

**A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF STANCE
AND MOVES IN THE ABSTRACTS OF
PUBLISHED ARTICLES IN THE FIELD OF ELT**

Fatma KAYA

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Department of Foreign Languages Teaching
Assist.Prof. Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ
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ÖZET BÖLÜMLERİNDEKİ DURUŞ VE AŞAMALARIN
KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMASI

(A Comparative Study of Stance and Moves in the Abstracts of Published
Articles in the Field of ELT)

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Fatma KAYA

Danışman: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ

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Jüri Üyesi :Yrd. Doç. Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ

İmza: 

Jüri Üyesi : Yrd. Doç. Dr. Suna AKALIN

İmza: 

Jüri Üyesi: Yrd. Doç. Dr. Ahmet Selçuk AKDEMİR

İmza: 

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TEZ ETİK VE BİLDİRİM SAYFASI

Yüksek Lisans Tezi olarak sunduğum “İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ALANINDA YAYINLANMIŞ MAKALELERİN ÖZET BÖLÜMLERİNDEKİ DURUŞ VE AŞAMALARIN KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMASI” başlıklı çalışmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlanılan eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden olduğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmış olduğunu belirtir ve onurumla doğrularım.

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ÖZET

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

İNGİLİZ DİLİ EĞİTİMİ ALANINDA YAYINLANMIŞ MAKALELERİN ÖZET BÖLÜMLERİNDEKİ DURUŞ VE AŞAMALARIN KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMASI

Fatma KAYA

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Son yıllarda, özellikle yazma ve yayın yapma olgularının ana dili İngilizce olmayan yazarlar için zorlayıcı birer süreç olduğu düşünülürse, araştırma makalelerin özet bölümlerini inceleyen çalışmalarda bir artış olduğu görülmektedir. Akademik yazma sahasında iyi yapılandırılmış özetlerin hazırlanması problematik bir durumdur. Özet bölümlerinin okuyucu çalışmanın orijinal fikirler ve güçlü bir gerekçe temeline dayanarak okumaya değer olduğu konusunda ikna etmedeki önemli rolü düşünüldüğünde, bu bölüm okuyucunun çalışmaya dair incelediği ilk kısımdır. Fakat, bu bölümleri retorik ve dilbilimsel olarak farklı açılardan ele alan çalışma sayısı yetersiz görünmektedir ve bu çalışmaların büyük bir kısmı ya sadece retorik ya da dilbilimsel unsurları incelemektedir. Türkiye bağlamında, alan yazınında bazı eksikler öne çıkmaktadır. Bu doğrultuda çalışmanın amacı Türk ve Yabancı yazarlar tarafından oluşturulmuş özet bölümlerindeki aşamalar, bu aşamalardaki zaman kullanımı ve yumuşatma ifadelerinin incelenmesi olmak üzere farklı boyutlardan ele almak ve karşılaştırma yapmaktır. Çalışmada hem nicel hem de nitel veriler kullanılmıştır. İlk olarak aşamalar ve bu aşamalardaki zaman kullanımı nitel olarak incelenmiş ve aşamaların belirlenmesinde, Hyland (2000) tarafından oluşturulan 5 aşamalı model kullanılmıştır. Daha sonra uygulama ve teori arasındaki boşluk konusunda detaylı bilgi edinmek amacıyla 12 doktora öğrencisi ile yarı yapılandırılmış mülakatlar yapılmıştır. İkinci aşamada, yumuşatma ifadelerinin kullanımını incelenmiş ve 0-1 ve 2- üzeri olarak iki kategori oluşturulmuştur. Veriler SPSS (22.00) programı ile analiz edilmiş, iki grup arasında istatistiki açıdan bir fark olup olmadığını belirlemek amacıyla Ki-Kare testi uygulanmıştır. Veri analizleri, yabancı yazarların genellikle özetlerini Hyland modeline bağlı kalarak oluşturdukları, Türk yazarların ise bu modele bağlı kalmak yerine, çoğunlukla amaç, metot ve sonuç aşamalarını kullandıklarını göstermiştir. Bu

aşamalarda kullanılan zaman konusunda iki grupda çoğunlukla giriş - amaç ve sonuç bölümleri için geniş zamanı, metot ve bulgu bölümleri için geçmiş zamanı tercih etmiştir. Nicel analiz sonuçları ise yumuşatma ifadelerinin yabancı yazarlar tarafından daha fazla kullanıldığını ortaya çıkarmıştır. Mevcut çalışmanın akademik başarı açısından İngilizce'nin oldukça önemli olduğunu ve Türk yazarların akademik yazım ve araştırma etikleri konusunda lisansüstü düzeyde daha fazla eğitime ihtiyaç duyduklarını önermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Tür, Akademik Yazma, Özet, Aşama Analizi, Zaman Kullanımı, Yumuşatma İfadeleri

ABSTRACT

MASTER THESIS

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF STANCE AND MOVES IN THE ABSTRACTS OF PUBLISHED ARTICLES IN THE FIELD OF ELT

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In the recent years, especially when writing and publishing process has become a more daunting task for Non-native speakers of English, there has been an increasing interest in the studies dealing with abstract sections of research articles. Constructing well-structured abstracts constitutes a problematic area in academic writing field. Given the substantial role abstracts plays in persuading the readers on the point that the study is worth of reading and with original ideas and a strong rationale, abstracts are readers' first encounter with the studies. However, the studies analyzing abstracts from different dimensions including rhetorical and linguistic features seem to be limited. Most of the studies just either focus on genre analysis of abstracts or their linguistic features. When the Turkish context is considered, then a great gap in the literature appears. So, in this study, the purpose is to analyze and compare the abstracts written by Turkish and foreign writers from different dimensions including move structures, tense use in each move and hedging types employed in these abstracts. In the study, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected in two phases. Firstly, move structure and verb tenses used in these moves were analyzed qualitatively. Move structure analysis was conducted employing Hyland's (2000) five- move model. Then, semi-structured interviews were administered to 12 doctoral students in order to get a deeper insight into the gap between theory and practice of scholars and then these interviews were interpreted. In the second stage, in order to analyze hedging using strategies of writers, nine hedge types were found manually in the abstracts. Two different categories including 0-1 and 2-over use of hedges were established. Through SPSS (22.00) the data were analyzed using Chi-Square test to determine whether there is statistically significant differences between Turkish and Foreign writers in terms of frequency of hedging use. The analysis of the data displayed that in terms of move structures, foreign writers generally follow Hyland's model and they use five moves in their

abstracts while Turkish scholars do not follow the model strictly as their most common move structure is purpose-method and product. As for the preferred verb tense, both groups of writers mostly chose to use present tense for introduction, purpose and method move and past tense for method and product moves. Moreover, results of interviews showed that the scholars appear to need more awareness on academic writing beginning with research ethics. The results of quantitative analysis revealed that foreign writers employ hedges more than Turkish writers in their studies. This study suggests that writing in English in academia is pivotal for success and Turkish scholars need more explicit instruction at tertiary level on academic writing and research ethics.

Key Words:Genre, Academic Writing, Abstract, Move Analysis, Tense Use, Hedging

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CONTENTS

KABUL VE ONAY TUTANAĞI	i
TEZ ETİK VE BİLDİRİM SAYFASI.....	ii
ÖZET.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xii
LIST OF FIGURES	xiii
ABBREVIATIONS.....	xiv

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Introduction.....	1
1.2.General Background to the Study	1
1.3.Statement of the Problem.....	2
1.4. Purpose of the Study	5
1.5. Research Questions of the Study	5
1.6. Significance of the Study	6
1.7.Overview of Methodology	6
1.7.1. Data Collection Instrument and Procedure.....	6
1.7.2.Data Analysis.....	7
1.8.Limitations of the Study.....	7
1.9.Definition of Key Terms	8

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	10
2.1. Introduction.....	10
2.2. English for Academic Purposes	10
2.3. Genre.....	15
2.3.1.Genre in Linguistic Traditions.....	20
2.3.1.1. Systemic functional linguistics.....	20
2.3.1.2.English for specific purposes.....	23

2.3.1.2.1. Genre Analysis of Research Article Sections	26
2.4. Research Article Abstracts	30
2.4.1. Types of Abstracts	34
2.4.2. Move Analysis of Research Article Abstracts	36
2.4.2.1. Contrastive rhetoric studies on research article abstracts	39
2.4.2.2. Contrastive studies in turkish	41
2.4.3. Tense Use in Moves of Abstracts	44
2.5. Hedging In Academic Texts	45
2.5.1. Hedging and Second Language Learners	50
2.5.1.1. Hedging in EFL Texts Written by Turkish Scholars	52
2.5.2. Cultural Variations in Hedging Use	55
2.5.3. Hedging Studies on Research Articles	56
2.5.3.1. Hedging studies on research article abstracts	59

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY	60
3.1. Introduction	60
3.2. Research Questions	60
3.3. Research Design	60
3.4. Data Source	61
3.4.1. Corpus	61
3.4.2. Participants	62
3.5. Data Collection Procedure	63
3.6. Data Analysis	64
3.6.1. Analysis of Qualitative Data	64
3.6.2. Analysis of Quantitative Data	66

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	67
4.1. Introduction	67
4.2. Qualitative Analysis	67
4.2.1. Move Structure	67

4.2.1.1. Move Frequency	70
4.2.2. Move Structure of Research Article Abstracts Written by Turkish and Foreign Scholars	72
4.2.2.1. Move 1:Introduction	72
4.2.2.2.Move 2:Purpose	74
4.2.2.3. Move 3:Method	75
4.2.2.4. Move 4:Product	78
4.2.2.5.Move 5:Conclusion.....	79
4.2.3. Analysis of Verb Tenses of Moves.....	81
4.2.4. The Results of Interviews	89
4.2.4.1. The important issues while constructing abstracts	90
4.2.4.2. The Components of the Abstract	92
4.2.4.3. Functions of abstracts	93
4.2.4.4.Taking the readers' attention	95
4.2.4.5. Selling the article	96
4.2.4.6. Using abstract to decide the value of the research article.....	98
4.2.4.7. Frequency of hedging use.....	100
4.2.4.8. Hedging Types.....	102
4.2.4.9. Knowledge on Abstract Writing.....	104
4.2.4.10. Evaluating the value of research article.....	105
4.2.4.11. The source of help in academic writing process.....	108
4.2.4.12.Increasing the Awareness on Academic Writing.....	109
4.3.Quantitative Analysis	112
4.3.1. Adverbs of Fequency	112
4.3.2.Quantifiers	113
4.3.3. Epistemic Modality Verbs	114
4.3.4. Modal Lexical Verbs	115
4.3.5. Adjectives and Adverbs.....	116
4.3.6. Nouns.....	116
4.3.7.Coversational & Informal.....	117
4.3.8. The Use of Total Hedge Number.....	118

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSION.....	122
5.1. Introduction	122
5.2. Summary	122
5.3. Pedagogical Implications	125
5.4. Further Research	126
REFERENCES.....	128
APPENDIX	145
APPENDIX 1. Consent Form.....	145
APPENDIX 2. Demographic Questionnaire	146
APPENDIX 3. Interview Questions	147
APPENDIX 4. Articles Used for the Analysis	148
CURRICULUM VITAE	157

LIST OF TABLES

Table 3.1. Hyland’s (2000a) Classification of Rhetorical Moves in Article Abstracts.	65
Table 4.1. Move Structure of Abstracts Written by Foreign Scholars	68
Table 4.2. Move Structure of Abstracts Written by Turkish Scholars	69
Table 4.3. Frequency of Occurrence of Moves	70
Table 4.4. Tense Use in Introduction Move	81
Table 4.5. Tense Use in Purpose Move	83
Table 4.6. Tense Use in Method Move	85
Table 4.7. Tense Use in Product Move	87
Table 4.8. Tense Use in Conclusion Move	88
Table 4.9. Use of Adverbs of Frequency	112
Table 4.10. Use of Quantifiers	113
Table 4.11. Use of Epistemic Modality Verbs	114
Table 4.12. Use of Modal Lexical Verbs	115
Table 4.13. Use of Adjective – Adverb	116
Table 4.14. Use of Nouns	117
Table 4.15. Use of Conversational & Informal Hedges	118
Table 4.16. Use of Total Hedge Number	118

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1. Swales's CARS Model (Creating a Research Space).....	27
Figure 4.1. Hedges types.....	48

ABBREVIATIONS

CARS	:Creating a Research Space
EAL	: English as an Additional Language
EAP	: English for Academic Purposes
EGP	:English for General Purposes
EMP	: English for Medical Purposes
ELT	: English Language Teaching
ESP	: English for Specific Purposes
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
NS	: Native Speaker
NNS	: Non-Native Speaker
RA	: Research Article
SFL	: Systemic Functional Linguistics
TESOL	: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

CHAPTER ONE

1.INTRODUCTION

1.1.Introduction

In this chapter, firstly, a general background to the research field will be presented. Then, the problem in the literature will be clarified. Following these, the the purpose of the study will be mentioned. After providing the research questions and the significance of the study, the limitations will be explained. The chapter ends with the definition of key terms.

1.2.General Background to the Study

In today world, to participate in academia successfully is a challenging task, mainly in a period where scholars must produce and publish highly qualified academic texts with original ideas. However, scholars are not just expected to produce texts, in these academic texts, they are required to use the language effectively in accordance with the needs and conventions of academia. In order to accomplish this, a considerable number of criteria are established and they should be met by the scholars. Academic writing is pivotal among these criteria and must be separated from informal writing which ignores the rules and conventions of language. This problematic issue imposes greater difficulties on writers if they are non- native speakers (NNSs).

While writing in a second language, the writers' L1 affect the process greatly and if the writer's L2 proficiency is not developed at an advanced level, this effect is inevitable and intervenes L2 writing process negatively.

The necessity of publishing English medium manuscripts for scholars rises around the world bringing the issue of standards established by English in publication process. This demand creates difficulties for writers for whom English is an additonal Language (EAL)(Koyalan and Mumford, 2011). Nevertheless, the writing tendencies and strategies of writers should be taken into consideration because they encounter with

severe problems in writing process and entails intimate concern while making comparison between the two writers groups. The reasons for these difficulties lie in the fact that L2 writers cannot go beyond the limited knowledge they acquire during their second language education. For example, Hinkel (2003) as a result of quantitative analysis of a large scale study, found that L2 writers construct unsophisticated structures in terms of syntax and lexicon. Moreover, what constitutes immediate concern at the beginning of all these problems is writers' being unaware of these rules and most importantly the research ethics which should be acquired at the base of being an academician.

Given the place of English as the prominent language used in science and academia, publishing English medium research articles is the key factor of surviving in professional life. There has been an increasing need to publish in English, the reality is that a considerable deal of scholars are not native speakers of English; therefore, it is not amazing for most of them that their written English is not equal to what their native counterparts may produce. Given this fact, they encounter with considerable challenges in writing academic texts which can be accepted by international journals, editors and reviewers (Flowerdew, 2008).

Ammon (2001b, p.vii cited in Flowerdew, 2008) compares these two writers group as follows:

It seems almost self-evident that the native speakers of the prevalent scientific language have less difficulty using it passively (in reading, oral understanding) and actively (in writing or speaking) than do non-native or foreign-language speakers and, therefore, have advantages over the latter in communicative situations which require the use of English. It is easier for them to produce utterances and text in line with existing, native-speaker norms. Higher investment in language learning and additional costs of producing linguistically adequate texts are additional problems with which the non-native speakers have to struggle (p.78).

1.3.Statement of the Problem

Scholarly writing is a challenging point that defines the quality of writing and research. Therefore, while writing research articles, it has been a major concern to

effectively construct each section of the article. Abstract is one of these sections and is of considerable importance being among the key factors that persuade the researchers to read the whole article. Writing an abstract seems to be an easy task for researchers; however, as for each section of a research article, there are also conventions and rules of academic writing which are needed to be applied for abstract sections of research articles to increase the quality of scholarly writing rather than just summarizing the research article. In today world, publishing highly qualified research articles is a must for scholars and entails the appropriate applications of academic conventions. Writing is among one of these conventions as it is at the core of an academic's professional life (Yağız and Yiğiter, 2012); however, as a significant task, writing imposes great problems on inexperienced writers and this problematic issue becomes more challenging when students write in English as a foreign language because it is a must for them to adapt themselves to a different academic discourse and they are required to achieve it in the target language, the rhetorical conventions of which are rather different from their mother language (Ren and Li, 2011). Moreover, evidence showed that L2 writings are less qualified and effective when compared to L1 writing and L1 writing varies considerably from L2 writing in terms of rhetorical and linguistic features (Silva, 1993). For example, Hinkel (2004b) underlines that great differences appear between NNSs' (Non- Native Speakers) and NSs (Native Speakers) in terms of tense usage and voice. Though all of the aforementioned daunting problems, scholarly publishing is of paramount significance for non-native English speakers (Li, 2007). Like many other matters, this process has attracted much attention in the literature. Many studies shed light on and investigated the difficulties encountered during this publication process (e.g. Flowerdew, 1999; Curry & Lillis, 2004; Lillis & Curry, 2006; Cargill & O'Connor 2006; Li & Flowerdew, 2007; Cho, 2009; Koyalan & Mumford, 2011). Murray (2005) ranges a number of reasons for publishing:

- career progression – moving up to the next rung on the ladder
- gaining recognition for work you have done
- stopping someone else taking credit for your work or using your materials
- personal satisfaction of completing a new goal
- setting yourself a new challenge
- helping your students to gain recognition for their work

- learning how to write to a higher standard
- contributing to knowledge
- building your institution's status
- developing a profile (p.14)

Over the last two decades, most of the attention on language learning and teaching has focused on the notion of genre (Hyland, 2004). The research article is the leading genre of the academy (Çandarlı, 2012) and “the marketing of a RA begins with the abstract where writers have to gain readers’ attention and persuade them to read on by demonstrating that they have both something new and worthwhile to say” (Hyland, 2009, p.70). The abstract has increasingly become an essential part of the research article. As “it captures the essence of the whole article, the abstract tends to be the first part of a journal article to be read” (Hartley, 2003; Salager-Meyer, 1990 cited in Pho, 2008, p.231).

For a long time it has been supposed that writing an abstract was a quite simple activity for non-native speakers when it was compared with the daunting problem of writing the article (Lores, 2004). The research article abstracts search for a ‘research niche’ displaying that there is a gap of knowledge on the previous literature (Çandarlı, 2012); therefore, the abstracts that are parts of research articles and dissertations are prominent figures in academic research (Al-Ali and Shawneh, 2011) as “they constitute the gateway that lead readers to take up an article” (Lores, 2004, p. 281) that is they “sell the articles” (Pho, 2008, p.231).

In accordance with the importance of abstract writing for academic text, there has been a growing body of research devoted to studies on abstracts from rhetorical organization to authors’ stance and comparison of abstracts with the introduction sections of articles to find the similarities (e.g. Salager-Myer, 1994; Bhatia, 1993; Bonn and Swales, 2007; Jie, 2010; Samraj, 2005; Hu & Cao, 2011; San & Tan, 2012; Zand-Vakili & Kashani, 2012; Kafes, 2012; Çandarlı, 2012; Menesez, 2013). Most of these studies are comparative ones which yield significant insights for researchers mainly indicating the problematic area of academic writing for non-native students and scholars.

After conducting a detailed literature review, it was concluded that there still seem problems and incomplete issues on abstract writing which are mainly related to non- native Turkish scholars. Most of the contrastive studies published by Turkish scholars either examine the academic writing problems as a whole experienced by Turkish students (e.g. Yağız, 2009; Akcaoğlu, 2011; Yazıcı, 2013) or deal with specific sections of articles, thesis or dissertations mainly introduction and discussion parts (e.g. Toprak, 2011; Geçikli, 2012). “A great deal of rhetorical effort goes on in the introduction of an article where writers seek to create a research space to justify the importance of their work” (Hyland, 2009, p. 71); however, the issue of abstract writing is assumed as having no conventions or rules peculiar to this genre.

Concisely, it has been assumed among scholars that what is important is to construct the article without taking abstract writing into consideration. However, the language and structures of the abstracts analyzed display that most of them are not at the acceptable levels.

1.4. Purpose of the Study

The essential aim of the present study is to explore the rhetorical structure and linguistic properties found in abstracts of published articles including tense use, hedging and move structure which are used to construct abstracts. This study can deepen our understanding of how constructing abstracts and can increase our awareness about the conventions of effective abstract writing. The current study may demonstrate the different tendencies in terms of the conventions and rules of academic writing that Turkish writers and foreign writers employ while structuring the abstracts sections of their research articles.

1.5. Research Questions of the Study

The main aim of the current study is to answer of following questions.

1. What are the writing tendencies of abstracts of the published articles in ELT ?
2. What are the major moves in target texts?
3. Are there any variations in the use of tense, hedging and moves in abstracts of published articles written by foreign and Turkish writers in ELT journals?

4. Does the corpus comprised of RAs abstracts of foreign and Turkish writers in ELT reveal any variations in the total number of hedging use?

1.6. Significance of the Study

There are significant facts behind the impetus that led the researcher to produce this study. Firstly, though, there appear a considerable number of studies devoted to the analysis of various academic genres, to the best knowledge of the researcher, there seems to be no study that analyze abstracts and abstract writing from a comprehensive academic perspective, mainly in Turkish context focusing on rhetorical and linguistic features investigating the way the writers establish their stance in abstract sections. Second reason for the necessity of the current study lies in the fact that, in Turkish context, there seems a great gap in terms abstract writing which is assumed to be a relatively easy task among scholars. This study can demonstrate that abstracts are not just summaries of research articles; however, they capture the essence of the articles and constitute a highly complex structure which researchers need to be aware of to construct more effective and sophisticated RA abstracts. This study is expected to provide a deeper insight into the researchers' perception on abstract writing. The result obtained from this study may be of great value indicating the structures and stance used in abstracts. Another impetus behind the study is creating or at least increasing the awareness of academic writing among scholars. Finally, the study will help novice scholars to employ the most appropriate rhetorical and linguistic features for their studies to be more qualified and successful which will make it easier for them to produce and publish successful academic manuscripts.

1.7.Overview of Methodology

1.7.1.Data Collection Instrument and Procedure

This study is based on a mixed method research design. It is accepted that using both qualitative and quantitative data would bring more comprehensive understanding for the research problem. 100 research article abstracts written by Turkish and foreign writers published in various journals were selected. From these abstracts, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected. In order to analyze move structure

Hyland's (2000) five move model was used. Then, tense use in each move was analyzed based on mainly three tenses including present simple, present perfect and past simple.

Another point was hedging use in these abstracts. Crompton's (1997) suggestion including nine hedge types was employed to define hedges. In addition to this, interviews were conducted with 12 participants.

1.7.2.Data Analysis

Data analysis was carried out in two steps. Move structure, tense use and interviews were analyzed qualitatively. Quantitative data were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences Programme (22.00) and in order to find the statistical difference Chi-Square test was applied.

1.8.Limitations of the Study

It is of importance that move analysis, tense use and writers' stance which were analyzed in the present study comprises of a corpus of 100 research articles published in the field of ELT. In order to remove the effect of disciplinary variations on the results, only articles from ELT were chosen and analyzed excluding other disciplines or sub disciplines. Therefore, findings in this current study may not be generalized to different disciplines.

The study also just investigated the empirical abstracts due to the structural and linguistic differences between empirical and theoretical abstracts. Taking this point into consideration, we need to add that what is valid for an empirical abstract may not be appropriate for a theoretical one. In addition to that the interviews in the current study was conducted with doctoral students based on the assumption that the required data can be best obtained from doctoral students thus results can be mostly generalized only for novice scholars.

1.9. Definition of Key Terms

Academic Writing

Academic writing is that set of conventions we see in a thesis or a published paper in our disciplines, a definition that becomes more precise once you scrutinize examples of published writing in your target journals (Murray, 2005, p. 10). Academic writing differs from free writing with its construction and language peculiar to it. Academic writing in this study refers to a particular genre of writing having certain requirements and conventions that members of a community in a scientific field have to meet to communicate through some ways such as writing research proposals, research articles and theses/dissertations. This type of writing is also called disciplinary writing (Yağız, 2009, p. 6).

English for Specific Purposes

ESP may be defined as an approach the main distinguishing property of which is the point that it takes learners' needs into consideration. Moreover, it should be considered as an approach not a product (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987).

English for Academic Purposes

EAP is usually defined as teaching English with the aim of assisting learners' study or research in that language (e.g. Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001:8; Jordan, 1997:1 cited in Hyland, 2006, p. 1).

Genre

In general, genre is defined as a particular type or style of literature, art film or music that you can recognize because of its special features (Oxford Advanced Learner Dictionary, 2010) Its origin goes back to Latin word *genus* which means *kinds or class of things* (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010, p.4).

Move

A move is a unit which is related both to the purpose writers have and to the content they wish to communicate (Hall & Hewings, 2001, p. 72). Moreover, Yağız (2009, p.10) purports that “moves in genre analysis change according to their functions or the purposes for which they are used in the discourse and are commonly found in the

introductory parts of journal articles that have experimental phases’’. In this study, the researcher focuses on the analysis of moves in abstract sections of research articles.

Move Analysis

Move analysis is a study to define a genre and identification of the peculiarities of a particular genre and compare the texts of the same genre but from different disciplines (Hall & Hewings, 2001, p.73).

Research Article

A research article is a published article that reports the results obtained from the methodology employed in a particular study and disseminates the knowledge gained from the study (Frey, Botan, & Kreps, 2000 cited in Yağız, 2009, p.9).

Research Article Abstract

A research article abstract is defined as a short and overall summary of the whole article which gives the readers the chance of surveying the context of the article with a quick look (APA, 2010).

Hedging

“Hedging” refers to any linguistic means used to indicate either a) a lack of complete commitment to the truth value of an accompanying proposition, or b) a desire not to express that commitment categorically (Hyland, 1998, p. 1).

CHAPTER TWO

2.LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This chapter provides a review of relevant literature. Firstly, English for Academic Purposes is mentioned beginning with its history. Secondly, genre and approaches to genre analysis including Systemic Functional Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes are explained. Thirdly, the main component of the study, abstract, is presented in details from its rhetorical organization to linguistic features. Finally, the hedging phenomenon, one of the metadiscursive features, is explained in detailed way.

2.2.English for Academic Purposes

As a field, English for Academic Purposes has increasingly developed during the past 25 years becoming a significant issue in English language teaching and research (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). Over the past twenty years or so English for Academic Purposes (EAP) has increasingly developed. In 1980s, it began as a subfield of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Today, it constitutes a significant point for ELT and research world. Hyland (2006) mentions it a comprehensive phenomenon encapsulating a considerable number of academic practices.

- Pre-tertiary, undergraduate and postgraduate teaching (from the designs of materials to lectures and classroom tasks).

- Classroom interactions (from teacher feedback to tutorials and seminar discussions).

- Research genres (from journal articles to conference papers and grant proposals).

- Student writing (from essays to exam papers and graduate theses).

- Administrative practice (from course documents to doctoral oral defences) (p.1)

English for Academic Purposes is generally defined quite simply as teaching English with the aim of facilitating learners' study or research in that language (Flowerdew & Peacock, 2001: p. 8; Jordan, 1997: p. 1 cited in Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002, p.2). It appeared from the broader field of ESP referring to the communicative needs and practices of specific groups within the scope of academic contexts (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002) as being one of two main branches of ESP (Jordan, 2002). Under the scope of ESP there are other classifications and titles. Tree of ELT developed by Hutchinson and Waters can make the clarification to show the general scope of ESP (1987, p. 6). It is also added that, though, EOP (English for Occupational Purposes) and EAP are given under different titles, they are not absolutely two different points (Javid, 2013).

EAP is frequently associated with tertiary level education. In general, EAP programs are based on the reason for providing help for students in terms of academic and linguistic aspects in order to support L2 learners who are from different backgrounds and are required to adopt themselves to the expectance and requirements established by English medium universities (Fox et al., 2006). According to Todd (2003) the basic goal of EAP in terms of students is efficient communication in academic fields. Coffey (1984, cited in Sager, 1998) describes EAP as a student's need for "quick and economical use of the English language to pursue a course of academic study" (p. 4). EAP is usually defined as teaching English with the aim of assisting learners' study or research in that language (e.g. Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001:8; Jordan, 1997: cited in Hyland, 2006, p. 1). In parallel with these aims recognized by the researchers, the main purpose of EAP is to make it possible for non-native speakers of English to successfully participate in academia that requires the use of English. In addition to this, James (2014) makes it clear that the success of this participation depends on learning transfer that is learning transfer is recognized as a necessity for EAP instructions to be accepted to achieve the aims of instructions.

It is also crucial to be aware of the disciplinary variations, the point that universal academic convention are not possible (Hyland, 2006). Developments and deeper perspectives on the contexts of English Language and teaching and research are the reasons for the idea that "the concept of a single, monolithic 'academic English' has been seriously undermined and disciplinary variations are acknowledged (Hyland

2000 cited in Hyland 2006, p. 4). With the rise of interdisciplinary programs, how the disciplinary cultures affect the various components of academic discourse has begun to constitute the main point of EAP (Hyland, 2006). Moreover, the use of English as the lingua franca of academic contexts also makes it a must for students to acquire the conventions and rules of academic discourse since Hyland (2006) acknowledges that an increasing number of students in higher education do not have a background knowledge in terms of academic communication skills.

Concisely, the changing academic context plays an important role for the development of EAP. Especially, the heterogeneous student groups require the teaching of academic language which differs from the native languages of students. EAP is recognized as the consequence of these changes which goes parallel with the increases in both students studying English and the number of EAP courses and teachers. To achieve these aims, EAP proposes ‘ a systematic and solution – oriented approach ‘ indicating the difficulties and problems academic environment imposes on students concentrating on what students demand and the abilities peculiar to a particular discipline. Hyland (2006) supports these ideas giving the differences between those who are learning English for academic studies and those who are learning English for other aims and various factors appear when the reasons and decisions for students’ interest in English learning analyzed, diverse points become effective for students to enroll in EGP(English for General Purposes) courses requiring needs, short-term and long-term goals while the focus of ESP and EAP are more job oriented (Liu et al., 2011).

According to Todd (2003) “the main goal of EAP is for students to communicate effectively in academic environments” (p.149). He explains that being aware of the communicative demands necessary for these environments is the main point to achieve this purpose. However, he mentions the lack of attention given to the methodology aspect of EAP emphasizing the necessity of considering the ‘ teaching process’ at least as well as ‘the content’ required to be taught (Todd, 2003).

Given the importance and necessity of EAP for students, it has been increasingly noticed that if children learn academic skills and language besides language required for social communication then it will be easier for them both for more

effective learning and integrating these skills within the context of educational system (Hyland, 2001 ; Hyland & Hyland- Hamp-Lyons, 2002).

While defining the content of the EAP / ESP courses, taking the students' needs into consideration may bring new and deeper insights to develop more effective and comprehensive scopes to achieve the desired goals. In their large scale studies, Liu et al. (2011) investigated the students' needs in order to identify necessities, wants, and lack of language teaching based on the data obtained from nearly a thousand of non-native EFL students, the results of the study revealed inconsistencies between students' perceptions about their needs and what courses they are taking actually. Furthermore, these inconsistencies are more dominant in EGP than in ESP/EAP. The results also indicated that writing was recognized as the most problematic and inadequate skill in ESP/EAP courses.

In another study conducted by Evans and Green (2007) based on large- scale investigation conducted with 5000 undergraduate students from 26 different departments in the Hong Kong's largest English- medium university also searched the language related problems of students. The results gathered from the study propose that the subjects participated in the study deal with problems mostly associated with the language rather than the challenges academic texts impose on students. Academic writing which prominently includes grammar, style and cohesion, vocabulary and speaking skills, constitutes the main problematic areas for students taking EAP courses. It seems to be proper to conclude that productive skills underline the essential challenges that students encounter during the process of EAP courses.

The literature on the development process of EAP shows that it is an ongoing procedure that has taken its shape as being parallel with changing and increasing needs within the use of English in academia. What makes this process active is the needs of students especially NNSs students of English. For example, Birmingham University is recognized as the first university which seriously dealt with the needs of NNSs. The university appointed Vera Adamson as responsible of this duty. The scope of this duty included recognizing the problems students experienced and improving courses and teaching materials (Jordan, 2002).

Within the scope of EAP, need analysis constitutes the core element of studies conducted beginning from the past to today's research world; therefore, evaluating EAP as a whole beginning with past studies and issues can yield extremely important results in terms of defining meaningful rationales for today's EAP content.

As Hamp-Lyons (2000) has said, "Needs analysis is fundamental to an EAP approach to course design and teaching". There are various ways of collecting the necessary data for analyzing students' needs: these include language tests, questionnaire surveys, monitoring in class, self-assessment and interviews (Jordan, 1997; West, 1994 cited in Jordan, 2002, p. 74).

Today, the scope of EAP is enlarged and developed. As Hyland & Hamp-Lyons (2002) mentions ;

The modern-day field of EAP addresses the teaching of English in the academy at all age and proficiency levels, and it draws on a range of interdisciplinary influences for its research methods, theories and practices. It seeks to provide insights into the structures and meanings of academic texts, into the demands placed by academic contexts on communicative behaviors, and into the pedagogic practices by which these behaviors can be developed(p.3).

In fact there seem to be studies that evaluate the degree to which EAP courses become beneficial for students mainly for NNSs. For example, in the study carried out with 33 participants from two large state universities in 1994 Leki and Carson (1994) concluded that 48% of participants found EAP courses providing benefits for their writing skills and the results of the study also asserted that students expressed their needs for more language skills

In another study Storch and Tapper (2009) aimed to evaluate the effect of EAP course on academic writing called Presenting Academic Discourse (PAD) taken by international students. The major objective of the course is to concentrate on sophisticated language use and academic skills students need to acquire for their postgraduate studies. The data was gathered using the written texts obtained in class during week 1 and week 10 analyzing the written texts in terms of language use, structures of texts and rhetorical quality. The result of this analysis of text structure and

rhetorical quality proposes that the course has a positive effect on students' writing especially for structure while the consequences of quantitative data present varied results. The researchers attribute the development of structure and use of academic vocabulary partially to the students' engagement in academic texts during their studies. Thus, it is appropriate to acknowledge that EAP courses affect the students' writing skills positively and it is feasible to measure this effect quantitatively. This study is explicit enough to give a historical perspective on the development of EAP during the past decades including the content, scope and every detail related to EAP context.

2.3. Genre

The studies carried out in the last years have enlarged the ideas and perceptions about genre by changing and developing its scope and context, especially emphasizing the significance of dealing with genres as a whole rather than just from simple point of textual organization. There appear various definitions and explanations for the term genre with some common and distinctive features. In fact, it is not a new established term with a short history; nevertheless, it goes back to the study of literature and rhetoric and today its highly enlarged scope involves the study of films, music and daily forms of speaking and writing (Imtihani, 2010). Categorizing genres just as text types suggests a comprehensive understanding for genre as a connector between texts and social interaction. Researchers and teachers working across borders (North America, Australia, Brazil, France and Switzerland), across disciplines (applied linguistics, TESOL, rhetoric, composition studies, technical communication critical discourse analysis, sociology, education, literary theory), and across grade levels and contexts (primary, secondary, post-secondary as well as professional and public writing) have explored the analytical and pedagogical implications of genre in ways that reveal genres as significant variables in literacy acquisition (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010, p.3). Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) note that these competing views of genre are reflected in the etymology of the word *genre*, which is borrowed from French (p.4). On the one hand, *genre* can be traced, through its related Word *gender*, to the Latin word *genus*, which refers to "kind" or "a class of things". Moreover, *genre*, again through its related word *gender*, can be traced to the Latin cognate *gener*, meaning to generate. (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010, p.4). According to Flowerdew (2011), the term 'genre' can be traced

as far back as Aristotle; it means ‘kind’ or ‘form’ and was used by the Greek philosopher in his *Poetics* to refer to major types of literature; poetry, drama and the epic (p.516)

“Genres are staged, structured, communicative events, motivated by various communicative purposes, and performed by members of specific discourse communities” (Swales 1990; Bhatia 1993, 2004; Berkenkotter & Huckin 1995 cited in Flowerdew, 2011, p.516) and ‘structured as it is because it serves certain important social goals as it unfolds’ (Christie,1999, p.761). With a different perspective Martin (1985) also asserts that ‘genres are how things get done, when language is used to accomplish them’ (p. 250, cited in Askehave & Swales, 2001 p. 195).

Genre can be perceived as a form of information about culture which provides a framework for us to comprehend and behave in diverse conditions and actually, genre has been widely used as a tool of categorization device used to distinguish and arrange types of texts and some kinds of cultural objects (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010) that is it can be recognized as a ‘classification system’ (Geçikli, 2012, p.27). But more recently and, again, across various areas of study, genre has come to be defined less as a means of organizing kinds of texts and more as a powerful, ideologically active, and historically changing shaper of texts, meanings, and social actions (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010, p. 4).What makes genre such an important concept in fact can be understood from the statement that genre is a useful concept to begin to understand the specialized communicative needs that go beyond the traditional bounds of literacy education (Bazerman, Bonnini, and Figueiredo 2009, p.x)

Writing is accepted as a device to successfully participate in academia and professional settings and environments; thus, genre as discussed by researchers can help students preparing them for the tertiary level education. At this information age, it is a need and actually, most of the time, a must to be aware of norms and rules of writing. Students’ awareness of genre and other skills associated with their needs to successfully engage in tertiary level education must be raised. Bazerman, Bonnini, and Figueiredo (2009) give a clear and comprehensive note on this issue.

A world tied together by communication and knowledge, enacting increasingly complex cooperations on many levels, puts an increasing

demand on the genres that share our meanings and knowledge, that coordinate our actions, and that hold our institutions together. A world being transformed by new Technologies and media as well as new social and economic arrangements creates the need for rapid and deep transformation of genres. In a world where pressing problems require increasing levels of coordination and mutual understanding, forging effective genres is a matter of global well-being. In a world where increasingly high degrees of literate participation are needed by citizens of all nations, advancing the communicative competence of all, making available the genres of power and cooperation, is a matter of social capacity and social justice. (p. xiv)

Swales (1990) describes a number of features of genres:

- A genre is a class of communicative events.
- The principal criterial feature that turns a collection of communicative events into a genre is some shared set of communicative purposes.
- Exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypically.
- The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, position and form.
- A discourse community's nomenclature for genre is an important source of insight (pp. 45-57).

Since the beginnings of 1980s, communicative purpose has been recognized as the primary phenomenon in deciding whether a specific genre encloses a particular discourse. The sharp rise in the number of studies conducted in genre field has led the genre theory and communicative purpose become more complex (Askehave& Swales, 2001). The perception of communicative purpose as the prominent concept of genre analysis is accepted a main criterion in literature (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Bruce 2008; Askehave& Swales, 2001). Swales (1990) gives one of the most influential discussion of the issue:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community and

thereby constitute the rationale for genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style.

Communicative purpose is both privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action..... The genre names inherited and produced by discourse communities and imported by others constitute valuable ethnographic communication, but typically need further validation (Swales 1990: 58 cited in Askehave & Swales, 2001, p. 197).

Referring to Swales' above mentioned definition, Askehave and Swales (2001) offer that what constitutes the genre is communicative purpose emphasizing that this function enables an inner form for the genre. However, Swales (1990) a pioneering researcher with his studies on genre analysis admitted that his emphasis on 'communicative *purpose*' as a main characteristics of genre does not involve the all points. Therefore, he proposes the term 'metaphorical endeavor' (2004:61, cited in Hyland, 2006, p. 49) .

While defining the term 'genre', its scope and content, it seems as a must also to define and know the discourse communities within which genre can exist. Firstly, these discourse communities share certain characteristics as Swales (1990) proposes:

- A discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals.
- A discourse community has mechanisms for communication among its members.
- A discourse community uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback.
- A discourse community utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims.
- In addition to owning genres, a discourse community has acquired some specific lexis.
- A discourse community has a threshold level of members with [the knowledge of] a suitable degree of relevant content and discursal expertise. (1988, pp. 212-13; 1990, pp. 24-7 cited in Bruce 2008, p. 30)

Moreover, it is possible to concisely claim that what compose discourse communities are genres (Devitt et al., 2003). Swales also presents the close relations between communities and their genres:

Discourse communities evolve their own conventions and traditions for such diverse verbal activities as running meetings, producing reports, and publicizing their activities. These recurrent classes of communicative events are the genres that orchestrate verbal life. These genres link the past and the present, and so balance forces for tradition and innovation. They structure the roles of individuals within wider frameworks, and further assist those individuals with the experience of their communicative plans and purposes. (Swales, 1998: 20 cited in Hyland, 2006, p. 50)

Taking the above mentioned paragraph one step further Oliver (1999) argues that working with the concept of genre is thus not simply a matter of form; rather it requires an engagement with discourse communities and an “acculturation into conventions, and (crucially) negotiations with them and transformations of them in practice” (Oliver 6 cited in Clark , 1999, p. 14). The rationale for the existence of genres starts within the boundaries of genres changing, differing, verifying in the cultures they are formed and used in. It is a kind of glue connecting each of the elements found in the discourse community. “Discourse community is a concept central to genre views of writing as it is a powerful metaphor joining writers, texts and readers in a particular discursive space” (Porter, 1992; Swales, 19990, 1998 cited in Hyland, 2003, p.23).

Finally, we can conclude that genres are recognized beneficial in terms of a number of reasons:

1. They offer a principled way to identify and focus upon different types of English texts, providing a framework in which to learn features of grammar and discourse.
2. They offer students a sense of the generic models that are regularly revisited in an English-speaking culture, illuminating ways in which they are adapted or accommodated in long bodies of text in which several distinct genres may be found.
3. They offer the capacity for initiating students into ways of making meaning that are valued in English-speaking communities.

4. Because they permit all these things, they also form a potential basis for reflecting on and critiquing the ways in which knowledge and information are organized and constructed in the English language (Christie, 1999, p. 762).

2.3.1.Genre in Linguistic Traditions

Three approaches are available in conducting genre studies including; Systemic Functional Linguistics, Corpus Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes. It is highly possible that the most common and familiar of these three approaches are Systemic Functional Linguistics and English for Specific Purposes. Especially a considerable number of study is devoted for ESP studies by researchers who are prominent figures in their fields.

2.3.1.1.Systemic functional linguistics

Australian Genre Theories based on Systemic Functional Linguistics were enhanced by Michael Halliday , a scholar, who was born in Britain and became popular in Australia. Nevertheless, its history goes back a bit earlier. Systemic Functional Approach is based originally on sophisticated conventions belonging to European Linguistics and it evolved as a consequence of Saussure's work stemming from J.R. Firth's work. Then, after that source point, M.A.K Halliday improved the approach, and today it has evolved as a theory of language that takes the notion of function as the basis (Wu, 2000).

During the past twenty- five years, Systemic Functional approaches have considerably developed the understanding and application of genres in the analysis of texts and language teaching (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010).Contemporary genre theory within the Australian context draws upon systemic functional (SF) linguistic theory, especially as developed by Halliday (1994), Hasan (1996), Martin (1992), and Matthiessen (1995) as well as many educational linguists (Christie, 1999, p.759).

Christie (1999) clarifies that “language is said to be systemic in that it offers systems of choices in language, each significant for the realization of meaning and language is said to be functional because its organisation quite fundamentally reveals the purposes for which any natural language came into being”(Christie, 1999, p. 759).

This approach has emerged and evolved in parallel periods with ESP and New Rhetoric; nevertheless, it has continued to develop distinctly from them (Hyon, 1996). The crucial point that triggered the beginning of the approach lies in the fact of integrating the language form within the environment it exists in and the function that is performed by it as the social actions (Geçikli, 2012). In the genre section of literature, a number of different but fundamentally related and complementary definitions are given for establishing a definition and framework for the term ‘genre’; thus, it seems necessary to reestablish the definition of genre within the context of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL).

However, what is the point that separates SFL from other approaches especially from the traditional ones, what is the new perspective and rationale that makes it noteworthy to speak of and analyze and what is the point at which it contributes to the language teaching and research are the questions entailed to be answered to evaluate the impetus behind SFL.

Firstly, the main focus of SFL is on Semantics instead of Syntax; function is of significance, and thus, it deals with texts not sentences (Wu, 2000). SFL considers genre a ‘social semiotic’ which constitutes the cornerstone of the approach (Imtihani, 2010, p. 87; Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010, p.30). In SFL, ‘a staged, goal oriented purposeful activity’ statement is used to define genre (Imtihani, 2010, p.90). To open the meaning of this statement, Imtihani adds that this description refers to the effect of culture on language since what genres narrate are purposes that are related and peculiar to culture. From this point of view, the mutual link between culture and genre is of certain significance. Individuals from the same discourse community do not experience great problems in reading, writing and understanding the texts; therefore, we need to deal with the culture phenomenon while explaining the SFL approach.

In SFL, the genre analysis of texts include three components; ‘situational context’ (field, tenor, mode), ‘schematic structure’ and ‘the realization patterns’ (Imtihani, 2010, p.92). Halliday explains that contexts of situation are not isolated and unique, but often reoccur as “situation types,” a set of typified semiotic and semantic relations that make up “a scenario . . . of persons and actions and events from which the things which are said derive their meaning” (28-30). Moreover, Halliday refers to

“clustering of semantic features according to situation types” as *register* (68) (cited in Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010, p.30). A register is ‘the semantic variety of which a text may be regarded as an instance ... [and which] can be defined as the configuration of semantic resources that the member of a culture typically associates with a situation type’ (1978, pp. 110-11 cited in Bruce, 2008, p. 16) and they have been variously identified, often on the basis of a specific configuration of three contextual factors : field of discourse, mode of discourse and tenor of discourse (Halliday et al. 1964 cited in Bhatia, 2004, p. 30). We need to enlarge the point of situational context including field, tenor and mode. By linking a situation type with particular semantic and lexicogrammatic patterns, register describes what actually takes place (the “field”), how participants relate to one another (the “tenor”), and what role language is playing (the “mode”) (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010, p.30).

Given the above knowledge on SFL, it can be asserted that SFL can be recognized as a ‘social action theory ‘ that is, its purpose is to search the position of language on the affairs (Christie,1999). What distinguishes SFL from English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is this purpose and its approach to genre which recognizes the genre as the result of a socially framed process (Bruce, 2008). The second aspect separating SFL from other approaches to genre is the group of students for whom it was developed and has been used for three decades. Whereas, ESP approach is most suited for non-native students at tertiary level, the target group which SFL appeals, differs greatly. The applications have focused on especially child and adolescent aspects including ideological features (Hyon, 1996) and it is considered a theory of social action (Christie, 1999). Within the Australian context, particularly child and adolescent issues constitute the focus of SFL as well as the relatively new added immigrant adult context; therefore, the key point distinguishing Australian genre scholars is that their concentration is not on tertiary and advanced level. They pay attention for the primary and secondary education (Callaghan, Knapp, & Noble, 1993; Christie, 1991; Hammond, 1987; Joyce, 1992; Martin, 1989 cited in Hyon 1996, p. 697). The factors effective in the selection of target group range widely from ideological reasons to some other factors related to the situations. For example, Malakul and Bowering (2006) in their studies in order to evaluate the effectiveness of the approaches employed in academic writing courses chose SLF because of its appropriateness for their study. Furthermore, in his

research study, Hyon (1996) argues and gives a detailed framework of the three approaches and claims Australian Systemic Functional as the most effective one in terms of educational contexts.

Systematic Functional Linguistics has been also exposed to criticism from both pedagogical and theoretical frameworks. ‘On the pedagogical front, scholars such as Gunther Kress, Bill Cope, and Mary Kalantzis have raised concerns about the degree of formalism exhibited by such an approach, in which generic models and structural analysis are used to teach students how to write texts “correctly” (Cope and Kalantzis,1993; p.12 cited in Geçikli, 2012, p.41). Moreover, it is criticized that SFL does not provide a framework about both how genres notice and contribute to the reproduction of ideology and social goals (Bawarish and Reiff, 2010).

2.3.1.2.English for specific purposes

The ESP approach to genre was developed by practitioners working in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Flowerdew and Wan, 2010, p.79). Within the content of ESP, there are many sub-fields including studying language use for a particular purpose or an area of knowledge such as English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), and English for Medical Purposes (EMP).

While dealing with ESP approach to genre analysis, it is a must first to define ESP, its general characteristics and scope. Richards, Platt and Platt define English for Specific Purposes (hereafter ESP) as ‘the role of English in a language course or program of instruction in which the *content* and *aims* of the course are fixed by the specific needs of a particular learner group’ (1992, p. 94 cited in Bruce 2008, p.26). Moreover, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) demonstrate that “‘ESP must be seen as an approach, not as a product; ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a particular type of teaching material. Understood properly, it is an approach to language learning which is based on learner need” (p. 19). Concisely, it is proper to say that there is an agreement while defining ESP in terms of its being specific emphasizing that what is specific in ESP is group of learners instead of the diversity of English (Bruce, 2008) and this group of learners have their own aims which can be

professional, academic or scientific (Robinson, 1980; Javid, 2013). Expressing and analyzing these specific aims, in fact clarify the different nature of ESP which is demonstrated by Javid (2013) as : ‘The rationale of learning English, thus, became the crux of ESP’ while Mackay and Maunford (1978, p.2 cited in Javid, 2013, p. 139) define this rationale for learning as clearly ‘utilitarian purposes’. In parallel with this points, it is possible to define a clear border between ESP and General English and the literature on this aspect shows that the purposes while learning English differs according to target groups’ needs which distinguishes the branches of English teaching.

The certain lines between ESP, EAP and General English have been searched by a considerable number of researchers. For example, Holme tries to explain the difference between ESP and General English with the following paragraphs:

It is in the nature of a language syllabus to be selective. The General English a syllabus is based on a conception of the kind of reality that the student has to deal with in English. For example, a General English course for teenagers will probably be written around the language-based activities of a stereotypical teenager. Finding out or even speculating on what these activities are is like taking the first step towards a needs analysis. Consciously or unconsciously, therefore, all sensible course designers must begin by trying to assess students’ specific needs. ESP is simply a narrowing of this needs spectrum.

The ESP process of specialization should not result in the complete separation of one part of the language from another. One cannot simply hack off pieces of a language or of skills and then expect them to exist independently of anything else. Every discipline refers to others and each draws on the same reservoir of language. A science student who comes to grips with the past simple passive through the description of laboratory procedures is unlikely to lock that tense into that context for the rest of their English speaking life. (Holme , 1996, pp. 3–4 cited in Basturkmen, 2010, p. 2)

Streven (1998) emphasizes the differences between absolute and variable characteristics of ESP comparing with General English in the following way:

Absolute characteristics:

ESP consists of English language teaching which is:

- designed to meet specified needs of the learner;
- related in content (i.e. in its themes and topics) to particular disciplines, occupations and activities;
- centered on the language appropriate to those activities in syntax, lexis, discourse, semantics, etc., and analysis of this discourse;
- in contrast with General English.

Variable characteristics:

ESP may be, but is not necessarily:

- restricted as to the language skills to be learned (e.g. reading only);
- not taught according to any pre-ordained methodology (p.1-2 cited in Gatehouse, 2001).

Taking this definition into consideration, Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) provides a more comprehensive framework :

Absolute Characteristics

- ESP is designed to meet specific needs of the learner.
- ESP makes use of the underlying methodology and activities of the disciplines that it serves.
- ESP is centered on the language appropriate to these activities in terms of grammar, lexis, register, study skills, discourse and genre.

Variable Characteristics

- ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines.
- ESP may use, in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of General English (p. 6)

ESP researchers have been concerned with genres as a way to analyze and teach the spoken and written language to non-native students who need to use English in academia and professional settings. These researchers prominently advise to teach genre structures and grammatical aspects. They view genres as being beneficial models

for ESP writing whereas little attention is given to the social contexts and specialized functions of the texts (Hyon, 1996).

The most prominent representative of ESP is John Swales, the author of a seminal book on the subject (Swales, 1990) and “although ESP researchers began to use genre analysis as a research and pedagogical tool in the 1980s, it was John Swales’ groundbreaking book *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings* that most fully theorized and developed the methodology for bringing genre analysis into ESP research and teaching. It is largely due to Swales’ work and the research it has inspired over the last twenty years that ESP and genre analysis have become in many ways synonymous” (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010, p. 41).

2.3.1.2.1. Genre Analysis of Research Article Sections

The move – step analysis is a popular research field for scholars and it has increasingly become important to conduct these kinds of research since the results of move analysis studies can have considerably crucial implications for academic writing courses. Constructing each section of research articles effectively including abstract, introduction, literature review, result, discussion and conclusion, seems a must to establish a well-structured paper. First of all, the research article must be considered a whole and then each section should be constructed in accordance with the conventions of academic writing. As mentioned earlier, one of the most influential scholars as the one who contributed to the field considerably is Swales and his book “*Genre Analysis: English in Research and Academic Settings*” (1990). Swales established a well-known model especially for analyzing the introduction sections. Firstly, he defines a move as “a discursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse” (Swales, 2004, p. 228).

One of the most frequently studied sections of research articles is introduction part. Swales’ Create- A Research - Space model is used to analyze introduction. This model includes 3 moves each performing different aims. Firstly, the writers introduce the topic or the issue being debated. They try to establish a rationale for the study explaining that the research is necessary and valuable. Then, second move is to indicate the gap in the literature. Writers must show that their research will contribute to the

cumulative process of knowledge. Final move is related to the purpose of the study and if required main findings and the structure of the research can be given.

Move 1: Establishing a Territory:	Step1 Claiming centrality and/or Step2 Making topic generalization(s) and/or Step3 Reviewing items of previous research
Move 2: Establishing a niche :	Step1A Counter-Claiming or Step2B Indicating a gap or Step3C Question-raising or Step4D Continuing a tradition
Move 3: Occupying the niche:	Step1A Outlining purposes or Step2A Announcing the present research Step3 Announcing the principal findings Step4 Indicating RA structure

Figure 1.1. Swales's CARS Model (Creating a Research Space)

In her comparative study employing CARS model Samraj (2002) studied RA introductions from two related disciplines, Wildlife Behavior and Conversation Biology. The findings of the research demonstrated that introductions in Wildlife Behavior include most of the moves found in CARS model with a detailed background move while centrality claims are not so common. However, in introductions of Wildlife Behaviors centrality claims are more dominant and well established. Samraj attributes these differences to the disciplinary factors because Conversation Biology is an applied discipline while Wildlife Behavior is theoretical. Studies are also conducted to determine the differences between sub-disciplines of the same discipline. For example, Öztürk (2007) using CARS model investigated the differences of rhetorical organization of introduction sections of research articles in second language acquisition research and second language writing research, both of which are the sub-disciplines of Applied Linguistics. Though being the sub-disciplines of the same discipline, certain variabilities were defined between them. They employ different moves structures and the dominance of these structures vary greatly between sub-disciplines.

Using CARS model researchers analyze not only research articles but also master thesis and doctoral dissertations. For example, in her study Geçikli (2012) analyzed the rhetorical characteristics of 100 master theses written by Turkish scholars

in English. As a result of her analysis, she found that Turkish writers structured their introduction in accordance with CARS model to some extent and cultural effects also appeared in their constructing the rhetoric structure of introduction sections of their thesis and influenced the way they did it. In her another study, Geçikli (2013) explored 20 PhD theses written in English and Turkish in the field of ELT. The data she obtained employing again CARS model showed that the introductions sections of Turkish theses are not as complex as the English ones. These results, in fact, indicate the inevitable reflection of culture even over academic writing which entails objectivity.

In parallel with the given studies Chahal (2014) studied introductions of research articles written in humanities in order to detect whether it is possible to apply CARS model to the introductions produced in this field. It was found that as in the above mentioned studies, to some extent CARS model was available with significant variations. These are just some of the studies dealing with introduction part. In the literature a considerable number of studies have been devoted to this popular and widely studied genre.

Ranking second most frequently studied sections of research articles after introductions are discussion and conclusion sections. In fact, these sections are one of the most challenging parts for writers especially for the novice ones. In this section researchers must organize the components of the whole article in a well-structured way to present the result of the study blending them with the rationale of the study for emphasizing that the desired results were achieved successfully. Especially the discussion sections are recognized as having an important role in research articles because as Bastürkmen (2012) says “in these sections writers stake claims about how their results integrate with and contribute to disciplinary knowledge ” (p.135).

The literature on this issue appears to indicate that crucial varieties are visible in the textual organization of research articles and these varieties can be seen in the papers produced by native and non-native writers (Amnuani and Wannaruk, 2013a). For example, Amirian et al. (2008) using three different corpora (English research articles published in international English journals, articles published in Persian journals and English articles written by Persian writers) concluded that a kind of universality was

present ; however, varieties appeared in terms of frequency and sequences of moves. Culturally bound factors can be given on the root of these varieties and differences.

Studies searching the discussion and introduction sections written by native and non-native writers are available as well as the ones which compare the rhetorical characteristics of articles written in different languages including contrastive genre analysis of English with Slavic (Yakhontova, 2006) and Chinese (Loi and Evans, 2010), and Spanish (Sheldon, 2013).

CARS Model does not constitute the only model employed for analysis though being the most known and applied one. Amnuani and Wannaruk (2013a and 2013b) used Yang and Allison's model for the genre analysis of discussion and conclusion section of RAs published in international and Thai journals. In addition to this, in their studies, Sabet and Kazempouri (2015) used the model developed by Kanoksilapatham including contextualizing the study, consolidating results, limitation of present study and suggesting further studies. 60 ESP RAs published in international and Iranian journals constituted their corpus resulting that two two moves were obligatory in articles of both international and Iranian journals while evaluation of the findings move did not appear in Iranian journals.

Finally a comprehensive study covering a genre analysis of results, discussion, conclusion and pedagogical implications sections of RAs written in the field of applied linguistics was carried out by Yang and Allison (2003). Their corpus consisted of 40 RAs and they made the conclusion at the end of the investigation that all of the above mentioned sections are related to each other while results part has recurrent organization which both presents the obtained data and also interprets the data concisely.

Researchers agree upon the point that genre-based research is noteworthy sources in providing information and contributing to the literature especially for scholars writing in L2 (Amnuani and Wannaruk, 2013a; Amnuani and Wannaruk, 2013b; Amirian et al., 2008). In fact, the impetus behind genre based studies is to make scholars and mainly novice writers to make aware of rhetorical conventions or at least increasing their awareness to facilitate the acquisition process of academic writing rules. Nevertheless, given the studies, it can be claimed that the introduction, discussion or result sections of the articles are frequently studied but still we need to further our

understanding on rhetoric structures of another important section called abstract which represents the whole article from introduction to the conclusion and pedagogical implications within its short and limited framework which is recognized as an advertisement of the whole article.

2.4. Research Article Abstracts

There has been an increasing interest in studies of research article abstracts due to their functions and importance in giving a general idea for scholars and readers about the content, scope and results of the studies that is, their values. After a short time from Second World War, abstracts began to appear in journals of social sciences, though, before this date some journals included abstracts (Hartley & Betts, 2009).

The abstract has increasingly become an essential part of the research article. “As it captures the essence of the whole article, the abstract tends to be the first part of a journal article to be explored” (Hartley, 2003; Salager-Meyer, 1990 cited in Pho, 2008). Moreover, as Pho (2008) claims that "It tends to be the first part of the article to be read and, to some extent, it 'sells' the article" (p.231). Before reviewing literature on this issue, it is necessary to define and establish functions and contents of the abstracts. According to the American National Standards Institute, “An abstract is an abbreviated, accurate representation of the contents of a document, preferably prepared by its author(s) for publication with it” (ANSI 1979: 1). By the same standard, well written abstracts “enable readers to identify the basic content of a document quickly and accurately to determine the relevance And thus decide whether they need to read the document in its entirety” (ISO 214, p.1 as cited in Šauperl et al., 2008, p.1420). Most of the definitions for abstracts are parallel with each other including Ventola's (1994a, p. 333) statement, abstracts “have become a tool of mastering and managing the ever increasing information flow in the scientific community”. They constitute the gateway that leads readers to take up an article, journals to select contributions, or organizers of conferences to accept or reject papers (cited in Lorès, 2004, p.281). Therefore, abstracts are required to be persuasive enough for the researchers to use them and even it can be claimed that while writing RAs abstracts as in other sections of the articles, researchers should construct the article in a way that it should emphasize the gap in the literature and show that their studies are capable of contributing to the literature with a strong

rationale for the issue being debated. Moreover, it seems that one of the most influential and interesting definitions and metaphors that have been given for abstracts is by Lebrun (2007). He uses 'heart' metaphor and explains the functions of the abstracts in the following way:

The heart plays an essential role in the human body. Similarly, the essence of an article is its abstract. It goes to the core. The heart has four chambers. The abstract is also composed of four easily identifiable parts. The heart always lives for the present. An abstract is always written in the present tense to keep it fresh and current (p. 118).

Given the definitions, it is possible to mention and range various functions of research articles. For example, Huckin (2006) suggests at least four obvious uses of abstracts;

First, they serve as stand-alone mini-texts, giving readers a quick summary of a study's topic, methodology, and findings. Second, they serve as screening devices enabling the reader to decide whether to read the article as a whole. Third, for those readers who do opt to read the article as a whole, abstracts serve as previews creating an interpretive frame that can guide reading. Finally, abstracts serve as aids to indexing by professional indexers for large database services (p. 94).

Huckin (2006) studied 90 biomedical research article abstracts to explore the reflection of abstracts on the content of the whole article and he found that the abstracts cover the content and material of the articles. Furthermore, in his study he established a number of guidelines for authors and students;

1. Create a title that includes the major concepts in your article and, if possible, the most important point.
2. Try to describe your methodology in such a way that the reader can infer the purpose of your work. This will save you the necessity of stating your purpose explicitly.
3. Write the rest of the abstract so that results and conclusions are emphasized.
4. Make sure the statement of conclusions emphasizes the most significant points of the article.

5. Use past-tense verbs to describe the specific results of the study. Use present-tense verbs to state general conclusions (p.103)

However, such instructional materials seem to be inadequate and most of the sources giving information on writing research paper only provide a general framework on abstract writing with just a sample abstract (Suntara & Usaha, 2013). This specific genre deserves much more attention because there seems a misunderstanding about abstracts' being just simple texts.

Oppenheim (2006) establishes a number of rationales for why abstracts are of significance since they:

- save reading time, as the reader is able to gauge whether the full-text document is likely to be of sufficient interest to warrant reading in its entirety;
- help overcome the language barrier – written in the parent language, they allow the reader access to the central themes of an article written in a foreign language;
- can provide some language preparation for the text by using key words and ideas that are used in the full-text document;
- the well written abstract can serve as a key to understanding fully the argument of the original article (Swales, 1990, p. 179); and
- serve the function of a current awareness tool (p.429).

Given the definitions and information on abstracts and the role of abstracts in scholarly writing, Graetz's description (1982), given nearly four decades ago, is capable of grasping the core point of abstract phenomenon:

It should be a continuous narrative, written in whole sentences. It should not use separate paragraphs for the common recurring features of problem, summary, introduction, method, etc. It should reflect the organization of the article, by following the exact order if possible. It should provide more information than the title. The title should not be repeated. The abstract should be brief, not waste words, yet be long enough to convey the author's concept. It should be non-critical, unbiased; it is not a review. It should be unambiguous, intelligible, readable and a complete item in its own right. It should be written in the author's own language (as far as possible.) (p.23).

Another issue about abstracts is the language used to construct structure of abstracts. The main purpose should be being concise, intelligible and first and foremost being clear. What the scholars want to convey to readers should be the same with what the readers get from the texts. However, it should be accepted that a strongly qualified abstract may not be always a guarantee for a successful study, but the main case is that most of the studies with a strong rationale, valuable results and contribution are ignored due to the randomly structured abstracts with no attractiveness in terms of linguistic and content aspects. Graetz (1982) explains it clearly. She states that:

The abstract is characterized by the use of past tense, third person, passive, and non-use of negatives. It avoids subordinate clauses, uses phrases instead of clauses, words instead of phrases. It avoids abbreviation, jargon, symbols and other language shortcuts which might lead to confusion. It is written in tightly worded sentences, which avoid repetition, meaningless expressions, superlatives, adjectives, illustrations, preliminaries, descriptive details, examples, footnotes. In short it eliminates the redundancy which the skilled reader counts on ending in written language and which usually facilitates comprehension (Graetz 1982: 23).

Graetz's explanation provides a general frame for how the abstract should be, referring to the use of language which should be clear as far as possible. Contrary to what is supposed, using unknown, different phrases do not indicate that writer has a good command of language; nevertheless, it leads to confusion on reader's mind. Graetz also underlines the importance of words choice while writing abstracts. Therefore, writers are required to realize the variation of word use which are acceptable as it is not so feasible to use words or phrases in abstracts that are employed in other parts of the article. As is known and noticed in every material and source dealing with academic writing, a comprehensive language use in which coherence is available among sentences is the primary condition for the text being successful in conveying the intended meanings. At this point, writers need to be aware of aforementioned factors taking the target audience group of the texts into consideration. Because, to succeed academic tasks, they should have a comprehension of what the target audience group expect and what is this group's background knowledge (Swales & Feak, 2009).

To sum up, abstract writing also like other genres, has its own established norms which are stated by many scholars who are prominent figures in their fields; thus

abstract writing is more than just a simple summary that may be written randomly.

2.4.1.Types of Abstracts

When the issue of abstract is debated, it can be supposed that they are just summary of the articles with a simple structure. In fact, this is not the case because abstracts have their own highly complex structures and there is a considerable number of information we need to acquire and be aware of about abstracts. Three types of abstracts are mentioned: informative, indicative and informative – indicative. These three types of abstracts do not entail the same kinds of information and their length can change (Sauperl et al., 2008).They have their own specific functions and they are constructed for the purpose of meeting the needs of the readers. The literature shows that some researchers mention the existence of two abstract types as indicative and informative (Lores, 2004) while Graetz (1982) mentions three types but the difference is that he uses the term ‘critical abstract’ as the third type.

Indicative abstracts give a general framework of the research with principal findings. However, it does not frame each step involved in the research deeply (Lores, 2004) and it is easy reading--uses breezy language and is often written in large type. It often appears as part of the table of contents. It is also known as a descriptive abstract, highlight, micro- or mini-abstract (Graetz, 1982, p.23). On the other hand, in informative abstracts, contrary to the indicative ones, a considerable number of information which can be qualitative or quantitative, is tried to be given (Oppenheim, 2006) ; therefore, as stated “ they act as report in miniature”(Jordan, 1991, p.507 as cited in Lores, 2004, p.282). Last type of abstract is indicative – informative one. Informative-indicative abstract can be defined as a blend of previously mentioned two types. Both general information about the study and conclusions of the research are available in them.

Another aspect we need to clarify is the linguistic studies that are conducted to address the issue of traditional and a recently established form of abstract called ‘structured abstracts’. Before dealing with the studies on this issue, it is necessary to explain the concept of structured abstract. First of all, most commonly, these abstracts are seen in medical articles and recently in other fields including economics (Holtz,

2011). These abstracts include sub-headings such as purpose, design/methodology/ findings, research limitations, practical implications, originality/value or purpose of the study.

Linguistic research on abstracts investigates whether it is easier to read and understand structured abstracts. Scholars and mainly James Hartley, as one of these scholars, carried out a number of studies ranging from the convenience of them to the typographic settings for structured abstracts. His studies and findings support the hypothesis he established initially (Harbourt et al., 1995; Hartley and Benjamin, 1998; Hartley, 1999; Hartley, 2000a; Hartley, 2000b; Hartley, 2002; Hartley, 2003; Hartley et al., 2005; Hartley and Betts, 2007; Hartley and Betts, 2008; Hartley and Betts, 2009; Hartley, 2010). Hartley and Sydes (1997) investigated the readability of structured abstracts when compared to the traditional ones. The findings indicated that the main issue which creates the discussion and possible necessity of structured abstracts are not absolutely their being easier to be read and understood more easily than the traditional ones. To sum up, the main point is that, most of the studies on structured abstracts have focused on their whether being superior over traditional ones.

The construct of a structured abstract both creates advantages and disadvantages mainly for the scholars as shown in the following statements by Hartley and Sydes (1997): Structured abstracts

- can be of a higher quality (Taddio et al, 1994);
- usually contain more information-particularly in the Method section-(Hartley and Sydes 1995; Haynes, 1993; McIntosh, 1995; Taddio et al, 1994);
- are easier to search (Hartley, Sydes and Blurton, 1996)
- facilitate peer review (Haynes et al, 1990; McIntosh, 1995);
- are generally welcomed(Haynes et al,1990; Haynes, 1993).

However a number of disadvantages are also available. Structured abstracts:

- take up more space(Hartley and Sydes, 1995; McIntosh, 1995; Taddio et al, 1994);
- still sometimes omit important information (Froom and Froom, 1993; Taddio et al, 1994);
- often have confusing typographic layouts (p. 123-124)

In fact, if constructed rhetorically in an effective, fluent and accurate way using the academic language in a simple style not confusing readers about the purpose, method or result of the study, traditional abstracts are also of significance and readable for scholars searching the articles. It is certain that changing tendencies may be prominent in the way writers construct their papers.

2.4.2. Move Analysis of Research Article Abstracts

In recent years, there has been considerable and increasing attention in terms of studies exploring the rhetorical structures of abstracts. In general, there appears a perception among scholars that abstract is just a summary and it can be written randomly without any rules or conventions. Students are instilled with the idea that abstracts writing is out of academic rules. Abstract can be more than just a "synopsis" of research article, in contrast, it involves the rhetorical moves which are found in introduction sections of the articles (Samraj, 2005, p. 153).

A number of studies are neglected since the lack of qualities that indicate the value of the research (Pique-Noguera, 2012). Hartley and Betts (2009) shortly define this problem in the following statement: “ It is possible that more papers might be read in detail if the abstracts were more informative” (p.2015).

First of all, the literature shows a dilemma about abstracts' being a genre on its own or a part-genre. The literature on abstract writing indicates two different points as a part genre and a genre on its own. For example, Gillaerts and Van de Velde (2010) define abstract as 'stand alone genre' and 'mini articles' (p.136). They support these ideas with their studies. They conducted a quantitative research investigating the writing of abstracts in the field of applied linguistics. They found that the use of international metadiscourse is different for RA itself and RAs abstracts. Furthermore, unlike Swales and Feak (2007) who viewed RA abstracts as part-genre and the research article as a genre because the latter is intended to accomplish a set of communicative purposes, Bhatia (1993) and Lofes (2004) recognized RA abstracts as an 'independent genre on its own' (as cited in Alhuqbani, 2013, p. 371). In parallel with these perspectives on the functions of abstracts, it seems possible to state that functions and structures of abstracts are not so simple and writing a qualified RA abstract is a challenging and demanding

task requiring the academics to be aware of the conventions and rules of academic writing and accept that abstracts include similar textual structures like other parts of the articles. In the consideration of these aspects, it may be said that abstracts' functions, rhetorical structures and linguistic realizations connected to each other are the factors categorizing them as different genres (Lores, 2004); therefore, Martin-Martin(2003) notes that as an academic genre, there has been recently a growing body of research for (RA) abstracts due to their crucial functions for discourse community, and mastering the textual organization and key linguistic features that defines a well - established article is a must for novice academics to produce qualified texts. Therefore, given great emphasis on studies, the components of abstracts have been investigated from different axes including linguistic, metadiscoursal and rhetoric properties.

Genre analysis of research articles are sustained with using different models. As one of the most frequently studied sections of the research articles, researchers generally examine the introduction part using Swales' CARS model and most of the time, using this model yields significant insights for the field. However, when the point is genre analysis of abstracts, then it is not possible to mention just a model. Scholars employ different models which they determine according to certain rationales they choose in order to investigate the rhetorical structures of abstracts. Even though this fact, these models are greatly similar with minor differences or at least their criteria are established based on the same purposes. However, studies employing similar or the same models for analysis of rhetorical structures of abstracts conclude with different results, some of them find that abstracts follow a four move model while other research demonstrates five move models. At this point, Lebrun (2007) states that an abstract with four sections should be regarded as the convention and he ranges these conventional parts with four questions;

1. What is the problem? What is the topic of this paper?
2. How the problem is solved (methodology)?
3. What are the specific results? How well is the problem solved?
4. So what? How useful is this to science or to reader? (p.120)

After ranging the given questions, he adds that though the convention of what should be, most abstracts tend to include three parts omitting the fourth one. He predicts

a number of reasons such as writers can omit the part due to the limit of the words allowed for the abstract or they cannot evaluate the value which the study contributes.

A considerable number of studies on abstracts include the move analysis, therefore; awareness of rhetorical conventions are important in the process of academic writing in accordance with the point that the difficulties writing impose on researchers increase while writing in a foreign language since the researchers need to adopt themselves both to the disciplinary discourse and its rhetorical conventions which are different from their native languages (Ren & Li, 2011). The effect of disciplinary factors are illustrated as follows by Bartholomae (1986):

Every time a student sits down to write for us, he has to invent the university for the occasion—invent the university, that is, or branch of it, like history or anthropology or economics or English. The student has to learn to speak our language, to speak as we do, to try on the peculiar ways of knowing, selecting, evaluating, reporting, concluding, and arguing that define the discourse of our community (p.4 cited in Marako, 2013, p. 48).

In view of the importance of abstracts to the academic communities and their different formats from full research articles, several books have included guidelines as to how abstracts should be written or structured. For example, Weissberg and Buker (1990) presented a five-move model of an abstract in their textbook. The five moves are *background, purpose, method, results, and conclusion*, with the first move (*background*) being optional. Similarly, Hyland (2000) proposes a five-move structures to analyze academic abstracts: *introduction, purpose, method, product, and conclusion*. Swales and Feak (2004), in their handbook, likewise, suggest that structured abstracts should have five elements as a paper would, namely, *background, aim, method, results, and conclusion* (cited in Tseng, 2011, p.28). In another similar model, Bhatia (1993) states four moves: introducing the purpose, describing the method, summarizing the results and presenting the conclusion (p. 78).

As stated earlier, studies seem to establish various rationales to employ the models for their research in certain cases depending on disciplinary variations and types of the research as being empirical and theoretical for which the use of moves differs greatly. For example, Suntara and Usaha (2013) in their studies analyzing 200 RAs abstracts decided to use Hyland's model within the scope of two criteria. First, they

conducted a small scale pilot study and found Hyland's model more feasible for the study then they suggested another significant rationale emphasizing that 'Hyland's (2000) 5- move model was chosen because Santos' (1996) model was derived from 94 abstracts in the field of applied linguistics, while Hyland's (2000) model was obtained from 800 abstracts across 8 disciplines, philosophy, sociology, applied linguistics, marketing, electrical engineering, mechanical engineering, physics, and biology. Santos' (1996) model was limited to the field of applied linguistics, while Hyland's (2000) model covered across the disciplines of sciences and social sciences' (Suntara & Usaha, 2013, p.85). Moreover, in their studies, they found three conventional moves in linguistics abstracts while there were four conventional moves in the abstracts of applied linguistics. Moves can be optional or conventional and a certain criterion is not available to define these moves. Therefore, criteria for defining a conventional unit are not consistent. In some studies, a conventional move or step, which refers to a unit, occurs in over 50% of a set of texts, or over 60% of a set of texts, or even above 80% of a set of texts (Li, 2011, p.5). These percentages vary from study to study. In another study comparing abstracts written in English and Turkish, Coşmuş (2011) employing mixed model for move analysis concluded introduction, methodology and result moves as the most frequent moves as well as difference in terms of other moves between the two languages. In another comparative study investigating Chinese and English RAs abstracts employing Hyland's (2000) model, Yun (2011) stated that linguistic RA abstracts follow the conventions of English academic discourse while a conventional structure is not available for chemistry RA abstracts and this indicates that international writers and Chinese writers apply different structures.

2.4.2.1. Contrastive rhetoric studies on research article abstracts

Contrastive rhetoric (now called Intercultural Rhetoric) is stated as 'the study of written discourse between and among individuals with different cultural backgrounds' (Connor, 2011, p.2). Contrastive rhetoric studies constitute a considerable number of studies on various parts of research articles including abstracts and there has been a dramatically increasing attention in recent years in the total number of contrastive studies. The increase in the communication conducted at academic dimension among countries is given as the reason for this development (Yun, 2011). What makes

contrastive rhetoric noteworthy for being studied is explained by Enkvist (1997) in the following way;

One of the hot subjects in today's linguistics is the field variously known as contrastive (or cross-cultural or intercultural) rhetoric (or, with varying emphases, text linguistics, discourse linguistics, discourse analysis, or pragmalinguistics) . . . simply defined as the study of patterns of text and discourse in different languages that vary in structural and in cultural background (p. 188)(cited in Connor, 2011, p.1).

Contrastive studies has demonstrated that the variations between writers' background and cultural roots affect the ways they organize, state and construct their ideas (Yun,2011).The studies within cross disciplinary and cross linguistic perspectives will be given chronologically.

In a genre study of abstract sections of research articles comparing the German medical abstracts and their English equivalents written by German and Native English speakers, Busch-Lauer(1995) reported that both German medical abstracts and their equivalents were not constructed following the rules defined by ISO and original form of the article. In another study, Martin-Martin (2003) compared RA abstracts. His purpose was to analyze the macro structure of the abstracts written in English and Spanish employing IMRD model. He concluded that Spanish abstracts, in general, are in accordance with rules which are based on the conventions of English speaking communities. The major difference is in the introduction parts. With a detailed study of introduction part using Swales' (1990) CARS model, he found that Spanish writers include Move 2, establishing a niche, less than English writers. Most importantly, he revealed that universality in terms of scientific discourse is not possible.

Vann and Swales (2007) with a similar purpose like the above mentioned studies, investigated English and French RA abstracts and found that linguistic differences are more common than the variations in the rhetorical organization. They attributed these differences to discourse communities being different.

A great number of studies have focused on the comparison of English and Chinese languages in different fields. Amongst these studies, Yun (2011) explored the rhetorical organization and linguistic properties of RA abstracts from two aspects:

across disciplines and across cultures. He carried out the cross linguistic analysis in two languages: English and Chinese and cross disciplinary research was carried out in two disciplines: linguistics and chemistry. The corpus of the study from which he gathered the data consisted of 40 RAs abstracts equally divided for each discipline and language. As a result, he displayed that abstracts written in linguistic field follow the rules of English discourse community with a move structure of M2-M3-M4-M5. On the other hand, a consistent structure was not found for chemistry abstracts. Chinese writers followed M3-M4 structure while the English abstracts followed a M2-M3-M4-M5 structure.

Cross disciplinary studies are also of great importance in supporting the claim of the effect of disciplinary differences in the rhetorical and linguistic structure of the texts. These studies are sometimes from two related disciplines or from totally different ones including abstracts from conversational biology and wildlife behavior (Samraj, 2005), educational technology and applied linguistics (Pho, 2008), linguistics and chemistry (Li,2011), applied linguistic and educational technology (Coşmuş, 2011), linguistics and applied linguistics (Suntara and Usaha, 2013), linguistics and physics (Wäxjö, 2013), applied linguistics, applied economics and mechanical engineering (Saboori and Hashemi, 2013).

2.4.2.2. Contrastive studies in Turkish

In Turkey, there have been also studies comparing abstracts or other genres written in English and Turkish. However, to our best knowledge, the number of these studies are too limited and the present ones seem to be not comprehensible enough to make stronger conclusions.

Studies have analyzed the abstracts from general perspectives; however, recently, studies have been conducted in terms of cross cultural aspects because research on contrastive rhetoric has established the notion that rhetorical structures are influenced by writers' cultural background(Uysal, 2008); thus, "it is very likely that unique writing conventions exist in each society; once a person learns a certain way of writing in one culture, this schema influences writing in a second language" (Hirose, 2003; Kadar-Fulop, 1988; Kaplan, 1966; Purves, 1988 cited in Uysal, 2008, p. 183-

184). The results of these studies suggest that culturally bound factors are not among the only reasons for the differences in the scholarly writings of Turkish students and native speakers of English. The reasons can stem from ‘educational context, L2 level, topic, audience and bidirectional transfer’(Enginarlar, 1990; Uysal, 2008 cited in Çandarlı, 2012, p.12).

Coşmuş (2011) conducted a contrastive study on abstracts written in English and Turkish. She explored 100 RA abstracts , 50 written in English and 50 written in Turkish in the field of Applied Linguistic and Educational Technology. She applied a mixed model of IMRD and CARS model. As a result of this comparative study, she found introduction, methodology and results moves as the most frequently used moves in the abstracts of both Turkish and English writers. However, what makes the difference was the discussion move. Discussion move occurs in nearly half of English abstracts while the situation is the opposite for the Turkish ones.

Another study within Turkish context was done by Kafes (2012). His purpose was to explore the possible influence of the different cultural and linguistic backgrounds on the rhetorical choices of American, Taiwanese and Turkish academicians while constructing their abstracts. It was found that these Turkish, American and Taiwanese academicians, in general, follow the rules of Anglo American conventions which were also demonstrated by Martin-Martin (2003) and Yun (2011).The abstracts written by these three groups include purpose, method and results moves, while introduction and conclusion moves were the least frequently used moves; thus they were accepted as optional. Moreover, these optional moves were employed in Turkish writers’ abstracts less than other two groups and they were most frequently used in American scholars’ papers.

In fact, the less occurrence of conclusion move in Turkish context is also confirmed by Çandarlı’s (2012) study. Her corpus includes 40 RA abstracts: 20 in English and 20 in Turkish employing CARS model. Unlike Kafes(2012), she revealed introduction unit as the most frequent one in both groups. These both groups have similarities in terms of introduction, method and results moves; however, the occurrence of conclusion move is more in English abstracts. Çandarlı argues that Turkish writers’ tendency of omitting conclusion move may be based on either the effect of academic

writing conventions of Turkish writers or it may be a kind of face saving strategy for them. Moreover, this study also points a major problematic area for Turkish scholars which is related to the use of step 1 of move 2 (indicating a gap in the literature). Particularly, while no abstracts included indicating the gap step, it is present in 40% of English abstracts. Concisely, she claims that, English research abstracts are more successful and rhetorically complex than Turkish research abstracts and the reason for this lies in the fact that publishing in Turkish journals is not as challenging and competitive as publishing in English journals.

Ülker (2012) also analyzed abstract sections but the point that separates her study from the above mentioned ones is her choosing to analyze abstracts of MA thesis. The corpus consisted of three groups of abstracts taken from three different universities, two universities with and without guidelines for abstract writing in Turkey and a university with a guideline from USA. The results gathered from the comparative research yielded important insights into the issue. In Turkey, university with a guideline indicated more coherence in terms of the rhetorical organization of abstracts including introduction, methodology, results and conclusion order. Furthermore, this coherence was also more when compared to university with a guideline from USA.

Given the above mentioned two studies, it is clear that we need to explore other aspects of academic writing used in abstracts including linguistic features and metadiscoursal properties which require further research. The data obtained from these comparative studies can shed light on the way we interpret the effects of the academic writers' cultural background and what influences and conventions they show in their texts as a result of the discourse community to which they belong to.

Among one of the most crucial contribution of the studies mentioned in the literature review section of the present study is clearly that these studies strongly emphasize the necessity of making the abstract writing a part of academic writing courses and materials prepared in the field of academic writing including the norms and conventions of abstract writing in details dealing with its various aspects from rhetorical organization to linguistic features (Busch-Lauer, 1995; Coşmuş, 2011; Kafes, 2012; Ülker, 2012).

2.4.3. Tense Use in Moves of Abstracts

Another controversial issue commonly dealt with within the move analysis on abstracts writing is the use of verb tenses about which researchers can be confused of the appropriate tense for the each move especially while writing results and methodology sections of the studies, thus while writing particularly in L2 , it is important to choose the correct tense for each move that constitutes the abstract. However, in L2 writing NNSs frequently employ tenses inconsistently depending on their different perception of organizing the events (Hinkel, 2004).

A number of studies on move analysis have also focused on the verb tense of research article abstracts. Some of these studies revealed that in general, present tense was commonly used for introduction/background, purpose moves while past tense was more frequently employed for method and conclusion moves (Tseng, 2011; Alhuqbani, 2013). Moreover, for describing specific results past tense is suggested while present tense is demanded for general conclusions.

Given the information, examining the tenses predominantly employed in each move of the abstracts is of significance due to the roles of tenses which indicate more than simple grammatical choices. For example, Salager-Myer (1992) analyzed the tense use in each move based on a corpus of 84 medical abstracts of four text types: research papers, case reports and review articles concluding that different tenses serve for different purposes and functions. For example, the use of present tense while talking about the findings of the studies indicates that the results may be generalized. On the other hand, if the point is problem statement, the use of present perfect which was found in Salager-Myers(1992) as the third most frequent tense, demonstrates the writers' opposition to the existing results enhancing the rationale for the issue being debated and first and foremost, it signals the gap of information in the field. Nevertheless, a restricted number of studies have focused on the tense problem. The reason for this gap in the literature is attributed to the complexity of tense usage which is also emphasized by Swales and Feak (2009). In general, for the introduction of the study in abstracts, present and perfect tenses are preferred. Nearly always, conclusions are presented with present simple. For result move, a certain tense may not be

generalized due to the discrepancies in terms of discipline and individual bound factors which cannot be neglected (Swales and Feak, 2009).

2.5.Hedging In Academic Texts

As an essential part of academic, that is formal writing, metadiscursive resources are recognized as the linguistic devices displaying uncertainty and hesitation and a considerable number of research has focused on the examination of these resources in academic prose. Metadiscursive can be recognized as an umbrella term as “the self – reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a view point and engage with readers as members of a particular community” (Hyland, 2005a, p.37). Hedging is one of these linguistic devices as commonly used by scholars in order to make their claims and arguments more modest. When scholars put forward a claim or make argumentative statements then they need to submit their claims “cautiously, accurately and modestly to meet the discourse community expectation and to gain acceptance for their statements” (Hyland, 1996, p.477), thus hedges are used with the purpose of 'toning down of scientific claims' (Ghazanfari & Abassi, 2012, p. 143). The writers' epistemic stance in scholarly writing which is established by the use of hedges are of great significance since strict certainty is against the nature of science. Mitigated assertions can be accepted more easily by the discourse community than the arguments presented with absolute certainty without any toning down of the claims by means of hedges (Ghazanfari and Abassi, 2012). Myers (1989), says that 'the uses of hedging are highly conventionalized in academic writing and appear to be particularly necessary in texts that include claim-making and/or expressing personal positions or points of view' (cited in Hinkel, 2005, p. 30), they are used “to moderate the force of an utterance or the certainty of its content” (Neary-Sundquist, 2013, p.149) ; thus, they are employed for two major purposes: “to prevent opposition and thus save an author' face, and to express appropriate cautiousness” (Chang et al.,2012, p.294).

Hyland goes further and (1996) ranges a number of reasons for the functions of hedges in scientific texts:

1. Firstly, hedges allow writers to express propositions with greater precision, recognizing the impossibility of exactly quantifying the world.

2. Secondly, hedges allow writers to anticipate possible negative consequences of being proved wrong.

3. Finally, hedges help writers to develop a relationship with the reader, addressing affective expectations in gaining acceptance for claims (p.478-479).

In line with Hyland, Salager-Meyer (1994) points out some reasons for the hedging. Referring to Salager-Meyer (1993) and Banks (1994), she writes the following statements :

“[h]edging may present the true state of the writer ’s understanding and may be used to negotiate an accurate representation of the state of the knowledge under discussion. In fact, academic writers may well wish to reduce the strength of claims simply because stronger statements would not be justified by the experimental data presented. In such cases researchers are not saying less than what they mean but are rather saying precisely what they mean by not overstating their experimental results”. (Salager-Meyer, 1993, as cited by Salager-Mayer, 1994,p.162 cited in Ghazanfari and Abassi, 2012, p.145).

The terms hedges and hedging generally refer to a large class of lexical and syntactic features of text that have the goal of modifying and mitigating a proposition (Leech, 1983; Levinson, 1983; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985 cited in Hinkel, 2005, p. 29).

The notion of hedging is first introduced by Lakoff (1972). He indicates that “natural language sentences are very often neither true, nor false, nor nonsensical, but rather true to a certain extent and false to a certain extent, true in certain respects and false in other respects” and refers to hedges as “words whose job is to make things more or less fuzzy” (1972; p.183; cited in Shim, 2005, p. 49 cited in Yağız 2009, p. 54). According to Swales (1990) "hedges are rhetorical devices used for projecting honesty, modesty and proper caution in self-reports and for diplomatically creating space in areas heavily populated by other researchers."(p.175). In addition to this, hedges have also been seen as a way of anticipating the possible negative consequences of overstatement

and the eventual overthrow of a claim (Hyland, 1996b & 1998a; Nash, 1990; Salager-Meyer, 1994 cited in Hyland, 1998, p.4).

In academic texts, hedging serves for a number of social and rhetorical goals and it can get different linguistic forms entailing adverbs, adjectives, modal and mental/emotive verbs, and conjunctions (Hinkel, 2004). Chystal (1987 cited in Behnam et al., 2012, p.21) puts forwards the reasons for why we need hedges:

1. People intentionally do not like to be precise all the time.
2. Sometimes, specifically in scientific writings, the writer understands that the audience needs only "half truth".
3. Using hedge words can act as safe guard, impeding further questions.

The literature on hedging includes various definitions and classifications to clarify highly complex and culturally bounded context of hedges. Hedges are considered within the scope of culture since studies show the deep and obvious effect of culture on the writers' choices of presenting their claims. Therefore, while teaching academic writing to L2 students, the necessary attention should be given underlying the effect of culture; however, in ESL and EAP courses, such metadiscursive resources are neglected though the point that "the use of hedges are highly conventionalized in academic writing and practically requisite expressions of personal positions or points of views" (Hinkel, 2004, p.314). For example, Hyland (1996) states that rather than saying X causes Y, it is more acceptable to say X may cause Y.

Salager- Meyer (1996) suggests five types of hedges as follows (p.7):

1.Shields	all modal verbs expressing possibility ; semi-auxiliaries (e.g., appear, seem, probability adverbs(e.g., probably, likely) epistemic verbs(e.g., suggest, speculate)
2.Approximators:	Word(s) or phrases describing quantity, degree, frequency and time(e.g., <i>approximately, roughly, somewhat, quite, often, Occasionally</i>
3.Author' s doubt and involvement	Word(s) or phrases expressing authors' personal doubt and direct involvement(e.g., <i>I believe, to our knowledge, it is our view that</i>
4.Emotionally-charged intensifiers	comment words used to project the authors 'reactions(e.g., <i>extremely difficult/interesting, dishearteningly weak, of particular importance, particularly encouraging, unexpectedly, surprisingly.</i>
5.Compound hedges	Composition of strings of hedges(e.g., <i>It may suggest that ...; "it could be suggested that, It would seem Likely that ..., it seems reasonable to assume, It would seem somewhat unlikely that</i>

Figure 4.1. Hedges types

In fact, presenting a degree of uncertainty is sometimes regarded as a situation of unbelieving scholars' own ideas and results. However, as Hyland (1996) states these views are not so common in literature where hedges are accepted as being adverse factors. For example, Durik et al. (2008) conducted a study with two different experiments. The results showed that the use of hedges creates negative attitudes towards policy, source, and argument. On the contrary, second experiment clarified that the use of colloquial instead of professional hedges in interpretation sections leads to a less adverse that is negative effect. According to many people, the task of scholars is to

transmit the knowledge clearly and accurately. Nevertheless, as aforementioned, there are a number of rationales for scholars not being too explicit and precise all the time. For example, they can think of the consequences of their studies as inadequate or they do not want to demonstrate certainty about the issues they are arguing. Concisely, it is not the issue that is the only problem, it is also of great importance to present the results obtained in an appropriate way that is acceptable by the academia (Behnam et al., 2012); therefore, scholars are prone to act attentively in expressing the limitations of the results of their studies (Yang, 2013). In his study, Jensen (2008) provided an example for this approach. He found that appropriate hedging use could enhance the reliability of the results. Scholars indicating the limitations of their studies are accepted with more credibility since “science favors a more self-critical style of communication that may alter the norms of communication” (p.362).

In contrast with this research several studies have displayed that powerless language that included the use of hedges, such as those probably, kind of, sort of, and possibly undermined persuasion and/or perceptions of the source and message (Carli, 1990; Gibbons, Busch, & Bradac, 1991; Holtgraves & Lasky, 1999; Hosman, 1989; Hosman, Huebner & Siltamen, 2002 cited in Durik et al., 2008, p.2). The hedges are thought of undermining the strength of claims making the language more powerless; though, in most studies they are required as a result of nature of science including a probabilistic approach.

Given the results and aims, Durik et al., (2008) also lead to a different perspective in terms of the effect of place and types of hedges within the texts since in academic prose, hedges are not equally positioned. Scholars prefer to use hedges in discussion sections while they are comparing their data with the results of other studies especially in interpretation stages. On the other hand, the presence of hedges in methodology and result sections may not be acceptable. Their studies argue that hedges decrease the certainty of data while in the mean time they cannot absolutely reject the necessity of hedges in appropriate ways without affecting the persuasiveness and reliability of the study.

2.5.1.Hedging and Second Language Learners

Academic writing is a daunting task for scholars and has its own rules and conventions which are required to be applied if scholars want to produce and publish highly qualified papers. However, when the point is non-native speakers or L2 learners, then the challenges academic writing imposes on writers become more complex and problematic. At tertiary level, the idea that students have to be qualified writers producing well -structured academic manuscripts, are imposed on graduate students. Nevertheless, when they begin to engage in graduate research, they do not become professional writers immediately in an automatic way (Yağız, 2009). Academic writing is an ongoing procedure beginning with a basic level, and then as the procedure develops it becomes more challenging (Swales and Feak, 2009).

At tertiary level, it is necessary for foreign language teachers to make the L2 learners be aware of the norms of academic style (Bayyurt, 2010). Amongst these norms, metadiscoursal features seem to be a major matter. The necessity of teaching L2 scholars how to use hedges accurately has been emphasized in teacher education as well as the books which were published; however, in spite of the importance of hedges in research and the materials available for teachers who are teaching academic writing for L2 learners, most of the student books deal with hedging either too concisely or do not include them as a topic (Hinkel, 2005); therefore, their awareness should be increased about the way native students structure their writings (Bonyadi et al., 2012). While writing in both their native language and second or foreign language, students employ various metadiscoursal properties to establish their voice for their argument. To state more explicitly, we can say that in general, writers are required to present their ideas in a persuasive way, but achieving this purpose becomes more difficult when they write in a second or foreign language. When scholars are not totally sure about their claims then they need to employ metadiscoursal strategies. As said earlier, hedges and intensifiers are two of these properties that help writers define their approach to the topic or argument. If they are not conscious about these strategies, it is possible for writers to include them inadequately (Bayyurt, 2010). Moreover, studies on academic writing support the notion that there are differences in terms of scholarly writing process by native and non-native speakers due to the possibility that L2 writers can use translation

phenomenon exaggeratedly (Akcaoglu, 2011). There are many factors given as reasons for the problems non-native writers experience. Vocabulary knowledge is one of the most common one for L2 writers' problems in expressing their ideas because scientific writing entails a deep vocabulary knowledge (Yağız, 2009; Gürel, 2010). Therefore, their lexical competence affects the quality of writing because they do not have the necessary knowledge on audience awareness, rhetorical patterns, coherence, tones, and the composition skills and strategies which are crucial elements of education programs in English speaking countries (Wang and Bakken, 2004). All of these inadequacies of learners have an impact on the hedging strategies they employ in scholarly writing. Accurate hedge use can make it easier for L2 writers improve scholarly discussions and create a well-established relationship with the target audience and due to that to have a proficiency on this issue is of importance for L2 learners at universities (Hyland, 1996). Being aware of the line between facts and opinions and deciding the certainty degree of the claims are the core point of academic papers; however, this generates a troubled area for second language learners (Hyland, 2000b). When compared to native speakers, non-native learners use hedges less frequently, though, learners with high proficiency in L2 employ hedges more than native speakers (Sundquist, 2013). "L2 learners may leave their speech unhedged and focus only on conveying referential information, possibly because of a lack of awareness of the role of hedging" (Nikula, 1997, p.188). Studies also examine the effect EAP courses on L2 learners' development of hedging use. For example, Wishnoff (2000) aimed to examine the effect of planned and less planned treatment on metapragmatic awareness of non-native learners. Comparing the data obtained from control and experimental group, he found significant increase in hedging use of learners in the treatment group.

As mentioned earlier, there are studies searching the hedging tendencies of native and non-native writers. A considerable number of these comparative studies yield similar and consistent results with each other. However, hedges are not the only strategies these studies seek to investigate, intensifiers such as boosters are also explored because these strategies constitute a whole in terms of defining writers' stance in the academic texts they produce. In addition to this, one of the common points of these studies is the cultural approach because cultural perceptions about scientific rules and their reflections can be seen easily in the papers produced by the writers.

Hinkel (2005) examined the frequencies and types of hedges and intensifiers used by native and non-native writers. She analyzed the L1 academic essays written by NSs and L2 academic essays produced by Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Indonesian, Vietnamese and Arabic writers. As a result, she found that non-native writers employed hedging devices less than native speakers of English.

In another more recent similar study, Peng (2014) investigated the effect of hedging use at the beginning and mid of EAP courses. The results did not indicate great differences between control and experimental group, though the significant number of hedges used in the papers of experimental group. As the literature shows comparative studies provide a deep understanding about the hedging strategies, hedging use and L2 learners' perception about these metadiscourse features in terms of academic writing; however, more studies are required to bring new insights to our understanding of the conception of hedging, mainly new foci on various aspects of the issue encapsulating the developmental process of L2 learners as they become more proficient L2 users. Revealing the operation of this process step by step will yield valuable data for academic writing studies dealing with L2 learners. Moreover, there is not a very great difference between native and non-native writers' product as well as the certain differences. Blagojevic (2004) as a result of his study comparing the academic prose written by English and Norwegian writers argues that Norwegians do not need to be afraid of being got wrong by international readers who are familiar with the conventions of English academic prose and despite the effect of being from different cultural backgrounds there are also similarities that academic prose has in common .

2.5.1.1.Hedging in EFL Texts Written by Turkish Scholars

There appear a few studies investigating the use of metadiscursive features in EFL texts written by native speakers of Turkish. These studies generally compare hedging, boosting and attitude markers used in the texts produced by Turkish speakers and native ones. Most of them analyze metadiscoursal properties as a whole rather than just searching hedges or boosters.

Can (2006) investigated the similarities and differences in argumentative essays written in English by monolingual American, monolingual Turkish and bilingual

Turkish students and essays written in Turkish by bilingual Turkish students in terms of organizational patterns and metadiscoursal features. He compared the frequencies of metadiscursive properties and found that monolingual American students use hedges less than the other two groups while hedges are most frequently used in monolingual Turkish students' essays.

More studies are entailed which search the use of hedging in Turkish scientific articles. In Turkish context, unfortunately, hedging studies are very limited; thus, conducting research within Turkish context is of considerable value because if we have data and results obtained from studies examining the academic prose tendencies of L1 writers, it will be possible and easier to compare the perceptions of writers about the conventions of academic discourse since it is a well-known fact that writers' L1 have a great influence on their L2 writing proficiency. Then, we can be aware of the possible effects of L1 on L2 (Bayyurt, 2010). Doyuran's (2009) study is of absolute significance in contributing to the literature by filling the gaps of hedging in Turkish academic prose. In her study, she aimed to determine the distribution of main forms and purposes of hedging in Turkish research articles from two fields: geological engineering and linguistics. As a result of her study she found that both of the disciplines employ hedging devices and there are not considerable differences among them. The results also displayed disciplinary variations which show the interpretative nature of social sciences. Consequently, Doyuran emphasizes the necessity of hedging in making claims and presenting results in the following way:

Writing as an engineer or as a linguist means to be able to talk to your readers in ways they are likely to find convincing. On the basis of present results, it can be argued that by using hedges writers signal to the readers that what is said should not be perceived as the only possible interpretation. It is clear that the use of hedges in academic discourse regulated norms and general rules of communication of particular disciplines and it is not possible to understand the hedge phenomenon in isolation from institutional context (p.98).

As a results of this study it can be concluded that hedging phenomenon cannot be exactly defined and explained without taking the factors such as disciplinary variations and conventions peculiar to these disciplines into considerations.

In her study which is an extended version of Can's (2006) research, Bayyurt (2010) investigated the hedging devices and intensifiers employed by Turkish undergraduate students. In the study, students were asked to write essays in English and Turkish in different times. The obtained data from students' essays showed that they used hedges more than intensifiers in their papers. "They preferred to hedge their statements to obscure their authorial identity while advancing their opinions" (Bayyurt 2010:179). She also encourages for further research indicating the noteworthy of investigating the use of hedges and intensifiers more deeply within Turkish context to provide a deeper understanding. Therefore, she points to academic writing curriculum which should underline the need of increasing students' awareness level about being more clear while both writing in English and Turkish. Finally Bayyurt's results are seen as consistent with the studies of Can (2006), Doyuran (2009) and Algı (2012).

Most of the studies conducted within EFL context analyze either the whole articles or specific sections. However, it seems as a result of a thorough literature review that the only study dealing with abstract and hedging factor in abstracts sections of MA theses written in English by Turkish students in the field of biology, chemistry, English language teaching and international relations and political science is the one carried out by Ekoç (2010). As different from aforementioned studies there are not any comparison of nativeness in this study. The data obtained did not show significant differences in spite of the disciplinary variations. The use of hedges in these MA theses display the effect of different conventions which are employed as the discipline specific rules.

In a comparative study, Algı (2012) aimed to investigate the types, functions and frequencies of hedges and boosters in the argumentative papers written by Turkish EFL learners who are at intermediate level. The results revealed that the frequency, types and meanings of hedges and boosters are formed in accordance with culture and language

A more recent study similar with the given ones is Yağız and Özdemir's (2014) comparative research examining the research articles written by native writers of English and non-native writers (Turkish). The results are consistent with the literature on the issue and displayed that native writers employ more hedging devices while writing than the non-native ones. Moreover, Uysal (2014) conducted a study comparing

conference abstracts of Indian, Japanese, Turkish (NNS) and, and Anglo-Americans(NS). The main purpose of her study was examining the effect of culture on hedging and indirectiveness of writers and therefore, if researchers want to obtain data about the cultural factors, then, it is a necessity to conduct the research in the culture that they are searching (Yağız and Özdemir, 2014).

Concisely, the given studies concluded with similar results and they showed the effect of culture and language on the use of metadiscoursal properties and they always emphasized the need for further research.

2.5.2.Cultural Variations in Hedging Use

Differences between L1 and L2 writing deeply influence the scholars' writing styles. These differences are mainly based on linguistic and cultural variations which make the academic writing as a daunting task for scholars who are required to write and produce texts in a foreign or second language to have credibility in academia. Hinkel (2004) referencing different studies acknowledges that these variations appear in almost all aspects of scientific discourse including;

- discourse and rhetorical organization
 - ideas and content of writing
 - rhetorical modes(e.g., exposition, narration, and argumentation)
 - reliance on external knowledge and information.
 - references to sources of knowledge and information
 - assumptions about the reader's knowledge and expectations(e.g., references to assumed common knowledge and familiarity with certain classical works)
 - the role of audience in discourse and text production, as well as, the appraisal of the expected discourse and text complexity(e.g., reader vs. writer responsible texts)
 - discourse and text cohesion
 - employment of linguistic and rhetorical features of formal written text
- (p.10).

Firstly, scholars' cultural backgrounds define their approaches to scientific writing arising from the different conventions and rules each discourse community has. Hedging constitutes the most clear point where cultural variations can be seen exactly. It

was concluded that native English speakers use hedges more frequently than speakers of other languages (Yang, 2013). There appear a considerable number of studies searching linguistic and cultural variations. For example, English and Chinese scientific articles were compared by Yang (2013). Yang concentrated on three types of texts namely articles written by English scholars, articles written by Chinese scholars in English and articles written in English. As a result, it was found that the use and frequency of hedges in English medium journals are more than in articles written in English by Chinese writers and articles written by Chinese scholars in Chinese medium journal. Moreover the most frequently hedged section is result and discussion while method is the least frequently hedged section. That is, the types, use and frequency of hedges vary in parallel with the aim and content of sections of articles. It is certain that rhetorical conventions and linguistic devices are greatly affected by cultural norms since Chinese authors mark an authoritative tone while presenting the results and demonstrating the claims in contrast to English authors who are encouraged by their scientific community for toning down their claims.

Given the results, it is very clear that most of the studies compare the hedges used in articles written by native and non-native scholars. However these studies feature markedly on namely discussion, conclusion sections. More studies are required mainly for abstract sections of RAs due to the functions of these sections which require more and comprehensive studies.

2.5.3. Hedging Studies on Research Articles

The reasons for teaching how to use hedging devices effectively in academic writing and also the practical dimension of conducting large scale studies including cross linguistic and cross disciplinary studies seem to be not enough especially in terms of abstract sections of research articles. For example, to our best knowledge, discussion parts of research articles are the most definite parts where hedging strategies are used heavily since researchers are commenting on the results of their studies in the meantime comparing the results with other studies which requires to be careful while speaking in an argumentative way. It is proper to say that "hedging is inevitable and writers need to learn what kinds of assertion should be hedged, e.g. criticism of others" works, which

should be strengthened by means of appropriate linguistic tools" (Lewin, 2005 cited in Yağız, 2009, p.57; Yağız, 2012, p.1267).

Researchers have studied hedges from various approaches and focused on specific genre types, revealing functions and characteristics of hedges in textbooks and student discourse (Myers, 1992; Hyland, 1996a), economic texts (Bloor and Bloor, 1993; Donohue, 2006; McLaren-Hankin, 2008), medical discourse (Salager-Meyer, 1994; Varttala, 1999), research article abstracts (Gillaerts and Van de Velde, 2010; Hu and Cao, 2011), and molecular genetics articles (Myers, 1989; Hyland, 1994). Among these genre types, the functions of hedges in written discourse, especially in scientific discourse, have become the focal point for a considerable number of studies (Yang, 2013, p. 24). A considerably important number of studies have been devoted to the use of hedges in academic texts and most of these studies have focused on cross-cultural and cross-linguistic differences in terms of hedging use which indicates the effect and importance of culture and discipline related factors.

The studies on hedges mainly focus on discussion and conclusion sections of research articles because these are the sections where scholars need to make serious comments (e.g. Burrough Boenisch, 2005; Bonyadi et al, 2012; Behnam et al, 2012). Nevertheless, expressing a degree of certainty and caution is a challenging task for both L1 and L2 learners (Hyland & Milton, 1997). This demanding aspect of academic prose requires more continuity and effort for L2 learners in most of the discourse communities because hedges are not regarded as important as in Anglo-American discourse traditions.

In fact, generally the lexical proficiency of L2 learners are limited in terms of hedging devices and always employing the same hedges lead to a repetition in the text (Hinkel, 2004). For foreign scholars, it is still problematic to use hedges in their studies while presenting their claims; therefore, more cross-cultural studies are required to be conducted on hedging which may yield valuable results that can be used in academic writing courses to make scholars be aware of the appropriate scientific style in making claims and comparing their claims with other studies. Most of the studies show that native scholars tend to use more hedging devices than non-native ones, and there appear various factors in this difference including cultural and linguistic variations.

For example, in their studies comparing RA abstracts in the field of applied linguistic abstracts published in English and Chinese medium journals, Hu and Cao (2011) compared the use of not only hedges but also boosters based on a large corpus of 609 RA abstracts collected from 8 applied linguistic journals. The result showed that more hedges were used in English medium journals than the ones published in Chinese medium journals.

Differences are also available between qualitative and quantitative studies. For example, Behnam et al. (2012) analyzed the discussion sections of 100 qualitative and quantitative research articles employing Hyland's taxonomy to define and classify the hedges as well as applying t-test for a comparison of the number of hedging devices. As a result, they concluded that there are statistically important differences in terms of hedge uses between qualitative and quantitative studies.

In a very comprehensive study, Hyland (1998) analyzed the use of hedges in four different texts. He examined three short texts and a research article as a whole. First, he studied hedging in an introduction section. He concluded that in this section hedges undertake two different roles v as helping the writers establish their studies by evaluating the existing literature and then lead the scholars to demonstrate the significance of their research and its contribution to the field. In this respect, they use hedges as a means of arguing the innovation of the studies. The second text was the result section where Hyland found the hedging use as a tactic for presenting and interpreting these results cautiously. Controversial claims were the third section. Hyland states that in general, controversial issues are at the risk of creating great challenges since what the writer claims will be against a commonly accepted phenomenon. In the selected text, Hyland found the frequent use of modal verbs, adverbs, epistemic lexical verbs, indefinite quantifiers and words that are used for controlling the limitation of the claims. Consequently, at this part the desired purpose of hedging use is expressing and controlling the claims cautiously. A whole research article constituted Hyland's final analysis. Through the whole article, he defined discussion sections as the part in which hedges were used most condensely. This study is of importance in bringing new insights to the rationale of hedging use in academic texts. Consciously or unconsciously, it is clear that the tendency for hedging use is in the nature of academic, that is scholarly writing.

2.5.3.1. Hedging studies on research article abstracts

A substantial body of research has been devoted to the analysis of rhetorical moves in research article abstracts. However, recently rhetorical strategies and key linguistic features used in abstracts have also aroused great interest. For example, the use of hedges and boosters in RA abstracts have been studied.

According to Hyland (1998), "the purpose of hedging is to reduce the writer's commitment to the truthfulness of a statement" (cited in Hinkel, 2004, p.313).

For example, in a comparative study of English and Chinese medium journals exploring the use of hedge and boosters of applied linguistics articles, Hu & Cao (2011) found that hedges are used more commonly in English -medium journals than abstracts published in the Chinese medium counterparts and boosters are more frequently used in Chinese abstracts published in Chinese - medium journals. This study implies that socio cultural factors can be shown as reasons for the changes in the use of hedges and boosters between languages. As one of the most common rhetorical strategies of scholars, epistemological and social factors increase the use of hedging (Koutsantoni,2006). Therefore, especially for non-native speakers, academic writing is challenging. They encounter with great difficulty while using English for academic purposes. They are also required to comply with the rules and conventions of their scientific discourse community as well as the difficulties they face due to writing in a foreign language (Daryell, 2009) and across academic disciplines communication practices differ (Hyland, 2006). Thus, academics need to acquire the awareness of these differences, since 'scientific discourse is not universal' (Martin-Martin, 2003, p.37) and it is a must for them to have a good command of scholarly writing in order to master advanced writing skills which will develop L2 proficiency level of writers.

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1.Introduction

This chapter presents the methodology used in the study in order to investigate the move structure and stance of the writers in the abstracts written by Turkish and foreign scholars in the field of ELT. It begins with the research questions of the study, then an explanation of the research design giving the benefits of employing mixed method approach. Thirdly, data sources are presented. Finally, the analysis procedures of qualitative and quantitative data are explained.

3.2. Research Questions

The main aim of the current study is to answer the following questions.

1. What are the writing tendencies of abstracts of the published articles in ELT ?
2. What are the major moves in target texts?
3. Are there any variations in the use of tense, hedging and moves in abstracts of published articles written by foreign and Turkish writers in ELT journals?
4. Does the comprised of RAs abstracts of foreign and Turkish writers in ELT reveal any variations in the total number of hedging use?

3.3.Research Design

In the present study, the researcher followed mixed method research design. “A mixed method research design is a procedure for collecting, analyzing, and “mixing” both quantitative and qualitative methods in a single study or a series of studies to understand a research problem” (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011 cited in Creswell, 2012, p.535).It is assumed that using a mix of quantitative and qualitative data will provide a

more comprehensive understanding for the research problem than just using one of the methods(Creswell, 2012).

In mix method research design, the researcher uses the qualitative research paradigm for one phase of a research study and the quantitative research paradigm for another phase of the study(Johnson and Christensen, 2004, p. 48).

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) in their study called ‘Mixed methods research: a research paradigm whose time has come’, has clearly explained the importance of mixed method research as follows:

Our purpose in writing this article is to present mixed methods research as the third research paradigm in educational research. We hope the field will move beyond quantitative versus qualitative research arguments because, as recognized by mixed methods research, both quantitative and qualitative research are important and useful. The goal of mixed methods research is not to replace either of these approaches but rather to draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both in single research studies and across studies. If you visualize a continuum with qualitative research anchored at one pole and quantitative research anchored at the other, mixed methods research covers the large set of points in the middle area. If one prefers to think categorically, mixed methods research sits in a new third chair, with qualitative research sitting on the left side and quantitative research sitting on the right side (p.14-15)

In more simple terms, it can be said that using mixed research design will lead us to more comprehensive results decreasing the weakness of the both methods. The above mentioned strengths of mixed method design provided the rationale for this study. To get more reliable, general results, it was determined to employ this method.

3.4. Data Source

3.4.1. Corpus

The corpus consisted of 100 research article abstracts written in English in ELT field. These research articles are written by Turkish and foreign writers in English, 50 by NNSs (Turkish writers) and 50 by foreign writers. In this study only research

articles written in ELT field were chosen and analyzed because of the possible effect of disciplinary variations.

Only empirical research article abstracts were used in the study being aware of the fact that rhetorical organization and linguistic elements of empirical and theoretical RA abstracts show substantial differences (Pho, 2008).

The articles were selected randomly from journals published between 2010 and 2014 years.

Journals from which Turkish writers' articles were selected include Novitas Royal, Hacettepe University Journal of Education, EKEV Academy Journal, Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies (JLLS) and Journal of Language Teaching and Research (JLTR). The corpus of foreign writers covers the journals: TESOL Quarterly (TQ) , System Journal, English Language Teaching Journal (ELT), Modern Language Journal (MLJ).

Concisely the selection criteria for the articles can be given as:

1. The articles chosen are all empirical studies published in the field of English Language Teaching.

2. Authors of foreign articles were chosen based on the criteria of their possibility of being native or native like speakers of English. Their being native speakers was not ensured being in contact with them. Certain criteria were established for the selection including their names, nationalities and the universities they are working in. Articles of scholars working in western top universities were preferred.

3.4.2. Participants

12 academics who have at least MA degree in ELT were involved in the present study. The interviewees were taken from the same discipline since the present study did not aim to make comparison of different disciplines. The participants were required to have at least MA degree because in order to answer the questions, they are entailed to have declared a major area of study (a thesis or dissertation and a written assignment or articles etc.). They should have an established knowledge on constructing scientific papers which can be a thesis or dissertation or an article for

which they should write an abstract. Therefore, all of the participants attended master programs and their major field is English Language Teaching. The percentage of female participants forms 58, 8 % of the total number (N=7) and the percentage of male participants is 41,6 % (N=5). The participants were chosen from different universities in which they work either as research assistants or lecturers.

In fact, the analysis of the abstracts searching their linguistic and rhetorical features yields significant results to have a comprehensive insight on how academic conventions are applied in practice while structuring abstracts. However, using semi-structured interviews as well as the aforementioned data sources can produce more detailed results about the gap between theory and practice of L2 learners whose application of L2 academic rules may be considerably different when compared to L1 writers. To have a deeper understanding of participants' approaches and ideas about abstract writing, their authorial stance in these abstracts and general thoughts on the process of scholarly writing and publishing, interviews with open ended questions were also used as the another tool in data collection procedure. The interviews were analyzed qualitatively. "Qualitative research is often exploratory; that is, it is often used when little is known about a certain topic or when an inductive approach is deemed more appropriate to learn more about a topic"(Johnson and Christensen, 2004, p.30).

Interviews, which can take different formats are powerful tools in providing deep insights on the problems, were employed in the current study. As for the criteria for choosing the participants, we established three main criteria respectively, working in the field of ELT, having at least a master's degree and some writing experiences such as thesis, dissertations, research articles or any other academic papers.

3.5.Data Collection Procedure

Interview questions were sent to the participants through e-mail with a consent form which underlined that participants' confidentiality and anonymity were assured by the writer. Of the 12 participants, 5 were males and 7 were females. The interviews were just administrated with participants involved in the field of ELT having at least a graduate level of degree of master of art.

As for the collection of another qualitative data, 100 research article abstracts published between 2010-2014 years, were used in the analysis procedure. This corpus of 100 research articles was published by foreign writers and Turkish writers, 50 articles by each group, in the field of English Language Teaching. The research article abstracts were chosen randomly from various journals published in ELT. In the study, only the abstracts written in ELT were analyzed because the purpose of the study was not making a comparison across disciplines or sub-disciplines. In addition to this, this corpus comprised only empirical studies rather than theoretical studies or reviews. The rationale for this choice was that rhetorical structure of theoretical abstracts may be different from empirical ones (Tseng, 2011).

As to the collection of quantitative data, again the aforementioned corpus consisted of 100 articles was analyzed. These articles' being empirical and being published in ELT field were also of importance for the analysis of hedging types because hedging and other author positioning properties are considered to vary from discipline to discipline (Hyland, 2005b). In the study, Crompton's suggestion including nine hedge types was used to define the hedges used in the abstracts.

3.6.Data Analysis

3.6.1. Analysis of Qualitative Data

In order to analyze the move patterns of the abstracts, Hyland's (2000a) model of classification was used. The model includes introduction, purpose, method, product and conclusion. In the study, Hyland's model was chosen due to the fact that in this model a distinction was made between introduction and purpose moves. The second factor was that Hyland's model was developed based on large scale corpora taken from diverse disciplines. In order to evaluate the validity of the model for the abstracts analyzed, a pilot study was conducted. In this pilot study, two raters (one of them is the researcher herself) analyzed twenty research article abstracts, ten abstracts from each group. Analyzing these abstracts using Hyland's model displayed that for the abstracts chosen from the field of ELT, introduction-purpose-method-product and conclusion moves were appropriate and thus this model was determined to be used for the analysis. Table 3.1 shows Hyland's (2000) classification (p.67).

Table 3.1.

Hyland's (2000a) Classification of Rhetorical Moves in Article Abstracts

Move	Function
Introduction:	Establishes context of the paper and motives the research or discussion.
Purpose :	Indicates purpose, thesis or hypothesis, outlines the intention behind the paper.
Method :	Provides information on design, procedures, assumption, approach, data, etc.
Product :	States main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished.
Conclusion :	Interprets or extends results beyond scope of paper, draws inferences, points to applications or wider implications.

Another point that the study investigated was the tense use in each move found in abstracts. The purpose was to find the most frequently preferred tense use employed by foreign and Turkish writers. Each move was carefully examined one by one. The analysis procedure was as follows. If a move is formed as a sentence, then the verb tense of that sentence is accepted as the verb tense of this move. Secondly, if a move is presented by a clause or phrase, then, the verb tense of this move was not included in the analysis of the data. Thirdly, if a move is presented by more than a sentence that includes both present simple, present perfect and past simple, then each of the tense was used in the analysis procedure (Tseng, 2011). The researcher took the embedded moves into consideration and focused on each tense one by one that was chosen by writers including present simple, past simple, present perfect. In fact, some studies do not distinguish present simple and present perfect presenting these two tenses under the title of present simple as in the study of Tseng (2011). In the study, Tseng focused on two main tenses: present simple covering present perfect, and past simple. However, in the current study, the researcher did not favor this approach because using present simple or present perfect in moves should not be accepted just a grammatical choice. These two tenses serve for different communicative purposes. Swales and Feak (2009) explain this point with 'liveliness' noting that choosing present tense option- if permitted- can produce an effect of liveliness and contemporary relevance (p.284). Therefore, the appropriateness of tense choice should be in parallel with the communicative purpose of the move.

3.6.2. Analysis of Quantitative Data

Different classifications are available for hedging uses. In the present study, hedging devices were defined taking their functions into consideration as well as Crompions' suggestion (1997). These nine hedge types are as follows:

1. Adverbs of Frequency: frequently, usually, often, occasionally, weekly, ever, never, rarely, invariably etc.
2. Quantifiers: all, some, a few, a bit, a good deal, all, many etc.
3. Epistemic Modality Verbs : a) ability & possibility: can, may, might, could, be able to etc. b) obligation & necessity: must, should, need to, to be to etc. c) prediction: will, would
4. Epistemic Lexical Verbs: to seem, to appear, to believe, to assume, to suggest, to estimate, to tend, to think, to argue, to indicate, to propose, to speculate
5. Adjectives & Adverbs: a) formal: slightly, presumably, relatively, somehow, merely, actually, partly etc. b) informal: almost, at all, enough, only, pretty, quite, basically, at least etc.
6. Nouns: assumption, claim, possibility, estimate, suggestion
7. Conversational & Informal : anyway, in a way, kind of, more or less, like, sort of, maybe etc.
8. Introductory Phrases: it is our view that, we feel that
9. Vague References: as we all know, as is known, as people say, as the reader knows etc. (Yağız and Özdemir, 2014, p.262).

Using the nine hedge types, hedges in the abstracts were found one by one by researcher. Then, the frequencies of these hedges were calculated. The data were analyzed through Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Program (SPSS 22.00). The next step was to determine whether there was a statistical difference between Turkish and foreign writers in terms of hedging use. To determine the statistical differences in terms of these nine hedge types among the Turkish and foreign scholars, Chi-Square test was applied. Chi-square test is among the most widely employed tests used frequently in biology, cryptography and other areas (Ryabko et al., 2004). “The term *chi-square test* technically describes any inferential test that involves a critical value being pulled from or a data-based *p*-value being tied to one of the many chi-square distributions” (Huck, 2012, p.409). It is used to determine whether there is difference between two or more groups.

CHAPTER FOUR

4.RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1.Introduction

This chapter presents the results obtained from the current study and discusses them in the light of the related literature. The results of qualitative and quantitative analysis were given separately.

4.2. Qualitative Analysis

4.2.1.Move Structure

The abstract sections of research articles are generally divided into five moves. The limited number of words and sentences allowed for abstracts greatly influence the distribution of moves. In some articles moves can be embedded due to the constraints about rules of abstract writing which are established by journals where the articles are published in. In this study, abstracts written by Turkish and foreign scholars were analyzed separately, then a comparison was made between the distribution and frequency of moves in the abstracts written by Turkish and foreign scholars in the field of English Language Teaching.

Table 4.1.

Move Structure of Abstracts Written by Foreign Scholars

No	Structure	No	Structure	No	Structure
1	P-M-PRO-C	18	P-M-PRO-C	35	I-P-PRO-C
2	I-P-M/PRO-C	19	I-M-PRO	36	I-P-M-PRO-C
3	I-P/M-PRO-C	20	P-M-PRO-C	37	I-P-M-PRO-C
4	I-P-M-PRO	21	I-P-M-PRO-C	38	P-M-PRO-C
5	I-P-M-C	22	P-M-PRO-C	39	I-P-PRO
6	I-P-M-PRO-C	23	P-M-PRO-C	40	I-P-M-PRO-C
7	P-C	24	P-M-PRO-C	41	P-M-PRO
8	I-P-M-PRO-C	25	P-M-P-PRO	42	I-M-PRO-C
9	P-M/PRO	26	P-M-PRO	43	P-M-PRO-C
10	I-P-PRO	27	I-P/M-PRO	44	P-PRO/M-C
11	P-I-M-PRO-C	28	I-P-M-PRO	45	P-M-PRO
12	I-P/M-PRO-C	29	I-M-PRO	46	I-P-M-PRO-C
13	I-PRO-P-C	30	P-M-PRO-C	47	I-P-M-PRO-C
14	I-P-M-PRO-C	31	P-M-PRO-C	48	I-M/P-PRO
15	I-P-M-PRO	32	P/M-PRO-C	49	I-P-M-PRO-C
16	P-M-PRO	33	P-M-PRO	50	I-P-M-PRO-C
17	P-M-PRO-C	34	P-M-PRO-C		

*I=Introduction P=Purpose M=Method PRO=Product C=Conclusion

Table 4.1 shows the move patterns used by foreign scholars in the abstracts written in ELT. As can be seen from the table, the abstracts do not always begin with introduction move. What attracts attention in table is one of the abstracts in which only two moves were available including purpose and conclusion.

Table 4.2.

Move Structure of Abstracts Written by Turkish Scholars

No	Structure	No	Structure	No	Structure
1	P-M-C	18	I-P-M-PRO	35	P-M-PRO-C
2	P-M-PRO	19	P-M-PRO	36	I-P-M-PRO
3	P-M-PRO	20	I-P-M-PRO	37	P-M-PRO-C
4	P/M-PRO-C	21	P-M-PRO-C	38	I-P-M-PRO
5	P-M-PRO-C	22	I-P-M-C	39	P-M-PRO
6	P-M-PRO-C	23	P-M-PRO-C	40	P-I-M-PRO
7	I-P-M-PRO	24	I-P-M-PRO	41	P-M-PRO
8	P-M-PRO	25	P-M-PRO	42	I-P-M-PRO-C
9	P-M-PRO	26	I-P/M-PRO	43	I-P-M-C
10	I-P-M-PRO-C	27	I-P-M-PRO	44	I-P-M-PRO-C
11	I-P-M-PRO-C	28	I-P-M-PRO-C	45	P-M-PRO-C
12	P-M-PRO	29	I-P/M-PRO-C	46	I-P-M-PRO-C
13	P-M-PRO	30	P-M-PRO	47	P-M-PRO
14	P/M-PRO	31	I-P-M-PRO	48	P-M-PRO
15	P-M-PRO	32	I-P-M-PRO	49	I-P-PRO
16	P-I-M-PRO	33	P-M-PRO	50	P-M-PRO-C
17	P-M-PRO-C	34	P-M-PRO-C		

Table 4.2 displays the move structure employed in abstracts written by Turkish scholars in the field of ELT. As in the first table, there again appear abstracts which begin either with introduction or purpose and do not follow the usual order.

Table 1 and 2 show that substantial variations are present in terms of the most frequent move patterns used in the abstracts of foreign and Turkish writers. The most frequent move patterns preferred by foreign writers include respectively I-P-M-PRO-C, P-M-PRO-C and finally P-M-PRO. It was found that most of the abstracts follow five move patterns as Hyland's (2000a) model suggests. On the other hand, the most frequent move patterns preferred by Turkish writers respectively were P-M-PRO and equally P-M-PRO-C and I-P-M-PRO. The pattern which includes five moves, I-P-M-

PRO-C is not as frequent as in the abstracts written by foreign writers. In general, Turkish writers follow a three move pattern. It is seen that introduction move is of great significance for foreign writers because it is the key point that constitutes the foundation of abstracts and argument of research is motivated by this section (Hyland, 2000a).

Different from the results of the present research, in their studies Usaha and Suntura (2013) analyzed abstracts from the two related disciplines, Linguistics and Applied Linguistics employing Hyland's (2000) five move model and found that in both of the disciplines the most frequent model is P-M-PRO-C and these results are consistent with the data obtained from the corpus of foreign writers

What Ren and Li (2011) found in their studies is the increase in the use of introduction move which they compared with Hyland's study in which Hyland revealed that the frequency of introduction move was lower(21%) while the percentages they displayed was higher (52 %.) in their study. In the present study, what is significant is a number of writers' writing style in which they give their studies as a whole including the five moves.

4.2.1.1. Move Frequency

In order to find the rhetorical structure of abstracts in the field of English Language Teaching, Hyland's (2000) model was applied. In the below tables, the occurrences of moves were showed. 50 articles from each group were analyzed and their percentages were also given in the parenthesis.

Table 4.3.

Frequency of Occurrence of Moves

Move	Foreign	Turkish
Introduction	28 (56 %)	22(44%)
Purpose	47 (94%)	50(100%)
Method	44 (88%)	49(98%)
Product	48 (96%)	47(94%)
Conclusion	33 (66%)	21(42%)

Table 4.3 shows the frequency of moves found in the corpus comprised of abstracts written by Turkish and foreign scholars. First of all, we need to decide the conventional and optional moves; however, a certain criterion is not available for defining the moves' being optional and conventional. Moreover, studies are not consistent with each other, a number of studies indicate that if a move occurs over 50% of the texts, then it is conventional while for other studies this percentage is 60% and even sometimes over 80% (Li, 2011). Nevertheless, for most of the studies, 60% is an appropriate percentage (e.g. Li, 2011; Suntara and Usaha, 2013).

In the present study, introduction move was categorized as optional in both of the groups since its frequency is less than 60%. The occurrence of introduction move in the abstracts of Turkish writers is less (44%) when compared to foreign writers (56%). For both of the groups, the move was found to be optional, though the superiority of foreign writers.

Purpose, method and product moves were found to be conventional; however, their percentages differ, mainly in terms of purpose move. All of the abstracts of Turkish scholars include purpose move while the frequency of occurrence of this move is lower (94%) for foreign writers. With a similar proportion, abstracts of Turkish scholars include method move with a very high percentage (98%) and this shows a contrast with foreign writers. On the other hand, the occurrence of product move is more frequent in the abstracts produced by foreign writers.

Finally, conclusion move was found to be optional for Turkish writers (42%) while it was found to be conventional (68%) for foreign writers. The distinction, in fact, is observable and the rate is substantial demonstrating one of the essential components of rhetorical structure employed in articles published by foreign writers. It is of great significance for the foreign writer group to establish a background for the study rather than directing readers' attention immediately to the purpose move.

The increase in the appearance of introduction and conclusion moves is noticed in the recent studies (Suntara and Usaha, 2013). In addition to this, Hyland (2000) adds that there has been an increasing trend for the inclusion of introduction and conclusion moves in abstracts.

The literature analyzing the move structure of abstracts shows that each discipline has its own specific conventions as well as the general academic rules. While interpreting the data obtained from the research, this point cannot be ignored thus comments should be done in parallel with this dimension. Hyland (2004) points out that “credibility, significance and persuasion are community-specific matters” (p.70). Furthermore, as a result of his study, he concluded that scholars in the major of soft disciplines accept it as a need to establish their studies with an introduction in contrast with writers of hard disciplines who give prominence to method move instead of introduction. The present study reveals that foreign writers give more importance to establish a background for their studies rather than directly beginning with purpose or any other move taking the reader into the study without any general explanation based on a fact that can motivate the readers.

4.2.2. Move Structure of Research Article Abstracts Written by Turkish and Foreign Scholars

Hyland’s (2000) model was employed in order to analyze the rhetorical structure of research article abstracts

4.2.2.1. Move 1: Introduction

“Introduction move establishes the context of the paper and motivates the research or discussion” (Hyland, 2000, p.67). While reading the abstract, it is the first sentence readers encounter. A concise introduction can provide a framework for readers establishing the main background of the study and equal in significance, can demonstrate the importance of the study for the target community which also involves the writers’ approach to the problem they are arguing (Hyland, 2000).

One of the considerable role of introduction in abstracts is its function of creating a gap for the research. In the analyzed articles, it was found that both Turkish and foreign writers utilize introduction to indicate the gap in the literature. Samraj’s (2005) study comparing the abstract versus whole articles supports this supposition. She searched the articles from two related disciplines. The results showed that the generic structure of introduction and abstract sections of articles demonstrate great similarities.

In the current study, introduction moves were found to be used generally with a similar purpose in parallel with the existing literature. For example, below the following examples taken from the articles are given which can provide a more concrete framework.

Reading comprehension techniques, specifically inserted adjunct questions, for second language (L2) learners have not been investigated extensively, but the extant research has produced mixed results. Specifically, in some studies adjunct questions have had no effect, whereas in other studies adjunct questions have proven beneficial (Sys, 2013, 49).

Language learning strategies have been researched for more than 30 years yet there remain many unanswered questions. Some of these questions relate to the target language being studied, specifically Japanese, and the influence of learner variables on the choice of language learning strategies, specifically cultural background(Sys, 2010,46).

Feedback in writing has in recent years attracted the attention of an increasing number of writing researchers. While much feedback research focuses on the act of feedback per se, little attention has been paid to the issue of teacher readiness to implement change in feedback.(ELT, 2011,3)

Above mentioned examples are from foreign scholars and show their styles of constructing an introduction section. This point is also valid for Turkish scholars' abstracts, though being less than the abstracts of the first group when the frequency of moves are regarded.

Learner attributions, perceived causes of success and failure, have received considerable attention. However, very little research has been carried out in the area of learning foreign languages(JLTR,2012, 28)

Language education curricula and programs worldwide have begun emphasizing foreign language instruction for learners as young as 5-6 years, particularly in English. Yet, while studies have argued for the benefits of early language instruction, the results of this trend in terms of actual achievement are not clear.(Novitas, 2014, 49)

As shown in the examples, indicating a gap, criticizing the previous research at the introduction sections, researchers try to establish a theoretical framework about why the study is of value being read and how it contributes to the cumulative process of knowledge in the literature. These results seem to be consistent with the previous studies (e.g.Hyland, 2004; Samraj, 2002; Samraj, 2005; Öztürk, 2007; Suntara and Usaha, 2013;) from this perspective.

4.2.2.2.Move 2:Purpose

Hyland (2000) defines purpose move as a way of expressing purpose, thesis or hypothesis, outlines the intention behind the paper. As shown in table 1 all the abstracts in Turkish corpus include purpose move while this percentage is lower (94 %) for foreign writers. These percentages display that purpose move is conventional in both of the groups. When aforementioned table is examined, it can be seen that in both of the groups purpose move is the only one occurring in each abstract and this result is consistent with the previous studies, mainly, with the comparative ones (Pho, 2008; Zand-Vakili and Kashani, 2012; Chalak and Norouzi, 2013; Menesez, 2013).

Reporting verbs and passives are mainly used to signal the purpose moves in abstracts. For example, Li (2011) found that a considerable number of purpose moves in abstracts are expressed impersonally with the use of passive verbs and reporting verbs like *describe*, *detail*, *report* and *present* which may be used as a mark of purpose move.

*This study **reports** on the experience of a group of pre-service teachers of English in a compulsory writing course in the preparatory program of an English language teaching department in the Turkish context.*(JLLS, 2013, 15)

*This study **reports** on findings from an investigation into the reasons for year 1 students from the English Language Teaching Department at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey, for choosing teaching as a field of study and future caree.*(Novitas, 2014,50)

In Turkish context *aim* and *investigate* verbs are the most commonly employed ones for purpose move. However, passive verbs seems not to be frequently chosen among Turkish writers. As following extracts show:

Therefore, this study aimed to determine what language learning strategies the military personnel from different nations used while learning English. (HU, 2014,7)

This study investigated the level, major causes, determining factors of foreign language speaking anxiety and students' perceptions of it in a Turkish EFL context. (JLLS, 2014, 21)

In the purpose move of abstracts written by foreign writers, as we said earlier the percentage is lower than the Turkish writers' corpus. However, the reportive verbs employed in these abstracts are more diverse and different than the Turkish writers' abstracts. Foreign writers mostly use *report*, *describe* and *investigate* verbs which signal the purpose of the study (Yun ,2011).

In his comparative study, Yun (2011) found the purpose move as the opening move in the abstracts. However, in the present study, in nearly half of the abstracts written by foreign writers, purpose move is the opening move. In Turkish corpus, more than half of the abstracts begin with this move. Our study agrees on the assumption with previous studies which emphasize that the function of purpose move is to highlight the key point of the study for readers (Santos, 1996; Martin-Martin, 2003; Li, 2011).

4.2.2.3. Move 3:Method

“It is usually in the method move that the authors offer some description of how the research was actually carried out by indicating the subjects, procedures, materials, instruments, and/or the design of the study”(Yun,2011, p.22). According to Hyland (2000), method move gives information about the design, procedures, assumption, approach and data of the research. As can be seen in the table 4.1, method move is conventional in both of the groups. The percentage is 100% for Turkish abstracts, that is each abstract includes method section while this percentage is 94% for foreign writers.

The following examples from Turkish and foreign writers show the method moves taken from abstracts.

In all, 38 students were surveyed and 13 of these then spent some time working in a language resource center (LRC) with web- and paper based materials. Students then completed a series of questionnaires concerning what they liked and disliked about the two types of materials. Four participants were then interviewed in more detail about their responses. (ELT, 2010,1)

We applied multiple analyses of variance to analyze how motivational variables differ depending on students' social class(Sys, 2013,41)

Pre-test post-test design with control group was used for the research. Jigsaw and team reward techniques were applied in the experimental group including 12 students for eight weeks and the traditional method was carried out in the control group consisting of 12 students. The participants were the learners who attended the general English course at Uşak Public Education Center in 2005 and 2006. The data were collected with FLCAS (Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale) and FLMQ (Foreign Language Motivation Questionnaire). Comparison of the means, Mann Whitney U test and Wilcoxon Signed Rank test were utilized in data analysis (HU, 2013,3)

Accordingly, 43 students at elementary level and four of their instructors in two EFL classrooms took part in the study. These participants were chosen through random sampling. Data were collected through observations, questionnaires to students and teachers, and interviews with a selected sample. (JLLS, 2014,19).

As understood from the examples, while some articles give detailed information about the procedure of the study in method move, other studies just give a sentence for the method section. In fact, for most researchers, a good methodology is what attracts them which persuade the reader about the originality and value of the study.

An important issue for method move is its being embedded with other moves mainly purpose and product. Moves are separated by particular lines. However, they are not always given in discrete boundaries (Halleck and Connor, 2006). There are three different strategies of stating method move embedded with purpose or product move. First one is employing “by” preposition followed by a gerund as in the example “by examining”. The second way is the use of gerunds such as “using”. The last way is again the use of a preposition “through” which is followed by a noun phrase (Suntara and Usaha, 2013). The reason for this can be given as “condensed nature of abstracts, in which one sentence can express more than one communicative purpose” (Suntara and Usaha, 2013, p.90).

Using data gathered from Hong Kong secondary teachers attending a teacher education seminar on feedback in writing, this article investigates teachers’ readiness to implement change in feedback as well as their perceptions of the factors that may facilitate or inhibit change.(ELT, 2011,3)

Quantitative evidence from mouse-click and on-line gloss look-ups by 41 Arabic-speaking and 21 Korean-speaking learners of English as a Second Language (ESL) revealed different behaviors with a web based reading and vocabulary tutor. Qualitative data from class observations, questionnaires, and interview data revealed different cultural views of reading and word learning (Sys, 2014, 44)

The present paper attempts to extend the research carried out for a master degree in rhetorical strategies employed in introductory sections of master theses is put between genders in terms of their perceptions and, in this regard , it proceeds with a hypothesis that claims a significant difference between males and females involved in the field of ELT on the employment of rhetorical strategies in the modified version of Swales’ CARS model.(EKEV, 2014, 14)

This paper, thus, investigates whether the new EFL teacher training curriculum provides an efficient ICT training or not through both a

quantitative and a partially qualitative research methodology.(JLTR, 2012, 29)

In the above mentioned embedded moves, method move is mostly given within purpose move due to the limitations about the abstract writing. It is necessary for writers to offer information about how they conduct the study, what instruments they use, whether their approach is appropriate for the research problem and providing a general framework of this procedure to impose problems on writers. This challenge doubles if the writers need to give all the aforementioned information in one or two sentences. However, our examples showed that some writers give methodology just within a phrase. This choice is also a matter of discipline bounded factor. In social sciences, the methodology is narrated in details since it is considerably important (Swales and Feak, 2009).

4.2.2.4. Move 4:Product

According to Hyland (2000), product move states main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished. As seen from the table 4.1, the percentage of product move is nearly similar in both of the groups. This may be attributed to the importance of results for researchers as one of the first parts readers wonder about the result of a study is whether the results are noteworthy or not which also enhances the importance of the rationale and the researchers' claims in the beginning of the research paper. The occurrence of result move is 96% for foreign writers and 94% for Turkish writers.

An interesting finding is that in both Turkish and foreign writers the product move is always the last move or if there is conclusion move it is the move written before the conclusion. It is possible to encounter with studies in which it is not utilized as the last move (Yun, 2011).

Performance improved by presenting vocabulary in random and/or phonological groups both in the short term and over time.(SYS, 2013,40)

Analyses showed the group that studied one-year preparation class had lower correlations between their HSEE and UEE scores. As for the differences between means, although 2005 group had higher scores

compared to the other group in the beginning, this difference decreased at the national university entrance exam conducted after four years of high school study.(JLTR, 2013, 31)

The product move is of considerable effect in studies' attracting the target reader group and the present study reveals that the importance of product move for both groups of scholars is nearly the same. However, what makes the different point for the present study is the lack of product move in a number of abstracts. In the three of the 50 abstracts written by Turkish scholars, there are not product move. Likewise, in two of the 50 abstracts written by foreign scholars product move is not available. Maybe, this can be related to writers' perception about the significant part of the study which is possible to be peculiar to writers. Another possibility is that they do not follow the rhetorical conventions or the structure. In both groups of writers, product move was conventional as in the studies of Kafes (2012), Yun (2011), Chalak and Norouzi (2013). Nearly in all studies, it is regarded as a conventional move because result sections are the distinguishing lines between theoretical and empirical studies.

4.2.2.5.Move 5:Conclusion

The effect of conclusion move seems to be different from the first four moves as at this section, writers give suggestion which can attract the readers and even change their ideas about reading the whole article or not. When the whole article is regarded, most of the scholars express that conclusion part is the second section they read after the abstract. According to Hyland (2000) conclusion is the move where the scholar interprets or extends results beyond scope of paper, draws inferences, points to applications or wider implications. The essential purpose of this move is to catch the readers' attention to the paper.

Noticeable differences appear in the frequency of occurrences of conclusion move. As table 4.1 shows, the percentage is 68% for foreign writers while this percentage is 44% for Turkish writers. In fact this difference is the point that creates the main variation between abstracts produced by these two different groups. Foreign writers attach more importance to place implications and comments on the results of the study.

Using activity theory to interpret these data, we suggest that learners' perspectives on learning vocabulary from a written text can transform the Object of a vocabulary learning activity in different ways. Implications for teachers and computer scientists are that students' actions when using online tools may differ by sociocultural background. In addition, their actions may not align with long term learning objectives, but may instead be directed toward short-term task completion requirements. (SYS, 2014,44)

These findings provide strong evidence for the positive impact of an SA period on the development of oral fluency. (TESOL, 2012,21)

As can be seen from the given examples, writers use some specific words to signal conclusion such as 'put forward', 'suggest', 'implications'.

Finally, the present study puts forward that foreign language speaking anxiety is a separate phenomenon with its own sources, aspects, variables and effects on learners. (JLLS, 2014,21)

These findings allow for generating implications for issues to consider in designing classes. (JLLS, 2014, 17)

As the proficient use and comprehension of the definite article contributes to a fluent and exact expression of meaning, implications can be drawn with reference to instruction of and exposure to English as a foreign language in Turkey. (Novitas, 2011,42)

The examples taken from Turkish scholars' corpus show that similar expressions can be used to give a general conclusion for the study using words and especially modal verbs which give the writers the chance of expressing their ideas cautiously. Most of these words signal the conclusion move which separates it from the other moves. Conclusion is at a different point because it notes not only the concrete results obtained from the study but it reflects the personal ideas of the writer and how they interpret the data or results considering the possible implications of the study. This unit involves the assessment of the results and connect the research to real world or research world (Yun,

2011). Conclusion move is optional for Turkish writers when the percentage is taken into consideration while it is conventional for foreign writers.

4.2.3. Analysis of Verb Tenses of Moves

This section focuses on the verb tenses of the moves, namely, present simple, past simple and present perfect. The main purpose of this part is to find the tense choices of writers in moves and then compare the differences between Turkish and foreign scholars. The analysis procedure is as follows. If a move is formed as sentence, then the verb tense of that sentence is accepted as the verb tense of this move. Secondly, if a move is presented by a clause or phrase, then, the verb tense of this move was not included in the analysis procedure of the data. Thirdly, if a move is presented by more than a sentence that includes both present simple, present perfect and past simple, then each of the tense was used in the analysis procedure (Tseng, 2011).

Table 4.4.

Tense Use in Introduction Move

Tenses	Foreign Writers	Turkish Writers
Present Simple	18	10
Present Perfect	7	5
Present Simple+Present Perfect	2	6
Present Simple+Past Simple	1	1

Table 4.4 shows the use of tenses for introduction move. As seen from the table, the most frequently used tense for introduction is present simple both for Turkish and foreign writers. However, the number is higher for foreign writers while the use of tenses is less consistent among Turkish scholars. Another difference is in terms of present perfect and present simple+present perfect use. It is more common for Turkish scholars to tend to use both present simple and present perfect for introduction move. The less frequently used tense is the combination of present simple and past simple which is 1 for both of the groups. In fact the reasons for these varieties in the tense use lie in the fact that it is a complex and unsolved phenomenon changing according to writers' choices (Tseng, 2011). Some examples are given below:

It is now generally acknowledged that teachers are curriculum makers and adapters rather than mere transmitters of written plans and prescriptions.(SYS, 2010,37)

Listening instruction has yet to be investigated systematically, and the literature has typically relied on anecdotal and intuitive accounts of what takes place in listening lessons. (ELT, 2014,11)

Since 2001, the Education Bureau (EDB) in Hong Kong has been promoting shift from traditional assessment of learning to assessment for learning, where classroom-based assessment is linked to teaching and learning, with students taking an active role in the assessment process. In particular, secondary school students are encouraged to assess their own and peers' oral English through self- and peer assessment. (ELT, 2011, 2)

The above mentioned examples were taken from the abstracts written by foreign writers. As can be seen, they employ present simple most frequently and then ranking secondly present perfect. It is assumed that using present simple or present perfect is just a matter of choice or grammatical factor; however, using these two tenses conveys deeper meanings about the rationale, scope and purpose of the study.

As we said earlier, tense use is more complex and less consistent among Turkish writers. As the following examples show:

How successful learners learn English has been one of the primary interest of scientists and researchers in recent years.(HU, 2014,7)

Academic vocabulary knowledge and use are critical for students' language proficiency and academic achievement. Through the constructs of lexical competence and performance, the multidimensional nature of academic vocabulary and its interrelated components could be described better so that students' development of academic vocabulary knowledge through their education could be revealed effectively.(JLTR, 2013,32)

Language preparation classes are an important way of teaching a foreign language with a one-year intensive program. However, they are also criticized for delaying academic studies of students. Preparation classes were also a widespread application in Turkey, where many thousands attended for one year at the start of their high school education. Science high schools in Turkey get the highest achieving students in statewide university entrance exam. Science high school students were divided into school two groups after High School Entrance Examination, and one group (1692) studied one-year language preparation and the other (1333) started their academic school year direct.(JLTR, 2013, 31)

Given the examples , it can be noted that there are not any consensus on tense choice for introduction move not only for the abstracts written by Turkish writers but also for abstracts written by foreign writers. However, the higher use of present simple in this move suggests that present simple is the preferred tense for introduction move as proposed by nearly all studies conducted on the tense choice of writers for this opening move. The literature highlights this issue and this vagueness is attributed to the tense use being a complex matter (Swales and Feak, 2009; Tseng, 2011; Suntara &Usaha, 2013).

Table 4.5.

Tense Use in Purpose Move

Tenses	Foreign Writers	Turkish Writers
Present Simple	32	30
Past Simple	14	15
Present Perfect	-	1
Present Simple+Past Simple	1	1

Table 4.5 shows the use of tense for purpose move by Turkish and foreign writers. As seen from the table, as in the introduction move, present simple is again the most dominant tense for both groups. In terms of frequency, past simple follows present

simple. However, though being too limited, there are also writers who use the combination of present simple+present perfect and present simple+past simple.

This pilot study investigated the effects of a 20-week quasiexperimental vocabulary intervention aimed at improving Spanish-speaking language minority students' English vocabulary and writing outcomes.(TESOL,, 2011,18)

This article describes a study into the functions of code-switching in EFL classes at a Colombian language school. It was undertaken to decide whether the official 'English-only' policy in place in this and other classrooms is pedagogically justified.(ELT, 2012,7)

The above mentioned examples taken from the corpus of foreign writers display that present simple can be preferred while giving the purpose. The Turkish context also exhibit similar tendencies as can be understood from the following examples.

In this article the researcher has examined the current situation in test (a) construction: designing, structuring, developing, (b) administering, and (c) assessing the foreign language tests to see if we are still at the same point (traditional) and has given some suggestion on this indispensable issue.(HU, 2011, 1)

The purpose of this paper is to evaluate the textbook Breeze published by the Ministry of National Education in terms of the A2 level criteria determined as determined in the European Language Portfolio.(Novitas, 2010, 39)

The focus of this qualitative case study research project was to find out what educational technology tools international students at Eastern Michigan University use to improve their language and communication skills. More specifically, this study is based on this research question: "On their own, outside of the structure of ESL classes, to what degree do International students use technology to practice English language and communication skills?" The question let me to explore what technologies they use and how often and for what purposes.(Novitas, 2010, 34)

The results are consistent with Chalak and Nourizi's (2013) comparative study which showed that American writers tend to use present simple while Iranian writers seem to use present tense or past simple in introduction move. The main benefit of such comparative studies is their possibility of creating a general framework based on the assumptions about the general tendencies writers reflect in their papers and this is of considerable significance for an issue on which a general consensus have not been established yet.

Table 4.6.

Tense Use in Method Move

Tenses	Foreign Writers	Turkish Writers
Present Simple	3	7
Past Simple	33	34
Present Perfect	-	1
Past Simple+Present Perfect	-	1
Present Simple+Past Simple	1	1
Present+Past Simple+Present Perfect	-	1

The table 4.6 shows the distribution of tenses in method move. It is very common for method move being embedded with purpose or product; thus sometimes the tense used for method is unknown and is not included in the data analysis procedure if it is a clause or phrase in the abstract.

As can be seen from the table, past simple is the pivotal tense used for method move and the frequency of this tense is almost the same for Turkish and foreign writers. The method section should use the past tense because it is a report of what was done during the course of the study (AJE, 2013) and in method section it is customary to use a form of the simple past tense to describe what you did in your study.

Given the results in the table and the literature, it can be concluded that the dimension of tense complexity is the least for method section which does not create too much problem due to the purpose of the move which nearly always refers to what was done in the past. As the following examples reveal:

Data were generated in a single, three-year longitudinal case study using journals and in-depth interviews. The data were then analyzed using a Grounded Theory approach in which the analysis is attempted to remain close to the data without imposing any preconceived frameworks on them.(SYS,2011,38)

The study takes data from a larger research project that looked at the narrated experiences of nine adult learners enrolled in an intensive English program in the United States. Data were collected over a 6-month period using ethnographic data collection tools such as classroom observations, individual interviews, and student-designed second language (L2) photo narratives. (TESOL, 2014,24)

The study was applied to 50 3rd grade male cadets in the first semester of the 2008 – 2009 academic year. The participants of the study are military high school graduates and have been studying English for nearly seven years. As the data collection instrument, a motivational factors questionnaire adapted from Wen's (1997) Motivational Scale was used. The questionnaire consists of three main parts. In Part I, there are questions aiming to collect some background information about the participants. In Part 2 and 3, the questions aim to collect data on the relationship between different types of motivation and the foreign language success. The collected data was analyzed by using SPSS 11.5 statistical package. Frequency, mean, independent t-test, ANOVA and Pearson Correlation analysis were used to analyze the data obtained.(Novitas, 2011, 41)

In the last example, it is seen that three different tenses were used and the methodology of the study was explained in detail employing present simple, past simple and present perfect. As in the use of tense in previous moves, the results are in parallel with the studies of Salager-Meyer (1992), Tseng (2011), Bhatia (2013). Nevertheless, in Bhatia's study which he conducted across four disciplines, past simple is almost the only tense used for method move with little complexity, there was just an exception.

Table 4.7.

Tense Use in Product Move

Tenses	Foreign Writers	Turkish Writers
Present Simple	16	16
Past Simple	29	27
Present Perfect	-	-
Past Simple+Present Perfect	-	1
Present Simple+Past Simple	3	1
Present Simple+Present Perfect	-	1
Future Tense	-	1

Table 4.7 shows the tense use in product move. The results indicate that past simple is the most preferred tense. There seems to be a tendency for past tense over present tense. Nevertheless, the frequency of present simple should not also be neglected. Its frequency is nearly equal for foreign and Turkish writers. Pho (2008) makes a meaningful distinction between present and past simple. According to Pho, if past tense is used while presenting the results of the study, this creates the impression on readers' mind that the researcher is being objective. On the other hand, the use of present tense leaves the reader with the idea that the writer goes beyond the results generalizing them which implies that these results are broadly accepted findings. In accordance with these statements, Santos (1996 cited in Suntara and Usaha, 2013) adds that the use of past simple signals that the results are not generalized, while present simple indicates an established and generalizable finding. In the present study, in parallel with Suntara and Usaha's (2013) results, the higher frequency of past simple appears to suggest the tendency of both Turkish and foreign writers' purpose as being objective in their results without claiming widely accepted results.

The mixed use of present simple, past simple, and present perfect is also available with more complex uses in the abstracts produced by Turkish writers.

Results revealed some teachers using a range of techniques while others limited their teaching to product-based approaches.(ELT,2014,11)

The findings reveal that Canadian-based participants were much more likely to cite professional institutions (“formal facilitators”) for referrals, whereas U.S.-based participants were more likely to learn from “informal facilitators.” The findings also highlight differences in access and completion rates of language classes.(TESOL, 2012,20)

The results indicated that student teachers approaching the end of their teacher education programs did indeed experience feelings of self-consciousness and anxiety, which adversely affected their target language performance and emotional well-being.(HU,2013,10)

After analyzing the course books the list and percentage of the cultural expressions will be portrayed.(Novitas, 2010,38)

In the last example future tense is used to express the results but in parallel with the tense use, results are not given. This is the only example about future tense in total of 100 abstracts written by Turkish and foreign writers. Such an example seems not to be present in the previous studies.

Table 4.8.

Tense Use in Conclusion Move

Tenses	Foreign Writers	Turkish Writers
Present Simple	30	17
Past Simple	2	2
Present Perfect	-	1
Present Simple+Past Simple	1	1

The table 4.8 shows the use of tense in conclusion move. The frequency of verb tense in this move displays noteworthy results. As we said earlier in the move structure section, the effect of conclusion move is in parallel significance with tense used to express the implications or recommendations. The table indicates noticeable differences which are not so dominant in the previous moves. First and foremost, there are considerably important variations between Turkish and foreign writers. The main reason for this difference lies in the fact that conclusion move is not conventional in the

abstracts written by Turkish scholars in contrast to the abstracts produced by foreign writers.

The findings obtained from the analysis of this move is in agreement with Tseng's (2011) and Chalak & Nourizi's (2013) results. In their studies they found that present simple is utilized as the preferred tense for conclusion. The following extracts exemplify the use of tense in conclusion moves:

These differences were manifested at the item level, not the category level, suggesting that researchers ought to consider the micro level analyses as well as the category analyses. The results of this study suggest that Asian students use more strategies and in different ways than Australian students do. The conclusion made is that language learning environment, as well as multi-lingual capacity can be an important factor in the choice of strategies.(SYS, 2010,46)

Relying on the findings of the study some recommendations have been made for foreign language teachers.(HU, 2011,1)

The study concludes that although student teachers are intrinsically motivated, this motivation may need to be maintained so as to be long term. Further, the study calls for measures to be taken to control possible methodological biases (Novitas, 2014,50).

The general tendency is using present simple because past simple seems to be contradictory to the nature of the move in which writers go beyond the results of the study with some comments and suggestions. Both group of writers tend to use present simple over past simple.

4.2.4.The Results of Interviews

We conducted the interview which consisted of open ended questions with participants (7 females and 5 males) who at least have a master's degree. These participants are from English Language Teaching departments (ELT).They had two weeks to complete the questionnaire and they had the chance to express their ideas

comfortably. The results of the interview were interpreted descriptively defining key themes for each question.

4.2.4.1. The important issues while constructing abstracts

The first question was about the key points that researchers should pay attention while constructing their abstracts. This matter mostly reflects the scholars' perception and awareness level about the overall structure of abstract writing. Most of the participants emphasized the importance of key words and indicated that the abstract should represent the content of the whole research paper that is, it should provide a clear picture of the article. One of the participants expressed this as follows:

‘‘I first and most consider the content of the abstract. What to include in the abstract is the most important matter for me while constructing an abstract. It is important that the abstract should cover the main points and key words that would really form the summary of the text. The abstract should be designed in such a form that it would give the reader a clear picture of what is in the original text itself. The language is the second issue I consider in my abstracts. Using an academic and clear language, which could be understood by the reader, is also important for me.’’(Interviewee 1).

Another significant point is the language used while constructing the abstract and the abstract's being short enough. Because at this way, it will prevent the time consuming. The abstract may be referred as a cover for the research paper; therefore, the reader should get the intended meanings easily and clearly. However, the academic language should not be neglected while trying to be concise and clear. This point was mainly highlighted by most of the participants. The following expressions of interviewees can be given as examples of their perception:

‘‘An abstract should be short, clear, accurate, comprehensive and coherent.’’ (Interviewee 3)

‘‘The abstract should include all the necessary information about the article/thesis/dissertation. However, while providing the information, it

should not be a long one. On other words, while being comprehensive it should also be brief.’’(Interviewee 5)

‘‘I think it is important to summarize the study carried out with its all aspects but it is also should be short enough.’’(Interviewee 6)

Some of the participants regard ‘taking the readers’ attention’ crucially important since what makes the article attractive for them is the abstract which can be considered as the advertisement of the article. For example:

*‘‘To give the aim, process, and results of the study clearly but not in a detailed way. And to make the reader curious about the whole article.’’
(Interviewee 10)*

Methodology of the study including the procedure of the research is of great significance for the participants. They mentioned that their studies should include the main findings, sampling, data collection procedure. In a condensed structure, they have to give these points. One of the participants said that:

‘‘First of all, I give the general definition of the topic and then giving the aim of the study. In addition, sampling, data collection, methodological techniques are then stated. I then give significant results of the study.’’(Interviewee 7).

The last and perhaps the most important factor in terms of being presented clearly is the objective of the study. Why the researcher is conducting the study, What the rationale is, Is it noteworthy to have a study like that in the literature ? In addition to this, the abstracts have to include only the information that is available in the article and no more than that.

‘‘First, it should be a clear image of the whole paper. Therefore, it should be written in the end. While constructing it, I read my paper again and again for an overview. I try to include just major points in my paper and to avoid from giving unnecessary information. Furthermore, I never use any information not included in the paper.’’(Interviewee 12)

Abstract writing is not just combining words to summarize the study, the researchers should be aware of the certain rules that should be taken into consideration while constructing abstracts, only after that, it is possible to established well- designed papers.

4.2.4.2. The Components of the Abstract

The research article as a whole consists of several sections including introduction, literature review, methodology, results, discussion and conclusion. The abstracts, as a small unit, contains all of them. Almost all of the participants agreed upon the necessary components of abstracts. The following quotations will make it more clear:

“I include the main points and key words which would give the summary of the whole text. Sentences introducing the topic and purpose of the text, and stating the content of the text are included in my abstracts. Additionally, if my paper is not descriptive but informative, I also inform about the research method used in the study and emphasize the main result of the research study. Finally, a concluding sentence comes in my abstract.” (Interviewee 1)

“The abstract should briefly but clearly include all the parts that are separately given in the article/thesis/dissertation. What should be included in this section is the purpose of the study, the methodological information, a brief review of results and some implications.”(Interviewee 5)

“ I would prefer to include the aim of the study with the rationale in one sentence, methodology, overall results and conclusion. Sometimes, I prefer to add implications and recommendations for future research.”(Interviewee 8)

According to the participants the most important point is to give the research article as a whole. In addition to this the importance, rationale and objectives of the study are the required elements of the abstracts as expressed by the participants.

“Topic, the importance, and purpose of the study, method used during research parts of the essay or thesis and a short brief of conclusion.”(Interviewee 6)

It should be purported here that none of the participants gave answers that are unrelated to the nature of abstract writing. The reason for this may be lie in the fact that the participants in the study have at least a master's degree and due to that they have already written a thesis and they are writing research papers and thus in thier academic texts, they always have to write abstracts.

4.2.4.3. Functions of abstracts

In the literature there appear to be used many and interesting metaphors to display the roles and functions of abstracts for academic papers. These metaphors are attractive enough to convey the importance of abstracts for studies such as "gateway for the article" (Lores, 2004), "heart" (Lebrun, 2007) or "an advertisement selling the article" (Pho, 2008).

Perceiving abstracts just as the summary of the articles can decrease the quality of the research paper. For example, while attending to symposiums or conferences, firstly, writers send the abstracts and if the abstracts are accepted then they can get an acceptance for the participation in the scientific organizations. Some of the participants accepted abstracts as the summary of the article. Participants explained this matter in the following way:

“It is the summary of a study which helps researchers search for specific purposes briefly and in a short time. It saves time and makes it easy to get a gist of the article without reading all of it and understand what a certain article is about.” (Interviewee 11)

“Without an abstract, readers will be given a clear idea about the study. The reason is to give a short summary including all the steps of study and to encourage reader to read the article.”(Interviewee 6)

“The main role of the abstract in an academic study is to give a quick and clear idea of the research study. By emphasizing main points of the study,

it presents the summary of the study. It helps the reader get brief information about the context of the study before reading the study in detail. Then, the basic reason for writing an abstract is to present the summary of the whole text, which will add to the understanding of the paper''(Interviewee 1)

As we said earlier, researchers use interesting metaphors for defining the abstract and as a result of these interviews, we also got attractive and novel expressions participants used to describe the roles of abstracts for their studies. The following answers can make this point more concrete:

“The role of abstract is indispensable for writers and readers. In order to get the attention of your reader, you should write an effective and brief abstract including the main points. In academic world, researchers always complain about time restriction, in order to make an effective skimming, researchers sometimes only read the abstract part to see whether it is useful or not for their area of study. An abstract is also the outline of the study or article. It is like a map.”(Interviewee 2)

“An abstract is the ID card of the article. It gives the reader information about the article. Abstract is written in order to help the reader to understand whether this article is about the subject he/she is looking for or not.”(Interviewee 10)

“To put it crudely, the primary reason of abstract is giving concise information about the study. It is like marketing your study, thus it should be attractive to be read.”(Interviewee 7)

“Abstract is the main entry to a study, through which the writers motive the readers, researchers and scholars to read it, and where presents the overall scope and thus persuade the target community about the importance of the study.”(Interviewee 8).

The most common idea among these participants is their addressing the abstract as the key factor which leads to and persuades the reader to read the whole paper. It is

perceived as the commercial side of the article being a clear picture of why the study is important. The metaphors they used showed that they were aware of the functions of abstracts for the presentation of their studies.

4.2.4.4. Taking the readers' attention

'Abstract helps the reader decide whether the article is worth reading or not' (Lebrun, 2007, p.126). In this way, it prevents readers' spending time because just a paragraph helps the reader to understand whether it is necessary to read the whole article or not.

Participants again emphasized the importance of key words, main points, having a rationale and just reflecting the content of the article. Moreover, at this point using a professional language and writing in a coherent way were among the priorities they mentioned. Writing the ideas coherently is among the most challenging task for non-native scholars who try to connect the sentences logically. Reflecting this view, one of the participants stated:

'First, it should be a clear image of the whole paper and free from details. As it should reflect major points in the paper, the best way is to use short sentences. Although each sentence includes different points, there should be coherence between sentences.' (Interviewee 12)

Two of the participants mentioned the importance of research topic that should be used in the abstract. At first sight, it is suggested that the research topic be noticeable while examining the abstracts. One of them is as follows:

'First of all, the research topic should be emphasized well in order that the reader will find the article worth reading. Also, it should be short and clear even the subject and method of the study are complex and discipline-specific. Otherwise, it may keep the reader from reading the whole study. Besides, key words and points crucial to the study should be highlighted in the abstract. Because these words or points will provide the readers with some kind of familiarity with the article even before reading it and the

readers will think that they already have a guide for reading the article.’’(Interviewee 1)

Use of some attention taking phrases is the another point of attention. It can make the readers curious about the study. Writers have to use a limited number of words so that each word must be chosen attentively; it is not possible to occupy this restricted word number randomly. One of the participants said :

‘‘It is the abstract that readers go through in the first place and obtain the general information about the study. Based on their first impressions, readers can decide to go further or not. That is why the abstract can be considered as ‘‘the ads’’ of the study.’’ (Interviewee 5)

Another problematic area is the language. Academic language has to be applied in a professional way. Writers do not have the choice of using daily phrases. Even the use of phrasal verbs are not suggested since their meanings cannot be got in the same way leading to misunderstandings. One of the participants focused on that point with the explanation that academic texts should include commonly used and known phrases. As follows:

‘‘It is brief, with clear sentences. I don’t include infrequent words or expressions. It involves information about the methodology. The purpose of the study and some key findings are also mentioned.’’(Interviewee 9)

Concisely, this open-ended question showed that even though being novice writers for whom writing and producing are more daunting tasks and they do not have enough experience, they have similar ideas about the problematic issues and the necessity of being clear and comprehensive. In other words, the problems they encounter with are similars in many ways.

4.2.4.5. Selling the article

It may be a little strange to categorize the articles like commercial advertisements; nevertheless, the matter is exactly that. The participants were asked to express what they understand from this statement ‘selling’. They answered in two ways

either abstracts' function of taking attention or using again creative words and phrases. Participants initially saw abstracts as the tool to exhibit the research article, thesis or dissertations. Below the participants exemplifies the relevant idea:

“Just like the color of an item at the market or the cover of a book at the bookshop effect the customer’s decision to buy it, the reader will decide to read the whole article according to the impression the abstract will make on the reader’s mind, Since the abstract is the summary of the article, most of the readers tend to read the abstract first, instead of reading the article itself. Therefore, if the abstract gets the attention of the reader then it is highly probable that he will decide to read the whole article.”(Interviewee 1)

A number of answers, as we said earlier reflects phrases that take attention which is what we want abstracts to do. Most of them referred abstract as advertisement of the research article. For example, one of the participants conveyed the idea with perceiving abstract as a mirror:

“It is the mirror of the text; in this sense, it can be described as the showcase of the paper. Before reading the whole paper, you first encounter the abstract to get an overview of the paper and then decide to whether to read the rest of the paper.”(Interviewee 12)

Another participant use the term ‘cover’ to describe the term ‘selling’ as follows:

“How one structures, constructs and states his article affect the readers’ at first sight like cover pages of books. People decide whether to read an article or not by having a look at the abstract. If an abstract appeals to a reader, that reader goes on with the rest of the article”.(Interviewee 11)

One of the participants thought of selling as a skill and added that:

*“Selling is a presentation skill so you should perfect your presentation.”
(Interviewee 4)*

It seems that in general participants are aware of the roles of abstracts in increasing the importance and even quality of the article, as many potentially good articles are overlooked because their abstracts have been written carelessly (Piqué-Noguera, 2012, p.229). The fundamental purpose towards the challenge of constructing qualified abstracts is to be able to create a professional text.

4.2.4.6. Using abstract to decide the value of the research article

Each interviewee was asked how they can evaluate the value of the whole article using abstracts as a tool. Considering this issue on deciding the value of the article, looking at the abstract, in fact, encapsulates the above mentioned questions and answers. Each participant expressed his or her own way in evaluating the significance of the study. On the other hand, it must be added that the current academic standing of the participants also has greatly affected their comments on the questions. Three of the participants emphasized the importance of research topic/ title of the paper. One of them is that:

“The topic of the study and how the researcher studies this topic in the article can be considered two important issues. If the topic is a current issue and the researcher handles it with a different perspective or studies with a different method than the previous ones, it can be considered that the study is original and is worth reading. Because studies of this kind may bring the issue another dimension and may fill a gap in the field.”(Interviewee 1)

Another point addressed is the case of filling a gap in the literature. If the article has a strong rationale for the issue the study is arguing then that affects the readers’ ideas and approaches to the article. This demanding and often problematic process leads to the difficulty of generating new ideas and shows that these novelties can contribute to the relevant field. The following two extracts exemplifies the idea :

“If that study contributes to the field with a different and important perspective and completes a gap in the field and if it has reliable and valid findings, then it is significant.”(Interviewee 11).

“In this respect, I focus on the aims , especially the ones which include the rationale of the study by emphasizing the raising issue or problems of the field, and the methodology and conclusion, via which I get convinced that this study contributes to my field.”(Interviewee 8)

The participants had a consensus on two main points, results and methodology of the study. “The methods section is the most important aspect of a research paper because it provides the information by which the validity of a study is ultimately judged. Therefore, the author must provide a clear and precise description of how an experiment was done, and the rationale for the specific experimental procedures chosen”(Kallet, 2004, p.1229).While examining the method and instrument employed for the study, the readers also evaluate the appropriateness of the chosen method for the research. This appropriateness was stated by the participants in the following way:

“Methodological achievement of a paper is very important for me. So first I check the methodology, and analyses. It is possible a researcher to use wrong statistical tests or assessment tools, which will end with unsuccessful paper. That determines whether it is significant or not.”(Interviewee 4)

After having established a good methodology for the study, the next step is the results. The readers expect to see concrete and substantial findings as well as conclusions and implications. The results of the present interview justify this importance attributed to the result/findings. For most of the interviewees, the combination of a good methodology, results and conclusion may take attention more easily. Basic results were purported as being directive:

“Research method, sample, data collection tools and basic results are important in this regard.”(Interviewee 7)

“It reflects the importance of the study and includes major results. The conclusions included in the abstract are generally directive.”(Interviewee 12)

“Firstly, I look at the title of abstract for a similar topic. Then, the research questions and sample are important to me. If the study has tangible results, it contributes to my field”. (Interviewee 6)

In the above given extracts, a number of criteria were ranged from topic of the study to results. One of the participants answered the question in a different way which is directly related to the readers’ or researchers’ background knowledge on the study. If they do not have any idea about the issue, then they will not be able to comment on the field. As noted:

“In my opinion, in order to judge the effectiveness and significance of an article, readers should first have some general knowledge about the field they read about. Otherwise, what may seem significant to you may not be really significant in the academic stance.” (Interviewee 5)

As the writers become more proficient scholars, it will be easier for them to evaluate what is written or produced. For novice writers, there may not be certainly established criteria on which they can interpret the studies on the literature. However, acquiring academic skills is a developing process entailing the efforts of writers. Each section of the article separately seems to affect the interviewees’ perception of research. In addition to this, assessing the value of academic texts entails to have an established background knowledge on the field.

4.2.4.7. Frequency of hedging use

Most of the novice writers may not be familiar with the term ‘hedging’ which defines their stance in their papers. Under this title, it will be possible to learn whether the participants in the study are consciously or unconsciously employ hedging devices in their studies, namely abstract sections. The answers range from ‘rarely’ to ‘always’ or ‘in all studies’. Three of the participants noted that they always or at least nearly always try to use hedging in their studies. For example:

“I use hedging devices in all my studies since they are crucial especially in discussion sections. Most of the time, I use hedges at the final sections of the study. That is, I use them as discussing the results of the study and concluding the study. In my abstracts and studies, the sentences about the implications or contributions of the study, also include hedging devices”.(Interviewee 1)

“Hedging is an inevitable castle to be hide in every field of science. So I always use.”(Interviewee 3)

“As we do social studies, we are away from final judgement and scientific proof; therefore, I nearly always use hedges to submit my results and comments.”(Interviewee 12)

In fact, noticeable differences appeared in this part. While giving their frequency of hedging use they also explained their own rationales for employing ‘always’, ‘often’ or ‘never’. Some of them noted that they use hedges sometimes or often. One of them added that the use of hedges strengthens the acceptance of the papers. As marked:

“In order to create an objective rhetorical voice, I frequently prefer to use hedging devices in my abstracts/studies, which smoothens certainty of the claims and refers to the position of the study in the literature by addressing the earlier studies. Moreover, it strengthens the acceptance of the paper.”(Interviewee 8)

Most interestingly there were four participants who said that they do not use hedge very often. These participants ranged various reasons for not using hedges too much in their studies. One of them explained the reasons as depending on the sections of the article. She thought that the hedging use should vary from section to section:

“ I usually avoid using hedges in results of my studies. However, I may use hedging in discussion when comparing the results.”(Interviewee 6)

The other one did not have any clear explanations about the point. He did not have any idea about not employing hedges though being aware of the necessity of them. As noted:

“Although I somewhat know that I should use such structures, I admit that I do not use them as required.”(Interviewee 7)

The last two participants had strong rationales for not using hedges. There appear some negative attitudes about hedging in a number of studies. It is claimed that hedges can affect the reliability and validity of the study and results. However, Hyland (1996) indicated that such kinds of views are not so common in the literature. The key distinguishing point for some researchers lies in the fact that the use of hedges should not be the same for each section of the articles. For example, using hedges in abstracts can have adverse effects on the validity of the study on the contrary to employ them in the discussion sections of the articles. Differences appear between RAs and RAs abstracts in terms of the use of diverse subcategories of interactional metadiscourse; when compared to the boosters, hedges are more dominant in RAs while abstracts have a high percentage of boosters than hedges (Gillaerts&Velde, 2010). Only one of the interviewees gave a comprehensive reason for not preferring too much hedge use in his abstracts. Most importantly, he mentioned boosters, which are the opposite of hedges in conveying the strength of the writers’ claims. The participant made it clear as follows:

“Hedging devices are very crucial and need to be very careful. Because it mitigates the authorial stance I prefer not to use hedging but boosting in my abstracts.”(Interviewee 4)

It can be concluded that the participants’ perception of hedges varied greatly as most of them said that they employ hedging while others are more cautious in writing their claims and ideas in the texts. The common conclusion is that most of the participants are aware of hedging phenomenon, though, almost all of them do not have a certain line between the frequency of hedge use which may vary from text to text due to the communicative function of the each part of article, mainly abstracts.

4.2.4.8. Hedging Types

The most frequently applied hedge types vary from writer to writer; however, there are certain types which all writers must use in order to mitigate their claims, and modal lexical verbs and epistemic modal verbs are two of these types. All of the

participants noted the use of these types. In addition to these, adjectives-adverbs, adverbs of frequency and that clauses were reported to be used frequently. For example:

‘‘In my abstracts, I mostly use verbs (e.g., seem, tend, suggest, appear), modals/ auxiliary verbs (e.g., can, could, may, might), and adverbs of frequency (e.g., often, usually). Additionally, I frequently use ‘that clauses’ such as ‘it is expected that ...’ and ‘it might be suggested that ...’ as 1) hedging devices.’’ (Interviewee 1)

‘‘Introductory verbs’’ such as: seem, tend, look like, appear to be, think, believe, doubt, be sure, indicate, suggest. ‘‘Certain lexical verbs’’ as believe, assume, suggest are mostly used in my abstract. Also ‘‘that clauses’’ are very helpful.’’ (Interviewee 3)

One of the participants attributed the use of hedge types to the language skills of the writer who need to use them. This approach was very different from others as no other participants thought of hedge types from this perspective.

‘‘The adoption of hedges is generally based on the language skill, I think. So, all kinds of language tools can be utilized for this purpose.’’ (Interviewee 5)

Passive sentences are also used to decrease the directness of the claims and are also considered to define the writers’ stance in the texts. Three of the participants stated that they use passives. One example was :

‘‘I use passive voices and hedging verbs most.’’ (Interviewee 2)

Hedge types were seem not to be different for participants. Just one of them added vague references to the list. As noted:

‘‘Phrasal and vague reference as well as epistemic modal verbs.’’ (Interviewee 4)

As seen from the extracts, the question was answered in concise ways showing the writers’ choices in the texts they produced. Appropriate use of hedges are good

indicators of both professional and original texts. Participants seem to need more sensitivity in the employment of hedging strategies.

4.2.4.9. Knowledge on Abstract Writing

Having a well-established knowledge on the academic writing conventions is the precondition for preparing well-structured papers. The conventions of abstract writing can be categorized as the subfield of this academic knowledge. The answers for this issue were rather diverse as at this point, each participant gave answers in parallel with their current academic condition. For two of the participants, the issue was not unfamiliar. They have already had the background knowledge on abstract writing. For example:

“Abstract writing is not an unknown issue to me. I got basic knowledge on the norms and conventions of academic writing at the academic writing course given as one of the PhD courses at Atatürk University. However, before writing my abstract, I often read sample works written in my field, and before publishing it I usually request the proofreading of my professor.”(Interviewee 1)

“Although I know something theoretically to some extent, I believe that I am novice in performing it.”(Interviewee7)

One of the participants stated as having no idea on her level of knowledge on abstract writing with a very brief answer.

“I am not sure about my level.”(Interviewee 2)

Another noticeable point was the participants' being novice scholars; thus, they did not refer themselves as professionals. One of them highlighted having the theoretical background though being inexperienced. Most of the participants agreed on the necessity of more practice to be more professional in their field as they speak cautiously about their current academic position. The following extract summarizes the common point of view.

‘‘I cannot say I am a professional writer. I develop myself or at least trying to develop myself. I always examine the examples of abstracts and try to write like them.’’(Interviewee 10)

However, one of the interviewees reported the problem of being criticized by the journals while talking about the problems he encountered with. This may be addressed as the most realistic reflection of the problem into academic life:

‘‘I think I still need assistance in abstract writing, because I receive criticism on the abstracts of the articles I send to some journals. This criticism helps me write better abstracts, however, I still feel the need for assistance in abstract writing.’’ (Interviewee 9)

To sum up, the most common problem was the lack of practice as the participants always underlined that they needed more and more practice and their skills must be improved. As we said earlier, the lack of experience can be attributed to their being novice scholars. Within the developmental process of their academic life, they will begin to participate more successfully in the academia.

4.2.4.10. Evaluating the value of research article

To participate successfully in academia, one of the primary conditions is to publish highly qualified research articles. To achieve the desired results, then it is a must to organize effective texts. At this point, there appear differences among scholars as they focus on the various aspects of the articles while evaluating the value of research articles. From this perspective the participants gave related answers with some extra points.

The first point that takes attention is the mention of abstract section in the answers of one of the participants. Each participant mentioned the way research articles are organized; however, just one of them specifically stated abstract section of the research article which is the main focus point of the present study. What was significant that the interviewee began to the evaluation dimension with an abstract. It is considered among the first parts from which the readers will decide the significance of the study (Ren & Li, 2011).

‘Abstracts should be clear, easy to understand, well-phrased and brief, and include all the information an abstract is required to. The most important thing about an article is its goal and how this goal is achieved. The generalization of the findings and their validity and reliability should be assured. The topic should refer to current issues and the article should include the related latest studies as reference.’(Interviewee 11)

A considerable number of participants the noted methodology section as being crucially important. Nearly in all questions and answers, methodology was stated. Three of the participants emphasized the importance of a good literature review which shows whether the scholars have a good grasp of the literature in their field or not. In fact successful academic writing depends in part on situating current work within a larger disciplinary context (Swales and Feak, 2008, p.114). As can be understood from the answers of the participants, there are various elements which are required to be gathered together to structure the whole article. Within the context of literature review, writer establishes the material for the discussion section and each time they must go beyond the present situation. As in the following extract:

‘Levels of coherence in the each section of the article, strength of the claims, informativeness and clarity of the methodology , justification of the study, consideration of ethical issues and credibility of the research, relevance of discussion to findings and literature are the basic criteria in the evaluation of studies.’(Interviewee 8)

Another noteworthy matter taking attention was about the studies being original and far from plagiarism. What the researchers study should be valuable which can be just possible with defining a strong rationale. This originality should be presented firstly in the article as a whole and then in each section mainly in discussion part. An original paper was accepted as not including any plagiarism only with ideas belonging to the writers. Three of the participants mentioned such an originality. They expect a qualified paper to be original. As said:

‘Originality of the paper, the language aptitude, terminology that the paper includes.’(Interviewee 4)

“I can make a list; avoiding from plagiarism, giving necessary literature review, not only repetition of the sentences, a good population, a good choice for research design.”(Interviewee 2)

The above mentioned statements are the obligatory factors for a qualified research article. On the other hand, what makes these criteria being met is the style of writing and the use of language. However, L2 writers encounter with problems in academic writing process and “more thoughtful pedagogical interventions are urgently needed to help L2 writers tackle advanced academic writing”(Chang and Schleppegrell, 2011, p.141). These problematic areas can be seen easily in the papers produced by non-native writers. Therefore, participants were aware of this challenge and they also focused on it. Thus their views appear to be important. As uttered:

“... First of all, the use of academic language appropriate to the genre is important. The conventions of academic writing should not be ignored.....”(Interviewee 1)

“Language use is the main criteria for me. The text shouldn't be vague or complex. It shouldn't have many unfamiliar terms....”(Interviewee 9)

Moreover, interviewee 9 also underlined the importance of the journal in which the articles are published. Publishing articles in international journals are not so easy in contrast to what is supposed, mainly for non-native scholars. As noted:

“... Where the article is published is of great importance. I mostly check how clear the tables and figures too. The conclusion part is as important as the abstract as I mostly read the conclusion after the abstract.”(Interviewee 9)

Another similar extract was also uttered by one of the participants, but what was distinguishing is the participant's approach in which the connection of the research problem with daily life was seen as valuable. He expressed:

‘If I rank them; Relationship of the problem to real life, The contribution of the study to field’(Interviewee 7)

Concisely, a well-structured methodology, a qualified literature review an original research topic and original ideas are among the evaluative factors. Most of the participants agreed on these points. It was also noticed that for them academic writing and its convention were of considerable significance and interviewees are conscious of writing, though, there seems a lack of awareness about subtitles of academic writing.

4.2.4.11. The source of help in academic writing process

Interviewees’ sources of help or to whom they consult when they need help in academic writing process was explored. The ideas on the problem of help in the process of academic writing were greatly similar. Most of the participants, in fact, knew what to do when they need help. At this point, especially eight and fifth interviewees’ suggestions deserve attention:

‘I follow the publications of scholars and authorities such as Swales and Hyland to consult information about the conventions of academic writing. Moreover, APA (6th edition) is one of my main resources I frequently use. Finally, I read articles from the journals with international repute in terms of academic writing.’(Interviewee 8)

‘Mostly the well-known books and the sites.’(Interviewee 5)

As understood from the extracts, the first source was regarded the books published by pioneering scholars in the field like Swales and Feak’ s (2009) ‘*Academic Writing for Graduate Students*’ or Hyland’s (2006) ‘*English for Academic Purposes*’. Moreover, they thought of web-sites also as sources of help for themselves. The reason for this fact could be attributed to these sources being easy to be obtained. Another important sources as well as books are colleagues or friends and supervisors. For participants, peer review was of value in terms of getting feedback. Some statements were as follows:

“My supervisor, my academic writing book, the author of which I don’t remember now, articles I can reach through internet and my senior friends.”(Interviewee 11)

“Firstly, I consult to my supervisor then look at the similar studies and sometimes ask my friends to help me.”(Interviewee 6)

“I usually request the help of my advisor whose field of study is academic writing. This is a big advantage for me. As written sources, however, APA guide and academic writing books with example sentences are the helping sources for me as writing my studies.”(Interviewee 1)

Finally, one of the participants expressed that she did not have the chance to consult anyone when she needs help in the city she lives in. She just underlined the online sources while a number of highly popular and qualified books are available. Thus, websites were useful for her:

“Unfortunately, I don’t have a chance of consulting anyone in the city I work, but some web sites are useful.”(Interviewee 2)

In recent years, it is not difficult to reach sources in case of problems as online sources are available for everyone if collaborating with colleagues and getting feedback from them is not feasible.

4.2.4.12.Increasing the awareness on academic writing

The last issue in the study is the matter of increasing the awareness about scholarly writing. Studies on scholarly writing have a wide place in the literature. The main goal of the studies conducted on academic writing is to increase the awareness on scholarly writing; thus there is an increasing interest in academic writing based studies. At tertiary level, academic writing courses are given in some universities. “Through academic writing courses, curricular requirements across disciplines, workshops/seminars, and writing centers, learning writing strategies to improve their academic performance should be provided for students” (Yağız, 2009, p.133). Students cannot be expected to be professional writers in a very short time. Improving writing strategies constitute a developing process and during this process they need the to take

regular feedback and only when the novice scholars acquire the writing skill, will the task of constructing acceptable research papers be possible for them.

Most of the participants stated that academic writing courses are indispensable components of developing advanced writing proficiency. These courses are accepted as the essence of instructing students during their graduate studies. As expressed:

“Just like the writing courses given at the undergraduate level in many universities and institutions, academic writing courses should also be among the compulsory courses for MA and PhD students. However, these courses should be both theoretical and practical. They should be given by professionals in the field and should provide the students with writing experiences completed with feedback.”(Interviewee 1)

Another participant also noted a similar view adding the benefit of seminars and conferences on academic writing:

“Courses can be arranged for a longer time. More writing practice can be done. Seminars and conferences on academic writing can be held in the lead of experts on that issue.”(Interviewee 11)

Giving feedback is an important factor in writing tasks. It is certain that more and more practice will lead to advanced writing skills, what is crucial in this process is providing feedback which makes it possible for participants to understand what is appropriate or wrong in their papers as emphasized:

“They should write as much as possible. If you write regularly and have someone to check your articles and give you feedbacks, you can develop your writing.”(Interviewee 10).

Advanced grammar teaching, pedagogical implications as well as writing exercises are also of significance. Grammar and vocabulary knowledge affects the dimension of effectively conveying ideas. It needs to be explained that there are certain lines between the grammar and language used in daily life and academia. What is appropriate in daily language may not acceptable in the academia. The participant summarized this point:

“Writing exercises, pedagogical implication, sophisticate grammar training.”(Interviewee 4)

The last and crucially valuable suggestion deserving considerably particular attention was made by one of the interviewees. The participant was aware of the fact that writing is a developmental process, writing strategies cannot be acquired automatically. Thus product oriented approaches are not appropriate for the evaluation of academic writing courses. For her, the process oriented approach was the most influential method to achieve the desired results. Moreover, when they were asked their suggestions for increasing the awareness level on scholarly writing, none of the participants except the eighth interviewee indicated the need of teaching and learning the ‘research ethics’. Research ethics are expected to be taught which may prevent writers from plagiarism and other unethical scientific behaviors. As uttered:

“First and foremost, bachelor, master and PhD programmes of the universities should include Academic Writing courses with high credits in order to increase awareness. Additionally, testing and evaluation systems of writing skills should be well-grounded. Novice writers, researchers, undergraduates and postgraduates should be educated on the research ethics. In this respect, process oriented teaching would be the most effective one.” (Interviewee 8)

Taking all these issues into consideration, it may be concluded that novice writers have a background knowledge on abstract writing. What they need is practice and time to be professional scholars publishing advanced academic texts in their academic life. In parallel with the literature, they adopt attention grabbing phrases to display the position of abstracts for a scientific paper which can be a research paper, thesis/dissertation, review or other academic texts. The interviewees see abstracts as a powerful tool that provides insights into the content of whole text.

The second point was the writers’ stance in academic texts which is achieved either consciously or unconsciously. Most of the participants underlined that they struggle to use hedging devices whenever and wherever possible. Only one of them made a distinction between using hedges in other sections of the article and in abstracts.

Introduction, method, results and discussion sections of research articles employ different metadiscursive strategies as well as following various genre models (Abdi, 2011). Abstract also differs at this point because employing too much hedging devices are assumed to do harm to the reliability of the studies. With these purposes, a number of scholars prefer to use boosters rather than hedges (Giilaert and Van de Valde, 2010) as one of our participants exemplified. Persuasion, as an important objective in authoring RAs, is arguably achieved by employing metadiscourse (Abdi, 2011, p.3).

4.3. Quantitative Analysis

The quantitative data of the study were analyzed with the programme of SPSS 22.00 through which Chi-Square test was used. The frequency of each item was calculated and divided into two categories and results were shown in the tables. In order to find whether there is a statistically significant difference between these two groups, Chi-Square test was used and the obtained results were given in the tables. Hedge types were shown one by one in these tables.

4.3.1. Adverbs of Frequency

Frequency adverbs are commonly used in academic texts in order to comment on issues cautiously when the writers want to avoid certainty.

Table 4.9.

Use of Adverbs of Frequency

Hedge Type	Writers	0-1		2 – Over		Significance Level
		f	%	f	%	
Adverbs of Frequency	Turkish	50	100	0	0,00	$\chi^2 = 3,093$ $Sd = 1$ $p = .079$ $\eta = .021$
	Foreign	47	94	3	6	

Table 4.9 shows the significance level of adverbs of frequency between Turkish and foreign writers. When the table is examined, it is seen that the 0-1 ratio of frequency of adverb use is 100 % for Turkish writers while this ratio is 0 % for the use of 2-over. On the other hand, 0-1 ratio of frequency of adverb use is 94 % among foreign writers and the ratio of 2-over is 6 %. In order to find whether there is a significant difference between Turkish and foreign writers in the use of frequency of adverbs, Chi – Square analysis was applied and it was found that there is not a statistically significant difference between them ($X^2=3,093$, $Sd=1$, $p>.05$, $\eta=.021$). Accordingly, as a result of the obtained data, it can be said that there is not a statistically significant difference between Turkish and foreign writers in terms of 0-1 and 2-over use.

4.3.2. Quantifiers

Quantifiers are another significant hedging types. As in adverbs of frequency, quantifiers are also lead writers to have a less face threatening position with softer approaches to their claims.

Table 4.10.

Use of Quantifiers

Hedge Type	Writer	0-1		2-Over		Significance Level
		f	%	f	%	$\chi^2 = 2,210$ $Sd = 1$ $p = .137$ $\eta = .018$
Quantifiers	Turkish	46	92	4	8	
	Foreign	41	82	9	18	

Table 4.10 displays the significance level of quantifiers use. When the table is examined, it is seen that the 0-1 ratio of quantifiers use is 92 % among Turkish writers while this ratio is 8 % for the use of 2-over. On the other hand, among foreign writers, the 0-1 ratio of quantifiers use is 82 % and the ratio of 2-over is 18 % among

foreign writers. As a result of Chi – Square analysis, it was found that there is not a significant difference between them ($X^2=2,210$, $Sd=1$, $p>.05$, $\eta=.018$). Accordingly, as a result of the obtained data, it can be said that there is not a statistically significant difference between Turkish and foreign writers in terms of 0-1 and 2-over categories.

4.3.3. Epistemic Modality Verbs

Epistemic modality verbs. While the writers are presenting their assumptions about the results of the research, they employ epistemic modality verbs to show their doubts towards the results or implications which also prevent the possible criticism against the study. However, the use of hedges are ignored by inexperienced writers who display that they trust the proposed assumptions (Afshar and et al., 2013).

Table 4.11.

Use of Epistemic Modality Verbs

Hedge Type	Writers	0-1		2 – Over		Significance Level
		f	%	f	%	
Quantifiers	Turkish	41	82	9	18	$\chi^2 =5,420$ $Sd= 1$ $P= .037$ $\eta=.38$
	Foreign	35	70	15	30	

Table 4.11 shows the significance level of quantifiers between the two writer groups. When the table is examined, it is seen that the 0-1 ratio of quantifiers use is 82 % while this ratio is 18 % for the use of 2-over among Turkish writers. On the other hand, among foreign writers the 0-1 ratio of quantifiers use is 70 % and the ratio of 2-over is 30 %. In order to find whether there is a significant differentiation between Turkish and foreign writers in terms of frequency of adverbs use, as a result of Chi – Square analysis, it was found that there is a statistically significant difference between them ($X^2=5,420$, $Sd=1$, $p<.05$, $\eta=.38$).

Depending on the results of Chi-Square being significant, it is necessary to calculate the effect size. In this aspect, it is particularly suggested to examine Phi coefficient (Pallant, 2001). Phi coefficient can be defined as the square root of the value obtained as the result of the division of the Pearson Chi- Square value (5, 420) calculated as a result of Chi- Square analysis to total participant number in the sample. In this context, Phi coefficient was found to be .38. Huck (2008) puts forward that in effective value calculation , (η) **eta square** indicates low level effect between ,00 and ,03 values, mid-level effect between ,31 and ,60 values and high level effect between ,61 and over. Therefore, it can be said that the $\eta=38$ value obtained as the result of research has a 38 % and mid- level effect.

4.3.4. Modal Lexical Verbs

Modal lexical verbs constitute the fourth type. These lexical verbs are commonly employed in texts and they decrease the certainty of the claims.

Table 4.12.

Use of Modal Lexical Verbs

Hedge Type	Writer	0-1		2 –Over		Significance level
		f	%	f	%	
Modal lexical Verbs	Turkish	34	68	16	32	$\chi^2 = 1,178$ $Sd = 1$ $p = .673$ $\eta = .042$
	Foreign	32	66	18	34	

Table 4.12 shows the significance level of use of modal lexical verbs. When the table is examined, it is seen that 0-1 ratio of the use of modal lexical verbs is 68 % for Turkish writers while this ratio is 32 % for the use of 2-over. On the other hand, among foreign writers the 0-1 ratio of the use of modal lexical verbs is 66 % and the ratio of 2-over is 34 %. As a result of Chi – Square, it was found that there is not a significant difference between them ($X^2=1,178$, $Sd=1$, $p>.05$, $\eta=.042$). Therefore, as a

result of the obtained data, it can be said that there is not a statistically significant difference between Turkish and foreign writers in the use of modal lexical verbs when two categories are regarded.

4.3.5. Adjectives and Adverbs

The fifth type is adjective and adverb group. Adjectives and adverbs are used to decrease the strength of writers' stance in the academic texts.

Table 4.13.

Use of Adjective – Adverb

Hedge Type	Writers	0-1		2 – Over		Significance Level
		f	%	f	%	$\chi^2 =,508$
Adjectives-Adverbs	Turkish	40	80	10	20	$Sd= 1$
	Foreign	37	74	13	26	$p= .476$ $\eta=.071$

Table 4.13 shows the significance level of the use of adjectives and adverbs. The results show that 0-1 ratio of the use of modal lexical verbs is 80 % while this ratio is 20 % for the use of 2-over. Nevertheless, among foreign writers, the 0-1 ratio is 74 % and the ratio of 2-over is 26 %. Chi – Square analysis showed that there is not a significant difference between them ($X^2=,508$, $Sd=1$, $p>.05$, $\eta=.071$). As a result of the present data, it can be said that there is not a statistically significant difference between Turkish and foreign writers in terms of adjective – adverb use.

4.3.6. Nouns

Another hedge type consists of nouns. Assumption, claim, possibility, suggestion words can be given as examples of nouns commonly used in the texts.

Table 4.14.

Use of Nouns

Hedge Type	Writer	0-1		2 –Over		Significance Level
		f	%	f	%	$\chi^2 =,154$
Nouns	Turkish	47	94	3	6	$Sd= 1$
	Foreign	46	92	4	8	$p= .695$ $\eta=.039$

Table 4.14 displays the significance level in terms of noun use. It is seen from the table that 0-1 ratio of the use of nouns is 94 % while this ratio is 6 % for the use of 2-over. However, among foreign writers the 0-1 ratio is 92 % and the ratio of two or more than two is 8 %. Chi – Square analysis displayed that there is not a significant difference between them ($X^2=,154$, $Sd=1$, $p>.05$, $\eta=.039$). Accordingly, as a result of the obtained data, it can be said that there is not a statistically significant difference between Turkish and foreign writers in terms of noun use when the categories are regarded.

4.3.7. Conversational & Informal

In conversational use the second category, two or more than two cannot be established; therefore, Chi Square cannot be used to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference in terms of conversational use between these two writer groups. Consequently, in accordance with the available data, it can be noted that for foreign writers conversational use is more common and the use of it is limited for Turkish writers.

Table 4.15.

Use of Conversational & Informal Hedges

Hedge Type	Turkish Writers		Foreign Writers		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
Conversational	9	47,36	10	52,64	19	100
Informal						

Table 4.15. shows the use of conversational & informal hedges. It indicates that the frequency of conversational & informal hedges is 47,36% (9) for Turkish writers while this ratio is 52,64 % (10) for foreign writers. Foreign writers seem to use conversational & informal hedges more frequently than Turkish writers. Consequently, just the frequencies of this hedge type was given in terms of foreign and Turkish writers.

4.3.8. The Use of Total Hedge Number

The results obtained as the total use of hedges between Turkish and foreign writers are given in Table 4.16. The table indicates a total use of hedge types by these writer groups.

Table 4.16.

Use of Total Hedge Number

	Writer	0-5		6- Over		Significance Level
		F	%	f	%	
Total Hedge Use	Turkish	40	80	10	20	$\chi^2 = 3,934$ $Sd = 1$ $p = .047$ $\eta = .47$
	Foreign	31	62	19	38	

Table 4.16 shows the use of total hedge number. In the use of total hedge number again in order to apply Chi-Square test, two different categories as 0-5 and 6-over, were formed. When it is examined, it is seen that the 0-5 ratio of the use of total hedge number is 80 % while this ratio is 20 % for the use of 6-over. On the other hand, among foreign writers the 0-5 ratio of the use of total hedge number is 92 % and the ratio of 6-over is 8 %. In order to find whether there is significant difference between Turkish and foreign writers in the use of total hedge number, Chi – Square analysis was applied and it was found that there is a statistically significant difference between them ($X^2=3,934$, $Sd=1$, $p<.05$, $\eta=.47$). At this point, $\eta=47$ value was calculated and this value obtained as the result of research have a 47 % and mid-level effect.

As regards hedge using tendencies of Turkish and foreign writers, it is seen that foreign writers use more hedges in their efforts to weaken the assumptions they made when compared to Turkish writers. First of all, the reason for this difference lies in the fact that some culturally bound factors can affect the academic writing styles of different discourse communities. For example, Pishghadam and Attaran (2013) in their studies propose that culture has a negative effect on English writing of Persian scholars. In consistent with them, Martin-Martin (2008) found that English speaking scholars use epistemic modality in their texts more than Spanish scholars. This is explained as hedging not being among the convention of Spanish discourse community. Hedging use in academic texts may vary relatively from culture to culture (Yağız & Özdemir, 2014); therefore, culture phenomenon is underlined as an important fact in explaining the most basic variations for the hedge using in comparative studies, one of them is the present research. Unless properly used, hedges may cause cultural miscommunication (Vassileva, 2001).

In the present study, when the 2-over category is regarded, what is clear is that the use of adverbs of frequency, quantifiers, epistemic modality verbs, modal lexical verbs, adjectives-adverbs and nouns are in favor of foreign writers. More specifically, the difference in the total hedge using is much lower for the use of adjective-adverbs and nouns and the least for modal lexical verbs. Seven of the nine hedge types were found in the present study as being used in abstract parts of the articles published by Turkish and foreign writers. The only hedge type in which the ratio of use was nearly the same between these two groups of writers is conversational informal hedges. Both

groups did not employ this hedge type more than one in their abstracts. As we said earlier, while comparing the results of our study with previous research, we need to think of the variations across each part of the article. Therefore, this difference is also among the reasons that distinguishes the present study from the previous ones. In the present study, there were no use of two types of hedges called introductory phrases and vague references in the abstracts of both groups. Introductory phrases and vague references were not used in the analyzed abstracts. What is significant is that in the use of some types there are considerable differences or on the contrary, approximate uses between Turkish and foreign writers; however, these two types of hedges have never been employed by both of these groups. The reason for this fact would be attributed to the analyzed sections of research articles. In the abstract sections, which have a condensed nature and structure, using vague references and introductory phrases may not be so feasible and necessary. However, these points is totally different in a number of studies dealing with introduction, discussion and conclusion parts. For example, in their studies Nivales (2011) and Yağız and Özdemir (2014) found introductory phrases as being frequently used; nevertheless, the sections of articles they analyzed are introduction, conclusion and discussion in which writers comment the most. In terms of providing a detailed table for each hedge type dividing their use into two different categories, this study seems to be the first.

Hu and Cao (2011) in their studies investigated the abstracts in the field of Applied Linguistics published in Chinese and English medium journals. Their quantitative analysis indicated that hedge using is more dominant in the abstracts published in English medium journals than those published in Chinese medium journals which is in parallel with the results of the present study. When the total number of hedge using is taken into consideration, Turkish writers fall behind the foreign writers. In terms of this total use, statistically significant results appear.

According to Yang (2013) native writers employed hedges consisted of modal verbs, lexical verbs, epistemic adjectives and adverbs, nouns and phraseological expressions. While the present study proves the superiority of foreign writers in using modal verbs, in other types especially in terms of 2-over use, there is not statistically considerable differences, though, foreign writers are ahead of Turkish writers.

What affects the scholars' choices of hedge types may be related to their language proficiency (Nivales, 2011) because "skillful use of second language metadiscursive resources such as hedges and boosters is possible only when a writer has moved beyond the basic syntactic structures and general-purpose vocabulary of the target language and mastered more complex syntactic knowledge, richer vocabulary, and greater pragmatic competence" (Hu and Cao, 2011). More concisely, being a non-native writer affects the writing tendencies of writers considerably directing them in line with their limited L2 academic writing knowledge. They construct simple sentences expressing stronger claims (Hyland, 2005). As long as non-native writers do not go beyond this limited L2 proficiency, it will not be so simple to write and produce academic texts. In the present study, it seems that Turkish writers when the use of 0-1 and 2-over are taken into consideration, tend to being in the category of 0-1 use, while in all hedge types, foreign writers' superiority are rather clear. For example, Turkish writers use epistemic modal verbs in the abstracts, but the total number is not as high as the use of foreign writers.

It attracts attention that most of the time, writers may not have enough knowledge on metadiscursive features, they sometimes cannot determine whether what they use is under the group of metadiscursive strategies. For example, Lewin (2005) found considerable differences between writers' purposes while using hedges and readers' acknowledgement of these purposes. More clearly, readers recognize more examples of hedges than the writers intended to use.

Under the results of the present study as well as aforementioned influence of the culture and L2 knowledge, it seems appropriate to establish the assumption that L2 writers do not employ hedging strategies in total accordance with the rules and conventions of English academic discourse community, as also stated by Hinkel(2003) and Yağız & Özdemir (2014).

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSION

5.1.Introduction

In this chapter, firstly, a summary of the study including a brief review of the conclusions written on the basis of results are presented. Then, pedagogical implications and some suggestions for further studies are discussed.

5.2. Summary

The current study was conducted to shed light on the problem of constructing well established abstracts and writers', especially, novice writers' perceptions about scholarly writing and the current problems that lead to challenges in publication process. Scholarly writing is a daunting task for writers; however, the difficulties they experience increase dramatically when they are novice and they are required to produce highly qualified papers. As the English increases predominantly as the prominent language of academia, the problem of writing effectively and in the entailed way, becomes more difficult. Therefore, academics should be equipped with the necessary knowledge. At this point, they must acquire an awareness about scholarly writing, the conventions and rules peculiar to the academia. In fact, this problematic area leads to an increase in academic writing based studies which can yield significant insights for the issue.

The analysis of move structures employed in abstracts written by two different groups has revealed that to some extent, Turkish writers differ from their foreign counterparts in the way of following Hyland's (2000) model including introduction-purpose-method-product and conclusion moves. The results show that while for foreign writers, introduction move is of primary concern, for Turkish writers employing introduction move is not so common. The conventional moves used in the construction of abstracts are purpose-method-product while foreign writers' conventional moves

used in their abstracts are introduction-purpose-method-product- conclusion. What is significant to note there is that foreign writers follow Hyland's model and construct their abstracts based on these five moves.

As to the analysis of verb tense use, in spite of the difference of frequency, the choices of these two groups are similar. Both of them employed most frequently present simple for introduction, purpose and conclusion moves. Likewise, they used most commonly past simple to give method and product moves. As well as these two dominant tenses, some writers also preferred to use tenses which contradict with the general nature of moves. For this reason, Swales and Feak (2009) regard tense usage as a complex matter. What the results of tense usage also have underlined is that the tenses of the moves affect the communicative purpose of the moves taking the moves one step further rather than just being grammatical choices.

As for the results of the interviews, considerably significant data were obtained and these data seem to have a great potential of contributing the literature in which there appears a gap in terms of Turkish scholars' ideas on academic writing ranging from abstract writing to their stance in the academic texts they try to produce and publish. First of all, these interviews have shed light on the theoretical background these writers have and their perceptions about the factors that lead to well-qualified publications of research articles. In general the results were of great value because they reflect writers' general knowledge on constructing abstracts. Moreover, it is essential to indicate that in terms of stance in their texts which are established through hedging use, interviewees are aware of the functions of the hedges in toning down the certainty of claims; nevertheless, most of the participants appreciate the hedging use in research articles as a whole and also in its various sections mainly indicating introduction, discussion and conclusion parts since the interviewees' foci were seen to be in these directions. What are the distinguishing factors there, are the approaches they show as most of them do not seem to have a certain criterion about the nuance of employing hedging devices in abstracts and other sections of the research articles. It was found that differences appear between RAs and RAs abstracts in terms of the use of diverse subcategories of interactional metadiscourse; when compared to the boosters, the hedges are more dominant in RAs while abstracts have a higher percentage of boosters than hedges (Gilaerts and Van de Valde, 2010).The main purpose of the study was to make a

comparison between the two different groups of writers; however, after finding the differences between them, these interviews are of paramount importance as they have ensured the current study to demonstrate the contrast and gap between theory and practice.

As for the results of quantitative analysis conducted through SPSS (22.00), Chi-Square test was employed with the aim of revealing whether there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups. The data obtained from the analysis of abstracts were divided into two categories as the use of 0-1 and 2- over. Between these two groups, statistically significant difference was found in the use of epistemic modality verbs. Though, not revealing a statistically significant difference between other types in terms of categories, foreign writers are ahead of Turkish writers in all hedge types. Two hedge types, introductory phrases and vague references were found to be never used in the abstracts which may be attributed to the nature of abstract writing. In addition to this, Chi-square test could not be applied for conversational- informal hedges as two different categories were not possible to be established for this type ; nevertheless, one more time, foreign writers used them more than their Turkish counterparts. In general, for the total number of hedge use, the results revealed statistically significant differences between the writers. The final conclusion is the dominant hedging use in the abstracts produced by foreign writers which supports the notion that the effect of culture phenomenon on these differences should not be neglected. Concisely, we need to note that through hedging use, papers become more polite because hedges provide the interaction between readers and writers. With the help of such devices, the messages, texts want to transmit, may be conveyed both more smoothly and obviously (Mei and Shuib, 2014).

In general, the results of qualitative and quantitative analysis attract attention, because the study provides a comprehensive framework on the matters that constitute the general structure of the abstracts and have higher possibility of affecting the quality of publishing which leads to great challenges for non-native writers.

In conclusion, the current study has illuminated the move structure of abstracts with the analysis of the writers' stance in these abstracts written and published in the field of ELT. Moreover, the interviews conducted with Turkish scholars yielded

significant implications in terms of supporting the obtained data, especially, from the point of Turkish scholars as Sheldon(2011) states for Spanish discourse community with the following sentence, “ in order not to devalue their own discourse norms by giving higher priority to the English the register, linguists in Spain need to maintain and promote a scientific artefact that is rooted in their own cultural tradition(p. 247).

As regarding the all results the study revealed, it may be stated that to some extent the results of the current study remains consistent with the previous studies. The reason for a number of differences with previous studies lies in the fact that this is a comparative study and Turkish writers were compared with foreign ones.

Concisely, writers, mainly, novice writers need to deeply internalize the conventions of writing and publishing beginning with the abstract section of the research articles. Acquiring this awareness maybe the key start for them if they want to be successful members of academic life .

5.3. Pedagogical Implications

First of all, the findings of this study verify the need of more explicit instruction which should be given at tertiary level on academic writing including how to use rhetorical and metadiscursive features effectively while constructing academic texts. One of the most basic reasons for such a need is that having a theoretical background would eliminate the problems scholars encounter with during their article writing and publication process. When compared to L1 context, it is more challenging for L2 writers because they need to spend more effort and time to write in English. Therefore, increasing the hours of academic writing course, organizing seminars, conference and symposiums on academic writing would enhance the nature of writing leading to more competitive and well organized texts and specifically abstracts and through such organizations, the basic principle of academia and an academic, ‘research ethics’ may be more easily imposed on scholars. Moreover, regular feedback provided for novice writers on the texts they produce may also increase the quality of writing.

Secondly, studies like the current one, may be useful in order to make students be familiar with the differences in scholarly writing both about genres and cross disciplinary bounds (Samraj, 2005).

Thirdly, conducting studies dealing with different aspects of text such as rhetorical and linguistic features provide deeper insights for both ELT field and the writers. It is of importance for writers to be aware of culturally bound factors in writing process as “insights into cultural, linguistic and generic conventions will help teachers to guide novice academic writers when writing up their research” (Soler-Monrealet al., 2011, p. 14).

Finally, in Turkish context, though, Turkish scholars write abstracts to publish their articles, thesis or dissertations, sometimes they may not be so familiar with the idea of using certain rhetorical models. Therefore, being aware of Hyland’s (2000) model used in the present study may yield valuable benefits for them accelerating and facilitating their writing process which will considerably affect the qualities of the academic text they produce. Therefore, conducting comprehensive studies especially in terms of non – native speakers can shed light on the factors that affect the process of writing and publishing.

5.4.Further Research

Literature seems to lack studies related to academic writing; however, this gap is greater for studies dealing with abstracts, abstract writing and linguistic features found in this genre. The current study examined 100 research article abstracts in the field of ELT and the interviews were conducted with 12 participants. Further studies may use larger corpora to obtain more generalizable results. Moreover, interviewing with more scholars including not only doctoral students but also other academicians may bring into a deeper understanding on the matter because if interviews are conducted with novice scholars and professional ones making a comparative research, then the findings may reveal the dimension and effect of developmental process and experience on academic writing proficiency of scholars. The current study include only one discipline, ELT, new studies can make a comparative study across disciplines so that disciplinary variations may be clarified in terms of rhetorical and linguistic features.

Another aspect this study has mainly concentrated was the hedging use in the abstracts written in ELT by Turkish and foreign scholars. A comparative study of abstracts written in English by foreign writers and abstracts written in Turkish may be

of considerable importance in providing cross linguistic studies. Moreover, hedging use is a comprehensive subject requiring more studies. It would be effective to compare the hedging strategies of writers in abstracts and research articles as a whole. In that way, the effect of the particular parts of articles on hedging strategies can be explained more clearly. Attempts to investigate other metadiscursive properties like boosting and attitude markers should also be added to the list and these features may be compared to hedging strategies. Finally, such research may illuminate the related field and contribute to the literature.

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APPENDIX**APPENDIX 1.Consent Form**

Dear Participant,

As graduate of master of arts, you have experienced a process of academic writing. To participate successfully in academia , it is a must to construct and write your research articles in effective ways. In this respect, your response to this survey can greatly broaden our perspective.

The main purpose of this study is to explore the academic writing awareness of scholars in terms of abstract writing and their stance in this section of articles including the hedging strategies they employ.

Your participation in this research is voluntary. Your confidentiality and anonymity are assured. We greatly appreciate your participation in this research. Please return the survey within a week.

Thank you for your interest and participation in this study.

Sincerely,

FATMA KAYA

Lecturer

School of Foreign Languages, Erzurum Technical University

Telephone Number (0442)6662208

E-mail Adress:fatma.kaya@erzurum.edu.tr

OKTAY YAĞIZ

Assistant Professor, Department of English Language Teaching,

Kazım Karabekir Faculty of Education, Ataturk University, Erzurum 25240

Telephone Number: (0442)2314244

APPENDIX 2. Interview Questions

- 1. Which points do you pay attention while constructing an abstract?**
- 2. What do you include in your abstracts?**
- 3. According to you, what is the role/function of an abstract in academic studies? What can be the reason for constructing an abstract?**
- 4. How should you structure your abstract so that it can persuade the scholars to take up and read the whole article?**
- 5. What do you understand from Hyland's statement "Abstract sells the article"?**
- 6. While looking at the abstract, how can you decide that the study is significant and contributes to your field ?**
- 7. How often do you use hedges in your studies/abstracts?**
- 8. Which types of hedges (e.g. modal verbs, quantifiers and etc.) do you include most frequently in your abstracts ?**
- 9. What do you think about your level of knowledge on the norms and conventions of abstract writing?**
- 10. As a scholar, what are your criteria while evaluating the value of the research articles?**
- 11. To whom do you consult or which resources do you use when you need help in academic writing?**
- 12. What can be done to increase the academic writers' awareness about scholarly writing?**

APPENDIX 3. Demographic Questionnaire

What is your age?

1) What is your gender?

Male: ()

Female: ()

2) How many years of English language education have you received?

3) What is your current academic standing?

Master's degree :()

Doctoral degree : ()

Other :()

4) Have you declared a major area of study (a thesis or dissertation and a written assignment or articles etc.)?

No: ()

Yes- What is it ?:()

5) Have you ever joined any academic writing course during your education?

No: ()

Yes- How long?: ()

APPENDIX 4. Articles Used for the Analysis

Articles Written by Turkish Writers

1. Sariçoban, A. (2011). A Study on English Language Teachers' Preparation of the Tests. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 41, 398-410.
2. Karaata, C. (2011). Assumption and Pedagogical Knowledge: Teaching and Learning According to Teachers of English. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 41, 244-254.
3. Öztürk, K., & Akkaş Denkçi, F. (2013). The Effect of Cooperative Learning Activities on Anxiety and Motivation in Multilevel Adult Classes. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 28(3), 357-373.
4. Oktay, Y. B., & Osam Vancı, Ü. (2013). Viewing Foreign Language Teachers' Roles through the Eyes of Teachers and Students. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 44, 249-261.
5. Işık, A. (2011). Language Education and ELT Materials in Turkey from the Path Dependence Perspective. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 40, 256-266.
6. Erkmen, B. (2014). Novice EFL Teachers' Beliefs about Teaching and Learning, and their Classroom Practices. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 29(1), 99-113.
7. Solak, E. (2014). English Learning Strategies of Various Nations: A Study in Military Context. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 29(2), 228-239.
8. Erton, İ. (2010). Relation between Personality Traits, Language Learning Style and Success in Foreign Language Achievement. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 38, 115-126.
9. Arslan, R. Ş. (2013). An Investigation of Prospective English Language Teachers' Spoken Communication Skills : A Case from Turkey. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 28(1), 27-40.
10. Tüm, D. Ö., & Kunt, N. (2013). Speaking Anxiety Among Efl Student Teachers. *Hacettepe University Journal of Education*, 28(3), 385-399.
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CURRICULUM VITAE

Personal Information

Name Surname : Fatma KAYA
Place of Birth/Date of Birth : Horasan/Erzurum 05.11.1990

Education

Primary Education : İnkılap Primary School
Secondary Education : Horasan Anatolian High School-2008
University : Atatürk University - 2013
Kazım Karabekir Faculty of Education
Department of English Language Teaching

Professional Qualifications

Language : English, German

Employment History

2013- : Ministry of Education –English Teacher
2013- : Erzurum Technical University-Lecturer

Contact Information

Address : Erzurum Technical University /ERZURUM
Email : fatma.kaya@erzurum.edu.tr