deductions from the research	0	(0.0)	295	(34.6)	557	(65.4)	852	(100.0) (6.6)
Concluding the chapter/section	113	(100.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	113	(100.0) (0.9)
Introducing next chapter/section	29	(100.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	29	(100.0) (0.2)
Concluding the study	0	(0.0)	19	(16.7)	95	(83.3)	114	(100.0) (0.9)
Interactive	2917	(47.8)	1324	(21.7)	1856	(30.4)	6097	(100.0) (47.4)

Table 15. (*continued*)

Preparatory information	726	(85.5)	24	(2.8)	99	(11.7)	849	(100.0)	(6.6)
Background information	0	(0.0)	132	(41.5)	186	(58.5)	318	(100.0)	(2.5)
Reporting results	1043	(70.0)	192	(12.9)	254	(17.1)	1489	(100.0)	(11.6)
Commenting on results	479	(29.7)	739	(45.8)	395	(24.5)	1613	(100.0)	(12.5)
Summarizing results	49	(59.0)	5	(6.0)	29	(34.9)	83	(100.0)	(0.6)
Summarizing the study	0	(0.0)	3	(3.4)	86	(96.6)	89	(100.0)	(0.7)
Evaluating the study	10	(2.1)	201	(41.7)	271	(56.2)	482	(100.0)	(3.7)
Deductions from the research	6	(0.4)	528	(34.4)	999	(65.2)	1533	(100.0)	(11.9)
Concluding the chapter/section	108	(92.3)	9	(7.7)	0	(0.0)	117	(100.0)	(0.9)
Introducing next chapter/section	29	(100.0)	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	29	(100.0)	(0.2)
Concluding the study	0	(0.0)	29	(18.6)	127	(81.4)	156	(100.0)	(1.2)
Interactional	2450	(36.3)	1862	(27.6)	2446	(36.2)	6758	(100.0)	(52.6)
Total	5367	(41.8)	3186	(24.8)	4302	(33.5)	12855	(100.0)	(100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

Table 14 and Table 15 indicate that Turkish and Anglophone groups were similar in the distribution of the metadiscourse markers by moves. In both corpora, Reporting results and Commenting on results were the moves in which metadiscourse markers were used most frequently. In terms of the frequencies, these moves were followed by Deductions from the research and Preparatory information. Even though it had less metadiscourse than these moves, Background information was also among the moves in which metadiscourse markers were used frequently.

The two groups were also similar in terms of the types of metadiscourse used in each move. In both corpora, interactive markers were used most frequently in Reporting results. This move was followed by Commenting on results and Preparatory information. Deductions from the research was the fourth move in which interactive markers were used most frequently. Interactional markers, however, were found most frequent in Commenting on results. This move was followed by Reporting results and Deductions from the research. For interactional category, the fourth move was the Preparatory information in terms of the frequency of use.

Results indicated that moves differed in the amount of the interactive and interactional markers they included. In Preparatory information and Background information, interactive markers were used more than interactional markers. In Commenting on results, Evaluating the study and Deductions from the research, on the other hand, interactional markers were more frequent. In other moves, there was a slight or no difference in the amount of the two categories. It should be noted that Reporting results was an exception. In this move, Anglophone researchers used interactive and interactional markers in equal amounts, whereas Turkish researchers used interactive markers about 2% more than interactional markers.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the distribution of metadiscourse by moves, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 16.

Table 16. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Metadiscourse in Turkish and Anglophone Corpora (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	25	24.38	609.50	284.5	-.543	.587
	Anglophone	25	26.62	665.50			
Background information	Turkish	25	25.02	625.50	300.5	-.233	.816
	Anglophone	25	25.98	649.50			
Reporting results	Turkish	25	30.84	771.00	179.0	-2.591	.010
	Anglophone	25	20.16	504.00			
Commenting on results	Turkish	25	32.40	810.00	140.0	-3.347	.001
	Anglophone	25	18.60	465.00			
Summarizing results	Turkish	25	28.34	708.50	241.5	-1.424	.154
	Anglophone	25	22.66	566.50			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	25	26.90	672.50	277.5	-.858	.391
	Anglophone	25	24.10	602.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	25	24.16	604.00	279.0	-.651	.515
	Anglophone	25	26.84	671.00			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	25	27.08	677.00	273.0	-.767	.443
	Anglophone	25	23.92	598.00			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	25	21.10	527.50	202.5	-2.529	.011
	Anglophone	25	29.90	747.50			
Introducing the next chapter/ sec.	Turkish	25	19.90	497.50	172.5	-3.353	.001
	Anglophone	25	31.10	777.50			
Concluding the study	Turkish	25	20.80	520.00	195.0	-2.753	.006
	Anglophone	25	30.20	755.00			
TOTAL	Turkish	25	28.96	724.00	226.0	-1.679	.093
	Anglophone	25	22.04	551.00			

Table 16 shows that there was a significant difference between Turkish and Anglophone group with regard to the use of metadiscourse in five moves. In Reporting results, $U=179.0$, $z=-2.591$, $p<.05$ and Commenting on results, $U=140.0$, $z=-.3.347$, $p<.05$, Turkish researchers used significantly more metadiscourse than Anglophone researchers. However, in Concluding the chapter/section, $U=202.5$, $z=-2.529$, $p<.05$; Introducing next chapter/section, $U=172.5$, $z=-3.353$, $p<.05$; and Concluding the study, $U=195.0$, $z=-2.753$, $p<.05$, Anglophone researchers employed more metadiscourse than their Turkish counterparts.

Quantitative data for results chapters.

Moves and steps.

The differences between the Results chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the moves and steps employed in these chapters were investigated through Chi-square and Mann Whitney U tests. Before these tests, however, frequencies and percentages were calculated and shown in Table 17.

Table 17. *Frequency and Percentages of Moves and Steps in Results Chapters*

Move	Step	Turkish		Anglophone		
		f	% % (of total)	f	% % (of total)	% (of total)
Preparatory information						
	Introductory	41	(5.4)	21	(4.1)	
	Reminder	407	(53.3)	298	(58.0)	
	Pointer	316	(41.4)	195	(37.9)	
	Total	764	(100.0) (38.9)	514	(100.0)	(44.4)
Background information		0	(0.0)	0		(0.0)
Reporting results		731	(37.3)	406		(35.1)
Commenting on results						
	Interpreting results	200	(47.1)	111	(56.3)	
	Comparing with literature	18	(4.2)	9	(4.6)	
	Evaluating results	104	(24.5)	59	(29.9)	
	Accounting for results	103	(24.2)	18	(9.1)	
	Total	425	(100.0) (21.7)	197	(100.0)	(17.0)
Summarizing results		23	(1.2)	12		(1.0)
Summarizing the study		0	(0.0)	0		(0.0)
Evaluating the study						
	Indicating limitations	2	(40.0)	1	(100.0)	
	Evaluating methodology	3	(60.0)	0	(0.0)	
	Indicating significance	0	(0.0)	0	(0.0)	
	Total	5	(100.0) (0.3)	1	(100.0)	(0.1)
Deductions from the research						
	Making suggestions	3	(30.0)	0	(0.0)	
	Recommending further research	4	(40.0)	3	(100.0)	
	Drawing pedagogic implications	3	(30.0)	0	(0.0)	
	Total	10	(100.0) (0.5)	3	(100.0)	(0.3)
Concluding the chapter/section		3	(0.2)	12		(1.0)
Introducing next chapter/section		1	(0.1)	13		(1.1)
Concluding the study		0	(0.0)	0		(0.0)
Totals (Moves)		1962	(100.0)	1158		(100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

As can be seen in Table 17, Turkish and Anglophone groups differed in terms of the total amount of moves employed in Result chapters. The amount was higher in the Turkish group. However, frequency data showed that unlike other moves, Concluding the chapter/section and Introducing the next chapter/section were employed more by Anglophone researchers. Also, the percentage of Preparatory Information was higher in the Anglophone group.

The groups were similar in terms of the most and least frequent moves. Preparatory Information, Reporting results and Commenting on results were the most frequent moves in both groups. Preparatory information was used the most and followed by Reporting results and Commenting on results, respectively. The moves which were employed by neither Turkish nor

Anglophone researchers, however, were Background information, Summarizing the study and Concluding the study. There were no instances of these moves in both corpora.

In terms of the steps, the groups had both similarities and differences. Among the steps of Preparatory information, the most employed was Reminder. In both groups, more than half of the steps were of this type. The least employed step, however, was Introductory. Its percentage of use was about 5% in Turkish group and %4 in the Anglophone group. Among the steps of Commenting on results, the most employed was Interpreting results and the least employed was Comparing results with literature. In both corpora, the percentage of the Interpreting result was about 50% whereas the percentage of the Comparing results with literature was only about 4%. Of the other two steps of the move, Evaluating results was used with similar percentages in the groups whereas Accounting results was used much less in the Anglophone group. The percentage of this step was about 25% in the Turkish group whereas 9.1% in the Anglophone group.

In both corpora, Evaluating the study and Deductions from the research were used much less than Commenting on results. Their percentages of use were lower than even 1%. Consequently, there were few or no instances of the steps of these moves. The step of Indicating significance was not found in both groups. Anglophones used only Indicating limitations and Recommending further research. Although Turkish researchers employed other steps, their frequencies were very low.

The moves which were used for concluding the chapter/section and introducing the next chapter/section were more frequent in the Anglophone group. Although their percentages of use were low (1%) also in this group, their frequencies were higher than the Turkish group.

To find whether any significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of their use of moves (Table 18) and steps (Table 19) in Results chapters, Chi-square test was employed. Through this test, the numbers of dissertations using each move were compared. Yates correction values were used for all comparisons. Also, when the expected value is less than five, Fisher's Test value was additionally given. The results are shown in the tables below.

Table 18. *Chi-square Tests for Moves in Results Chapters*

			Status		Total	Chi-square *
Move			Yes	No		
Preparatory Information	Turkish	N	25	0	25	$\chi^2=$
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	25	0	25	p=
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p>
Total		N	50	0	50	Status is constant
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	

Table 18. (continued)

Background Information	Turkish	N	0	25	25	$\chi^2=$
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	0	25	25	p=
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	p>
	Total		N	0	50	50
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Reporting results	Turkish	N	25	0	25	$\chi^2=$
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	25	0	25	p=
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p>
	Total		N	50	0	50
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
Commenting on results	Turkish	N	22	3	25	$\chi^2= .542$
		%	88.0%	12.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	19	6	25	p= .462
		%	76.0%	24.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total		N	41	9	50
		%	82.0%	18.0%	100.0%	
Summarizing results	Turkish	N	13	12	25	$\chi^2= .322$
		%	52.0%	48.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	10	15	25	p= .570
		%	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total		N	23	27	50
		%	46.0%	54.0%	100.0%	
Summarizing the study	Turkish	N	0	25	25	$\chi^2=$
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	0	25	25	p=
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	p>
	Total		N	0	50	50
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Evaluating the study	Turkish	N	3	22	25	$\chi^2= .272$
		%	12.0%	88.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	1	24	25	p= .602
		%	4.0%	96.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total		N	4	46	50
		%	8.0%	92.0%	100.0%	
Deductions from the research	Turkish	N	4	21	25	$\chi^2= .189$
		%	16.0%	84.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	2	23	25	p= .663
		%	8.0%	92.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total		N	6	44	50
		%	12.0%	88.0%	100.0%	
Concluding the chapter / section	Turkish	N	3	22	25	$\chi^2= 6.095$
		%	12.0%	88.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	12	13	25	p= .014
		%	48.0%	52.0%	100.0%	p< .05
	Total		N	15	35	50
		%	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%	
Introducing next chapter / section	Turkish	N	1	24	25	$\chi^2= 12.00$
		%	4.0%	96.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	13	12	25	p= .001
		%	52.0%	48.0%	100.0%	p< .05
	Total		N	14	36	50
		%	28.0%	72%	100.0%	
Concluding the study	Turkish	N	0	25	25	$\chi^2=$
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	0	25	25	p=
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	p>
	Total		N	0	50	50
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table 19. *Chi-square Tests for Steps in Results Chapters*

			Status		Total	Chi-square *
Move			Yes	No		
Introductory	Turkish	N	18	7	25	$X^2= .092$
		%	72.0%	28.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	16	9	25	p= .762
		%	64.0%	36.0%	100.0%	p>.05
		N	34	16	50	
Total		%	68.0%	32.0%	100.0%	
Reminder	Turkish	N	25	0	25	$X^2=$
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	25	0	25	p=
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p>
		N	50	0	50	Status is constant
Total		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
Pointer	Turkish	N	23	2	25	$X^2= .000$
		%	92.0%	8.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	24	1	25	p= 1.00
		%	96.0%	4.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	47	3	50	Fisher's p=1.00
Total		%	94.0%	6.0%	100.0%	
Interpreting results	Turkish	N	21	4	25	$X^2= .1663$
		%	84.0%	16.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	16	9	25	p= .197
		%	64.0%	36.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	37	13	50	
Total		%	74.0%	26.0%	100.0%	
Comparing with literature	Turkish	N	5	20	25	$X^2= .149$
		%	20.0%	80.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	3	22	25	p= .700
		%	12.0%	88.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	8	42	50	Fisher's p=.702
Total		%	16.0%	84%	100.0%	
Evaluating results	Turkish	N	12	13	25	$X^2= .080$
		%	48.0%	52.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	14	11	25	p= .777
		%	56.0%	44.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	26	24	50	
Total		%	52.0%	48.0%	100.0%	
Accounting for results	Turkish	N	13	12	25	$X^2= .3056$
		%	52.0%	48.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	6	19	25	p= .080
		%	24.0%	76.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	19	31	50	
Total		%	38.0%	62.0%	100.0%	
Indicating limitations	Turkish	N	1	24	25	$X^2= .000$
		%	4.0%	96.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	1	24	25	p= 1.00
		%	4.0%	96.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	2	48	50	Fisher's p= 1.00
Total		%	4.0%	96.0%	100.0%	
Evaluating methodology	Turkish	N	2	23	25	$X^2= .521$
		%	8.0%	92.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	0	25	25	p= .470
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	2	48	50	Fisher's p=.490
Total		%	4.0%	96.0%	100.0%	
Indicating significance/ advantage	Turkish	N	0	25	25	$X^2=$
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	0	25	25	p=
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	p>
		N	0	50	50	Status is constant
Total		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

Table 19. (continued)

Making suggestions	Turkish	N	2	23	25	$X^2 = .521$
		%	8.0%	92.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	0	25	25	p=.470
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	2	48	50	Fisher's p=.490
Total		%	4.0%	96.0%	100.0%	
Recommending further research	Turkish	N	2	23	25	$X^2 = .000$
		%	8.0%	92.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	2	23	25	p= 1.00
		%	8.0%	92.0%	100.0%	p>.05
		N	4	46	50	Fisher's p=1.00
Total		%	8.0%	92.0%	100.0%	
Drawing pedagogic implications	Turkish	N	3	22	25	$X^2 = .1418$
		%	12.0%	88.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	0	25	25	p= .234
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	3	47	50	Fisher's p=.235
Total		%	6.0%	94.0%	100.0%	

The Chi-square test results showed that there was no statistically significant difference between the groups with regard to the use of moves and steps in Result chapters except for two moves: Concluding the chapter/section, $X^2 (1, N = 50) = 6.095, p = .014$, and Introducing the next chapter/section, $X^2 (1, N = 50) = 12.00, p = .001$. Both Yates correction and Fisher's Test values indicated that the proportion of dissertations using the move differed significantly.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the moves and steps employed in Results chapters, Mann-Whitney U tests were also conducted. The results are shown in Table 20 and Table 21.

Table 20. Mann-Whitney Tests for Moves in Results Chapters

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	25	29.10	727.50	222.5	-1.748	.080
	Anglophone	25	21.90	547.50			
Background information	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
Reporting results	Turkish	25	31.26	781.50	168.5	-2.795	.005
	Anglophone	25	19.74	493.50			
Commenting on results	Turkish	25	28.22	705.50	244.5	-1.325	.185
	Anglophone	25	22.78	569.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	25	27.36	684.00	266	-1.007	.314
	Anglophone	25	23.64	591.00			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	25	26.54	663.50	286.5	-1.072	.284
	Anglophone	25	24.46	611.50			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	25	26.62	665.50	284.5	-.963	.336
	Anglophone	25	24.38	609.50			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	25	21.00	525.00	200	-2.750	.006
	Anglophone	25	30.00	750.00			
Introducing the next chapter/ sec.	Turkish	25	19.50	487.50	162.5	-3.742	.000
	Anglophone	25	31.50	787.50			
Concluding the study	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	25	30.70	767.50	182.5	-2.523	.012
	Anglophone	25	20.30	507.50			

As shown in Table 20, there was a statistically significant difference between the groups with regard to the moves employed in Results chapters, $U=182.5$, $z=-2.523$, $p<.05$. Turkish researchers ($Md=30.70$, $n=25$) used significantly more moves than Anglophone researchers ($Md=20.30$, $n=25$). Also, in terms of individual moves, there were significant differences in three moves. Turkish group used significantly more Reporting results than Anglophone group, $U=168.5$, $z=-2.795$, $p<.05$. Anglophone group, on the other hand, used significantly more Concluding the chapter/section, $U=200$, $z=-2.750$, $p<.05$, and Introducing next chapter/section, $U=162.5$, $z=-3.742$, $p<.05$, than Turkish group.

Table 21. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Steps in Results Chapters*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Introductory	Turkish	25	28.82	720.50	229.5	-1.691	.091
	Anglophone	25	22.18	554.50			
Reminder	Turkish	25	27.90	697.50	252.5	-1.166	.244
	Anglophone	25	23.10	577.50			
Pointer	Turkish	25	28.50	712.50	237.5	-1.459	.145
	Anglophone	25	22.50	562.50			
Interpreting results	Turkish	25	28.56	714.00	236.0	-1.500	.134
	Anglophone	25	22.44	561.00			
Comparing with literature	Turkish	25	26.36	659.00	291.0	-.654	.513
	Anglophone	25	24.64	616.00			
Evaluating results	Turkish	25	25.22	630.50	305.5	-.144	.885
	Anglophone	25	25.78	644.50			
Accounting for results	Turkish	25	29.54	738.50	211.5	-2.248	.025
	Anglophone	25	21.46	536.50			
Indicating limitations	Turkish	25	25.52	638.00	312.0	-.029	.977
	Anglophone	25	25.48	637.00			
Evaluating methodology	Turkish	25	26.50	662.50	287.5	-1.429	.153
	Anglophone	25	24.50	612.50			
Indicating significance/ adv.	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
Making suggestions	Turkish	25	26.50	662.50	287.5	-1.429	.153
	Anglophone	25	24.50	612.50			
Recommending further research	Turkish	25	25.52	638.00	312.0	-.021	.984
	Anglophone	25	25.48	637.00			
Drawing pedagogic imp.	Turkish	25	27.00	675.00	275	-1.769	.077
	Anglophone	25	24.00	600.00			
TOTAL	Turkish	25	29.88	747.00	203.0	-2.126	.034
	Anglophone	25	21.12	528.00			

As shown in Table 21, there was a statistically significant difference between the groups with regard to the steps employed in Results chapters, $U=203.0$, $z=-2.126$, $p<.05$. Turkish researchers ($Md=29.88$, $n=25$) used significantly more steps than Anglophone researchers ($Md=21.12$, $n=25$). However, in terms of the individual steps, there was no significant difference between the groups except for Accounting for results, $U=211.5$, $z=-2.248$, $p<.05$. Turkish researchers ($Md=29.54$, $n=25$) used this step significantly more than Anglophone researchers ($Md=21.46$, $n=25$).

Metadiscourse markers.

The differences between the Results chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the metadiscourse markers employed in these chapters were investigated through Mann Whitney U tests. Before these tests, however, frequencies and percentages were calculated and shown in Table 22.

Table 22. *Frequency and Percentages of Metadiscourse Markers in Results Chapters*

Category	Turkish			Anglophone		
	f	% (within group)	% (within total)	f	% (within group)	% (within total)
Transitions	1364	31.4	17.2	855	29.3	15.9
Frame markers	1147	26.4	14.5	849	29.1	15.8
Endophoric markers	970	22.3	12.2	516	17.7	9.6
Evidentials	206	4.7	2.6	253	8.7	4.7
Code glosses	656	15.1	8.3	444	15.2	8.3
Interactive	4343	100.0	54.8	2917	100.0	54.4
Hedges	1964	54.8	24.8	1289	52.6	24.0
Boosters	1296	36.1	16.3	903	36.9	16.8
Attitude markers	195	5.4	2.5	117	4.8	2.2
Engagement markers	100	2.8	1.3	47	1.9	0.9
Self-mention	31	0.9	0.4	94	3.8	1.8
Interactional	3586	100.0	45.2	2450	100.0	45.6
Totals	7929		100.0	5367		100.0

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

As can be seen in Table 22, the total amount of metadiscourse was higher in the Turkish group. The totals of interactive and interactional categories were also higher in this group. However, percentages showed that the groups were almost the same in terms of the distribution of metadiscourse as interactive and interactional. In both groups, interactive category was used more (54%) than interactional (45%).

In the interactive category, the most common types were Transitions and Frame markers, followed by Endophoric markers. In the Anglophone group, the percentages of Transitions and Frame markers were almost the same, while in Turkish group the percentage of Transitions was 5% higher. In the interactive category, the least employed type was Evidentials although its percentage of use was higher in the Anglophone group. Code glosses were used more than this type. Its percentage of use was the same (15%) in both Turkish and Anglophone groups.

In the interactional category, the most common types were Hedges and Boosters. In both groups, the percentage of use was higher than 50% for Hedges and higher than 35% for Boosters. Although they were used much less than these two types, Attitude markers were also frequent and its percentage of use was nearly 5% in both corpora. In the interactional category, the groups differed in terms of the type of metadiscourse they employed least frequently. It was

Self-mentions in the Turkish group (0.9%) and Engagement markers (1.9%) in the Anglophone group, which were the least frequent. Turkish researchers used Engagement markers more than Anglophones, while Anglophones used Self-mentions more than their Turkish counterparts.

In all sub-categories of metadiscourse, Hedges was the most common type in both Turkish and Anglophone corpora. It was followed by Transitions, Frame markers and Boosters. Although they were used less than these types, Endophoric markers were also common. However, they were used more in the Turkish group. In terms of percentages, it was followed by Code glosses, which was 8.3% of the total in both corpora. The sub-categories which were used the least in the interactional category (i.e., self-mentions and engagement markers) were also the types with the lowest percentages in the total metadiscourse.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the metadiscourse they employed in Results chapters, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 23.

Table 23. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Metadiscourse Markers in Results Chapters*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Transitions	Turkish	25	29.50	737.50	212.5	-1.942	.052
	Anglophone	25	21.50	537.50			
Frame markers	Turkish	25	30.16	754.00	196.0	-2.262	.024
	Anglophone	25	20.84	521.00			
Endophoric markers	Turkish	25	30.10	752.50	197.5	-2.223	.026
	Anglophone	25	20.90	522.50			
Evidentials	Turkish	25	21.94	548.50	223.5	-1.740	.082
	Anglophone	25	29.06	726.50			
Code glosses	Turkish	25	28.38	709.50	240.5	-1.398	.162
	Anglophone	25	22.62	565.50			
Hedges	Turkish	25	27.38	684.50	265.5	-.912	.362
	Anglophone	25	23.62	590.50			
Boosters	Turkish	25	27.94	698.50	251.5	-1.184	.236
	Anglophone	25	23.06	576.50			
Attitude markers	Turkish	25	28.30	707.50	242.5	-1.364	.172
	Anglophone	25	22.70	567.50			
Engagement markers	Turkish	25	27.08	677.00	273.0	-.791	.429
	Anglophone	25	23.92	598.00			
Self-mentions	Turkish	25	20.82	520.50	195.5	-2.539	.011
	Anglophone	25	30.18	754.50			
Interactive	Turkish	25	29.56	739.00	211.0	-1.970	.049
	Anglophone	25	21.44	536.00			
Interactional	Turkish	25	26.74	668.50	281.5	-.602	.547
	Anglophone	25	24.26	606.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	25	29.28	732.00	218.0	-1.834	.067
	Anglophone	25	21.72	543.00			

Table 23 shows that there was no statistically significant difference between Turkish group ($Md=29.28$, $n=25$) and Anglophone group ($Md=21.72$, $n=25$) in terms of the metadiscourse in Result chapters, $U=218.0$, $z=-1.834$, $p>.05$. However, there was a significant difference in the use of interactive metadiscourse, $U=211.0$, $z=-1.970$, $p<.05$, which indicates that Turkish researchers ($Md=29.56$, $n=25$) used more interactive metadiscourse than

Anglophone researchers ($Md=21.44$, $n=25$). In terms of sub-categories, the groups differed in three types. Frame markers, $U=196.0$, $z=-2.262$, $p<.05$, and Endophoric markers, $U=197.5$, $z=-2.223$, $p<.05$ were used more by Turkish researchers, whereas Self-mentions, $U=195.5$, $z=-2.539$, $p<.05$ by Anglophones.

Metadiscourse markers by moves.

The differences between the Results chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the distribution of metadiscourse markers by moves were investigated through Mann Whitney U tests. Before these tests, however, frequencies and percentages were calculated and shown in Table 24.

Table 24. *Frequency and Percentages of Metadiscourse in Results Chapters (by moves)*

Group	Move	Interactive		Interactional		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
Turkish	Preparatory information	1232	28.4	501	14.0	1733	21.9
	Background information	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Reporting results	2130	49.0	1775	49.5	3905	49.2
	Commenting on results	818	18.8	1161	32.4	1979	25.0
	Summarizing results	103	2.4	89	2.5	192	2.4
	Summarizing the study	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Evaluating the study	14	0.3	21	0.6	35	0.4
	Deductions from the research	13	0.3	26	0.7	39	0.5
	Concluding the chapter/section	32	0.7	13	0.4	45	0.6
	Introducing next chapter/section	1	0.0	0	0.0	1	0.0
	Concluding the study	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
		4343	100.0 (54.8)	3586	100.0 (45.2)	7929	(100.0)
Anglophone	Preparatory information	1203	41.2	726	29.6	1929	35.9
	Background information	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Reporting results	1133	38.8	1043	42.6	2176	40.5
	Commenting on results	371	12.7	479	19.6	850	15.8
	Summarizing results	61	2.1	49	2.0	110	2.0
	Summarizing the study	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Evaluating the study	7	0.2	10	0.4	17	0.3
	Deductions from the research	0	0.0	6	0.2	6	0.1
	Concluding the chapter/section	113	3.9	108	4.4	221	4.1
	Introducing next chapter/section	29	1.0	29	1.2	58	1.1
	Concluding the study	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
		2917	100.0 (54.4)	2450	100.0 (45.6)	5367	(100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

As can be seen in Table 24, in both Turkish and Anglophone corpora, metadiscourse was most frequent in Reporting results. This move was followed by Preparatory information and Commenting on results. Turkish researchers used more metadiscourse in Commenting on results while Anglophones in Preparatory information. Except for these three moves and Summarizing results, in all other moves in the Turkish group, the amount of metadiscourse was less than 1% of the total. In Concluding the chapter/section and Introducing the next chapter/section, Anglophone group had higher the frequencies of metadiscourse.

In terms of interactive and interactional categories, there were differences between the groups. Turkish researchers used both interactive and interactional metadiscourse most frequently in Reporting results. They also used both types of metadiscourse frequently in Preparatory information and Commenting on results. In Preparatory information, metadiscourse was heavily interactive while in Commenting on results it was heavily interactional. Like Turkish researchers, Anglophones used both interactive and interactional resources frequently in Preparatory information, Reporting results and Commenting on results. But, they employed the interactive markers most frequently not in Reporting results but in Preparatory information. In this group, as in Turkish group, Preparatory information was mostly interactive and Commenting on results was mostly interactional, but there were differences between the two groups in terms of percentages. Among the other moves, two moves significantly differed between the groups: Concluding the chapter/section and Introducing next chapter/section. The amount of metadiscourse in these moves was higher in the Anglophone group.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the distribution of metadiscourse by moves, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 25.

Table 25. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Metadiscourse in Results Chapters (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	25	24.66	616.50	291.5	-.408	.684
	Anglophone	25	26.34	658.50			
Background information	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
Reporting results	Turkish	25	31.72	793.00	157.0	-3.017	.003
	Anglophone	25	19.28	482.00			
Commenting on results	Turkish	25	28.50	712.50	237.5	-1.460	.144
	Anglophone	25	22.50	562.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	25	27.08	677.00	273.0	-.835	.404
	Anglophone	25	23.92	598.00			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	25	26.92	673.00	277.0	-1.323	.186
	Anglophone	25	24.08	602.00			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	25	26.54	663.50	286.5	-.894	.371
	Anglophone	25	24.46	611.50			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	25	20.86	521.50	196.5	-2.777	.005
	Anglophone	25	30.14	753.50			
Introducing the next chapter/ sec.	Turkish	25	19.26	481.50	156.5	-3.826	.000
	Anglophone	25	31.74	793.50			
Concluding the study	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	25	29.28	732.00	218.0	-1.834	.067
	Anglophone	25	21.72	543.00			

Table 25 shows that there was a statistically significant difference between Turkish group and Anglophone group in terms of the use of metadiscourse in three moves. In Reporting results, Turkish group used more metadiscourse than Anglophones, $U=157.0$, $z=-3.017$, $p<.05$,

whereas in Concluding the chapter/section, $U=196.5$, $z=-2.777$, $p<.05$, and Introducing next chapter/section, $U=156.5$, $z=-3.826$, $p<.05$, it was the opposite.

The statistical differences between the groups in terms of the interactive (Table 26) and interactional metadiscourse (Table 27) they used in each move were also investigated through Mann-Whitney U tests. The tables were given below.

Table 26. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Interactive Metadiscourse in Results Chapters (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	25	25.80	645.00	305.0	-.146	.884
	Anglophone	25	25.20	630.00			
Background information	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
Reporting results	Turkish	25	32.30	807.50	142.5	-3.299	.001
	Anglophone	25	18.70	467.50			
Commenting on results	Turkish	25	28.42	710.50	239.5	-1.423	.155
	Anglophone	25	22.58	564.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	25	27.08	677.00	273.0	-.836	.403
	Anglophone	25	23.92	598.00			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	25	26.46	661.50	288.5	-.990	.322
	Anglophone	25	24.54	613.50			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	25	27.50	687.50	262.5	-2.063	.039
	Anglophone	25	23.50	587.50			
Concluding the chapter/section	Turkish	25	21.10	527.50	202.5	-2.634	.008
	Anglophone	25	29.90	747.50			
Introducing the next chapter/sec.	Turkish	25	19.32	483.00	158.0	-3.791	.000
	Anglophone	25	31.68	792.00			
Concluding the study	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	25	29.56	739.00	211.0	-1.970	.049
	Anglophone	25	21.44	536.00			

As shown in Table 26, there was a statistically significant difference between the Turkish group ($Md=29.56$) and Anglophone group ($Md=21.44$) with regard to the interactive markers, $U=211.0$, $z=-1.970$, $p<.05$. The mean ranks indicated that Turkish researchers used this metadiscourse category significantly more than Anglophones. In terms of interactive metadiscourse employed in moves, however, the groups differed significantly in four moves. In Reporting results, $U=142.5$, $z=-3.299$, $p<.05$, and Deductions from the research, $U=262.5$, $z=-2.063$, $p<.05$, Turkish researchers used more interactive markers than Anglophones. In Concluding the chapter/section, $U=202.5$, $z=-2.634$, $p<.05$, and Introducing the next chapter / section, $U=158.0$, $z=-3.791$, $p<.05$, however, it was the Anglophone group that used more interactive metadiscourse.

Table 27. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Interactional Metadiscourse in Results Chapters (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	25	22.70	567.50	242.5	-1.360	.174
	Anglophone	25	28.30	707.50			

Table 27. (continued)

Background information	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
Reporting results	Turkish	25	30.22	755.50	194.5	-2.290	.022
	Anglophone	25	20.78	519.50			
Commenting on results	Turkish	25	28.94	723.50	226.5	-1.674	.094
	Anglophone	25	22.06	551.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	25	26.96	674.00	276.0	-.780	.435
	Anglophone	25	24.04	601.00			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	25	26.92	673.00	277.0	-1.323	.186
	Anglophone	25	24.08	602.00			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	25	26.50	662.50	287.5	-.859	.390
	Anglophone	25	24.50	612.50			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	25	20.46	511.50	186.5	-3.088	.002
	Anglophone	25	30.54	763.50			
Introducing the next chapter/ sec.	Turkish	25	19.50	487.50	162.5	-3.888	.000
	Anglophone	25	31.50	787.50			
Concluding the study	Turkish	25	25.50	637.50	312.5	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	25	25.50	637.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	25	26.74	668.50	281.5	-.602	.547
	Anglophone	25	24.26	606.50			

As shown in Table 27, there was no significant difference between Turkish group ($Md=26.74$) and Anglophone group ($Md=24.26$) with regard to the interactional markers, $U=281.5$, $z=-.602$, $p>.05$. In terms of interactional metadiscourse employed in moves, however, the groups differed significantly in three moves. In Reporting results, $U=194.5$, $z=-2.290$, $p<.05$, Turkish researchers used more interactional markers than Anglophones. In Concluding the chapter /section, $U=186.5$, $z=-3.088$, $p<.05$, and Introducing the next chapter/section, $U=162.5$, $z=-3.888$, $p<.05$, however, it was the Anglophone group that used more interactional metadiscourse.

Quantitative data for discussion chapters.

Moves and steps.

The differences between the Discussion chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the moves and steps employed in these chapters were investigated through Chi-square and Mann Whitney U tests. Before these tests, however, frequencies and percentages were calculated and shown in Table 28.

Table 28. Frequency and Percentages of Moves and Steps in Discussion Chapters

Move	Step	Turkish			Anglophone		
		f	%	% (of total)	f	%	% (of total)
Preparatory information							
	Introductory	20	(66.7)		8	(57.1)	
	Reminder	1	(3.3)		0	(0.0)	
	Pointer	9	(30.0)		6	(42.9)	
	Total	30	(100.0)	(3.4)	14	(100.0)	(4.3)
Background information		108		(12.3)	47		(14.4)
Reporting results		229		(26.1)	69		(21.2)

Table 28. (continued)

Commenting on results					
Interpreting results	108	(27.5)	28	(22.0)	
Comparing with literature	122	(31.0)	41	(32.3)	
Evaluating results	61	(15.5)	27	(21.3)	
Accounting for results	102	(26.0)	31	(24.4)	
Total	393	(100.0)	127	(100.0)	(39.0)
Summarizing results	16	(1.8)	1		(0.3)
Summarizing the study	2	(0.2)	2		(0.6)
Evaluating the study					
Indicating limitations	18	(56.3)	13	(61.9)	
Evaluating methodology	4	(12.5)	4	(19.0)	
Indicating significance	10	(31.3)	4	(19.0)	
Total	32	(100.0)	21	(100.0)	(6.4)
Deductions from the research					
Making suggestions	3	(4.8)	2	(5.1)	
Recommending further research	29	(46.8)	24	(61.5)	
Drawing pedagogic implications	30	(48.4)	13	(33.3)	
Total	62	(100.0)	39	(100.0)	(12.0)
Concluding the chapter/section	3	(0.3)	1		(0.3)
Introducing next chapter/section	2	(0.2)	0		(0.0)
Concluding the study	1	(0.1)	5		(1.5)
Totals (Moves)	878	(100.0)	326		(100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

As can be seen in Table 28, the total was higher in the Turkish corpus. However, the distribution of the total by moves showed that the most frequent moves were the same in Turkish and Anglophone corpora. Commenting on results was the most frequent move and it was followed by Reporting results and Background information.

Preparatory information was also found but not as frequent as it was in Result chapters. The percentage was less than 5% in both corpora. Of the three steps of this move, Introductory was the most common. Pointers were also used but Reminders were not found in both corpora except for one case in the Turkish group. Among the steps of Commenting on results, however, the most common type was Comparing results with literature which was infrequent in Result chapters. As commenting on results, Turkish researchers employed Evaluating results less than other types. Anglophones, on the other hand, used this step almost as frequent as the others.

In Evaluating the study and Deductions from the research, the percentages were higher in the Anglophone group. In Evaluating the study, the most frequent step was Indicating limitations in both corpora. In the Turkish corpus, the step of Indicating significance/advantage was also common. In Deductions from the research, however, the step of Making suggestions was infrequent. Instead of this step, researchers preferred to use Recommending further

research and Drawing pedagogic implications. The former was prioritized by Anglophone group and the latter by Turkish group.

Percental differences between the two researcher groups were also found in Summarizing results which was used more by Turkish researchers and Concluding the study which was used more by Anglophones.

To find whether any significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of their use of moves (Table 29) and steps (Table 30) in Discussion chapters, Chi-square test was employed. Through this test, the numbers of dissertations using each move were compared. Yates correction values were used for all comparisons. Also, when the expected value is less than five, Fisher's Test value was additionally given. The results are shown in the tables below.

Table 29. *Chi-square Tests for Moves in Discussion Chapters*

			Status		Total	Chi-square *
Move			Yes	No		
Preparatory Information	Turkish	N	15	3	18	$X^2 = .118$
		%	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	7	3	10	p= .731
		%	70.0%	30.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total	N	22	6	28	Fisher's p=.634
		%	78.6%	21.4%	100.0%	
Background Information	Turkish	N	17	1	18	$X^2 = .000$
		%	94.4%	5.6%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	10	0	10	p= 1.00
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total	N	27	1	28	Fisher's p= 1.00
		%	96.4%	3.6%	100.0%	
Reporting results	Turkish	N	18	0	18	$X^2 =$
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	10	0	10	p=
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p>
	Total	N	28	0	28	Status is constant
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
Commenting on results	Turkish	N	18	0	18	$X^2 =$
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	10	0	10	p=
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p>
	Total	N	28	0	28	Status is constant
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
Summarizing results	Turkish	N	8	10	18	$X^2 = 2.096$
		%	44.4%	55.6%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	1	9	10	p= .148
		%	10.0%	90.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total	N	9	19	28	Fisher's p=.098
		%	32.1%	67.9%	100.0%	
Summarizing the study	Turkish	N	1	17	18	$X^2 = .000$
		%	5.6%	94.4%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	1	9	10	p= 1.00
		%	10.0%	90.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total	N	2	26	28	Fisher' p= 1.00
		%	7.1%	92.9%	100.0%	
Evaluating the study	Turkish	N	11	7	18	$X^2 = 3.319$
		%	61.1%	38.9%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	10	0	10	p= .069
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total	N	21	7	28	Fisher's p=.030
		%	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%	

Table 29. (continued)

Deductions from the research	Turkish	N	15	3	18	$X^2 = .531$ sd= 1 p= .466 p>.05 Fisher's p=.533
		%	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	10	0	10	
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	25	3	28	
		%	89.3%	10.7%	100.0%	
Concluding the chapter / section	Turkish	N	2	16	18	$X^2 = .000$ sd= 1 p= 1.00 p> .05 Fisher's p= 1.00
		%	11.1%	88.9%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	1	9	10	
		%	10.0%	90.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	3	25	28	
		%	10.7%	89.3%	100.0%	
Introducing next chapter / section	Turkish	N	1	17	18	$X^2 = .000$ sd= 1 p= 1.00 p> .05 Fisher's p= 1.00
		%	5.6%	94.4%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	0	10	10	
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	1	27	28	
		%	3.6%	96.4%	100.0%	
Concluding the study	Turkish	N	1	17	18	$X^2 = 5.133$ sd= 1 p= .023 p< .05 Fisher's p= .013
		%	5.6%	94.4%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	5	5	10	
		%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	6	22	28	
		%	21.4%	78.6%	100.0%	

Table 30. Chi-square Tests for Steps in Discussion Chapters

			Status		Total	Chi-square *
Move			Yes	No		
Introductory	Turkish	N	15	3	18	$X^2 = .118$ sd= 1 p= .731 p> .05 Fisher's p= .634
		%	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	7	3	10	
		%	70.0%	30.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	22	6	28	
		%	78.6%	21.4%	100.0%	
Reminder	Turkish	N	1	17	18	$X^2 = .000$ sd= 1 p= 1.00 p> .05 Fisher's p= 1.00
		%	5.6%	94.4%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	0	10	10	
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	1	27	28	
		%	3.6%	96.4%	100.0%	
Pointer	Turkish	N	3	15	18	$X^2 = .830$ sd= 1 p= .362 p> .05 Fisher's p= .207
		%	16.7%	83.3%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	4	6	10	
		%	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	7	21	28	
		%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%	
Interpreting results	Turkish	N	16	2	18	$X^2 = .108$ sd= 1 p= .743 p> .05 Fisher's p= .524
		%	88.9%	11.1%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	10	0	10	
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	26	2	28	
		%	92.9%	7.1%	100.0%	
Comparing with literature	Turkish	N	16	2	18	$X^2 = .000$ sd= 1 p= 1.00 p> .05 Fisher's p= 1.00
		%	88.9%	11.1%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	9	1	10	
		%	90.0%	10.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	25	3	28	
		%	89.3%	10.7%	100.0%	
Evaluating results	Turkish	N	14	4	18	$X^2 = .087$ sd= 1 p= .769 p> .05 Fisher's p= .626
		%	77.8%	22.2%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	9	1	10	
		%	90.0%	10.0%	100.0%	
Total		N	23	5	28	
		%	82.1%	17.9%	100.0%	

Table 30. (continued)

Accounting for results	Turkish	N	18	0	18	$X^2= 1.448$
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	8	2	10	p= .229
		%	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%	p> .05
Total		N	26	2	28	Fisher's p= .119
		%	92.9%	7.1%	100.0%	
Indicating limitations	Turkish	N	9	9	18	$X^2= 1.331$
		%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	8	2	10	p= .249
		%	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%	p> .05
Total		N	17	11	28	Fisher's p= .226
		%	60.7%	39.3%	100.0%	
Evaluating methodology	Turkish	N	4	14	18	$X^2= .315$
		%	22.2%	77.8%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	4	6	10	p= .575
		%	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%	p> .05
Total		N	8	20	28	Fisher's p= .400
		%	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%	
Indicating significance/ advantage	Turkish	N	6	12	18	$X^2= .000$
		%	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	3	7	10	p= 1.00
		%	30.0%	70.0%	100.0%	p> .05
Total		N	9	19	28	Fisher's p= 1.00
		%	32.1%	67.9%	100.0%	
Making suggestions	Turkish	N	3	15	18	$X^2= .000$
		%	16.7%	83.3%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	2	8	10	p= .1.00
		%	20.0%	80.0%	100.0%	p> .05
Total		N	5	23	28	Fisher's p= 1.00
		%	17.9%	82.1%	100.0%	
Recommending further research	Turkish	N	11	7	18	$X^2= 1.404$
		%	61.1%	38.9%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	9	1	10	p= .236
		%	90.0%	10.0%	100.0%	p> .05
Total		N	20	8	28	Fisher's p= .194
		%	71.4%	28.6%	100.0%	
Drawing pedagogic implications	Turkish	N	15	3	18	$X^2= .000$
		%	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	9	1	10	p= 1.00
		%	90.0%	10.0%	100.0%	p> .05
Total		N	24	4	28	Fisher's p= 1.00
		%	85.7%	14.3%	100.0%	

The Chi-square test results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the groups with regard to the use of Concluding the study, $X^2 (1, N = 50) = 5.133, p = .023$. Both Yates correction and Fisher's Test values indicated that the proportion of dissertations using this move differed significantly. No significant differences were found in the use of other moves and steps. However, there was an exception which should not be ignored. In Evaluating the study, Yates correction value, $p = .069$, did not indicate any difference between the groups whereas Fisher's Test value, $p = .030$, did.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the moves and steps employed in Discussion chapters, Mann-Whitney U tests were also conducted. The results are shown in Table 31 and Table 32.

Table 31. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Moves in Discussion Chapters*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	18	14.69	264.50	86.50	-.175	.861
	Anglophone	10	14.15	141.50			
Background information	Turkish	18	14.42	259.50	88.50	-.072	.942
	Anglophone	10	14.65	146.50			
Reporting results	Turkish	18	16.56	298.00	53.00	-1.780	.075
	Anglophone	10	10.80	108.00			
Commenting on results	Turkish	18	16.56	289.00	53.00	-1.776	.076
	Anglophone	10	10.80	108.00			
Summarizing results	Turkish	18	16.31	293.50	57.50	-1.892	.059
	Anglophone	10	11.25	112.50			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	18	14.28	257.00	86.00	-.430	.667
	Anglophone	10	14.90	149.00			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	18	13.31	239.50	68.50	-1.055	.291
	Anglophone	10	16.65	166.50			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	18	13.94	251.00	80.0	-.483	.629
	Anglophone	10	15.50	155.00			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	18	14.58	262.50	88.50	-.134	.893
	Anglophone	10	14.35	143.50			
Introducing the next chapter/sec.	Turkish	18	14.78	266.00	85.00	-.745	.456
	Anglophone	10	14.00	140.00			
Concluding the study	Turkish	18	12.28	221.00	50.00	-2.697	.007
	Anglophone	10	18.50	185.00			
TOTAL	Turkish	18	16.08	289.50	61.50	-1.367	.171
	Anglophone	10	11.65	116.50			

Table 32. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Steps in Discussion Chapters*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Introductory	Turkish	18	15.56	280.00	71.0	-1.042	.297
	Anglophone	10	12.60	126.00			
Reminder	Turkish	18	14.78	266.00	85.00	-.745	.456
	Anglophone	10	14.00	140.00			
Pointer	Turkish	18	13.50	243.00	72.00	-1.138	.255
	Anglophone	10	16.30	163.00			
Interpreting results	Turkish	18	16.50	297.00	54.00	-1.742	.081
	Anglophone	10	10.90	109.00			
Comparing with literature	Turkish	18	15.69	282.50	68.50	-1.034	.301
	Anglophone	10	12.35	123.50			
Evaluating results	Turkish	18	14.83	267.00	84.00	-.291	.771
	Anglophone	10	13.90	139.00			
Accounting for results	Turkish	18	16.08	289.50	61.50	-1.376	.169
	Anglophone	10	11.65	116.50			
Indicating limitations	Turkish	18	13.32	238.00	67.00	-1.158	.247
	Anglophone	10	16.80	168.00			
Evaluating methodology	Turkish	18	13.61	245.00	74.00	-.980	.327
	Anglophone	10	16.10	161.00			
Indicating significance/ adv.	Turkish	18	14.72	265.00	86.00	-.233	.816
	Anglophone	10	14.10	141.00			
Making suggestions	Turkish	18	14.33	258.00	87.00	-.217	.828
	Anglophone	10	14.80	148.00			
Recommending further research	Turkish	18	12.89	232.00	61.00	-1.422	.155
	Anglophone	10	17.40	174.00			
Drawing pedagogic imp.	Turkish	18	15.08	271.50	79.5	-.533	.594
	Anglophone	10	13.45	134.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	18	15.92	286.50	64.50	-1.224	.221
	Anglophone	10	11.95	119.50			

As shown in Table 31 and Table 32, there was no statistically significant difference between Turkish and Anglophone groups with regard to the moves, $U=61.50$, $z=-1.367$, $p>.05$

and steps, $U=64.50$, $z=-1.224$, $p>.05$, employed in Discussion chapters. In terms of individual moves and steps, however, there was a statistically significant difference in only one move: Concluding the study, $U=50.00$, $z=-2.697$, $p<.05$. Although this move was infrequent in both groups (see Table 28), the mean rank in Anglophone group ($Md=18.50$, $n=10$) was higher than the mean rank in Turkish group ($Md=12.28$, $n=18$), indicating that this move was used more by Anglophones.

Metadiscourse markers.

The differences between the Discussion chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the metadiscourse markers employed in these chapters were investigated through Mann Whitney U tests. Before these tests, however, frequencies and percentages were calculated and shown in Table 33.

Table 33. *Frequency and Percentages of Metadiscourse Markers in Discussion Chapters*

Category	Turkish			Anglophone		
	f	% (within group)	% (within total)	f	% (within group)	% (within total)
Transitions	1282	37.7	17.5	483	36.5	15.2
Frame markers	725	21.3	9.9	261	19.7	8.2
Endophoric markers	129	3.8	1.8	35	2.6	1.1
Evidentials	742	21.8	10.1	340	25.7	10.7
Code glosses	523	15.4	7.1	205	15.5	6.4
Interactive	3401	100.0	46.4	1324	100.0	41.6
Hedges	2142	54.6	29.2	901	48.4	28.3
Boosters	1160	29.5	15.8	613	32.9	19.2
Attitude markers	280	7.1	3.8	143	7.7	4.5
Engagement markers	321	8.2	4.4	141	7.6	4.4
Self-mention	23	0.6	0.3	64	3.4	2.0
Interactional	3926	100.0	53.5	1862	100.0	58.4
Totals	7327		100.0	3186		100.0

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point.

As can be seen in Table 33, the total amount of metadiscourse was higher in Turkish group. The totals of interactive and interactional categories were also higher in this group. However, percentages showed that the groups were similar in terms of the distribution of metadiscourse as interactive and interactional. In both groups, interactional category was used more than interactive.

In the interactive category, Transitions were used the most and Endophoric markers were used the least. Evidentials and Frame markers were also common. In the interactional category, however, Hedges were the most frequent type. In both groups, almost half of the interactional metadiscourse was of this type. In terms of frequencies, Hedges were followed by Boosters with a percentage about 30%. In the interactional category, the least frequent type in both groups was Self-mentions although it was used more by Anglophone researchers.

In all sub-categories of metadiscourse, the most frequent types were Hedges, Boosters and Transitions, and the least frequent types were Endophoric markers and Self-mentions. This was the same in both groups although there were percental differences.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the metadiscourse they employed in Discussion chapters, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 34.

Table 34. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Metadiscourse Markers in Discussion Chapters*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Transitions	Turkish	18	16.17	291.00	60.00	-1.439	.150
	Anglophone	10	11.50	115.00			
Frame markers	Turkish	18	16.28	293.00	58.00	-1.535	.125
	Anglophone	10	11.30	113.00			
Endophoric markers	Turkish	18	15.97	287.50	63.50	-1.284	.199
	Anglophone	10	11.85	118.50			
Evidentials	Turkish	18	14.08	253.50	82.50	-.360	.719
	Anglophone	10	15.25	152.50			
Code glosses	Turkish	18	15.50	279.00	72.00	-.864	.388
	Anglophone	10	12.70	127.00			
Hedges	Turkish	18	15.56	280.00	71.00	-.911	.362
	Anglophone	10	12.60	126.00			
Boosters	Turkish	18	14.42	259.50	88.50	-.072	.943
	Anglophone	10	14.65	146.50			
Attitude markers	Turkish	18	13.94	251.00	80.00	-.481	.631
	Anglophone	10	15.50	155.00			
Engagement markers	Turkish	18	15.33	276.00	75.00	-.720	.471
	Anglophone	10	13.00	130.00			
Self-mentions	Turkish	18	12.17	219.00	48.00	-2.103	.035
	Anglophone	10	18.70	187.00			
Interactive	Turkish	18	15.75	283.50	67.50	-1.079	.281
	Anglophone	10	12.25	122.50			
Interactional	Turkish	18	15.17	273.00	78.00	-.575	.565
	Anglophone	10	13.30	133.00			
TOTAL	Turkish	18	15.47	278.50	72.50	-.839	.401
	Anglophone	10	12.75	127.50			

Table 34 shows that there was no statistically significant difference between Turkish group ($Md=15.47$, $n=18$) and Anglophone group ($Md=12.75$, $n=10$) in terms of the total metadiscourse in Discussion chapters, $U=72.50$, $z=-.839$, $p>.05$. Although the mean ranks were higher in Anglophones, the groups were similar in the use of both interactive, $U=67.50$, $z=-1.079$, $p>.05$, and interactional metadiscourse, $U=78.00$, $z=-.575$, $p>.05$. In terms of sub-categories, however, the groups differed in Self-mentions, $U=48.00$, $z=-2.103$, $p<.05$. Anglophones ($Md=18.70$, $n=10$) used these devices significantly more than Turkish researchers ($Md=12.17$, $n=18$). In other sub-categories, there were no significant differences.

Metadiscourse markers by moves.

The differences between the Discussion chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the distribution of metadiscourse markers by

moves were investigated through Mann Whitney U tests. Before these tests, however, frequencies and percentages were calculated and shown in Table 35.

Table 35. *Frequency and Percentages of Metadiscourse in Discussion Chapters (by moves)*

Group	Move	Interactive		Interactional		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
Turkish	Preparatory information	83	2.4	45	1.1	128	1.7
	Background information	304	8.9	200	5.1	504	6.9
	Reporting results	553	16.3	495	12.6	1048	14.3
	Commenting on results	1618	47.6	1820	46.4	3438	46.9
	Summarizing results	75	2.2	54	1.4	129	1.8
	Summarizing the study	25	0.7	26	0.7	51	0.7
	Evaluating the study	134	3.9	187	4.8	321	4.4
	Deductions from the research	570	16.8	1021	26.0	1591	21.7
	Concluding the chapter/section	15	0.4	57	1.5	72	1.0
	Introducing next chapter/section	4	0.1	2	0.1	6	0.1
	Concluding the study	20	0.6	19	0.5	39	0.5
		3401	100.0 (46.4)	3926	100.0 (53.6)	7327	(100.0)
Anglophone	Preparatory information	28	2.1	24	1.3	52	1.6
	Background information	145	11.0	132	7.1	277	8.7
	Reporting results	134	10.1	192	10.3	326	10.2
	Commenting on results	587	44.3	739	39.7	1326	41.6
	Summarizing results	2	0.2	5	0.3	7	0.2
	Summarizing the study	3	0.2	3	0.2	6	0.2
	Evaluating the study	111	8.4	201	10.8	312	9.8
	Deductions from the research	295	22.3	528	28.4	823	25.8
	Concluding the chapter/section	0	0.0	9	0.5	9	0.3
	Introducing next chapter/section	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Concluding the study	19	1.4	29	1.6	48	1.5
		1324	100.0 (41.6)	1862	100.0 (58.4)	3186	(100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point

As can be seen in Table 35, Turkish and Anglophone researchers used metadiscourse most commonly in Commenting on results. In both corpora, the amount of metadiscourse employed in this move was more than 40% of the total. Although, both interactive and interactional metadiscourse were used in the move, interactional metadiscourse was more common.

The second and third moves, in terms of the amount of the metadiscourse, were Deductions from the research and Reporting results. In the former, metadiscourse was mostly interactional. In the latter, however, the common type was interactive in the Turkish corpus and interactional in the Anglophone corpus.

Although they included less metadiscourse than the moves above, Background information and Evaluating the study were also the moves with frequent use of metadiscourse. In Background information, interactive metadiscourse was used more whereas in Evaluating results, interactional metadiscourse was more common. In all other moves, the amount of metadiscourse was less than 2% of the total.

In terms of the types of metadiscourse, it was found that Preparatory information, Background information and Summarizing results were more interactive, while Commenting on results, Evaluating the study and Deductions from the research were more interactional. Reporting results was an exception. In this move, metadiscourse was more interactive in Turkish group and more interactional in Anglophones. However, it should be noted that in all moves both types of metadiscourse were used and in many moves there was slight differences between the types of the metadiscourse employed.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the distribution of metadiscourse by moves, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 36.

Table 36. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Metadiscourse in Discussion Chapters (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	18	15.19	273.50	77.5	-.602	.547
	Anglophone	10	13.25	132.50			
Background information	Turkish	18	14.50	261.00	90.0	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	10	14.50	145.00			
Reporting results	Turkish	18	16.69	300.50	50.5	-1.894	.058
	Anglophone	10	10.55	105.50			
Commenting on results	Turkish	18	15.75	283.50	67.5	-1.079	.281
	Anglophone	10	12.25	122.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	18	16.28	293.00	58.0	-1.851	.064
	Anglophone	10	11.30	113.00			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	18	14.31	257.50	86.5	-.376	.707
	Anglophone	10	14.85	148.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	18	12.50	225.00	54.0	-1.740	.082
	Anglophone	10	18.10	181.00			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	18	14.56	262.00	89.0	-.048	.962
	Anglophone	10	14.40	144.00			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	18	14.61	263.00	88.0	-.179	.858
	Anglophone	10	14.30	143.00			
Introducing the next chapter/ sec.	Turkish	18	14.78	266.00	85.0	-.745	.456
	Anglophone	10	14.00	140.00			
Concluding the study	Turkish	18	12.42	223.50	52.5	-2.505	.012
	Anglophone	10	18.25	182.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	18	15.47	278.50	72.5	-.839	.401
	Anglophone	10	12.75	127.50			

Table 36 shows that Turkish and Anglophone corpora differed significantly only in Concluding the study, $U=52.5$, $z=-2.505$, $p<.05$. In this move, Anglophone group ($Md=18.25$, $n=10$) used more metadiscourse than Turkish group ($Md=12.42$, $n=10$). The use of metadiscourse in other moves did not differ significantly between the groups.

The statistical differences between the groups in terms of the interactive (Table 37) and interactional metadiscourse (Table 38) they used in each move were also investigated through Mann-Whitney U tests. The tables were given below.

Table 37. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Interactive Metadiscourse in Discussion Chapters (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	18	15.83	285.00	66.00	-1.164	.244
	Anglophone	10	12.10	121.00			
Background information	Turkish	18	14.61	263.00	88.00	-.096	.923
	Anglophone	10	14.30	143.00			
Reporting results	Turkish	18	17.22	310.00	41.00	-2.354	.019
	Anglophone	10	9.60	96.00			
Commenting on results	Turkish	18	15.58	280.50	70.50	-.935	.350
	Anglophone	10	12.55	125.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	18	16.36	294.50	56.50	-1.937	.053
	Anglophone	10	11.15	111.50			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	18	14.31	257.50	86.50	-.376	.707
	Anglophone	10	14.85	148.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	18	13.36	240.50	69.50	-.996	.319
	Anglophone	10	16.55	165.50			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	18	14.78	266.00	85.00	-.240	.810
	Anglophone	10	14.00	140.00			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	18	15.06	271.00	80.00	-1.073	.283
	Anglophone	10	13.50	135.00			
Introducing the next chapter / section	Turkish	18	14.78	266.00	85.00	-.745	.456
	Anglophone	10	14.00	140.00			
Concluding the study	Turkish	18	12.42	223.50	52.50	-2.508	.012
	Anglophone	10	18.25	182.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	18	15.75	283.50	67.50	-1.079	.281
	Anglophone	10	12.25	122.50			

As shown in Table 37, Turkish and Anglophone groups differed in the use of interactive metadiscourse in two moves. In Reporting results, $U=41.00$, $z=-2.354$, $p<.05$, Turkish researchers ($Md=17.22$, $n=18$) used significantly more interactive markers than Anglophones ($Md=9.60$, $n=10$). In Concluding the study, $U=52.50$, $z=-2.508$, $p<.05$, however, it was the Anglophone group ($Md=18.25$, $n=10$) that used significantly more interactive metadiscourse than Turkish group ($Md=12.42$, $n=18$).

Table 38. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Interactional Metadiscourse in Discussion Chapters (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	18	14.31	257.50	86.50	-.174	.862
	Anglophone	10	14.85	148.50			
Background information	Turkish	18	14.11	254.00	83.00	-.337	.736
	Anglophone	10	15.20	152.00			
Reporting results	Turkish	18	15.94	287.00	64.00	-1.249	.212
	Anglophone	10	11.90	119.00			
Commenting on results	Turkish	18	15.58	280.50	70.50	-.935	.350
	Anglophone	10	12.55	125.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	18	15.86	285.50	65.50	-1.476	.140
	Anglophone	10	12.05	120.50			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	18	14.31	257.50	86.50	-.376	.707
	Anglophone	10	14.85	148.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	18	12.22	220.00	49.00	-1.983	.047
	Anglophone	10	18.60	186.00			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	18	14.28	257.00	86.00	-.192	.848
	Anglophone	10	14.90	149.00			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	18	14.56	262.00	89.00	-.089	.929
	Anglophone	10	14.40	144.00			
Introducing the next chapter/section	Turkish	18	14.78	266.00	85.00	-.745	.456
	Anglophone	10	14.00	140.00			
Concluding the study	Turkish	18	12.42	223.50	52.50	-2.505	.012
	Anglophone	10	18.25	182.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	18	15.17	273.00	78.00	-.575	.565
	Anglophone	10	13.30	133.00			

As shown in Table 38, Turkish and Anglophone groups differed in the use of interactional metadiscourse in two moves. Both in Evaluating the study, $U=49.00$, $z=-1.983$, $p<.05$, and Concluding the study, $U=52.50$, $z=-2.505$, $p<.05$, Anglophones used significantly more interactional metadiscourse than Turkish researchers.

Quantitative data for conclusion chapters.

Moves and steps.

The differences between the Conclusion chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the moves and steps employed in these chapters were investigated through Chi-square and Mann Whitney U tests. Before these tests, however, frequencies and percentages were calculated and shown in Table 39.

Table 39. *Frequency and Percentages of Moves and Steps in Conclusion Chapters*

Move	Step	Turkish			Anglophone		
		f	%	% (of total)	f	%	% (of total)
Preparatory information							
	Introductory	8	(50.0)		20	(51.3)	
	Reminder	0	(0.0)		3	(7.7)	
	Pointer	8	(50.0)		16	(41.0)	
	Total	16	(100.0)	(5.1)	39	(100.0)	(7.8)
Background information		23		(7.3)	63		(12.5)
Reporting results		85		(27.0)	101		(20.1)
Commenting on results							
	Interpreting results	41	(35.7)		44	(33.6)	
	Comparing with literature	47	(40.9)		33	(25.2)	
	Evaluating results	6	(5.2)		32	(24.4)	
	Accounting for results	21	(18.3)		22	(16.8)	
	Total	115	(100.0)	(36.5)	131	(100.0)	(26.0)
Summarizing results		4		(1.3)	3		(0.6)
Summarizing the study		9		(2.9)	6		(1.2)
Evaluating the study							
	Indicating limitations	16	(76.2)		24	(50.0)	
	Evaluating methodology	1	(4.8)		11	(22.9)	
	Indicating significance	4	(19.0)		13	(27.1)	
	Total	21		(6.7)	48	(100.0)	(9.5)
Deductions from the research							
	Making suggestions	3	(7.5)		1	(1.0)	
	Recommending further research	17	(42.5)		64	(61.5)	
	Drawing pedagogic implications	20	(50.0)		39	(37.5)	
	Total	40	(100.0)	(12.7)	104	(100.0)	(20.7)
Concluding the chapter/section		0		(0.0)	0		(0.0)
Introducing next chapter/section		0		(0.0)	0		(0.0)
Concluding the study		2		(0.6)	8		(1.6)
Totals (Moves)		315		(100.0)	503		(100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point

As can be seen in Table 39, the total was higher in the Anglophone group. However, in both corpora, the most employed move was Commenting on results. Among the steps of this

move, Comparing results with literature and Interpreting results were the most frequent types. Although it was used less than these two steps, Accounting for results was also frequent. However, there was a salient difference between the groups regarding the step of Evaluating results. Its percentage of use was about 25% in Anglophone group while it was only about 5% in Turkish group.

Two other frequent moves in both corpora were Reporting results and Deductions from the research. Reporting results was used more by Turkish researchers while Deductions from the research by Anglophone group. Of the steps of Deductions from the research, Making suggestions was infrequent in both corpora. Instead, researchers preferred to use Recommending further research and Drawing pedagogic implications. The former was more common in Anglophone group and the latter in Turkish group.

In terms of the least frequent moves, the groups were similar. The moves for summarizing results and summarizing study were less frequent than others. The move for concluding the study was also among the less frequent moves. This move, as well as Preparatory information and Background information, was employed more by Anglophone researchers.

To find whether any significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups with regard to their use of moves (Table 40) and steps (Table 41) in Conclusion chapters, Chi-square test was employed. Through this test, the numbers of dissertations using each move were compared. Yates correction values were used for all comparisons. Also, when the expected value is less than five, Fisher's Test value was additionally given. The results are shown in the tables below.

Table 40. *Chi-square Tests for Moves in Conclusion Chapters*

			Status		Total	Chi-square *
Move			Yes	No		
Preparatory Information	Turkish	N	7	5	12	$X^2 = .276$
		%	58.3%	41.7%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	12	4	16	p= .599
		%	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total	N	19	9	28	Fisher's p= .432
		%	67.9%	32.1%	100.0%	
Background Information	Turkish	N	8	4	12	$X^2 = .194$
		%	66.7%	33.3%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	13	3	16	p= .659
		%	81.3%	18.8%	100.0%	p> .05
	Total	N	21	7	28	Fisher's p= .418
		%	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%	
Reporting results	Turkish	N	6	6	12	$X^2 = 7.429$
		%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	16	0	16	p= .006
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p< .05
	Total	N	22	6	28	Fisher's p= .002
		%	78.6%	21.4%	100.0%	

Table 40. (continued)

Commenting on results	Turkish	N	6	6	12	$X^2= 4.861$ sd= 1 p= .027 p< .05 Fisher's p= .023
		%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	15	1	16	
		%	93.8%	6.3%	100.0%	
	Total	N	21	7	28	
		%	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%	
Summarizing results	Turkish	N	2	10	12	$X^2= .000$ sd= 1 p= 1.00 p>.05 Fisher's p= 1.00
		%	16.7%	83.3%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	3	13	16	
		%	18.8%	81.3%	100.0%	
	Total	N	5	23	28	
		%	17.9%	82.1%	100.0%	
Summarizing the study	Turkish	N	7	5	12	$X^2= .506$ sd= 1 p= .477 p> .05
		%	58.3%	41.7%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	6	10	16	
		%	37.5%	62.5%	100.0%	
	Total	N	13	15	28	
		%	46.4%	53.6%	100.0%	
Evaluating the study	Turkish	N	11	1	12	$X^2= .411$ sd= 1 p= .522 p> .05 Fisher's p= .355
		%	91.7%	8.3%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	12	4	16	
		%	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%	
	Total	N	23	5	28	
		%	82.1%	17.9%	100.0%	
Deductions from the research	Turkish	N	12	0	12	$X^2=$ sd= p= p> Status is constant
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	16	0	16	
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
	Total	N	28	0	28	
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
Concluding the chapter / section	Turkish	N	0	12	12	$X^2=$ sd= p= p> Status is constant
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	0	16	16	
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	Total	N	0	28	28	
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Introducing next chapter / section	Turkish	N	0	12	12	$X^2=$ sd= p= p> Status is constant
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	0	16	16	
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	Total	N	0	28	28	
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
Concluding the study	Turkish	N	2	10	12	$X^2= 2.025$ sd= 1 p= .155 p> .05 Fisher's p=.114
		%	16.7%	83.3%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	8	8	16	
		%	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	
	Total	N	10	18	28	
		%	35.7%	64.3%	100.0%	

Table 41. Chi-square Tests for Steps in Conclusion Chapters

			Status		Total	Chi-square *
Move			Yes	No		
Introductory	Turkish	N	5	7	12	$X^2= 1.950$ sd= 1 p= .163 p> .05 Fisher's p=.121
		%	41.7%	58.3%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	12	4	16	
		%	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%	
	Total	N	17	11	28	
		%	60.7%	39.3%	100.0%	
Reminder	Turkish	N	0	12	12	$X^2= .280$ sd= 1 p= .596 p> .05 Fisher's p=.492
		%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%	
	Anglophone	N	2	14	16	
		%	12.5%	87.5%	100.0%	
	Total	N	2	26	28	
		%	7.1%	92.9%	100.0%	

Table 41. (continued)

Pointer	Turkish	N	4	8	12	$X^2= .004$
		%	33.3%	66.7%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	4	12	16	p= .952
		%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	8	20	28	Fisher's p=.691
Total		%	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%	
Interpreting results	Turkish	N	5	7	12	$X^2= 3.114$
		%	41.7%	58.3%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	13	3	16	p= .078
		%	81.3%	18.8%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	18	10	28	Fisher's p=.050
Total		%	64.3%	35.7%	100.0%	
Comparing with literature	Turkish	N	5	7	12	$X^2= .506$
		%	41.7%	58.3%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	10	6	16	p= .477
		%	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	15	13	28	
Total		%	53.6%	46.4%	100.0%	
Evaluating results	Turkish	N	3	9	12	$X^2= 2.516$
		%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	10	6	16	p= .113
		%	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	13	15	28	
Total		%	46.4%	53.6%	100.0%	
Accounting for results	Turkish	N	5	7	12	$X^2= .506$
		%	41.7%	58.3%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	10	6	16	p= .477
		%	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	15	13	28	
Total		%	53.6%	46.4%	100.0%	
Indicating limitations	Turkish	N	10	2	12	$X^2= .616$
		%	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	10	6	16	p= .432
		%	62.5%	37.5%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	20	8	28	Fisher's p=.401
Total		%	71.4%	28.6%	100.0%	
Evaluating methodology	Turkish	N	1	11	12	$X^2= 1.750$
		%	8.3%	91.7%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	6	10	16	p= .186
		%	37.5%	62.5%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	7	21	28	Fisher's p=.184
Total		%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%	
Indicating significance/ advantage	Turkish	N	3	9	12	$X^2= .392$
		%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	7	9	16	p= .531
		%	43.8%	56.3%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	10	18	28	Fisher's p=.434
Total		%	35.7%	64.3%	100.0%	
Making suggestions	Turkish	N	3	9	12	$X^2= .735$
		%	25.0%	75.0%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	1	15	16	p= .391
		%	6.3%	93.8%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	4	24	28	Fisher's p=.285
Total		%	14.3%	85.7%	100.0%	
Recommending further research	Turkish	N	11	1	12	$X^2= .022$
		%	91.7%	8.3%	100.0%	sd= 1
	Anglophone	N	16	0	16	p= .883
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p> .05
		N	27	1	28	Fisher's p=.429
Total		%	96.4%	3.6%	100.0%	
Drawing pedagogic implications	Turkish	N	12	0	12	$X^2=$
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	sd=
	Anglophone	N	16	0	16	p=
		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	p>
		N	28	0	28	Status is constant
Total		%	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	

The Chi-square test results showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the groups in the use of two moves: Reporting results, $X^2 (1, N = 50) = 7.429, p = .006$ and Commenting on results, $X^2 (1, N = 50) = 4.861, p = .027$. Both Yates correction and Fisher's Test values indicated that the proportion of dissertations using these moves differed significantly. No significant differences were found in the use of other moves and steps.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups with regard to the amount of moves and steps employed in Conclusion chapters, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 42 and Table 43.

Table 42. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Moves in Conclusion Chapters*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	12	12.38	148.50	70.50	-1.235	.217
	Anglophone	16	16.09	257.50			
Background information	Turkish	12	12.04	144.50	66.50	-1.406	.160
	Anglophone	16	16.34	261.50			
Reporting results	Turkish	12	12.17	146.00	68.00	-1.311	.190
	Anglophone	16	16.25	260.00			
Commenting on results	Turkish	12	12.71	152.50	74.50	-1.007	.314
	Anglophone	16	15.84	253.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	12	14.58	175.00	95.00	-.070	.945
	Anglophone	16	14.44	231.00			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	12	16.67	200.00	70.00	-1.361	.173
	Anglophone	16	12.88	206.00			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	12	13.46	161.50	83.50	-.591	.555
	Anglophone	16	15.28	244.50			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	12	13.25	159.00	81.00	-.717	.473
	Anglophone	16	15.44	247.00			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	12	14.50	174.00	96.00	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	16	14.50	232.00			
Introducing the next chapter/section	Turkish	12	14.50	174.00	96.00	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	16	14.50	232.00			
Concluding the study	Turkish	12	11.83	142.00	64.00	-1.789	.074
	Anglophone	16	16.50	264.00			
TOTAL	Turkish	12	12.21	146.50	68.50	-1.278	.201
	Anglophone	16	16.22	259.50			

Table 43. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Steps in Conclusion Chapters*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Introductory	Turkish	12	11.67	140.00	62.00	-1.663	.096
	Anglophone	16	16.63	266.00			
Reminder	Turkish	12	13.50	162.00	84.00	-1.247	.212
	Anglophone	16	15.25	244.00			
Pointer	Turkish	12	15.00	180.00	90.00	-.350	.726
	Anglophone	16	14.13	226.00			
Interpreting results	Turkish	12	12.83	154.00	76.00	-.954	.340
	Anglophone	16	15.75	252.00			
Comparing with literature	Turkish	12	13.79	165.50	87.50	-.417	.677
	Anglophone	16	15.03	240.50			
Evaluating results	Turkish	12	11.50	138.00	60.00	-1.828	.068
	Anglophone	16	16.75	268.00			
Accounting for results	Turkish	12	14.00	168.00	90.00	-.295	.768
	Anglophone	16	14.88	238.00			

Table 43. (continued)

Indicating limitations	Turkish	12	14.58	175.00	95.00	-.048	.962
	Anglophone	16	14.44	231.00			
Evaluating methodology	Turkish	12	12.00	144.00	66.00	-1.834	.067
	Anglophone	16	16.38	262.00			
Indicating significance/ advantage	Turkish	12	13.00	156.00	78.00	-.985	.324
	Anglophone	16	15.63	250.00			
Making suggestions	Turkish	12	16.00	192.00	78.00	-1.378	.168
	Anglophone	16	13.38	214.00			
Recommending further research	Turkish	12	11.50	138.00	60.00	-1.769	.077
	Anglophone	16	16.75	268.00			
Drawing pedagogic implications	Turkish	12	15.75	189.00	81.00	-.798	.425
	Anglophone	16	13.56	217.00			
TOTAL	Turkish	12	12.75	153.00	75.00	-.976	.329
	Anglophone	16	15.81	253.00			

As shown in Table 42 and Table 43, although the mean ranks were higher in the Anglophone group, there was no statistically significant difference between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the moves, $U=68.50$, $z=-1.278$, $p>.05$, and steps, $U=75.00$, $z=-.976$, $p>.05$, employed in Conclusion chapters. Similarly, no significant differences were found between the two corpora in terms of the use of individual steps.

Metadiscourse markers.

The differences between the Conclusion chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the metadiscourse markers employed in these chapters were investigated through Mann Whitney U tests. Before these tests, however, frequencies and percentages were calculated and shown in Table 44.

Table 44. Frequency and Percentages of Metadiscourse Markers in Conclusion Chapters

Category	Turkish			Anglophone		
	f	% (within group)	% (within total)	f	% (within group)	% (within total)
Transitions	612	42.5	19.3	656	35.3	15.2
Frame markers	397	27.6	12.5	376	20.3	8.7
Endophoric markers	22	1.5	0.7	109	5.9	2.5
Evidentials	198	13.8	6.2	451	24.3	10.5
Code glosses	211	14.7	6.6	264	14.2	6.1
Interactive	1440	100.0	45.3	1856	100.0	43.1
Hedges	1004	57.8	31.6	1261	51.6	29.3
Boosters	418	24.1	13.2	725	29.6	16.9
Attitude markers	122	7.0	3.8	174	7.1	4.0
Engagement markers	180	10.4	5.7	230	9.4	5.3
Self-mention	12	0.7	0.4	56	2.3	1.3
Interactional	1736	100.0	54.7	2446	100.0	56.9
Totals	3176		100.0	4302		100.0

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point

As can be seen in Table 44, the total amount of metadiscourse was higher in Anglophone group. The totals of interactive and interactional categories were also higher in this group. However, percentages showed that the groups were similar in terms of the distribution of

metadiscourse as interactive and interactional. In both groups, interactional category was used more than interactive.

In interactive category, Transitions was the most common type. In terms of frequencies, these devices were followed by Frame markers in Turkish group and Evidentials in Anglophone group. Although they were used less than these types, Evidentials and Code glosses were also frequent. The least employed type in the interactive category was Endophoric markers. These devices and Evidentials were found to be used more by Anglophone researchers.

In the interactional category, Hedges was the most common type. In both groups, more than half of the interactional markers were of this type. In terms of frequencies, Boosters was the second. Engagament markers and Attitude markers were also used by Turkish and Anglophone researchers but much less than Hedges and Boosters. In both corpora, the least frequent interactional marker was Self-mentions. Anglophones were found to use more self-mentions than Turkish researchers.

In all sub-categories, Hedges was the most common type in both corpora. Turkish researchers used Transitions and Frame markers more than Anglophones. Transitions was the second most frequent type in Turkish corpora. Anglophone researchers, however, used more Boosters and Evidentials than their Turkish counterparts. In this group, Boosters were the second most frequent type. Although there were differences in the percentages, the types which were used the least in both corpora were the same: Endophoric markers and Self-mentions.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the metadiscourse they employed in Conclusion chapters, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 45.

Table 45. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Metadiscourse Markers in Conclusion Chapters*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Transitions	Turkish	12	16.04	192.50	77.50	-.860	.390
	Anglophone	16	13.34	213.50			
Frame markers	Turkish	12	15.75	189.00	81.00	-.697	.486
	Anglophone	16	13.56	217.00			
Endophoric markers	Turkish	12	12.04	144.50	66.50	-1.400	.162
	Anglophone	16	16.34	261.50			
Evidentials	Turkish	12	11.25	135.00	57.00	-1.816	.069
	Anglophone	16	16.94	271.00			
Code glosses	Turkish	12	15.13	181.50	88.50	-.349	.727
	Anglophone	16	14.03	224.50			
Hedges	Turkish	12	14.17	170.00	92.00	-.186	.853
	Anglophone	16	14.75	236.00			
Boosters	Turkish	12	12.42	149.00	71.00	-1.161	.246
	Anglophone	16	16.06	257.00			
Attitude markers	Turkish	12	13.33	160.00	82.00	-.651	.515
	Anglophone	16	15.38	246.00			
Engagement markers	Turkish	12	14.92	179.00	91.00	-.232	.816
	Anglophone	16	14.19	227.00			

Table 45. (continued)

Self-mentions	Turkish	12	12.71	152.50	74.50	-1.165	.244
	Anglophone	16	15.84	253.50			
Interactive	Turkish	12	14.21	170.50	92.50	-.163	.871
	Anglophone	16	14.72	235.50			
Interactional	Turkish	12	13.25	159.00	81.00	-.697	.486
	Anglophone	16	15.44	247.00			
TOTAL	Turkish	12	13.50	162.00	84.00	-.557	.577
	Anglophone	16	15.25	244.00			

As shown in Table 45, although the mean rank was higher in Anglophone group, there was no statistically significant difference between Turkish ($Md=13.50$, $n=12$) and Anglophone groups ($Md=15.25$, $n=12$) regarding the use of metadiscourse, $U=84.00$, $z=-.557$, $p>.05$, in Conclusion chapters. Similarly, there was no significant difference in the use of interactive, $U=92.50$, $z=-.163$, $p>.05$, and interactional metadiscourse, $U=81.00$, $z=-.697$, $p>.05$. No significant differences were found between the two groups with regard to the sub-categories.

Metadiscourse markers by moves.

The differences between the Conclusion chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the distribution of metadiscourse markers by moves were investigated through Mann Whitney U tests. Before these tests, however, frequencies and percentages were calculated and shown in Table 46.

Table 46. Frequency and Percentages of Metadiscourse in Conclusion Chapters (by moves)

Group	Move	Interactive		Interactional		Total	
		f	%	f	%	f	%
Turkish	Preparatory information	39	2.7	19	1.1	58	1.8
	Background information	75	5.2	43	2.5	118	3.7
	Reporting results	203	14.1	178	10.3	381	12.0
	Commenting on results	336	23.3	426	24.5	762	24.0
	Summarizing results	11	0.8	9	0.5	20	0.6
	Summarizing the study	207	14.4	199	11.5	406	12.8
	Evaluating the study	118	8.2	136	7.8	254	8.0
	Deductions from the research	434	30.1	707	40.7	1141	35.9
	Concluding the chapter/section	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Introducing next chapter/section	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Concluding the study	17	1.2	19	1.1	36	1.1
		1440	100.0 (45.3)	1736	100.0 (54.7)	3176	(100.0)
Anglophone	Preparatory information	117	6.3	99	4.0	216	5.0
	Background information	256	13.8	186	7.6	442	10.3
	Reporting results	225	12.1	254	10.4	479	11.1
	Commenting on results	289	15.6	395	16.1	684	15.9
	Summarizing results	16	0.9	29	1.2	45	1.0
	Summarizing the study	94	5.1	86	3.5	180	4.2
	Evaluating the study	207	11.2	271	11.1	478	11.1
	Deductions from the research	557	30.0	999	40.8	1556	36.2
	Concluding the chapter/section	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Introducing next chapter/section	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
	Concluding the study	95	5.1	127	5.2	222	5.2
		1856	100.0 (43.1)	2446	100.0 (56.9)	4302	(100.0)

*Percentages have been rounded to one decimal point

As can be seen in Table 46, both Turkish and Anglophone researchers used metadiscourse most frequently in Deductions from the research. In this move, interactional resources were employed more than interactive resources. The second move in terms of the amount of the metadiscourse was also same in both groups: Commenting on results. In this move, the groups were different in terms of the percentages. However, both Anglophone and Turkish researchers used more interactional than interactive resources while making comments.

Regarding the types of metadiscourse, it was found that Preparatory information, Background information and Summarizing the study were more interactive, while Commenting on results, Evaluating the study and Deductions from the research were more interactional. Reporting results was an exception. In this move, the type of metadiscourse was more interactive in Turkish group and more interactional in Anglophone group. However, it should be noted that in all moves both types of metadiscourse were found to be used.

To find whether any statistically significant difference exists between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the distribution of metadiscourse by moves, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted. The results are shown in Table 47.

Table 47. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Metadiscourse in Conclusion Chapters (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	12	11.96	143.50	65.5	-1.442	.149
	Anglophone	16	16.41	262.50			
Background information	Turkish	12	11.63	139.50	61.5	-1.621	.105
	Anglophone	16	16.66	266.50			
Reporting results	Turkish	12	11.58	139.00	61.0	-1.634	.102
	Anglophone	16	16.69	267.00			
Commenting on results	Turkish	12	12.96	155.50	77.5	-.866	.386
	Anglophone	16	15.66	250.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	12	14.25	171.00	93.0	-.209	.835
	Anglophone	16	14.69	235.00			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	12	17.04	204.50	65.5	-1.570	.116
	Anglophone	16	12.59	201.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	12	14.04	168.50	90.5	-.256	.798
	Anglophone	16	14.84	237.50			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	12	14.00	168.00	90.0	-.279	.781
	Anglophone	16	14.88	238.00			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	12	14.50	174.00	96.0	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	16	14.50	232.00			
Introducing the next chapter/section	Turkish	12	14.50	174.00	96.0	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	16	14.50	232.00			
Concluding the study	Turkish	12	11.75	141.00	63.0	-1.788	.074
	Anglophone	16	16.56	265.00			
TOTAL	Turkish	12	13.50	162.00	84.0	-.557	.577
	Anglophone	16	15.25	244.00			

Table 47 shows that there was no statistically significant difference between the groups in terms of the metadiscourse they employed in each move. However, except for Summarizing the study, the mean ranks were higher in the Anglophone group, indicating that Anglophone researchers employed more metadiscourse markers in their moves than Turkish researchers.

The statistical differences between the groups in terms of the interactive (Table 48) and interactional metadiscourse (Table 49) they used in each move were also investigated through Mann-Whitney U tests. No significant differences were found between the groups. The results of Mann-Whitney tests were given below.

Table 48. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Interactive Metadiscourse in Conclusion Chapters (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	12	12.04	144.50	66.50	-1.396	.163
	Anglophone	16	16.34	261.50			
Background information	Turkish	12	12.25	147.00	69.00	-1.275	.202
	Anglophone	16	16.19	259.00			
Reporting results	Turkish	12	12.04	144.50	66.50	-1.381	.167
	Anglophone	16	16.34	261.50			
Commenting on results	Turkish	12	12.29	147.50	69.50	-1.240	.215
	Anglophone	16	16.16	258.50			
Summarizing results	Turkish	12	14.38	172.50	94.50	-.104	.917
	Anglophone	16	14.59	233.50			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	12	17.33	208.00	62.00	-1.792	.073
	Anglophone	16	12.38	198.00			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	12	14.75	177.00	93.00	-.140	.889
	Anglophone	16	14.31	229.00			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	12	15.17	182.00	88.00	-.372	.710
	Anglophone	16	14.00	224.00			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	12	14.50	174.00	96.00	.000	1.000
	Anglophone	16	14.50	232.00			
Introducing the next chapter / section	Turkish	12	14.50	174.00	96.00	.000	1.000
	Anglophone	16	14.50	232.00			
Concluding the study	Turkish	12	11.79	141.50	63.50	-1.760	.078
	Anglophone	16	16.53	264.50			
TOTAL	Turkish	12	14.21	170.50	92.50	-.163	.871
	Anglophone	16	14.72	235.50			

Table 49. *Mann-Whitney Tests for Interactional Metadiscourse in Conclusion Chapters (by moves)*

Move	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	Z	p
Preparatory information	Turkish	12	12.08	145.00	67.00	-1.378	.168
	Anglophone	16	16.31	261.00			
Background information	Turkish	12	11.29	135.50	57.50	-1.862	.063
	Anglophone	16	16.91	270.50			
Reporting results	Turkish	12	11.21	134.50	56.50	-1.845	.065
	Anglophone	16	16.97	271.50			
Commenting on results	Turkish	12	13.25	159.00	81.00	-.702	.483
	Anglophone	16	15.44	247.00			
Summarizing results	Turkish	12	14.25	171.00	93.00	-.209	.835
	Anglophone	16	14.69	235.00			
Summarizing the study	Turkish	12	16.88	202.50	67.50	-1.467	.142
	Anglophone	16	12.72	203.50			
Evaluating the study	Turkish	12	13.38	160.50	82.50	-.629	.529
	Anglophone	16	15.34	245.50			
Deductions from the research	Turkish	12	13.54	162.50	84.50	-.534	.593
	Anglophone	16	15.22	243.50			
Concluding the chapter /section	Turkish	12	14.50	174.00	96.00	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	16	14.50	232.00			
Introducing the next chapter / section	Turkish	12	14.50	174.00	96.00	.000	1.00
	Anglophone	16	14.50	232.00			
Concluding the study	Turkish	12	11.67	140.00	62.00	-1.842	.065
	Anglophone	16	16.63	266.00			
TOTAL	Turkish	12	13.25	159.00	81.00	-.697	.486
	Anglophone	16	15.44	247.00			

This chapter was devoted to the qualitative and quantitative analysis of the data collected from the final chapters of ELT dissertations. The results showed that there were both similarities and differences between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the use of moves, steps and metadiscourse markers. The groups were similar in their overall structure and their use of metalinguistic items. However, according to the results of statistical tests, they significantly differed in the use of certain individual elements. In the next chapter, these results will be discussed and evaluated.

CHAPTER FIVE

Discussion and Conclusion

Discussion

Moves and steps.

This study, first of all, investigated the moves and steps employed in the final chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers. It also looked at whether there were any significant differences between the groups in terms of these moves and steps. The analysis was based on the move-analysis model proposed by Yang and Allison (2003). The results of the analyses showed that all the moves and steps in the model were employed in both Turkish and Anglophone corpora. This finding suggested that Yang and Allison's (2003) move-analysis model was useful for describing the structure of the final chapters of ELT dissertations. However, additional moves and steps were identified. That is, Preparatory information move consisted of three steps (i.e., Introductory, Reminder, Pointer) and three new moves were added (i.e., Concluding the chapter/section, Introducing the next chapter, and Concluding the study), which indicate that the model needed modifications in order to be applied to the final chapters of ELT dissertations.

Both Turkish and Anglophone writers were found to provide preparatory information before presenting their results. Yang and Allison (2003) called this move Preparatory information and stated that this move "functions as a reminder and connector between sections, as it provides relevant information for the presentation of results" (p. 373). They asserted that this move can take several forms such as methodological instruments, statistical procedures, location of tables or graphs for results, and a general preview of the section. In the present study, three steps were identified for each of these functions: Introductory, Reminder, and Pointer. These steps were considered necessary because it was realized that general preview of the chapter/section was always located at the beginning of the chapter/section, while information about methodological instruments, statistical procedures, and location of tables or graphs could occur anywhere in the chapter/section. In their study, Yang and Allison (2003) also mentioned that pointers to the location of results can occur anywhere in the section. However, they did not count it as Preparatory information "if it is not the salient function of the text" (p. 374). In the present study, it was seen that preparatory information, in forms other than general preview, was used very commonly throughout the chapters/sections. In order not to ignore these frequent

uses, they were also identified as Preparatory information move. However, to distinguish their functions, they were coded as Reminders and Pointers. Indeed, these steps were already found in a study conducted by Brett in 1994. In his study on the Result sections in sociology research articles, Brett (1994) identified four sub-categories: Pointer (i.e., indicates which data are to be discussed), Structure of section (i.e., indicates the order and content of the text which follows), Procedural (i.e., explains how and why data have been produced) and Hypothesis restated (i.e., restates the aims of the research). These categories seem to correspond to the three steps identified in the present study (i.e., Introductory, Reminder, Pointer).

Except for these steps, three new moves (i.e., Concluding the chapter/section, Introducing the next chapter/section, and Concluding the study) were identified, as mentioned above. As analysing the dissertations, it was realized that some writers, especially Anglophones, provided a summary of the current chapter/section before moving into the next chapter/section. The move (e.g., This chapter presented the results of the study. First, it demonstrated ...) was found to be frequently followed by another move giving information about the next chapter/section (e.g., In the next chapter, these findings will ...). Of these moves, the first was labelled as Concluding the chapter/section and the second as Introducing the next chapter/section. Similarly, another move was found at the end of the last chapters of the studies. Different from the move for concluding the chapter/section, this move provided a summary of the whole study. It was employed to conclude the study with restatements or concluding remarks (e.g., In summary, this study ...). This move was labelled as Concluding the study. Statistical data showed that Anglophone group employed these three moves more than Turkish group. Therefore, it can be concluded that in the ELT dissertations written by Anglophones it is more likely to find summaries or concluding remarks at the end of the chapters/sections and the study. The absence of these moves in Yang and Allison's (2003) model can be explained by the fact that it was developed for research articles.

The data showing the existence of a concluding move at the end of the studies support the findings of Bunton (2005) and Soler-Monreal (2016), who analyzed the move structure of the conclusion chapters of doctoral dissertations. Bunton (2005) found that at the end of the chapters "there was occasionally a restatement move which reiterated overall findings and claims, rather than purpose" (pp. 217-218). Similarly, Soler-Monreal (2016) indicated that "more than half of the computer science theses in the corpus also have a final move recapitulating the overall study and contributions" (p. 118). The dissertations analyzed in these studies were from different fields. Our study revealed that 16 of the 50 ELT dissertations used a concluding move at the end of their last chapters. However, 13 of these dissertations were

written by Anglophone researchers. Therefore, it can be argued that Anglophone writers have a stronger tendency than Turkish writers to use a concluding move at the end of their dissertations.

All the other moves and steps found in the dissertations were those identified by Yang and Allison (2003). The moves and steps in the model were found in both corpora. However, there were differences in frequencies and distributions by chapters. The total amount of moves in Turkish group was higher than the amount in Anglophone group and in this respect quantitative analyses showed a statistically significant difference between the groups. However, such a difference may not necessarily mean that ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers are totally different in terms of the moves and steps they included. Because, the results of inferential statistics showed that the groups differed significantly only in Result chapters and there were no significant differences between the groups in their Discussion and Conclusion chapters except for the use of certain elements. The overall difference between the groups can partly be explained by the length of the dissertations in each group. The Turkish corpus was 1124 pages totally, which averaged 45 pages, while Anglophone corpus was 906 pages, which averaged 36 pages. The distribution of the moves by chapters showed that more than half of all the moves were employed in Result chapters. This result can also be due to the difference in the lengths of the chapters. However, it can also indicate that ELT doctoral students, both native and non-native, use more moves while they are reporting their results than they use while discussing their results and concluding their studies.

Among the 11 moves, the most employed move was Reporting results and expectedly it was used most frequently in Result chapters, as suggested by Yang and Allison (2003). The data showing that this move was used in all three chapters indicate that both groups state their research results not only while presenting the data they found but also while discussing their results and concluding their studies. However, the distribution of the move by chapters showed a difference between the researcher groups regarding the use of the move in Discussion and Conclusion chapters. The data showed that Turkish researchers used this move in Conclusion less than Anglophones, which indicate that Anglophones prefer to state their results while concluding their studies more than Turkish researchers. However, it should be noted that there were more Conclusion chapters in Anglophone corpus and the difference between the groups may also be due to this fact.

The second most frequent move was Commenting on results in Turkish corpus and Preparatory information in Anglophone corpus. Commenting on results was employed most frequently in Results chapters. The fact that the present study categorized the chapters with the

title ‘Results and Discussion’ as ‘Results’ may have contributed to this result. However, it indicates that research results in ELT dissertations are commonly presented with writers’ comments. This finding supports those studies revealing that Result chapters include not only reports but also comments (e.g., Brett, 1994; Posteguillo, 1999; Yang & Allison, 2003). The study of Swales and Feak (1994) is among those studies indicating that result statements in Results sections are usually accompanied by the writer’s comments. In the study, the researchers argue that the writers often include commentary in Result sections to answer possible reader questions such as “Why did they use this method rather than that one?” or “Isn’t this result rather strange?” They assert that “for obvious reasons, authors may not want to postpone responding to such imaginary questions and critical comments until the final section” (p. 171). According to the results of our study, Anglophone researchers make their comments heavily in Result chapters, while Turkish researchers make comments frequently in both Results and Discussions. Although the distributions by chapters differ between the groups, they show that Commenting on results is a move common to all final sections of ELT dissertations.

In terms of the steps of Commenting on results, it was found that Interpreting results was the most frequent type. The distributions of the steps by chapters showed that most of the comments in Result chapters were of this type. In this chapter, the least employed type was Comparing results with literature and it was used more commonly in Discussion. These findings suggest that research results in ELT dissertations are most frequently interpreted in Results chapters and they are compared with the results of other studies mostly in Discussion chapters. While presenting results, Turkish researchers also make evaluations and explanations for their results. According to statistical data, Turkish researchers are more likely to make explanations in Result chapters, compared to Anglophones. Although Anglophones also make evaluations and explanations while presenting their results, they additionally make them while concluding their studies, which is uncommon among Turkish ELT researchers.

Preparatory information, as Commenting on results, was employed the most in Results, and in these chapters it was used heavily in the form of Reminders. This finding suggests that it is very common in the Results chapters of ELT dissertations to restate the main points of the study such as its purpose, method, and statistical procedures. Expectedly, the other form of preparatory information, Pointers, were also very frequent in Result chapters since tables and graphs were heavily located in these chapters. The less use of Introductory step than Reminders and Pointers can also be considered an expected finding since it is a form only used at the beginning of chapters and sections. Although it was the least employed type among the steps of Preparatory information, its presence in both Turkish and Anglophone corpora indicates that

doctoral students in ELT often begin their chapters and sections with a general preview. In Discussion and Conclusion chapters, Background information functions as Reminders. Therefore, in Discussion chapters, there was no Reminder but Background information. This finding suggests that information about the main points of the study also takes place in Discussion and Conclusion chapters. The distribution of the moves by chapters suggests that Turkish researchers give such information heavily in Discussion chapters whereas Anglophones frequently in both Discussion and Conclusion.

Although less frequent than the moves mentioned above, Evaluating the study and Deductions from the research were also employed in ELT dissertations. According to the findings, these two moves were mostly employed in Discussion and Conclusion. In Results chapters, they were infrequent, which indicates that in ELT dissertations the limitations and significance of the study as well as suggestions, implications and recommendations most commonly take place in Discussion and Conclusion rather than Results. Overall, as the percentages suggest, Anglophone researchers make more evaluations and deductions than their Turkish counterparts. Also, while evaluating their studies, both Turkish and Anglophone researchers indicate the limitations and significance of their studies more than the methodology they used. While making deductions from research, they refer to their recommendations for further research and to the implications of their studies for pedagogy.

In five moves, the amount of metadiscourse was less than 2% of the total. These moves were those used for summarizing and concluding. Both groups of researchers, especially the Turkish group, were found to summarize their findings in Result chapters and their studies in Conclusion chapters. Both of them also used moves for concluding their chapters/sections and studies. However, the finding showing that these moves were employed more by Anglophone researchers suggests that it is more likely to find concluding remarks at the end of chapters/sections written by Anglophone researchers.

In Result chapters, obligatory moves were Preparatory information and Reporting results. In these chapters, the quasi-obligatory move which was employed most commonly was Commenting on results. In Discussion chapters, however, the moves which were found in all dissertations were Reporting results and Commenting on results. Also, Background information was used in all dissertations except for one dissertation in Turkish corpora. These findings suggest that Result chapters of ELT dissertations obligatorily consist of preparatory information and research results which are commonly accompanied by writers' comments. In these chapters, writers can optionally summarize their results, evaluate their studies and make deductions from their research. Discussion chapters, on the other hand, are those parts of dissertations in which

results of the study are commented based on research results and together with background information about the study. In these chapters, writers can also give preparatory information, provide summaries and make evaluations. The difference between Results and Discussion chapters seem to be the use of Evaluating the study and Deductions from the research. These two moves which are optional in Results were obligatory/quasi-obligatory in Discussions, which suggests that making evaluations and deductions are not obligatorily required for Results but Discussion chapters. Of these two moves essential for Discussion chapters, Deductions from the research was the only move which is obligatory in the Conclusions of both Turkish and Anglophone researchers. Based on statistical data regarding the use of this move in Conclusion chapters, it can be inferred that doctoral students in ELT conclude their studies with the pedagogical implications of their studies and recommendations for further research.

To conclude, although there were some differences between the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers regarding the moves and steps used in Results, Discussion and Conclusion, the two corpora were similar in their overall structure. Yang and Allison's (2003) model was useful to describe this structure. However, there existed the need for some additions (i.e., steps for giving preparatory information and moves for concluding chapters/sections and study). Consistent with Yang and Allison (2003), it was found that the main function was 'presenting results' in Result chapters and 'commenting on results' in Discussion chapters. The finding that Result chapters include not only the results of the study but also comments of the writers is consistent with the studies in the literature. The moves and steps found in Conclusion chapters also matched with those identified by Yang and Allison (2003). As offered in the model, three moves were common in these chapters: Summarizing the study, Evaluating the study and Deductions from the research. However, different from the model, it was found that many Conclusion chapters, especially those in the Anglophone corpus, end with a move summarizing the whole study.

Metadiscourse markers.

This study secondly investigated the metadiscourse markers employed in the final chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers. It also looked at whether there were any significant differences between the groups in terms of these metadiscourse markers. The analysis was based on the metadiscourse taxonomy offered by Hyland and Tse (2004). The results of analyses showed that metadiscourse markers in the taxonomy were employed frequently in the final chapters of ELT dissertations regardless of the language background of their writers. No other categories than those offered by Hyland and Tse (2004) were identified. Therefore, it can be concluded that metadiscourse is an important

characteristic of ELT dissertations and Hyland and Tse's (2004) taxonomy is useful to identify and categorize the metadiscourse elements used in this genre.

Despite the fact that metadiscourse was common to all dissertations in the corpus, it was employed in different amounts in the dissertations written by Turkish researchers and those by Anglophones. According to the results, the dissertations in the Turkish group included more metadiscourse than those in the Anglophone group. Although this difference between the groups was not statistically significant, the mean rank was higher in Turkish corpus. This result contrasts with the results of many studies in the literature (e.g., Valero-Garcés, 1996; Mauranen, 1993; Çapar, 2014; Lee & Casal, 2014), which revealed that native speakers used more metadiscourse compared to non-native speakers. The inconsistency in the results of studies can be explained by the variability in the languages, disciplines, genres and types of metadiscourse analysed. Also, as mentioned in the discussion of the results of move analysis, the dissertations in Turkish and Anglophone group differed in length and this may have influenced the frequency data.

Although the overall frequency was higher in Turkish group, statistical analyses showed no significant differences between the groups except for a slight difference in the interactive category in favour of Turkish group. This suggests that ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers are similar in terms of the use of metadiscourse. In both groups, about half of the all metadiscourse was interactive and half was interactional. However, interactional was slightly higher than the interactive. This finding which contrasts with studies such as Hyland and Tse (2004) and Lee and Casal (2014) can be considered as a reflection of the priority given by ELT doctoral students to the engagement of their readers into the texts.

The distributions of metadiscourse by chapters showed no significant differences between the two corpora, reflecting the similarity between the groups in the use of metadiscourse in individual chapters. The distributions showed that both groups used metadiscourse most commonly in Results and in these chapters they employed interactive markers more than interactional markers, which reflects the attempts of ELT doctoral students to organise their results in ways that are most comprehensible to the readers. The second chapter, in terms of the use of metadiscourse, was Discussion in Turkish corpus and Conclusion in Anglophone corpus. This result may be attributed to the fact that there were more Discussion chapters in Turkish corpus and more Conclusion chapters in Anglophone corpus. Contrary to Results, these two chapters included interactional type of metadiscourse more than the interactive type. This may be regarded as an expected finding. Because, the results of the move analysis showed that the chapters in which comments, evaluations, recommendations and

deductions commonly took place were Discussion and Conclusion chapters. Since these acts mostly require the use of metadiscourse elements in the interactional category (i.e., hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, self-mentions), it is natural that interactional metadiscourse is more common in Discussion and Conclusion than Results.

In terms of the use of specific metadiscourse categories, there were a number of similarities and differences between the Turkish and Anglophone corpora. As in the studies of Hyland (1998a, 2004) and Hyland and Tse (2004), hedges were the most frequent sub-category and the most frequent interactional metadiscourse markers in both groups. It was the category of metadiscourse most heavily used in all three chapters. As stated by Hyland (2004), the dominance of hedges reflects “the critical importance of distinguishing fact from opinion in academic writing and the need for writers to evaluate their assertions in ways that are likely to be acceptable and persuasive to their examiners and supervisors” (p. 140). In interactional category, the second most frequent markers were boosters. Although these devices were also quite frequent in Turkish group, Anglophone group used them more than their Turkish counterparts, suggesting that Anglophone writers tend to be more assertive in expressing their claims and arguments. In the interactional category, attitude markers and engagement markers were used less than hedges and boosters. It seemed that in all ELT dissertations these two devices were used more frequently while making discussions and conclusions rather than reporting results. This finding is not surprising as results are required to be reported objectively. Less used than these devices were Self-mentions. It was the least employed type in both interactional category and in all metadiscourse sub-categories. Although it was infrequent in both corpora, it was used more by Anglophones (cf. Lee & Casal 2014). Based on this finding, it can be argued that although both groups of researchers prefer to adopt an impersonal rhetorical style in their post-method chapters, native speakers of English are more comfortable than non-native speakers to represent themselves explicitly in their texts. It should be noted that such a decision “can influence the impression student writers make on their readers and have significant consequences for how their message is received” (Hyland, 2004, p. 143).

In the interactive category, Transitions were the most employed type in all chapters, supporting previous studies such as Lee and Casal (2014). Since these devices are mainly used to build semantic relations between the clauses (Hyland & Tse, 2004), high occurrence of these devices in ELT dissertations reflects the attempts of both Turkish and Anglophone researchers to enhance the comprehensibility of their texts. The frequent use of frame markers can also be considered as a part of these attempts. This sub-category was the second most frequent interactive resource in both corpora and this indicates the importance given by ELT doctoral

students to make the organization of their texts clear to the readers. However, it should be noted that the data showing high use of frame markers in ELT dissertations contrast with the results of several studies of research articles (e.g., Mur-Dueñas, 2011) and theses (Lee & Casal, 2014; Hyland, 2004), which revealed infrequent use of these devices in English texts. This can be attributed to the fact that the use of metadiscourse may vary considerably across the texts and contexts. The type of the texts analysed, the disciplines included as well as the chapters focused on can all affect research results.

Although they were used less frequently than transitions and frame markers, other types in the interactive category (i.e., code glosses, evidentials, endophoric markers) were also employed by both Turkish and Anglophone researchers. Based on the distribution of these markers in different chapters, it can be argued that in Result chapters it is less likely to find references to other sources (i.e., evidentials). It seems that ELT doctoral students usually make references in Discussion and Conclusion since such references are central to persuasion. As stated by Hyland and Tse, (2004), citation not only “helps provide justification for arguments ... but it also allows students to display an allegiance to a particular community and establish a credible writer identity, displaying familiarity with the texts and with an ethos that values a disciplinary research tradition” (p. 171). However, in Result chapters it is more likely to find items pointing to the other parts of the texts (i.e., endophorics). According to the data, these items were used in Results more than Discussion and Conclusion. As mentioned above, this finding is reasonable since Results chapters typically consist of many visuals to be pointed out.

The distributions of metadiscourse markers by moves revealed similarities between the groups. First of all, the groups were similar in terms of the moves in which metadiscourse was used most frequently: Reporting results and Commenting on results. These moves were followed by Deductions from the research, Preparatory information and Background information. Since these moves occurred in both corpora more frequently, it is not surprising that the total amount of metadiscourse was higher in these moves compared to others. Secondly, the groups were similar in the type of metadiscourse they used in each move. It seems that ELT researchers, both native and non-native, most commonly use interactive metadiscourse while reporting their results and interactional metadiscourse while commenting on their results. They also use interactive markers frequently for giving preparatory and background information and interactional metadiscourse for making evaluations and deductions. Considering the purpose of each move and function of each metadiscourse category, these results seem to be reasonable. It is expected that writers use more interactive metadiscourse while giving information to make it more comprehensible and use more interactional metadiscourse while making discussions or

reaching conclusions to involve their readers in their arguments. Therefore, it can be concluded that there was a match between the moves and the types of metadiscourse used in the moves. However, it should be noted that no move was completely interactive or interactional. In both corpora, moves were either balanced between interactive and interactional metadiscourse or were slightly more interactive or interactional. Based on this finding, it can be argued that interactive and interactional metadiscourse are integrated in texts.

To conclude, metadiscourse markers in Hyland and Tse's (2004) taxonomy were all found to be used in both Turkish and Anglophone groups, suggesting that the elements offered in the taxonomy were used very commonly by both native and non-native writers. Although there were some differences between the Turkish and Anglophone groups in terms of the amount of metadiscourse they used in individual chapters and moves, the groups were similar in the types of metadiscourse (i.e., interactive or interactional) they used in chapters and moves. The distributions of interactive and interactional metadiscourse by chapters and moves suggest that both types of metadiscourse are employed in all chapters and moves. Also, it seems that the type of metadiscourse used in each chapter and move matches with the function of the chapter and the move. The similarities between the groups in the use of metadiscourse markers can be regarded as the reflection of the researchers' knowledge of writing conventions in the given genre whereas the differences can be considered as the influences of L1 writing cultures, conventions and patterns.

Conclusion

This study employed a genre analysis of two comparable corpora of dissertations. Its purpose was to investigate the structural and linguistic features of the final chapters of ELT dissertations written in English by Turkish and Anglophone researchers. Specifically, the study aimed at analysing the final chapters (i.e., Results, Discussion, Conclusion) of ELT dissertations through move and metadiscourse analyses. With its corpus consisting of two comparable corpora, the study was also to reach comparative data about the academic writing practices of researchers with different language backgrounds. Based on these purposes, the following research questions were addressed in the study:

- 1- What are the moves employed in the Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters of the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers?
- 2- Is there any statistically significant difference between the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the moves employed in Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters?

- 3- What are the metadiscourse markers employed in the Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters of the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers?
- 4- Is there any statistically significant difference between the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the metadiscourse markers employed in Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters?
- 5- What are the metadiscourse markers employed in each move of the Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters of the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers?
- 6- Is there any statistically significant difference between the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers in terms of the metadiscourse markers employed in each move of Results, Discussion and Conclusion chapters?

To answer these research questions, qualitative research design was adopted and the data were collected qualitatively. For the analysis of the data, both qualitative and quantitative procedures were followed. That is, first, structural and linguistic elements in the dissertations were coded manually based on Yang and Allison's (2003) move analysis model and Hyland and Tse's (2004) metadiscourse taxonomy. Then, for data analysis, the qualitative data were converted into numerical form for further comparison and evaluation. Frequencies and percentages were calculated and statistical tests were performed. For a better description of the elements used in the dissertations, sample sentences and patterns taken from the analysed texts were also presented.

The results of the move analysis showed that the moves and steps given in the Yang and Allison's (2003) model were employed in both Turkish and Anglophone corpora. Therefore, the model was found to be useful to describe the structure of the final chapters of ELT dissertations. However, the identification of additional moves and steps indicated that the model needed to be modified to be applied to ELT dissertations. According to the results of moves analysis, although there were some differences between the final chapters written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers, the two corpora were similar in their overall structure. In this structure, chapters commonly begin with preparatory or background information which is followed by research results. Then, these results are commented, evaluated, summarized and, at the end, deductions are made. To this structure, which is commonly offered in the related literature, the present study added three new moves used for concluding the chapter/section, introducing the next chapter/section, and concluding the whole study. These moves which were found more in Anglophone corpus need further research.

In this study, it was offered that Preparatory information move include three steps. These steps were considered necessary because the data showed that there were three common types of Preparatory information provided in the final chapters of ELT dissertations: previews of chapters/sections, restatements of the main points of the study, and pointers for the location of tables or graphs. The identification of these steps (labelled as Introductory, Reminder and Pointer, respectively) revealed the function of the Preparatory information move employed in each chapter. It was found that preparatory information provided at the beginning of the chapters/sections was commonly Introductory (i.e., it provides a general preview of the upcoming chapter/section) whereas the information which could be provided anywhere in the texts was either Reminder (i.e., it restates the main points of the study) or Pointer (i.e., it points to location of the tables or figures). Like the three new moves added to the model, these steps also need further research.

One of the important findings was the high occurrence of comments in Result chapters. This finding indicated that in ELT dissertations results are frequently accompanied by the writers' comments to interpret, compare, evaluate and account for the data. It also suggested that doctoral students in ELT tend to make their comments immediately after they report their results rather than postpone them to other sections or chapters. The type of the comments in Results chapters, however, showed that comments in these chapters are commonly interpretive and evaluative. Comparative comments were usually found in chapters other than Results, especially Discussions. At this point, two important differences between the Turkish and Anglophone groups should be noted: Anglophones make more evaluations in Conclusion chapters and Turkish researchers make more explanations in their Result chapters.

As offered by Yang and Allison (2003), Discussion and Conclusion chapters also included evaluations of the study and deductions from research. According to the findings, Turkish researchers make these evaluations and deductions more commonly in Discussions while Anglophones in Conclusions. However, it seems that both groups infrequently evaluate their methodology and make suggestions. Instead, they refer to the limitations, advantages and implications of their studies and make recommendations for further research. It can be inferred from the results that although such evaluations are made by both groups, Anglophones emphasize these issues more than their Turkish counterparts who prefer to focus more on their results.

The results of metadiscourse analysis showed that interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in the Hyland and Tse's (2004) taxonomy were employed frequently in the final chapters of ELT dissertations, regardless of the language background of the writers.

No other categories than those offered by Hyland and Tse (2004) were identified. This finding suggested that metadiscourse was an important characteristic of ELT dissertations and Hyland and Tse's (2004) taxonomy was useful to identify and categorize the metadiscourse elements used in this genre.

Although metadiscourse was common in both corpora, Turkish group used more metadiscourse than Anglophones, contrasting with many previous studies which reported that native speakers employed more metadiscourse than non-natives. However, it should be noted that the difference was not statistically significant and therefore the groups can be regarded similar in terms of the amount of metadiscourse they included. The high use of metadiscourse markers in both corpora indicates that doctoral students in ELT have the knowledge of metadiscourse markers and they give importance to the use of metadiscourse in their texts. Their knowledge of metadiscourse was also reflected in their use of interactive and interactional resources. It was found that the types of metadiscourse used in each chapter and each move matched with the purpose of these chapters and moves. Therefore, it can be deduced that the researchers chose the metadiscourse markers they would use not randomly but purposefully. It may be because of this purposeful use of metadiscourse that interactive devices were employed more in the moves for providing information and interactional devices were employed more in moves for commenting, evaluating and making deductions.

The statistical data showed no significant differences between the groups with regard to the use of metadiscourse in Result, Discussion, and Conclusion chapters, reflecting the similarity between the groups in the use of metadiscourse in individual chapters. The distribution of metadiscourse markers by chapters showed that both groups used metadiscourse most commonly in Results and in these chapters they employed both interactive and interactional resources. In Discussion and Conclusion chapters, on the other hand, interactional markers were used more since these chapters consisted heavily of comments, evaluations, recommendations and deductions which require higher use of metadiscourse elements in the interactional category.

However, it should be noted that no chapter or move was completely interactive or interactional and there were not only similarities but also differences between the groups in terms of the use of individual markers. The groups were similar with regard to the most and least frequent devices. In both corpora, hedges and transitions were the most frequently employed devices and self-mentions were the least employed ones. However, the higher use of transitions and frame markers in the Turkish group and higher use of boosters and self-mentions in the Anglophone group imply the distinguishing features of the groups.

In sum, the results indicated that the groups were similar in the overall structure of their final chapters and metadiscourse markers they used in these chapters. In both corpora, the structure was consistent with the model offered by Yang and Allison (2003) and metadiscourse markers were all those suggested by Hyland and Tse (2004). The similarities between the groups indicate that doctoral students are aware of the academic writing conventions of the related genre and they follow these conventions commonly in their dissertations. Their awareness can first of all be attributed to the fact that they are exposed to many texts such as the past theses and research reports that can model the genre they study (Geng & Wharton, 2016). Exposure to academic writing in English and texts from the related genre may have helped them become familiar with the structural and linguistic features of the genre and write accordingly. Secondly, their awareness can be due to the academic writing courses they may have attended during their graduate or post-graduate education. During the courses, they may have gained the knowledge of the writing conventions and norms appropriate to the genre. Also, based on research studies reporting similarities between the writing strategies used by proficient EFL writers and those used by native English and ESL writers (e.g., Matsumoto, 1995), it can be argued that the similarities between the two corpora in our study may be related to the proficiency level of the Turkish researchers in English. Since they majored in ELT, their level of proficiency in English can be assumed to be high. Above all, there may exist universals underlying both L1 and L2 writing. That is, “something fundamentally common to any act of writing, regardless of the language” (Matsumoto, 1995, p. 25).

However, as shown by the statistical analyses, there were not only similarities but also differences between the two corpora. These differences can mainly be attributed to influence of L1 writing cultures and interference of L1 writing conventions and patterns to L2 writing. As hypothesized by Kaplan (1966), each language and culture has rhetorical conventions unique to itself and these conventions can be transferred while writing in L2. In our study, high use of metadiscourse in both Turkish and Anglophone corpora indicates that both groups of researchers adopted a writer-responsible culture. However, the findings showing that they differed in the use of certain elements suggest that there still exist some variations between the groups. The use of self-mentions, for instance, can be regarded as a reflection of the two writing cultures prioritizing personal or impersonal writing. Thus, language backgrounds of the dissertation writers can be regarded as a variable affecting the structural and linguistic features of the texts. Additionally, the material included in the studies may have caused variations in the structural and linguistic elements. It may be because of the content of their studies that researchers used the moves and metadiscourse elements in differing ways and amounts.

However, since the contents of the studies were out of the scope of our analyses, the possible effects of the textual material on the writers' decisions need further research.

Pedagogical Implications.

This study has important implications for pedagogy mainly because it is a genre analysis study. Genre analysis is a type of text analysis, which “offers a system of analysis which allows observations to be made on the repeated communicative functions found in genres and the linguistic exponents of these functions” (Brett, 1994, p. 47). Through such an analysis, it is aimed to teach academic writing to those who are learning to write in a foreign language. Therefore, the main reason behind genre analysis is to do with pedagogical concerns. The target learners who are most commonly non-native postgraduate students or academics learning to write in their subject are expected to learn the writing conventions of the relevant genre by studying representative texts. These texts which are analysed in terms of communicative functions (i.e., moves and steps) and their linguistic features (e.g., metadiscourse markers) provide samples for learners and thus help them understand the writing conventions of the genre they study and write accordingly.

Devoted to the genre analysis of ELT dissertations, this study first of all has implications for the learning of this genre. With its focus on an understudied genre, the study has extended the knowledge as to the writing conventions of this genre. Such knowledge is expected to help doctoral students studying in the field of ELT, especially those who are non-native speakers of English, learn about the conventions of the genre they are writing. Since the analyses in the study consisted of the chapters which students often experience difficulty in writing (i.e., Results, Discussion, and Conclusion), its findings can effectively guide student writers while they are writing these chapters. It is expected that the study will help them make decisions about the moves and metadiscourse resources they will use while reporting and discussing their data as well as concluding their studies. Such decisions will also affect the quality of the texts they produced. Based on the studies comparing the rhetorical characteristics of good and poor texts (e.g., Intaraprawat & Steffensen, 1995; Sanford, 2012; Lee & Deakin, 2016; Uccelli et al., 2013), it can be argued that writers' preferences for the use of certain elements affect the success of their texts. Therefore, the findings of the present study may help student writers in their choices of the items appropriate to the genre and thus contribute to the quality of their texts.

The generic knowledge helps learners not only produce but also comprehend the academic texts (written or spoken). Based on the studies pointing to the relation between the items used in texts and comprehension level of the readers or listeners (e.g., Meyer et al., 1980; Kuhi et al., 2014; Perez & Macia, 2002), it can be argued that the more the readers and listeners

have the knowledge of and familiarity with the metadiscoursal elements in the texts, the easier and better they can comprehend the texts they read or listened to. The present study provided data about the metadiscourse items used in the certain chapters of ELT dissertations. Therefore, its readers can become more familiar about those items and thus comprehend the texts in ELT better.

This study also has implications for the teaching of genre-analysis. The combination of move and metadiscourse analysis might contribute to the instructional courses for academic writing. As mentioned in the second chapter, there are many studies on genre analysis. However, the studies conducting both move and metadiscourse analysis seem to be less in number than those performing only one of these analyses. Therefore, the present study can set an example for conducting both types of analyses in one study.

With its corpus consisting of two comparable corpora (i.e., Turkish and Anglophone) of ELT dissertations, this study has also contributed to the understanding of academic writing in groups with different writing cultures. The knowledge and consideration of differences between writing cultures is important for academic writers since effective academic writing requires using the conventions appropriate to the target discourse community. Otherwise, the writers may not communicate with the target community effectively and their texts can be considered by readers as unconvincing and incoherent. Providing knowledge about the dissertation writing practices of Turkish and Anglophone writers, this comparative study may help students be familiar with the writing cultures of these groups and produce texts which are more likely to be perceived as persuasive and comprehensible by the target readers. As Hyland (2005) states, “good writers are people who are better able to imagine how their readers will respond to their texts because they are familiar with the conventions and expectations which operate in particular settings” (pp. 197-198).

Familiarity with the genre can be developed with a genre-based pedagogy. As discussed in Chapter 2, differing in their primary focus on text or context, genre approaches differ in their genre pedagogies. Typically, linguistic approaches tend to follow explicit/text-based teaching while rhetorical approaches prefer implicit/immersion-based teaching. Among the three main approaches to genre, SFL and ESP are in favour of explicit genre teaching whereas NR has a strong commitment to immersion-based pedagogy. Our study adopted the ESP approach and argues that learners can benefit from genre-based teaching because genre pedagogy is *explicit* (makes clear what is to be learnt), *systematic* (provides a coherent framework), *needs-based* (course objectives and content are derived from students’ needs), *supportive* (teachers a central role in scaffolding students’ learning and creativity), *empowering* (provides access to the

patterns and variations in texts), *critical* (provides the resources to understand and challenge valued discourses), and *consciousness-raising* (increases teachers' awareness of texts to confidently advise students on writing) (Hyland, 2004, cited in Hyland, 2007, p. 150). Since ESP approach puts emphasis on the communicative purpose of the genre, the learners should, first of all, be provided with information about the communicative purpose of the genre. The learner with the knowledge of the purpose and audience of the genre will be in a better position to write the text in a more comprehensible, persuasive, and appropriate way. Secondly, consciousness raising activities should take place. As stated by Hyland (2004), "consciousness raising is crucial in L2 writing instruction and for teachers this means helping students to move beyond the conservative prescriptions of the style guides and into the rhetorical contexts of their disciplines" (p. 148). In these activities, students can analyze and compare the writing characteristics of the texts which are representatives of the target genre. They can conduct mini-analyses (Swales & Feak, 2000), write, critique, and rewrite the texts (Devitt, 2009). For instance, learners can identify and analyse the moves and metadiscourse markers in sample texts (i.e. final chapters of dissertations), and make discussions about the rhetorical features of these texts. As done in our study, they can analyse the texts according to the models and taxonomies given in the literature, make comparisons between texts written by different researchers, in different languages and disciplines, and compare the texts they have produced to those written by native speakers of the target language. Additionally, they can extend their analyses by other methods such as interviews to learn about the context in which genre occurred. Through all these activities, it is aimed that the students learn about the rhetorical features of the target genre and thus construct their texts better and easier. At this point, it should be reminded that the activities can be done individually as well as in pairs or groups. "To facilitate optimal development within each individual, the proponents of genre approaches encourage collaborative classroom activities, which include joint exploration of texts, negotiated construction of texts, and even generation of content" (Carstens, 2009, p. 119). Therefore, learners can make move and metadiscourse analyses in pairs or groups. However, as a principle of genre-based teaching, students also need to engage in a variety of relevant writing experiences (Hyland, 2007). Therefore, it is important that these activities are followed by ample opportunities for learners to produce their own texts. After their move and metadiscourse analyses, learners should construct their own texts in which they present and discuss the results of their analyses. Certainly, appropriate and effective feedback to these texts will contribute to the writing of the learners. This can be considered as a form of scaffolding (see Vygotsky, 1978) which emphasizes the role of interaction with peers and knowledgeable others to facilitate the optimal development within each learner. Although the term

‘scaffolding’ may not explicitly take place in the writings of the followers of ESP approach, they put emphasis on teacher assistance and collaboration among learners (Carstens, 2009). Adopting the ESP approach, our study also emphasizes the role of both teacher and peer feedback on the improvement of the quality of the learners’ texts and more importantly of their academic writing skills.

To conclude, this genre-based study provided insights into the structural and linguistic organization of the post-method chapters of ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone researchers. Designed as a genre-based study, it has not only extended the literature on genre analysis but also contributed to the teaching and learning of academic writing. It is expected that the comparative data about the dissertation writing practices of two researcher groups with different language backgrounds will expand the awareness of cultural differences in academic writing, which can have implications for the quality and persuasiveness of the texts.

Recommendations for Further Research.

Based on the corpus, results and limitations of this study, several recommendations can be made for further research. First of all, the corpus of the study was limited to 50 dissertations to keep it manageable. Future studies may include a larger corpus to increase the generalizability of the findings.

Secondly, the dissertations in the study were all written with quantitative methodology, which implies that different results could be reached with the inclusion of qualitative studies. Therefore, further research is needed to show the extent to which the results of this study can be generalized into the ELT dissertations with qualitative methodology.

Also, the dissertations were all from a single discipline, ELT. As disciplines may differ in their writing conventions and norms, the analysis models and procedures followed in the present study should be applied to dissertations from other fields. Thus, cross-disciplinary data could be reached.

The study consisted of the ELT dissertations written by Turkish and Anglophone doctoral students. The dissertations of researchers speaking languages other than Turkish and English may have different structural and linguistic characteristics from those analysed in this study. Future studies may focus on the ELT dissertations written by researchers with native languages other than Turkish and English.

The corpus of the study consisted of those dissertations of Turkish researchers from the universities located in Turkey, in other words, those dissertations written in an EFL context.

However, based on studies (e.g., Al-Rubaye, 2015) showing that the use of certain elements in texts may differ in ESL and EFL contexts, it can be argued that in order to reach conclusions about the writing practices of native and non-native researchers, the contexts in which the texts written should also be considered. Then, further research is recommended to replicate the present study with ELT dissertations written in ESL context.

Even with the dissertations written in the EFL context, this study can be replicated. The reason is that, in this study, as in many genre analysis studies, the moves and metadiscourse markers were coded manually, which is partly based on the personal judgments of the coders. Therefore, another study analysing dissertations in EFL context may reach different results from those revealed in this study.

This study found that Yang and Allison's (2003) model was applicable to the final chapters of ELT dissertations, but with a few modifications. Specifically, it identified three steps in Preparatory information move and three new moves used at the end of the chapters/sections and studies. These data need further investigation. Future studies can investigate these steps and moves in dissertations both from ELT and other disciplines.

Above all, the study focused on doctoral dissertations. Although MA theses and PhD dissertations can be considered as the members of the same genre family, theses may differ in their structural and linguistic features than dissertations. Therefore, it seems that whether ELT theses and dissertations have similar characteristics is an issue requiring further research.

Finally, this study only consisted of textual analysis. Interviews with the writers of the dissertations which were analysed in the study may have provided more complete data. Future studies may also include interviews to learn more about the writers' choices of structural and linguistic items in their texts.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1. Consent Mail



Re: Request for Permission

3 Şubat 2019 16:27

Kimden: [Redacted]

Kime: Rabiye Ötügen

Dear Rabiye Otugen,

Thank you for your request. I give you my permission to include my dissertation in your analysis. Yes, my native language is English; however, I am fluent in Thai as well.

All the best,

[Redacted]

> On Feb 1, 2019, at 7:56 AM, Rabiye Ötügen <rabiye.otugen@atauni.edu.tr> wrote:
>

>
> Dear [Redacted],
>

> I am a faculty member and a doctoral student at Atatürk University in Erzurum, Turkey. In my dissertation, I am making a genre analysis consisting of the dissertations within the field of ELT/ELL. Specifically, I am comparing the concluding sections of the dissertations written by native and non-native speakers of English, in terms of the moves and metadiscourse markers employed. In this respect, I would like to make it sure that your native language is English. If it is English, then I kindly request your permission to include your dissertation titled

[Redacted]
[Redacted]
[Redacted]

[Redacted] in my native corpus so that I can analyse it in terms of moves and metadiscourse markers. This study is purely for academic purposes and the information about your identity will be kept confidential. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me at rabiye.otugen@atauni.edu.tr.

>
> Thank you for your consideration of this request.
>

> Sincerely,

>
> Res. Asst. Rabiye ÖTÜGEN
> Atatürk University
> Kazım Karabekir Education Faculty
> English Language Teaching Department
> Erzurum, Turkey
>

APPENDIX 2. Chapter Titles in the Corpus

Dissertation	Year	Chapters		
		Results	Discussion	Conclusion
T1	2011	Results	Conc. & Disc.	
T2	2012	Results	Conc. & Disc.	
T3	2017	Results	Disc. & Conc.	
T4	2013	Results	Discussion	
T5	2010	Results & Disc.		Conclusion
T6	2012	Results	Discussion	
T7	2011	Results	Conc. & Disc.	
T8	2012	Results	Discussion	Conclusion
T9	2018	Findings	Disc. & Conc.	
T10	2012	Findings & Disc.		Conc. & Suggestions
T11	2014	Results		Conc. & Implications
T12	2017	Results	Discussion	Conclusion
T13	2010	Findings	Disc. Conc. & Imp.	
T14	2015	Findings & Results	Disc. & Conc.	
T15	2017	Results	Discussion	
T16	2010	Results & Disc.		Conclusion
T17	2018	Findings	Conc. & Disc.	
T18	2011	Results & Disc.		Conclusion
T19	2010	Findings & Disc.		Conc. & Suggestions
T20	2010	Results & Disc.		Conclusion
T21	2015	Results	Disc. & Conc.	
T22	2016	Results	Discussion	Conclusion
T23	2018	Findings	Disc. & Implications	
T24	2014	Results	Discussion	Conclusion
T25	2015	Results	Discussion	Conclusion
A1	2012	Results & Disc.		Conclusion
A2	2016	Findings		Imp., Recom. & Conc.
A3	2016	Findings	Disc. Conc. & Recom.	
A4	2016	Data Anal. & Results		Summary, Conc. & Recom.
A5	2012	Results		Conclusion
A6	2010	Results	Discussion	
A7	2017	Findings		Conc., Disc. & Recom.
A8	2019	Results	Discussion	
A9	2017	Results	Discussion	
A10	2017	Findings		Imp., Recom. & Conc.
A11	2011	Results		Conc. & Recom.
A12	2012	Results	Findings & Disc.	Conc. & Recom.
A13	2010	Results		Summary, Conc. & Recom.
A14	2011	Results	Discussion	
A15	2017	Findings		Results, Conc. & Recom.
A16	2018	Results	Disc. & Conc.	
A17	2010	Results		Conc. & Recom.
A18	2017	Findings		Conclusion
A19	2010	Results	Discussion	
A20	2015	Results		Conc. & Implications
A21	2015	Results	Discussion	
A22	2009	Results	Discussion	
A23	2011	Data Anal. & Results		Conc. & Recom.
A24	2018	Analysis		Implications
A25	2011	Data Anal. & Findings		Summary, Imp. & Recom.

APPENDIX 3. Overview of the Dissertations

	Corpus	Date	Topic	Final Chapters	Total Number of pages	Word count (Final Chapters)
1	Turkish	2011	Developing reading skills in ELT	R, D	21	4.057
2	Turkish	2012	Learning strategies and EFL instruction	R, D	20	4.992
3	Turkish	2017	Processing instruction in English teaching	R, D	32	7.062
4	Turkish	2013	Teacher stress in relation to environmental factors	R, D	43	8.893
5	Turkish	2010	Teaching of collocations in EFL classes	R, C	28	5.717
6	Turkish	2012	Socialization of English teachers	R, D	35	8.973
7	Turkish	2011	Learner autonomy and English learning	R, D	86	13.613
8	Turkish	2012	English learners' lexical competence and performance	R, D, C	85	23.595
9	Turkish	2018	Effects of cognitive styles on English language learning	R, D	75	19.246
10	Turkish	2012	Syllabus design for preparatory school students	R, C	71	7.558
11	Turkish	2014	Teachers' cognitions and actions regarding EFL	R, C	76	18.481
12	Turkish	2017	Working memory and writing in English	R, D, C	50	12.366
13	Turkish	2010	Reading achievement in English	R, D	71	14.565
14	Turkish	2015	Proficiency level and EFL learner reading behaviour	R, D	49	10.097
15	Turkish	2017	Morphological processing and reading in English	R, D	45	8.604
16	Turkish	2010	Vocabulary acquisition	R, C	59	13.202
17	Turkish	2018	Vocabulary learning in EFL classes	R, D	51	8.269
18	Turkish	2011	Incidental vocabulary learning	R, C	24	6.467
19	Turkish	2010	Reading strategies of EFL students	R, C	48	8.802
20	Turkish	2010	Multiples intelligences and vocabulary learning	R, C	22	5.516
21	Turkish	2015	Text comprehension in L2	R, D	23	4.465
22	Turkish	2016	Processing of compounds in L2	R, D, C	37	8.604
23	Turkish	2018	Reading comprehension of EFL learners	R, D	25	5.973
24	Turkish	2014	Listening comprehension and vocabulary learning in L2	R, D, C	27	5.722
25	Turkish	2015	Reading comprehension in L2	R, D, C	21	4.674

* R= Results, D= Discussion, C= Conclusion

TOTAL = 1.124 239.513

* Representation= Academic writing of Turkish researchers

1	Anglophone	2012	Approaches for ESL grammar instruction	R, C	57	10.368
2	Anglophone	2016	Word-retrieval skills of English language learners	R, C	22	4.541
3	Anglophone	2016	Teacher characteristics and teacher self-efficacy in EFL context	R, D	41	8.962
4	Anglophone	2016	Mobile-assisted language learning	R, C	59	14.530
5	Anglophone	2012	Listening strategies of English language learners	R, C	43	10.797
6	Anglophone	2010	English teaching methods in ESL context	R, D	38	8.973
7	Anglophone	2017	Characteristics of successful English language learners	R, C	25	13.613
8	Anglophone	2019	Teacher self-efficacy and professional development programs	R, D	40	8.044
9	Anglophone	2017	Peer- and self-assessment in English language classes	R, D	29	5.636
10	Anglophone	2017	Methods for teaching reading in English classes	R, C	41	10.155
11	Anglophone	2011	Student self-efficacy in ESP classes	R, C	50	9.715
12	Anglophone	2012	English learning of Hispanic English language learners	R, D, C	44	7.694
13	Anglophone	2010	English language learners with disabilities	R, C	37	8.415
14	Anglophone	2011	Content-based instruction in EFL classes	R, D	39	8.807
15	Anglophone	2017	English teachers' attitudes	R, C	40	6.246
16	Anglophone	2018	ESL teachers' self-efficacy	R, D	21	4.061
17	Anglophone	2010	English teachers' self-efficacy	R, C	29	6.435
18	Anglophone	2017	Game-based vocabulary teaching in English classes	R, C	15	3.195
19	Anglophone	2010	Reading programs for English language learners	R, D	21	2.767
20	Anglophone	2015	Predictors of achievement in English composition classes	R, C	23	4.669
21	Anglophone	2015	Teaching writing in EFL classes	R, D	27	6.849
22	Anglophone	2009	Strategies to teach vocabulary in English language classes	R, D	28	6.170
23	Anglophone	2011	Factors affecting ESL learners' language acquisition	R, C	32	5.597
24	Anglophone	2018	Administrators' knowledge and perceptions of ELL and ELT	R, C	32	5.893
25	Anglophone	2011	Developing English reading skills	R, C	73	13.583

* R= Results, D= Discussion, C= Conclusion

TOTAL = 906 195.715

* Representation= Academic writing of Anglophone researchers

APPENDIX 4. Sample Analysis

MOVE 3-c
Evaluating
Results

→ [Furthermore, it is interesting that no processing differences were found between pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate level English learners.] [This might be due to the fact that the proficiency differences between the groups were not as large as one might think despite the fact that the OQPT is a widely used standardized proficiency test. It might be possible that the limited constructs that are being tested in the OQPT (certain grammatical aspects and reading comprehension) do not reveal the exact general proficiency levels of the participants. Therefore, OQPT -based slight proficiency differences between the groups did not lead to large differences in their processing patterns.] [Future research with two groups of larger proficiency differences (e.g., pre-intermediate and high-advanced) might reveal such effects more clearly.]

MOVE 3-d
Accounting
for Results

MOVE 6-a
Recommending
Further
Research

MOVE 1
Preparatory
(Pointer)

→ [The results obtained from the two masked priming experiments are summarized in the table below.]

APPENDIX 5. Dissertation Analysis Form

DISSERTATION ANALYSIS FORM

RESULTS					
MOVE ANALYSIS					
Chapter Title	Move	f	Step	f	
☐ Results	Preparatory information		Introductory		
☐ Other			Reminder		
			Pointer		
	Background information				
	Reporting results				
	Commenting on results		Interpreting results		
			Comparing results with literature		
			Evaluating results		
			Accounting for results		
	Summarizing results				
	Summarizing the study				
	Evaluating the study		Indicating limitations		
			Evaluating methodology		
			Indicating significance/ advantage		
	Deductions from research		Making suggestions		
			Recommending further res.		
			Drawing pedagogic implications		
	Concluding the chapter				
	Introducing the next chapter				
	Concluding the study				
	Total		Total		

METADISCOURSE ANALYSIS												
Category	Sub-Category	Move (f)										Total
		Preparatory	Background	Reporting	Commenting	Sum. results	Sum. study	Evaluating	Deductions	Conc. chap.	Intro next cha	
Interactive	Transitions											
	Frame markers											
	Endophoric markers											
	Evidentials											
	Code glosses											
	Total											
Interactional	Hedges											
	Boosters											
	Attitude markers											
	Engagement markers											
	Self-mentions											
	Total											
	Total											

DISCUSSION					
MOVE ANALYSIS					
Chapter Title	Move	f	Step	f	
☐ Discussion	Preparatory information		Introductory		
☐ Other			Reminder		
			Pointer		
	Background information				
	Reporting results				
	Commenting on results		Interpreting results		
			Comparing results with literature		
			Evaluating results		
			Accounting for results		
	Summarizing results				
	Summarizing the study				
	Evaluating the study		Indicating limitations		
			Evaluating methodology		
			Indicating significance/ advantage		
	Deductions from research		Making suggestions		
			Recommending further res.		
			Drawing pedagogic implications		
	Concluding the chapter				
	Introducing the next chapter				
	Concluding the study				
	Total		Total		

METADISCOURSE ANALYSIS												
Category	Sub-Category	Move (f)										Total
		Preparatory	Background	Reporting	Commenting	Sum. results	Sum. study	Evaluating	Deductions	Conc. chap.	Intro next cha	
Interactive	Transitions											
	Frame markers											
	Endophoric markers											
	Evidentials											
	Code glosses											
	Total											
Interactional	Hedges											
	Boosters											
	Attitude markers											
	Engagement markers											
	Self-mentions											
	Total											
	Total											

CONCLUSION					
MOVE ANALYSIS					
Chapter Title	Move	f	Step	f	
☐ Conclusion	Preparatory information		Introductory		
☐ Other			Reminder		
			Pointer		
	Background information				
	Reporting results				
	Commenting on results		Interpreting results		
			Comparing results with literature		
			Evaluating results		
			Accounting for results		
	Summarizing results				
	Summarizing the study				
	Evaluating the study		Indicating limitations		
			Evaluating methodology		
			Indicating significance/ advantage		
	Deductions from research		Making suggestions		
			Recommending further res.		
			Drawing pedagogic implications		
	Concluding the chapter				
	Introducing the next chapter				
	Concluding the study				
	Total		Total		

METADISCOURSE ANALYSIS												
Category	Sub-Category	Move (f)										Total
		Preparatory	Background	Reporting	Commenting	Sum. results	Sum. study	Evaluating	Deductions	Conc. chap.	Intro next cha	
Interactive	Transitions											
	Frame markers											
	Endophoric markers											
	Evidentials											
	Code glosses											
	Total											
Interactional	Hedges											
	Boosters											
	Attitude markers											
	Engagement markers											
	Self-mentions											
	Total											
	Total											

APPENDIX 6. Explanation and Examples of Move and Steps (Yang & Allison, 2003)

Preparatory information.

This move functions as a reminder and connector between sections. It provides relevant information as a preparation for the presentation of results.

e.g. The results of this experiment will be presented in both quantitative and qualitative form. We will first examine tables for the four main temporal variables, plus a table which indicates the average length of pause in each text. . .

Background information.

This move is employed by authors to relate their discussion to the study by recapitulating main points such as research questions, aims and purposes, theoretical or methodological information.

e.g. Our aim has been to explore, within the limits of the data available, a relatively complex issue: the accommodation of languages that parents in ethnolinguistic minority groups have to make. . .

Reporting results.

This is the central move in which results of a study are presented, normally with relevant evidence such as statistics and examples.

e.g. The results indicate that if a subject has a high SR in L1, then it is likely that SR will also be high in L2.

Commenting on results.

The main purpose of this move is to establish the meaning and significance of the research results in relation to the relevant field.

Step 1. Interpreting results

e.g. These results suggest, first, that some significant changes take place between time one and time two and, second, that the knowledge which underlies L2 processing is in some way different to the knowledge which underlies the processing of L1.

Step 2. Comparing results with literature

e.g. These findings support the previous survey results of Ostler (1980) and the ethnographic data of Mason (1995).

Step 3. Accounting for results

e.g. Such differences may also be promoted by the educational systems of both cultures, and by. . . This can be a reason why. . .

Step 4. Evaluating results

e.g. Of course, the results are rather speculative and based on a small sample. . .

Summarizing results.

This move presents integrated results on the basis of a number of specific results.

e.g. To sum up, it becomes clear that keeping a heritage language alive across generations is not a simple matter of mothers taking a position on language use and holding it. . . .

Summarizing the study.

This is the move that RA authors use to provide a brief account of the main points from the perspective of the overall study.

e.g. In summary, the research presented in this paper offers a contrastive textlinguistics study of rhetorical differences between texts . . .

Evaluating the study.

This move functions to evaluate the overall study by pointing out the limitations, indicating the contributions or evaluating the methodology.

Step 1. Indicating limitations

e.g. The present study has raised a number of interesting differences, but a larger corpus is needed to establish how far they can be generalized. . .

Step 2. Indicating significance/advantage

e.g. What is new in our study is the links we try to find with school performance, and the within family dynamics of the accommodation process, . . .

Step 3. Evaluating methodology

e.g. She performed extremely well in the experiment (as well as in the Japanese course), but it is questionable whether her experimental data represent the strategy she would employ outside of the laboratory. . .

Deductions from the research.

This is the move where authors extend beyond the results by suggesting what can be done to solve the problems identified by the research, pointing out the line of further study or drawing pedagogic implications.

Step 1. Making suggestions

e.g. Where such complex methods are used it may be better for the writer to provide a full and specific description of . . .

Step 2. Recommending further research

e.g. Further research might be profitably conducted within a single discipline to determine the degree of variability according to subdiscipline, ideology, region of origin and level of prestige.

Step 3. Drawing pedagogic implications

e.g. The findings of this study may have some implications for the teaching of EAP. . .

Dealing with pedagogic issues.

This move is about the applicability or usefulness of a study for language teaching and learning.

Step 1. Indicating necessity for pedagogic change

e.g. The way[s] in which these strategies are used by the lecturer are rarely found in EAP textbooks, and students who rely on such texts are therefore ill-prepared in knowing how to handle such features of a lecture. Some of the inadequacies of the textbooks are inherent to the textbook as a genre. . . How can these problems with EAP listening texts. . . be dealt with? In conclusion, we would make two recommendations for EAP listening instructors.

APPENDIX 7. Explanation and Examples of Metadiscourse Elements (Hyland, 2005)

Transitions.

These devices are mainly conjunctions and adverbial phrases which help readers interpret pragmatic connections between steps in an argument. They signal additive (e.g., and, furthermore, moreover), causative (e.g., therefore, thus, consequently), and contrastive (e.g., similarly, likewise, equally) relationships between stretches of discourse.

e.g. Despite these potential differences in the rates of DNA synthesis within a particular region of DNA, the overall rate of DNA replication is higher in eukaryotes than in prokaryotes. This is because the DNA of eukaryotes has multiple replications compared to the single replicon of the bacterial chromosome. Consequently, ... (p. 107).

e.g. It is hard to discuss 'intelligence' because so-called 'intelligence' tests' measure only certain abilities. Furthermore, the test items as well as ... (p. 167).

Frame markers.

These devices signal text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure. They can be used to sequence parts of the text or to order an argument (e.g., first, then, next), to label text stages (e.g., to summarize, in sum), to announce discourse goals (e.g., I argue here, my purpose is, there are several reasons why) and to indicate topic shifts (well, right, now).

e.g. In this chapter, we introduce the fundamental theorems and operations of Boolean algebra (p. 103).

e.g. The Ascolichens will be briefly considered under three large groups corresponding to the structure of their asci and ascocarps (p. 103).

e.g. This chapter focuses on organizational matters rather than on personal factors that affect strategic decisions (p. 103).

Endophoric markers.

These devices are expressions which refer to other parts of the text (see Figure 2, as noted above).

e.g. This is very much like the example we gave above at the beginning of chapter 1 (p. 104).

e.g. We will see in the next section that failing to capture true higher order effects can lead to problems associated with ... (p. 156).

e.g. See Example 15-3 for a detailed examination of how source-impedance unbalance leads to degradation of the CMRR in differential amplifiers (p. 167).

e.g. Table 10.6 is an approximate summary of what probably occurs during the firing of a whiteware body (p. 167).

Evidentials.

These devices are expressions used to refer to ideas from other sources (e.g., X states that, according to Y). They are used to establish an authorial command of the subject and to distinguish who is responsible for a position.

e.g. ... whereas more recent measurements suggest that movement of the chromosomes is continuous (van Helvoort and Woldringh, 1994) (p. 106).

e.g. Krashen (1982) points out that students' length of residence in the foreign country correlates with cloze test scores (p. 169).

e.g. According to the observations of Harry Gracey, kindergarten can be as demanding as a boot camp in teaching the lessons of regimentation and obedience to authority (p. 169).

Code glosses.

These devices supply additional information by rephrasing, explaining or elaborating what has been said, to ensure the reader is able to recover the writer's intended meaning. They are introduced by phrases such as *this is called*, *in other words*, *for example*.

e.g. Cross-cultural variation is a primary barrier – that is, understanding cognitively and affectively what levels of formality are appropriate or inappropriate (p. 105).

e.g. Saxicolous (growing on rocks) lichens are probably instrumental in initiating soil... (p. 105).

Hedges.

These devices imply that a statement is based on the writer's plausible reasoning rather than certain knowledge (e.g., possible, might, perhaps).

e.g. It therefore seems likely that these genres may contribute to a general chromosome-partitioning mechanism of wide importance (p. 108).

e.g. ... these problems might appear to discredit, to a greater or lesser extent, the industrial state approach as an underarching explanation of state activity in modern Britain (p. 163).

e.g. This probably explains some of the outbreaks of 'red mould disease' in sliced and wrapped bread (p. 163).

Boosters.

These are devices which writers use to express their certainty in what they say (e.g., clearly, obviously, demonstrate).

e.g. It clearly indicates that initial evolution from the universal ancestor was at first in two directions (p. 164).

e.g. It is certainly true that many arguments involve multiple premises (p. 146).

e.g. Figure 7 demonstrates the degree to which heat transfer varies during combustor warm up (p. 147).

e.g. That is, we will prove that a 1-bit or 2-bit change in a code word yields a noncode word (p. 164).

Attitude markers.

These devices are used to convey attitudes such as surprise, agreement, importance, obligation and frustration. They are signalled mostly by attitude verbs (e.g., agree, prefer), sentence adverbs (e.g., unfortunately, hopefully) and adjectives (e.g., appropriate, logical, remarkable).

e.g. My own view is that Krashen's hypotheses do not, on closer inspection, conform to the three linguistic questions (p.111).

e.g. This is an incredibly large figure for such a small economy (p. 164).

e.g. The basis of the enormous productivity and affluence of modern industrial societies is their fantastic store of technological information (p. 164).

e.g. The most surprising fact to emerge was that the searches reported to be successful did not stem from the use of coded information in the ... (p. 150).

Engagement markers.

These are devices that explicitly address readers either to focus their attention or include them as discourse participants. They are signalled by reader participation pronouns (you, your, inclusive we), directives (see, note, consider) and obligation modals (e.g., should, must, have to).

e.g. Now, lets look at the size of stores and how they are owned (p. 110).

e.g. You should be careful when using fictitious forces to describe physical phenomena. Remember that fictitious forces are used only in noninertial frames of reference (p. 165).

e.g. Think about it. What if we eventually learn how to communicate with aliens (p. 154).

e.g. What has to be recognized is that these issues ... (p. 155).

e.g. Where does that leave us? We have yet to develop a fully plausible theory about morality (p. 166).

Self-mentions.

These devices are used to show explicit author presence in the text. They are signalled by first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives (I, me, mine, exclusive we, our, ours).

e.g. We believe that this concept of the 'self' is not entirely appropriate as the basis for Asian communication (p. 164).

e.g. Those interests, I contend, authorize the subjection of individual spontaneity to external control (p. 164).

e.g. I am convinced, for my part, that no ontology – that is to say, no apprehension of ontological mystery in whatever degree – is possible ... (p. 164).

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