

**RHETORIC IN MASTER THESIS INTRODUCTIONS
IN THE FIELD OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING
WITHIN TURKISH CONTEXT:
A GENRE ANALYSIS**

MERVE GEÇİKLİ

**Master's Thesis
Department of Foreign Languages Teaching**

**Assist.Prof. Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ
2012**

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**TÜRKİYE'DE İNGİLİZ DİLİ VE EĞİTİMİ ALANINDA YAZILMIŞ
OLAN YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZLERİNİN GİRİŞ BÖLÜMLERİNİN
YAPISAL İNCELEMESİ : BİR TÜR ANALİZİ**

(Rhetoric in Master Thesis Introductions in the field of English Language
Teaching within Turkish Context: A Genre Analysis)

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

Merve GEÇİKLİ

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KABUL VE ONAY TUTANAĞI

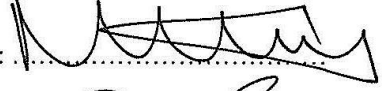
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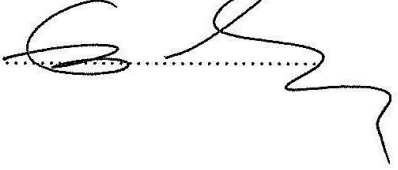
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TEZ ETİK VE BİLDİRİM SAYFASI

Doktora Tezi olarak sunduđum “Türkiye’de İngiliz Dili ve Eđitimi Alanında yazılmıř olan Yüksek Lisans Tezlerinin Giriř Bölümlerinin Yapısal İncelemesi: Bir Tür Analizi” bařlıklı çalıřmanın, tarafımdan, bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düřecek bir yardıma bařvurmaksızın yazıldıđını ve yararlandıđım eserlerin kaynakçada gösterilenlerden olduđunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanılmıř olduđunu belirtir ve onurumla dođrularım.

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26/07/2012

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ÖZET

YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ

TÜRKİYE'DE İNGİLİZ DİLİ VE EĞİTİMİ ALANINDA YAZILMIŞ OLAN YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZLERİNİN GİRİŞ BÖLÜMLERİNİN YAPISAL İNCELEMESİ : BİR TÜR ANALİZİ

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Teori ve uygulamada akademik yazma bilgisinin derinlemesine anlaşılmasına yönelik duyulan ihtiyaç, birçok farklı disiplinde bu konuyu farklı boyutlarıyla ele alan çalışmaların artmasına sebep olmuştur. Bilimsel konuşma ve yazma ortamlarında sıklıkla uygulanan türler günümüzde akademik yazmanın en çok çalışılan ve irdelenen bu boyutlarından biridir. Çalışmalarda , genellikle türlerin retorik, yapısal ve dilsel yönden düzenlemeleri , bu metinlerin düzenlenme sürecinde süreci etkileyen faktörlerin farklı bakış açılarından hareketle vurgulanarak, araştırılmıştır. Fakat , bazı türlere yönelik çalışmalar sayıca oldukça azdır, ve bu akademik metinlerin ve/veya bölümlerinin genel olarak düzenlenmesi ile ilgili çok az şey bilindiğinden dolayı, çalışmalarda bu sayıca azlık yeni araştırmacılar açısından akademik yazmanın sorunlu bir boyutunu oluşturmaktadır. Bu yüzden, bu çalışmada, nadir incelenmiş türlerden biri olan ve İngiliz Dili Eğitimi alanında Türk yazarlar tarafından İngilizce yazılmış olan yüksek lisans tezlerinin giriş kısımları incelenmiştir. Ayrıca, Türkiye’de İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi alanında çalışan araştırmacıların yüksek lisans tezlerinin giriş kısımlarının retorik düzenlemesine yönelik görüşleri araştırılmıştır. Bu çalışmada, tezlerin giriş kısımlarının düzenlenmesinde genel eğilimi ve dil eğitimi alanındaki Türk araştırmacıların bu metinlerin düzenlenmesindeki değerlendirmelerini keşfetmek, ve böylece teori ve uygulamadaki benzerlik ve farklılıkları ve bunların arkasında yatan kültür temelli ana unsurları bulmak için, özellikle Özel Amaçlara yönelik İngilizce Geleneği takip edilmiştir. Dil öğretimi alanındaki yüksek lisans tezlerinin giriş bölümlerine özgü özellikleri belirlemek amacıyla, çalışma, tezlerin giriş kısımlarını oluşturan aşama ve adımların üç yönlü derlem analizi ve Swales ‘ın (1990,2004) Create-a Research- Space modelinin Soler-Monreal ve arkadaşları (2011) tarafından uyarlanmış olan versiyonundan hareketle geliştirilmiş olan 5’li likert ölçeğine araştırmacı ve akademisyenlerin vermiş olduğu yanıtların analizleri üzerinden ilerlemektedir. Nitel verilerin analizi – Türk yazarlar tarafından İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi alanında ve bu alanın alt dallarında yazılmış olan 100 adet yüksek lisans tezinin giriş bölümü- Swales ‘ın (1990,2004) modelinin Soler-Monreal ve arkadaşları (2011) tarafından uyarlanmış olan versiyonun Türk İngiliz Dili ve Eğitimi araştırma ortamına uyarlanmış ve düzeltilmiş şekli kullanılmıştır. Nicel verilerin analizi de, SPSS 18 programı kullanılarak yapılmıştır. Nicel ve nitel analizlerin sonuçları; araştırmacıların tezlerin giriş kısımlarında modelin dikkatli bir şekilde takip edilmesini desteklemelerine rağmen, Türk yazarlar tarafından yazılan İngilizce metinlerin , modele belli bir ölçüde bağlı kalarak düzenlenmesiyle beraber belirli ölçüde kültüre has bir biçimlendirme yansıttığını göstermektedir. Bu bulgulardan hareketle, araştırmacıların tezlerin giriş kısımları ile ilgili algıları ile uygulamadaki genel eğilim arasındaki farklılık ve benzerliklerin, anadildeki akademik yazma ortamının normları ve bu normların ikinci dildeki yazma sürecine yansıtılması, hem birinci dildeki bilim topluluğunun hemde uluslararası akademik toplulukların ihtiyaçlarına uygun düzenleme çabası gibi kültürel, sosyal ve pedagojik faktörlerden kaynaklandığı yargısına varılabilir. Böylelikle, bu çalışma, dil eğitimi alanında yazılmış olan yüksek lisans tezlerinin giriş kısımlarında retorik tercihindeki kültür temelli genel eğilimi ortaya çıkarmakta, ve Özel Amaçlara yönelik İngilizce literatürüne çok az çalışılmış bir boyutunu gerek tür gerekse farklı bir kültür yönünden ele alarak önemli bir katkıda bulunmaktadır. Bulguların; akademik bir metnin düzenlenmesi noktasında daha kapsamlı bir şekilde düzenlenmiş retorik sistemlerin takip edilmesinde yeni araştırmacılara yol göstereceğine ve birçok disiplinde akademik yazma ile uğraşan uzmanlar için akademik metinler aracılığıyla bilimsel iletişim sağlamaya dikkat çekerek Türkiye bağlamında akademik yazma sürecine dönük farklı bir bakış açısı sunacağına ve bu alana yönelik kapsamlı bir bilgi sağlayacağına inanılmaktadır.

Anahtar Sözcükler: Tür; Özel Amaçlara yönelik İngilizce; CARS modeli; Yüksek Lisans Tezi; Yüksek Lisans Tezi Giriş Bölümü

ABSTRACT

MASTER THESIS

RHETORIC IN MASTER THESIS INTRODUCTIONS IN THE FIELD OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING WITHIN TURKISH CONTEXT: A GENRE ANALYSIS

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The need for a deeper understanding of academic writing knowledge in theory and practice has resulted in the increase of the studies focusing on this issue from different dimensions within several disciplines. Today, one of the most commonly emphasized and studied dimension of academic writing is genres which are frequently applied in spoken and written academic discourses. In the studies, generally, rhetorical, structural, and linguistical organisation of the genres have been investigated by pointing out the basic factors affecting the arrangement process of these academic manuscripts from different perspectives. However, the studies of some certain genres are few in number, which mainly forms a problematic aspect of academic writing for novice writers as there is little known on the overall organisation of these academic texts and/or their each section. So, in this study, the introduction sections of one of the less studied genres, master theses, written in English by Turkish-background writers in the field of English Language Teaching, were examined. Additionally, the perceptions of Turkish practitioners, involved in the ELT research field in Turkish context, on the rhetorical organisation of the introductory parts of master thesis were investigated. In this study, specifically, English for Specific Purposes Tradition is drawn upon to explore the rhetorical tendency in the introductions of master theses and the assesment of the content arrangement of the introductions of these academic texts by Turkish practitioners in the field of ELT, and thus to discover the basic similarities and differences between theory and practice, and the culture-unique reasons behind these similarities and differences. To identify rhetorical characteristics characteristic to master thesis introductions within the area of English Language Teaching, this study reports on a pragmatic three-level corpus analysis of the constituent moves and steps of introductions and the analysis of responses of practitioners to a 5 point rating scale derived from and developed on the basis of Soler-Monreal and et al.'s (2011) modification of Swales' (1990, 2004) Create-A-Research-Space model (CARS). The analysis of qualitative data – the introductory parts of one hundred master theses written in the field and subfields of ELT in English by Turkish writers- is framed using the revised and adapted version of Soler-Monreal and et al.'s (2011) modification of Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS model to Turkish ELT research context. As for the analysis of quantative data – the data obtained from the responses of four hundred and three respondents to the scale-, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Programme (SPSS 18.0) was used. The results indicate that while the practitioners support to display a close affinity to the model in the rhetorical organisation of master thesis introductions, the English texts written by Turkish writers show some culture bound arrangement style as well as appearing to be designed in a similar way to the rhetorical strategies identified in the model to some extent. Accordingly, these findings may lead to the assumption that the similarities and differences between perceptions of practitioners on the content of the introductory parts of theses and the general tendency in practice result from cultural, social, pedagogical, and linguistical factors such as the norms of L1 academic writing context and the reflection of these norms in L2 academic writing process, effort to accommodate the needs of both L1 discourse community and international academic platforms. Hereby, this study has clarified culture specific tendency in the rhetoric preferred in the introductions of master thesis in the realm of ELT and, thus contributes significantly to ESP literature by focusing on a relatively under-researched side of the field both from the dimensions of genre examined and the context focused. It is believed that the findings will assist novice researchers to follow well-organized rhetorical systems in the organisation of an academic manuscript and its sections and will provide a comprehensive knowledge on and introduce a new perspective to the academic writing process in Turkish context by giving closer attention to scientific communication manner through academic texts for scholars involved in academic writing in several disciplines.

Key words: Genre; English for Specific Purposes; CARS model; Master Thesis; Master Thesis Introduction

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CONTENTS

KABUL VE ONAY TUTANAĞI	i
TEZ ETİK VE BİLDİRİM SAYFASI	ii
ÖZET.....	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	v
LIST OF TABLES	x
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
ABBREVIATIONS	xii

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Presentation	1
1.2. General Background to the Study and Defintion of Terms.....	1
1.2.1. Genre and Review to Genre-Based Studies.....	2
1.2.2.Defintion of Terms	6
1.3. Statement of the Problem	9
1.4. Scope and Purpose Statemet of the Study.....	11
1.5. Research Questions of the Study	12
1.6. Significance of the Study	12
1.7. Limitations of the Study.....	14
1.8. Structure of the Thesis	15

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	16
2.1. Presentation	16
2.2. Second Language Writing.....	16
2.2.1. Historical Perspective to Second Language Writing	16
2.3. Genre and Second Language Writing	22
2.4. Genre	26
2.4.1. Dynamic Structure of Genre- Historical Perspective	29
2.4.1.1. Genre in traditions	30

2.4.1.1.1. Genre in literary traditions.....	31
2.4.1.1.1.1. Neoclassical approaches to genre	31
2.4.1.1.1.2. Structuralist approaches to genre.....	32
2.4.1.1.1.3. Romantic and post-romantic approaches to genre.....	33
2.4.1.1.1.4. Reader response approaches to genre	33
2.4.1.1.1.5. Cultural studies approaches to genre	34
2.4.1.1.2. Genre in rhetorical and sociological traditions.....	35
2.4.1.1.3. Genre in linguistic traditions	37
2.4.1.1.3.1. Systemic functional linguistics	37
2.4.1.1.3.2. Historical/Corpus linguistics	43
2.4.1.1.3.3. English for specific purposes.....	46
2.4.1.1.3.3.1. John Swales, ESP and genre.....	48
2.4.1.1.3.3.1.1. Swales and ESP	48
2.4.1.1.3.3.1.2. Swales and genre	55
2.4.1.1.3.3.1.3. System and scope of ESP	59
2.4.1.1.3.3.1.4. English for specific purposes and/versus other linguistic traditions	64
2.4.1.1.3.3.1.5. ESP in recent years and ESP trend in genre-analysis studies.....	66
2.4.1.1.3.3.1.5.1. ESP in recent years- developments & critiques.....	66
2.4.1.1.3.3.1.5.2. Genre analysis studies (Samples from 1990 to 2011)- ESP traces	74

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY.....	82
3.1. Presentation	82
3.2. Research Questions	82
3.4. Research Design.....	82
3.5. Data Source	85
3.5.1. Corpus.....	85
3.5.2. Participants	86
3.5.3. Scale.....	86
3.6. Data Collection Procedure	88

3.7. Data Analysis	88
3.7.1. Analysis of Qualitative Data.....	88
3.7.1.1. Rater analysis.....	88
3.7.1.2. Rhetoric identification model	90
3.7.2. Analysis of quantitative data	92

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION	93
4.1. Presentation.....	93
4.2. The Results of the Qualitative Analysis.....	93
4.2.1. Move Analysis	94
4.2.2. Step Analysis	98
4.2.2.1. Steps in M1	98
4.2.2.2. Steps in M2.....	101
4.2.2.3. Steps in M3	103
4.3. The Results of Quantitative Analysis.....	106
4.3.1. The Results of Demographics.....	106
4.3.1.1. Institution and department	106
4.3.1.2. Gender.....	107
4.3.1.3. Academic writing course	107
4.3.2. Results of Scale.....	108
4.3.2.1. Distribution of results to the question of “ have you ever taken academic writing course?”	108
4.3.2.1.1. MOVE-1- Establishing a territory	108
4.3.2.1.2. MOVE-2-Establishing a Niche.....	110
4.3.2.1.3. MOVE-3- Occupying the Niche.....	112
4.3.3. Descriptive Statistics for each category and item of scale	114
4.3.3.1. Mean Values for each MOVE of CARS model.....	114
4.3.3.2. Descriptive Statistics and Mean Values for each item of MOVE 1	116
4.3.3.3. Descriptive Statistics and Mean Values for each item of MOVE 2	117
4.3.3.4. Descriptive Statistics and Mean Values for each item of MOVE 3	119
4.4. Discussion	122

4.4.1. MOVE-1 Establishing a Research Territory-	124
4.4.2. MOVE-2 – Establishing a Niche	128
4.4.3. MOVE-3 Occupying the Niche	132

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSION.....	137
5.1. Presentation	137
5.2. Summary	137
5.3. Pedagogical implications	140
5.4. Further Research	141
REFERENCES.....	143
APPENDIX	167
APPENDIX 1	167
APPENDIX 2	168
APPENDIX 3	171
APPENDIX 4	172
CURRICULUM VITAE	173

LIST OF TABLES

Table 4.1. Frequencies of Moves in Turkish and English PhD Thesis Introductions	95
Table 4.2. Frequencies of Steps in Move 1:Establishing a Territory	99
Table 4.3. Frequencies of Steps in Move 2:Establishing a Niche	101
Table 4.4. Frequencies of Steps in Move 3:Occupying the Niche	103
Table 4.5. Frequencies and Percentages of Institution	106
Table 4.6. Frequencies and Percentages of Department.....	107
Table 4.7. Frequencies and Percentages of Gender.....	107
Table 4.8. Frequencies and Percentages for Question of “ Have you ever taken academic writing course?”	108
Table 4.9. T–Test Results, Means(m), Standard Deviations(s.d.) and Sigma(p) for Yes and No Answers according to the Items of MOVE 1	109
Table 4.10. T–Test Results, Means(m), Standard Deviations(s.d.) and Sigma(p) for Yes and No Answers according to the Items of MOVE 2	111
Table 4.11. T–Test Results, Means(m), Standard Deviations(s.d.) and Sigma(p) for Yes and No Answers according to the Items of MOVE 3	113
Table 4.12. Means and Standard Deviations for MOVE-1, MOVE-2 and MOVE-3 ...	115
Table 4.13. Frequencies, Percentages and Means of each Item of MOVE-1.....	116
Table 4.14. Frequencies, Percentages and Means of each Item of MOVE-2.....	118
Table 4.15. Frequencies, Percentages and Means of each Item of MOVE-3.....	121

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1. Rhetoric Identification Model.....	92
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ABBREVIATIONS

CARS	: Creating a Research Space
EAP	: English for Academic Purposes
ELT	: English Language Teaching
ESP	: English for Specific Purposes
L1	: First Language
L2	: Second Language
M.A.	: Master of Arts
Ph.D	: Philosophy of Doctorate
RA	: Research Article
SFL	: Systemic Functional Linguistics
SLW	: Second Language Writing
TESOL	: Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages

CHAPTER ONE

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Presentation

In this chapter, firstly, a general background to the research field and the definition of terms frequently used in the study will be presented. Then, the problem in the literature will be clarified. Following these, the scope and the purpose of the study will be stated. Upon providing the research questions and the significance of the study, the limitations will be explained. The chapter ends with stating the structure of the study.

1.2. General Background to the Study and Defintion of Terms

Changes within the contexts as a result of social, economic and political circulations lead to a shift in language use as well, which results in the production of new ways to share information in the several discourses among interlocutors. According to Salager-Meyer (1999), language always changes in response to social, economic and political development and these changes are related to the context in which discourse is produced, the actors involved and the function served by the text. Bazerman's (1988) studies have indicated that as sciences have continued to evolve, so do have the language and rhetorical means by which they are primarily communicated. The evolution of the information structure of a society thus is reflected in the generic structure of the texts produced by that society at a given point in time (Halliday, 1978; Valle, 1991).

The concept of genre, as defined by Swales (1990), indicates that the textural patterns are subject to change and evolution (Li & Ge, 2009). The variability in the use of language for the structural organizations of ideas in specific genres have been shown in the studies carried out up to now from different sides within several disciplines.

1.2.1. Genre and Review to Genre-Based Studies

The growing importance of the academic writing knowledge within various fields has led to an increase in the studies focusing on the genres commonly used in the written and spoken academic discourse from different dimensions. Generally, the majority of these studies has been based on the organisation of genres through the analysis of the language use from grammatical and lexical or lexico-grammatical perspectives, rhetorical and structural patterns followed, content arrangement, with the presentation of theoretical, pedagogical, sociological, and also cultural reasons behind these applications, and additionally, the comparison of them within and across disciplines, and contexts as well.

Genres are defined as “ways of recognizing, responding to, acting meaningfully and consequentially within, and helping to reproduce recurrent situations” (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; p.3) and the instructions to improve competency in writing have been strongly influenced by this idea of genres as specified rhetorical devices to provide interaction within recurring situations. So today, 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 & Reiff, 2010; p.3).

In the related literature, it is seen that written and spoken genres such as research articles (e.g. Swales, 1990), PhD theses (e.g. Soler-Monreal et. al., 2011), grant proposals (e.g. Connor & Mauranen, 1999), sales promotion letter (Bhatia, 1993), textbooks (Hyland, 2000; Moore, 2002), conference papers (Rowley-Jolivet, 2002) have been studied by the researchers in English for Academic Purposes and English for Specific Purposes. The overall results of these studies present information about the macro organization of these genres and their textual features characterizing these genres. Additionally, some of these studies show the variability in the application of genres across disciplines, and linguistic and cultural communities, by presenting the

specific contextual features of these disciplines and communities reflected in discursive devices.(e.g. Ahmad, 1997; Connor, 1996; Melander, Swales & Fredrickson,1997; Samraj, 2002b; Swales&Najjar,1987).

Specifically, the studies have focused on the academic genres from separate lines by analysing the segments of each one with a point to specific factors describing these genres within the borders of the disciplines , or through interdisciplinary research.

One line of the research studies has delineated linguistic features of the genres in the academic written discourse such as verb tense (Liang, 2005; Malcolm, 1987; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Thompson&Ye, 1991; Burrough Boneisch, 2003;Hinkel,2004), hedging devices (Crompton, 1997; Huangfu, 2005; Hyland, 1994, 1996, 1998; Salager-Meger, 1994), voice (Matsuda, 2001; Matsuda&Tardy, 2007), function words (Chen & Lee , 2009), function of adjectives (Soler, 2002), nouns (Flowerdew,2003), the use of reporting verbs (Thompson&Ye, 1991), modality (Huangfu, 2005; Salager-Meyer, 1992), first person pronoun (Hyland, 2001; Kuo, 1999; Liang, 2005; Salager-Meyer, 2001; Thetela, 1997).

Another line of research has mainly described the overall organization of , and especially the rhetorical and structural arrangement of the different sections of academic genres written in various sciences (e.g. Brett, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Lim, 2006; Nwogu, 1997; Ozturk, 2007; Piqué, 2006; Posteguillo, 1999; Samraj, 2002; Swales, 1990; Williams, 1999; Yang&Allison, 2003, 2004). Within this research line, also, there have been studies focusing on the variaton of genres across linguistic, cultural and academic communities as well as the organization (e.g. Samraj, 2002b; Devitt, 1991; Bazerman, 1994; Fahnestock, 1986; Myers, 1990). Furthermore, through contrastive rhetoric analysis, socio-rhetorical and socio-cultural aspects influencing textual and content organisation of genres have been put forward as a result of the studies comparing corpora in different varieties of a language(e.g. Ädel, 2008; Pak & Acevedo, 2008) and among different languages (e.g. Árvay& Tankó, 2004; Burgess, 2002; Lee, 2000; Loukianenko Wolfe, 2008; Martín- Martín, 2003; Moreno, 1997; Taylor & Chen,1991; Suàrez & Moreno, 2008; Wang, 2008).

In the context of genre-based studies, the most prominent work has been devoted to the analysis of research articles (RA), which Li and Ge (2009;p.94) indicates “constitute the most important channel for the presentation of new knowledge in today’s scientific arena”, and dissertations (PhD), as two most frequently applied genres in the academic written discourse. The overall organization of these two genres as well as particular sections or chapters within them have been examined by the researchers (e.g. Hyland, 2000; Samraj, 2005; Brett, 1994; Williams, 1999; Holmes, 1997; Yang & Allison, 2003; Thompson, 2005; Bunton, 2002, 2005; Kwan, 2006; Ridley, 2000). However, despite an interest in almost all sections, the most commonly studied parts of RAs and PhD theses are the introductory sections (e.g. Bhatia, 1997; Nwogu, 1990; Paltridge, 1994; Bunton, 2002; e.g. Cooley & Lewkowicz, 1997; LoCastro; 2008) , which are the key parts of these genre types with the purposes as “ to provide the rationale for the paper, moving from general discussion of the topic to the particular question or hypothesis being investigate” and “ to attract interest in the topic- and hence readers”(Swales & Feak, 2004; p.222). In these studies, the rhetorical and structural patternings of the introductions with a focus on the textual characteristics, or the contextual paradigms of the discourse, in which the genres are produced from pedagogical, cultural and sociological aspects, have been presented under the light of the data obtained from the analyses based on the models within different genre theories.

An important dimension of genre-based studies is the traditions followed in the analysis. References in the literature have identified three different theoretical positions, namely: 1.English for Specific Purposes according to the Swalesian tradition of genre, 2.North American New Rhetoric Studies, and 3. Australian systemic functional linguistics (Flowerdew, 2005; p.322). Hyonn (1996) in her article “Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL” published in *TESOL Quarterly* presents a systematical knowledge of these three traditions with an emphasis on “the three distinct ways by researchers and practitioners with different backgrounds and representing different parts of the world” (Bazerman, Bonini & Figueiredo, 2009; p.3). For the first one, she notes that “many ESP scholars have paid particular attention to detailing the formal characteristics of genres while focusing less on the specialized functions of texts and their surrounding social contexts” (p. 695). In contrast, New Rhetoric scholars “have focused more on the situational contexts in which genres occur than on their forms and

have placed special emphases on the special purposes, or *actions*, that these genres fulfill within these situations” (p. 696). For SFL scholars, genre is one element in a complex social semiotic system, delineating and exploring the textual features of which is empowering for both learners and (disadvantaged) citizens ” (Bazerman, Bonini &Figueiredo, 2009; p.3).

In the genre-based studies carried out, the most commonly followed tradition in the analysis is English for Specific Purposes based on the Swalesian approach to genre(e.g. Árvay & Tankó, 2004; Burgess, 2002; Lee, 2000; Yakhontova, 2002; Ozturk, 2007). Bruce (2009) indicates that this approach to genre involves identifying a recurrent pattern commonly used to organize the content of a genre (category of texts), and then relating the stages of this content-organizing pattern to specific linguistic features. Social function and form of spoken and written language in academic research settings are mainly focused by the approach put forward by Swales(1990), whose work has been seminal in shaping genre theory in English for Specific Purposes and ‘ the move structure’ analysis involving the classifications of the parts of text in terms of supplying meaningful communication for a particular genre forms the basis of the genre in the ESP domain. Swales proposed (1990, p.141) the Create a Research Space (CARS) model for article introductions consisting of three basic moves: Move 1: Establishing a territory; Move 2:Establishing a niche; Move 3: Occupying the niche. At this point, it is essential to indicate that this model was re-modified by Swales in his later studies(e.g. 2002b, 2004), and also it has been extended by the other researchers involved in the field of ESP (e.g. Bhatia, 1993, 1995, 1999, 2002; Hyon, 1996; Connor & Mauranen, 1999).

As for Turkish context, the genre-based studies are based on the rhetorical organization of some academic genres(e.g. RAs, PhD theses) through ‘the move structure analysis’ by mostly following the original version of the CARS model or its modified or applied versions on the basis of the studies carried under the domain of the ESP tradition led by the Swalesian approach for genre (e.g. Yağız, 2009)

In his PhD thesis, Yağız focused on “ the rhetorical patterns of research study samples of Turkish graduate students in the field of foreign language learning and teaching encompassing empirical dimension” (Yağız, 2009;p.110) and followed

Swales' CARS model in the analysis of the introductions. The overall results of the analysis show that “ the move structure of 10 introductions except for 1 sample differed from the established structure proposed by CARS model”(Yağız, 2009; p.112). Yağız (2009) also indicates that in the introduction sections, graduate level students did not follow a certain pattern in the rhetorical organization.

In general, the changing winds within the contextual structure a language belongs to result in shifting changes in the practice of that language in various discourses. The networks used in the share of information among communities have been modified in parallel with the cyclic pattern in the history of the communication development in which the birth of each new way to supply the flow of information, and thus meaningful communication, has come forth after another. Taking the academic written discourse into consideration, the same is also legitimate as it is seen in the theoretical background given above which clearly presents the circulations and development of genres used to communicate among academic platforms, and of different models and traditions followed in the rhetorical and structural arrangement of these genres. Especially, the need of academic writing knowledge in scientific fields has led to an increase in the number of studies based on specific genres in order to provide information on the use of genres from not only textual but also field-specific , social and cultural aspects, through which new traditions, models and perspectives on genres in the academic written discourse have appeared.

1.2.2.Definition of Terms

Second Language Writing

Second Language Writing is the process of writing in a foreign or second language which includes “three fundamental dimensions, which are a) features of the texts that people produce, b) the composing processes that people use while they write and c) the sociocultural contexts in which people write “, and each of which “has a micro- and a macro- perspective, viewing second-language writing either from a relatively local, episodic, or individual basis or from a more global, sequential, or holistic viewpoint” (Cumming, 2001; p.2).

Master Thesis

A master thesis is “a long piece of writing on a particular subject, especially one that is done for a higher college or university degree” ([http : // dictionary . cambridge .org/dictionary/british/thesis?q=thesis](http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/thesis?q=thesis)).

The master’s thesis is a carefully argued scholarly paper of approximately 12,000 – 13,000 words (roughly 50 pages). It should present an original argument that is carefully documented from primary and/or secondary sources. The thesis must have a substantial research component and a focus that falls within arts and science, and it must be written under the guidance of an advisor. As the final element in the master’s degree, the thesis gives the student an opportunity to demonstrate expertise in the chosen research area. (Web: <http://draper.fas.nyu.edu/object/draper.program.thesisguidelines>)

Master Thesis Introduction

A master thesis introduction is the part of the thesis where the author introduces the work done to the readers by generalizing the topic of the study through the presentation of the theoretical background and by clarifying the significance and the contributions of the study as an original one to provide answers to the raising problem and thus to fill the gap in the literature.

English for Specific Purposes

English for Specific Purposes is a linguistic approach to genre characterized by analysis of the features of texts in relation to the values and rhetorical purposes of discourse communities. Within an ESP framework, a genre is seen as a relatively stable class of linguistic and rhetorical events that members of a discourse community have typified in order to respond to and achieve shared communicative goals. Research in ESP commonly focuses on the use of genre analysis for applied ends. ESP genre pedagogies target advanced, often graduate-level international students in British and U.S. universities and attend to community-identified genres used within specific disciplinary settings. (Bawarshi and Reiff,2010; p212).

Genre

Genre is defined in the dictionaries as “ a particular type or style of literature, art, film or music that you can recognize because of its special features” (Oxford Advanced Learners Dictionary, 2010), and as “a style, especially in the arts, that involves a particular set of characteristics” (Web: [http:// dictionary . cambridge .org /dictionary/british/genre_1?q=genre](http://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/genre_1?q=genre)). As for the academic written and spoken discourse, the definition of genre shows a variability as a result of the several aspects raising on the basis of different schools of thought.

Genre, as a term, is confusing in terms of definition because of dilemmas such as whether it is used as a classification system of phenomena, or as a way of representation of meaning although there have been important developments within the field of genre over the last decades. Actually, this confusion is contextually the natural result of the competition between the popular theories , some of which take it as a text type while the others uses it as a categorization system. According to Bawarshi and Reiff(2010), these competing views of genre are reflected in the etymology of the word genre, which is borrowed from French (p.3). 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.” On the other hand, genre, again through its related word gender, can be traced to the Latin cognate genre, meaning to generate (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.3).

All in all, Genre is defined as a typified rhetorical way of recognizing, responding to, act- ing meaningfully and consequentially within, and thus partici- pating in the reproduction of, recurring situations. Genres both organize and generate kinds of texts and social actions, in complex, dynamic relation to one another. While traditional views of genre emphasize its application as a tool of classification, contemporary rhetorical, linguistic, and literary views of genre understand it to be an ideologically active and historically changing force in the production and reception of texts, meanings, and social actions. (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.213)

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). Yağız (2009; p.10)

states 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 the moves in the introductions of Master theses.

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)

Niche

In ecology, a niche is a particular microenvironment where a particular organism can thrive. In academic discourse, a niche is a context where a particular piece of research makes particularly good sense. (Feak and Swales, 2004; p. 244)

Context

Context is broad label for the conditions in which discourse occurs. Contexts exist not merely as backdrops or frames within which genres and actions take place, but form in a dynamic, inter-dependent, mutually-constructing relationship with the genre systems they situate. Through the use of genres and other mediational means, communicants perform context as they function within it. (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p212).

Discourse

Discourse is language in use and understood as participating in social systems and so having determining effects in social life. (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p211)

1.3. Statement of the Problem

The context of genre-based studies shows a great variability about the dimensions of genres focused. At this point, the literature presents a striking result that the studies have mostly focused on a single genre and generally applied small corpus in

their analyses . The other noteworthy result about the content of these studies is that , though different genre types such as grant proposals, conference papers, project proposals, textbooks and etc. have been studied by the researchers from different scientific backgrounds in certain disciplines, research articles and PhD theses are the most frequently investigated genres with a specific emphasis on either the overall organisation or particular sections or chapters of , or textual and linguistic structure of them.

Naturally, the results of these studies have provided useful information about not only the rhetorical and structural patternings of these genres and the procedures followed by the writers in various disciplines in the writing process, but also the discursive factors via the presentation of pedagogical implications, and even about the variability between different academic written contexts through contrastive rhetoric studies (e.g. Soler-Monreal, Carbonell-Olivares & Gil-Salom, 2011) by giving the certain paradigms characterizing each context. However, first of all, as these studies have focused on a fairly small corpus (e.g. Ozturk, 2007; Jablonkai, 2009; Li& Ge 2009) and the generalisable results would be only provided with a more extended work, they have presented pedagogical implications just within the scope of the corpus studied, and so the applicability of these implications would only be possible for the corpus parallel in with the studied ones. The other side is that the less the number of the samples of a specific genre examined in the study is, the less sufficient the data obtained from the analysis are to explain the descriptive peculiarities in terms of cultural, sociological, political and academical aspects of the niche in which the study is conducted, and so it is clearly seen that , with their small corpus, the genre-based studies in the literature have given quite a little information to describe all the contextual factors reflected in a specific genre, or even the context itself which the genre is produced in. Thirdly, there are numerous kinds of genres actively used in the academic written discourse. However, as it is indicated before, the literature shows a clear tendency on the study of some specific genres such as RA and PhD theses, and the other genres such as master (MA) theses , proposals, web-blogs and etc. are the rarely or never studied ones within many scientific fields in various contexts. At last, in these studies , from methodological dimension, only the analysis of a specific corpus or two corpora according to a model has been followed and other data collection

procedures and data analysis methods have been applied in only a few studies (e.g. Yağız, 2009; Bruce, 2009). All in all, the significance of the comprehensive knowledge on academic written discourses demands more extended work to provide the generalisable information on the genres and the different aspects of genres, and today, despite the increase in the number of studies, still little is known about the genres, and thus, the contexts in which they are actively used because of the parameters in the genre-based studies stated above. It would seem, therefore, that further investigations are needed in order to supply this demand.

1.4. Scope and Purpose Statement of the Study

Considering the increase in the number of research studies carried out on the structural and rhetorical design of genres produced by the authors from different cultural and linguistic backgrounds in the academic written context, it is also necessary to conduct studies concerning the patternings of other genres and the sections of these genres to get information about the rhetorical strategies employed in various disciplines within different discourses by focusing on the niche of these information-sharing devices. Thus, taking the challenges of the previous literature and the demand presented in the section of problem statement into consideration, the present study extends the research into the use of another specific genre, master theses, which are continuously produced in the academic written context but of which previous research has addressed neither the overall rhetorical and structural organisation or the sections nor the discursive factors behind the process of the production, by investigating a corpus of 100 English master theses written in the field of English language teaching in Turkish context with the presentation of the preliminary results of a triangulation research design involving the comparison of the data obtained from the textual analysis of the introduction sections of the theses and the frequency analysis of a likert-scale, which was applied to 450 academicians having experienced a writing process of master thesis in the field of English Language Teaching to get their ideas about the patternings of the introductions.

In the light of aforementioned discussions, the main purpose of this study is to explore whether the M.A.theses, which have been produced within the field of English

language teaching by the authors from different academic institutions in Turkey, employed the same rhetorical strategies to introduce the work presented. Besides the identification of the strategies, the study aims to reveal the characteristics descriptive for the measurement of the general tendency in the presentation of the ideas in introduction section in master theses with a genre analysis from a socio-rhetorical perspective..

1.5. Research Questions of the Study

This study is guided by the following particular questions:

1. Do authors begin by establishing the significance of their research area?
2. Do authors summarize previous relevant research in the area?
3. Do authors point out a “gap” in that previous research—perhaps an area the research has overlooked (such as whether or not its conclusions apply to the local situation), or possibly a question as to whether the research methods or interpretations of results in previous studies are completely reliable?
4. Do authors make clear (whether or not they state it explicitly) that in the rest of their study they will present their own original research to fill the “gap” ?

1.6. Significance of the Study

There are important driving factors behind the impetus that propelled the researcher into the production of such a research study. First of all, although considerable research has been devoted to organizational patterns of certain academic genres from different perspectives, to knowledge of the researcher, there is no any recorded study based on the textual organization of Master Theses in the related literature in none of the scientific fields in academic research contexts including the Turkish one as well. It would seem , therefore, that, this study, motivated from this gap, is the first one to focus on the organizational pattern of Master theses. The other driving factor is that , as stated before, the genre-based studies have mainly focused on a very small corpus except one or two study (e.g. Vongpumivitch, Huang &Chang, 2009), which raises the question whether the results of these studies are generalizable or

not. Consequently, in this study, because it is believed that a larger corpus would lead to a work that would be more useful and informative for researchers and the ones experiencing academic writing processes, a larger corpus has been applied with a number of 100 English master theses in order to provide more generalizable results in terms of exploration of the general tendency within the field of English Language Teaching research area in the Turkish context. The third one is based on the reasons to follow the mixed research design in the present study. In the previous studies, many researchers have applied qualitative research designs through textual analysis with the collected corpora according to a model and quantitative research designs have been nearly never used in the data collection and data analysis procedures, which has led to the questioning of the reliability and validity of the results. Therefore, this study follows the mixed research design including data collection and data analysis methods from both qualitative and quantitative research designs in order to supply the reliability and validity of the study.

The factors presented above are mainly related to the importance of the study as a novel one by addressing the gaps in the previous research. Besides them, the rationale of the study is also based on its pedagogical contributions to the literature.

From the pedagogical standpoint, the study extends the knowledge in different ways by introducing new aspects of academic written context and thus broadening the perspectives of the researchers and those involved in the field of academic writing and genres, as academic writing tools to share the meaning within and across disciplines and contexts. One of the pedagogical dimension of this study is that it will provide information on the strategies commonly followed by the writers, studying in the field of English Language Teaching, from different academic backgrounds in order to introduce the work done in a foreign language - English - in the Turkish context. Additionally, the study will present key points of the rhetorical organisation of the introduction sections from not only textual perspective but also sociological perspective, which is the important modifier of the academic genres because the texts must be arranged according to the target community and the context it is produced in. At this point, the readers will be also informed about whether the dominance of English as an international language of science and scholarship has led the writers to the use of any standardised Anglo-American patterns or whether they fully reflect the characteristics of their context in the

theses. Finally, the study will help the graduate level students and researchers to choose the more appropriate rhetorical strategies and language for their scientific field and context to communicate meaningfully through their manuscripts.

1.7. Limitations of the Study

This study was intended as a moderate genre analysis work including a corpus of 100 master theses written between 2001-2011. Taking this long term (ten years) into consideration, the corpus of the study is limited in terms of its small size, and the findings of the study thus should be confirmed with an application of a larger corpus.

The analysis of the qualitative data was conducted by two raters , which led the both raters to study on the results of the analysis with caution. However, though the inter-rater reliability was supplied with a three-phase process, which will be explained comprehensively in chapter 3, as in such corpus-based studies to supply reliability the analysis should be carried out with a higher number of raters, the qualitative data of the study should be re-analyzed with the participation of many more raters.

In the collection of quantitative data, the population of the study consists all academicians, graduate level students and researchers working in the field of English language teaching and having written their master theses in this field, and the sample of this study is restricted with the number of 400 academicians within the field of English language teaching in Turkey. So, this study should be replicated with an expanded sampling in order to provide more generalizable results.

The master theses examined in this study have been written in the field of English language teaching. Therefore, the data obtained provides general information only about the organisation of the introductory sections of M.A. theses produced in the field of English language teaching, and an extended study based on the M.A theses written in English within various fields in the Turkish context should be conducted in order to get more valid results on the patterning of the English theses in the academic written discourse in Turkey.

1.8. Structure of the Thesis

The thesis is structurally organized in five sections.

Chapter 1 is based on the introduction of the work done with a brief presentation of the theoretical background of the research context with an emphasis on the issue raising and the worth of the study with a comprehensive explanation of the content and aims to motivate and prepare the audience to the study on the direction of the claim for novelty.

Chapter 2 presents further information on the subject matter of the thesis by reviewing the related literature with a focus on the different extents of the topic and pointing out its current position through samples from the research studies, and thus aims to donate the readers with the knowledge of the field.

Chapter 3 explains the research design of the study by stating the data collection and analysis procedures followed in the study and aims to inform about the process followed.

Chapter 4 shows the results of the study through the description of what has been found as a result of the analyses with the accompaniment of commentaries and includes the discussions offering the general assumptions on what is learned in the study by clarifying specific points.

Chapter 5 offers the conclusion the author draws from the research and the pedagogical implications of the study. In this section, suggestions for further research are also included.

CHAPTER TWO

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Presentation

This chapter presents a review of relevant literature. First, the main concepts of this study, “second language writing” and “genre”, are explained from different dimensions. Then, the historical background of genre are generally provided through the presentation of different aspects of genre studies. Finally, the main motive of this study, which forms the basis of analysis through its pragmatic perspective, is presented, that is, English for Specific Purposes and its implementation in genre analysis.

2.2. Second Language Writing

Second language writing is a specific realm that is unique with the exclusive characteristics and , although it is not completely covered by these fields, is connected to the fields of first language writing instruction, second language acquisition, or second language pedagogy. The rationale behind such a statement may lay down in the fact that, although there are some certain truths valid for all students in the many academic discourses, there are also facts which are unique to second language students such that language and students are both bound to and independent from discourse or academic discourse they are involved in, that is, they are shaped by the discourse but also they shape the discourse itself.

2.2.1. Historical Perspective to Second Language Writing

According to the documentary data, the beginning of the field of second language writing is generally seen as the 1960s, which is historically important in terms of the fact that , at that time, the compiled sources after 1960 led the researchers to focus on the pedagogical approaches and emphases (e.g., Leki, 1992; Raimes, 1991;

Silva, 1990). Based on the historical accounts after 1960s and with these pedagogical approaches and emphases, second language writing began to appear in 1990s as a result of the embodiment of various results and explanations on the status of second language writing as a discipline and in terms of epistemology. Thus, second language writing has become a subfield of second language studies through these historical developments, and moreover researchers within the field of second language writing have been referred as the main determiners in extending the pedagogical knowledge and thus advancing the field further. Although it is true that writing issues began to attract serious attention from L2 specialists only in the 1960s, historical evidence suggests that L2 writing instruction did not suddenly become an issue in the 1960s (Matsuda, 1999). Early 1990s, also, shows the increasing interest to the historical background of second language writing, and as a result, the change in the second language writing studies.

Writing was neglected in the early years of second language studies possibly because of the dominance of the audiolingual approach in the mid twentieth century., however, the neglect of writing in second language studies goes even further back, namely, to the rise of applied linguistics in the late nineteenth century (Matsuda, 2001). The applied linguistic studies in this period was mostly based on the application of the results and findings of the linguistic studies in the field of language teaching, which have been generally carried out through the studies specifically focusing on spoken language in recent years.

Countering the dominant power of writing on second language (i.e., literary texts in such "dead" languages as Latin), the pioneering applied linguists in the early years of applied linguistics in Europe - most notably, phoneticians Henry Sweet (1899/1964) and Paul Passy (1929) - argued "that phonetics should be the basis of both theoretical and practical studies of language (i.e., linguistics *and* applied linguistics) and that the spoken form of language should take precedence over the written form". At that era, what was mostly suggested to the advanced learners was the practices of free composition by producing comprehensive written discourse through the input taken as a result of a set of experiences rather than the traditional practices. Spoken language was, however, prior to the written language, which resulted from the perception that for many people writing, defined merely as an orthographic representation of speech, demanded literacy at a fairly advanced level.

Writing has become the unseparated part of language teaching only in recent years because there was a clear and heavy focus on the spoken language around the world, and furthermore, the language teaching was seen as the process of applying the output of the studies within the field of linguistics. Therefore, between 1940s and 1960s when the works of Leonard Bloomfield and Charles C. Fries brought the perception of language as speech foremost and institutionalized the spoken language, written language was thoroughly neglected in the United States.

With the continuing increase of international students in U.S. higher education and the creation of the disciplinary division of labor between L1 and L2 composition, preparing international ESL students for required first-year composition courses became an important responsibility for ESL teachers in intensive English programs, which were usually external to college curricula (Matsuda, 2003; p. 19). The composition programme was, namely, attached to the intensive English language teaching programme. However, in the early 1960s there appeared the issues that ESL teachers were primarily focused on the teaching of spoken language and exclusively specialized in the instruction of speaking, and thus they were not specifically prepared enough to provide written language instruction demanded by the new arrangement as a result of the shift involving the addition of second language writing instruction to the learning and teaching programme. It was known that second language writing instruction was essential for the intermediate students who had become competent at the performance level in terms of speaking but who were not ready for the writing practices in the first year composition courses. For this reason, second language writing emerged as a "subdiscipline" of TESL with a strong pedagogical emphasis (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998, p. 5). Thus, there appeared a number of pedagogical approaches - writing as sentence-level structure, writing as discourse-level structure, writing as process, writing as language use in context- each of which addresses a different dimension of second language writing.

As the exchange of insights between composition studies and second language studies has increased, researchers have come to recognize the complexity and multidisciplinary nature of second language writing research and teaching (Matsuda, 2003; p. 25). For instance, Johnson and Roen (1989) pointed out that a "broader, multidisciplinary base is important in examining issues in L2 writing"

because "no single theory from a single discipline can account for the complex and interacting social, cultural, cognitive, and linguistic processes involved" (p. 3). Kroll (1990) also writes that "for those engaged in teaching second language [writers], what is needed is both a firm grounding in the theoretical issues of first and second language writing *and* an understanding of a broad range of pedagogical issues that shape classroom writing instruction" (p.2). Therefore, positioned in the composition and second language studies, second language writing has emerged as an interdisciplinary searching field.

The recognition of the second language writing as a scientifically-accepted discipline has resulted in a rapid increase in the number of studies focusing on the second language writing from different aspects. Journals such as *College ESL*, *English for Specific Purposes*, *Language Learning*, and *TESOL Quarterly* have increasingly placed the research articles mainly searching second language writing issues. Furthermore, Research articles related to second language writing have been involved in some of the journals in composition studies - such as *College Composition and Communication*, *Teaching English in the Two-Year College*, *WPA: Writing Program Administration*, and *Written Communication*. There have been an increasing number of master and Ph.D. dissertations that have been devoted to the study of second language writing. Only about a half dozen dissertations on L2 writing were written in the 1960s and about thirty in the 1970s, but this number rose to more than 150 in the 1980s and well over 300 in the 1990s. As the number of studies increased, the shortage of outlets for publication became apparent and the field began to develop its own disciplinary infrastructure to facilitate the creation and dissemination of knowledge about second language writing.

In response to the "explosion of interest in research on composing in a second language" (Leki & Silva, 1992, p. 3), the *Journal of Second Language Writing* was established in 1992, indicating "the maturing of scholarly communication in the field" (Tannacito, 1995, p. 5). The number of books on second language writing also increased, including monographs (e.g., Connor, 1996; Fox, 1994; Johns, 1997; Li, 1996; Pennington, 1996; Rodby, 1992; Swales, 1990; Tucker, 1995} and edited collections (e.g., Belcher & Braine, 1995; Connor & Johns, 1990; Harklau, Losey, & C Siegal, 1999; Kroll, 1990; Severino, Guerra, & Butler, 1997; Silva & Matsuda, 2001b)

as well as collections of reprinted articles (e.g., DeLuca et al, 2002; Leeds, 1996; Silva & Matsuda, 2001a; Zamel & Spack, 1998). Textbooks for second language writing teachers also began to appear (Campbell, 1998; Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998; Grabe & Kaplan, 1996; Hyland, 2002; Leki, 1992; Reid, 1993). With the increase of scholarship in the field, bibliographic sources focusing on second language writing have also become available. *A Guide to Writing in English as a Second or Foreign Language: An Annotated Bibliography* (Tannacito, 1995) features annotations of articles, books, and conference presentations that were published before 1994. Since 1993, the *Journal of Second Language Writing* has been providing annotated bibliographies of recent related scholarship on a regular basis. A five-year compilation of this bibliography has also been separately published (Silva, Brice, & Reichelt, 1999). In addition, Polio and Mosele (1998) have developed an online bibliography that focuses on the teaching and learning of writing in second languages other than English. (Matsuda,2003;p.26)

There have been a number of conferences taking place, mainly based on second language writing, in each of which several essays and research reports have been compiled and edited. The first conference on Second Language writing, called as Second Language Acquisition and Writing: A Multi-Disciplinary Approach, the papers of which appear in Archibald and Jeffrey (1997), was held in the United Kingdom, at the University of Southampton in the summer of 1996. Additional edited collections resulting from recent conferences include papers from the Ohio State Conference on Reading-Writing Connections (Belcher & Hirvela, 2001) and papers from the first Symposium on Second Language Writing held at Purdue University (Silva & Matsuda, 2001b). The Symposium on Second Language Writing has now been taking place once every two years. Furthermore, there have been an increasing number of presentations and workshops centred around second language writing by using the data presented in the conferences, such as these of American Association for Applied Linguistics, the Conference on College Composition and Communication, and Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, In addition to specialized conferences, besides these conferences.

The other important development related to the field of second language writing is that there have been a striking rise in the number of professional development programmes directly addressing to the area in recent years. To give an example, the

latest edition of *The Directory of Professional Preparation Programs in TESOL in the United States and Canada, 1999-2001* presents the increasing number of opportunities such as courseworks in second language writing or general writing which have been provided by the professional preparation programmes in TESOL. Additionally, there are now some programmes which have begun to provide a specialization in second language writing by integrating composition studies and second language studies in courseworks. There are also specialists in the realm of second language writing, working at various institutions - such as Indiana University of Pennsylvania, Northern Arizona University, Purdue University, the University of Toronto/Ontario Institute for the Studies in Education, and the University of New Hampshire – who make important contributions to the field by developing second language writing teachers, researchers, and educators of future by closely working with the master and doctoral students.

Another important sign of maturity for second language writing as a field is the existence of metadisciplinary discourse - or self-conscious inquiries into its nature and history (Matsuda, 1998). Metadisciplinary discourse may include, for example, the discussion of methodology (e.g., Goldstein, 2001; Polio, 2001), history (e.g., Matsuda, 1999, 2001; Raimes, 1991; Silva, 1990), interdisciplinary relations (e.g., Atkinson & Ramanathan, 1995; Matsuda, 1998; Matsuda & Jablonski, 2000; Santos, 1992; Silva, Leki, & Carson, 1997), and ideological and political issues (e.g., Benesch, 1993,2001; Santos, 1992, 2001), as well as personal reflections on professional growth (e.g., Belcher & Connor, 2001; Blanton & Kroll, 2002; Kroll, 2001), and the general discussion of the status of the field (e.g., Atkinson, 2000; Kaplan, 2000; Santos, Atkinson, Erickson, Matsuda, & Silva, 2000) (Matsuda,2003;p.27).

Thus far, the field has focused mostly on issues that are specific to the needs of international ESL students in U.S. higher education because of the historical circumstances surrounding the origin of second language writing; more recently, however, there has been an increasing attention to immigrant and refugee students in North America (e.g., Harklau, Losey, & Siegal, 1999) (Kaplan, 2000;p.318). Here, it is essential to indicate that research studies on second language writing has not been only limited to the US context and only to one language, that is, English. In other words, there is, as stated by Reichelt (1999), a growing body of literature on foreign language writing in the United States that draws on both LI and ESL composition research.

Moreover, many studies appearing in different contexts outside the United States , especially the ones coming out of Hong Kong and Japan (e.g., Tarnopolsky, 2000), have examined second language writing comprehensively. But, actually, these studies generally remain within the borders of the countries where they are produced and so they are not known by researchers and teachers in the other countries. The problem is that there is no interaction between scholars and teachers , not only from the different disciplines, but also among the ones from the same discipline. This is clearly seen in the theories of writing derived only from first language writers "can at best be extremely tentative and at worst totally invalid" (Silva, Leki, & Carson, 1997;p. 402) and such theories on second language writing, which are institutionalized on the basis of one language or one context, are naturally limited. Consequently, an effective second language writing instruction within different fields and contexts is tied to the application of the data to be obtained from the studies carried out from various dimensions and within several disciplines.

In sum, the history of the field of second language writing, starting as a reaction to the pedagogical concerns in the United States, has shown a wide range of shifts in terms of discipline and epistemology in the process of becoming a scientific and interdisciplinary field covering a comprehensive knowledge on the background and content of second language writing and instruction. Moreover, the disciplinary and metadisciplinary scope of the realm have been structuralized by the field of second language writing itself in order to sustain and facilitate the development and to maintain this development L2 writing teachers and researchers should continue contributing to the knowledge of L2 writing instruction.

2.3. Genre and Second Language Writing

To understand the dynamic interaction between genre and second language writing, the knowledge on the history of the relationship between the concept of genre and the theory, research, and practice of second language writing, is of importance. At this point, although the historical accounts show a several perspectives on the origin of this interaction, in general, it is probable to state that the origin of the relation between genre and second language writing can go back to 1980s.

John Swales, working as a lecturer at Aston University in Birmingham, England, and his research assistant, Vijay Bhatia, were devising a research project through a study on a small corpus which were formed of 48 research articles published in a range of disciplines. They both analyzed the introductory sections of these articles in order to understand the structure of research article introductions for the further use of the data obtained from this project in the process of instruction to the students from different backgrounds (that is, from different contexts and countries) studying at the Aston University on the basis of the current ESP tradition in which description and explanation of texts were the key factors of teaching.

In his recent memoir, Swales (2009) reveals that he had two important epiphanies during this project. The first was the identification of a common rhetorical pattern in the texts, made up of four parts or “moves” used to indicate a gap in previous research. (This common pattern of moves is now well known as the CARS model, in which writers “Create a Research Space” for their work.) The identification and examination of rhetorical moves was a significant departure from previous ESP studies, which had focused on the analysis of lexical or grammatical linguistic units. (SLW Editorial, 2011; p.1)

Swales’ second epiphany was one of moving to a new concept of discourse, one that looked seriously at the social and rhetorical dynamics of text production. Swales writes:

I happened, also in 1980, to be casually reading a review of a recent work about traditional Javanese customs by the great cultural anthropologist, Clifford Geertz. The reviewer several times mentioned the word genre in connection with cock-fighting rituals and the arrangements required for princely audiences and the like. Suddenly, I realized that the concept of genre was the one that I had sub-consciously been searching for over the previous year or two. (2009, p. 141)

In his introduction to the monograph that resulted from this project, *Aspects of Article Introductions* (1981), Swales defines genre as “a more or less standardized communicative event with a goal or set of goals mutually understood by the participants in that event and occurring within a functional rather than a social or personal setting” (1981;p. 10). He argues that genre is an important concept because “it is only within genres that language is sufficiently conventionalized and the range of communicative

purpose sufficiently narrow for us to hope to establish pedagogically-employable generalizations that will capture certain relationships between function and form” (1981;p. 10).

Tarone, Dwyer, Gillette, and Icke (1981) , in their article -“On the use of the passive in two astrophysics journal papers”- published in the *Journal of English for Specific Purposes*, used the term genre just before the 1981 publication of Swales’ *Aspects of Article Introductions*. Moreover, the term “genre” was employed as a way of both addressing the linguistic features of a text, which was generally common in the research studies at that time, and the rhetorical functions carried by these linguistic features. The employment of genre as a term in the 1981 article , as Tarone herself indicates in her personal communication the summer of 2010, probably resulted from the influence of Swales using genre in reference to “ discourse types”, a commonly-used term in the Washington School of ESP at that time, in a work, *English for academic and technical purposes: Studies on honor of Louis Trimble* (Selinker, Tarone, & Hanzeli, 1981). Here, it is essential to indicate that , as it was in the research project of Swales, the pedagogical concerns formed the basic motive of the research of Tarone et al especially in terms of studying on the products of L2 writers. For example, they conclude their article by stating that “It is extremely important to determine what rhetorical functions condition the choice of the passive in particular EST [English for Science and Technology] genres. Only when we have addressed these issues will we be able to provide accurate information to students of EST.” (p. 136)

Genre as a key and extremely efficient concept, has been commonly involved in the studies on not only second language writing but also writing general for three decades since its appearance in 1981. Some central works, including those, which produced new genre theories by following rhetorical tradition, such as Miller’s (1984) “Genre as Social Action” and Bazerman’s (1988) *Shaping Written Knowledge*, had been published until the appearance of Swales’ *Genre Analysis* at the end of 1980s. Meanwhile, Australian educationists had begun drawing on Halliday’s *Systemic Functional Linguistics* (SFL) framework to further explore the notion of genre from that perspective (Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Martin, 1985, 1993). Drawing on these works and others, Swales (1990) developed a more robust theory of genre and further elaborated an approach to teaching writing through a genre-based pedagogy which utilized awareness-

raising activities as a way to sensitize L2 writers to the relationships between a text's form, rhetorical functions, and community of users (SLW Editorial, 2011;p.2). The popular textbooks (Swales & Feak, 1994, 2000), edited by Swales and Feak, presents this approach in a much more comprehensive way. The other work, which included the analysis and teaching of professional genres and functioned effectively in ESP instruction during the 1990s, was in Vijay Bhatia's (1993) own work , *Analyzing genre: Language use in professional settings*.

Another work by Ann Johns- *Text, Role, and Context-* , which was published in 1997 a few years later after Bhatia's work, covered an explanation of an writing instruction approach on the basis of genre and raising genre awareness, and with a heavier emphasis on socioliterate activity than the one the other works put on. Johns addressed the needs of many first-year university students by providing the ways of conducting researches on socioliterate activity through not only writing instruction but also works based on the examination of cultural factors and interview. Meanwhile, a deeper perspective on the relation between the knowledge on discipline-specific elements and organization of genre through the integration of corpus linguistics and genre analysis was presented by the work of Ken Hyland (2000). Hyland based his study not only the analysis of the corpus compiled from the academic texts but also the analysis of the data obtained from the interview with the writers by following a social constructionist perspective in order to understand the discourse of the discipline to greater extent, which shows that his work clearly separated from ESP tradition in terms of the presentation of discourse types in the 1970s and 1980s.

For teachers of writing, a focus on genre, regardless of theoretical orientation, is grounded in the belief that helping students to demystify socially situated writing can facilitate the learning of privileged forms of discourse (SLW Editorial, 2011;p.2). Here, however, there raises a problem that learning new genres may cause specific challenges for L2 writers because L2 writers with their different social and cultural backgrounds, learning experiences and the knowledge and proficiency levels in language they have as a result of these experiences differ from monolingual writers to great extent. For example, L1 writing instructors may focus on the need or studying and informing about the organization of genre less than L2 writing instructors may. Meanwhile, the expansion of English as a language of education and research, along with recent

upswings in immigration in English-dominant countries, suggests that the global population of second language writers (particularly in English) is growing, *and* as a result, there is a significant need for continued scholarship that examines genre specifically in second language writing (SLW Editorial, 2011;p.2). Indeed, the challenging side of this effort is that there must be a multiperspectival approaches to the instruction and application of genre in second language writing in terms of theoretical and pedagogical dimensions rather than than a limited one to a single tradition—most commonly, ESP.

Through the presentation of the different and similar sides among ESP-oriented work on genre, the SFL-oriented work from Australia, and the rhetoric-oriented work in the U.S. and Canada, this challenging side has been addressed by the scholars in the field of second language writing in two decades. Different theoretical and pedagogical frameworks – but also frameworks covering each other- have appeared as a result of conflicts between these traditions which have formed the basic motives of further researches to be conducted and practices. The need for a focus on form in ESP writing instruction, for example, may cause concern for L1 writing scholars; the terminology of SFL-based work may daunt scholars unfamiliar with the Hallidayan grammar; and the unique context of “first-year composition” may seem too localized for those working in K-12, workplace, or advanced academic settings around the world, and though these tensions persist today, they have arguably become more productive in recent years, as writing scholars have attempted to reach across theoretical boundaries to explore genres from multiple perspectives and build richer theories and more flexible pedagogical approaches (see, e.g., Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; Bazerman, Bonini, & Figueiredo, 2009; Johns, 2002; Johns et al., 2006) (SLW Editorial, 2011; p.2).

2.4. Genre

The research carried out over the last three decades has changed the perceptions about genre by disputing the ideas that see genres as bare classifications of textual structures and emphasizing the importance of genre in terms of the links that are established between types of texts and types of social actions. These have resulted in the increase of different definitions of genres such as ways of identifying, reacting,

behaving reasonably, and replicating of recurrence of the situations. The instructions to improve competency in writing have been strongly influenced by these various definitions and classifications of genres as specified rhetorical devices to provide interaction within recurring situations. 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; p3).

Genre, as a term, is confusing in terms of definition because of dilemmas such as whether it is used as a classification system of phenomena, or as a way of representation of meaning although there have been important developments within the field of genre over the last decades. Actually, this confusion is contextually the natural result of the competition between the popular theories, some of which take it as a text type while the others uses it as a categorization system. According to Bawarshi and Reiff(2010), these competing views of genre are reflected in the etymology of the word genre, which is borrowed from French(p.3). 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.” On the other hand, genre, again through its related word gender, can be traced to the Latin cognate genre, meaning to generate (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.3).

Genre, as a classification system, has generally been used. In other words, it has been used as a way of categorizing different text types.. 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) and from this perspective, genres are understood as forms of cultural knowledge that conceptually frame and mediate how we understand and typically act within various situations (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.4). Overall, genre has been broadly defined as “abstract, socially recognized ways of using language” (Hyland, 2007, p. 149) and has become “one of the most important and influential concepts in language education”

(Hyland, 2004, p. 5).

It is seen that genres are not only used as text organizers but also text shapers in terms of social actions. Additionally, this shows that this comprehensive structure of genre emphasizes a need to study and teach genres both for the purposes of formal textual organization and for the some other purposes. In short, it calls for understanding genre knowledge as including not only knowledge of formal features but also knowledge of what and whose purposes genres serve; how to negotiate one's intentions in relation to genres' social expectations and motives; when and why and where to use genres; what reader/writer relationships genres maintain; and how genres relate to other genres in the coordination of social life (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.4).

The need to share information around the world and to supply meaningful communication has resulted in a increase in studies on genre and genre traditions within different disciplines because, as it is indicated above, genres are gradually seen not only as textual organization systems bu also the share of meaning across different disciplines, borders and people. In fact, the globalization , which leads to the supply-demand relation within the communication systems worldwide, naturally effects these systems, genres, which are one of the information networks in different, and even same, contexts. Thus, genre and genre traditions are increasingly of importance to keep up with changes of the globalization and to meet the demands , especially communication-oriented ones, and so, which makes it essential to study and teach genre. As Bazerman, Bonini, and Figueiredo explain, the concept of genre has been particularly useful in helping literacy educators respond to the demands of a global world and information-based economies (Bazerman, Bonini & Figueiredo, 2009; pp.283-98). Genre, they argue, by helping to “elaborate writing as a focused, purposive, highly-differentiated task,” helps us understand and prepare students for the increasingly specialized communicative needs of disciplines, professions, and everyday life (cited in Bazerman, Bonini & Figueiredo, 2009; p.283-98). As Bazerman, Bonini, and Figueiredo (2009) eloquently conclude: A world tied together by communication and knowledge, enacting increasingly complex cooperations Genre 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. In short, genre conveys a sense of being global to the extent which it makes essential to get comprehensive knowledge about

genres and to get competent in performing in them because these systems, as ways of globally meaningful communication, are important tools for the share of information within and between contexts from different dimensions.

Writing, one of the ways of transfer of meaning and/or message between transmitters and receivers, or between info sources and receivers, has been automatically influenced by these rapid changes in genre. In the U.S., and within Rhetoric and Composition studies, the concept of genre has begun to inform the study and teaching of writing in important and exciting ways (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.4). There have been an increasing number of studies and researches within journals about teaching writing on genre, genre-oriented writing books and publications which aim to present knowledge about genre and writing in terms of theory and practice, all of which address a large number of audiences and are effective sources as guides to comprehend the importance of genre within written discourse

2.4.1. Dynamic Structure of Genre- Historical Perspective

The dynamic structure of Genre has showed a variety of new perspectives born as a result of the active use of genres within social, academic, and professional contexts that the history of genre has involved the continuous development of genre in various traditions with the accompaniment of several genre approaches characterizing each tradition, and the niche in which the genres are used. And actually, the deeper understanding and knowledge of genre and the effective use of this genre knowledge are based on the information covering these genre approaches, and the traditions through the presentation of the intellectual and pedagogical resources and conditions which have played important roles as the imperatives in the introduction of the new genre techniques and applications.

In the next sections , genre traditions and the genre approaches, as the products of these traditions, will be examined “as they emerge, over time, in different areas of study, from literary theory to systemic functional linguistics (what is often called the “Sydney school” of genre theory) to historical/corpus linguistics to English for Specific Purposes to Rhetorical and Sociological Genre Studies (what is often termed the “North American” approach to genre theory)” (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; pp.4-5). Each

tradition has emerged in response to the need of certain target communities on the basis of the results the studies have presented; “it matters that the Sydney school genre approach emerged in response to a national curriculum aimed at K-12 students; that the English for Specific Purposes approach emerged in response to the needs of graduate student, non-native speakers of English; that the Brazilian synthesis has been energized by the Brazilian Ministry of Education’s National Curricular Parameters and the International Symposium on Genre Studies (SIGET), held since 2003; that the Rhetorical Genre Studies approach has been informed by rhetorical theory and sociology and has targeted college-level, native speakers of English” (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; pp.4-5).

At this point, it is significant to state that the cyclic pattern of genre studies has given way to the fact that each new tradition, by being fed from the knowledge of the prior ones and extending them further with the addition of the new theories and approaches, has come forth after another. The common rationale around which all these traditions are oriented is that the supplement of meaningful communication and of the sociological pedagogy in the process of knowledge-gathering and sharing, and thus acting in the world, are provided with genres, which also act as valuable resources to explore the function of networks including not only written but also spoken devices within, and among contexts and to provide pedagogical implications to present the ways to act actively within and among these contexts. And indeed, it is this rationale forming the main motive driving the connection between these traditions.

2.4.1.1. Genre in traditions

The traditions - *Literary Traditions, Rhetorical and Sociological Traditions, Linguistic Traditions* - have illustrated a set of pedagogical and analytical patterns, from textual dimension focusing on the comprehensive study of the genres according to their formal structures in order to classify them, and/ or to describe in terms of linguistic scopes, and/or to teach, to discursive dimension oriented around the shaping of the social and linguistic communication states through the demonstration and instruction for the interlocutors in the specific contexts by presenting the genre strategies to arrange the act within and across various disciplines, and contexts, and the use of genres as the

devices to keep the basic trajectory going on or to totally change it.

In the next sections, as the main motive of this study is based on the data obtained from the results of the researches following one of the trends - English for Specific Purposes - in the *Linguistic Traditions* and their genre perception, the most of the review will be devoted to the presentation of the knowledge on the genre concept in *Linguistic Traditions*. However, as the other traditions provides valuable background to the genre studies, the position of genre in *Literary Traditions* and *Rhetorical and Sociological Traditions* will be briefly discussed as well.

2.4.1.1.1. Genre in literary traditions

Literary traditions, though they have been related to the genre studies only from some perspectives in terms of writing instruction and writing program development, have provided a depth examine of the specific parts through the creative aspects and techniques they present in the study of genres, which makes the knowledge of the ways that they have informed widespread beliefs about genre make literary genre traditions essential to some extent for the understanding of linguistical and rhetorical genre studies on the analytical basis. Additionally, the approaches in this tradition form the impetus on which genre is based by including both theoretical and practical ways involving either description and classification or explanation and/or criticism. So, the knowledge of these approaches will help extend the information on the pedagogical implications and the ways put forward by the literary theories in the definition and use of genre.

2.4.1.1.1.1. Neoclassical approaches to genre

Neoclassical approaches are the theoretical (what is also called as “ abstract analysis” in Todorov’s work, *The Fantastic*), trans-historical approaches that analyze the texts under certain descriptive taxonomies in order to calssify them by examining the thematic and formal relations within the texts and, thus to explain the kinds of texts. These approaches, because of their “ pursuit of systematic and inclusive rules based on universal validity for classifying and describing kinds of literary texts (Frow 52)” mostly “ tend to rely on these taxonomies to classify and describe relations between literary texts, rather than examine how genres emerge from and are codified by users

within actual contexts of use (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.15)”.

The system of neoclassical approaches is lack of the sight that genres are dynamic forms structuralized by the contexts from where they emerge, in other words, their literary contexts and this lack results in the production of more abstract writing styles restricted to the universally accepted categories, which forms the main critique of these approaches.

2.4.1.1.1.2. Structuralist approaches to genre

Genres in the Structuralist (or literary-historical) approaches are seen as organizers and shapers of literary texts through a systematical function to provide coordination between them and literary activities, and thus to the niche (called as “ literary reality” by Todorov (1975; pp.13-14)) of the literary texts and activities. Structuralist approaches are mainly based on to study the process of shaping literary productions by the contextualized genres, when compared to the category- oriented theoretical system of the Neoclassical Approaches to supply the taxonomy and explanation of the literary texts and their relations Structuralist Approaches,. In this way, according to Fredric Jameson (1981; p.106), “genres are essentially literary institutions, or social contracts between a writer and a specific public, whose function is to specify the proper use of a particular cultural artifact”.

Structuralist approaches are mainly concerned with the contextualized structure of the genres through the description and clarification of the function of the genre within the literary world and thus attribute the roles of genre to the shapers of the literary spoken and written products. Here, it is important to indicate that structuralist approaches study on genres generally within the literary reality and so they are mostly dealt with the literary roles genres take in the organization of this literary reality, and they do not involve the study on the genres in terms of the practices within different social contexts, which proves essential for the comprehensive writing instruction and practice as well. Therefore, they are not adequately applicable for the development of writing competence.

2.4.1.1.1.3. Romantic and post-romantic approaches to genre

While Structuralist approaches understand genres as structuring textual actions and relations within a literary universe, certain Romantic and post-Romantic approaches have rejected genre's constitutive power, arguing instead that literary texts achieve their status, in fact, by exceeding genre conventions, which are perceived as prescriptive taxonomies and constraints on textual energy (Frow, 2006; p. 26). According to Croce (1968; p.38), Genres are logical concepts, and as such cannot be applied to literary works, which resist classification and are indeterminate. Thus, Romantic and Post-Romantic approaches take genres and literary texts separately with an emphasis on the fact that literary texts do not belong to and are shaped by a genre, and instead, literary texts alone, as they are intuitively produced rather than logically which genre insists on through systematical taxonomies, are important with their own system in which they function, as in his work, *Le Livre à venir*, Blanchot (cited in Perloff, 1989; p.3) indicates, "outside rubrics".

The resist of Romantic and Post-Romantic approaches to the use of genres as shapers and organizers of the texts have introduced new implications for the instruction and practice of writing; however, this has raised the question whether creativity and customs are more important than constraints and choices or vice versa, and this has led to dilemmas for instructors and student writers because, as in Romantic and Post-Romantic approaches genre is seen to restrict the authenticity of writers in the production of the works, they are forced to choose either a intuition-oriented or a constraint-oriented manner in the writing process. However, as stated by Devitt (2000), genres offer teachers and students a way of seeing constraint and choice, convention and creativity as interconnected.

2.4.1.1.1.4. Reader response approaches to genre

Genre within the studies of Reader response approaches are perceived as the tools of interpretation and constitution of the texts used actively by the critics of them, that is readers. Thus, within this perspective, the function of genre is determined by the performance of the readers, via which genre becomes a set of statements put forward by these critics on the literary works. Here, readers' comments on the work produced may

be based on not only the way to constitute the text but also to provide explanation of it, which may also result from the various explanations and applications of genre. As Rosmarin (1985; pp.50-51) explains, “The critic who explicitly uses genre as an explanatory tool neither claims nor needs to claim that literary texts should or will be written in its terms, but that, at the present moment and for his implied audience, criticism can best justify the value of a particular literary text by using these terms”. The role of genre Rosmarin attributes in this statement is the literary consumer through its function as a forming part of the literary texts as well as a interpreting them.

In general, Reader Response approaches take genre as a tool of text interpretation through the argumentative statements from the readers on these literary products. However, such a genre perception fails to notice the social role genre has in the production of literary texts, which limits the conceptualization and use of genre in the writing instruction and practice by applying it only as a device of literary consumption through explanation rather than production .

2.4.1.1.1.5. Cultural studies approaches to genre

The dynamic structure of genre as a way to link the the literary written and spoken products to the socio-culture is tha main concern of Cultural Studies Approaches, which has been overlooked by the prior approaches, and from this point, with their comprehensive scopes, Cultural Studies Approaches examine genre from different dimensions including organization, generalization, explanation and production of literary products and actions within social niches.

Cultural Studies approaches focus on the the customs followed by the genres in the description of the textual products and their critics, in other words, readers, in “shared and shareable ways, and are built into more or less durable infrastructures” (Frow, 2006; p.102). These customs are mostly influenced by the social background of the critics, and thus the texts are shaped by genres according to the social context in which they are produced.

Literary traditions including Cultural Studies Approaches are mainly concerned with the role of the readers and writers within a literary universe, and the place and use of genre by these producers and consumers in the production and consumption of

literary products by emphasizing different aspects from classification to interpretation from contextualization to structuralization. Todorov (1990; p.10) has defined a system of genres as “the choice a society makes among all the possible codifications of discourse”. The function of genre put forward by Todorov offers a larger landscape than the literary traditions suggest by covering a range of genres used in political, public, legal and other contexts as well as literary context and the working systems of these genres in the organization of these contexts, actions, and events. As a result, Todorov (1990; p.12) asserts, “in place of literature alone we now have numerous types of discourse that deserve our attention on an equivalent basis” , and, by taking genre only within literary world, literary traditions fail to provide comprehensive pedagogical implications for the instruction and use of genres within several discourses.

2.4.1.1.2. Genre in rhetorical and sociological traditions

Rhetorical and Sociological Traditions have presented genres as forms of social action, which are not only tools used for communication but also contextual-driven ways to know and act socially. In addition to these the concept of genre in Rhetorical and Sociological Traditions is perceived as the social purposes, which negotiators enact and, via which they communicate through their individual incentives, and as the situational systems, which are influenced by the constant circulations within different situations. Furthermore, the perception of the genres as forms of social action leads to these forms to shape the items of the social reality such as actions, interactions, identities.. etc. At this point, the knowledge of social discourses contextualized by the genres and their typical features, and of the structural and lexico-grammatical organization of these genres is of importance for the instruction and practice of the genre. Moreover, the instruction and practice of genre also demands learning the main impetus behind the ways , reasons and time of the social actions determined by the genres.

Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS) has tended to focus more on how genres enable their users to carry out situated symbolic actions rhetorically and linguistically, and in so doing, to perform social actions and relations, enact social roles, and frame social realities (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.59). Additionally, the ways followed by the

genres in the production of social actions, the arrangement of the tensions between and within these actions, and the maintenance of them are also the focus of Rhetorical and Sociological Traditions, which leads to the assumption that , by covering all social infrastructures from discourse community to the purposes of this community to the genres and genre connections practiced to the service of the discourse community to their purposes, the contexts are the valuable sources providing background knowledge. Rather, within RGS context is viewed as an ongoing, intersubjective performance, one that is mediated by genres and other culturally available tools (Bazerman, 2003; p.387). The focus of genre analysis within RGS has thus been directed toward an understanding of how genres mediate situated practices, interactions, symbolic realities, and “congruent meanings” (Bazerman, 2003; p 380): in short, the role that genres play in how individuals experience, co-construct, and enact social practices and sites of activity. Then, according to Rhetorical and Sociological Traditions, genres are the social forms shaping written and spoken acts in terms of interaction and flow of information within specific contexts, which shows that genre analysis can be derived from the knowledge and understanding of contexts genres belong to. Such a performative, sociological view is captured in Charles Bazerman’s often-cited description of genre(1997;p. 19)”:

“Genres are not just forms. Genres are forms of life, ways of being. They are frames for social action. They are locations within which meaning is constructed. Genres shape the thoughts we form and the communications by which we interact. Genres are the familiar places we go to create intelligible communicative action with each other and the guideposts we use to explore the unfamiliar”.

A rhetorical and sociological understanding of genre has revealed genre as a rich analytical tool for studying academic, workplace, and public systems of activity, (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.104). However, Rhetorical and Sociological traditions have failed to provide more comprehensive pedagogical implications in the instruction and practice of genre . Actually, as one of the ways actively practiced by individuals in order to communicate meaningfully and supply information flow according to their individual and social purposes, or to construct themselves to the new environment, genres are the dynamic parts of complex relations within contexts, and “since part of what defines a genre is its placement within a system of genre relations within and between activity systems, genres cannot be defined or taught only through their formal

features (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.104)”. So, by focusing on only rhetorical features of genre, Rhetorical and Sociological traditions do not provide instruction tips supplying the demands of this complexity through genres. Rather, these traditions lead to dichotomies for instructors and students in the selection of appropriate genre and the application. For example, when there is a certain task to do in order to accomplish a specific purpose in the social actions, there appears the question to choose the appropriate genre that will be functional in terms of accomplishing this purpose within that social action. Here, the understanding of the purpose comes fore front, which is directly tied to the subject, in other words, the individual participating in the social action. If the purpose is accurately perceived by the subject, then s/he will select a genre or a set of genres serving to this purpose. However, although subjects may understand the purpose of the task, they may have difficulty in selecting the appropriate genre, or they may believe that they may not have the competency to accomplish this task though they have chosen the appropriate genre. At this point, Rhetorical and Sociological Traditions, by only introducing the knowledge of genre based on the formal and rhetorical features in terms of the positions they take in the social actions, fail to present any practical information on the use of genre in these complex situations within various social contexts, and thus on the ways in the instruction and application of genre.

2.4.1.1.3. Genre in linguistic traditions

Linguistic Traditions involve genre studies conducted according to the approaches introduced within three traditions – *Systemic Functional Linguistics*, *Corpus Linguistics* and *English for Specific Purposes*.

2.4.1.1.3.1. Systemic functional linguistics

Systemic Functional approaches, the starting point of which is the integration of the structure of language to the context it belongs to and to the function it carries out socially, have introduced new perspectives to the analysis of texts and language instruction by presenting a wide range of ways in the conceptualization and practice of genre for two decades. The systems put forward by the studies of Systemic Functional Linguistic Tradition have been mainly influenced by the work of Michael Halliday

(Halliday; Halliday and Hasan) at the University of Sydney, and these systems have been actively practiced in the genre-oriented studies (e.g. in the works of J. R. Martin, Frances Christie, Bill Cope and Mary Kalantzis, Gunther Kress, Brian Paltridge, Joan Rothery, and others). Language is contextually organized through the structuralization of that language according to the culture it is produced in, which is the natural outcome of the need to accomplish social purposes in that culture. Therefore, the task language carries out in the social, cultural and academical contexts is represented as the term of “Functional” within the scope of Systemic Functional Linguistics while the systematical role language plays in these contexts to supply the sustainability of doing tasks is referred as the term of “Systemic”. “Systemic” then refers to the “systems of choices” available to language users for the *realization* of meaning (Christie, 1997; p.759). Purposes in various contexts, and thus the contexts themselves, are realized as a result of the systematical function language carries out in the process of interaction, which proves that the realization of meaning is supplied. Moreover, as this realization process is circular movement, and as the language realizes contexts, contexts also realize the language itself in the forms of meanings. This realization conceptualized within the relation between language and context is of importance for Systemic Functional Linguistics.

Most of the studies carried out within Systemic Functional Linguistics and its scope are mainly tied to Halliday’s *Language as Social Semiotic*, in which Halliday describes how “the network of meanings” that constitute any culture, what he calls the “social semiotic,” is to a large extent encoded in and maintained by its discourse-semantic system, which represents a culture’s “meaning potential” (1978; p.100 and p.13). This is why, as Halliday argues, language is a form of socialization, playing a role in how individuals become social- ized and perform meaningful actions within what he calls “contexts of situation” (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.30).

Halliday explains that contexts of situation are not isolated and unique, but often reoccur as “situation types,” a set of typified semi- otic and semantic relations that make up “a scenario . . . of persons and actions and events from which the things which are said derive their meaning” (1978; p.28-30). Examples of situation types include “players instructing novice in a game,” “mother reading bedtime story to a child,” “customers ordering goods over the phone” (1978; p.29). Because con- texts of situation

reoccur as situation types, those who participate in these situation types develop typified ways of linguistically interacting within them. As these situation types become conventionalized over time, they begin to “specify the semantic configurations that the speaker will typically fashion” (1978; p.110).

Halliday refers to this “clustering of semantic features according to situation types” as *register* (1978; p.68). By linking a situation type with particular semantic and lexico-grammatical 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”) (Halliday, 1978; p.33).

Halliday’s work, also known as “Sydney School”, by “clustering of semantic features according to situation types” (Halliday, 1978; p.68), has been used as the basis of the work of Systemic Functional Linguistic studies and approaches and their focus on helping students “learn to exercise the appropriate linguistic choices relevant to the needs, functions or meanings at any time” (Christie, “Genres as Choice” 24). The raising issues in the application of process-based approaches involving teaching through a student-centered classroom atmosphere and production-oriented learning have been responded by the work of J.R. Martin and other scholars in the field of education linguistics in Australia within the scope of Systemic Functional Linguistics. In the process-based approaches, contexts are excluded, which leads to the ignore of all items of these contexts that help students have access to the systemic and organized ways providing a natural and private literacy acquisition through a social process, and thus the ignore of the students who are the active carriers of the contexts with the background cultural and linguistic knowledge on them, and also the subjects dominated by these contexts, as well. As Bill Cope and Mary Kalantzis explain, process-based approaches are actually “culture bound;” with their focus on student agency and ownership, the power of voice and expression, student control and motivation, such approaches reflect and privilege the “cultural aspirations of middle-class children from child-centered households” (1993;p.6). This shows that forming the connection between the textual patterns and contextual objectives is the key point in literacy teaching as such an approach will present the effective ways in the production of texts; therefore, to provide such a connection in order to help students in the textual production according to the social purposes, genre can be more explicitly worked out in

literacy teaching

Beginning in the early 1980s with research that examined children's writing in Australian elementary and secondary school classrooms, and extended in the early 1990s through research related to the New South Wales Department of Education's Disadvantaged Schools Program, SFL approaches to genre have been influenced most widely by the work of J.R. Martin, who has helped define genres as "staged, goal-oriented social processes through which social subjects in a given culture live their lives" (1997; p.43). As further explained in Martin, Christie, and Rothery, genres function as *social processes* "because members of a culture interact with each other to achieve them; as *goal-oriented* because they have evolved to get things done; and as *staged* because it usually takes more than one step for participants to achieve their goals" (Martin, Christie & Rothery, 1987; p.59).

In his study led by the work of Halliday, Martin presents genre on the basis of recycling connection between genre and register on the basis of the realization process stated above. According to Martin, while register functions on the level of *context of situation*, genre functions on the level of *context of culture*. Martin puts it, "register (encompassing field, tenor and mode) contextualizes language and is in turn contextualized by genre" (1997; p.37). As a result, the connection between the social purposes and the textual structures, and the realization of the actions in this process, put forward by Martin's work, broaden the perspective on the understanding of genre.

Within Australian genre pedagogy, Martin's view of genre has been used as part of the influential LERN (Literacy and Education Research Network) project (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.34). The project set out to identify what genres were the most important within school literacy (and has since been expanded to include adult migrant ESL settings and workplace settings), and to develop pedagogy to teach those genres most critically and effectively (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993; p.9), which has been known as the "teaching-learning cycle". This model consists of three stages - modeling, joint negotiation of text, and independent construction of text- although it has been adapted and applied in the studies from different dimensions. (e.g. Macken et al, 1989; Hammond et al, 1992; Rothery, 1996; Feez and Joyce, 1998). The first stage includes the presentation and exposure to various texts which form samples of a genre with their

specific features, in which the identification of the contexts and the contextual systems these samples of genre serve through their functional and structural working principles is supplied. As such, the first stage moves from discussion of context and social purpose to a description/analysis of register and language (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.34). After the accomplishment of the awareness of the genre through the representative texts within its cultural and social aspects, in the second stage, the formation of a sample product belonging to the genre is realized by following a set of procedures such as conducting research, developing content knowledge, note-taking, observing, diagramming. In the final stage, students independently construct a version of the genre by conducting research to develop content knowledge, drafting the text, conferencing with teacher and peers, editing, evaluating, and publishing their text (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993; p.10-11). The cyclical shape of the model is meant to reflect its flexibility, so that teachers can enter into the model at the stage most appropriate to students' level of preparedness (Paltridge, *Genre and the Language Learning Classroom* 30- 31). In addition to this, this model becomes a guide in the application of the genres, and even more complex ones, through the obtained knowledge on their features and systems supplying the relation between their linguistic and structural features and the social actions.

Systemic Functional Linguistics and its trajectories, however, have been subject to criticism from pedagogical and theoretical dimensions. 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). Kress (2003) also raises concern about the classifying impulse behind Martin et al's approach to genre, in which genres are classified and then modeled to students as though they were givens. By starting with model texts and examining the social purposes embodied within them, such an approach ignores the material/social relations and contexts that may not be visible in the text's structure and features, but that play an important role in how and why the text functions the way it does (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993; p.14). Pedagogically, critics worry that such an approach to genre teaching promotes a "linear transmission pedagogy" in which "textual form is largely presented in an uncritical way at the modeling stage" for

students to emulate (Cope and Kalantzis, 1993; p.15). As Cope and Kalantzis explain, “The cycle imagery . . . belies the fact that the underlying pedagogical process is linear. Not only is this a reincarnation of the transmission pedagogy but it also takes genres at their word and posits their powerfulness uncritically, solely on the grounds that they should be taught to groups of students historically marginalized by the school literacy” (1993; p.15). This approach, they fear, can easily lead to a “cultural assimilationist model of education” (1993; p.16).

The theoretical dimension of criticism extends to the conceptualization of genre within the SFL scope which rotates from the relation between the social purposes and structuralization texts to the register and linguistic analysis. How the realization and reproduction of the social purposes and actions within contexts are carried by genres is not represented in the work SFL. That is, by taking “genres at their word,” such a view of genre also takes social purposes at their word, thereby ignoring why certain social purposes exist in the first place as well as what institutional interests are most served through these purposes and their enactments (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.36). According to Terry Threadgold, genre theory is significant because of the relations it reveals between genres and institutions, power, the construction of subjectivity, as well as “the relations it permits/enables/constrains and refuses between readers and writers, textual producers, and receivers” (1989; p.102). Threadgold’s critique hinges on SFL genre theory’s use of genres as a starting point for textual analysis while overlooking the “web of social, political, and historical realities” in which genres are enmeshed (1989; p.106).

The approaches to genre within the work of Systemic Functional Linguistic, though they have been exposed to some criticism from some aspects as stated above, have contributed to the field of genre by presenting the working systems of genres as the ways to connect the social purposes to the contextual actions, especially social and linguistic ones through “moving from the identification of social purpose as represented in generic structural elements (involving the analysis of what Hasan calls “generic structure potential”—the range of staging possibilities within a particular genre)” (Eggins and Martin, 1997; p.240); “to the analysis of a text’s register as represented in field, tenor, and mode; to language metafunctions; to more micro analyses of semantic, lexico- grammatic, and phonological/graphological features”

(Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; pp.33-34). Moreover, the perspectives and approaches presented within SFL have established the pedagogical implications in literacy teaching to students by stating the importance of genre in the realization of meaningful communication via the key points genre offers in the application and selection of the ways to use language effectively within specific contexts.

2.4.1.1.3.2. Historical/Corpus linguistics

The work of Historical and Corpus Linguistics has introduced new perspectives to the genre studies and genre instruction by presenting the nature of typology and language change. Thus, in this section, the scope of historical and corpus linguistics on the classification of genre will be explained.

According to Hans-Jürgen Diller, the field of historical linguistics became interested in text classification when it expanded its scope of study from sentences to texts (2001;p.11). Deductive and Inductive text typologies, which shows differences in the genre perception and study, and from this aspect, similarity with the difference between analytical (or theoretical) approaches and historical (or empirical) approaches to genre classification stated in the work of Todorov within literary traditions, are the two types of classification presented by Diller within text linguistics. Under the light of the information from the work of Robert Longacre (The Grammar of Discourse), Diller clarifies the principle of *Deductive* text typologies as that genre taxonomies and classification of texts are formed within Deductive text typologies, the content of which is parallel in that of neo-classical approaches based on the classification and description of the connection between literary devices through the identification of universally descriptive genre samples. Longacre, for instance, “bases his typology of ‘Notional’ or ‘Deep Structure’ text types . . . on the ‘notional categories’ which in his view underlie human language” (Diller, 2001; p.12). The four “notional text types” (or modes) for Longacre are Narrative, Expository, Behavioral, and Procedural, and together they overarch and help categorize surface text types which Longacre calls genres (Diller, 2001; pp.12-13). For example, the Narrative mode overarches genres such as fairy tales, novels, short stories, newspaper reporting; the Procedural mode includes such genres as food recipes, how-to books, etc.; the Behavioral mode includes essays and scientific

articles; and the Expository mode includes sermons, pep-talks, speeches, etc. (Diller, 2001; p. 13).

As to inductive text typologies, the trajectory shows a different dimension from the trajectory of deductive ones that the taxonomy of the different genre types is tied to the clarification of the patterns within the texts examining the structures of text. That is, the first step of the inductive text typologies is to identify the textual patterns not to directly categorize the text types. The categorization of genre to this understanding has been mainly built on the work of Douglas Biber in corpus linguistics. In his study of *Variation Across Speech and Writing*, for instance, firstly the most frequently repeating textual features within texts are identified as groups (what Biber calls “dimensions” such as “narrative versus non-narrative,” “non-impersonal versus impersonal style,” “situation dependent versus elaborated reference”). Then, these groups within a corpus of twenty-three genres are analyzed statistically, through which the description of the appearance of these groups within several texts are identified in each genre. Thus, the linguistic variation within and among genres and the degree of the complexity within each genre from the textual dimension have been examined and defined via these processes.

Corpus linguistics, using large scale electronic text databases or corpora, allow researchers to conduct systematic searches for linguistic features, patterns, and variations in spoken and written texts (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; pp.33-38). Additionally, Corpus linguistic techniques and computer technology can provide significant help in pointing out ‘real life’ language use in context with the help of language corpora, that is, stretches of texts representative of particular registers or varieties of language (e.g. Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998; Kennedy, 1998) (Trebits, 2009; p.202). Several corpora are made available on the internet (Mishan, 2004; pp.219-227), but language professionals can also carefully build their own corpora based on their particular research purposes and/or the immediate needs of the students they teach (Trebits, 2009; p.202).

In the work of historical and corpus linguistic, the categorization of genre according to the characteristics typical to a genre type is of importance in the conceptualization and pedagogical implication of genre. At this point, as Brian

Paltridge explains, prototype theory describes how people categorize objects according to a prototypical image they have conditioned in their minds by socio-cultural factors, while classical theories describe categorization based on shared, essential properties within objects that result in objective assessment of category membership (1997; p.53). The identification of the prototypes and the genre categories provide the description of the genre class a text belongs to through the analysis of the structural and linguistics features of this text in terms of the similarity it shows to a certain genre prototype. Here, it is essential to indicate that some texts may not show closeness to any of genre prototype actually because the structural and linguistic characteristics they show are peculiar to these texts and mixed of genres, and so they may not be represented within a specific genre prototype, while others include features closer to a certain genre class. The important point here is that the relation between texts and genres is not simply based on features internal to both, but more powerfully is based on learned, conceptual relations between “memory, context and frames,” thus rendering “the notion of prototype as a principle of selection, organization and interpretation of genre frames” (Paltridge, 1997; p. 62).

The approaches to genre within Corpus and Historical Linguistics have been followed as the basic systems in the studies of Systemic Functional Linguistics and English For Specific Purposes because they have provided pedagogical implications for the researches and instruction of genre. For example, within SFL genre theory, J.R. Martin has used the perspectives introduced by the studies of Corpus and Historical Linguistics to distinguish between typological and topological genre classifications: “For purposes of typological classification, we have to define just what percentage of causal relations is required for a text to qualify [as a member of the genre]. The topological perspective on the other hand allows us to position texts on a cline, as more or less prototypical . . .” (1997; p.15). Thus, SFL approaches have followed the system of Corpus and Historical Linguistics in such a way that it provides the implications through the genre instruction to students by the use of teaching-learning cycle in order to make them more closely involved in the genres, which form as prototypes with their typical structural and linguistic features, through the writing assignments. As coming to pedagogical dimension of Historical and Corpus Linguistics within the studies of English for Specific Purposes, it seen that the practitioners within ESP studies have

applied the approaches of Corpus and Historical Linguistics in the genre analysis, which has led to the identification of descriptive features of the genres used in the specific contexts and thus the realistical instruction of them. Finally, the studies carried have put the genre as a moderator in the realtions of historical and linguistic motives and actions from different aspects, which also has contributed to the genre pedagogy and study.

2.4.1.1.3.3. English for specific purposes

The ESP approach to genre was developed by practitioners working in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (Flowerder and Wan, 2010; p.79). English for Specific Purposes is under the content of Language for Specific Purposes (LSP) as a very important branch covering and effecting many studies within various disciplines. The main focus of English for Specific Purposes is to present and analyze the specific versions of English specialized for the academic and professional contexts by studying and teaching these, especially, to the non-native speakers of English with different backgrounds. Within the content of ESP, there are many sub-fields involved 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).

A great amount of work in the literature has been devoted to the study on ESP genre tradition and pedagogy in academic and professional settings, which provides implications for genre analysis and instruction in ESP contexts (e.g. Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdew, 1993; Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Hyland, 2003, 2004; Johns, 2002; Paltridge, 2001; Swales & Feak, 2000, 2004; Tardy, 2006). The most important representitative and frontier of ESP, rotating the studies carried out in the field by forming the basic modules of the ESP tradition, are the John Swales, the author of a seminal book on the subject (Swales, 1990), and “although ESP has existed since the 1960s and although ESP researchers began to use genre analysis as a research and pedagogical tool in the 1980s, it was especially 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)

Swales' *Genre Analysis* shows that ESP tradition is based on the study of English used in the academic and research contexts, and also in the occupational contexts and the application of English in these contexts to the specific purposes. At this point, The applied nature of ESP has been a defining feature of the field from its inception (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.42). As Swales explains, ESP approaches can be traced to “quantitative studies of the linguistic properties . . . of *registers* of a language” for the purpose of identifying the frequency of occurrence of certain linguistic features in a particular register and then making these features the focus of language instruction (1990; p.2). Early work in ESP thus resembled research in corpus linguistics with its quantitative studies of the linguistic properties of language varieties, and to this day research in corpus linguistics continues to influence ESP genre research (Belcher, 2004; p.168; Paltridge, 2001; p.119-20). As Swales notes, however, ESP studies since the 1960s have “concomitantly become narrower and deeper” than those early quantitative studies (1990; p.3). They are *narrower* in the sense that the focus has shifted from broader register categories such as “scientific” or “medical” language to a narrower focus on actual genre varieties used within, say, scientific and medical disciplines (Swales, 1990; p. 3). At the same time, ESP analyses have also become *deeper* in the sense that they not only describe linguistic features of language varieties but also their communicative purposes and effects. This “deeper or multi-layered textual account,” Swales explains, signaled an interest in “assessing rhetorical purposes, in unpacking information structures and in accounting for syntactic and lexical choices” (1990; p.3).

According to Swales; the motivation for genre analysis was the goal of developing pedagogic materials for non-native speakers of English. Swales defines “genre as a type of communicative event with a particular purpose which is readily identified by what they refer to as its discourse community (those people who regularly engage in it)” (Flowerder and Wan, 2010; p.79). Swales (1990) presents a schematic structure for a genre which includes stages called as moves formed of steps by Swales (1990), in other words a sequence of development. At this point, it is important to state that the application of this schematic structure in different genre samples may show a variation within and among various academic contexts. That is, the moves and steps

may not be followed as in the sequence of schematic structure, or may be applied in different orders, some of them may be repeated or embedded in the others (Swales, 1990). However, a prototypical schematic structure will be recognisable in terms of the most typical realisation pattern, as identified by the discourse community (Swales, 1990; p. 58). Flower and Wan (2010; p.79) state that as well as having a prototypical schematic structure, the various communicative functions of a genre exhibit typical conventionalised verbalisation patterns, or realisations, which are again recognized as such by the discourse community. Knowing how to perform a genre, according to this ESP view, involves knowing both its schematic structure, or staging, on the one hand, and the specific form–function correlations of each stage, on the other (Flower and Wan, 2010; p.79).

All in all, it is in Swales and his followers' focus on describing and determining linguistic effects that ESP genre approaches help bridge linguistic and rhetorical studies of genre.

2.4.1.1.3.3.1. John Swales, ESP and genre

2.4.1.1.3.3.1.1. Swales and ESP

Swales has led to the increasing interest in ESP by motivating the practitioners and researchers and by standing against the trends and traditions within the fields of linguistics, applied linguistics and language learning theory. At a time when the major linguistic paradigm was an idealized linguistic competence (Chomsky, 1965), Swales was concerned with language use in social contexts, and, at a time when research focuses on language learning, psycholinguistic issues, and acquisition theory, Swales never lost faith in teachers and teaching (Bloor, 1998; p.48).

Swales has always followed a certain tradition covering a well-established and organized system. Indeed, he has not been influenced by the other trends and developments, and he has introduced his own genre- analysis and study models so he has been an important producer of new ways. Nevertheless, it is interesting that the status of the influences shaping Swales' thinking have been thoroughly accepted by himself, as well. Thus, reading Swales' works to understand these influences

acknowledged by him demands very different linguistic training, because his system has been tended to reveal of new interpretations of the text, and re-creation of the historical context of the work. So, in his work, *Genre in three traditions: Implications for ESL*, Hyon (1996) placed Swales' work on genre as a totally different and distinct genre-analysis system which is actually a scholarly- established new dimension to genre, and according differs from the systemic functional linguistics.

Most of Swales' works- those presented as English language textbooks (1971 and 1980), collections of papers (1984 and 1985) articles (for examples, 1981,1990,1995 and 1996)) books on applied linguistics (1990) and those as editorials in the journals, have been devoted to the effective instruction of English for Specific Purposes, particularly of English for Academic Purposes. The first line of Genre Analysis could have taken its place as the first line of much of his work:

“The main aim of this book is to offer an approach to the teaching of academic and research English”. (1990: p. 1).

At this point, such expression may lead to the assumption that the mostly emphasized part is the teaching procedures followed rather than the language itself, and also some readers may attribute that such system may be based on practical stance rather than theoretical one, and even form an anti-theoretical camp, which actually would be far from the truth. In his works, *Episodes in ESP* (henceforth *Episodes*) and *Genre Analysis*, Swales not only presents a set of practical implications on how to teach ESP but also provides argumentative perspectives to the works produced within other traditions.

Episodes involves the presentation of the historical development of ESP tradition through the study on a chronologically-compiled corpus of articles from the language linguistic analysis- based courses through the practice of grammar at the sentence level via specialized texts and from the production (performance)- based courses based on the realization of a set of communicative purposes within a certain discourse community through the “purposeful activities”. By looking at the specific work of ESP practitioners on, for example, team teaching (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1980) and project and task-based learning (Herbolich, 1979), Swales illustrates developments in classroom practice, and by the selection of readings which present different positions on

the nature of the language to be taught in the ESP classroom, he pin-points controversies in the field that will be with us for many years yet (Bloor, 1998; p.49). The extent to which students are exposed to the genres belonging to the real and original contexts, and the extent to which the features of these discourse-specific genres are defined, explained and described by the teachers form these controversial issues. “At one extreme, for example, we find Allen and Widdowson (1974), who argue for the use of constructed texts, written by textbook authors, which are especially composed rather than derived from existing texts to “avoid syntactic complexity”. At the other, is the argument of Phillips and Shettlesworth (1978), who make a clear stand for the use of authentic resource materials, with attention being paid to the difficulty of the classroom tasks rather than the difficulty of texts” (Bloor, 1998; p.49).

In addition to these controversies, Swales’ this work, *Episodes* also reflects the major concerns of ESP directly tied to the work of ESP through an inductive and pedagogical manner. That is, although the debates stated above are presented in *Episodes*, the problems, in the interests of ESP solidarity are indirectly presented in *Episodes*, as well . These controversies are clarified under the light of teaching experiences and different learning styles. Swales explains his this manner as :“Disagreements that arise are not really about matters of principle because they are ultimately reducible to protagonists reflecting on experience drawn from very different teaching environments” (1985; p.208). Swales indicates that teaching area, involving a wide range of teaching-learning practices and experiences, is of importance and so teachers do not deduce general assumptions about the all the scope and system of ESP from one specific line. By giving examples such as those made by Hutchinson and Waters (1980), he adds that:

“For me”, writes Swales, “Hutchinson and Waters have established in a totally professional way . . . that their EOP situation calls for a widely differing approach and a rather different set of resources. What they have not demonstrated is that their ‘ESP type curriculum is a desirable goal for all’” .(1985; p.185)

Again, in discussing different approaches to ESP, he writes of preferred teaching styles: “temperamentally, some teachers put a higher value on methodology than they do on information about the use of language, and others the converse; and this phenomenon may be related to whether particular holders of ESP positions are at heart

language teachers or linguists” (1985; p.185). He states that practitioners and teachers may follow several approaches in the teaching of ESP. However, his growing engage in a specific approach, a genre-based approach, is clearly reflected within his statement:

“...one which differs from traditional register or text analysis in the importance attached to communicative purposes within a communicative setting” (1985; p. 212).

In *Genre Analysis*, much stress is thoroughly put on the use of authentic texts in the classroom. At this point, Swales attaches importance to not only the ways of selection of these authentic texts but also the ways applied in the interpretation of them. In Chapter 4 (in *Genre Analysis*) the significance of forming the relation between pedagogical texts and tasks is presented, through which Swales also explains how he came to realize the importance of this relation.

The pedagogical texts need to be appropriate to the learners’ target situations in terms of genre and the linguistic realization of genre, and, as importantly, the tasks the learners are engaged in require a recognition of the communicative purpose of the text and the salient rhetorical features of the communicative event. A sample case in which the tasks did not appropriately relate to the texts is presented by Swales from his own teaching experience. He was using legal case reports in English with law students as reading materials and he provided comprehension tasks “designed to help the students understand the stories”. At first he was pleased with this teaching technique until he came to understand that lawyers do not read these reports simply as “stories” but rather they need to recognize the crucial facts of the case on which the legal judgement rests. “Because I had failed to appreciate the role of the genre in its environment, the reading strategies I was teaching . . . were probably doing the students ‘more harm than good’” (my italics). The students, prospective lawyers, needed to be able to interpret the rhetorical functions of the text appropriately, not simply as narratives but as the basis for legal judgements. (Bloor, 1998; p.50)

The definitions functioning differently within different disciplines faces a similar raising issue, which is stated by Swales (1981a). Moreover, the definition of a term within the terminology of a certain discipline may put on different explanations and functions according to the contexts they are used in, that is, it may change from context to context though it belongs to a this specific discipline. As coming back to the teaching

and learning experiences, thus, classroom activities must be organized in such a way or ways that they may help students to be able to distinguish such functions in reading. For Swales then, his term (from Episodes) “purposeful activity” is well chosen (1985; p.185).

There are continuing and cycling problems encountered in many ESP classrooms in the application of appropriate texts through inappropriate techniques, which is especially experienced in the EAP classrooms where interpreting the rhetorical function, personal attitude or critical stance a writer reflect in a text is ignored because of the heavier emphasis on the real interpretation of text, and is also too often seen in the testing of reading skills in EAP and ESP examinations, even at a national or international level. Yet critical reading is essential for effective participation in an academic setting. It is only in recent years that applied linguists and teacher researchers have started to investigate how writers express their point of view and how readers can be helped to recognize it (see, for example, Hunston, 1989, 1994; Thetela, 1997).

There is much discussion in Genre Analysis (Sections 4.2-4.3) of the nature of a pedagogical task, and Swales draws on definitions and discussion by Crookes (1986: p. 32), Candlin (1987: p. 10), Breen (1987: p. 23) and Hutchinson and Waters (1987: p. 109), to come up with his own suggestion which seems to me to form a characteristic statement about his approach to ESP:

“(A task is) one of a set of differentiated, sequenceable, goal-directed activities drawing upon a range of cognitive and communicative procedures relatable to the acquisition of pre-genre and genre skills appropriate to a foreseen or emerging socio-rhetorical situation”(1990;p. 76).

A task in this sense demands from the teachers or course designers much more than a communicative task demands in terms of the procedures followed, which is actually what is aimed in a general English language classroom. All communicative tasks are ideally differentiated and sequenceable, drawing on cognitive and communicative procedures, but they are directed at the general social milieu (Candlin, 1987: p.10). Generally, The communicative task is normally based on addressing the information gap and group work activities in the process of English language teaching. “Swales’ definition of a task for ESP leaves out these characteristics as “not sufficiently criterial” (although most communicative procedures incorporate them), but includes

three specifically ESP factors:(1) the fact that the activities are goal directed; (2) the requirement that the activities are related to the acquisition of genre skills; and (3) that they are appropriate to a foreseen or emerging socio-rhetorical situation. This definition incorporates, in methodological terms, the essential differentiating element of the ESP course: target needs analysis.” (Bloor, 1998; p.51) Actually, the planning of such tasks is a problematic process, as Swales advocates, for anyone without knowledge on and understanding of the important elements of a task; in other words, there must be a comprehensive analysis of the target community of discourse, of the communicative events of that discourse community and of the goals of these events, and of the ways followed in the realization of these goals in order to devise such tasks.

It is interesting that Swales illustrates his text-task methodology in a report of a workshop designed to teach the reading of “field guides in strange tongues” (Cook & Seidlhofer, 1995: pp. 215-216). Field guides, written for naturalists to assist in the identification of birds, wild flowers, shells, etc. are instances of a genre well-understood by Swales, who has long had an expert, if amateur, knowledge of birds; he would consider himself a member of the international community of bird-watchers (Cook & Seidlhofer, 1995: pp. 216-219). In this workshop he begins with a text in the native language (in this case English) and via a series of tasks takes the reader through texts of the same genre in French, Italian and Swedish, demonstrating that one of the relevant conditions of language use and learning is the interplay of text and task, whereby difficulty in the former is balanced by simplicity in the latter (Cook & Seidlhofer, 1995: pp. 220-222). According to him, the success of the workshop is also connected to the concentration on a specific genre and to the attention given in the tasks to form, which he sees as comprising “rhetorical structure and its linguistic realization”. Once the rhetorical structure of the texts is understood by the learners, they are able to use this to predict the type of information in the various sections of the field notes in the foreign language, which assists them in interpreting the wording (Bloor, 1998 ;p.52).

Swales, ever the pragmatist, realizing that “in many actual classroom situations teachers will not have the time or skills necessary to establish the appropriate genre requirements”, denies “that a teacher needs such a broad and deep understanding of the target community and their discourse” (1990: p. 77). He claims that “teachers can start with texts, tasks or with the exploration of the discourse community, or even approach

all simultaneously” (1990: p. 81). As Swales indicated in his example from a real teaching situation in a course on Academic Communications, the analysis process is a complicated one because of the ambiguity in the order of procedures, partly because of the surprising case that is likely to arise in all socio-cultural researches. Nevertheless, since, “in a genre-centred approach to task-based learning, the students need to focus on rhetorical action and on the organizational and linguistic means of its accomplishment” (1990: p. 82), the appropriate ways exclusive to and descriptive of the rhetorical action must be produced by the teachers in order to avoid obscurity in the understanding of the tasks. Basically, this is totally tied to the comprehensive comprehension of the social contexts around which the discourse is oriented. Elsewhere, Swales (1990) acknowledges this, not least in his admiration for the work of Bazerman (1984,1985, for example) and Myers (1985, for example), discussed in *Genre Analysis*, in investigating the social processes of members of scientific discourse communities.

In practice, an understanding of appropriate “rhetorical action” is sometimes achieved when the ESP teacher finds ways to work with subject specialists in a team teaching context. As Johns and Dudley-Evans (1980 in Swales 1985: p. 142) put it:

“The language teacher, we believe, needs to be able to grasp the conceptual structure of a subject his students are studying if he is to understand fully how language is used to represent that structure.”

Commenting on this point and the subsequent discussion, Swales writes:

“Notice Johns’ and Dudley-Evans’ careful position here. They are not claiming that the language teacher needs to understand fully the subject matter itself, but rather its conceptual structure.. . It is my belief that the authors have identified the correct line to take in a matter that continues to cause anxiety for many ESP teachers; and it follows that coming to terms with the conceptual structure requires in the first instance open-minded educational initiatives.. .” (1985;p. 142)

It is naturally language that formulates “the conceptual structure of a subject matter”. So, it is essential to understand the process of this formulation by examining the genre analysis theory Swales developed, through which he has become so well known, in detail.

2.4.1.1.3.3.1.2. Swales and genre

In *Genre Analysis*, Swales (1990: pp. 38-42) discusses genre-related work in linguistics in terms of his immediate influences: Hymes (1974), Saville-Troike (1982), Halliday (1978), Martin (1985) and Couture (1986). These works were generally effected by the Firthian tradition and followed this tradition. However, at the time when Swales was developing his model, only little extent had these works contributed to the development and conceptualization of genre in theory, and even to the description and analysis of genre. Swales (1990) indicates that at that time, though Couture tried hard to provide a more clear explanation to the relation between genre and register, the field was passing through a problematic process, and so in confusion in terms of the clarification of this situation.

Actually, there had been attempts of some scholars to undertake the genre differentiation; however, the importance of genre and register was not fully recognized and reflected in the researches. For example, Ure's influential work on lexical density (Ure, 1971), which was essentially based on the comparative analysis of lexis in spoken contexts (discussion, instructions, interview, lecture and so on) with that in written genres (business letters, manual, recipe, scientific article, and so on) does not use the word, but instead sticks to the term *register* and refers to the corpus as consisting of "texts of different register", and yet it seems clear in retrospect (and may have been appreciated by Ure at the time) that the discourse structure of the texts and not only their subject matter was likely to influence the relative frequency of structure words and lexical items (Bloor, 1998; p.53).

Halliday (1978: pp. 133-134) had recognized the importance of what he calls "generic structure" ("the form that a text has as a property of its genre") and he had stressed the part that this plays in distinguishing text from non-text, but he had done little to elaborate on the concept. Genre is not clearly and certainly reflected, and defined within his work (1985), which is actually understood from the fact that he utilizes mostly the examples of literature. At this point, it is also important to state that Halliday (1978) uses the expression "narrative genre", which has led to the confusion in terms of interpretation as such that for some "narrative" means a genre name, which is not acceptable within today's thinking. This is probably the natural outcome of

Halliday's misreading that again in his work he names genre with an another different concept, "fable". What is meant by Halliday is probably that fable is a type of genre and narrative is practiced through this genre, and so if this had been clearly clarified by himself, then there could not have been such confusion. " "Narrative" is a language style like "description", or "argumentation", which could be used in the construction of texts of many different genres. An instantiation of the genre "story" would be likely to incorporate narrative but might also include descriptive sections, and an instantiation of the genre "medical research report" might include a number of short anecdotes written as narratives to exemplify particular cases" (Bloor, 1998; p.53).

As Couture (1986: p. 82) put it "a genre does more than specify kinds of codes extant in a group of related texts; it specifies conditions for beginning, continuing and ending a text". Indeed, Biber (1988) and Platridge (1996) converses about the different sides between genre and text type in detail. However, it is again Swales who comprehensively clarified matters and pushed the whole study of register and texts forward by defining genre in terms of communicative events and communicative purposes:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share a set of communicative purposes. 'These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. (1990: p. 58)

Swales' this approach to language use has basically and firmly followed the tradition of Firthian linguistics. For Firth, as Love (1988) put it, "analysing speech events is the ultimate task of descriptive linguistics". But as coming to Swales, this is not the case; that is, as Swales looks for further in terms of the analysis within the classroom application, it is not the ultimate task. Nevertheless, his language approaches is the same as the Firthian's approach.

Here, what the term " speech event", used by Firth, means and whether it is close to the term " communicative event" put forward by Swales are the two important issues to be clarified. Firth (1957: p. 144) put it like this:

"A speech occurrence or an utterance may be oral or written and is considered as taking place in a context of situation. A speech event in a context of situation is therefore a technical abstraction from utterances and occurrences."

Thus any individual instantiation, a letter for example, was, for Firth, a speech occurrence or an utterance, but the genre “letter” would have been, for Firth, a speech event (1964; p.112). Firth identifies those which are particularly productive for linguistic description as ones which are routine and social:

“. . . the force and cogency of most language behaviour derives from the firm grip it has on the ever-recurrent typical situations in the life of social groups.” (Firth, 1964: p. 113)

Although Firth himself rarely used the word genre, the “ever-recurrent typical situations” are those more tightly constrained by convention or tradition and these must equate with genres (to include common spoken events such as service encounters). Firth took the expression context of situation from Malinowski, who had provided accounts of the way specific contexts of language use (where language is part of a job of work) affect meaning and interpretation. (Bloor, 1998; p.54)

The context of situation directly effects and thus determines the patterns of language, the internal organization of language and the language systems (in other words semantics of that language), which is proposed by the theory of language context, developed further by Halliday (1978). Here, it is essential to indicate that all the social contexts from past to today have influenced and developed these structural, rhetorical and systematical elements of language. The strength of this theory in terms of the relation to language teaching had been argued by Halliday et al. (1964; in Section 5) but the major focus of his work had been on the register.

Style and genre, also mentioned as “language events”, are commonly reflected and studied within the works. But, as to text or rhetorical purpose, there is little presented in the literature. Indeed, “it is only when we come to Swales’ early work on genre, fully developed in Genre Analysis, that the concept is sufficiently explicated to provide a tool for the identification, selection and analysis of texts appropriate to specific social situations” (Bloor, 1998; p.55).

In connection with genre and ESL, Hyon (1996; pp.693-695) draws “an artificial distinction between three approaches referred to as ESP Analyses (under which heading is included Swales’ work on genre), New Rhetoric Studies (incorporating U.S. writing teaching and ethnographic work, such as that of Bazerman), and Australian Genre

Theories (drawn from the work of Halliday, Hasan and Martin and other systemic functional linguists)". Hyon with her work contributes to the practice in the ESL classrooms by providing a sample case in terms of the differences between the approaches. However, her approach does not make a good case which forms a comprehensive theoretical basis. She (1996; p.697) claims, for example, that "many ESP scholars" (examples include Swales on genre, Dudley-Evans (1994); Wager-Meyer (1994); Bhatia (1993)) "have paid particular attention to detailing the formal characteristics of genres while focusing less on the specialized functions of texts and their surrounding social contexts". At this point, Hyon's work fails to provide a new perspective to the ESP tradition, the basis of which is formed of the theory that supports relating the texts to the social contexts in which they are produced. The artificiality of such divisions is studied within Swales' work with Rogers, in which Rogers and Swales (1990,1995) examine "the subtle rhetorical decisions made by the writers of a corporation's ethical codes and mission statements and shows how the language and social forces are intricately negotiated" (Bloor, 1998; p.55).

While there are important differences, it also seen that there are close theoretical links between the works of Swales and those of Firth and Halliday. But, here, what is clearly emphasized is that the development within the tradition of Systemic Functional Linguistics is to certain extent connected with the what is put by Swales about the genre as a social system constructing and influencing language and language forms.

All in all, a deep understanding on the relationship between context of situation and language form, discourse community and genre, as dynamic rather than static notions, and the links between them is directly related to a full conceptualization and comprehension in these phenomena. People mostly faces problems in forming the links between them, as Swales proposes ;

" this shortage of people who can make the link between the context and the discourse, leads to a regrettable 'macro-micro cleft'" (1990;p.58)

It is clearly seen that the formation of such links demands a comprehensive knowledge about the ways through which texts, in other words written genres, are constructed. Furthermore, it seems that the future nurturing of ESP programmes is tied to this knowledge, as well. Swales' own work of this type, and the work he has

encouraged and inspired in others, has kept ESP well-nourished with a rich diet of descriptive linguistics and discourse analysis to support our courses (Bloor, 1998; p.60).

2.4.1.1.3.3.1.3. System and scope of ESP

The basis of the ESP genre tradition lays down in the view that social context and function direct language users to the selection of the appropriate linguistic features, which results in relating the language to the social function in order to accomplish communicative purposes within a certain discourse community through genres as the devices supplying the connection between context and language. Here, discourse community, communicative purpose, and genre form the fundamental and interrelated concepts of the ESP work rotating the genre studies within this tradition, and the understanding of ESP system is directly tied to the conceptualization of these three elements.

Swales defines discourse communities as “sociorhetorical networks that form in order to work towards sets of common goals” (1990; p. 9). These common goals become the basis for shared communicative purposes, with genres enabling discourse community members to achieve these communicative purposes (1990; p.9). In *Genre Analysis*, Swales proposes six defining characteristics of discourse communities. First, “a discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals” which can either be explicitly stated or tacitly understood (1990; p.24-25). Second, in order to achieve and further its goals, a discourse community must have “mechanisms of intercommunication among its members” such as meeting rooms or telecommunications depends on individuals using these mechanisms to participate in the life of the discourse community (1990; p.26). Fourth, “a discourse community utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims” (1990; p.26). These genres must be recognizable to and defined by members of a discourse community (1990; p.26). Five, “in addition to owning genres, a discourse community has acquired some specific lexis” which can take the form of “increasingly shared and specialized terminology” such as abbreviations and acronyms (1990; p.26). Finally, “a discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discursual expertise” who can pass on knowledge of shared goals and

communicative purposes to new members (1990; p.27). As such, genres not only help members of a discourse community to achieve and further their goals; genres also help new members acquire and become initiated into a discourse community's shared goals, hence the value of genre as a teaching tool within ESP (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.45).

By proposing that a genre “comprises a class of *communicative events*, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes” (1990; p.58), Swales defines genres first and foremost as linguistic and rhetorical actions, involving the use of language to communicate something to someone at some time in some context for some purpose (1990; p.58). Genres function as this “class of communicative events” constructed on the specific communicative purposes and working in response to these purposes, however much complicated and peculiar these communicative events are. So, a genre represents a set of linguistic and rhetorical actions characterized within a specific context by the context community for the purpose of addressing the communicative goals.

Swales is careful to note that “exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypicality” (1990; p.49), meaning that a text's genre membership is not defined by “either/or” essential properties but rather along a spectrum of family resemblances by the other linguistic traditions. Since, according to Swales, “communicative purpose has been nominated as the *privileged* property of a genre” (1990; p.52), a genre prototype is determined by how closely it corresponds to its communicative purpose. From there, as Swales explains, “[o]ther properties, such as form, structure and audience expectations operate to identify the extent to which an exemplar is *prototypical* of a particular genre” (1990; p.52). As such, it is the rationale behind the genre that “shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style” (1990; p.58). In short, the rationale determines a genre's allowable range of substantive, structural, syntactic, and lexical choices, and the extent to which a text exists within this range will define its genre membership (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.46).

Because a genre's rationale as well as its schematic, syntactic, and lexical conventions are all defined against the backdrop of a discourse community's shared

goals, how members of a discourse community define genres is important to how genre analysts understand their function and structure (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.46). For this reason, ESP genre analyses, more so than SFL analyses, rely on a discourse community's "nomenclature for genres [as] an important source of insight" (Swales, 1990; p.54). This naming system informs about the ways preferred in the application of genres and the reasons behind the selection of these genres by the discourse community. However, although the ethnographic systems provided by the works of Ann Johns (1997) and Swales(1998) present valuable pedagogical information for the genre analysis on the basis of ethnographical dimension, these system have been still under question by the scholars in terms of the applicability of these systems in the genre analysis studies conducted within the ESP scope and the purposes these systems address to.

Communicative purposes, or a discourse community's shared goals, forms the basis of ESP genre analyses by functioning as devices producing the main motive in the use of genres and structuralizing these genres according to the discourse and community of this discourse. In ESP tradition, a genre-analysis is carried out through identification of a genre within the discourse community applying the genre and the communicative purposes the discourse community tries to achieve through that genre. Then, based on the data obtained from these aspects, the analysis is conducted upon the organization of genre in terms of rhetorical dimension, that is, moves followed in the rhetorical structural arrangement, and textual and linguistic features of the genre which work as the basic skeleton of the rhetorical organization. Thus, the process of genre analysis includes the analysis of the rhetorical organization of the genre and the examination of its textual and linguistic features, which are the key points characterized by the communicative purposes and the discourse communities. The process is by no means linear or static, but generally speaking, it has tended to move from context to text with context providing knowledge of communicative purpose and discourse community members' genre identifications (Flowerdew, 2002; p. 91- 92).

In *Analyzing Genre: Language in Professional Settings*, Vijay Bhatia (1993) outlines seven steps to analyzing genres, which presents the genre-analysis process described above. The genre-analysis process introduced by Bhatia, that is, these seven steps will not be always applied by the researchers in the order Bhatia states. However,

these steps show the genre-analysis procedures followed by the researchers in the academic and professional contexts and thus broadens the perspective on the genre-analysis process by providing insight into the ways researchers prefer.

The first step involves placing a given genre-text in its situational context (Bhatia, 1993; p.21). Step two involves surveying the existing research on the genre (Bhatia, 1993; p.22). After the identification and contextualization of the genre, in step three, the researcher's perspective on the discourse community in which the genre is produced is clarified. This includes identifying the writers and readers who use the genre and determining their goals and relationships to one another, as well as the material conditions in which they function—in short, identifying the “reality” which the genre represents (Bhatia, 1993; p.23). Step four involves the corpus completion of the genre by the researcher. Step five introduces an ethnographic dimension, with Bhatia recommending that the researcher conduct an ethnography of the institutional context in which the genre takes place in order to gain “naturalistic” insight into the conditions in which members of a discourse community use the genre (Bhatia, 1993; p.24). Step six moves from context to text, and involves the decision regarding which level of linguistic analysis to explore: *lexico-grammatical features* (for example, quantitative/statistical study of tenses, clauses, and other syntactic properties, including stylistic analysis) (Bhatia, 1993; pp.25-26), *text-patterning* (for example, the patterns in which language is used in a particular genre, such as how and why noun phrases and nominalizations are used in different genres), and *structural interpretation* (for example, the structural “moves” a genre utilizes to achieve its goals, such as the three-move CARS [Creating a Research Space] structure of research article introductions as described by Swales). In the final step, Bhatia advises researchers to seek a specialist informant from the research site to verify findings (Bhatia, 1993; p.34).

While the extent to which step five (conducting an ethnography) is utilized in ESP genre approaches varies both in terms of its frequency and specificity, in general Bhatia's methodology for genre analysis describes the trajectory that most ESP genre approaches have taken, moving from context to textual analysis and, at the textual level, applying various levels of linguistic analyses, from lexico-grammatical features to language patterns to larger structural patterns. Swales' well-known and influential analysis of the research article in *Genre Analysis* generally exemplifies these levels of

linguistic, textual, and structural analyses. (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.48) For example, in analyzing research article (RA) introductions, Swales first identifies the typical “moves” authors make within the introduction (Swales and Feak have defined a “move” as a “bounded communicative act that is designed to achieve one main communicative objective” within the larger communicative objective of the genre) (1990; p.35): from “establishing a territory” (move 1) to “establishing a niche” (move 2) to “occupying the niche” (move 3) (1990; p.141). Within each of these moves, Swales introduces a set of possible “steps” RA authors can take, such as “claiming centrality” and “reviewing items of previous research” in move 1 and “counter-claiming” or “indicating a gap” in move 2. From there, Swales examines steps more specifically by analyzing textual structure, and linguistic and grammatical features within different steps. For example, step 3 (reviewing items of previous research) within move 1 (establishing a territory), provides the analysis of the citation styles authors apply by examining whether they “name the researcher being cited in their citing sentence or reference the researcher in parenthesis at the end of the sentence or in end notes”(Bawarshi and Reiff,2010;p.48). Moving from text-patterning to lexicogrammatical features, Swales then identifies the frequency of “reporting verbs” (such as “show,” “establish,” “claim,” etc.) that RA authors use “to introduce previous researchers and their findings” (1990; p.150).

ESP genre tradition has contributed to the knowledge on the specific genres, notably research articles as well as what Swales(1990) has called “occluded genres” that operate behind the scenes of research articles (genres such as abstracts, submission letters, review letters, etc.), applied in certain disciplines to great extent by providing valuable information on these genres through the analysis approach this tradition introduces, which includes a wide range of analysis-processes from the detailed study on the rhetorical structure of genres through the identification of the moves and the basic motive behind the application of these moves, and to the textual and linguistic features of these genres and the ways practiced in the arrangement of these features, which forms , as indicated above, the basis of rhetorical organization. Such knowledge has enabled graduate-level non-native speakers of English to gain access to and participate in academic and professional discourse communities (Swales, 1996; p. 46).

2.4.1.1.3.3.1.4. English for specific purposes and/versus other linguistic traditions

ESP tradition covers a wide range of study from the description of the linguistic features of texts through detailed analyses to the examine of different genre types and their functions as devices providing meaningful communication. This comprehensive scope of English for Specific Purposes presents the similar and distinctive sides of this tradition with the other linguistic traditions, that is, Systemic Functional Linguistics and Historical/Corpus Linguistics in the analysis process of genres. There are several ways in which ESP and the other genre approaches compare to and differ from one another.

The starting point of all linguistic traditions is that social context and function within this context are important determiners in the selection and organization of linguistic features. Additionally, each of them pedagogically provides the students the knowledge of the connection between the language and social functions through genre studies and instruction. Such a “visible pedagogy,” according to Ken Hyland, “seeks to offer writers an explicit understanding of how target texts are structured and why they are written the way they are,” thereby making “clear what is to be learned rather than relying on hit-or-miss inductive methods” (2004; p. 11). This deductive instruction style of ESP and linguistic traditions is also based on the idea that this way produces the best results in the access to the students. As Hyland elaborates, “the teaching of key genres is, therefore, a means of helping learners gain access to ways of communicating that accrued cultural capital in particular professional, academic, and occupational communities. By making the genres of power visible and attainable through explicit instruction, genre pedagogies seek to demystify the kinds of writing that will enhance learners’ career opportunities and provide access to a greater range of life choices” (2003; p. 24).

ESP genre tradition differs from the other linguistic genre traditions in terms of some important points though the linguistic traditions show common features in the strategies followed in the genre-analysis and the presentation of the pedagogical implications. The most striking difference between ESP and other traditions is related to the target audience they are applied for. Actually, The target audience ESP genre tradition addresses to consists of the non-native speakers of English within the academic

contexts in the international platforms, especially in British and U.S. universities, who are lack of the knowledge of advanced level, and especially graduate-level English, while the other traditions are mostly applied to provide pedagogical language instruction for the school-age children in Australia, whose economical and cultural background are limited in certain aspects. Naturally, the perception of the genre concept and the process of genre-analysis is directly tied to and effected by this difference in the target audience these traditions focus on. Because each approach teaches explicitly “genres often assumed to be tacitly acquired via the normal progression of academic acculturation” but denied disadvantaged students (Belcher, 2004; p.169). At this point, the selection of the appropriate genres to instruct becomes a raising issue in question. That is, genres used in the academic and professional settings are not applied at the level of primary and secondary schools, and so school age children do not produce these genres. As a result, for example, SFL scholars and teachers have tended to focus their attention on what Ann Johns, following Swales, calls “pre-genres” such as explanations, recounts, or description (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.44) . For ESP scholars and teachers working with advanced students whose academic disciplines and professional/occupational settings are more bounded and where the genres used within those contexts are more identifiable, the analytical and pedagogical focus has been on actual, community-identified genres used within those disciplinary settings—genres such as research articles, literature reviews, conference abstracts, research presentations, grant proposals, job application letters, academic lectures, various medical texts, legislative documents, and so on (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.44).

The perception of context is the other dimension that ESP tradition and other linguistic traditions differ in the study of genre. Here, it is important to indicate that this difference is the natural outcome of the difference between the traditions in terms of the target audience. The other linguistic traditions are mostly based on the instruction and analysis of simple –genres so the context in which these genres are produced is presented from a general perspective. SFL genre approaches locate genre at the level of “context of culture.” ESP genre approaches, however, locate genres within more specifically defined contexts (what Swales first termed “discourse communities”), where the genres’ communicative purposes are more specified and attributable. Additionally, defining genre in relation to discourse community has had important

implications for ESP genre approaches, allowing ESP scholars to focus on context and communicative/rhetorical purpose. At the same time, defining genre in relation to discourse community has to some degree also shifted the pedagogical purpose of ESP approaches away from the more overtly political, empowerment-motivated goals of other traditions' genre-based teaching to a more pragmatic, acculturation-motivated pedagogy aimed at helping advanced non-native English speaking students acquire "knowledge of relevant genres so they can act effectively in their target contexts" (Hyland, 2003; p. 22).

2.4.1.1.3.3.1.5. ESP in recent years and ESP trend in genre-analysis studies

2.4.1.1.3.3.1.5.1. ESP in recent years- developments & critiques

The major focus of ESP genre research (that is, the trend topics of the ESP studies) has been on the issues focusing on communicative purpose, context, and the dynamic, intertextual nature of genres in the last two decades. Eleven years after the publication of Swales' *Genre Analysis*, Inger Askehave and John Swales, reflecting on the notion of "communicative purpose" in light of more complex, dynamic understandings of context and cognition, wonder if "'communicative purpose' has assumed a taken-for-granted status, a convenient but under-considered starting point for the analyst" (2001; p.197). They point to research that "has, in various ways, established that . . . purposes, goals, or public outcomes are more evasive, multiple, layered, and complex than originally envisaged" (2001; p.197), and note how genre researches such as Bhatia had already recognized that while genre conventions constrain "allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form, and functional value, . . . these constraints . . . are often exploited by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognized purpose(s)" (Bhatia, 1993; p.13). Askehave and Swales acknowledge that "we are no longer looking at a simple enumerable list or 'set' of communicative purposes, but at a complexly layered one, wherein some purposes are not likely to be officially 'acknowledged' by the institution, even if they may be 'recognized'—particularly in off-record situations—by some of its expert members" (2001; p.199).

In an effort to account for the complexity of communicative purpose, Askehave and Swales suggest that researchers begin with a provisional identification of genre purpose and then “repurpose” the genre after more “extensive text-in-context inquiry” (2001; p.208). For example, in his recent study of research genres, Swales examines the use of humor in dissertation defenses, arguing that the use of humor enables the achievement of the more serious purposes of the dissertation defense: The purpose and use of humor helps to “lubricate the wheels of the genre” and enables the participants in the defense to proceed “in an informal atmosphere of solidarity and cooperation” (Swales, 2004; p.170). More recently, Sunny Hyon has examined the multi-functionality of communicative purposes in university retention-promotion-tenure (RPT) reports. Analyzing how report writers use playfulness and inventiveness in RPT reports, Hyon suggests that while not overturning the reports’ official communicative purposes, “the inventiveness . . . may *add* unofficial purposes to these reports” (2008; p.178). Likewise, Ken Hyland (2005) has recently analyzed the strategies that academic writers use in different academic communities to construct themselves and their readers. Focusing on “stance” and “engagement,” Hyland examines how writers insert their personality into their texts through the use of hedges, boosters, and attitude markers, and how they construct their readers through the use of questions, reader pronouns, and directives (Hyland, 2005; p.173). Hyland’s research demonstrates that, within the conventions of disciplinary discourses, individual writers can “manipulate the options available to them for creative and rhetorical purposes of their own” (Johns, Bawarshi, Coe, Hyland, Patridge, Reiff& Tardy, 2006; p. 238).

ESP approaches have followed the idea that takes genres as the dynamic and interactive systems by considering the complexity of the communicative purposes and thus comprehending the analysis such that it includes a wide range of communicative purposes. In addition to analyzing occluded genres that function behind the scenes of more dominant genres, ESP genre researchers have begun also to attend to what Swales calls “genre chains,” whereby “one genre is a necessary antecedent for another” (Swales, 2004; p.18). Genre competency is obtained through the knowledge both on the discipline-specific genres and the interaction between these genres within the complexity of ways to achieve a set of communicative purposes determined by the dynamic structure of the contexts, which is the general result of the process of attending

to networks of genres. Bronia P.C. Sohas explored the implications of this complex set of relations for ESP genre pedagogy, concluding that: “To enable students to cope with a wide range of genres in today’s world, it is important to help them acquire not only the knowledge of the rhetorical context, audience, generic conventions, as well as overlaps and distinctions, but more importantly also the knowledge and understanding of intertextuality and interdiscursivity in genre writing” (2005; p.77).

The intertextual system of genre has been studied by some of ESP scholars and researchers through the ethnography- oriented genre analysis studies. Ann Johns, for example, has promoted the idea of students as both genre researchers and genre theorists to help bridge the gap between what genre researchers know about genres (as complex, dynamic entities) and what student are often taught about genres (as static, fixed forms) in literacy classrooms (Johns, 2002; pp.237-240; see also Johns, 1995; “Teaching Classroom and Authentic Genres”). In *Text, Role, and Context: Developing Academic Literacies*, Johns invites students to become ethnographers of the academic contexts in which they are learning to write, including the values and expectations underlying the genres they are asked to write and what role these genres play in their academic contexts. In “Destabilizing and Enriching Novice Students’ Genre Theories,” Johns shifts the analysis to students’ own theories of genre in the context of a “remedial” EAP course, inviting students to reflect on the (often limited and limiting) theories of genre they bring with them and encouraging them “to broaden their concepts of genre and their genre repertoire” at the same time as they acquire new academic genres (2002; p.244). This more auto-ethnographic approach enables students to become more “aware of the interaction between process, intertextuality, and products, and the variation among texts even within what is assumed to be a single pedagogical genre such as the research paper or five-paragraph essay” (2002; p.246).

Brian Paltridge Brian Paltridge has recently described the use of ethnography in a writing course for second language graduate students at the University of Sydney, in which students interview their professors in order to find out why they want students to write in certain genres and what purposes these genres serve within the discipline (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.51). In so doing, students can deploy their “thicker” understanding of genres within their disciplinary setting in order to “negotiate the boundaries, values, and expectations of the disciplines in which they are writing” (Johns

et al., 2006; p.236). These ethnography-analysis based approaches demand a detailed knowledge on the social nature of genres within the social contexts where they are used by the certain discourse communities, and the organization of these genres by these contexts in ESP genre teaching . Furthermore, they address the need to teach genres by focusing on the roles of them in shaping these contexts, as well -a view of genre acknowledged by Ken Hyland when he writes: “It is through this recurrent use of conventional forms and communicative practices that individuals develop relationships, establish communities, and get things done. Genres therefore not only embed social realities but also construct them” (Johns et al, 2006; p.237). As Swales puts it in his “textographic” study of a university building (1998; p.11), genres help connect “lifeways” and “textways”.

The attempts in ESP tradition and developments in ESP approaches to genre instruction and genre analysis have greatly contributed to the understanding of the dynamic and complex structure of genres in the ESP classrooms. Nevertheless, still, ESP approaches have been seriously questioned by some scholars from pedagogical dimension. Actually, Critiques indicate that ESP genre approaches are heavily based on the pedagogy of accommodation, prescriptiveness, and genre competence; however, they do not comprehensively cover the studies on the genre production, and thus pedagogical implications introduced by ESP approaches to genre are limited to the genre competence rather than genre performance. Therefore, as some ESP scholars has acknowledged that this limitation is an important raising issue to be signaled, critical approaches to the genre studies and instruction within ESP traditionas have been introduced by them in order to counterbalance these motivations.

Sarah Benesch was one of the first EAP scholars to point out the ideological consequences of giving non-native English speaking students access to academic and professional discourse communities through explicit teaching of genre conventions (see *Critical English* and “ESL, Ideology, and the Politics of Pragmatism”).By ignoring the ideological implications of such a pedagogy of accommodation, Benesch argues, EAP teachers unwittingly reproduce the very academic cultures of power that exclude non-native speaking students in the first place (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.52). As such, “EAP’s accommodation to traditional academic practices” may actually “limit the participation of nonnative-speaking students in academic culture” (Benesch, 1993;

p.713). Benesch has not been alone in questioning the implications of what Pennycook has called ESP's "vulgar pragmatism." As noted in Belcher, Peter Master has called on ESP to be more self-reflective about its role both in spreading global English and in helping language learners meet the needs of institutions and workplaces without questioning what and whose interests these needs represent (1998; p.724). Likewise, Alan Luke explains that a "a salient criticism of the 'genre model' is that its emphasis on the direct transmission of text types does not necessarily lead on to a critical appraisal of that disciplinary corpus, its field or its related institutions, but rather may lend itself to an uncritical reproduction of discipline"(196; p.314).

The accommodation-oriented approaches are not totally rejected by the scholars, and actually what they call for is "what Pennycook calls a "critical pragmatism," one that still aims to provide non-native speakers of English with access to genres of power and opportunity but that does so more critically"(1997; p.253). Explicit analysis and teaching of genres, described by the ESP researchers and teachers, forms the actual basis of the difference between Pennycook's "vulgar" and "critical" pragmatism. The kind of explicit analysis and teaching called for by critical pragmatism would go beyond explicating genre patterns and features to include an analysis of the ideologies, identities, and power relations embedded in and reproduced by these patterns and features(1997; p.255). As Brian Paltridge explains, a critical perspective on genre "might explore the connections between discourse, language learning, language use, and the social and political contexts" while providing "students with the tools they need to succeed" (2001; p.121). This approach suggests that the full involvement in a discourse community is tied to the understanding of the rationale behind the existence of genres and communicative purposes, the audience they address to and the ones they do not address, the outcomes as a result of the application of the genres to the communicative purposes they serve, and the obscurity realized by this application, and so on. Thus, what is demanded by this approach in the effective participation to the discourse community is more than to select and apply the specific genres which function according to the communicative purposes determined within the social contexts. This more critical approach to genre, its proponents argue, shifts the focus from a pedagogy of cultural accommodation to what Pennycook calls a "pedagogy of cultural alternatives", whereby students can potentially adapt genre conventions in order

to represent alternative purposes and/ or their own cultural perspectives (1997; p.264).

ESP's potentially prescriptive view of genre within the pedagogy of accommodation has been also one of the main concerns of ESP critics. Christine Casanave has warned, for example, that ESP genre-based approaches can privilege "a socially situated product perspective" (2003; p.82), while Kay and Dudley-Evans observe that ESP approaches tend to focus on the teaching of "conventionalized lists of genre-identifying features" which can lead to "an imposed rather than a responsive notion of text" (1998; p.311). Thus, competence-based approach in the acquisition of genres is mainly involved in the work of ESP, which results in the ignore of performance-based approach, and so students, exposed to such an approach, become competent in the recognition and reproduction of discipline-specific genres but the application and adaptation of these genres according to the immediate communicative goals and situations will not appeal to them as they are not able to do the performance-based sides of genres.

In "Understanding Learners and Learning in ESP Genre-based Writing Instruction," An Cheng takes up the distinction between "noticing" and "performing" genre (2006; p.86). Cheng critiques ESP genre approaches for focusing too exclusively on examining target genres, and calls for more learner-and-context-focused research that "examines learners' learning of genre and their development of generic/rhetorical consciousness" (2006; p.77). "The slighting of learners and learning in ESP genre approaches (a charge that could also be leveled against rhetorical genre approaches) raises important questions about what it means to use genres. To what extent does genre competence (knowledge of genre conventions) translate into genre performance? Is knowledge of genre conventions enough, or does genre performance require inter- and extra-textual knowledge that exceeds the ability of text-based genre analyses to deliver? If genre knowledge involves more than just knowledge of genre conventions, then what does genre knowledge entail? And how do genre researchers and teachers access and identify that knowledge? Questions such as these push at the disciplinary edges of ESP genre approaches, bringing us to the boundaries and debates between ESP and Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS) approaches" (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.54).

The answer provided by the ESP scholars and RGS scholars to these questions have reflected the striking differences between ESP and rhetorical genre approaches in terms of understanding of the sociological nature of genres and of the extent in going further in the explicit genre instruction. As stated before, there is a dynamic relationship between texts and contexts, and genres function as situated rhetorical and linguistic actions, which is recognized by both ESP and RGS scholars. However, genres are perceived both as the situated rhetorical and linguistic actions within certain contexts, and as constitutive parts, as symbolic worlds constructed, of these contexts through the users, that is readers and writers within the RGS tradition. That is, RGS scholars state that contexts, including a set of communicative purpose(s), discourse community members, genre nomenclature, or even genre chains and occluded genres, presents comprehensive knowledge by providing the basic background. In general, genres have been conceptualized as the sociological systems embodying textual and social ways of knowing, being, and interacting in particular contexts in RGS tradition while they have been understood as textual and linguistic actions situated within social contexts and supplying meaningful communication.

Even when more recent ESP genre research has acknowledged the sociological nature of genres, such as when Ken Hyland “describes how genres not only embed social realities but also construct them,” the emphasis of ESP genre analysis has remained on explicating genre conventions (schematic and lexico-grammatic) against the *backdrop* of the genre’s social context” (2003; p.18-19). Actually, ESP and RGS approaches have differed from analytical and pedagogical dimensions in terms of the point of emphasis put within these traditions though to the both approaches genres are understood as the systems providing connection between texts and contexts. That is, Rhetorical Genre studies have focused on the texts as the mediators between social actions and contexts and perceived the texts as the devices used to study on these social actions and contexts while, in ESP studies, the major concern has been on the understanding of the texts and communicative purposes.

The difference in emphasis between communicative purpose and social action not only reflects different analytical trajectories between ESP and rhetorical genre approaches; it also underscores different pedagogical philosophies and goals. Rhetorical genre researchers, for example, tend to question whether explicit teaching of genre is

enough, arguing instead for a more immersion- and ethnographic-based pedagogy in which students encounter, analyze, and practice writing genres in the contexts of their use. Such an approach, RGS researchers argue, allows students to get at some of the inter- and extra-textual knowledge that exceeds knowledge of genre conventions and that genre users must possess in order to perform genres effectively. Around the time of Swales's *Genre Analysis*, Charles Bazerman was describing this rhetorical/sociological view when he suggested that writing instruction should go beyond "the formal trappings" of genres and instead help make students aware that "the more [they] understand the fundamental assumptions and aims of [their] community, the better able [they] will be . . . to evaluate whether the rhetorical habits [they] and [their] colleagues bring to the task are appropriate and effective" (2004; pp 320-323). As Mary Jo Reiff recently put it, "Making genre analysis the focal point of ethnographic inquiry . . . ties communicative actions to their contexts and can illustrate to students how patterns of linguistic and rhetorical behavior . . . are inextricably linked to patterns of social behavior" (Johns, 2006; p.243).

The debate between explicit and more sociological approaches to genre teaching is not absolute, of course, and many genre scholars and teachers employ hybrid models that cross boundaries of the debate (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010; p.55). But as Diane Belcher explains, "for learners faced with linguistic and literacy barriers . . . ESP proponents contend that immersion is not enough" (2004; p.171). Christine Tardy (2005), while acknowledging genres' complexity (as a "kind of nexus among the textual, social, and political dimensions of writing"), likewise advises that, given the non-native English speaking population most often targeted in ESP genre approaches, it is necessary to compartmentalize genres. As Tardy writes, "some of the advanced ESL writers I observed, for example, had difficulty in analyzing genres from a linguistic *and* rhetorical perspective and then drawing links between these features and the rhetorical scene. They found little relevance in such analysis and at times saw the complexities of genre as too abstract to be of use. Perhaps at some stages and for some learners, more filtered or compartmentalized views of genre are also necessary" (Johns et al, 239).

2.4.1.1.3.3.1.5.2. Genre analysis studies (Samples from 1990 to 2011)- ESP traces

Since Swales's (1990) seminal book on the topic, the notion of genre has been extremely significant in research in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (see e.g. Bhatia, 2004; Hyland, 2004; Paltridge, 2001; Swales, 2004 for overviews). Genres can be defined as staged, structured, communicative events, motivated by various communicative purposes, and performed by specific discourse communities (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Bhatia, 1993, 2004; Johns, 1997; Swales, 1990, 2004). A host of structural and functional analyses of various genres has appeared over the years, providing insights into their prototypical linguistic/pragmatic features and social contexts. These studies have in turn provided insights for syllabus and materials designers working in ESP pedagogy (e.g. Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdew, 1993; Hyland, 2004; Johns, 2002; Paltridge, 2001; Swales & Feak, 2000, 2004). The great majority of this research, however, has been focussed upon the various academic genres, most notably the research article (see, for example, many articles published in this journal), much less attention being paid to professional or workplace genres (but see Bhatia, 1993, 2004; Bargiela-Chiappini & Nickerson, 1999; Devitt, 1991; Sless, 1999; Van Nus, 1999; Swales, 1998 for further development of their approaches). (Flowerdew, 2010; p.29) At this point, under this section, some samples from the ESP-oriented studies will be presented by involving the ones within the literature from those mainly focusing on the commonly-studied genres (e.g. as stated above, research articles) from several aspects to the others exploring the less or never studied genre types (e.g. audit reports or master theses).

Research articles (RAs), the central genre of knowledge production, have received extensive attention in genre analysis (e.g. Bazerman, 1988; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Brett, 1994; Holmes, 1997; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Swales, 1981, 1990). Most studies have focused on analysis of the text product, describing organizational patterning (examples below), particular text features such as uses of hedging, modality, and reporting verbs (Hyland, 1996; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Thompson & Ye, 1991), or aspects of clause structure and discourse function in the systemic functional tradition (Gosden, 1992, 1993; MacDonald, 1994; McKenna, 1997). Some

investigators have been oriented more towards institutional contexts than the RA genre has evolved in and towards behaviour of genre users, especially in the field of science (Bazerman, 1988; Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Rymer, 1988). (Ruiying & Allison, 2003; p.365-366)

In ESP genre analysis of RAs, some researchers have concentrated on its structure (Brett, 1983; Gohl & Gohl, 1986; Kuhl & Gohl, 1985; Munn & Gohl, 1986; Nystrom & Gohl, 1986; Posteguillo, 1999; Samraj, 2002; Swales, 1990; Williams, 1999; Yang & Allison, 2003, 2004), while others have focused more on some of its particular linguistic features, such as hedging (Crompton, 1997; Huangfu, 2005; Hyland, 1994, 1996, 1998; Salager-Meyer, 1994), modality (Huangfu, 2005; Salager-Meyer, 1992), voice (Matsuda, 2001; Matsuda & Tardy, 2007), verb tense (Liang, 2005; Malcolm, 1987; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Thompson & Ye, 1991) and first person pronoun (Hyland, 2001; Kuo, 1999; Liang, 2005; Salager-Meyer, 2001; Thetela, 1997). (Li & Ge, 2009; p.94)

Much research has been done on the organizational patterns of RA sections. Most prominent has been work on the RA Introduction (Swales, 1981, 1990), but other examples include studies of the Results section (e.g. Brett, 1994, in sociology RAs), of the Method sections and of the Discussion section, in sociology, political science and history RAs (Holmes, 1997), in economics, business and financial articles (Lindeberg, 1994), and across a wide range of sciences (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995). (Ruiying & Allison, 2003; p.365-366)

In the analysis of research article introductions, subsequent studies have indicated that the structure of RA introductions may vary in significant ways across disciplines. For instance, in his analysis of political science and sociology RAs for general patterns of organisation, Holmes (1997) observes that the introductions are untitled (i.e. do not contain the heading 'introduction') but most of them (18 out of 20) are followed by a titled section. (Öztürk, 2007; p.26) In his words, "with one exception, this was an extensive section that dealt with theoretical background, previous research and general topical information in varying proportions" (p. 327). He calls this titled section "background", and suggests that "the presence of such lengthy Background sections can perhaps be considered a distinctive feature of RAs in the social sciences as opposed to those in the natural sciences" (Holmes, 1997, p. 328). Crookes's (1986)

study, aimed at replicating Swales' (1981) earlier work, has also revealed that in contrast to 'hard' sciences, social science RA introductions occasionally contain topic-specific subheadings (Öztürk, 2007; p.26). In the other study, Anthony (1999), whose purpose was to test the CARS model, finds that "authors in the field of software engineering provide definitions of important terms and examples to illustrate difficult concepts" (p. 43). He observes that these occur extensively after Move 1 (Öztürk, 2007;p.26) and claims that "there is no step in the CARS model under which to classify these statements" (p. 43). Moreover, he finds that in Move 3 authors in software engineering provide an evaluation of their research (Öztürk, 2007; p.26), "which included statements about the value of the research and how it extends previous results" (Anthony, 1999; p. 42).

Besides the introduction- analysis oriented studies within genre analysis, there have been studies, as indicated above, on the other sections of RAs. On the one side of genre- analysis research, there are studies focusing on the Result sections. According to Bruce, the literature on the analysis of these sections shows that "drawing mainly on the ESP approach to genre, previous studies of Results sections have mostly tended to focus on text-organizing structures, either in terms of more general communicative categories (and their sequencing) or of a more specific content schema (move/step) structure" (p.109). Some interesting studies carried on the Results sections involve those of "Brett (1994), who examined the results sections from 20 sociology research articles and Williams (1999), who analysed eight medical research" (Bruce, 2009; pp.108-109). Brett (1994) employed what he calls three communicative categories: metatextual, presentation and comment:

"Metatextual defines parts of the text that refer to the data or to other written sections; it is text about the text,... guiding the reader to other parts of the writing... Presentation categories are those which objectively and impersonally report, present, or highlight the results or the ways in which they were obtained... Comment categories are those in which authors offer their own interpretation of, or comment and opinion about the results already presented, building up on the Presentation categories" (p. 52).

In the sociology Results sections of his sample, Brett proposes that the occurrence of the three organizational categories is cyclical, the most frequent pattern being pointer (metatextual) followed by statement of finding (Presentation), and

substantiation of the finding (Presentation). He describes each of the three communicative categories in terms of their linguistic features. (Bruce, 2009; p109)

Williams (1999) analysed a sample of eight medical research articles using a modified version of Brett's (1994) model of communicative categories (Bruce, 2009; p.109). Williams found Brett's model to be "an adequate basic model for the rhetorical categories of Results sections for interdisciplinary genre analysis" (p.362). However, he observed that the cyclical patterning identified in Brett's study was less common in biomedical articles (where the results section tended to be presented in a more linear way). He, therefore, suggests that both type of study and subject matter influence text organization, which may be either chronological, hierarchical or climactic. (Bruce, 2009; p.109)

In his study (2009), Bruce reports a genre study of the Results sections of two samples of 20 research-reporting articles from two disciplines: sociology and organic chemistry. Following the proposal of Bhatia (2004) that genre knowledge needs to be investigated from two perspectives, an ethnographic perspective and a textual perspective, the Results sections are analysed in terms of the social genre/cognitive genre model of Bruce (2008b). The results show that The texts are analysed in relation to the cognitive genre model, the analysis revealing consistent differences in the textual resources employed in each subject, with sociology Results sections mainly employing the cognitive genre termed Report and organic chemistry Results sections employing the Explanation cognitive genre.(Bruce, 2009; p.105)

The other side of genre-analysis studies consists of studies based on the analysis of methodology sections of RAs. "Within the ESP approach to genre, Methods sections of research reports have been described in some way by Bloor (1998), Brett (1994), Nwogu (1991) and Swales (1990), but to date only Lim (2006) appears to have attempted to provide a detailed move-and-step analysis linked to linguistic features, following the ESP approach to genre. Also, Swales and Feak (1994, 2000) also offer pedagogic advice to learner writers on the characteristics of types of Methods sections.

In published pedagogical materials, Swales and Feak (1994, p. 166, 2000, p. 206) say that in the case of social sciences (research areas that involve human subjects and human behavior), the Methods sections are slow or extended, and that in the case of

the physical sciences (computer science, engineering and medicine), the Methods sections are fast or condensed. Slowness in research related to human subjects relates to the level of explanation that occurs within the Methods sections reporting this type of research. Bloor's (1998) small genre study confirms higher frequencies of examples, justifications and details in slow Methods sections. *As coming to the Lim's study*, while not specifically exploring the fast/slow distinction, *he* (2006) examined the Methods sections in 20 articles from two business management journals and proposed a schematic structure for the organization of their content in terms of three 'moves' and twelve 'steps' e some of the steps being further specified in terms of two or three sub-steps. (Bruce, 2008; p.40) In relation to the staging and organization of the content of Methods sections of his sample, Lim provides data indicating the actual occurrences of the 'steps' in the 20 articles for the sample but does not provide the same data about the higher level 'moves' (2006 ; p.6). From the data provided, it seems that the 'steps' proposed occur on average in 65% of the sample and only three of the twelve steps occur in all 20 articles (Bruce, 2008; p.41). In a more recent study, Bruce (2008) examined method sections of research- reporting articles in academic journals. The findings of the study suggest that 'fast' Methods sections that report research in the physical sciences generally employ a means-focused discourse structure, and 'slow' Methods sections in social science reports tend to employ a combination of chronological and non-sequential descriptive structures (Bruce, 2008; p.38).

Genre-analysis studies based on Research articles also cover those examining the titles of research articles within several disciplines by following ESP genre tradition.

According to Soler (2007; p.91), the literature search regarding the study of scientific titles reveals heterogeneity in the investigations about this topic in terms of study design (Goodman, Thacker, & Siegel, 2001), variable analysis (Berkenkotter & Gt bj hm+ 0884: Encs` nls+ Bnk+ O`k dq+ % Onrsd- ft Hkn+ 0886: Encs` nls F n `l dy+ Onrsdf t Hkn F n `l dy+Bnk F `q`ia, & Palmer Silveira, 1997; Haggan, 2004; Laurence, 2001; Whissell, 1999), database sizes (Laurence, 2001), genre selection (Dudley-Evans, 1984; Hamp-Lyons, 1987; Soler, 2003; Yakhontova, 2002), and outcoming applications (Goodman et al., 2001; Huth, 1987). In addition, discussions on titles tend to be short and intuitively-based (Day, 1994; Nakajima & Tsukamoto, 1996) (p.91). They are also either descriptive with emphasis on the analysis of specific variables (Berkenkotter &

Genre analysis (Day, 1994; Laurence, 2001; among others) or non-normative (Day, 1994) (p.91). Still, no agreement seems to have been found on the standard and good title writing practice in different scientific disciplines and genres (p.91). Contradictions between what writing norms state and what real instances of scientific titles show may be problematic (p.91). For example, Day (1994) claims that compound titles, i.e. those that are divided into two parts, the division being indicated by a punctuation mark, appear pedantic, place emphasis on a general term rather than a more significant term, necessitate punctuation, scramble indexes. . . (p. 20). Still, a very high number of current high-impact factor scientific journals regularly include articles whose titles are structured either in the compound or the interrogative construction (Soler, 2007; p.91).

As indicated before, within Genre-analysis studies under ESP, besides research articles, there are researches carried out mainly focusing on the other specific genres.

One line of these studies has examined the writing assignments of graduate and undergraduate students. *Among these ones*, “two large-scale studies have been carried out in order to inform the development of English language proficiency tests. One was the study by Hale et al. (1996) that aimed to assist with the development of revised versions of the TOEFL test, and the other was the study by Moore and Morton (1999, 2005) that compared the requirements of university writing tasks with Task 2 of the IELTS writing test. The study by Hale et al. (1996) involved the collection and analysis of tasks for written assignments from 162 undergraduate and post-graduate courses at eight US universities, and that by Moore and Morton (1999, 2005) was a cross-disciplinary survey of 155 assignment tasks from 28 subject areas at two Australian universities. Both of these large-scale studies attempted a multi-faceted analysis of assignment tasks in terms of the different areas of knowledge that the tasks draw upon, including the categories of genre and rhetorical focus although in both cases the basis for the operationalisation of these two categories appears to be pragmatic rather than theorized”. (Bruce, 2010; p.154)

The other line of studies presents the analysis of the PhD and Master thesis written within several disciplines.

A number of studies on PhD theses written in English have described their

overall organisation (e.g. Paltridge, 2002; Thompson, 2001), as well as specific features, such as metatextual references (Bunton, 1999), stance (Charles, 2003), modal verbs and citation practices (Thompson, 2001, 2005). Other studies have followed the Swalesian approach to analyse particular sections or chapters (e.g. Bunton, 2002, 2005; Kwan, 2006; Ridley, 2000). As for PhD thesis introductions, Bunton (2002) posited a model that showed a greater number of steps than Swales's. According to Swales (2004), this is because of the different nature and extent of the PhD thesis and the RA. Cross-cultural studies on PhD theses (e.g. Cooley & Lewkowicz, 1997; LoCastro, 2008) have investigated the contexts of both the situations and cultures of doctoral research work, comparing writings subject to different traditions and notions of what constitutes an acceptable thesis in different countries. (Soler-Monreal, Carbonell-Olivares and Gil-Salom, 2011; p.5)

As coming to the researches based on master theses, to the knowledge of researcher, in the literature, there is one sample study.

In his research, Peters (2011) aimed to identify rhetorical characteristics of student writing by comparing the introductory sections of master's theses to the these of journal articles published within the same discipline. The analysis is framed using Samraj's (2008) modification of Swales' (1990) "Create-A-Research-Space" model for philosophy texts, and specific attention is paid to how students present themselves as agents through their use of inter-textuality and the use of the first-person pronoun (Peters, 2011; p.176). It is suggested that student writers represent themselves as accomplishing more tasks, thereby asserting themselves as experts in ways published authors need not (p.176).

Finally, the other genre type studied by the researchers in the ESP literature is audit reports which "highlight irregularities in company accounts"(Flowerdew and Wan, 2010; p.79).

In an earlier paper, Folwerdew and Wan (2006) made a small contribution aimed at redressing this imbalance, studying the tax computation letter, an important genre used by tax accountants. In that study, in addition to drawing attention to a particular business genre, we attempted to demonstrate how, in addition to the structural/functional analysis of the various moves and steps and their lexico-

grammatical realisations, emphasis may be put on the social context in which the letters were written. Use was made of ethnographic techniques of observation and interview to understand more fully the role of the tax computation letter as it is used by the tax accounting community and to reveal those parts of the letter which were most significant as far as the tax accountants were concerned and therefore important pedagogically (Flowerdew and Wan, 2010; p.79).

In their recent study (2010), Flowerdew and Wan continued this line of research, turning their attention to another, related, discourse community, that of auditors, and an important genre used by that community, the company audit report, and they emphasised the value of a more ethnographic, or contextual, approach in addition to the more linguistically oriented functional/structural one (Flowerdew and Wan, 2010; p.79). The texts analysed and the auditors observed and questioned show that, although the use of templates is widespread, there is, in fact, some original writing involved in drafting the reports, especially in reports which draw attention to irregularities in the accounts reviewed (qualified reports) (p.78). The study also finds that although the reports are written in English, a mix of languages (English, Cantonese and Putonghua) is used by the members of the audit team in their production (p.78).

CHAPTER THREE

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Presentation

This chapter presents the research questions, research design, data sources, data collection procedure, data analysis procedure of the research.

3.2. Research Questions

This study aims to answer the following questions:

1. Do authors begin by establishing the significance of their research area?
2. Do authors summarize previous relevant research in the area?
3. Do authors point out a “gap” in that previous research—perhaps an area the research has overlooked (such as whether or not its conclusions apply to the local situation), or possibly a question as to whether the research methods or interpretations of results in previous studies are completely reliable?
4. Do authors make clear (whether or not they state it explicitly) that in the rest of their study they will present their own original research to fill the “gap” ?

3.4. Research Design

In the present study, the researcher followed triangulation research design, one of the mixed method designs and within which “ the researcher gathers both quantitative and qualitative data, compares results from the analysis of both data, and makes an interpretation as to whether the results from both data support or contradict each other” (Creswell, 2005; p.514).

The process of a triangulation study works as follows:

- The mixed methods researcher gives equal priority to both quantitative and qualitative data. The researcher values both quantitative and qualitative data and sees as approximately equal sources of information in the study.
- The mixed methods researcher collects both the quantitative and qualitative data simultaneously during the study.
- The mixed method researcher compares the results from quantitative and qualitative analyses to determine if the two databases yield similar or dissimilar results. (Creswell, 2005; pp.514-515)

Techniques of triangulation are especially helpful in establishing the credibility of mixed data. In data triangulation, the researcher uses multiple sets of data to cross-validate and corroborate findings. (Johnson and Christensen, 2010; p.426) As Denzin (1978) indicated, through triangulation, “ the bias inherent in any particular data source, investigators, and particularly method will be canceled out when used in conjunction with other data sources, investigators, and methods”(p.14), and “ the result will be a convergence upon the truth about some social phenomenon”(p.14). Triangulation can result in corroboration or convergence as well as inconsistency and contradiction (Johnson and Christensen, 2010; p.426). According to Scott and Morrison (2006; pp. 251-252):

“ ... It is argued, for example, that the use of multiple methods allows researchers to investigate different facets of a phenomenon in order to provide a more holistic and rich account of that phenomenon. As importantly, triangulation provides key pathways for comparing the data collected by different methods, allowing findings to be corroborated...”

Creswell also adds some other strengths for this research design as follows (2005; pp. 514- 515):

“ ... A basic rationale for this design is that one data collection form supplies strengths to offset the weaknesses of the other form..... it combines the advantages of each form of data; that is, quantitative data provides for generalizability, whereas qualitative data offers information about the context or

setting. This design enable's researcher to gather information that uses the best features of both quantitative and qualitative data collection..”

Alternatively, Johnson and Christensen (2010; p.414) state that mixed research design can add insights and understandings that might be missed when only a single method is used and can be used to increase the genralizability of the results. Additionally, qualitative and quantitative research used together produces more complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice (Johnson and Christensen, 2012; p.414).

Turnmond (2001; p.254) suggests that the benefits of triangulation include “increasing confidence in research data, creating innovative ways of understanding a phenomenon, revealing unique findings, challenging or integrating theories, and providing a clearer understanding of the problem. These benefits largely result from the diversity and quantity of data that can be used for analysis (Web: <http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/fy394>). For example;

Burr (1998) used multiple triangulations to obtain a more comprehensive view of family needs in critical care. Through the use of questionnaires and selective participant interviews, this researcher found that family members who were interviewed found the sessions therapeutic, but those who were not interviewed could only communicate their frustrations on questionnaires (Thurmond, 2001, p. 254).

Thus, using interviews as well as questionnaires added a depth to the results that would not have been possible using a single-strategy study, thereby increasing the validity and utility of the findings (Web:<http://edis.ifas.ufl.edu/fy394>).

Overall, these basic strengths of triangulation research design propelled the rationale to apply for this study and so it was determined to follow this design in order to get more valid, reliable and generalizable results.

3.5. Data Source

3.5.1. Corpus

The corpus of master theses was specifically compiled for this study by the second author. It consists of 100 master theses that have been defended between 2001 and 2011 at Turkish universities and published in the boards of academic institutions and of The Council of Higher Education. To compile the corpus, the theses were randomly selected in their electronic version, with their literature review, methodology, results and discussions, and conclusion parts, reference lists, appendices, footnotes, and acknowledgements later removed, from the website of The Council of Higher Education (Web: <http://tez2.yok.gov.tr/>). As one of the objectives of this study was to conduct a detailed textual analysis, the number of texts determined was considered an adequate number to work with.

The selection criteria for the master theses to be compiled were:

1. The selected master theses have been all experimental studies produced in the field and sub-fields of English Language Teaching.

2. It is assumed that the theses have been written in the same standard as those of native English writers, which is based on the fact that English-speaking academicians supervised and assessed the theses.

3. On the basis of the two criteria of the three (representativity, reputation and accessibility) set by Nwogu (1997) – representativity and accessibility – the corpus was collected. In terms of representativity, the texts selected were fairly representative of the genre in content and style, i.e. In Bazerman's words, they were "situationally effective" (1994, p. 23) and the results of "expert performance" (p. 131). In terms of accessibility, they were all accessible in either the university libraries or the website and/or archive of the Council of Higher Education.

4. The selected master theses conformed to the IMRD framework (Swales, 1990), a widely accepted and established structure of academic manuscripts referring to the four sections of Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussions respectively.

5. The selected theses were written by native speakers of Turkish.

3.5.2.Participants

Four hundred and three Turkish practitioners, who are actively involved in ELT field and enrolled in and completed Master of Art Graduate Programmes within this field at different universities in Turkey, volunteered to participate in this study. The general profile of these practitioners shows variability in terms of occupation that there are research assistants and lecturers, some of whom currently attend doctorate programmes within different academic institutions, associate and assistant professors, and professors among participants working at universities in Turkey. All the respondents of the study attended master programmes within the institutions of social sciences, and their major field is English Language Teaching (see table.5 and table.6 in chapter IV). The percentage of female participants form % 55,8 of the total number (N=225) and the percentage of male participants is %44,2 (N= 178) (see table. 7 in chapter IV).

In the selection of participants, researcher employed simple random sampling, one of the probabilistic sampling approaches through which “the researcher selects individuals from population who are representative of that population” (Creswell, 2005; p.146). Because the investigator can claim that the sample is representative of the population and, as such, can make generalizations to the population (Creswell, 2005; p.146).

In simple random sampling, the researcher selects participants (or units, such as schools) for the sample so that any individual has an equal probability of being selected from the population. The purpose of simple random sampling is to choose individuals to be sampled that will be representitave of the population. Any bias in the population will be equally distributed among the people chosen. (Creswell, 2005; p. 147)

3.5.3. Scale

The Scale used was derived from and developed on the basis of Soler-Monreal et al.'s model (2011), which was mainly constructed on Bunton's revised version of Swales' CARS model (1990, 2004), and adapted to the rhetorical organization of the introductory parts of academic manuscripts within EFL research territory in Turkish

context. A five-item likert scale was designed in order to assess the significance ratio of creating a research space (CARS model) within introductions of master theses from the perspectives of practitioners involved in the field of ELT. It measures three phases of CARS model -*Establishing a Research Territory, Establishing a Niche and Occupying the Niche*- through three separate sections, each of which aims to answer a specific question with the items characterized for each part.

In scope, the scale is formed of two separate parts. The first part consists of three demographic questions (gender, institution and department) and one question about participation in any special academic writing course. As for the second part, it includes three sections covering items designed to answer three specific questions identified for each section which elicit information about the rhetorical strategies employed in the introductory parts of master theses. The first section of this part aims to learn the importance level rated for each item in establishing the significance of a research area. The second section is based on to get information about the significance status of each item in best establishing the context where a particular piece of research makes particularly good sense. To the third section, the items were arranged to learn the importance degree determined for each item in best making an offer to fill the gap (see Appendix 2).

To test the reliability of the scale, a pilot study were conducted with 60 randomly-selected participants, who are actively involved in the field of ELT and had graduate-level degree of master of arts. Besides reliability analysis, validity analysis , which shows “that meaningful and justifiable inferences can be drawn from scores about a sample and population” (Creswell, 2005; p. 600), was also tested. The results of content validity, “the extent to which the questions on the instrument and the scores from these questions are representative of all the possible questions that could be asked about the content or skills” and construct validity, “a determination of the significance, meaning, and use of scores from an instrument” (Creswell, 2005; p. 590), revealed that the questions are clear, reasonable and credible, and also well-organized. In the pilot study, alpha value was measured as $\alpha = 0,90$, and Guttman Split-Half value was 0,89. In te main research, alpha value was measured as $\alpha = 0,89$, and Guttman Split-Half value was 0,88. Values were closer to “1”, which indicates that scale is highly reliable in

terms of consistency. In social sciences, to ensure that a scale is reliable, coefficient alpha above the value of 0,60 is perceived as sufficient value.

3.6. Data Collection Procedure

Consent forms were distributed and collected before the administration of scales (see Appendix 1). These consents forms provided a brief explanation of the study and stressed out the confidentiality of participant responses. Then, a total of 450 scales were administered to the practitioners involved in the field of ELT and who had a graduate-level degree of master of arts. They were administered through e-mail, that the researcher emailed the scales to the members of the sample, and by face to face. Forty seven scales were not included in the data analysis due to two basic reasons: two or more of the questions were not answered or more than one answer was given to any question. Of the 403 usable scales, 225 were completed by female participants and 178 were completed by male participants.

As to the collection of qualitative data, 100 master theses written by Turkish authors in the field and sub-fields of English Language Teaching between 2001-2011 were randomly selected and downloaded from the website of The Council of Higher Education (Web:<http://tez2.yok.gov.tr/>). This website provides free access to the master and doctorate theses produced in Turkey in various disciplines for academicians, researchers, and students of graduate programmes, and so it is not necessary to get a formal permission from the Council of Higher Education.

3.7. Data Analysis

3.7.1. Analysis of Qualitative Data

3.7.1.1. Rater analysis

Two academic bilingual (Turkish-English) raters (one of them is the researcher herself) conducted the rhetorical analysis of the introductions. Raters are native-speakers of Turkish and speakers of English. They have been working as research

assistants in the department of English Language Teaching at Ataturk University. One of the rater has already completed master programme and had a graduate level degree, and she is currently attending doctorate programme within the institute of Educational sciences. The other rater (the researcher) is the student of a graduate-level programme (M.A.) within the same institute. The other important point is that both the rater, attending doctorate programme and the other, student of master programme, had the course of research methods under the scope of graduate level programmes they have participated in.

Before the raters started analyzing the master theses for the rhetorical organization of introductory parts, they were trained individually on the genre analysis models and the procedure and model to be followed in the analysis for this study. They were provided with worksheets and papers which inform the raters about the genre analysis systems by supplying the current status of the studies in terms of genre analysis and a comprehensive and structured knowledge on the model to be applied for the analysis. They were masterly supervised by a profesional academician (supervisor of thesis), who is native speaker of both Turkish and English, and among the major fields of whom there are genre analysis studies within the scopes of English for Specific Purposes and Systemic Functional Linguistics.

Following common practice, inter-rater reliability procedures have been implemented in this study to demonstrate that a move can be identified with a high degree of accuracy by trained coders (Burgess, 1997, 2002; Crookes, 1986; Kanoksilapatham, 2005) (Sheldon, 2011; p.239). Therefore, to ensure inter-rater reliability, the analysis was carried out in several phases. First, each of two raters independently identified and coded every segment of text. In this process, individual codings were discussed in pair with the supervisor of the thesis and a consensus about the codings was reached at the points where there were some paradoxies. Further, to make the analysis more reliable, the level of agreement between coders was measured by kappa value (Fleiss, 1981 cited in Orwin, 1994), providing greater inter-rater reliability. The kappa value (0,83) and percentage agreement were slightly closer between raters, and all exceeded 80% in inter-coder- reliability, which demonstrates that the results of the rater analysis had higher reliability and validity.

There are two main reasons for doing this analysis between the raters' judgements. Firstly, only one rater's coding would not be enough, because one rater might be perspective restricted in the identification of some specific points and deluded into thinking that the rhetorical strategy employed in one thesis may also be generally applied in the other ones as the context and the field in which theses have been produced are same and thus would be misled by identifying same rhetoric forms in all theses. In addition, using two raters confirmed that the judgements of raters involved in ELT about the rhetorical organization of master thesis introductions written in the same field are connected to the the academic research territory of the ELT field and these judgements clarifies the general tendency in the strategies followed within the context. Any remaining dilemmas were settled through discussion, clarification and criteria checking. Finally, the results of inter-coder reliability analysis with a trained research colleague revealed %97 agreement on the identification of the moves and steps.

3.7.1.2. Rhetoric identification model

This study draws on the modified and adapted version of Swales's (2004) CARS schema (see Appendix 3) – “which represents a development of his previous 1990 model, following criticism by some scholars in the research context (e.g. Anthony, 1999; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Samraj, 2002)” (Sheldon, 2011; p.239). - by Carbonell-Olivares, Gil-Salom, and Soler-Monreal (2011) (see Appendix 4), “which is based on three rhetorical moves, and is intended to accommodate different disciplinary needs and variations between languages” (Sheldon, 2011; p.239). Although Swales's schema for the analysis of manuscripts is one of the most internationally recognised theories, its application has been hampered by the lack of objective identification of boundaries between moves (Crookes, 1986; Paltridge, 1994; Bunton, Carbonell-Olivares, Gil-Salom, & Soler-Monreal, 2009, 2011) (Sheldon, 2011; p.241). In this study, the model presented by Carbonell-Olivares, Gil-Salom, and Soler-Monreal were basicly used and adapted to the Turkish ELT research context.

A three-level model presented in Soler-Monreal et al.'s studies (Carbonell-Olivares, Gil-Salom, & Soler-Monreal; 2009, 2011) was mainly adapted and applied to the texts to describe their rhetorical organization in this study. Soler-Monral et al.

(2011; p.6) developed this model from the analysis of a corpus of 21 PhD thesis introductions in computing, written in Spanish. Although it was based on Bunton's (2002) move-step model for PhD thesis introductions in English, it included new steps and posited sub-steps (Soler-Monreal et al., 2011; p.6). The highest level is that of the Move, which "describes patterns of organisational content which carry a particular role in relation to the overall goals of the manuscript" (Sheldon, 2011; p.240), and "three categories were identified: Establishing the Territory, Establishing the Niche and Occupying the Niche. The other levels concern steps and sub-steps" (Soler-Monreal et al., 2011; p. 6).

MOVES	STEPS
MOVE 1	ESTABLISHING A TERRITORY
	Step 1: Claiming centrality
	Step 2: Making Topic Generalization and Giving Background Information
	Step 3: Defining terms/classifying
	Step 4: Reviewing Items of Previous Research
	Step 5: Explaining the Institutional/Research Context
MOVE 2	ESTABLISHING A NICHE
	Step 1A: Counter-Claiming
	Step 1B: Indicating a Gap in Research Area
	Step 1C: Question Raising
	Step 1D: Continuing /Extending a Tradition
MOVE 3	OCCUPYING THE NICHE
	Step 1: Outlining Purposes, Aims or Objectives
	Step 2: Announcing Present Research
	STEP 2
	SS2A: Work done
	SS2B: Work or aspects out of scope
	SS2C: Previous requirements
	Step 3: Stating the Field of Research
	Step 4: Stating Method/Parameters of Research
	Step 5: Stating Materials or Subjects
	Step 6: Announcing Principle Findings/Results (Product of Research, Model proposed, Contributions, Solutions)
	Step 7: Stating the Significance/Justification of the Study

	Step 8: Indicating the Thesis Structure	
STEP 8	SS8A: Overall Thesis Structure	
	SS8B: Chapter Structure	
	SS8C: Chapter Contents	
	SS8D: Chapter Goal	
	Step 9: Listing Research Questions/Hypotheses	

Figure 3.1. Rhetoric Identification Model

As the schema is descriptive and functional (Swales, 2004, p. 229), its application could be enhanced through inter-rater agreement. Coding identification was practised by the researcher and supervisor before applying the schema of Soler-Monreal et al. (2011) to the data compiled for the study, allowing raters to develop a consistent rhetoric identification model (see Figure 1, below) . In the development of the model, which was the modified and adapted version of Soler-Monreal's model, the researcher randomly selected 25 master theses written in the field and subfields of English Language Teaching and each thesis was demarcated by the researcher individually.

This was followed by an evaluation where the researcher and a supervisor verified the labelling of moves so as to enhance the reliability and validity of the analysis. At the end of the process, the model was adapted to the rhetorical organization tendency in the academic manuscripts written in the English Language Teaching research territory in Turkish context.

3.7.2. Analysis of quantitative data

Quantitative data were analyzed through Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Programme (SPSS 18.0). In the analysis procedure, descriptive statistics were conducted through frequency analysis, calculations of mean scores, standard deviation, and percentile ranks. As to inferential statistics, t-test analysis was conducted, and p-value for each question was calculated. The significance level determined for this study was $\alpha = 0,05$ and the sampling error was $\pm 0,05$.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Presentation

In this chapter, the results are categorized and discussed in three groups:

1-The results of the qualitative analysis are presented under two titles, move analysis, which covers explanation and commentaries for each move identified in CARS model, and step analysis, which is divided in three sub-titles and involves the presentation of the findings of textual analysis for each step of the moves.

2-The results of the quantitative analysis are presented under three groups; the results of demographics, which include information on the demographical data; the results of scale, which is formed of information on the t-test results according to the gender for each move and steps, t-test results according to fourth item of the demographic questions for each move and steps and descriptive statistics(frequencies, precentages and mean values) for each move and steps of the model.

3-The results of the statistical and textual analyses are comparably discussed for each research question by presenting overall assumptions based on the data obtained and the supportable and contrasting findings of the previous studies.

4.2. The Results of the Qualitative Analysis

The introduction sections of written genres are mainly divided into sections and/or subsections, which directly influences the distributions of moves. Actually, the length of the introductions directly effects the number of moves. Generally, the longer the length of the introductions is, the higher the frequencies of moves are. Therefore, length is one of the determining factors in the rhetorical organization of manuscripts.

In this study, the findings show that there is a variability in terms of the length of the introductory sections of master theses written in the field of ELT. The introductions of the the corpus range from 2 to 35 pages and it is seen that 76 out of 100 theses have sections and, under each section, include subsections. In the corpus, the master theses involving the longest introductions have the highest frequency in the number of sections and subsections. Furthermore, the number of moves and steps in the introduction sections increases in parallel to the length of the thesis. That is, as it is illustrated in table 1, the longest introductions in the corpus have the highest number of moves (e.g., T-25-page: 35, total figure of moves:21; T-18 thesis-page: 25, total figure of moves:18) compared to the fewest number of those in the shortest ones (e.g., T-56: page: 2, total figure of moves:1; T-22 page: 4, total figure of moves:2)

4.2.1. Move Analysis

Table 4.1 shows the frequencies of three moves, established in Swales' CARS model, in the introductory parts of master theses written by Turkish writers in the field of English Language teaching in the Turkish context.

As can be seen, the introduction sections in each thesis of the corpus show considerable variation in the number of instances. The total number of moves is 632. Considering this finding, it may be assumed that the rhetorical organization of introduction sections of English master theses written in ELT is rather complex. As to the distribution of moves in each thesis, the analysis shows some interesting results

Move-1:Establishing a Research Territory is the only move present in each thesis in the study, which leads to the assumption that Move-1 is the obligatory part of the theses introductions in the corpus written in the ELT area within the Turkish context as researchers within the area generally tend to present the significance of the research territory by showing the centrality of the field and introducing the related literature. At this point, it is essential to indicate that , as it has been described in Table 1, Turkish writers of the master theses typically prefer to establish the research territory so profoundly that the number of instances of Move 1 is significantly high with a value of 462.

Table 4.1.
Frequencies of Moves in Turkish and English PhD Thesis Introductions

THESES	MOVE-1	MOVE-2	MOVE-3	Total ¹
1.	1	1	1	3*
2.	2		1	3*
3.	1	1	1	3*
4.	3		1	4
5.	1		1	2*
6.	2	1	1	4
7.	1	1	1	3*
8.	1	1	1	3*
9.	5		1	6
10.	4		1	5
11.	2	1	1	4
12.	2		1	3*
13.	7	1	1	9
14.	15	2	1	18
15.	3	1	1	5
16.	12		1	13
17.	7	1	1	9
18.	11	1	6	18
19.	3	1	3	7
20.	2		1	3*
21.	2		1	3*
22.	1		1	2*
23.	3		1	4
24.	2		1	3*
25.	18	2	1	21
26.	2	1	2	5
27.	5	1	1	7
28.	2	1	1	4
29.	1		1	2*
30.	2	1	1	4
31.	4		1	5
32.	1		1	2*
33.	4	1	2	7
34.	2		1	3*
35.	1		1	2*
36.	2		1	3*
37.	5	1	2	8
38.	7		2	9
39.	6		1	7
40.	4	1	2	7
41.	6		1	7
42.	3			3*
43.	6	1	1	8
44.	4	1	1	6
45.	5	1	1	7
46.	2	2	2	6
47.	4	1	1	6
48.	5	1	1	7
49.	8	1		9
50.	6	1	1	8
51.	4	1	1	6
52.	5	2	1	8

Table.4.1 (continued)

53.	6			6
54.	8	1	1	10
55.	6		1	7
56.	1			1*
57.	3		4	7
58.	3	1	1	5
59.	4			4
60.	12	1		13
61.	11	1	1	13
62.	1		1	2*
63.	5		1	6
64.	6		2	8
65.	9		1	10
66.	5	1	1	7
67.	9	1	1	11
68.	7	1	1	9
69.	3	1		4
70.	4			4
71.	13	1	1	15
72.	6		1	7
73.	10	1	1	12
74.	6	1	1	8
75.	6	1	1	8
76.	5		1	6
77.	7		2	9
78.	4		1	5
79.	1		1	2*
80.	7	1	1	9
81.	1		1	2*
82.	3		3	6
83.	4	1	1	6
84.	5	1	1	7
85.	11	1	1	13
86.	4	1		5
87.	5			5
88.	3			3*
89.	2		1	3*
90.	3		2	5
91.	6	1	8	15
92.	2		1	3*
93.	4	1	1	6
94.	5		1	6
95.	2	1	1	4
96.	3		1	4
97.	2		1	3*
98.	6		1	7
99.	2		1	3*
100.	4		2	6
Total ²	462	54	118	634

¹The total number of move for each of the introduction of M.A.theses

²The total number of each move in the introduction sections of M.A. theses

*Theses that have one section and do not have subsections

As for Move-2: Establishing a Niche , which forms the locomotive part of the introduction sections , and the more, the study through the description of the problematic situation in the research territory. According to Feak and Swales (2004 ;p.257) it is the hinge that connects Move 1 (what has been done) to Move 3 (what the present research is about), and thus Move 2 establishes the motivation for the study. Table.1 reveals that the introduction sections in the corpus present an interesting result in terms of the number of instances of Move-2. It is seen that in the introductory parts, the move is employed in 51 out of 100 English and ,considering the statement of Feak and Swales(2004), it is possible to infer that Turkish writers of English master theses pay attention to the establishment of a niche in their studies at a moderate level.

Coming to Move-3: *Occupying the Niche* 3, it is not employed in only 11 of 100 master theses and , the total number of instances of this move found in the left 89 theses as it is demonstrated in table.1, is 118. Indeed, the analysis of Move-3 in the corpus may lead to the assumption that with this frequency the introductory sections of master thesis presents a complicated structure in terms of informing on the work done . Here, it is possible to indicate that writers of the theses mainly focus on presenting their own research in the introductions in a more comprehensive and informative way.

In his work, *Research Genres*, Swales (2004) points out that “claiming knowledge and good performance in a specific field, seems to have a higher priority than establishing that there exists a gap in previous research that needs filling” (pp.243-245) both in English texts and in a corpus of non-English texts “that can be considered to be equivalent to English ones” (pp.243-245). Taking the results in Table 1 into consideration, it is important to state that this study presents marked similarities to Swales’ claim.

From the dimension of claiming knowledge, the introductions of master theses show a higher tendency in the employment, which is in parallel with Swales’ statement. Pedagogically, this may be explained that the writers of the Turkish corpus compete for the claim of the extended field-dependent knowledge they have by heavily presenting the background of the research territory, which is defined as “ the work of others” by Swales and Feak(2004).

In establishing that there exists a gap in previous research that needs filling, the

study again shows a similar result with the commentary of Swales that in the corpus, as it is seen in the frequency of employment in table.1, indicating the gap in the previous research is of much less importance for the Turkish writers studying in ELT. Actually, The reason behind the rare application of the niche establishment by the Turkish writers may be that, pointing out the raising problem to be answered and the role of the study as the original one to respond this need may not be heavily involved in the introductions in order to attract the attention of the target community (ones having dominant impact on the territory in which the research is carried out) in the field, because the novelty and importance of their study is also clarified through the presentation of the work done, in other words, through occupying the niche, and thus the study may become an attractive one for the target community.

As regards the claim for good performance in the field, considering the number of instances in the present study, there is once more a noticeable similarity to what Swales state that the texts are more dominantly based on the presentation of the offer to fill the gap, in other words, the announcement of the research. This leads us to the explanation that occupying the niche may seem to the researchers in the English corpus more appealing in the establishment of the fact that the immediate research “makes particularly good sense” (Swales and Feak, 2004; p.244) through the presentation of the scope specific to the study than those in the Turkish Corpus.

In general, from sociorhetorical perspective it is possible to reach that the Turkish corpus is generally oriented around the competition for the immediate readers actively involved in the research territory rather than competing for research space.

4.2.2. Step Analysis

4.2.2.1. Steps in M1

Table 4.2 shows the frequencies of steps distinguished in Move 1 and the number of theses in which the instances were found. As can be seen, there is a significant difference between steps in terms of the employment number and the proportions of the steps among theses.

Table 4.2.

Frequencies of Steps in Move 1: Establishing a Territory

items	Number of instances	Number of Theses
S1.claiming centrality	100	70
S2.makig topic generalization	1111	100
S3.reviewing items of previous research	812	90
S4.explaining the institutional /research group context	188	74
S5.defining terms/classifying	177	72
Total	2379	

As it is demonstrated in table 4.2, the most frequently applied step of Move-1 in the introductory sections is making topic generalization, which is based on introducing the field in general terms, with 1111 cases in 100 theses and, following this step, reviewing items of previous research, which covers the presentation of the scope of reseach field and what has been done within this field, is the second one with highest frequencies both in the number of instances and the number of theses in which it was employed (812 cases in 90 theses). At this point, it is possible to indicate that, when compared to the other steps of the move, these two steps may seem the obligatory part of Move-1, and thus of master theses introductions, for Turkish authors involved in the ELT research field. Additionally, these results suggest, first, that for researchers the generalization of the research area through the presentation of certain dimensions characterizing that area donates the audience with a field-specific information and thus provides a background knowledge and ,second, the researchers in the corpus give priority to the presentation of the scope of the research field and of what has been done within this field. These findings support the previous studies' results of Carbonell-Olivares, Salom and Soler-Monreal(2011) and Sheldon (2011), in which the analysis of English texts from two different genres- research articles and Ph.D theses- showed that these are the two trend steps mostly employed in the introduction parts of English texts.

The other step which occured frequently in the corpus of master theses is explaining the institutional/ research group context, which is oriented around informing

the audience about the situation of the field within the research context. This step appeared in seventy four introductions with a number of 188 instances and, according to these results, it is possible to say that explaining the institutional/research group context may be accounted as one of the critical steps in Move-1. In contrary to the study of Soler-Monreal et al. (2011), though in their study they studied on a small corpus, it is seen that the tendency in the employment of this step is significantly higher in the present corpus. Coming to the other commonly applied step, defining terms/classifying, as it is illustrated in table.2, it was used in 72 theses and the number of instances of the step found in them was 177, which shows that writers tend to clarify the terms and/or provide the categories these terms belong to in order to raise an awareness to the key concepts of their study among the audience. Here, an interesting point on the employment of this step arises that in comparison to these findings of the present study, the findings of the related studies in the literature differed significantly. That is, the corpora examined in these studies showed a quite less tendency in the use of this step in the English texts (e.g. see Soler-Monreal et al.,2011) while this step was frequently employed in the corpus examined in the current study, which may lead to the assumption that there is a significant difference between English texts written in different contexts.

As to another step, claiming centrality, which involves overall explanation of the importance, centrality , relevancy and problematic side of research area, results show that it is the least applied step of Move-1 with 100 instances in 70 theses compared to the other steps. Considering this number of instances , it may be suggested that authors of the theses paid less attention to claiming the centrality of the research territory. At this point, these findings claimed counterly to those of the previous research (e.g. see Sheldon (2011)), that claiming centrality is one of the most frequently found steps of Move-1 in the English corpora in the studies, and according to Soler-Monreal et al. (2011; p.10), S1 Claiming centrality can be regarded as crucial in the realisation of M1 according to the number of theses in which they are found. However, as the proportion of the employment according to theses forms 70% of the total number of dissertations , it is still possible to indicate that authors generally tend to employ this step in the introduction sections of their studies.

Generally, although the results are based on a small corpus , it becomes clear

that the steps specified in this Move are widely employed by the authors within the field of ELT in the Turkish context.

4.2.2.2. Steps in M2

Table 4.3.

Frequencies of Steps in Move 2: Establishing a Niche

items	Number of instances	Number of Theses
S1A.counter claiming	8	7
S1B.indicating a gap	106	54
S1C.question raising	98	51
S1D.continuing/extending a tradition	15	13
Total	227	

The frequencies of steps realising Move-2 and the number of theses in which the steps occurred is presented in Table.3. According to the data in this table, as it is in Move 1, there are noticeable differences in the employment number among steps. Additionally, the results also show a significantly different proportions of each step according to the number of theses.

As can be seen in Table.3, indicating a gap is the most frequently employed step of Move 2 in the corpus with 106 cases in 54 theses, which shows an existence of a specific tendency to indicate the gap in the previous literature among the authors of the theses. These findings may suggest that from the perspective of the authors, to emphasize the gap in the previous literature appears attractive as a way to motivate and persuade the target community that the immediate study is worthy to promote in the field it is involved. These findings are also supported by the findings of some of previous studies in the literature. As an example, In their genre analysis - based study, Soler-Monreal et al.(2011) reached a similar result that indicating a gap is the most frequently used step of Move-2 in the English corpus they examined (26 cases in 8 theses out of 10 theses).

The other step which is frequently employed in the introduction sections of master theses is question raising involving the clarification of the raising problem, need or issue in the literature, which appeared in 51 theses with 98 instances. Actually, considering the number of instances according to the number of theses, though it is the second most commonly applied step of Move-2, the employment proportion of this step is under 50% in terms of the total number of theses, which may lead to the assumption that authors seem to show a moderate preference in the presentation of the problematic situation within the research area in their theses. At this point, this finding of the study is again in parallel with the finding of Soler-Monreal (2011) who found only 1 case in 10 theses.

As to the other two steps of the move, counter claiming, in other words, making claim or claims opposing to the findings of previous researches, and continuing/extending tradition, that is, stating that the study applies or extends a tradition within the field, it is seen that they are quite rarely employed by the authors of theses (8 instances in 7 theses for S1A; and 15 instances in 13 theses for S1D). In terms of counter claiming, it may be suggested that the authors did not generally prefer to use a contrastive statement based on the criticism of and providing a different perspective to the data presented by the previous studies, and that is why the employment frequency of this step is rather low. As to continuing/extending tradition, the findings show that “ drawing a conclusion from a survey of the previous literature” and thus “indicating how some finding in the immediate research literature can be extended or applied in some way” (Feak and Swales,2004;p.260) do not seem to be crucial element of master theses for the authors in the field of ELT in Turkish context. Here, the previous research (e.g. Soler-Monreal-et al., 2011) showed a fairly distinct result. According to the findings of this study, continuing/extending a tradition is commonly found in the English texts”(Soler-Monreal et al., 2011; p.11).

In general, the results of rater analysis, which may be speculative from some aspects, indicate that, considering the frequency of the steps and the proportions of these steps according to the number of theses, except for one or two steps, the authors of the corpus do not show a clear tendency to use the steps presented under this move in the introduction sections of master theses.

4.2.2.3. Steps in M3

Table.4.4 provides the number of instances of the steps involved in Move 3 and the proportions of these steps according to the number of theses. As can be seen in table 4, the results varied significantly from the dimension of frequencies from step to step of Move 3, and, as to the number of theses they were applied in, the corpus showed a highly complex organisation.

Table 4.4.

Frequencies of Steps in Move 3:Occupying the Niche

items	Number of instances	Number of theses
S1.outlining purposes, aims or objectives	176	93
S2.announcing present research	290	91
S3.announcing principal findings/results	9	7
S4.stating the significance/ justification of the study	142	80
S5. listing research questions/ hypotheses	100	84
S6.explaining the thesis structure		
SS6A. explaining the overall structure of thesis	6	6
SS6B. explaining chapter structure	2	1
SS6C. explaining chapter contents	72	51
SS6D. explaining chapter goals	7	6
Total ¹	87	64
S7. stating method/ materials/ subjects	80	60
S8.stating limitations of research	75	55
Total ²	1046	

Total¹ The total number of sub-steps of S6

Total² The total number of steps of Move 3

According to the results, announcing the present research, which covers the explanation of the work done, and outlining purposes/ aims or objectives have the highest frequencies both in the number of instances and of theses in which they were

found (290 instances in 91 theses for announcing present research; and 176 instances in 93 theses for outlining purposes/aims or objectives) compared to the other steps of Move-3, which shows that authors typically tend to present the description of their original study by stating the purposes/aims or objectives of the work and by explaining the specific aspects of the work done.

Actually, this result is the usual one in the introductory parts of academic genres produced within several disciplines in different contexts that many studies in the literature revealed similar results based on the textual analysis of not only corpora of English texts but also corpora of texts written in other languages (e.g. see Li and Ge (2009); M. Milagros del Saz Rubio (2011) ; Soler-Monreal et al. (2011); Sheldon (2011) . Thus, it may be assumed that presenting such information is perceived as the essential elements in the introductions of many academic texts.

The other two steps which frequently appeared in the introductory sections of master theses are listing research questions or hypotheses with 100 cases in 84 theses and stating the significance/justification of the study with 142 cases in 80 theses. In terms of listing research questions, these findings may suggest that to present the key points around which the study is oriented through the statement of the research questions or hypotheses, and thus to make the audience focus on and look for the answers to these specific points in theses are of importance for the authors of the corpus. As to the stating the significance/justification of the study, it seems that for authors, informing the audience about the contribution the research will make to the literature is the critical phase through which they can persuade the target community to the novelty and specificity of their study. At this point, these findings are supported by the findings of the previous researches, as well. For example, in her study, which “reports on a pragmatic two-level rhetorical analysis of the constituent moves and steps of introduction the identification and mapping of the metadiscoursal features most frequently employed to signal such moves in a corpus of 28 multi-authored research articles published during 2007-2008” (2011; pp.258-261), Milagros el Saz Rubio reached nearly the same results with the current study in terms of the tendency in the application of these two steps. In another study, Soler-Monreal et al.(2011) found similar results for S5 and S4.

Explaining the thesis structure is the other step of Move-3, which occurred frequently with 87 instances in 64 theses. However, the occurrence of this step is actually tied to the sub-steps distinguishing *explaining the thesis structure* and so this result actually presents the integrated results on the basis of a number of specific results of each sub-step. As can be seen in Table 4., the most frequently employed sub-step of S6 is explaining the chapter contents which involves presenting information about the overall scope of each chapter specifically with 72 instances in 51 theses. After this sub-step, explaining the overall structure of thesis and explaining chapter goals are the second substeps which were commonly used in the theses with a similar number of instances and proportions according to the number of theses (6 cases in 6 theses for SS6A; and 7 cases in 6 theses for SS6D). As to explaining chapter structure, it has the least occurrence both in the number of instances and in the number of theses in which these instances were found (2 cases in 1 thesis). Here, these findings thoroughly confirm the findings of the previous studies (e.g. Soler-Monreal et al. 2011). To sum up, according to these findings, it may be suggested that authors of the corpus generally tend to explain the contents of each chapter because they believe that such explanation can be more informative for the target community actively involved in the field in terms of the presentation of thesis generally.

Coming to another steps of the move, which occurred commonly in the corpus, stating method/materials/subjects and stating limitations of research, the analysis revealed closer results in the frequency and the proportions of these steps according to the number of theses(80 instances in 60 theses for S7; and 75 instances in 55 theses for S8). It appears that authors show a moderate preference in the application of these two steps, which is also validated by the results of the previous studies (see e.g. Soler-Monreal et al., 2011).

As for the last step , announcing principal findings, there are just 9 cases in 7 out of 100 thesis introductory sections and ,as it is seen in table.4, it is the most rarely employed step of Move-3. The findings may suggest that generally the authors of the master theses do not prefer to announce what have been found in the study, which may result from the fact that the general results of the study are presented in the abstract and result sections and the authors may believe there is no need for re-announcement of the results in the introductory parts again. At this point, a striking difference arises between

the findings of the previous studies and the findings of current study that the textual-analysis based studies showed a common tendency among the authors of English texts in the application of this step (see M. Milagros del Saz Rubio, 2011) and from this aspect the current study with this specific result differs from these studies.

To conclude, the frequencies and the proportions of the steps according to the number of theses show that authors commonly prefer to use the steps of move-3 in the introduction sections of their master theses.

4.3. The Results of Quantitative Analysis

The quantitative data of the study were analyzed with the programme of SPSS 18.00 through which t-test analysis between independent samples, frequencies and percentages of each item were calculated and the descriptive statistics were shown in the tables.

4.3.1. The Results of Demographics

4.3.1.1. Institution and department

Table 4.5 presents the frequencies and percentages of the institutions through which the academicians graduated from the master programmes.

Table 4.5.

Frequencies and Percentages of Institution

Institution	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
social sciences	403	100,0	100,0	100,0

As it is shown in table 4.5, all of the participants have attended master programmes conducted under the scope of social sciences.

As to table 4.6, the department the participants of the study attended for their

B.A. degree is demonstrated and, as the results indicate, all of the participants graduated from the programme of English Language Teaching (ELT).

Table 4.6.

Frequencies and Percentages of Department

Department	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
ELT	403	100,0	100,0	100,0

4.3.1.2. Gender

Table 4.7.

Frequencies and Percentages of Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
female	225	55,8	55,8	55,8
male	178	44,2	44,2	100,0
Total	403	100,0	100,0	

The proportions of participants according to the gender are presented in table 4.7. The total number of participants of this study is 403, 225 of which are female participants and 178 of which are male participants. While females form the 55,8% of the total number, the percentage of the male participants is 44,2%.

4.3.1.3. Academic writing course

Table 4.8 summarizes the frequencies and percentages of the responses of the academicians to the question which is asked to get information of whether the participants have taken academic writing course before.

393 out of 403 participants stated that they attended academic writing course before whereas, according to the responses, it is seen that the other 10 participants did

not take any academic writing course.

Table 4.8.

Frequencies and Percentages for Question of “ Have you ever taken academic writing course?”

Answer	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
yes	393	97,5	97,5	97,5
no	10	2,5	2,5	100,0
Total	403	100,0	100,0	

According to this result, it may assumed that academic writing course is not generally included under the scope of master programmes and even under the scope of doctorate programmes. This shows that students of graduate programmes (master and doctorate programmes) commonly follow the content determined by them and their supervisors in the rhetorical organisation of their theses, and the models and rules proposed by the institutes in the guide , of which they are members, in the structural arrangement of these academic manuscripts.

4.3.2. Results of Scale

4.3.2.1. Distribution of results to the question of “ have you ever taken academic writing course?”

4.3.2.1.1. MOVE-1- Establishing a territory

Means and standard deviations for each item of Move-1 (Establishing a Territory) for the number of participants who took academic writing course and the number of participants who did not take any academic writing course, can be seen in the Table 4.9.

The findings show that there is a significant difference between the participants who answered yes and those who answered no in terms of the importance degree given

to the some of the items of Move-1 ($p = ,006$ and $p = ,023$, respectively, for the third item -reviewing items of previous research- ; $p= ,028$ and $p= ,032$ for the fourth item - *explaining the institutional/ research group context-* ; and $p < 0,05$).

For claiming centrality, groups had significantly different scores. According to the findings, those who took academic writing course found “*showing that the general research area is interesting and central*” more important than the others who did not (mean =4,55 and 3,90, respectively).

Table 4.9.

T-Test Results, Means(m), Standard Deviations(s.d.) and Sigma(p) for Yes and No Answers according to the Items of MOVE 1(Establishing a Territory)

items	answer	N*	mean	s.d	t	p
1.claiming centrality	yes**	393	4,5573	1,18984	1,737	,083
	no***	10	3,9000	,73786	2,728	,021
2.makig topic generalization	yes	393	3,1043	,63230	-1,937	,053
	no	10	3,5000	,84984	-1,462	,177
3.reviewing items of previous research	yes	393	3,7583	,95302	-2,757	,006
	no	10	4,6000	,96609	-2,722	,023
4.explaining the institutional /research group context	yes	393	3,3766	,73239	-2,211	,028
	no	10	3,9000	,99443	-1,653	,032
5.defining terms/classifying	yes	393	3,8092	,53138	-1,692	,091
	no	10	4,1000	,73786	-1,238	,246
Total		403				

*Number of participants who answered yes and who answered no

**first group

***second group

As to the findings of second step – making topic generalization, groups did not have significantly different scores: the importance degree of making topic generalization given by both groups was nearly the same and each group found presenting general information about the research area moderately important (means = 3,10 and 3,50, respectively). Participants who did not take any academic writing course

attributed much more importance to the providing background information on the research area through reviewing the items of previous research than those who took. Here, as it is presented in table.9, there was a significance group difference that ,compared to the mean value of first group (mean =3,75), the mean value of the second group (mean= 4,60) for this item is quite higher. As to the fourth item, *explaining the institutional/ research group context* groups reported a significant difference in terms of the extent of importance given to informing the audience about the situation of the research area within the research context. According to the values in table 9, while the first group seems to attach importance to this item at a moderate level (mean =3,37), second group seems to find that explaining the institutional/ research group context is more important (mean=3,90).

As for the fifth item, *defining terms/ classifying*, both groups scored significantly similar by stating that definition of terms and/or classification of them is very important in the introductory sections of master theses (mean= 3,80 and 4,10, respectively). At this point, the findings show that there was no striking difference between the participants who took academic writing course and those who did not take any academic writing course.

4.3.2.1.2. MOVE-2-Establishing a Niche

Table 4.10 presents the results of the second section of the scale across groups, which is mainly based on obtaining the ideas of the participants on the steps of second move, *Establishing a Niche*. In contrast to Move 1, as it is seen in the table, the groups did not have significant differences in the importance level of the items and the findings for each step of this move showed significantly similar values when compared to each other (e.g.; $p = ,713$ and $,786$ respectively, for the sixth item; $p = ,924$ and $,927$, respectively, for the seventh item; and $p < 0,05$).

For counter claiming, scores of participants who took academic writing course are not significantly different from scores of those who did not take. The mean value of first group is 3,82 while the other group's mean value is 3,90, which shows that both groups scored significantly similar on putting forward a claim or claims opposing to the results of the previous studies. A similar finding for indicating a gap in the previous literature is shown in table 10 that, again, there is not a significant difference between

the first and second group. Here, the groups attached importance to the presentation of such information at the same level and according to the findings both groups found important to present the gap in the related literature (mean =3,87 and 3,90, respectively).

Table 4.10.

T-Test Results, Means(m), Standard Deviations(s.d.) and Sigma(p) for Yes and No Answers according to the Items of MOVE 2(Establishing a Niche)

items	answer	N*	m	s.d.	t	p
6.counter claiming	yes**	393	3,8219	,65763	-,368	,713
	no***	10	3,9000	,87560	-,280	,786
7.indicating a gap	yes	393	3,8702	,97466	-,095	,924
	no	10	3,9000	,99443	-,094	,927
8.question raising	yes	393	4,1170	,39323	,130	,897
	no	10	4,1000	,87560	,061	,952
9.continuing/ extending a tradition	yes	393	3,9389	,59448	-,835	,404
	no	10	4,1000	,87560	-,578	,577
Total		403				

*Number of participants who answer yes and number of participants who answer no

**first group

***second group

As to the eighth item, *question raising*, there was no significant group difference. Actually, the scores of each group are rather close to each other such that both the first and second groups scored presenting the raising problem, need or interest in the literature necessary at an important level (means = 4,11 and 4,10, respectively). For the last step of the move, *continuing or extending tradition*, when we looked at the result, we found that again there was no significant difference between participants who took academic writing and those who did not take . The importance degree given to this step by both groups is nearly the same; that is, for each group, in the introductions of master theses, informing audience about whether the study continues a tradition or extends the tradition is important at a significant level (means =3,93 and 4,10, respectively).

4.3.2.1.3. MOVE-3- Occupying the Niche

Table 4.11 demonstrates means and standard deviations for each item of Move-3 (Occupying the niche) for the number of participants who took academic writing course and the number of participants who did not take any academic writing course. As it is in Move-1, the findings show that there is a significant difference between the participants who answered yes and those who answered no in terms of the importance degree given to the some of the items of Move-3 ($p = ,048$ and $,050$, respectively, for the eleventh item –announcing present research- ; $p = ,002$ and $,027$, respectively, for the fourteenth item –*listing research questions/hypotheses*-; $p = ,008$ and $,013$, respectively; and $p < 0,05$).

For outlining purposes, aims or objectives, participants did not score significantly different but it is seen that the second group were overrepresented in the importance level reported with a higher value of 4,40 than the first one with the value of 3,79. This finding may suggest that those who did not take any academic writing course attribute more importance to the presentation of purposes, aims or objectives in the introductory sections than females who found this kind of information moderately important. For announcing present research the findings showed a significant difference between: when compared to the score of the first group (mean=3,51), it is seen that participants who answered no to the question were overrepresented with a more higher score (mean = 4,00) in the importance level of informing on the work done in the introduction parts of the theses.

As for announcing principle findings/results, when we looked at the differences between groups, we found that groups did not have significantly different scores; however, the second group scored significantly more important on this step with a higher value of 4,30. In another step, stating the significance/ justification of the study, there was no difference between groups: each group reported on the informing the audience about the rationale of the work done at the nearly same level of importance (mean=4,39 and 4,10, respectively). For the next next step, *listing research questions/hypotheses*, , there was a significant difference between the groups: While the first group found stating the research questions and/or hypotheses of the study in the introductory sections important (mean= 3,79), for those ,who did not take any academic writing course, the presentation of such information in the introductios is highly

Table 4.11.

T-Test Results, Means(m), Standard Deviations(s.d.) and Sigma(p) for Yes and No Answers according to the Items of MOVE 3(Occupying a Niche)

items	answer	N	m	s.d.	t	p
10.outlining purposes, aims or objectives	yes**	393	3,7939	1,26603	-1,500	,134
	no***	10	4,4000	1,07497	-1,752	,111
11.announcing present research	yes	393	3,5115	,75288	-1,988	,048
	no	10	4,0000	1,24722	-1,233	,050
12.announcing principle findings/results	yes	393	3,7837	,94304	-1,709	,088
	no	10	4,3000	,94868	-1,700	,122
13.stating the significance/ justification of the study	yes	393	4,3944	1,25343	,737	,462
	no	10	4,1000	,99443	,918	,381
14. listing research questions/ hypotheses	yes	393	3,7913	,70148	-3,138	,002
	no	10	4,5000	,84984	-2,614	,027
15.explaining the thesis structure	yes	393	3,8422	,52542	-2,677	,008
	no	10	4,3000	,82327	-1,749	,013
16. explaining the overall structure of thesis	yes	393	3,5547	,58264	-,233	,816
	no	10	3,6000	1,26491	-,113	,913
17. explaining chapter structure	yes	393	3,2443	,67110	-,255	,799
	no	10	3,3000	1,05935	-,166	,872
18. explaining chapter contents	yes	393	3,3944	,69961	-,024	,980
	no	10	3,4000	1,17379	-,015	,988
19. explaining chapter goals	yes	393	3,3664	,94117	-1,113	,266
	no	10	3,7000	,67495	-1,526	,158
20. stating method/ materials/ subjects	yes	393	3,7048	,96331	-1,935	,054
	no	10	4,3000	,82327	-2,247	,049
21.stating limitations of research	yes	393	3,8041	,72124	-3,015	,003
	no	10	4,5000	,70711	-3,072	,013
Total		403				

*Number of participants who answer yes and number of participants who answer no

**first group

***second group important (mean= 4,50).

For another step, *explaining the thesis structure*, and its three sub-steps-
explaining overall thesis structure, explaining chapter structure, explaining chapter-

the findings were strikingly similar: the participants who took academic writing course and those who did not take did not have significantly different scores and even it appears that there was no significant group difference in the importance level given to these items (means=3,84 and 4,30, respectively, for fifteenth item; means=3,55 and 3,60, respectively for the sixteenth item; means = 3,24 and 3,40, respectively, for seventeenth item; means=3,39 and 3,40, respectively, for the nineteenth item). However, for the last substep , *explaining chapter goals*, groups had significantly different scores. According to the findings, participants who did not take any academic writing course reported significantly higher importance on the explanation of goals of each chapter in the introductions than those who took academic writing course (mean= 3,70 for the second group, and mean= 3,36 for the first group).

To the last two steps of Move 3 - *stating method/ materials/subjects, stating limitations of research*- the findings of the SPSS analysis show that groups did not show a significant difference but those who did not take academic writing course were significantly overrepresented with a higher values in the importance level scored for each item (means = 3,70 and 4,30, respectively, for the twentieth item; means= 3,80 and 4,50).

4.3.3. Descriptive Statistics for each category and item of scale

4.3.3.1. Mean Values for each MOVE of CARS model

Table 4.12 presents the mean values and standard deviations for each Move determined as result of the analysis of the participants' responses to the scale.

It is seen that there is no significant difference between categories in the level of importance given to each move. However, Move -2 is significantly overrepresented in the level of importance with a highest mean value of 3,93. Following Move-2 in the order, Move-1 comes second with the highest result (3,72) in the table scored by the participants of the study. And finally, as table 4.12 demonstrates, Move-3 is the third and last category according to the scores, to which participants attached significantly less importance than Move 2 and Move 1.

Table 4.12.

Means and Standard Deviations for MOVE-1, MOVE-2 and MOVE-3

MOVE	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
MOVE-1:ESTABLISHING A RESEARCH TERRITORY	403	3,72804	0,813366
MOVE-2:ESTABLISHING A NICHE	403	3,938575	0,6620825
MOVE-3:OCCUPYING THE NICHE	403	3,69085	0,842184167

In their book, *Academic Writing for Graduate Students: Essential Tasks and Skills*, Feak and Swales(2004) states that:

“ The Introduction sections of RPs typically follow the pattern in response to two kinds of competition: competition for research space and competition for readers. In this Introduction pattern, the work of others and/or what is known about the world is primary, and your own work is secondary.”(pp.243-244)

Considering this statement, then, the findings presented above may suggest that participants of the study give priority to “the work of others and/or what is known about the world” (Feak and Swales,2004; p.244) and the presentation of their work must form the second phase of the introduction sections. In other words, for participants, it seems that the introductions of master theses must be oriented around *competition for a research space* more intensively than *competition for readers*. At this point, when the related literature is reviewed, it is seen that these findings of the current study significantly differ from the findings of the previous ones in which textual analyses show a heavier focus on competition for readers (e.g. Swales, 2004; Soler-Monreal et al. , 2011).

In the main, the findings show that participants of the study scored significantly important for each category of CARS model in terms of the employment of these moves in the introductory parts of master theses.

4.3.3.2. Descriptive Statistics and Mean Values for each item of MOVE 1

Table 4.13.

*Frequencies, Percentages and Means of each Item of MOVE-1
(Establishing a Research Territory)*

item	value	F	%	M
1.claiming centrality	1-Unimportant	38	9,4	4,5409
	2-Of littleImportance	0	0	
	3-Moderately important	4	1,0	
	4-Important	25	6,2	
	5-Very Important	336	83,4	
2.makig topic generalization	1-Unimportant	3	,7	3,1141
	2-Of littleImportance	39	9,7	
	3-Moderately important	284	70,5	
	4-Important	63	15,6	
	5-Very Important	14	3,5	
3.reviewing items of previous research	1-Unimportant	38	9,4	3,7792
	2-Of littleImportance	3	,7	
	3-Moderately important	3	,7	
	4-Important	325	80,6	
	5-Very Important	34	8,4	
4.explaining the institutional/research group context	1-Unimportant	1	,2	3,3896
	2-Of littleImportance	42	10,4	
	3-Moderately important	177	43,9	
	4-Important	165	40,9	
	5-Very Important	18	4,5	
5.defining terms/classifying	1-Unimportant	1	,2	3,8164
	2-Of littleImportance	7	1,7	
	3-Moderately important	75	18,6	
	4-Important	302	74,9	
	5-Very Important	18	4,5	
Total		403	100,0	

Participants were asked to indicate how important they would rate to the steps in best establishing the significance of a research area. Table 4.13 summarizes the responses.

The first item in the category concerned the extent to which claiming centrality is important in stating the relevance of research territory, asking participants to make choice on a five point scale ranging from “unimportant” to “very important”. As can be

seen in Table 4.13, approximately 90% of the responses fell into the range of 4-5 with a mean of 4,54, which suggests that most of the participants reported significantly important on claiming centrality in the establishment of research territory.

As to the item of making topic generalization, the mean of responses was 3,11 on the 5 point scale, where 3 was represented with the label “moderately important”. If a response of 3 on the scale is interpreted as indicating a degree of importance, then the results demonstrated in table 16 presents that about 71% of the participants scored on the importance degree of the presentation of general information concerning the research topic at a moderate level.

The answers regarding the importance of reviewing items of previous research had 90% of the participants choosing mainly 4 and 5 on the scale, which shows that the vast majority of the participants saw presenting the related literature of the research field as a very important factor in establishing the significance of a research area.

The other item, explaining the institutional/research group context, was considered important to show the centrality of the research territory by the participants to an average extent with a mean of 3,38 on the 5 point scale where nearly 85% of participants picked out the points of 3 and 4 for this item, which may lead to the assumption that participants attach less importance to the informing the audience about the context where the research is carried out.

Finally, the last item of the category, *defining terms/classifying*, drew over 80% of responses with a mean of 3,81, which shows that definition and classification of terms is regarded as an important factor in the clarification of the significance of research field among the participants of the study.

4.3.3.3. Descriptive Statistics and Mean Values for each item of MOVE 2

Table 4.14 presents the responses of the participants to the question of how important they would rate to the items in the second category of scale in best establishing the context where a particular piece of research makes particularly good sense.

Table 4.14.

*Frequencies, Percentages and Means of each Item of MOVE-2
(Establishing a Niche)*

item	value	F	%	M
6.counter claiming	1-Unimportant	0	0	3,8238
	2-Of littleImportance	40	9,9	
	3-Moderately important	10	2,5	
	4-Important	334	82,9	
	5-Very Important	19	4,7	
7.indicating a gap	1-Unimportant	0	0	3,8710
	2-Of littleImportance	2	,5	
	3-Moderately important	214	53,1	
	4-Important	21	5,2	
	5-Very Important	166	41,2	
8.question raising	1-Unimportant	0	0	4,1166
	2-Of littleImportance	1	,2	
	3-Moderately important	10	2,5	
	4-Important	333	82,6	
	5-Very Important	59	14,6	
9.continuing/extending a tradition	1-Unimportant	2	,5	3,9429
	2-Of littleImportance	9	2,2	
	3-Moderately important	47	11,7	
	4-Important	299	74,2	
	5-Very Important	46	11,4	
Total		403	100,0	

According to the self reports, the responses to the first item based on rating the importance level of counter claiming in the statement of the problematic side of the previous literature were around the range of 3-4 on the scale with a mean of 3,82 where 3,50 and above are presented under the label of “important”. This finding shows that making claim or claims opposing to the findings of the previous studies seem to be seen as one of the important ways to present the situation of the research context .

The answers concerning the importance of indicating a gap in the previous literature showed a great variation among the participants according to the proportions to the points of scale. Nearly 55% of participants chose 3 on the scale while %41 of them chose 5, as result of which the responses with a mean of 3,82 are represented into the range of 3-5. According to this finding, it may be suggested that above %95 participants perceived statement of the gap in the relevant literature as a crucial step in the establishment of the niche.

The third item in the category regarded the level of importance for question raising respondents scored in establishing the context where a particular research makes particularly good sense. The responses to this item had nearly 100% of the participants choosing mainly 4 and 5 on the scale (mean: 4,11), which shows that the participants generally found the establishment of the problem or issue raising in the literature significant in the statement of the weaknesses and limitations of the niche.

As to the last item of this category, continuing/extending a tradition, the mean of responses was 3,94 on the 5 point scale, which fell into the range of 3-4. As can be seen in table 14, over 85% of the participants reported significant importance on the explanation of whether their study follows or extends a tradition in best establishing the context.

4.3.3.4. Descriptive Statistics and Mean Values for each item of MOVE 3

Total responses for each item of MOVE 3 according to the question of how important respondents would rate these items in best making an offer to fill the gap are shown in table 4.15.

The first item in the category involved the analysis of the extent to which outlining purposes/aims or objectives is important in making an offer to fill the gap. As can be seen in Table 4.15, approximately 91% of the responses fell into the range of 3-5 with a mean of 3,80, which suggests that nearly all the participants scored significantly important on statement of the purposes/aims or objectives of the study in the presentation of the study.

As for the item of announcing present research, the mean score of responses was 3,52 on the 5 point scale, where 3,50 and above were labeled “important”. According to this point and the results shown in table 15, this item was considered important by about 85% of the respondents, which may indicate that according to most of the participants introducing what has been done in the study is significant in the occupation of the niche.

The answers regarding the importance of announcing principle findings/results had nearly 90% of the participants choosing 4 or 5 on the 5 point rating scale, and accordingly the mean value of the total results scored for this item is 3,79. This finding

shows that many a participant attributed a significant importance to the summarizing of the principle findings or results of the study in the description of the work done.

The participants' perceptions on the importance of the fourth item in the category, stating the significance/ justification of the study, were mainly around the range of 4-5 on the rating scale with a mean of 4,38 that almost 80 percent of the respondents saw the clarification of the value of the research essential to make clear that in the rest of the study the researcher will present his/her own original works to fill the gap pointed out.

As to the listing research questions/ hypotheses, the fifth item of the category, over 80 percent of the participants rated important on this item with a mean score of 3,80. According to this result, it may be assumed that explanation of the basic points around which the research is conducted seems crucial for the participants in the process of informing the target community on the scope of the study.

The other item, explaining the thesis structure, respondents reported significantly important in the presentation of the thesis to the readers with a mean of 3, 85 that the total percentage of the participants rating this item into the range of 3-4 forms approximately 95% of the total, which suggests that according to the participants' judgement such kind of knowledge may provide useful and brief background about the content of the thesis. At this point, the next four items, which are the sub-steps of explaining the thesis structure, except for explaining the overall thesis structure, for the other three items – explaining chapter structure, explaining chapter contents and explaining chapter goals- participants had similar perceptions of the importance. For each of these three items, nearly 90% of participants chose 3 and 4 on the scale with closer mean scores (mean=3,24 for explaining chapter structure; mean= 3,39 for explaining chapter contents ; and mean= 3,37 for explaining chapter goals) , which may lead to the assumption that participants attach moderate importance to the donating the audience with these kinds of information. As to the other sub-step, explaining the chapter structure, the item drew over 90% of participants with a mean value of 3,55. In other words, compared to the results of the three items, it seems that participants reported significantly higher on the importance level of this item, which may

show that explaining the overall thesis structure is seen as essential information to be given in the research reports.

Table 4.15.

*Frequencies, Percentages and Means of each Item of MOVE-3
(Occupying the Niche)*

item	value	F	%	M
10.outlining purposes, aims or objectives	1.unimportant	37	9,2	3,8089
	2.Of littleImportance	1	,2	
	3.moderately important	142	35,2	
	4.Important	45	11,2	
	5.Very Important	178	44,2	
11.announcing present research	1.unimportant	0	0	3,5236
	2.Of littleImportance	39	9,7	
	3.moderately important	144	35,7	
	4.Important	190	47,1	
	5.Very Important	30	7,4	
12.announcing principle findings/results	1.unimportant	37	9,2	3,7965
	2.Of littleImportance	0	0	
	3.moderately important	7	1,7	
	4.Important	323	80,1	
	5.Very Important	36	8,9	
13.stating the significance/ justification of the study	1.unimportant	37	9,2	4,3871
	2.Of littleImportance	1	,2	
	3.moderately important	40	9,9	
	4.Important	16	4,0	
	5.Very Important	309	76,7	
14. listing research questions/hypotheses	1.unimportant	0	0	3,8089
	2.Of littleImportance	37	9,2	
	3.moderately important	37	9,2	
	4.Important	295	73,2	
	5.Very Important	34	8,4	
15.explaining the thesis structure	1.unimportant	1	,2	3,8536
	2.Of littleImportance	2	,5	
	3.moderately important	80	19,9	
	4.Important	292	72,5	
	5.Very Important	28	6,9	
16. explaining the overall structure of thesis	1.unimportant	2	,5	3,5558
	2.Of littleImportance	3	,7	
	3.moderately important	182	45,2	
	4.Important	201	49,9	
	5.Very Important	15	3,7	
17. explaining chapter structure	1.unimportant	3	1,5	3,2457
	2.Of littleImportance	8	2,7	
	3.moderately important	326	80,1	
	4.Important	40	9	
	5.Very Important	27	6,7	
18. explaining chapter contents	1.unimportant	1	,2	3,3945
	2.Of littleImportance	5	1,2	
	3.moderately important	277	68,7	
	4.Important	74	18,4	
	5.Very Important	46	11,4	
19. explaining chapter goals	1.unimportant	37	9,2	3,3747
	2.Of littleImportance	5	1,2	
	3.moderately important	144	35,7	
	4.Important	204	50,6	
	5.Very Important	13	3,2	

Table 4.15 (continued)

20. stating method/ als/ subjects	1.unimportant	37	9,2	3,7196
	2.Of littleImportance	37	9,2	
	3.moderately important	294	73,0	
	4.Important	35	8,7	
	5.Very Important	37	9,2	
21.stating limitations of research	1.unimportant	37	9,2	3,8213
	2.Of littleImportance	38	9,4	
	3.moderately important	288	71,5	
	4.Important	40	9,9	
	5.Very Important	37	9,2	
	Total	403	100,0	

For the last items of the category, *stating method/materials and subjects and stating limitations of research*, as can be seen in Table 4.15, the results are very close to each other. Both items drew over 80% of responses with similar mean scores (mean= 3, 71 for stating method/materials and subjects; mean=3,82 for stating limitations of research) falling into the range of 3-4, which shows that participants regard these two items as important factors in the presentation of background knowledge on the work done.

4.4. Discussion

Results from the three-way corpus analysis of the introduction sections of master theses focusing on the outstanding of the moves and the steps that make up the introductions in greater depth and these from the analysis of the quantitative data obtained through a 5 point rating scale based on the reports of respondents about the items grouped under three categories, each of which concerns a different move and its steps specifically, reveal some differences and similarities between what is perceived by academicians involved in the field of ELT about the rhetorical organization of the introductory parts of a master thesis and what was actually employed in the theses written in this field. At this point, the overall results of the qualitative analysis show that Moves 1 and 3 are compulsory elements of the introductions , being present in 90–100% of all master theses, which suggests that there is a clear tendency in the application of these moves among the authors. Coming to the other line of analysis, the general results of the quantitative analysis from these two dimensions, it is seen that academicians notably support the involvement of these two moves within the parts of

theses where they introduce their study. From this aspect, then, it becomes clear that what academicians plan to do in the discursive arrangement of the introductory parts of their dissertations has been completely reflected in these parts in terms of the employment of Move 1 and Move 2, and to sum up, the results of the quantitative analysis and the findings of the qualitative one are significantly parallel to each other for these two categories. However, as to Move 2, the reports of academicians totally differ from what was applied in the theses. In other words, while the self-reports of the participants stress on the more intensive employment of Move 2 than Move 1 and Move 3, the findings of the qualitative analysis presents that Move-2 is the rarest identified category in the introduction sections of dissertations, and here it is clearly understood that the data obtained from the quantitative analysis contradicts to that of qualitative one. This results may show that, though establishing a niche is regarded as a “hinge” to provide the connection between “Move 1 (what has been done)” and “Move 3 (what the present research is about)” Feak and Swales (2004; p.257) through the statement of the weaknesses and/or limitations in the related literature by the academicians, it is generally not used in the arrangement of the introductions because it seems that authors do not need to point out the gap or problem in the previous studies. Overall, the results of quantitative analysis emphasizes the significance of following the rhetorical organization suggested by the CARS model in the introductory parts of master dissertatons while the findings of qualitative analysis show that the corpus examined in this study fits the proposed moves in the CARS model to some extent. At this point, when the previous researches are examined, it is seen that there are differences among the disciplines, discourses and even contexts in the perception and application of the model(e.g. Hirano, 2009; Ozturk, 2007 ; Samraj, 2005), in some of which CARS model is totally applied in the corpora examined (e.g. Soler- Monreal et al. , 2011) while in the others one or two of moves distinguished in the model are not employed in the academic genres studied (e.g. Jogthong, 2001). Accordingly, considering the current study with its specific findings, it may be suggested that these differences result from cross-cultural and cross-linguistic factors such as the the organization of an academic genre within the same field by the authors from different cultural backgrounds, or the application of a manuscript in several fields.

In the next sections, the results of the study will be comprehensively discussed

according to the research questions.

4.4.1. MOVE-1 Establishing a Research Territory- “Do authors begin by establishing the significance of their research area?” and “Do authors summarize previous relevant research in the area?”

Move 1 is the first phase of CARS model which is structuralized on establishing the significance of a specific research through the realization of the steps, which are distinguished under this move and each of which carry out different rhetorical functions, within the territory, the theoretical and practical content of which forms the actual basis of that research. In this section, the data obtained from qualitative and quantitative analyses on each step of Move 1 will be discussed under the light of theoretical knowledge and thus it will be tried to provide an answer to the research questions established on Move 1.

The first step of the move, *claiming centrality*, is generally presented as “appeals to the discourse community whereby members are asked to accept that the research to be reported is part of a lively, significant or well-established research area” (Swales, 1990, p.144). This step generally forms the opening parts of academic texts which persuade the audience about the value of topic for investigation and the well-established scope of the research field. In this study, the textual analysis shows that claiming centrality was identified in 70% of the theses analysed in the corpus. As for the quantitative analysis, according to the proportions of responses for claiming centrality, about 90% of the total number of participants reported higher importance on the presentation of the centrality claim. These results may suggest that pointing out the relevancy of the research topic within its field is widely accepted as the main knowledge to be placed in the theses among the practitioners in the field of ELT. Pedagogically, this tendency may be tied to the fact that claiming centrality is regarded as a way to fulfill the requirements in order to introduce the new work in an acceptable manner and thus to supply the attendancy to the target community of the research field through the attribution to the significance of the territory put forward and accepted by this community. In other words, the statement of the value of topic for investigation and of the well-established scope of the research field may seem to be an important step for

showing that the claims presented and supported by this community are respected and agreed upon in order to prepare the audience for the introduction of the new research. Additionally, centrality claim may be a functional device in the maintenance of the interaction between the author and the target community. Here, it is important to state that, with these results, this study supports the findings of the previous studies(e.g. Soler-Monreal, 2011) which emphasize the importance of claiming centrality in the realisation of Move 1.

Making topic generalization, second step of the model, covers the statements on the specific sides of the research territory that are directly dealt with the main content of a certain part of the research presented through the clarification of related knowledge. It is noteworthy that, in the qualitative findings, making topic generalization was the most frequently employed step of Move 1 in the introductory parts of the dissertations both from the dimension of the number of instances (1111 cases) and the number of theses (in all the corpus) in which it was applied. Coming to the quantitative findings of the study, about %71 of the participants attributed moderate importance to assertions on the phenomenon or phenomena forming the basis of the research. Thus, the findings based on quantitative analysis, indicating that making topic generalization is supported only to some extent, contradicts to those of textual analysis. Here, considering the numerical data, it may be assumed that, as an author-oriented process, that is, dominantly based on the author himself/herself, generalization increases the threat that writers move away from the main theme of the study by making so general statements that do not actually cover the phenomenon/phenomena the research is based on, and even may involve those not related to the research territory . In other words, there may be a risk that authors do not proceed within the boundaries of their research field and this may be the main reason behind the fact that respondents seem to be noncommittal in the employment of this step. As coming to the data obtained from the qualitative analysis, it may be suggested that topic generalization is regarded as a very tentative phase where authors may take fully responsibility in making bold generalizations or more moderated claims on the research subject and thus they want to reflect the knowledge they have on the field by producing their own general statements about the topic, in other words, they want to dominate the topic of their study through generalizing. At this point, when the the previous studies are reviewed, it is seen that making topic generalization is generally

one of the commonly- performed rhetorical strategies in the corpora examined (e.g. Sheldon, 2011), and from this aspect, the findings of the textual analysis of the current study replicate the findings of the previous studies.

The other step, reviewing items of previous research, includes the brief presentation of conclusions of previous studies through direct or indirect citation in order to support the centrality of the topic claimed. The related literature shows that the introductory parts of the academic texts was mainly dominated by this step (e.g. Vázquez-Ayora, 1977). As for the findings of the present study, qualitative and quantitative data are completely parallel with each other that 90% of the participants scored significantly important on the statement of the results of the prior researches conducted within the related field, and simultaneously, this step was employed in 90% of the theses in the corpus, which may suggest that reviewing items of previous studies shapes the introductory sections of the texts written in the field of ELT in the Turkish context, as well. According to these results, it may be assumed that informing the target community on the findings of previous studies is regarded as an important rhetorical strategy in the introduction of writers' own work through presentation of the profound content of the related literature. Moreover, this tendency may result from the demand to have position in the research territory through not only the presentation of the richness of current literature but also attribution to and recognition of the dominant power of this literature. And finally, reviewing the items of previous studies may be an indirect way to clarify the limitations and weaknesses of the work of others.

Through Step 4, explaining the institutional/research group context, writers present the current state of the research area within the research group context and also their evaluation on the improvements and movements in the field in this context. In this study, the results of the qualitative analysis, showing that the step was identified in nearly 75% of theses, and quantitative analysis, according to which about 85% of the participants scored significantly moderate importance on the employment of this step, suggests that practitioners in the area of English language teaching tend to explain and evaluate what is going in the present research territory after the statement of the results of the previous researches. Here, this result may be explained through what Swales put forward: "By assessing the literature about prior research, with a degree of authority, writers are informing readers of the state of current knowledge" (Swales, 1990, p. 148).

Additionally, it may be assumed that there is an emphasis on the share of information through the involvement of comparison between prior knowledge on the research field and the current one. When the literature is examined, actually it is seen, researches dealing with the analysis of rhetorical strategies have shown a variability in terms of the application of this step that, while in some fields or contexts authors lean to explaining the institutional/research group context (e.g. Sheldon, 2011), in the other ones the findings are not rhetorically significant (Soler-Monreal et al. , 2011).

The last step proposed in Move 1, defining/classifying terms, is based on the explanation of the terminology on a piece of research field involved in the study and/or the categorization of the terms according to the groups they belong to. According to the results of the textual analysis of this study, the proportion of the occurrence of this step was nearly %75 of the total number of theses. As coming to the numerical data obtained from the rating scale, above % 80 of total self-reports stressed on the importance about the statement of terminology definition and classification in the introductions. On the basis of these results, it may be suggested that by adding detailed information to the study through the clarification of the concepts which actually form the framework of the research topic dealt within the work carried out, practitioners seem to show their competency in narrowing the focus of the research area of readers to the specific points that actually they should concentrate on in the study.

In general, as both the results of qualitative and quantitative analysis indicate, there is a clear tendency and support on the application of Move 1 among the practitioners involved in the area of ELT in the Turkish context. This current state within the context may be pedagogically explained under the light of some certain points. First of all, to situate the new study in the research territory may seem to be possible by stating the position of the research field in the research territory through the reflection of the relevancy with the progression from broad to specific explanations related to the research topic, which will make the study more appealing to the target community, and thus the validity of the research may be provided. Secondly, employing a wide range of rhetorical devices may be attributed as essential to establish the research territory because following such strategy will make the study “more interesting, vibrant and relevant to the discipline” (Shehzad, 2006; p.139) to position in the territory. And finally, the fact that the practitioners in the contexts seem to be widely dependent upon

making generalization and reviewing items of previous literature may lead to the assumption that the establishment of the research territory is generally based on the statement of author(s)'s own assertions on the topic and of the overall conclusions of prior studies because in this way they will be actively involved in the process of knowledge sharing by blending statements of past with claims of author(s).

4.4.2. MOVE-2 – Establishing a Niche - “Do authors point out a “gap” in that previous research—perhaps an area the research has overlooked (such as whether or not its conclusions apply to the local situation), or possibly a question as to whether the research methods or interpretations of results in previous studies are completely reliable?”

Move 2 is that phase of model where the validation of the study is provided through the statement of significant limitations within the current literature, the role of which is to criticize the claims of the previous studies and thus to establish a niche where the authors justify their contribution. In this section of the study, on the basis of research question, the data obtained from quantitative and qualitative analyses will be discussed according to the each step involved in Move 2 and general assumptions about the state of the works produced in the field of ELT within the Turkish context in terms of the establishment of the niche will be presented.

The first step of the move, counter claiming, involves making claims which refute the claims of the previous literature, and to some extent, criticizing these claims through the evaluation of the weaker sides that fall short in the explanation and /or application of a certain knowledge. The qualitative analysis of the current study shows that counter claiming was found in only 7% of the theses analysed in the corpus. As for the quantitative analysis, according to the proportions of responses for this step, approximately 90% of the total number of participants reported higher importance on the involvement of statements that present research evidences opposing to the claims of prior studies. These results may suggest that, although practitioners theoretically accept the importance of rebutting what has been put forward before to establish the niche, actually, in the practical side, they avoid doing this. Pedagogically, this avoidance may result from the fact that Turkish writers in the field of ELT belong to a “small

community [...] in which the writer is very likely to know key members of the community” (Burgess, 1997, p. 258) and thus they avoid and even resist reflecting the faults within the work of others through the presentation of counter-prooves to them which may then invoke a negative attitude from this community . Additionally, the other reason behind this avoidance may be that claiming counterly to the works and criticizing them is regarded as a demanding strategy because author should have a certain expertise in the field and a comprehensive background input and also intake of the items of that field, acquired as result of a profound search, in order to increase the power of the claims put forward by the new research against the prior ones.

Through other two steps, indicating a gap and question raising, writers identify the gaps and shortcomings in the previous literature and clarify the problem, issue or need raising as result of these limitations in the research territory that needs attention. In this study, the results of the qualitative analysis regarding these two steps, showing that nearly %55 of the theses in the corpus had the instances of each step, and quantitative analysis, according to which over %90 of the participants scored significantly higher importance on the employment of these steps, suggests that practitioners studying on ELT in the Turkish context do not feel comfortable to highlight the problematic sides of the extant literature in the introductory parts of their dissertations although they claim that pointing out raising questions is of relevance in order to justify the study in the creation of a niche where demands further researches. Swales (1990) argued that “the introduction remains flat” (p. 158) when the writer do not establish a research space by directly specifying the gaps in the literature, which can be extended to the practitioners who did not indicate the gaps and the raising problems in their studies in this study. Pedagogically, one possibility that appears more likely is the assumption that writers may tend to avoid explaining the weaknesses of the relevant literature because , if they do, they state the ignorance of the target community on that part of the research area, to whom the acceptance of the new study, and thus the researcher, to the field actually concerns. The other possibility is that practitioners “ may prefer to avoid negative or quasi-negative comment” (Feak and Swales, 2004; p.259) in the introduction sections of their study. Here, it is noteworthy that, in some of previous studies, while the results show that there is clear tendency in the indications of the gaps and problems raising in the literature among the authors of the English texts(

e.g. Soler-Monreal et al. , 2011), there are also some sample studies, the findings of which claim on the contrary(e.g. Ozturk, 2007). Then, it may be suggested that the academic genres produced within different contexts show different trends in terms of the employment of these steps because of several reasons based on different social, rhetorical or linguistic facts.

Continuing/extending a tradition is the last step determined in Move 2 which mainly covers the explaining “ how some finding in the immediate research literature can be extended or applied in some way” (Swales and Feak, 2004; p.260) which is based on the “conclusion authors draw from their survey of the previous research” (p.260). According to the results of the textual analysis of this study, the traces of this step were identified only in approximately 15 of the theses. As coming to the numerical data obtained from the rating scale, over 85% of the participants reported significant importance on the indication of whether their thesis extends previous knowledge in some way. These results may suggest that, while practitioners stress on the presentation of such information to a greater extent, they do not actually inform the audience about this detail. Pedagogically, this may be explained that “this step tends to be used by research groups who are following up their own research or that done by similar groups” (Feak and Swales, 2004; p.260) and so , as it is possible that they did not follow up any research they carried out before or the ones done by the others in their study, practitioners in the ELT field in Turkish context do not need to involve such information in the introductions of their theses.

Generally, the overall results of the qualitative analysis on Move 2 show that about %50 of the theses analyzed in the corpus lacked clarification of the niche where a research particularity makes a good sense, while those of quantitative analysis, present that Move-2 is the most significantly emphasized rhetorical strategy to be followed in the rhetorical organization of the introduction sections of master theses. With regard to these findings, it may be suggested that, though practitioners attribute considerably higher importance to the establishment of a niche as they they “want their research activity to be recognized as excellent” (Moreno, 2010; p.50), they seem to avoid putting this theoretical knowledge into practice through the involvement of “a mini-critique”(Swales and Feak, 2004; p.257) in their studies. At this point, when the related literature is reviewed, it is seen that Move 2 is the specifically conventionalized and identified

phase in nearly all the introduction sections of academic texts written in English in several contexts and seems to be a distinctive rhetorical strategy followed by authors (Ahmad, 1997; Fredrickson & Swales, 1994). In other words, Move 2 is generally recognized as an obligatory component in the texts written in English (Samraj, 2002; Shehzad, 2008; Swales, 2004), and it is suggested that this results from the tendency to severe competition among the researchers (Samraj, 2002; Swales, 2004). However, in other studies that looked at genres in languages other than English, it is clearly seen that there is a pervasive absence of Move 2 (e.g. Jogthong, 2001; Ahmad, 1997). Here, it is seen that , though the corpus examined in this study was written in English, the findings generally support those of second group in which there is a clear dependency on the avoidance in the employment of Move 2.

This lack of need to establish a niche for the ELT field in the Turkish context may be discussed under the light of some explanations. According to the explanation proposed by Najjar (1990; cited in Jogthong, 2001, p.71), in smaller discourse communities, more typical of developing countries, authors have less pressure for publication and therefore need not be competitive for a research space. In other words, in smaller discourse communities, instead of established fields, there are recently emerging research areas, which may lead to a lack of need among the practitioners to compete for a research space, that is, to create a niche where they validate the contribution of their research. Another explanation on the avoidance to highlight a niche may be that, considering that writing is a socially and culturally structured process, authors may have been under the influence of their first language and the writing tendency in L1, that is, in Turkish, which was widely accepted and demonstrated in the studies examining academic genres written in different languages(e.g. Mauranen, 1993; Ahmad, 1997; Moreno, 2010). And finally, the target audiences the studies appeal to or the lack of knowledge on the academic genre and especially on the rhetorical and structural arrangement of that genre in English may be other possible reasons in the resistance to establish a niche in the introductory sections of master theses.

4.4.3. MOVE-3 Occupying the Niche – “ Do authors make clear (whether or not they state it explicitly) that in the rest of their study they will present their own original research to fill the “gap” ?”

Move 3, occupying the niche, is the last phase, the main characteristic of which is to announce the research in question within the niche which has been established in Move 2. In other words, Move 2 identifies the gap which Move 3 swiftly fills by explicitly outlining the research purpose, stating its structure, main features and announcing the principal outcomes (Swales, 2004). In this last part of the discussion section, the overall assumptions deduced from the results of quantitative and qualitative analyses for each step characterized in Move 3 will be presented.

Step 1, outlining purposes/aims or objectives, and Step 2, announcing present research, are the first two steps of Move 3 through which the present work is announced descriptively and purposively. The findings obtained from textual and numerical data in this study indicate that these two steps are the most widely used rhetorical strategies in the corpus (in %90 of the theses analyzed) and found significantly important (above % 80 of the total participants) in terms of presentation in the introductory sections of theses in the indication that the new study can occupy space where there is a need for further research. According to these results, it may be assumed that practitioners seem to regard the descriptive and purposive announcement of the study as a way to validate their research and thus to prepare the study according to the expectations of the target community through the compensation of the less-frequent representation or even the absence of Move-2. On the other hand, the practitioners involved in the field of ELT in the Turkish context appear to overemphasise these steps commonly, which may indicate that there is an effort to learn to position their works in the international research platform in a more professional way. In other words, the justification of the study seems to be provided through the clarification of the work done with the presentation of descriptive and purposive sides of the work, actually the basic role of which is attributed as meeting the requirements of the international research community. And, with these sides, this study replicates the findings of the previous literature in terms of the application of these two steps(e.g. Sheldon, 2011).

Step 3, announcing principle findings/results, is another rhetorical strategy

identified in Move 3 which functions as a way to inform the audience on the main outcomes of the study. The results of the qualitative analysis of the study show that only %7 of the theses involved the instances of this step while the results of quantitative analysis present that about %90 of the total participants scored significantly higher importance on this step. This variation between results may suggest that, though practitioners support the addition of such information in the introductions, they do not actually prefer to do this partly because they seem to be controlled in announcing the main findings of their studies, and generally tend to present their research descriptively and purposefully. Additionally, as the results are also included both in the abstract section briefly and in the result section, they may feel no need to announce the data obtained as a result of the investigation once more in the introductory part of the study. The related literature shows different results in the employment of this step; while in some of them announcing principle findings is the commonly applied step in the corpora examined (e.g. Swales and Najjar, 1984), some studies present results opposing to these(e.g. Sheldon, 2011). This may show that “ there is some confusion as to whether” *introductions should include* “ a statement of the principle findings” (Feak and Swales, 2004; p.265).

Through the other step, stating the significance/justification of the study, authors highlight the rationale of the study through stating the contribution it makes to the research space created in move 2. Statement of the justification of the research is one of the most commonly identified steps of Move 3 in the corpus examined in this study (in %80 of the theses). Furthermore, clarifying the importance of the study in that part of the study where authors present the research in question is attributed as crucial by most of the practitioners (over %80 of the respondents) responding to the scale. According to these results, it may be assumed that practitioners aim to persuade the target community about the novelty of their research as an original one contributing to the gap identified in the literature and/or providing an answer to the raising question in the research field. Moreover, they may want to make more explicit and stronger claims for validation of their study by directly presenting the significance of the study. At this point, there is a variation among the findings of the studies in the statement of the value of research, which may suggest that this step seems probable in some fields, but rare in others. Furthermore, Swales himself (2004; p.265) questions whether authors mention at this

stage about the contribution their study will make.

Step 5, listing research questions/hypotheses, involves presenting research questions and/or hypotheses around which the study are oriented and which form the basic motives based on the main theme of the study. According to textual and numerical data, listing research questions occurred in over %80 of the theses and simultaneously above %80 of the participants regard this step as crucial in the introductory parts of theses to occupy the research space. According to these findings, it may be suggested that practitioners in the field of ELT prefer to explain explicitly what they are investigating in their study. Moreover, it seems that they place greater emphasis on situating their work purposively as well as descriptively. In this way, the study may become less demanding for the readers through the clear explanation of what the research addresses. At this point, the previous studies show that there are variations in textual organization of academic texts examined in terms of outlining research questions/ hypotheses (e.g. Hinds, 1987; Sheldon, 2011). A rational explanation to this variation is that these texts may have been rhetorically arranged according to the expectations of the target community or the authors themselves, or the demands of the publication policy of a journal or institute.

The other step, explaining the thesis structure, functions as a way to outline the thesis structure overall or to point out some specific sides of the thesis such as explanation of structure and/or contents and/or goals of each chapter. In this study, the qualitative analysis shows a significant tendency to explain the chapter contents compared to those based on informing the audience about overall structure of thesis, or goals and structure of each part specifically. As coming to the results of quantitative analysis, however, it is seen that respondents support explaining thesis structure through mentioning the overall structure of the thesis. According to this result, it may be assumed that, although practitioners state that they prefer to present brief information on the organization of thesis through the illustration on the global arrangement rather than on local ones, they generally appear to establish their work in detail to the scientific community, to whom the study may concern, by explicitly and clearly delineating the scope of each part. Moreover, in this way, they may want to persuade the audience on the importance of each section specifically in the contribution to the justification of the study and thus to make them focus on not only some certain parts of the thesis such as

abstract or discussion but also the other ones. For outlining the structure of a text in introductions, Swales and Feak state that “ this element is obligatory in dissertations and theses” (2004; p.266). When this statement is compared to the overall findings of the study, as an idea, practitioners seem to regard this step obligatory but as to the practice it seems that they still question whether there is a need to explain how they organize their texts. Here, according to Swales and Feak (2004), this need is generally tied to the status of the field, that is, to whether this field is newly emerging or established one in that research context.

Last two steps, *stating method/materials and subjects*, which covers brief presentation of the research design and data collection tools and procedure, and *stating limitations of research*, based on stating the weaknesses of the work done, are nearly equally represented in the corpus in terms of frequency according to the results of qualitative analysis. As to the results of quantitative analysis, it is seen that respondents found important to add these information to the introductions to occupy the niche. On the basis of these findings, practitioners may believe that these rhetorical features establish the introductory parts of the work more accurately as a scientific work. Actually, it seems that they inform their target community better by systematically outlining the overall characteristic of their study through these strategies. That is, by being explicit about explanation of the research design and sampling, and clarification of the limitations of their study, readers may be fully informed about the research study.

Overall, this common tendency and support on the application of Move 3 may indicate that they want to make clear that in their study they will present their own original research, in other words, to show that they occupy the niche established within the research territory through their study. Considering that “what is considered logical, explicit and well-organised in one written culture is not similarly understood in another” (Hyland, 2005, p. 15), this result may lead to the explanation that practitioners involved in ELT in the Turkish research context center on Move 3 in line with the expectations of their target community. In some of the studies (e.g. Burgess, 1997), Move 3 is built with less information with only a few sentences ; however, in this study, writers mostly prefer to occupy the niche with a comprehensively outlined and complex structure. This may suggest that global academic changes and demands may oblige practitioners to involve the rhetorical features of Move 3 in the textual organization of the introductory

sections perhaps due to external influences. Additionally, they may want to organize their texts in a similar style to Anglophone textual organization. In general, Move 3 may be qualified as obligatory in the rhetorical arrangement of MA thesis introductions in the ELT research territory in Turkish context.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. CONCLUSION

5.1. Presentation

In this chapter, a summary of the study including a brief review of the conclusions based on the results are presented. Next, pedagogical implications and some suggestions for further research in the field are discussed.

5.2. Summary

This study investigated whether the rhetorical strategies identified in the CARS model were employed in the introductory sections of master theses written by Turkish authors involved in the ELT field within Turkish context and the significance point practitioners, who have attended master programmes before, rate for the application of these strategies. Also, this study aimed to compare the results of quantitative and qualitative analysis in order to determine differences between what was adopted in terms of the application of these rhetorical strategies and what was supported by practitioners at this point.

The qualitative analysis has revealed that not all the moves described in the CARS model are closely followed in the introductions in the corpus examined though the results of survey have showed that practitioners in ELT field significantly support the application of each move. M2 is not always present in master theses and it seems that M1 and M3 are qualified as obligatory moves in M.A. introductions and M2, although it is the phase where the work done is justified, is not established as a compulsory rhetoric to employ. Here, the results of quantitative analysis, which shows that M2 has the highest significance ratio compared to the other two moves, thoroughly contradicts with these results, which may indicate that practitioners in the field of ELT in Turkish context find themselves in regards to this move “in the process of negotiating the established conventions of academic English culture and the discourse

norms of its native language” (Sheldon, 2011; p. 247). Overall, these findings show that , although , in theory, practitioners heavily stress on establishing a gap in previous research, in application, describing the research territory and occupying a particular niche seems to have higher priority. This may be explained with Burgess’s (2002, p. 198) hypothesis that writers of M.A. introductions “view the problem they address as entirely uncharted territory for their readers” and Yakhontova’s (2002, p.231) hypothesis that writers aim to establish “the scholarly credibility of the author as a worthy member of the research community” by establishing a research territory and occupying the niche. At this point, the introductory sections of master theses produced by practitioners in ELT field within Turkish context seem to follow Swales’s (2004, p. 244) flexible OARO (Open a Research Option) model, “which reflects a more relaxed world in which there is less competition for research space” (C. Soler-Monreal et al., 2011; p. 14).

As to step analysis, data obtained from qualitative analysis presents different results from those of quantitative one. According to textual analysis, the introductions are mainly oriented around making topic generalization (S2 of M1) and announcing the work done (S2 of M3), as well as the presentation of the gap in the previous literature (S1B of M2). To the quantitative data, however, participants commonly rate claiming centrality (S1 of M1), which shows that “centrality claims for research validation are concise and follow a strong justification of the writers’ research through gap indication” (Sheldon, 2011; p.247), question raising (S1C of M2) and stating significance/justification of the study (S4 of M3) at highest significance levels.. In the application, it is seen that the introductory parts of master theses are mostly dedicated to the statement of background information on the research topic. Additionally, writers also show a significant concern for the announcement of the work carried out and the novelty of the research through the clarification of the gap the study points out. As for practitioners’ perspectives, the introductions may heavily involve centrality of the research territory (S1 of M1) and the issue raising (S1C of M2) in the research territory, which must be addressed, with the justification of what has been done (S4 of M3) in order to clarify the contribution of the study. These findings show that, although practitioners stress on the common employment of some certain steps of the moves for the better rhetorical organization of the introductions to complete the actual task of

these sections as interlocutors between writers and target community, introductions of master theses “are mainly motivated by the presentation of background information (S2 of M1) and the work carried out (S2 of M3)” (Soler-Monreal et al., 2011; p. 14).

As for the results of the quantitative analysis about the perceptions of practitioners who took academic writing course before, and of those who did not take on the application of the CARS model, there was not a statistically significant difference between groups. Both groups generally reported closer significance ratio for the steps of each move, which may lead to the assumption that taking academic writing course does not have a impact on the perceptions about the employment of the rhetorical strategies to be followed in the organization of the master thesis introductions.

In general, the results of qualitative and quantitative analysis were very interesting because, although the corpus “did not display a strong resemblance to the established discourse convention in English” (Sheldon, 2011; p.247) and this may result from the fact that “the mixed discourse features in the genre structure produced by these writers respond to the conventions of the discourse community and readership at a national level but may obstruct gaining international publication” (Sheldon, 2011;p.247), the CARS model were represented in all the introductions of the corpus with the employment of at least one move through one or more steps and commonly supported by practitioners in terms of the application, which indicates that, when submitting master theses in English within ELT field in Turkish context, employing the CARS model may be a good rhetorical strategy. A deeper knowledge of the textual organisation of master thesis introductions can be provided by facilitating the detailed and complicated parts of the genre moves and steps of thesis introductions in ELT, a process which may be of particular importance for novice researchers. As Duszak (1994) points out, when non-native speakers of English “transmit discursual patterns typical of their own tongue but alien to English [. . .] their products may obtain lower interest and/or appreciation, or they may simply fail to get themselves published” (p. 291). In this light, Swales’s (2004) CARS model, which describes Introductions in English in applied linguistics, offers great support for ESP writing pedagogy (Sheldon, 2011; p.248), and it may be seen as “a valued linguistic tool which assists scholars to

promote themselves as credible researchers” (Mur Dueñas & Lorés Sanz, 2009, p. 502; Pérez-Llantada et al., 2011). At this point, however, it is essential to indicate that in order to maintain the value of the discourse norms of the Turkish context, practitioners involved in the field of English Language Teaching in Turkey need to develop a “scientific artefact that is both rooted in their own cultural tradition” (Sheldon, 2011; p.247) and also the English register, as argued by Lafuente (1996).

In conclusion, this study has illuminated culture bound tendency in the genre moves and steps of the introduction sections in master theses in the field of ELT in English within Turkish context and strengthens its significance by contributing to ESP literature from culturally different discourse. In this regard, the results of the current study remain consistent, to a degree, with previous studies which focus on the rhetorical organisation of academic manuscripts within their contexts (Burgess, 1997, 2002; Martín-Martín, 2005; Moreno, 1997; Acosta, 2003). If written culture is viewed through the lens of postmodern influences (Atkinson, 2004), academicians in Turkish context tend to reflect the paradigms of English academic register style, as shown in the results of quantitative analysis. But, according to the qualitative data, they have not also strictly followed the rhetorical patterns identified by this English register, and seem to resist this standardized system. As a result, the main hypothesis of this is that demands of international platforms and the “local centres of power” of the cultural context (Duszak, 2006, p. 37) may be combined by the applied linguists in Turkey, which thus provides maintaining the norms of its own cultural discourse.

5.3. Pedagogical implications

Firstly, the findings of this study clarify the need for a systematic and structured academic writing teaching programme in the scientific, rhetorical, structural and linguistic organization of the introductory sections of master theses in the field of English language teaching within Turkish context. One of the basic reasons for such a require is that having them attend to such a writing programme would eliminate the ambiguity in terms of the arrangement of the contents of introductions. For practitioners, compared to an L1 research context, an EFL setting includes more difficulties in writing process because they need more time and effort to write the in

English. Thus, providing a variety of assistance for more effective thesis writing, such as writing classes and proofreading services, would increase the competency in the production of structurally, contently and linguistically well-organized introductory parts. Furthermore, here, it is important to indicate that “academic writing courses for EFL ... and novice researcherscould draw attention to the kind of flexibility involved in these stages of *Master Thesis* structure and encourage students to discuss the rationale behind this flexibility, as well as the adequacy or otherwise of others’ attempts to describe it” (Yang and Allison, 2003; p.381). Overall, “the results of the current study can be used to teach advanced level students pursuing masters and doctoral degrees the structure of *master thesis* introductions and ...in their disciplines” (Samraj, 2005 ; p. 153).

Secondly, the results of studies such as the present one can be used to familiarize students with the variation found in academic writing not just across genres but also across disciplinary boundaries (Samraj, 2005; p.153).

Thirdly, providing a deeper understanding of academic writing in different cultural and linguistic traditions, this study might “help teachers to guide novice academic writers when writing up their research” (Soler-Monreal et al., 2011; p.14) from different dimensions.

Finally, the possibility that *Turkish* researchers might write *master theses* in English using the same move structure gives support to the potential benefit of using the CARS model as a pedagogical tool (Hirano, 2009; p. 246). By becoming aware of the rhetorical organization most widely used in *theses* in English, *Turkish* authors might be in a better position to make informed rhetorical choices when writing in English (Hirano, 2009 ; p.247) .

5.4. Further Research

This study has been oriented around the data obtained from a rhetorical analysis of a comparatively small size of corpus written on English Language Teaching (100 English master theses written between 2001-2011) and the statistical analysis of a survey carried out with 403 participants, who represent the practitioners working and having attended master programmes in ELT field within Turkish context as a relatively

modest group. As such, the findings of this research only reflect the rhetorical arrangement identified in the corpus examined and the perspectives of the practitioners determined in the ELT research territory, which results in a careful study on the results of the analysis, and therefore these findings should be confirmed with a larger corpus and a representative number of participants in order to verify whether the assumptions identified according to the results can be generalized.

An ethnographic study of Turkish practitioners would also be useful to clarify several issues on rhetorical organization of master theses. It would be interesting to understand why some researchers might choose to write their *theses* in English (Hirano, 2009; p.247). Finally, such research studies would illuminate the factors effecting practitioners on the study and use of English for Specific Purposes .

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APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1: Consent Form

Dear Colleague,

As a graduate of master of arts, you have experienced a writing process of academic manuscripts. As you and other graduates know, the content and organization of a manuscript are designed on the basis of presentation of ideas, expression, precision and clarity. In this respect, your response to this survey can greatly broaden our perspective.

The main aim of the study is to explore whether the authors from different academic institutions in Turkey employed the same rhetorical strategies to introduce the work presented in English through a genre analysis.

Your participation in this research is voluntary. Your confidentiality and anonymity are assured. Return of the survey to me is your consent for your responses to be compiled with others. Although the survey is coded to allow for follow-up with non-respondents, you will not be individually identified with your responses. Please understand that use of this data will be limited to this research, as authorized by Ataturk University, although results may ultimately be presented in formats other than the dissertation, such as journal articles or conference presentations. You also have the right to express concerns to me at the number below and, my advisor, Dr. Oktay YAĞIZ at the Department of English Language Teaching address shown in a parenthesis below, or the institutional board of Educational Sciences Institute.

We greatly appreciate your participation in this research. The survey will take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Please return the survey within two weeks.

Thank you for your interest and participation in this study. We genuinely appreciate your time.

Sincerely,

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APPENDIX 2: Scale

Dear Participant,

In the following section, we would like you to help us by answering the following questions concerning the content and organization of the introduction of a manuscript. There are a number of items with which we would like you to indicate your opinion after each item by putting [X] in the box that best indicates the extent to which you believe the item is important or unimportant according to the statement of each section. This is not a test so there are no "right" or "wrong" answers and you do not even have to write your name on it. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation.

For example: *How important would you rate the following factors in affecting the extent to which a manuscript is scientific?*

	1- Unimportant	2-Of LittleImportance	3-Moderately Important	4- Important	5- Very Important
Economy of expression	[]	[]	[X]	[]	[]
Precision	[]	[]	[]	[X]	[]
Coherence	[]	[]	[]	[X]	[]
Cohesion	[]	[]	[]	[]	[X]

I. Background Information

Please complete the following items as appropriate.

Institution:

Department:

Gender:

Female() Male()

Have you ever taken academic writing course? Yes() No()

II.Scale

A: *How important would you rate the following factors in best establishing the significance of a research area?*

	1- Unimportant	2-Of LittleImportance	3-Moderately Important	4- Important	5- Very Important
1.Claiming centrality (importance of topic)	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
2.Making topic generalization	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
3.Reviewing items of previous research	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
4.Explaining the institutional/research group context	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
5.Defining terms/classifying	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

B: *How important would you rate the following factors in best establishing the context where a particular piece of research makes particularly good sense?*

	1- Unimportant	2-Of LittleImportance	3-Moderately Important	4- Important	5- Very Important
6.Counter claiming(making a claim /cliams opposing to the results of previous studies)	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
7.Indicating a gap in research area	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
8.Question raising (raising a question, need or interest)	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
9.Continuing/extending a tradition (applyig or extending the findings of the previous studies)	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

C: How important would you rate the following factors in best making an offer to fill the gap?

	1- Unimportant	2-Of LittleImportance	3-Moderately Important	4- Important	5- Very Important
10.Outlining puposes, aims or objectives	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
11. Announcing present research(work done)	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
12. Announcing principal findings/results	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
13. Stating the significance/ justification of the study	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
14. Listing research questions or hypotheses	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
15. Explaining the thesis structure	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
16. explaining overall thesis structure	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
17. explaining chapter structure	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
18. explaining chapter contents	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
19. explaining chapter goal	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
20. Stating method/ materials/ subjects	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]
21. Stating limitations of research	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]

APPENDIX 3: Revised Create- A –Research- Space (CARS) Model (Swales, 2004)

Move 1: Establishing a territory (citations required)

Step 1. Topic generalisation of increasing specificity (i) Reporting conclusion of previous studies

(ii) Narrowing the field

(iii) Writer's evaluation of existing research

(iv) Time-frame of relevance

(v) Research objective/process previous studies (vi) Terminology/definitions

(vii) Generalising

(viii) Furthering or advancing knowledge

Move 2: Establishing the niche (citations possible)

Step 1A: Indicating a gap

Step 1B: Adding to what is known

Step 2: (optional) presenting positive justification

Move 3: Presenting the present work (citations possible)

Step 1: (obligatory) Announcing present work descriptively and/or purposively

Step 2^a: (optional) presenting Research Questions or hypotheses

Step 3: (optional) Definitional clarifications

Step 4: (optional) Summarising methods

Step 5: (PISF^b) Announcing principal outcomes

Step 6: (PISF) Stating the value of the present research Step 7: (PISF) Outlining the structure of the paper

New sub-categories are in italics.

^a Steps 2 to 4 are not only optional but less fixed in their order of occurrence than the others (Swales, 2004, p. 232).

^b In regard to Steps 5, 6, and 7, which “probably occur in some fields, but are unlikely in others” [PISF] Swales (2004, p. 232).

**APPENDIX 4: Soler-Monreal, Carbonell-Olivares, and Gil-Salom's model (2011)
(modified and adapted version of Swales' CARS model)**

Move 1: Establishing a Territory.

S1: Claiming centrality (importance of topic)
 S2: Making topic generalisations and giving background information
 SS2A: Indicating a problem/need
 SS2B: Indicating limitations
 SS2C: Giving examples
 SS2D: Defining terms/classifying and commenting on terminology
 SS2E: Giving or anticipating solutions (or ways to solve problems/to tackle needs) S3:
 Defining terms/classifying
 S4: Reviewing previous research
 S5: Explaining the institutional/research group context
 /Summarising previous background information/

Move 2: Establishing the niche

S1A: Indicating a gap in research
 S1B: Indicating a problem or need
 S1C: Question-raising
 S1D: Continuing/Extending a tradition

Move 3: Presenting the present work

S1: Purposes, aims or objectives
 S2: Work carried out/Announcing research
 SS2A: Work done
 SS2B: Work or aspects out of scope
 SS2C: Previous requirements
 S3: Field of research
 S4: Method/Parameters of research
 S5: Materials or Subjects
 S6: Findings or Results: Product of research/Model proposed/ Contributions/Solutions S7:
 Justification/Significance
 S8: Thesis structure
 SS8A: Overall thesis structure
 SS8B: Chapter structure
 SS8C: Chapter contents
 SS8D: Chapter goal
 /Research questions or Hypotheses/
 /Application of product/
 /Evaluation of product/
 /Defining terms/

~~SS~~ . / indicates a step which is occasionally present in the model developed for Spanish PhD theses introductions (Authors, 2009)
 Steps (S) and sub-steps (SS)

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