

**A Critical Genre Analysis of the Clinical Pharmacy
Master's Dissertation Discussion Chapter and its
Application to English for Specific Academic Purposes
Pedagogy.**

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Abstract

The master's dissertation is typically a key final assessment task on degree courses in the UK. Therefore, given its high stakes nature home and international students need to develop an understanding of its key rhetorical structures and metadiscourse features if they are to be successful in writing this key genre. Although research in the domain of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) has identified variation in the key features of academic genres across disciplines, there has been a lack of discipline specific research of assessment texts, such as, the master's dissertation. As an English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) lecturer I noticed a lack of pedagogically useful discipline specific, genre knowledge of the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation Discussion Chapter (DC). This part-genre of the dissertation is significant due to its critical synthesis of the dissertation's findings, previous research and discipline knowledge to demonstrate a student's competence in approaching subject knowledge according to the conventions of their discipline. In addition, this study analysed the Discussion Section of the research article (RA) key part-genre, as it is the paradigm for the academic writing conventions of the discipline.

This study explored the key rhetorical structural (*moves and steps*) and metadiscourse features of the dissertation Discussion Chapter part-genre in comparison with those of the RA Discussion Section in the discipline of Clinical Pharmacy. Knowing the former is important in understanding the features the student uses, whilst the latter offers a clue as to what students need to develop further particularly in terms of criticality. Thus, the study aims to appropriate such a sociolinguistic analysis as part of promoting a socio-constructivist English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) pedagogy relevant to academia. The hope is that this work might provide pedagogically useful insights that teachers could use to empower students in terms of mastering certain kinds of texts in order for them to reach their full potential in the dissertation assessment task. In addition, it could equip ESAP lecturers with a sociolinguistic metalanguage for describing HE assessment texts, which might support their engagement with genre analysis as a research approach and means of collaboration with discipline lecturers. Engaging with genre analysis might also become part of students' study skills as it affords learner autonomy.

Following Bhatia's Critical Genre Analysis (2017) approach, two data sets were created to explore this study's context and texts respectively. Data set 1 consisted of: transcripts of semi-structured interviews of the local discourse community's members (n-11); Clinical Pharmacy programme documentation; and English for Specific Academic Purposes resources. Data set 2 consisted of two corpora: a corpus of students' Discussion Chapters (n-11), and a corpus of RA Discussion Sections (n-17). A Genre Analysis

(Swales,1990) utilising Moreno and Swales' (2018) systematic, hierarchical coded model was conducted in both corpora. This provided empirical evidence (normed frequency) identifying the key rhetorical structural features of each corpus. In addition, Hyland and Tse's (2004) metadiscourse model enabled an analysis of the frequency of metadiscourse markers of criticality (*stance*) in both corpora. Application of Aristotle's Rhetoric (2007) as adapted by Gross and Chelsey (2012) enabled a discussion of the findings within a social activity of the Clinical Pharmacy discipline.

There was a marked difference in the word counts and presentation of the two corpora. The master's dissertation Discussion Chapter corpus' critical *steps* had a frequency of 38% of all steps, whilst in the RA corpus' normed frequency was higher at 45%. This 7% differential aligned with the programme lecturers' emphasis on the importance of developing criticality in dissertation writing. On the other hand, the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter corpus had a high frequency (62%) of neutral steps compared to that of the RA Discussion Section corpus' frequency of 55%. However, the rhetorical micro-structure had a similar total number of *neutral* and *critical step* types, with the 'Research reported neutrally' and the 'Evaluation' *steps* similar in normed frequency across both corpora. In contrast, other *neutral* and *critical step* types demonstrated variation across the corpora albeit sometimes nuanced. The *Findings report move* was found in all texts (*conventional*) in each corpus and at the same normed frequency (22%), which aligned with previous research studies' findings. Therefore, both corpora have a core of neutral *moves*. All other *moves* were found in all (*conventional*) of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter texts, whereas they were found in most of the RA texts.

Similarity in the frequency of *steps* and *moves* across the corpora indicates a shared academic convention for a neutral presentation of a writer's new findings, and an explicit critical stance of own and others' studies, and institutional guidelines. However, difference in the frequency of *steps* and *moves* across the corpora indicates areas where master's students would benefit from guidance on the development of criticality. These findings not only contribute to ESAP and discipline lecturers' pedagogy by emphasising the importance of understanding key rhetorical features and the use of appropriate metadiscourse, but also contribute to curriculum and assessment design across the HE sector with the use of Genre Analysis metalanguage. Critical Genre Analysis studies need to be repeated in other Clinical Pharmacy discourse communities, and those of other disciplines across HE in order to contribute to a more discipline specific genre knowledge of the master's dissertation and in particular its part-genre: the Discussion Chapter. This would also widen engagement with Genre Analysis in research and pedagogy.

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Acronyms

CGA - Critical Genre Analysis

EAP - English for Academic Purposes

ESAP - English for Specific Academic Purposes

ESP - English for Specific Purpose

ELT - English Language Teaching

EMI - English as a Medium of Instruction

DC - Discussion Chapter

DS - Discussion Section

HE - Higher Education

IELTS - International English Language Testing System

ISE – In-sessional English

L1 - First language (national language)

L2 - Second language (official or special purpose usage)

MD – master’s dissertation

PSE - Pre-sessional English

RA – research article

TESOL - Teaching English as a Second or Other Language

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1: Background

This study was conducted in the local discourse community of a Clinical Pharmacy master's programme in a UK post 1992 university. In 2023/2024, 32,000 students were studying at the university of whom 13,000 students were from 140 countries. The university was also involved in Transnational Education with 17 major partners around the world and has recently been awarded a King's Award for Enterprise in acknowledgement of the development of its internationalisation strategy. One of the foundations of the university's reputation is in the disciplines of postgraduate medical science including Pharmacy. In the 21st century global communication is often via texting, social media, emailing, online journalism and publishing. Therefore, writing is vital for communication with others. However, not only does standard English remain dominant in the global language environment, but also academic English has become the lingua franca in research publishing in the disciplines. This hegemony of academic English was supported by '131 journal articles ...published between 1990 and 2014' (Perez-Llantada, 2015:11).

Set within this global language background, and despite the constraints on Higher Education (HE) study during the recent Covid pandemic of 2019–2021, the number of first-year international postgraduates studying on taught programmes in the UK was 38% (243,560) (HESA, 2023) of all postgraduate students in the UK, by 2021/22 this had increased to 46% (326,150) (HESA, 2023). This relationship between international, postgraduate students and UK universities is mutually beneficial. For the former there is access to high value master's degrees in an anglophone environment, while for the latter there are intellectual and financial benefits (Universities UK, 2021a, 2021b, 2022c). However, this mutually beneficial relationship has proved unstable in the past as a result of global events, such as, the Covid 19 pandemic and changes in government politics. For example, the recent changes in UK visa regulations, which have resulted in a '13% drop in study applications in the year to the end of January' (*The Guardian*, 2025).

Over the course of two decades of teaching practice as an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) lecturer I noticed that some international and home students, some of whom were second language (L2) writers of English, lacked awareness and knowledge of the rhetorical structure and metadiscourse of key academic assessment genres. Therefore, in response to a specific practice concern described

later in this Chapter, this study's main purpose was to explore the key academic writing features of the highly weighted Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation assessment genre's Discussion Chapter (DC). A Critical Genre Analysis (Bhatia, 2017) approach was adopted. In this way, it was hoped to develop students' and my own genre awareness and knowledge (Tardy, 2006) through the development of English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) pedagogy.

To elaborate on the context, academic writing key features and purpose of this study this Chapter will consist of six further sections. Firstly, the context for this study will be described with consideration of the following factors: the significance of academic English as a global lingua franca in academia; the UK, international post-graduate student demographic; the effect of internationalisation and English Medium Instruction (EMI); and the testing of English language competence. Secondly, HE assessment and the importance of key academic written genres; the importance of student writers' development of an academic voice in order to meet the level of academic English language competency required for degree success; and the challenges some international students might experience in terms of educational background, language and cultural differences. Next, support for international students' academic writing development will be described focusing on the guidance derived from English for Specific Purposes (ESP) courses. Then the rationale for the study will be presented followed by a description of the specific practice concern. Finally, the aims of the study will be discussed leading to the research questions, with a brief commentary on the selection of appropriate methods.

1.2: Context and UK University Admission

The hegemony of English is a significant factor in the global language environment in which Standard and academic English have evolved and continue to do so today. Therefore, as an English for Specific Purposes lecturer I am mindful of the implications of further supporting the global dominance of English in the fields of power in society, such as, Business, Science, and Law in addition to the threat of a loss of other languages, cultures, and academic research. In the 21st century to publish research across the disciplines a researcher must be able to write according to the conventions of academic English. Therefore, at its worst English hegemony has as Phillipson (2013, 2016a) argues 'served a political imperialistic agenda'. On the other hand, from a pragmatic view English as a *global language* has afforded '... the construction of counter discourses in English and may offer remarkable potential for change' (Pennycook,

2001:84). In parallel with global changes in society there has been a parallel phenomenon of the development of *New Englishes*, such as, Indian or Chinese English (Crystal, 2003). These languages incorporate some of the grammar and lexical features of the first language (national) and were initially considered as dialects of English (Crystal, 2003). However, Pennycook (2001) argued that the evolution of Standard English into *New Englishes* or *World Englishes* demonstrated that: ‘... people around the world are not merely passive consumers of culture and knowledge but active creators’ (Pennycook, 2001:84). Despite the further development of *World* or *New Englishes*, *Standard English* is still seen as a global language and continues to spread across the world (Bhatt et al, 2022). In addition, an increase in English Medium Instruction (EMI) worldwide, often part of UK HE partnerships, has seen greater demand for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and ESAP programmes (Galloway, Sahan and McKinley, 2024; and Hoey, 2016) worldwide. Likewise, as noted earlier academic English remains the lingua franca of academic research. Therefore, in addition to holding the required degree qualifications in their discipline international students must demonstrate competence in English to be accepted onto a UK master’s degree programme.

One of the main testing systems used for evaluating English language competence in the UK HE sector is the ‘International English Language Testing System’ (IELTS), in which a score of IELTS 7 corresponds to ‘good’. IELTS was the preferred testing system at the university in which this study was conducted. However, if an international student’s home country utilised English as an official language, or first or second language the student does not always need an IELTS test as part of the entry requirements, for example, students from Kenya and Nigeria. Other tests (TOEFL and Pearson) might also be accepted, as might evidence of studying for a first degree in English at the discretion of the particular university. Those universities at the top of the UK university table may require an IELTS of 7.5 or 7 minimum, whilst those lower in the rankings may ask for 7, 6.5 or 6 depending on the discipline and whether the degree is at undergraduate or postgraduate level. If an international student’s English level is not at the required level for admission onto their chosen degree programme, then they can be offered a place on an appropriate pre-sessional English programme according to their current IELTS score. These courses enable students to reach a level equivalent to the required IELTS entry score for their programme, and are focused on academic English and study skills. In the UK pre-sessional English programmes usually consist of EAP or ESAP workshops, tutorials and drop-ins, either face to face or online post the 2019 Covid epidemic. The academic writing support provided after transition onto degree programmes will be discussed in more detail

later in this Chapter.

Implicit in this evaluation of competence in English language is the status of English in a student's home country, which is embedded in the complexity of the hegemonic presence of English in the global language environment. A student's English competence is often categorised according to spoken language terminology using terms, such as, 'native speaker' (NS) and 'non-native' speaker (NNS). The spoken language terms noted above are often still applied to students; even though, three decades ago Rampton (1990) recommended that the terms be removed 'from the linguist's set of professional myths' (Rampton, 1990:97). He presented a strong case for this, the crux of which is that:

The capacity for language itself may be genetically endowed, but particular languages are acquired in social settings. It is sociolinguistically inaccurate to think of people belonging to only one social group (Rampton, 1990:98).

In this way Rampton (1990) distinguished between *language inheritance* and *language allegiance* as the former: 'occurs within social boundaries and the latter across them' (Rampton, 1990:97). In addition, he acknowledged language in terms of: nationality, community, profession, and academic language usage. Thus, multilingual speakers could be identified as speaking in their *first language* (national language) or *second language* (official or of special purpose usage). Therefore, he recommended that educators: '... should speak of accomplished users as *expert* rather than as native speakers.' (Rampton, 1990: 98). The term *expert* speaker being inclusive and defined as a way of describing language proficiency with reference to particular characteristics. The first two of which reinforce the diversity of the *expert* speaker/writer:

1. Although they often do, experts do not have to feel close to what they know a lot about. Expertise is different from identification.
2. Expertise is learned, not fixed or innate (Rampton, 1990: 98).

Thus, this approach to terminology focuses on language knowledge, as Rampton (1990: 98) : 'shifts the emphasis from who you are to what you know'. Therefore, in this dissertation the term *expert writer* will be adopted where appropriate. However, although many international postgraduate students entering UK HE are multilingual and expert speakers/writers of English, EAP and academic discipline lecturers need a general idea of the level of students' English in order to design suitable curricula. Therefore, the acronyms L1 and L2 may be used as a

shorthand based on general knowledge of students' home countries' language environment, rather than individual students' specific language background; this is often only discovered whilst working with students. Therefore, the terms first language (L1) will be used in this study to express whether English is the national or official language of an individual's home country, rather than a second language (L2) albeit it may be the official or a special language, such as, in a nation's legal system. It is not the intention of this study to imply any degree of competence according to the numbering, rather it is used to inform the language background of students who are often multilingual. In this way, the possible challenges for some international and home students of writing in academic English in the disciplines is acknowledged.

1.3: HE Assessment and its Challenges for International Students

Although international students are not usually evaluated again by an IELTS test, their competence in academic English is assessed via the marking criteria of their degree programme. HE assessment tasks are usually in the form of a key academic written genre, such as, the essay, report, research proposal, poster, and dissertation. Indeed, these were the assessment tasks, undertaken over two semesters by students on the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme in which this study was set. As noted above, whether master's students transition directly onto a master's programme, or via pre-sessional programmes they will be assessed throughout their disciplinary programme. The dissertation being a key final assessment task on many postgraduate degree courses in UK Higher Education. According to Hyland (2004), the dissertation is for some international students:

... a high stakes genre at the summit of a student's academic accomplishment
... which represents what is potentially achievable by individuals writing in a
language that is not their own (Hyland, 2004:134).

Given the high stakes nature of the master's dissertation both international and home students need to develop an understanding of its key rhetorical structures (Swales, 1990; Moreno and Swales, 2018) and metadiscourse (Hyland and Tse, 2004), if they are to be successful in writing this key assessment genre. However, in the domain of ESP research, variation has been reported across disciplines in the paradigm of key rhetorical academic writing features in the key part-genres, of the much studied RA (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988; Swales, 1990; Peacock, 2002; Moreno and Swales, 2018). In particular the rhetorical structure of the

Introduction and Discussion Chapters. According to (Hyland, 2005, 2017), differences between the academic writing conventions of disciplines has also been noted in other key academic writing features including: citation and metadiscourse use. Despite this several researchers have noted the lack of discipline specific research into the rhetorical structure of the master's dissertation (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988; Swales, 1990; Yang and Allinson, 2003; Basturkmen, 2009; Moreno and Swales, 2018; and Hashemi and Moghaddam, 2019). Therefore, the master's dissertation remains an under researched genre across the disciplines, leaving a gap in *genre knowledge* (Tardy, 2006:79) of a key HE assessment task.

However, students need to develop an academic *voice* and appropriate expression of *stance* in their chosen discourse community, as this would demonstrate not only an awareness of the academic voice of their discourse community, but also of the discipline's knowledge type, context, and research approach. Thus, differences in these discipline features are thought to create variation in the level of academic writing skill required (Flowerdew, 2015). For instance, Biology is seen as more demanding than other scientific disciplines, such as, Chemistry and Mathematics (Flowerdew, 2015). Thus, students experience a process of *acculturation* (Berry, 2017) into not only their chosen discipline's knowledge and practice, but also the academic writing conventions of their discourse community. Some students may find this challenging as will be discussed in further detail in Chapter 2. These challenges might be due in part to their educational and cultural backgrounds not mirroring the conventions of UK academia.

Firstly, in terms of educational background there might be differences in assessment genres, and a lack of explicitness regarding UK HE assessment tasks. These may leave students 'feeling that they are having to learn to play a game of which the rules remain hidden' (Read, Francis and Robson, 2001:397). For example, Read, et al (2001) reported that only 38% (n=45) of the undergraduate final year History undergraduate participants interviewed received explicit information about assessment requirements. As reported earlier, Read et al's (2001) study found that where marking schemes were made available half of the students stated they had not seen them, and of those who had only a few found them to be helpful. The latter may be due to a lack of depth and transparency in the criteria descriptors. For example, according to (Hyland, 2012:134), '*voice*, acknowledges the authorised ways of speaking as a community member.' However, in Read et al's (2001:393) study only '... 44% of the sample (n=20) considered the presentation of the student's academic '*voice*' as crucial to receiving a first-

class grade.’ This is despite Read, et al’s (2001) participants being home (UK residents) students (L1 or L2 speakers of English) [Immigrants to the UK are identified as home students five years after arrival in UK].

Therefore, the lack of transparency in assessment briefing and marking criteria has recently received attention, with an exploration of some of the issues by several Academic Literacies’ researchers (McGrath, Negretti, and Nicholls, 2019; McGrath, Donaghue and Negretti, 2023; and McGrath, and Donaghue, 2025) Firstly, McGrath, Negretti, and Nicholls (2019) report that lecturers listed the importance of a writer’s knowledge of: ‘audience expectations; values of the discipline; purpose of the genres; and desirable author’s attributes’ (McGrath, Negretti, and Nicholls, 2019: 849-850). However, the study noted that:

... participants were not aware of the scope of the requirements inherent in the assignments they set, or could not articulate those requirements beyond content knowledge (McGrath, Negretti, and Nicholls, 2019: 850).

This appears to be due to the lecturers accruing their own expertise in academic writing through tacit knowledge. McGrath et al (2019) conclude that it is important for universities to establish greater collaboration between discipline and ESAP lecturers in order to develop a more integrated delivery of academic writing knowledge in the disciplines. According to McGrath, Donaghue and Negretti (2023), such collaboration could be introduced into early career discipline lecturers’ practice during the professional development programmes of UK universities. In addition, McGrath, and Donaghue (2025:1) report that the writing of assessment criteria requires lecturers to have: an awareness of their expectations; the metalanguage to communicate those expectations; and a clear rubric. This might not only inform the lecturer in the design of assessment tasks, but also the creation of a marking scheme and hence, the grading of the assessment task.

Secondly, L2 international students may find there are barriers to adopting the academic voice of their discourse community due to: confusable lexis across languages; cultural preferences in the structuring of an argument; and the use of Hedging or Certainty metadiscourse. Similar issues may also resonate with L1 and L2 home students especially those who have attended state schools. Much has been written about the expression of a writer’s *identity* in academic

writing in terms of *voice* and *stance* both in professional and academic registers including the work of the following authors: Ivanic (1998); Read, Francis, and Robson (2001); Canagarajah (2004); Hyland and Sancho Guinda (2012); Tardy (2012); and Hyland (2015). Therefore, this dissertation will explore the literature relevant to the development of the student's academic *voice* later in Chapter 2. The next section of this Chapter will discuss the provision of academic writing support in UK Higher Education.

1.4: Academic Writing Support

Across the UK HE sector many pre-sessional and in-sessional programmes follow an ESP pedagogy, either in the form of an EAP or ESAP approach. The former addresses general academic language across disciplines, whilst the latter is designed to meet the specific academic language needs within a discipline. Both of these approaches arose from the field of English Language Teaching, a comprehensive account of which has been provided by two leaders in the field: Swales (1990, 2000) and Hyland (2007a). These courses have been described as mainly '...task based, using the kind of academic tasks commonly found in Higher Education' (Gillett and Wray, 2006:6). They aim to develop students' confidence and skills in the writing of a variety of academic assessment genres, such as, essays, reports; proposals; and dissertations (Gillett and Wray, 2006; Pilcher, 2006; and Hyland, 2015). In the university in which this study was conducted, discipline specific courses were found to provide relevant support for international and home students particularly when embedded within the Schools of Business, Art and Design, Nursing, and Pharmacy.

In this way equity in HE between international and home students of different levels of academic English expertise can be developed. The value of *equity* in HE has come to prominence since being added to the two fundamental concepts of *validity* and *reliability* (Nisbet, 2018). Equity is defined in the Cambridge dictionary (2018) as: '...the situation in which everyone is treated fairly and equally: a society based on equity and social justice'. According to Nisbet (2018), the definition of Equity in Education should be based on a: 'conceptual analysis of fairness in assessment (as understood by assessment theorists), and fairness/justice in society (as understood by philosophers)'. Nisbet (2018) noted that Equity in Education '...is linked to construct irrelevance at the design stage ...' and has emphasised the need for 'fairness by design' (Nisbet, 2018). Thus, the necessity for *content validity* to include *curricular validity* (Yalow and Popham, 1983, as cited by Nesbit, 2018). In other words, you can't test what you haven't taught. However, interpretations of fairness are

complex and have been reviewed by Nisbett and Shaw (2019) both in terms of individuals and groups. The notion of *equity* resonates with the situation of many novice L1 and L2 home and international students in HE, where there appears to be an unfair assumption that academic writing ability is gained tacitly rather than by study. Therefore, academic writing guidance plays an important part in supporting novice L1 and L2 home and international students.

However, as both the disciplines of Education and Applied linguistics are relatively new research disciplines they are still developing their discipline knowledge, theories, and practice. Therefore, there are gaps in genre knowledge and pedagogy regarding the rhetorical conventions of academic writing. Such gaps in discipline genre knowledge might have greater significance for particular demographics of students, such as, L2 international students. Therefore, it is important that the key HE assessment genres should be explored in terms of the academic conventions of discipline *discourse communities* (Swales, 1990; Swales and Feak 2000; and Bhatia, 2008, 2017). This aligns with Hyland's (2017:2) recommendation for more subject-focused 'English in the Discipline courses', and Ivanic's (1998) recommendation that: 'All writing classes should be 'socially situated' (Ivanic, 1998: 339). In addition, Flowerdew and Wang (2015) argue that:

In the post-process era, teaching and learning are no longer conceptualized as simply a cognitive process, but also a situated social practice during which novice members of communities develop new identities through 'legitimate peripheral practice' (Lave and Wenger, 1991, cited in Flowerdew and Wang, 2015:82).

This brings us to the rationale behind this research study's pedagogical purpose.

1.5: Rationale

Over the course of two decades of teaching practice as an EAP and ESAP lecturer I had noticed that some international and home students, who were often second language (L2) speakers/writers of English, lacked awareness and knowledge of the rhetorical structure and metadiscourse of the key academic genres of their disciplines. For example, the essay, report and dissertation genres which were important HE assessment tasks in undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. Therefore, the concept of genre was central to this study and will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2. A lack of genre knowledge was also manifested in: my

own teaching practice; the results of the School of Pharmacy's undergraduate academic writing diagnostic, entry tests (2005 - 2009); the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation drafts; students' comments in writing workshops; and the programme lecturers' concerns about student writing. Therefore, during my MATESOL (2007) studies I conducted a small-scale study into the rhetoric structure, and key metadiscourse features of RAs in a high-profile Pharmacy journal. This provided knowledge of the discipline's academic conventions in the use of metadiscourse and the overall structure of a report. The experience of applying the Genre Analysis approach (Swales, 1990) and the use of a concordancer, was transferred into the current study, which focused on my practice concern as described in the next section of this Chapter.

1.6: Practice Concern

Over a decade, in my role as the Academic Skills Tutor for the School of Pharmacy I worked with students on two programmes: a Pharmacy four year degree undergraduate plus final year master's degree programme (mostly home students), and a Clinical Pharmacy master's programme (mostly international students). I noticed that some students were unsure of how to organise their dissertation Discussion Chapter. During a discussion with students in a Clinical Pharmacy Dissertation writing workshop we agreed with reference to an essay model on a five-move structure which could be repeated for each theme within the Results/Findings section. However, after the session I referred to academic writing guides and noted a shortfall in *part-genre knowledge* (Tardy, 2006), of the rhetorical structure and use of metadiscourse markers, relevant to the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation part-genre: the Discussion Chapter. For example, in Swales and Feak's (2000) book *English in Today's Research World* there was an analysis of a master's dissertation Discussion Chapter from the discipline of Business, but not an example from a medical science discipline. Interestingly, Swales and Feak (2000) indicated the challenge of writing a dissertation Discussion Chapter by entitling that section of their seminal book as: 'The Problematic Final Chapter' (Swales and Feak, 2000: 218). In which they noted the importance of the Discussion Chapter providing a 'higher and broader pass' (Swales and Feak, 2000:2019a) which they described as consisting of the following functions:

- a) handles most of the main findings at a fairly abstract level of generality;
- b) identifies one or two key findings for more detailed treatment;
- c) situates the findings on the current research front;

- d) highlights any theoretical contributions and implications;
- e) consider in detail practical applications and implementations.

(Swales and Feak, 2000a: 219).

During my literature research I discovered that ESP researchers (Hopkins and Dudley Evans, 1988; Swales, 1990; Basturkmen, 2009; and Moreno and Swales, 2018) had noted this gap in part-genre knowledge of not only the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter (DC), but also, the RA Discussion Section (DS) too. These research studies and the genre models they applied will be reviewed in detail later in Chapter 3. As far as I know only Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1988) and Basturkmen (2009) have analysed the rhetorical structural features of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter. Following the ESP praxis research approach, I decided to conduct a study to explore the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation DC's key academic writing features. The reasons for the selection of the Genre Analysis model used in this study will be discussed later in Chapter 4. In this way, I hoped to develop the Clinical Pharmacy students' and my own part-genre knowledge, so I could develop relevant discipline specific ESAP pedagogy to address a possible fairness issue for novice L2 academic writers with the highly weighted dissertation assessment task.

1.7: Aims and Research Questions

This study's main purpose was to explore the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation Discussion Chapter (DC), in order to enable the development of students' and my own *part-genre knowledge* of its key rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features. In this way students could be empowered to achieve their full potential in the highly weighted master's dissertation assessment task. Therefore, this study might not only contribute to the development of genre knowledge regarding the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation DC, but also have implications for the development of ESAP and discipline lecturers' pedagogy. As noted previously in this Chapter, to achieve this study's aims it was necessary to also explore a sample of RA Discussion Sections (DSs) associated with the master's dissertation DC corpus. In this way, I hoped to determine the academic writing norms and standards of the Clinical Pharmacy discipline's *discourse community* (Killingsworth, 1992) a term which will be defined and explored later in Chapter 2. This exploration of the RA DS was necessary because according to Genre Analysis Theory (Swales, 2004) genres occur as part of 'constellations' of genres as will be described further in Chapter 2. In addition, although the

research article (RA) was utilised as an exemplar of academic writing in the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme's discourse community, I was as stated earlier concerned that it might not demonstrate the rhetorical features required of the master's dissertation DC. This had been previously noted by other researchers who describe the master's dissertation and RA as different genres, with the former's communicative purpose being to demonstrate a student's subject knowledge and ability to communicate using the academic writing conventions of their discipline (Hyland, 2004; Lee and Casal, 2014; Moreno and Swales, 2018). In addition, the main reader of the master's dissertation is the student's supervisor who is also their examiner (Hyland, 2004; Lee Casal, 2014). On the other hand, the RA's communicative purpose is to inform and disseminate a researcher's current research findings to a reader, who is mainly an expert member of the discipline's discourse community. Thus, my secondary practice concern could be resolved by encompassing the RA DS in this study's Research Questions. Thus, four of the Research Questions below explored the key academic writing features of both part-genres: master's dissertation DC, whilst Research Question 5 considered the possible reasons for any variation in the use of these features.

1. What are the key rhetorical structural features of a Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation Discussion Chapter and Discussion Sections of the research articles (RAs) they cite (*intertextuality*)?
2. What variation, if any, is observed in the rhetorical structural features of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter and the Discussion Sections of the RAs they cite (*intertextuality*)?
3. What are the key rhetorical metadiscourse features of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter and the Discussion Sections of the RAs they cite (*intertextuality*)?
4. What variation, if any, can be observed between key rhetorical metadiscourse of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapters and the Discussion Sections of the RAs they cite (*intertextuality*)?
5. How can the selection of key rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features in the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation Discussion Chapter be explained in terms of its context (*interdiscursivity*)?

Research Questions 1 to 4 listed above required the study to conduct a Genre Analysis of the key rhetorical and metadiscourse features, whilst research Question 5 required an ethnographically oriented approach (Hyland, 2002a). Thus, a Critical Genre Analysis (Bhatia,

2017) was conducted as it encompassed both approaches. In this way, *intertextuality between* the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS part-genres was explored. *Intertextuality* has been defined as the influence of key genres on other genres within a discourse community's *genre network* or across discourse community's (Bakhtin, 1986; Fairclough, 1993; Bazerman, 2003; Hyland, 2007a; Bhatia, 2017). The concept of genre networks will be discussed further later in a review of Genre Analysis Theory (Swales, 1990) in Chapter 2. In this study, this concept enabled an exploration of the influence of the RA DS on the master's dissertation DC via Genre Analysis.

Following Bhatia's (2008, 2017) argument for the importance of contextual reasons, Research Question 5 addressed the *interdiscursivity* of the master's dissertation Clinical Pharmacy DC. *Interdiscursivity* is defined by Bhatia's (2017) as: 'the function of an appropriation of generic resources, primarily contextual (text-external) in practices as well as professional cultures' (Bhatia (2017:170). Therefore, the practices and professional culture of the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme's *local discourse community* (Killingsworth, 1992) were explored. Firstly, the norms and standards of the academic writing conventions of the local discourse community were explored via the programme's documentation: programme and module handbooks; assessment briefing; and academic writing support resources. Secondly, the local discourse community's members' perceptions of the master's dissertation were collected, along with the ethos and principles of the professional institution they serve. In this way, possible reasons for the way in which the master's dissertation DC is written could be considered and discussed in Chapter 7: the Discussion.

1.8: Dissertation organisation

The remainder of this dissertation will be organised into seven further chapters. **Chapter 2** (Literature Review) will review the study's four key concepts: Discourse Analysis and Genre; Genre Analysis Theory; Discourse Community; and Pedagogy. **Chapter 3** (Previous Research Studies) will review previous research studies of the rhetorical structure and metadiscourse features of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter (DC) and the RA (DS). **Chapter 4** (Methodology) will present the study's: context; a discussion of the underpinning methodological and pedagogical reasoning for the selection of this study's CGA (Bhatia, 2017) approach; and an overview of the study's mixed methods and ethics approach. **Chapter 5** (The Local Discourse Community) will describe the local discourse community's context including:

a brief review of scientific writing, followed by a report on the interdiscursivity of the Clinical Pharmacy's master's programme's local discourse community (student profile; norms and standards of academic writing; and academic writing guidance). **Chapter 6** (Findings) will present the findings of this study's CGA in terms of: text presentation; microstructure (steps); macrostructure (moves); and use of *Interactive* and *Interactional* (Hyland and Tse, 2004) metadiscourse. **Chapter 7** (The Discussion) will then discuss the Genre Analysis findings in relation to contextual factors, and the transfer of part-genre knowledge into pedagogy, and an evaluation of the study's limitations will be provided. Finally, **Chapter 8** (The Conclusion) will sum up the study's key findings, and their implications for my own ESAP practice, ESAP practice in general, potential further research will be considered. Recommendations will be offered, and the study's contribution noted.

Chapter 2: Discourse Analysis and Genre, Genre Analysis Theory, Discourse Community, and Pedagogy.

2.1: Introduction

This Chapter will review literature that has explored the four key concepts that form this study's framework: Discourse Analysis, Genre Analysis Theory, Discourse Community, and Pedagogy. Although separated into different sections of this chapter, they are overlapping in nature. Firstly, this study sought to select an appropriate discourse analysis approach to explore the rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features of a master's dissertation Discussion Chapter (DC). Secondly, Genre Analysis Theory (Swales, 1990) afforded a systematic framework, that facilitated the transfer of the study's findings into a socio-constructivist pedagogy to meet the needs of students. In addition, the concept of discourse community enabled consideration of possible reasons for the academic writing conventions of key part-genres situated within an HE discipline. Finally, ESP socio-constructivist pedagogy enables a direct transfer of *genre knowledge* from this study's findings to students and lecturers. Thus, this study argues for more Genre Analysis of the part-genres of key assessment genres in HE leading to further pedagogical development of ESAP programmes embedded in master's programmes in the disciplines.

2.2: Discourse Analysis and Genre

In this study *discourse* is considered to be a broad term that expresses the two key features of communication, whether it is spoken or written. Firstly, it is a social activity between individuals or groups: *dialogic* (Bakhtin, 1981). Secondly, it is a sharing of knowledge and experience with others who may hold different views and opinions: the *dialectic* (Fairclough, 1993, 2012). The term *discourse analysis* coined by Harris (1952) has been described as the search for: 'language rules which would explain how sentences were connected within a text by a kind of extended grammar' (Cook (1989:13). Likewise, Bhatia (1993) defined *discourse analysis* as: '...a study of language use beyond sentence boundaries...' (Bhatia 1993:3). However, *discourse analysis* has often been used synonymously with *text analysis*, the latter meaning the relationship between language (form/grammar) and its purpose (function) in a text (Van Dijk, 1972). The development of discourse analysis can be accredited to three researchers from different disciplines: Malinowski (anthropology); Halliday (socio-functional linguistics); and Swales (Applied Linguistics, ESP). Firstly, Malinowski's (1960) research

evidenced that language could not be truly understood by language analysis alone, but also required an underlying appreciation of the particular situation and culture within which it occurs. Secondly, Halliday's (1994) description not only of sentence level lexical patterning (grammar), but also a text level structural pattern was fundamental. Finally, Swales' (2000) significant part in the expansion of ESP research and pedagogy, when in the 1960s teachers found an increasing student need for *technical language* (Geertz, 1973; Swales, 2000). Thus, in the 1970s *discourse analysis* came to prominence in the field of Applied Linguistics, whilst spoken discourse analysis has had a far longer history originating in ancient Greece and Rome (Cook, 1989). Aristotle's (2007) study of senate speeches still resonates today with its application in research studies' exploration of authorial *stance* in academic writing (Gross and Chesley, 2012), and the *dialectic* nature of discourse (Fairclough, 2012).

Following its original application in the disciplines of poetics and composition the term *genre* has been applied as a key term in discourse analysis to classify text types (Swales, 1990). However, the definition of 'genre' has differed according to the interpretation ascribed to it by the various discourse analysis approaches in which it is used. For example, Critical Discourse Analysis (Fairclough, 2012) considers the social and power relationships conveyed through texts and the spoken word (in conversations, interviews and speeches) with texts sometimes referred to as genres. However, no particular definition seems to be attributed to the term. On the other hand, the Academic Literacies research and teaching approach, which is *writer-oriented* (Hyland, 2002:6), appears to use genre as a classification of academic text types mainly focusing on the RA and other expert written texts. However, I believe that discourse analysis of genres should not be exclusive to the expert written RA genre, but should include student written key assessment genres in the disciplines. In ESP the two go hand in hand with Genre Analysis affording a comparison between students' assessment genres, such as, the dissertation and the key RA genre of expert writers in their disciplines. Thus, taking a text in context approach to research that can be continued into ESAP pedagogy.

Three other discourse analysis approaches, the New Rhetoric (NR); Systemic Functional Linguistic (SFL); and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approaches have all developed particular interpretations of *genre*. Firstly, the NR approach is based on a *dialogic* (Bakhtin, 1986) perspective of discourse, that views genre in terms of the expert writer of composition and professional texts (Hyland, 2004b, Flowerdew, 2005). Within these registers the NR approach explores the relationship between genre, culture, and social power, as according to

Freedman and Medway (1994) students need to be aware of more than ‘the formal trappings of the *genres* they need to work in’ (Freedman and Medway,1994:11-12). NR research often involves ethnographic methods of interviewing and observation of expert writers (Flowerdew, 2005; and Lillis, 2008). However, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995:323) state that their research approach: ‘embraces both the form and content of *genre knowledge* as consistent with the ESP approach’. Thus, creating an approach that includes the strengths of both NR and ESP.

Secondly, the Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL) approach derived from Halliday’s *Theory of Transitivity* (1994) has applied its pedagogy mainly in schools and in teaching adult learners (Martin, 1997; Lock and Lockhart, 1998; Rappa and Tang, 2018). This approach views linguistics as a set of systems for creating meaning in context, with genre viewed as ‘a staged, goal oriented, social process’ (Martin, 2001). However, the genres of SFL are not academic texts, such as, the essay, proposal, or report, but are the *elemental genres* which make up the familiar text types of informal and formal communication in society: personal letters, police reports, insurance claims and incident reports which Martin (1997:16) termed *macro-genres*. The functional grammar and structure of the elemental genres has been explored by Lock and Lockhart (1998) and Rappa and Tang (2018). For example, the *Recount*, which is the reconstruction of past experiences in a chronological sequence is subdivided into *stages* as demonstrated below:

Orientation - provides information about a situation

Record of Events - presents events in temporal sequence

Reorientation - brings events into the present (Lock and Lockhart, 1998)

However, the SFL analysis of texts tends not to be related to their socio-cultural context (Hyland, 2004).

Finally, the ESP Genre Analysis theoretical framework (Swales, 1990) views *genres* as key text types in academic disciplines, and professional fields (Swales, 1990, 2000; Bhatia, 1993, 2017; and Hyland, 2004b). For example, in academia key genres include: essays, reports, proposals and dissertations (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2004b) whilst in professional contexts, such as, the legal profession *genres* include: contracts, witness statements, and affidavits (Bhatia, 2017). ESP research is text-oriented and employs genre analysis to identify key

features of rhetorical structure and language that may be problematic for some students. Thus, the meaning of the term *genre* differs according to the perspective of the discourse analysis approach adopted by the researcher. The significance of these different theoretical and methodological research approaches will be considered further in Chapter 4, in relation to the selection of this study's *Genre Analysis* approach based on Genre Analysis Theory (Swales, 1990) which will be the focus of this Chapter's next section.

2.3: Genre Analysis Theory

As described earlier in Chapter 1, Swales' introduction of Genre Analysis Theory (Swales, 1990) resulted in the development of ESP research and pedagogy in terms of academic disciplines, and professional fields (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 2000). According to Swales (1990) *genres* in terms of Genre Analysis Theory (Swales, 1990) are those texts that are commonly found within the shared writing of academic disciplines and professional fields. Swales (1990) proposed a two dimensional hierarchical move/step structural framework. This study adopted Bhatia's (1993) definition of *genre* as it reinforces the flexibility of *genres* as social actions which respond to events in time, rather than static objects (Widdowson, 2003).

Taking Genre, after Swales (1981b, 1985 and 1990), it is a recognisable communicative event in the professional [or academic] community in which it occurs. Most often it is highly structured and conventionalised with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form and functional value. These constraints, however, are often exploited by the expert members of the community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognised purpose(s) (Bhatia, 1993:13).

This definition supports the concept of *genres* as being flexible in their features, to accommodate the needs of a specific discourse community's members, perhaps in response to a change in external factors over time (Widdowson, 2003). This supports my own ontological view of writing as a social activity that evolves over time due to contextual changes.

Furthermore, Swales' (1990) Genre Analysis Theory proposes a two-dimensional, hierarchical *genre* structural framework consisting of *moves* and *steps*. Following Moreno and Swales (2018:40) this study adopted Swales' (2004) definition of *moves* and *steps* as follows:

the discoursal or rhetorical units performing coherent communicative functions in texts' whose linguistic realizations may be very variable in length and and in other ways' (Swales, 2004: 228-229).

In addition, following Moreno and Swales (2018) this study adopted, Biber, Connor and Upton's (2007) definition of *steps* as: 'together, or in some combination, realize the move' in other words they express the move's communicative purpose. (Biber, Connor and Upton 2007:24, cited in Moreno and Swales (2018:40). A prime example of this framework is its application by ESP researchers in the analysis of the RA part-genre: the Introduction Chapter. Although early research explored this part-genre as if it were a genre. Thus, Swales (1990) developed the Creating a Research Space (CaRS) model, which has been a useful structural framework utilised in ESP pedagogy in HE worldwide. The move/step framework has been adopted by many researchers including: Dudley-Evans (1994); Yang and Allison (2003); Buckingham and Liu (2018); and Hashemi and Moghaddam (2019). In this study following more recent terminology, the master's dissertation DC and RA DS are considered as part-genres (Moreno and Swales, 2018), of the master's dissertation and RA genres.

Thus, Swales' (1990) hierarchal framework has afforded the exploration of rhetorical features of academic writing, as it enables comparisons to be made in and across HE disciplinary genres. In addition, when contextualised the Genre Analysis framework, enables a 'thicker' description of genres than register analysis as:

genre analysis does not simply reveal which forms are *manifested* but how they *realize*, make real, the conceptual and rhetorical structures, modes of thought and action (Widdowson, 2003:69).

However, Widdowson (2003:69) points out that genres are not static in nature but: 'are in reality socio-cultural processes, continually in flux' affected by time and events.' In other words, no genre consists of identical features even within a particular context. In addition, Swales (1990:49) proposed that there was a *genre continuum*, in which there are a range of examples from *prototypical* to *atypical*. According to Bhatia (2017):

[this] implies that any comprehensive and useful understanding of discourses of this kind must necessarily be informed by the perceptions, experiences and practices of the professional [or academic] community (Bhatia (2017:67):

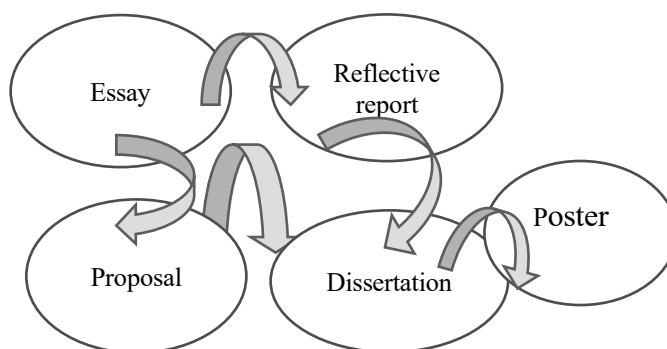
This view of genre as a result of social action is supported by Bazerman's (1983) seminal research of the evolution of the RA genre in which he concludes that:

As literature and knowledge represented by the literature accumulated and locuses of discussion emerged, the discussion itself changed in character (Bazerman, 1983:4, cited in Swales, 1990:113).

In other words, scientists communicated with each other using a shared language within their disciplines' discourse communities, whilst in parallel developing a language that reflected their disciplines' specific knowledge and research approaches, and accounted for the inevitable changes that would occur (Bazerman, 1983). Probably the most recent example of this evolution of discourse community writing conventions is in the discipline of Computer Science.

Two other phenomena identified in relation to genres are: *intertextuality* (Hyland, 2007a) and *hybridisation*. Firstly, Bazerman (1994) envisaged academic genres as part of a 'web of texts against which each new text is placed or places itself, explicitly or implicitly' (Bazerman, 2003). Some researchers prefer different analogies for this phenomenon, such as, *constellations* (Swales, 1990) or *network* of texts. Each analogy conjures up a specific feature of this phenomenon: a 'web' portrays the idea of a central text that exhibits and controls the academic writing conventions of the discourse community; whilst the use of 'constellations' conveys the concept of genres in discrete discourse communities 'network' highlights the connectivity between texts. The latter has been adopted in this study as it represents a socio-cultural view of writing in a discourse community. Therefore, in this study the master's dissertation HE assessment genre and its part-genres were part of a network of other key academic written assessment genres: the essay, reflective report, proposal and poster (see Figure1 below).

Figure 1: Diagram of the Network of Clinical Pharmacy Master's Written Assessment Genres.



A second phenomenon exhibited by genres, in professional, and academic discourse communities is that of *hybridisation* (Bhatia, 2001:69). This appears to be a result of an increase in competitiveness across business, academia and research fields, set in the multi-media, technological world of the 21st century (Bhatia, 2001). This observation aligns with the ‘marketisation of the discursive practices of British universities’ (Fairclough, 1993: 143). In other words, genres of different fields and registers may mix or merge to produce a more persuasive hybrid genre (Bhatia, 2001, 2017). Another significant phenomenon is the variation of rhetorical structure and metadiscourse use across and within disciplines according to research design (Hoshemi and Moghaddam, 2019). These three genre phenomena underpin the necessity for the development of students’ and teachers’ genre awareness and knowledge.

Thus, Genre Analysis Theory has underpinned ESP research and pedagogy with its systematic framework, that enables students to understand the academic writing conventions of their chosen discipline. Genre Analysis pedagogy has not only provided guidance for international students (Cheng, 2008; Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 2001), but also home students studying in their discipline discourse communities. Bhatia (2001) argues that genre knowledge empowers students and lecturers: ‘[to] exploit and innovate novel generic forms’ (Bhatia (2001:67). Therefore, as an ESAP teacher/researcher I hope to facilitate the development of students’ genre knowledge via relevant pedagogical resources. This will be discussed further in the next section of this Chapter in relation to the concept of disciplines as discourse communities, and the variation observed in key genres and part-genres across academic disciplines. Thus, evidencing the specificity of academic writing conventions and academic practices.

2.4: Discourse Community

2.4.1: The Concept

The contextual and social aspects of academic writing in discourse communities have long been observed by ESP teachers. For example, Pilcher (2011) described the dissertation as an ‘elusive chameleon’ (Pilcher, 2011:29) in that it can change according to the needs of a discipline, topic, supervisor, and student. Thus, it makes a very useful assessment genre for the evaluation of a student’s knowledge (Pilcher, 2011). In addition, authors of English language course books and guides have commented, that the reasons for specificity are difficult to know so it is difficult to select appropriate generic language rules across the

disciplines (Bailey, 2015; Day, 2013). This may be because different disciplines ‘value different kinds of argument and set different writing tasks’ (Hyland, 2018:15).

As noted earlier in this Chapter discourse is a broad term that expresses the dialogic and dialectic features of communication, whether it is spoken or written. In other words, written discourse is communication that occurs to create meaning between a writer and reader, who might not share the same views or opinions. This results in specific conventions of academic writing developing in different local discourse communities. Although a contested term, *discourse community* has been adopted by ESP researchers to describe the academic disciplines, as it enables an exploration of their specific academic writing conventions (Swales, 1990); Hyland, 2002a; Bhatia, 1993; 2017; and Swales and Feak, 2000). The term resonates with my own ontological view of academic writing as a *social activity* (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2015) situated in a specific community of practice (Lave and Wenger, 1991:102). According to Swales (1990), a *discourse community* consists of a membership of like-minded individuals who share an interest in a particular field of study, profession, or workplace. One of the earliest uses of the term is accredited to Wittgenstein’s (1958, cited in Swales, 1990:21) ‘Philosophical Investigations’.

Swales (1990) recommends a list of criteria which could be useful in identifying a *discourse community* as follows:

- ... has a broadly agreed set of common public goals
- ... has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members
- ... uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback
- ... utilizes and hence processes one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims
- ... In addition to owning genres. A discourse community has acquired some specific lexis.
- ... Has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discursual expertise ... depends on a reasonable ratio between novices and experts (abridged from, Swales, 1990, 24-27).

In addition, discourse communities can be described as *local* and *global* (Killingsworth, 1992). For example, the discipline and profession of Clinical Pharmacy is *global*, whereas the Clinical

Pharmacy master's programme in this study's university is a *local discourse community*. Thus, this study adopted the terms local and global *discourse community* as it affords a way to analyse a genre as a text in context (Malinowski, 1960; Swales, 1990; Flowerdew and Wan, 2010; and Bhatia, 2008, 2017). In this way, a valid understanding of a sentence/utterance can be achieved as it includes three pieces of information: 'description of sentence, context and culture' (Malinowski, 1969:152). Thus, the concept of discourse community provides a way to address one of the main criticisms of ESP pedagogy: its lack of knowledge of the context of disciplines in the professions and academia. (Bhatia, 2008). This limitation of ESP pedagogy had previously been noted by Faigley and Hansen (1985) who recommended that to prepare students for writing across the disciplines English teachers:

... have to explore why those disciplines study certain subjects, why certain methods of inquiry are sanctioned, how the conventions of a discipline shape a text in that discipline, how individual writers represent themselves in a text, how a text is read and disseminated (Faigley and Hansen, 1985:149).

Likewise, Ivanic (1998: 339) suggested that in practice: 'All writing classes should be 'socially situated', whilst Hyland (2006a) has argued for recognition of the specificity of disciplinary discourse (Hyland, 2006a). In addition, Bhatia (2008) has argued for the necessity of an in-depth determination of the practices within the context of any Genre Analysis study. Bhatia (2008) observed that such research into: 'text-external factors' (*interdiscursivity*) has found that: 'an integration of discursive and professional practices of professions, often complement each other' (Bhatia, 2008:162). More recent research studies, including that of: Flowerdew and Wan (2010); Li and Chiu, (2016); Swales (2018); and Hyland (2018) have continued to identify interdisciplinary and intradisciplinary differences, in the conventions of the key features of academic writing in genres and part-genres. Studies that have focused on the master's dissertation DC and research article (RA) DS will be reviewed in Chapter 3). However, according to Swales (2018, 2019) and Bhatia (2017) there is still a need for further research into the genres of *local discourse communities* to further develop knowledge of the key rhetorical features of academic genres. Swales (2019) argues that:

... research papers on EAP genres have tended to be a) too textual, b) too 'thin' in Geertz's sense, c) too concerned with overall structure, d) too interested in the inter-personal and promotional aspects of research writing, and e) over focused on our own fields of applied linguistics and ESL (Swales (2019: 81).

Some previous studies may have had these limitations. However, the focus on inter-personal aspects of research writing, such as, the expression of stance have been shown by Contrastive Rhetoric studies to prove challenging, for some international and home students (Perez-Llantada, 2014, 2015). These metadiscourse studies will be reviewed in Chapter 3) as they provide an insight into the significance of learner identity in language acquisition. Therefore, according to Hymes (1992):

The concept of community entails the concept of identity, ... something essential to language acquisition and change without being reducible to it (Hymes, 1992:48).

This socio-cultural view of language use and competence contrasts with Chomsky's (1965, 1980, cited in Hymes, 1992) perception of it as a cognitive human textual function with no contextual aspect. This is manifested in their different views on language competence with Hymes (1992) arguing, for the importance of language use to be appropriate to the context in which the communicative action occurs and its interlocutors: *communicative competence*. Thereby, taking into consideration the dialogic nature of writing. This awareness of social hierarchy and identity in academic discourse communities is the social construction of context. Thus, in this study the RA authors were considered experts not only in discipline knowledge 'epistemology, ideology and social ontology' (Berkenkotter and Huckin, 1995:21), but also the academic writing conventions of research publishing, as they were positioned at the core of the global discourse community. In contrast, students were viewed as *novices* positioned at the periphery of their academic discipline's local discourse community. Hopefully, the *genre knowledge* gained from this study will, when transferred to ESP (ESAP and EAP) pedagogy, empower students to develop a greater awareness and knowledge of part-genres across the disciplines. This would be of particular relevance to those international and home students, who struggle with developing an academic voice in their writing. Thus, the next section of this Chapter will move on to review those studies that have explored student experiences of developing an academic *voice* that reflects that of their discourse community.

2.4.2: Identity and discourse community

As discussed earlier in Chapter 1, some international students might struggle with developing an academic *voice* due to the differences in their educational background from that of UK HE. In addition, some international students might experience language and cultural challenges.

Much has been written about the expression of identity in academic writing in terms of voice and stance both in professional and academic registers (Ivanic, 1998; Hyland and Sancho Guinda, 2012; Hyland, 2015). Although there are a number of interpretations of the terms *voice* and *stance* as explored by Hyland and Sancho Guinda (2012); this study adopted Hyland's (2012) definitions as follows:

...*stance* largely involves the writer's expression of personal attitudes and assessments of statements of knowledge in a text and *voice*, acknowledges the authorised ways of speaking as a community member (Hyland, 2012:134).

The latter has been discussed in the literature in terms of the *self* with Canagarajah (2004) identifying three categories of self: 'identity, role and subjectivity'. According to Canagarajah (2004).

... it is at the level of the voice that we gain agency to negotiate [the three] categories of the self, adopt a reflexive awareness of them, and find forms of coherence and power that suit our interests Canagarajah (2004: 268).

Canagarajah's (2004) and Ivanic's (1998) use of the terms *self* and *discoursal self* respectively seem to be interchangeable with the term *identity* in the literature. Similarly, recent research by Dippold, Heron and Gravett (2021) recommends that students' transition into the disciplines should be viewed as a continuous development of learner identity. Thus, highlighting the importance of identity in the development of the discoursal voice. These responses indicate where challenges to the discoursal self (identity) might occur, and be resolved during *acculturation* (Berry, 2017) to a discipline's discourse community. In the case of master's students in HE, acculturation appears to be an *integration* (Berry, 2017) into the culture in terms of a discourse community's academic voice and practices. Therefore, an ESAP lecturer must utilise a pedagogy that facilitates postgraduate students in their development of a *discoursal self* which is appropriate for the specific academic conventions of *voice* and *stance* within their discourse community. This can be achieved by supporting students' exploration of the rhetorical structure and language in key HE academic assessment genres: essays, reports, proposals, and dissertations. However, according to Ivanic (1998), students have described the creation of a discoursal self as: 'ambivalent, owning some aspects of it and disowning others' (Ivanic, 1997:251). Ownership is described as '*accommodation*', whilst the unease of *accommodation* is termed *resistance*. This aligns with Radecki and,

whilst the unease of *accommodation* is termed *resistance*. This aligns with Radecki and Swales' (1985) earlier classification of a trio of learner approaches to written feedback on academic writing as: *receptor*, *semi-resistor* and *resistor*. However, Ivanic (1998) rejected the concept that the 'writer has his or her own voice or language', but instead found a more nuanced response to the development of the academic English voice of their discipline: 'alignments' which may be 'long term', ... 'fleeting' or even 'experiments' (Ivanic, 1998: 216). Although students transitioning into their academic discourse community are supported in their development of an appropriate academic voice by a range of academic writing support; further pedagogical development, in which students could be involved, is still required regarding the master's dissertation assessment genre and its part-genre the Discussion Chapter. The next section of this Chapter will move on to describe and discuss current pedagogies employed in UK HE academic writing guidance.

2.5: Pedagogy

2.5.1: UK HE academic writing pedagogies

There are three main academic writing pedagogies in UK HE: Academic Literacies; Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL); and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). This section will review these pedagogies leading to a focus on the ESAP Genre Analysis pedagogy, as this was applied in my practice in the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation writing workshops. The term *Academic Literacy* originated as a broad term that described academic writing as a generic register across the disciplines (Murray, 2022). Academic Literacy pedagogy focuses on the writing process of the expert RA writer and is mainly employed with L1 student writers in UK HE. Initially, it did not contextualise academic writing within particular socio-cultural settings (discourse communities). However, this generic view of academic writing was challenged by research findings, which observed that different disciplinary disciplines 'evoke social meanings and identities' (Lea and Street, 1998: 59). Leading to a recognition of the variation of academic writing conventions across disciplines. This led to the development of an academic literacies framework which:

...moved away from a skills-based, deficit model of student writing to consider the complexity of writing practices that are taking place at degree level in universities (Lea and Street, 1998: 158).

This took 'account of the cultural and contextual component of writing and reading practices resulting in 'an understanding of student learning' (Lea and Street,1998:158) through three main student and lecturer perspectives or models: 'study skills'; 'academic socialisation'; and 'academic literacies' (Lea and Street, 1998:1). Lillis (2019) states that Academic Literacies mainly provides: 'a critical and social practice perspective on reading and writing in the academy' Lillis (2019: 4). However, it is difficult to determine from the literature which language model or theory supports Academic Literacies research and pedagogy approach. This may be due to 'a shift away from a sole or primary focus on the text towards ethnographic studies of practices' (Lillis, 2019: 6). Thus, research has concentrated on identifying practices, student identities, and conflicts that individual language users experience (Coffin and Donohue (2012: 64) which informs pedagogy.

As noted earlier in this Chapter (section 2.2) Academic Literacies is a writer-oriented, ethnographic research approach which provides context information from the observation of writing practice and the collection of student and lecturer perspectives of academic writing in disciplines. Thus, where ESP research has developed to address practice concerns regarding the lack of contextual and cultural knowledge in its pedagogy, the Academic Literacies framework appears to lack research into the language of texts. I have found it difficult to pin down Academic Literacies' pedagogy although genre analysis is noted it is not specified which approach it refers to (SFL or ESP). However, Lea and Street (2006, 2010) describe eliciting the writing experiences of discipline lecturers and their 'diverse literacy practices' (Lea and Street, 2006, 2010) to inform students. This is an aspect of the 'text in context' Critical Genre Analysis approach which has been recently developed as will be discussed later in Chapter 4.

The pedagogical significance of a writer-oriented approach was discussed by Hyland (2003a) in his polemic, aimed at US pedagogy of the time, which critiqued process pedagogy as follows:

... students are not typically given explicit teaching in the structure of target text types. Instead, they are expected to discover appropriate forms in the process of writing itself, gleaning this knowledge from unanalysed samples of expert writing, from the growing experience of repetition, and from suggestions in the margins of their draft reports. (Hyland (2003a:19).

Despite the appropriateness of guiding students on the processes of academic writing (reading,

notetaking, summary, synthesis, and drafting) (Hyland, 2003a; Lock and Lockhart, 1998). Hyland (2003a) argues that its centrality in pedagogy has created a deficit view that ‘... misrepresents writing as universal, naturalised and non-contestable way of participating in communities’ (Hyland 2003a: 24). This deficit view appears to be supported by Lillis and Scott (2012) who define the Academic Literacies model’s approach as:

Rather than analysing texts to identify what the writing requirements of a discipline are, it is ‘the definition and articulation of what ‘constitutes the ‘problem’ [with student writing] that is the heart of much academic literacies research’ (Lillis & Scott, 2007:9, cited in Lillis and Scott, 2012: 482).

As noted in Chapter 1, such a deficit model places the onus of the development of academic writing firmly upon the shoulders of the individual learner, rather than any lack of appropriate guidance on text construction within the HE institution. In this way any lack of *equity* in HE and L2 teaching appears to be justified, so does not empower the less advantaged student. On the contrary, it enables teaching approaches which do not address the deep differences in education provision as a result of nationality, class or culture. In this way, as discussed earlier in this Chapter, some L2 international and home students may be disadvantaged in their transition into the discourse community of their discipline.

Therefore, both SFL and ESP pedagogies take a *text-oriented* (Hyland, 2002:6) writing as discourse, *learner-centred* approach to pedagogy. SFL has employed linguistic analysis to establish the nature of disciplinary discourses and ways of encouraging students to engage in these discourses; research and pedagogy focusing on grammatical form and function as rhetorical action in situations. This has proved to be relevant for students at the secondary and tertiary levels of education. However, Caplan (2012) states that:

One obstacle to functional grammar is its metalanguage, which is very different from the structural grammar which is better known to many instructors and students (Caplan, 2012: x).

In contrast, an important feature of ESP Genre Analysis pedagogy is that it adopts standard grammar, as demonstrated in the grammar guides of Hewings (2005) and Crystal (2004a, 2004b), in its metalanguage which is more familiar to many students. Crystal (2004a, 2004b) takes a standard grammar and *language in use* approach which supports the need for clear

terminology to enable discussion about language use stating that: ‘Terminology is intrinsic to grammar, as it is to chemistry, geography, and all other subjects which describe things (Crystal, 2004b:10). Therefore, in my opinion grammatical metalanguage is an important aspect of English Language Teaching, and an expectation for students to learn a new metalanguage would be a barrier to the development of an L2 learner friendly pedagogy. Thus, my preference for an ESP pedagogy, which has been found to be relevant to students studying in different academic disciplines and professions (Van Dijk, 1972; Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Halliday and Martin, 1993; Widdowson; 2003; and Hyland, 2007). Another positive feature of the ESP Genre Analysis pedagogical approach has been its affordance of the adoption of aspects of Task Based Learning (Willis, 1996) into its framework as it already includes a task-based approach (Swales, 1990). This blend of pedagogies affords a framework for *scaffolded learning* (Vygotsky, 1978) with its use of pair and group work. In addition, Genre Analysis pedagogy also aligns with Socio-cultural Theory (Vygotsky,1978) in that genre knowledge can inform curriculum and session structure and content in terms of students’ needs analysis and an awareness of the *Zone of Proximal Development* (Vygotsky,1978). However, ESP pedagogy according to Swales (1990, Hyland, 2003,a) has faced criticism and barriers to its development which are discussed in the next section.

2.5.2: Challenges to ESP pedagogy

One significant barrier to ESP pedagogy has been that: ‘there appears to be an implicit, unconscious view of Teaching English as Second or Other Language (TESOL) in academia as ‘nothing more than remedial’ Swales (1990:2). Swales (1990) argues that this view of TESOL and ESP as:

remediation – that we have nothing to teach but that which should have been learnt before has created a barrier to the development of pedagogy and research in academia (Swales,1990: 2).

A recent systematic literature review of forty-nine journal articles (Lomer and Mittelmeier 2022: 1243) over the period of 2013 to 2019 supports this view. Their findings appear to conclude that international students continue to be perceived as: ‘...subtly framed as in deficit or passive, rarely as partners or knowledge agents.’ (Lomer and Mittelmeier’s (2021:1243). Therefore, they recommend further research to explore pedagogical approaches that could be shared across the HE sector. In addition, they suggest:

...a consideration for future research is to pivot away from descriptive research about general experiences and, instead, develop more in-depth understandings

of evidence-based pedagogies with international students (Lomer and Mittelmeier, 2021:1243).

I believe that ESP Genre Analysis pedagogy is that evidence based, responsive pedagogy. However, criticism of ESP pedagogy by, for example, Dixon (Dixon, 1987, cited in Hyland, 2003a: 25) and Freedman (Freedman, 1994, cited in Hyland, 2003a: 25) has resulted in ESP teachers needing to mount a defence against advocates of process pedagogy. One criticism of genre pedagogy is that it presents a set formula or recipe of genres that constrains the student writer's creativity (Dixon, 1987, and Freedman, 1994, cited in Hyland, 2003a: 25). Hyland counters this claim stating that: '... there is nothing inherently prescriptive in a genre approach' (Hyland, 2003a: 25). Indeed, as genre pedagogy is the result of praxis, in that it is responsive to students' needs, so Freedman's concerns are invalid. In addition, such research has evidenced the variation of genres across disciplines, languages and cultures. Thus, students with genre knowledge are empowered to develop an understanding of genres that includes variation and flux, which can enable their understanding and selection of the language and structure they use in their academic writing.

Despite the challenging perceptions of ESP's research and pedagogical approaches, it has since the 1960s developed in response to HE students' increasing need to learn *technical language* (Geertz, 1973; Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988; Swales, 1990; 2000; and Swales and Feak, 2000). Three decades later Swales' (1990) developed Genre Analysis Theory which has underpinned the development of ESP (EAP and ESAP) pedagogy, which has empowered students to understand and develop the academic writing conventions of their chosen disciplines in HE. Furthermore, over the last two decades as a result of ESP research and pedagogy across the HE sector in the UK and worldwide the field of TESOL has developed to:

...become a more reflective and critical field, recognising the limitations of its ambitions, the challenges posed by the inequalities inherent in teaching a lingua franca, and its often marginal status in universities and corporate training departments (Hyland and Jiang, 2020:23).

The next sub-section of this Chapter will move on to describe ESP Genre Analysis pedagogy in practice in UK HE.

2.5.3: ESP pedagogy in practice

ESP pedagogy whether in the form of English for Academic Purposes (EAP) or English for

Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP) often varies across institutions, with methods being eclectic within programme schedules based on student needs and the learning/teaching environment. According to Hyland (2007b) the affordance of an ESP Genre Analysis pedagogical approach is that it provides: ‘a rhetorical understanding of texts and a metalanguage to analyze them’(Hyland, 2007:397). This was certainly my experience when applying ESAP pedagogy to the Clinical Pharmacy master’s students’ support workshops. It has enabled and encouraged student engagement and autonomy and fitted into both the *reading to write* and *writing to learn* approaches to academic writing. For example, the identification of moves through Genre Analysis encourages the ‘reading to write’ approach as it involves: the annotation of texts; jigsaw building of deconstructed extracts from relevant research articles; and expansion of discipline specific lexis. Similarly, the ‘writing to learn approach’ has been reinforced by encouraging students to critically interact with authentic texts via annotation, note-taking, summary, and critical discussion (Hyland, 2007).

One shortfall in ESP pedagogy’s desired outcomes has been the lack of an in depth (thick analysis) of a text’s context (Bhatia, 2008, 2017; Flowerdew and Wan, 2010; Swales, 2019). This resonates with my own experience of EAP teaching on courses attended by students from a variety of disciplines. A generic pedagogy utilising inauthentic text materials became less relevant to students at the postgraduate level, as evidenced by this study’s practice concern: the lack of part-genre knowledge regarding the Clinical Pharmacy dissertation DC. This practice concern highlighted the need for further research into the specificity of genres and their part-genres in discipline discourse communities in order to develop ESP pedagogy. The next section of this Chapter will focus on a review of ESP (EAP and ESAP) pedagogy based on its tenets of practice.

2.5.4: Tenets of ESP pedagogy

ESP pedagogy is based on four key tenets of teaching practice:

1. student needs analysis;
2. scaffolding of student learning, including feedback on diagnostic and assessed tasks;
3. reference to relevant research (genre analysis);
4. and student analysis of authentic texts (Hyland, 2003a, 2007a).

Firstly, the development of a text in context awareness in ESP research and pedagogy fits with the tenet of addressing students’ needs. Secondly, research has highlighted feedback as an

essential method of creating a dialogue with students to discuss academic language use, in key genres' drafts or assessment tasks. Reference to relevant research is seen as scaffolding pedagogy. For example, Contrastive Rhetoric research findings have provided a greater understanding of the significance of students' academic English L1 language experience, and the expectations of UK HE discourse communities in terms of an appropriate academic voice (Perez-Llantada, 2014) in the disciplines. Finally, the use of authentic texts provides genre knowledge direct from the student's own discourse community. As Hyland (2007) points out this is not to say that other teaching practices do not apply these tenets, but that in ESP pedagogy they are fundamental. The next section of this Chapter will now move on to focus on teacher written feedback on student writing, as it is a significant aspect of ESP pedagogy as it offers a dialogue with individual students addressing their specific needs.

2.5.5: Feedback

A significant amount of time is invested by ESP lecturers and students, providing and responding to written feedback on texts in HE. In addition, a great deal of research has been conducted into this aspect of ESP pedagogy. Hyland (2002a) defined feedback as:

The response given to student writing. It can refer to either written or oral types provided by peers, teachers, or computers. Widely regarded as central to writing development (Hyland, 2002a: 230).

However, the use of feedback as a pedagogical tool has had its critics including Truscott (1996, 2007) and Zamel (1985). The former criticising its negative effect on the student, whilst the latter its quality. Firstly, Truscott (2007) claimed that:

(a) the best estimate is that correction has a small negative effect on learners' ability to write accurately, and (b) we can be 95% confident that if it has any actual benefits, they are very small based on existing research (Truscott, 2007: 255).

Secondly, Zamel (1985) believed that teachers had set criteria influenced by dominant discourses that did not take account for the influence of the non-dominant discourse influences on learners' writing. This led to concern that if this was coupled with a view of feedback as a response to error student texts might be: '*appropriated* ... and thereby disempower their students' (Reid, 1994: 273). *Appropriation* was initially defined by Sommers (1982, cited in Reid, 1994: 274) as: 'The teacher appropriates the text from the student by confusing the

student's purpose in writing the text with her own purpose in commenting.' Thus, there was concern that *appropriation* might occur during written feedback as the teacher aimed to guide the novice, student writer to develop their academic English language and rhetorical structural awareness of the key genres in their discourse communities. For example, a teacher might have a fixed idea of a model for a particular text type and the features (structural and lexicogrammatical) it should demonstrate. This might manifest as a particular approach to syntax, such as, a preference for the use of long or short sentences. This might result in the student's meaning or stance being lost due to differences in language and cultural preferences. This resonated with concerns regarding the merits of feedback and its ultimate outcome (Pennycook, 1997; Truscott, 2007), particularly where differences in *New Englishes* from *Standard English* might be judged as inaccuracies or deviations from the norm of *Standard English*. Such judgements can be heavily weighted as the teacher in the classroom is also often the marker of the student's assessments. The teacher's authority in the classroom has been described as follows by Brannon and Knoblauch (1982, cited in Reid, 1994: 282):

... assumes primary control of the choices writers make, feeling perfectly free to 'correct' those choices any time the apprentice deviates from the teacher-reader's conception of what the developing text 'ought' to be doing (Brannon and Knoblauch, 1982: 158).

This might leave the student in a quandry as they attempt to maintain not only the expression of their own ideas but also *accommodate* the advice of the teacher (Brannon and Knoblauch, 1982). On the other hand, the writer may demonstrate *resistance* as indicated by Radecki and Swales' (1985) trio of learner categories: *receptor*, *semi-resistor* and *resistor*. However, many teachers/researchers value and support the use of feedback seeing it as an essential part of ESP pedagogy (Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Ferris, 2003, 2006; and Hyland and Hyland, 2006). Hewings and Coffin (2006) defined feedback in their particular context as: '...that part of a dialogue that acknowledges, comments on, or extends the discussion of academic content or its expression.' (Hewings and Coffin, 2006: 227).

This resonates with my own practice experience of feedback, especially in face-to-face tutorials with students where it enabled an extended discussion of specific language and text structure. Feedback may be *formative*: on drafts or *summative* on graded texts; *direct* correction; or *indirect*, for example, a question. In my own MATESOL small scale study (Parry, 2007), set in the context of an undergraduate EAP foundation course, I concluded that all participants (n=5) perceived written feedback on error as a positive element in their learning

experience. They also believed that face to face student/teacher contact was an important aspect of their course pedagogy. Feedback on 'grammar errors' was preferred as had been noted by other studies (Raimes, 1985; Hyland, 2003; Silva, 1993; and Leki, 2006). Thus, feedback is an opportunity to discuss language use and cultural information regarding the expression of ideas in the academic voice of their discourse community. In this way, a dialogue (Bakhtin, 1986) is created between teacher and student that could be viewed as an expression of their working relationship. Moreover, it is a concrete demonstration of *scaffolding* (Vygotsky, 1978) in pedagogy (Hyland and Hyland, 2006). In addition, as a socio-cultural activity it provides the teacher with a window into issues of language ownership, identity and agency (Goldstein, 2006; Hyland and Hyland, 2006; Leki, 2006).

On the other hand, the teacher has their own quandry: if the teacher avoids providing feedback on students' written texts then they reduce their ability to assist students' writing development within the academic conventions of their discourse community. Therefore, Reid (1994) challenged the myths of 'teacher appropriation' of students' texts by arguing that they: 'all but ignored the social context of writing'(Reid, 1994:277). In addition, they had ignored the importance of teachers' cultural expertise for fear of changing their students, but teachers exist to change and educate Reid (1994).

In addition, (Reid, 1994) stated that two aspects of the feedback situation were not considered. Firstly, the communicative nature of writing (Genre Analysis Theory): the transaction that must occur between writer, text and reader. Secondly, L2 learners require much more support in developing accuracy in grammar, lexis, structure at both sentence level and whole text organisation (Silva, 1993). Thus, I agree with Reid (1994) that a teacher's language and cultural knowledge must be applied in their practice, to guide students in making language choices in academic writing. In this way students are empowered to develop an academic voice appropriate to the conventions of their discipline's discourse community (Lave and Wenger, 1991; Reid, 1994; and Leki, 2006). Reid (1994) recommended that pedagogy should encourage and ensure that:

...teachers collaborate with students not as gatekeepers but as coaches and discourse community experts who use their resources to help students through the gate into those communities of writers (Reid, 1994: 279).

This approach to the teacher's role aligns with Zamel's (1985:86) recommendation that teachers should '.. no longer present themselves as authorities, but act instead as consultants, assistants and facilitators.' These recommendations are instrumental in the teacher as facilitator approach in ESP (EAP and ESAP) in general and certainly resonate with my own practice, position and experience.

Reid's (1994) exploration of the myths of appropriation was timely, and has led to consideration of what it means to provide feedback that is valid and useful to a student, whether they are L1 or L2 academic English writers. Likewise, a greater acknowledgement of student agency has resulted in the development of studies into learners' preferences, perceptions of, and response to teacher written feedback on their texts. Several researchers have recorded participant views utilising questionnaires, speak-aloud protocols and interviews. They have in the main concluded that teacher written feedback was viewed by most students as a positive aspect of instruction (Radecki and Swales, 1988; Ferris and Roberts, 2001; Hyland, 2003; Ferris, 2006; Leki, 2006). In addition, Raimes (1985) and Leki (2006) discovered that most L2 students 'wanted more of everything' (Raimes, 1985:250). Similarly, Radecki and Swales (1988) found that all (n=12) of their participants wanted substantive comments, and all surface errors corrected. However, some research has found that there were misunderstandings between student and teacher with regard to the types of error and the feedback on it, creating a discrepancy (fault line) between the perception and the reality of the teacher written feedback given. Whether such discrepancies are a result of the research studies' methodologies, perhaps a misunderstanding in the application of the terminology used to describe feedback (Anderson et al, 2004), or there is another phenomenon occurring which is as yet unclear. Thus, it is clear that teacher training regarding the use of feedback is helpful within an ESP programme, especially where a student might receive feedback from more than one lecturer. This could enable a more consistent approach that is appropriate to student needs, and avoid confusion for the student if teachers have differences in approach. In addition, training sessions allow for discussion of teachers' personal language preferences in terms of a course's language goals and student outcomes.

Tardy (2006) returned to the term appropriation and extended its application by broadening the definition to include the student teacher feedback dialogue so:

To appropriate another's words is to take those words and inject one's own meaning into them to take ownership of those words for one's own purposes

Tardy (2006b) recommends Prior's (1998) model of 'modes of appropriation and participation' (Prior, 1998, cited in Tardy, 2006:64) as the most helpful model in understanding feedback as a dialogic (Bakhtin, 1986) learning situation. This perspective of writing aligns with a dialogic and dialectic view of language in which spoken and written discourse can be described as 'half ours and half someone else's' (Bakhtin (1981:345). Likewise, Prior (1998) noted that the development of language by an individual is: 'heavily mediated by cultural tools not of our own making' (Prior, 1998, cited in Tardy, 2006b: 64), which resonates with the concepts of intertextuality and interdiscursivity which will be returned to in later Chapters. These concepts seem to go some way to providing further understanding of student's different responses to feedback as categorised by Radecki and Swales (1985): '*receptors, semi-resistors and resisters*'. In this way, the intertextuality and interdiscursivity of a local discourse community might provide some explanation of the issues that can challenge some students' development of a *discoursal self*, as they might conflict with their *autobiographical selves* (identity) (Ivanic, 1998). Such an understanding of the student's development of a *discoursal self* may enable a discussion, later in Chapter 7, of possible reasons for any differences noted between the rhetorical structure and metadiscourse features of the master's dissertation DC corpus and that of the RA DS corpus.

The development of feedback as a pedagogical tool seems to resonate with Canagarajah's (2016) review of TESOL in which he observed emerging trends in pedagogy including:

- from cognitive to social and ecological
- from prepackaged methods to situated pedagogies and language socialization
- from the homogeneous to variation and inclusive plurality
- from knowledge or skills to identities, beliefs, and ideologies
- from objective to personal and reflexive
- from the generalized and global to specific and local (Canagarajah, 2016: 29-30)

Canagarajah (2016) saw these trends as an alternative to modernist approaches in providing knowledge regarding language acquisition and pedagogy.

2.5.6: ESP pedagogy in practice

The development of pedagogy has always been central to my own, and my colleagues' teaching practice. However, I found that my module and programme leader roles increased my awareness of the need to develop the use of a Genre Analysis pedagogical approach, within what was an eclectic pedagogy tailored to suit the various needs of a diverse student profile

across the university's pre-sessional, undergraduate and postgraduate programmes. However, ESAP pedagogy with its use of Genre Analysis Theory can facilitate students to reach their full potential in the UK HE system. In my opinion, for a student to reach their *full potential* at a UK university it requires not only an awareness of independent study skills and academic writing conventions, but also more specifically the academic voice of their chosen discipline. Therefore, as the Clinical Pharmacy Academic Skills Tutor, I encouraged genre awareness by applying a student relevant genre pedagogy in my practice; this focused on the development of students' genre awareness and genre knowledge of HE written assessment tasks. The former refers to an awareness of text types as genres or part-genres, whilst the latter relates to the text detail of key rhetorical structure and lexico-grammatical features (Tardy, 2006).

Thus, from 2006–2021, I applied an ESAP Genre Analysis pedagogical approach in the Clinical Pharmacy academic writing support programme for master's dissertation writing, which incorporated a Task-Based Learning (Willis, 1996) framework. The latter fitted well with a Genre Analysis pedagogy, as they both had a problem-solving approach, which aligned with the ethos of medical science disciplines, such as, Dermatology, Nursing and Pharmacy. Paired and group work was an integral part of the pedagogy, which aligned with my own ESP (EAP and ESAP) and my colleagues' practice. Therefore, following Vygotsky's (1978) Socio-cultural Theory in terms of *Scaffolding* learner development. In addition, the schedule design acknowledged that each workshop's content should be sufficiently challenging, but still achievable. Thus, responsive to the students' *Zone of Proximal Development* (Vygotsky, 1978). Following the ESP responsive pedagogical approach, I undertook a small genre analysis research study during a MATESOL course (2006-2007), so had some familiarity with Genre Analysis Theory. Because of the intertwined nature of ESP research and pedagogy it has proved relevant to student needs in the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community, both in terms of the genre knowledge gained and the affordance of a theoretical framework by which this study's practice concern could be explored with the master's students. In this way:

...genres themselves become the tools by which knowledge and learning are articulated for students ...enabling 'writing ... to be seen as a social practice rather than a skill' (Lillis, 2001, cited in Hyland. 2017:15).

In summary, discourse analysis of a text's rhetorical structure varies according to different linguistic approaches, from a more top-down perspective in the New Rhetoric (NR) approach

to a more bottom-up approach in Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL), or as Bhatia (1993) describes the approaches as moving from a ‘thin’ to ‘thick’ (Geertz,1973) description. The ESP Genre Analysis approach appears to combine elements of SFL and NR to provide a more comprehensive approach placing genre within specific contexts, whilst analysing linguistic and rhetorical features (Bhatia,1993; Hyland, 2002a, 2004).

In this way, the ESP’s research into pedagogy (praxis) approach has developed to be of great use to L2 university students (home and international), who are transitioning into academic disciplines in HE. This is because these students need to develop a *discoursal self* with the expected academic voice of their discourse community. The variation in academic writing conventions between disciplines may be due to disciplines valuing different written assessments, and different kinds of argument, which may be a result of differences in knowledge type and research approaches. Therefore, a student must develop an academic voice that signals a discourse community’s norms of: ‘epistemology, ideology and social ontology’(Berkenhotter and Huckin, 1995, cited in Hyland, 2002a:43). However, international students might experience language and cultural challenges, in the adoption of the required academic voice of their local discourse community. Despite some issues feedback on written tasks is viewed by teachers, researchers and international students as an essential tenet of ESP pedagogy as noted earlier in this Chapter (see section 2.5.5). Therefore, it provides an important tool for dialogue between student and lecturer in the development of an academic voice in the discourse community. The next Chapter will move on to review previous ESP research studies in relation to rhetorical structure and metadiscourse use in the key HE part-genres: the master’s dissertation DC and the RA DS.

Chapter 3: Review of Previous Studies

3.1: Introduction

There is a vast landscape of ESP research mostly focused on the RA genre as noted earlier in Chapter 1. However, this research into the RA genre has been expedient, as it has afforded knowledge of a key academic genre written by discipline expert authors and published in peer reviewed journals (Swales, 1990). As expected of a key academic genre it communicates research via the norms and standards of rhetorical structure and lexico-grammatical features of academic writing across the disciplines. Swales (1990) lists the key reasons for the focus on the RA and other research process genres as a way of: ‘...facilitating L2 writers’ membership of the ‘anglophone’ discourse communities that dominate their research areas’ (Swales, 1990:11), in which publishing is viewed as essential aspect of academia. According to Swales (1990), the RA genre has become highly valued by ESP researchers as it has created greater interest in Genre Analysis research, and its application to pedagogy within academia. I offer a review of this research in the knowledge that there are of course already excellent in depth reviews available including: Swales’ (1990:130-176) systematic review of pioneering research in the 1970s and 1980s; Flowerdew’s (2004) review of tagged corpus-based studies and analysis of metadiscourse usage in different RA sections, and across different types of RAs and student essays; whilst Wei, Li, Zhou and Gong, (2016) have conducted a review of metadiscourse studies and their theoretical models over a period of 15 years.

These reviews report on the application of both qualitative (rhetorical structure move analysis and interviews) and quantitative (computer assisted corpus studies) methods. Firstly, qualitative methods (rhetorical structure move analysis and interviews) have been employed in Genre Analysis studies including those of: Swales, 1981; Dudley-Evans (1994); Nwogu (1996); Martin (2001); Hyland (2006); Bhatia (2008); Basturkmen (2009); and Hyland (2017). In addition, interviews and observation have been applied to a variety of research topics to develop knowledge and understanding of academic writing from a writer-oriented perspective in a variety of academic, professional and scientific fields (Prior, 1996; Ivanic, 1998; and Cheng, 2008). In this way not only have key academic and professional genres been explored within and across disciplines, but also the societal factors that influence academic writing conventions. As stated earlier this is particularly important at master’s level for those students who wish to publish or to be seen as publishable. Secondly, a quantitative corpus study approach has been employed in several studies to establish the prevalence of lexico-grammatical features and metadiscourse in and across the disciplines including:

- Communicative moves in discussion sections (Peacock, 2002)
- Metadiscourse use in postgraduate dissertations (Hyland and Tse, 2004)
- Frequency of lexical bundles (Tribble and Wingate, 2013)
- Metadiscourse and stance expression (Crosthwaite, Cheung and Jiang, 2017)
- Citation practices (Hyland, 2000, 2018)
- Rhetorical structure of introductions (Kawase, 2018)

In addition, mixed method approaches have also been utilised by several researchers to study:

- Textlinguistic discourse (Upton and Connor, 2001)
- Writer identity (Li and Chiu, 2016)
- Rhetorical structure in professional genres (Bhatia, 2010)
- Stance in academic writing within and across disciplines via lexico grammatical features (Hyland, 2017)
- Discourse community and specificity (Hyland, 2017)
- Move and step structure of mixed method RAs (Hashemi and Moghaddam, 2019)

Due to the wealth and range of ESP research this dissertation's literature review will focus on studies that are relevant to this study's Research Questions: they have explored rhetorical structure and metadiscourse use in the master's dissertation DC and RA DS. The former research is more limited than the latter which has a broad range of research studies. The reviews will mainly focus on relevant medical science disciplines' discourse communities. This Chapter will now divide into two sections regarding: firstly, studies related to rhetorical structure (moves and steps), and secondly, studies focused on the prevalence of *metadiscourse* in the key academic part-genres of the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS.

3.2:Exploration of Rhetorical Structure (Steps and Moves)

3.2.1; genre models

According to Genre Analysis Theory (Swales, 1990), the rhetorical structure of a genre consists of two key features: the move which conveys the communicative function of the text, and the steps which are statements that combine to communicate the overall function of a move as described in Chapter 2. This study adopted Bhatia's (1993) definition of genre as it not only notes the conventions of discourse communities, but also acknowledges the individual's ability to act within these constraints. Most research into the lexico-grammatical structure of

academic genres have utilised Swales' (1990) Genre Analysis move/step model or one that is based on it. However, Hashemi and Moghaddam's (2019) study although based on the Genre Analysis model took a Grounded Theory approach to identify and categorise step types. There are two key Genre Analysis models that have been utilised to explore the rhetorical structure of the master's dissertation DC and RA DS: Hopkins and Dudley Evans, (1988) and Swales (1990). Their similarity lies in the basic communicative purposes assigned to the move types identified, albeit under a variety of nuanced terminology. They differ in the number of move types in each model. It is notable that as yet, the step component of the framework has received far less attention in the literature. However, more recently Moreno and Swales's (2018) five move model has highlighted the significance of the step in its affordance of an insight into the possible contextual reasons for the academic writing conventions of discipline discourse communities. Therefore, in addition to contributing to ESAP pedagogy this study hopes to contribute to genre knowledge of the dissertation DC and RA DS.

The three move models are demonstrated below (see Table 1). The pioneering eleven move model of Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1988) was identified in the discussion texts of master's dissertations and RAs from two 'natural' science corpora, albeit consisting of different topics. Swales' (1990:172-173) list glossed Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1988) list with that of McKinlay (1984); Hopkins (1985); and Peng's (1987) into an eight-move list for the RA DS. This framework aligned with Hopkins and Dudley Evans' (1988) eleven move model with the following exceptions: moves 7 and 8 were combined; moves 4 and 9 were seen as sub-types of move 4 (comparison and support); and move 11 was not included (see Table 1 below). Swales (1990) used 'list' to entitle the moves rather than 'model' as he viewed it as a preliminary framework for application in future studies.

As noted by Swales (1990:173) move models provide a framework of categories with which to work with when analysing texts and enable comparison across studies. More recently Moreno and Swales (2018) have recommended a six-move model in which they recategorised moves 6 and 11 as 'Elaborating functions' consisting of statements of *Explanation*, *Clarification*, and *Justification*. These statements could be used in any of the moves as they do not communicate new (propositional) information.

Table 1: Comparison of Move Lists and Coded Model:
(Hopkins and Dudley Evans,1988:118); Swales (1990: 172-173); and Moreno and Swales
(2018:55)

Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1988:118) RA DS and master's dissertation DC List	Swales (1990:172-173) RA DS List	Moreno and Swales (2018:52) RA DS Coded Model
Moves (Communicative Functions)		
1. Background Information 2. Statement of Result 3. (Un)expected Outcome 4. Reference to Previous Research (Comparison) 5. Explanation of Unsatisfactory Result 6. Exemplification 7. Deduction 8. Hypothesis 9. Reference to Previous Research (Support) 10. Recommendation 11. Justification.	1. Background information 2. Statement of results 3. (Un)expected outcome 4. Reference to previous research 5. Explanation 6. Deduction and Hypothesis 7. Exemplification 8. Recommendation	1. Background Information 2. Summarizing or restating key results 3. Commenting on key results or other features 4. Evaluating the current study or other research or practice 5. Drawing implications

Moreno and Swales (2018:52) five move model was based on a definition of moves as:

...discoursal or rhetorical units performing coherent communicative functions in texts, whose linguistic realizations may be very variable in length and in other ways (Swales, 2004: 228-229, cited in Moreno and Swales, 2018:40).

Steps were defined as ‘together, or in some combination, realize the move’ and, thus ‘ the steps of a move primarily function to achieve the purpose of the move to which it belongs’ (Biber, Connor and Upton, 2007, cited in Moreno and Swales, 2018:40). Moreno and Swales’ (2018) coded model of moves and steps and their definitions of them was followed in this study. However, similar to other Genre Analysis studies modifications were made to Moreno and Swales (2018) model to enable an exploration of this study’s main focus; the expression of criticality in the choice of rhetorical structure and metadiscourse in a Clinical Pharmacy master’s dissertation DC. This modification will be described in detail later in Chapter 4.

Another model was created by Yang and Allinson (2003) who conducted: ‘a two-level account (Moves and Steps) of the separate Discussion sections’ (Yang and Allinson (2003:365) in their

corpus study of Applied linguistics RAs (n=20). This study appears to incorporate three moves from Hopkins and Dudley Evans' (1988) eleven move list. In addition, it appeared to combine others to provide the following list of moves (Yang and Allinson, 2003:378):

Move 1 - Background information

Move 2 – Reporting results

Move 3 – Summarizing results

Move 4 – Commenting on results [Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1988)]

Move 5 – Summarising the study

Move 6 – Evaluating the study

Move 7 – Deductions from the research [(M7) Deduction; (M8) Hypothesis (Hopkins and Dudley Evans, 1988)]

In addition, Yang and Allinson's (2003) developed Hopkins and Dudley Evans' (1988) framework into a two-dimensional hierarchical move/step framework similar to that utilised for the genre analysis of RA Introductions (Swales, 1990). In Yang and Allinson's study (2003), a 'Move' is defined as 'a semantic unit relevant to the writer's purpose' (McKinley, 1983, cited in Yang and Allinson, 2003:370). This is a rather limited working explanation in comparison to that given by Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993). Whilst Yang and Allinson's (2003) study refers to Nwogu's (1997) definition of 'Move':

...as a text segment made up of a bundle of linguistic features (lexical meanings, propositional meanings and illocutionary forces, etc.) which [gives] the segment a uniform orientation and signal the content of discourse in it (Nwogu, 1997:114).

In addition, Yang and Allinson suggest their own definition of step as follows:

The set of steps for a move is the set of rhetorical choices most commonly available to RA authors to realize a certain purpose (Yang and Allinson, 2003:370).

Liu and Buckingham (2018) later replicated Yang and Allinson's (2003) methodology in a corpus study of Applied Linguistics RAs (n=20). They reported that only one *move* (Move 3 – Summarising results) and one *step* observed in Yang and Allinson's study were not identified in their study. Liu and Buckingham (2018) also extended the application of the Swalian (1990)

move/step framework with a greater focus on steps than in previous studies. However, as in Yang and Allinson's (2003) study there seems to be some lack of differentiation between the presentation of the move and step data. For example, in Yang and Allinson's (2003:376) Table 4: 'Frequency of moves and Steps in 8 Discussion sections' Move 4's frequency of 39 appears to be that of the step frequency. This highlights the possible interpretation issues or ambiguity which might occur as a result of the complexities of conducting empirical methods in a Genre Analysis.

Another larger study was conducted by Peacock (2002). This was a comparative empirical analysis of a 'corpus of: '252 published RAs (36 from each discipline, 1.4 million words)' (Peacock, 2002:479). The seven disciplines included were as follows: 'Physics, Biology, Environmental Science, Business, Language and Linguistics, Public and Social Administration, and Law.' Peacock (2002: 483). Peacock's study followed Dudley- Evans' (1994) nine move framework, but combined moves to create an eight-move model as follows:

1. information move (background about theory/research aims/methodology)
2. finding (with or without a reference to a graph or table)
3. expected or unexpected outcome (comment on whether the result is expected ..
4. reference to previous research
5. explanation (reasons for expected or unexpected results)
6. claim [contribution to research (sometimes with recommendations for action)]
7. limitation
8. recommendation (suggestions for future research) (Peacock, 2002: 491).

Peacock (2002) reported finding: '... a number of marked interdisciplinary and NS/NNS [native speaker/nonnative speaker] differences ... in the type and number of moves and move cycles' (Peacock, 2002:479). Thus, providing evidence of genre variation across disciplines, language, and culture.

Finally, and in contrast to the previous studies Hashemi and Moghaddam's (2019) study applied a Grounded Theory approach to generate a list of moves following a Swalian move/step hierarchal schema. Hashemi and Moghaddam's (2019) tentatively suggested a five-move model from their study of thirty-eight mixed methods Applied Linguistics RAs as follows:

Move 1 Study

Move 2 Results

Move 3 Discussion

Move 4 Evaluation

Move 5 Suggestion (Hashemi and Moghaddam, 2019:251).

This model differed from both Swales' (1990) eight move framework for RAs, Yang and Allison's (2003) seven move framework and the more recent Moreno and Swales' (2018) five move framework. Hashemi and Moghaddam's (2019) believed that the 'exclusivity' of their framework lay in its inclusion of newly identified steps particular to the mixed methods research (MMR) design of the RA studies:

1. presenting the significance and/or novelty of the study method' (MMR)'
2. 'highlighting the main findings through visual representation of the results
3. and describing the meta-inferences and further explaining them (Hashemi and Moghaddam, 2019:254).

These newly identified steps demonstrate how microstructural features might play an important part in the specificity of part-genres in and across disciplines. However, the step 'Presenting the significance and/or novelty of the study method (MMR)' is similar to Moreno and Swales' (2018) 'Pointing out the positive features of the current or proposed study.' Whilst the first part of step 2's descriptor 'highlighting the main findings through visual representation of the results' appears to be very similar in its communicative purpose to Dudley-Evans' (1994: 224-228) move 3: 'statement of result' (either numerical result or reference to a graph or table). Thus, establishing that the distinctive MMR step is 'describing the meta-inferences and further explaining them' (Hashemi and Moghaddam, 2019:254).

To sum up, although there is variation in terms of the number of move types and the communication purpose of some move categories across various models, there are similarities too. It is notable that only two studies explored the rhetorical features of master's dissertation DCs evidencing the need for further research into this genre and its part-genres. Thus, highlighting the contribution this study could make to part-genre knowledge of the master's dissertation DC. A significant aim of most previous research studies into the move/step

framework has focused on their presence in individual texts within a corpus, rather than their frequency across a corpus. These research findings will be reviewed in the next section.

3.2.2: Move presence in individual texts and corpus frequency

The term *obligatory* has been used in research studies to note the presence of a move in all the individual texts across a corpus (Hopkins and Dudley Evans, 1988). For example, Peng (1987) identified four obligatory moves categorised as: ‘Information’, ‘Statement of Result’, ‘Comparison with Previous Result’, and ‘Deduction’ in a corpus of Chemical Engineering RA DSs. In contrast, Hashemi and Moghaddam’s (2019) study found that only Move 2 (Results) and Move 3 (Discussion) occurred in all the Applied Linguistics RA DS (n=38) in their study. Similarly, in Yang and Allison’s (2003) study these two move types although termed ‘Commenting on results’ and ‘Reporting results’ and ‘Summarizing results, appeared to be obligatory in the corpus of Applied Linguistics RA DSs (n=8). This was also evidenced in Liu and Buckingham’s (2018) replication study.

The similarity between the latter three studies’ findings was probably the result of their analysis of RAs in the same discipline: Applied Linguistics. This also probably explains the difference in comparison to Peng’s observation of four *obligatory* moves in the discipline of Chemical engineering. This seems to provide further evidence of variation in the-presence of moves-in the same part-genre across disciplines: the RA Discussion Section. In addition, Peacock’s (2002) study evidenced specificity in a multi-disciplinary study across seven disciplines (Physics, Biology, Environmental Science, Business, Language and linguistics, Public and Social and Law). However, there were three moves that were almost *obligatory* and, therefore, to be recommended pedagogically: Move 3 ‘findings’(84%); Move 5 ‘reference to previous research’ (73%); and Move 7 ‘claim’ (90%) (Peacock, 2002:486). The latter finding makes sense in terms of the communicative purpose of an RA in promoting the contribution of the author’s research.

In contrast to the five studies discussed above, Hopkins and Dudley Evans’ (1988) study identified only one *obligatory* move in their corpora of natural science RA DSs and master’s dissertation DCs: ‘statement of result’ (M2), which provided the study’s results neutrally. According to Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1988:117) this move: ‘..occurred several times, almost always at the beginning of a cycle.’ in both the RA DS and master’s dissertation DC corpora they studied. Thus, it was considered: the ‘head’ move of a cycle of moves. All other moves other than ‘background information’ normally occurred in the ‘post head’ position.’

(ibid). In contrast, Holmes (1997; 2001) did not observe any *obligatory* moves in her study of social science RAs. However, the use of different move frameworks and research design in these genre analyses could have played a part in the variation of the findings. However, it could be argued that where there is similarity in findings, but difference in study methods a triangulation of supporting data has been created that manifests that the data is valid. In this case, demonstrating that each academic discipline's genres probably have distinguishing features in their structure. Hence, providing further support for the specificity of academic writing conventions in the disciplines, and the importance of transferring such part-genre knowledge into ESAP pedagogy.

Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988), Liu and Buckingham (2018), and Yang and Allison (2002) have all employed the term *obligatory* to describe a move that occurs in all texts within a corpus. However, Hashemi and Moghaddam (2019:249) added an additional category: '*Highly recommended*' which referred to moves that were found in nearly all texts in a corpus for example, at 91.2%. In addition, Hashemi and Moghaddam (2019) noted that despite low frequency a move, such as, the '*evaluation*' move, which appeared to be *optional* (low presence across all texts) in their study it should still be considered as *Recommended*, as it has important content in a mixed methods article. In contrast, Yang and Allison (2002) applied the term 'quasi-obligatory' (Swales, 190:172) to a move found in all but one of the RA discussion texts. However, Casal (2020: 85) has argued that: 'this terminology may have some pedagogical and scholarly issues.' He suggested that *conventional* (ibid) should be used instead to describe moves observed in all corpus texts rather than *obligatory*, as there is no regulation that penalises the lack of use of any move. Casal (2020) believes that a move's presence across texts should be viewed in terms of rhetorical structural norms:

... expectation[a demonstration] of authors' understanding of the centrality of such rhetorical work to the underlying purpose of the genre practice itself rather than any real obligation (Casal, 2020:85).

This appears to align with Bhatia's(1993) definition of genre as presented earlier in Chapter 2.

In summary, previous studies' use of the term obligatory and optional have referred to the number of texts in which a particular move occurs; the former meaning found in all texts, whilst the latter meaning is absent in some texts. This terminology has proved useful in this

study in making comparisons within the study and with previous studies' findings. Pedagogically although a move may be optional it could still be referred to as 'Highly recommended' (Hussein and Moghaddam, 2019:249) if present in the majority of texts. Likewise, in this study 'Recommended' will be used to describe optional moves which could be useful pedagogically. In addition, following Casal's discourse community perspective, this study has applied the term *conventional* as an alternative to *obligatory* when describing a move's occurrence across all texts in a corpus. Thus, avoiding the implication that flexibility and variation do not occur in genres. On the other hand, the frequency of a move within each text and across a corpus will be reported as: high, medium or low. Only one study that I know of has presented data regarding the frequency of moves across a corpus: Liu and Buckingham (2018). This study will present data on the frequency of steps and move types across the corpora and their presence in each text. Likewise, this study has explored and collected both sets of data to establish which moves are most frequently used and therefore of higher pedagogical significance. Another feature of interest is the sequencing of moves across the texts, which will be discussed in the next section.

3.3: The Overall Move Pattern

The overall move pattern within a text has been of interest to researchers as it demonstrates how the genre or part-genre is structured. For example, there is a commonly held view that a Discussion part-genre has an overall structure similar to that of an inverted Introduction part-genre: the *moves* in the Introduction part-genre progressing from general information to specific, whilst the Discussion moves progress from specific to general. This has been termed the 'inverted triangle' (Berkenhotter and Huckin, 1995). This suggested inversion of Swales (1990) CaRS model of the Introduction seemed to provide a straightforward representation of an RA's Discussion section, but posed the question: does it occur across all disciplines? Yang and Allison (2003:369) argue that the inverted triangle model originated from 'broad accounts of Discussions', such as, that of Swales (1990) and Holmes, (1997), whereas 'more narrowly specified accounts ... reveal several different options as well as substantial cycling' (Yang and Allison, 2003: 369). Indeed, Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1988: 117) reported that there was a 'cycle of moves' and not a singular linear organisation in both the RA and master's dissertation Discussion texts in their study. This was supported by Peacock's (2002) finding (n =252, 36 from each discipline) of a three-part framework of moves that cycle in a set series as follows: Introduction (moves 1, or 2, or 6).

- I. Evaluation (the key move cycles are 2+4, 2+6, 3+4, and 3+5.
- II. Other less common cycles are 6+4 and 4+6)
- III. Conclusion (moves 2+6, or 8, or 8+6, or 7+6) (Peacock, 2002: 481)

This cycling of moves was also observed in Basturkmen's (2009) study of the DCs of Language Teaching master's dissertations (n-10), and a sample of RAs from the *Language Teaching Research Journal* (n-10). Yang and Allison (2003) also reported that Results Sections tended: 'to have a highly cyclic structure and not only report on results, but also briefly comment on results' (Yang and Allison, 2003:381) normally the province of the DS. They claimed that this was a widespread practice in RAs across disciplines.

In addition, Yang and Allison's (2003) study identified only eight (40%) discrete DSs in their sample of Applied Linguistics RAs (n-20). Whilst five (25%) of the RAs used the heading 'Results and Discussion'. In addition, Yang and Allison (ibid) reported interesting data describing alternative headings for the Results, Discussion and Conclusion Sections of the RA's overall structure. They believed that the variability was associated with the editorial constraints of different journals as evidenced in their study. For example, RAs from the field of TESOL and ELT preferred to use the heading 'Conclusion', whilst in ESP 'Discussion' was the preferred heading (Yang and Allison, 2003:373). If present the Discussion Section consisted of moves 1 to 7 (see move model in Section 3.2.1 p.52). The most frequent moves were 'Reporting results' (20) and 'Commenting on results' (39) in the RA corpus (n-8). In the next section of this Chapter, I will consider the recommended application of previous research findings in ESP pedagogy.

3.4: Application to Pedagogy

There are two main pedagogical implications of the reviewed studies' findings: the affordance of developing part-genre knowledge; and the highlighting of variation in rhetorical structure across disciplines. Firstly, Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) viewed their move list as: 'pedagogically... show the main options open to the writer' (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988:117-118). Likewise, Yang and Allison (2003) noted the usefulness of their findings for students who need to develop an awareness of the range of RA DS 'closing possibilities' (Yang and Allison, 2003:381). Similarly, Basturkmen (2009) recommended her granular step sequencing findings as assisting in the development of knowledge of the 'language of argumentation' which could also assist in the provision of more precise, informed feedback

from ESP and discipline lecturers. In this way, students' scaffolded learning through feedback on formative drafts and summative assessment tasks could be enhanced to realise positive outcomes for students in the realisation of their full potential at master's level (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988; Basturkmen, 2009).

Secondly, most studies recommend that variation in rhetorical structure should be discussed with students in terms of the flexibility demonstrated within and across disciplines. However, only one study has conducted a multi discipline Genre Analysis: Peacock (2002). who applied Dudley-Evans (1994) framework. In addition, Peacock (2002) explored the variation between 'NS/NNS' writers use of moves, which could be useful in terms of lecturers' *student needs analysis* in the preparation of pedagogical resources. Yang and Allison (2003) recommend a pedagogical approach that is: 'contingent with student needs which might require an initial selection of the more common structures identified in genres.' (Yang and Allison (2003:381). This approach aligns with that recommended by (Vygotsky, 1978) in relation to designing tasks that take account of students' current Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD). It is notable that, Hopkins and Dudley-Evans' (1988) and Basturkmen's (2009) studies are the only two studies, as far as I know of, that have explored master's dissertation DCs.

The above pedagogical approaches are in alignment with an ESP Genre Analysis pedagogy that is underpinned by the importance of addressing student needs. Basturkmen's (2009) more granular-study of the 'Commenting on results' move in terms of its step sequencing noted that: '...[students'] rhetorical attention was given to 'explaining', with considerable efforts made to explain why the result was as obtained' (Basturkmen, 2009:248). This finding may be returned to later in Chapter 7 when exploring possible reasons for step selection. An essential lexico-grammatical feature of steps that enables the writer to communicate their views and guide the reader through a text is metadiscourse. Therefore, the next section of this Chapter will review the granular studies into the academic writing lexico-grammatical feature of metadiscourse in the master's dissertation DC and RA DS.

3.5: Metadiscourse Studies

3.5.1: Definitions and models

Research interest in *metadiscourse* has expanded over the last two decades: with 'over 26,500 papers' (Hyland, Wang and Jiang, 2021:1) focused on this language feature on Google Scholar. Harris (1959) has been accredited (Cook, 1989; Hyland, 2019) with coining the term

metadiscourse, which has been defined in a variety of ways in the literature. For example, Swales and Feak (2000:169) described it as ‘discourse about discourse’ basing their categorisation of metadiscourse on (Bunton’s, 1999, 2002) research, which determined that metadiscourse is of higher frequency and greater significance in longer texts, such as, dissertations. In addition, Bunton (1999) reviewed the intricacies of the earlier metadiscourse models of Crismore and Farnsworth (1990) and Maurenen (1993a) noting that these differed in terminology: Crismore and Farnsworth (1990) preferring *metadiscourse*, whilst Mauranen (1993a) prefer *metatext* as the umbrella nomenclature. Crismore and Farnsworth (1990, cited in Bunton, 1999) distinguished between the types of metadiscourse in terms of communicative functions as: ‘*textual*’ and ‘*interpersonal*.’ This was based on Halliday’s (1985) concept of ‘macro-functions of language.’ (Halliday, 1985, cited in Bunton, 1999:43). Terminology for individual metadiscourse markers within each type of metadiscourse function has also been developed, and will be returned to in more detail later in Chapter 4 when describing the model adopted by this study.

Bunton’s (1999) study of PhD theses (n-13) reported differences between theses from the faculties of Science and Engineering (n-7) and from the faculties of Arts, Education and Social Sciences (Humanities and Social Sciences) (n-6). He concluded that:

considerable variation in the proportion of each thesis that is taken up with chapter and thesis level metatext, ... and some inconsistency in the way student writers use it, particularly at chapter level (Bunton, 1999:41).

Swales and Feak (2000) suggested the addition of five additional types of metadiscourse to Bunton’s (1999) model:

nonlinear text references (reference to tables etc.); *intertext references* (references to other texts); text act markers (e.g. ‘In summary’); *text connectors* (show relationships to different parts of the text (e.g. First); and *text glosses* (explicit explanations of terms or symbols) (Swales and Feak, 2000: 172 -173).

However, Hyland and Tse (2004) argued against the ‘discourse about discourse’ definition stating that this approach was too functional, leading to difficulty in its application to the discourse analysis of real texts. Therefore, they defined metadiscourse as: ‘self-reflective linguistic material referring to the evolving text and to the writer and the imagined reader of that text’ Hyland and Tse (2004:156). Thus, highlighting the socio-cultural dialogic nature of academic writing. Therefore, Hyland and Tse’s (2004) suggested a model of metadiscourse

that takes into account Thompson's (2001, 2012) classification of metadiscourse into two functions: '*interactive*' rather than '*intertextual*' (Bunton, 1999; Swales and Feak, 2000) and '*interactional*' rather than '*interpersonal*' (Bunton, 1999; Swales and Feak, 2000). This change in nomenclature was based on Hyland and Tse's (2004) conviction that both forms were essentially interpersonal. In addition, Hyland and Tse's (2004) model was broader 'including both stance and engagement features of interaction' (Hyland and Tse, 2004:168). Thus, following Hyland's (2000) argument that:

....writing is a culturally situated social activity, and metadiscourse is another example of how writing reflects a rhetorical sensitivity to interpersonal and intertextual relationships (Hyland, 2000:110).

Hyland and Tse (2004) termed metadiscourse that expressed interpersonal action (writer's evaluation and stance) as *Interactional* and categorised the language types as: *Hedges*, *Attitude markers* and *Engagement markers* (2000:109). Whilst metadiscourse expressing intertextual action was termed *Interactive* language and defined as: '...those aspects of the text which explicitly refer to the organisation of the discourse' (Hyland, 2000:109). Hyland and Tse's (2004) based their new model (see Table 4 in Chapter 4 section 4.7.2 p.103) on three key principles as follows:

- 1 that metadiscourse is distinct from propositional aspects of discourse;
- 2 that the term 'metadiscourse' refers to those aspects of the text that embody writer-reader interactions;
- 3 that metadiscourse distinguishes relations which are external to the text from those that are internal (Hyland and Tse, 2004:159).

Moreover, Hyland and Tse (2004) described metadiscourse as a significant language feature that '...uncover[s] something of the rhetorical and social distinctiveness of disciplinary communities.' Hyland and Tse (2004:156).

Fourteen years later, Hyland (2019) revisited the concept of metadiscourse noting that there was still debate regarding: 'where we should draw the boundary of metadiscourse and a lack of consensus on what ...rhetorical categories it should include' (Hyland's (2019: xi). Despite this, or in my opinion maybe because of this, interest in the topic has substantially increased since 2004 (Hyland, 2019). Hyland's (2019) book provides a current comprehensive overview of metadiscourse, whilst this dissertation will be constrained by the more limited knowledge and perspective

of its writer. Therefore, I will review metadiscourse studies from my teacher/researcher perspective with its focus on the selection of an appropriate metadiscourse model for this study's research design and the transfer of its findings into ESAP pedagogy. This will require the model to align with this study's socio-constructivist and postmodern methodology. Other than Hyland and Tse's (2004) model there are two further influential models present in the literature: Dafouz-Milne's (2008) model based on Hyland and Tse's (2004) model, and that of Adel (2010) which includes features that refer to the 'writer and imagined reader.'

Firstly, Dafouz-Milne's (2008) model has been applied in Contrastive Rhetoric studies (Perez-Llantada, 2014). Although similar to previous metadiscourse models and aligned with the principle that metadiscourse is 'intrinsically interpersonal' (Dafouz-Milne (2008:97) preferred the functional distinction of textual and interpersonal metadiscourse (Bunton, 1999, Swales and Feak (2000) as noted earlier in this section. Although this does avoid the more confusable terminology of interactive and interactional, Hyland and Tse's (2004) argument for the use of these terms seems appropriate for an approach that aligns with 'textual metadiscourse' as:

... the result of decisions by the writer to highlight certain relationships and aspects of organization to accommodate readers' understandings, guide their reading, and make them aware of the writer's preferred interpretations (Hyland and Tse, 2004:164)

However, Dafouz-Milne's (2008) model's development of subcategories enabled her to categorise 'both the pragmatic functions of metadiscourse markers and the linguistic devices used to carry out such functions' Dafouz-Milne's (2008:96). Secondly, in contrast Adel described her model as aligned with that of Maurenen's concept of 'reflexivity' (1993, cited in Adel, 2010:70), rather than the integrated approaches presented above. This was because Adel (2010:70) believed that an integrative approach encompasses 'too many phenomena under the umbrella term of metadiscourse'. These three different metadiscourse models have been applied in the relatively new field of Contrastive Rhetoric with its interest in 'writer/reader interaction in 'non-native scholars' [English] academic writing production' (Perez-Llantada, 2014:41). In this way the use of metadiscourse across different languages has been explored to determine any variation in academic writing conventions according to language and culture. Perez-Llantada (2014) reports that Contrastive Rhetoric studies have found:

Preferred uses of personal/impersonal ways of expression in RAs written by scholars from Anglophone and non-Anglophone contexts—the latter as varied as Finnish, Norwegian, German, French, Russian, Bulgarian, Ukrainian, Russian, Spanish and Polish, among others (Perez-Llantada, 2014:41-42).

However, according to Hyland and Tse (2004:175): ‘... no taxonomy can do more than partially represent a fuzzy reality.’ But the use of a variety of metadiscourse models has ‘due to a [lack of] both solid theoretical underpinning and empirical validation’ (Hyland, 2019:17), led to metadiscourse’s ‘descriptive and explanatory potential underdeveloped and embryonic (Hyland, 2019:17).

In the broad landscape of metadiscourse research literature this review will focus on those studies that have explored the master’s dissertation DC and RA DS. In this way this study’s findings can be compared with previous research studies in terms of Research Questions 3 and 4. In addition, where possible, studies will be selected that are relevant to this study’s medical science discourse community with its shared knowledge base and academic writing conventions. Thus, the remainder of this section will be divided into two sub-sections: firstly, I will review studies that have focused on the use of metadiscourse in key genres across disciplinary discourse communities; secondly, I will review studies that have explored different languages and cross-cultural use of metadiscourse. Beginning with the pioneering work of Swales (1988) these aspects of metadiscourse research align with an exploration of the possible reasons for any variation in metadiscourse use in this study’s corpora of two part-genres (Research Question 5). [Over the last two decades evidence has been building regarding variation in the use of metadiscourse across languages and cultures.](#) Firstly, as discussed earlier in this Chapter Contrastive Rhetoric studies have been instrumental in the exploration of differences in academic writing genre conventions across: disciplines; writers (expert and novice); languages (L1 and L2); and national cultures.

3.5.2: Metadiscourse across genres and disciplines

Although the analysis of metadiscourse usage in different key genres and their part-genres has increased significantly (Wei, Li, Zhou and Gong, 2016), only a few studies have explored student assessment texts, such as, the PhD thesis and master’s dissertation (Crismore and Abdullahzedah, 2010; Wei, Li, Zhou and Gong, 2016; and Hyland, Wang, and Jiang, 2021). Swales (1990) noted that in contrast to RAs dissertations had: ‘... a much greater use of metadiscourse, or writing about the evolving text rather than referring to the subject matter

(Williams, 1985, cited in Swales, 1990:188). This might be because of a lack of student genre awareness of discipline preferences for a particular range and frequency of metadiscourse as described above_in scientific writing's use of Hedges. Although most metadiscourse studies have explored the RA genre, Hyland and Tse (2004) also analysed a corpus of L2 master's and PhD dissertations (n=240) from the disciplines of: Applied linguistics, Public Administration, Business Studies, Computer Science, Electronic Engineering and Biology. The data collected from both genres demonstrated that:

the writers used slightly more *Interactive* than *Interactional* forms, and that *Transitions* and *Hedges* were the most frequent metadiscourse markers followed by *Engagement markers* and *Evidentials* (Hyland and Tse (2004:170).

Transitions were found to be almost 20% of all metadiscourse in both the master's and doctoral corpora: 'demonstrating the writer's concerns that the reader is able to recover their reasoning unambiguously'(Hyland and Tse, 2004:170-171). Hedges were the 'most frequent (41%) of all Interactional sub-categories (Hyland and Tse, 2004:171). The Hedges *may*, *could* and *would*, were used epistemically to present claims with both appropriate caution and deference to the views of the reader/examiner. However, there were differences in metadiscourse frequency between the master's students' dissertations and those of the doctoral students. The master's dissertations were more balanced between their frequency of Interactive and Interactional metadiscourse, whilst the PhD dissertations consisted of '10% more Interactive forms' Hyland and Tse (2004). According to Hyland and Tse (2004), the reason for this variation may be partly due to the greater length of the PhD dissertations which aligns with Swales (1988, 1990) and Bunton's (1999) suggestions that larger texts require the writer to provide more guidance on text organisation to aid the reader's memory. In addition, Hyland and Tse (2004) took into consideration the different context and writing experiences of the two student groups: firstly, the master's students have a shorter writing time frame in a course that requires other small projects and written reports or argumentative essays; secondly, although both the master's dissertation and the PhD dissertation are HE assessment tasks their communicative purpose differs. The former mainly demonstrates the knowledge and understanding of a student's discipline, whereas the latter is a manifestation of 'the academic credentials' (Hyland and Tse, 2004:171) of the doctoral student.

Another across genres study by Crosthwaite, Cheung, and Jiang (2017), adopted a Contrastive

Interlanguage Analysis corpus-based approach to compare final (5th) year dentistry, Hong Kong students' whole research reports (n-133), with comparable RAs (n-156). When comparing the frequency of Hedging devices across the part-genres corpora the RA DS corpus had a 'large number' of Hedging markers. In contrast, its Limitations section had a 'small to medium' frequency of Hedging markers (Crosthwaite et al, 2017:19). Across the corpora of whole RA texts Crosthwaite et al (2017) observed that there were significant differences in the lexis chosen to express Hedging. They found that the expert writers of the RAs used: 'the lemmas *indicate*, *estimate* and *suggests* frequently' (Crosthwaite et al, 2017:21). In contrast, student writers hedged the claims of others with 'claimed' and 'felt', while Hedging the reporting of behaviour with 'usually', 'sometimes' and explicitly expressing uncertainty with 'might', 'probably', and 'maybe'. The expert RA writers were also less likely 'to hedge with adverbs and modals' (Crosthwaite et al, 2017:22).

According to Salager-Meyer (1997) there are four reasons why scientific writing uses a high frequency of Hedges:

- [1]... authors tone down their statements in order to reduce the risk of opposition and minimize the "threat to face" [Levinson] that lurks behind every act of communication.
- [2] Ways of being more precise in reporting results.
- [3] Hedging may present the true state of the writer's understanding ...
- [4] Academics want their readers to know that they do not claim to have the final word on the subject ... (Salager-Meyer (1997:107-108).

It has been argued that Hedges are better understood as positive or negative politeness strategies (Myers, 1989, cited in Salager-Meyer (1997:108) and that the occurrence of a certain amount of Hedges has become conventionalised within scientific academic writing (Banks, 1994, cited in Salager-Meyer, 1997:107). This resonates with my own experience of academic writing in the biological and medical disciplines. Salager-Meyer (1997) presented a taxonomy of Hedges within scientific writing as follows:

modal auxiliary verbs ... may, might, can, could, would, should; modal lexical verbs (or the so-called 'speech act verbs' used to perform acts of doubting and evaluating rather than merely (describing) ... to seem, to appear, (epistemic verbs) to believe, to suggest, to estimate, to tend, to think, to argue, to indicate, to propose, to speculate; Adjectival, adverbial and nominal modal

phrases: probability adjectives: e.g. possible, probable, un/likely (Salager-Meyer (1997:109-110).

According to Salager-Meyer (1997), by using these language devices to Hedge their statements scientists avoid making the ‘bold and presumptuous statements [which] are frowned upon’ Salager-Meyer (1997:117) in scientific publishing. Thus, Hedging could be viewed as the key rhetorical metadiscourse feature of science’s cautious, academic expression of stance (Salager-Meyer, 1997; Gross and Chesley, 2012). The latter researchers’ study demonstrates a *modus operandi* for an analysis of medical researchers’ writing, within the current environment of a growing dependency on industry funding for scientific research. Gross and Chesley (2012) hypothesized that this dependency creates a need for medical researchers to be less sceptical in the presentation of their findings. They used an automatic programme (Kilicoglu and Bergler, 2008, cited in Gross and Chesley) to record the frequency of Hedges including: ‘... modal verbs (*may, could*), adverbs (*apparently, possibly*), and lexical verbs (*suggest [that], believe [that] ..*’ Gross and Chesley (2012: 91). In this way, they quantified the frequency of Hedges to evaluate the medical researchers’ stance. This resonates with this study’s approach which focused on the expression of stance in the two key Clinical Pharmacy part-genres: the master’s dissertation DC and the RA DS. To consider the contextual reasons for any variation in stance from caution to certainty Gross and Chesley (2012) referred to Aristotle’s *Rhetoric* (2007 cited in Gross and Chesley, 2012) which discusses the persuasiveness of speakers to build a professional profile for a medical researcher as follows:

...the character of the speaker (*ethos*)
...the emotional bonds speakers are able to forge with audiences (*pathos*)
...the arguments the speaker makes (*logos*) (Aristotle’s *Rhetoric*, 2007
cited in Gross and Chesley, 2012: 86).

In addition, Gross and Chesley (2012) adopted the concept of *aberrant behaviour* as applied by the sociologist Merton (1968) in his theory of deviance in which he states that:

The distribution of statuses through competition must be so organised that positive incentives for adherence to status obligations *for every position* within the distributive order. Otherwise, ...aberrant behaviour ensues (Merton, 1968:188, cited in Gross and Chesley, 2012:88).

Thus creating ‘a state of anomie or ‘normlessness’ (ibid) in the community. Thus, a lack of Hedging, can occur on two levels: individual and in the community because aberrant behaviour

can spread from the individual through a community of practice, and also impact on interconnecting practices (Gross and Chesley, 2012). That such behaviour continues to spread may be explained by Habermas (1982: 264, cited in Gross and Chesley, 2012) belief that: ‘Communicative action becomes strategic: its goal is no longer to mutual understanding, but an end deliberately hidden from one of the interlocutors.’ This is a challenging aspect of rhetoric for the reader and writer which should be addressed in ESAP pedagogy. Gross and Chesley’s (2012) study’s findings evidenced that:

1. As hypothesized, there is a decreased amount of hedging in articles with clear industry sponsorship. With the result being highly significant.
2. A higher journal impact factor led to lower amounts of hedging, and RCTs [randomized control trials] had fewer hedges than non- RCT [non randomized control trials] studies (Gross and Chesley, 2012:93).

Gross and Chesley(2012:97) recommended that: ‘... it is not enough to track this linguistic deviance; it is also necessary to explain it, to connect it to larger social forces.’ They suggest that it is plausible that disciplinary rhetorical structure and metadiscourse variation reflects the tendency for research in the 21st century to become more expensive, systematic and hierarchically organized. Change in the construction of scientific knowledge has been noted previously by Bazerman (1988) who reported that the process by which knowledge was produced in the natural sciences had become progressively more rational, cumulative and collaborative. Similarly, following Price’s (1963) concept of ‘big science’ McNamee and Willis (1994): ‘...outlin[ed] a trend towards bureaucratization that is objectively measured by reference to quantitative data, collaborative authorship and external financial support’ (McNamee and Willis,1994, cited in Holmes, 1997:332-333). This was evidenced in Holmes (1997) study, in which by applying the three indicators noted above it was found that: ‘political science and sociology are still rather less bureaucratized than the natural sciences, while ‘History is ‘substantially less so’ (Holmes,1997:333). In addition, Gross and Chesley (2012) reported a growing dependency on industry funding for scientific research (*interdiscursive factor*). In this study’s local discourse community (Clinical Pharmacy) the RA corpus was found to be comprised of RAs: of qualitative and quantitative research designs, mostly the result of collaborative authorship, and with some external funding. The latter two factors, methodological and interdiscursive respectively, could be useful pedagogically to introduce a discussion with master’s students on how discourse community’s academic writing conventions may be influenced by internal and external factors, which might over time lead to

change in academic writing conventions. This socio-constructivist pedagogical approach with its use of authentic texts would probably resonate with master's students. The next sub-section of this Chapter will move on to review another aspect of metadiscourse: its variation across languages and cultures.

3.5.3: Metadiscourse across languages and cultures

According to (Swales and Feak, 2000) language and cultural differences might challenge some international students' ability to comply with the expected academic conventions of a discourse community's genres. They and other researchers believe that the appropriate use of metadiscourse could provide a significant challenge to L2 international students, as their first language's academic conventions may differ to that of English speaking academia (Swales, 1990; Swales and Feak, 2000; Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Hyland, 2012; Llantada, 2014; Kheryadi, and Muin and Ahmad, 2022). Furthermore, Swales and Feak (2000) state that:

... in other academic cultures the heavy use of metadiscourse can be seen as indicating unnecessary promotion of one's own text (Finland, Sweden) or as reflecting an insultingly low assessment of the intelligence of the reader (China, Japan) (Swales and Feak, 2000:171).

In contrast, Dafouz-Milne's (2008) study provided evidence that Spanish writers used interpersonal metadiscourse in a similar manner to English writers to achieve their persuasive communicative purpose in professional journalistic writing. The most prevalent interpersonal markers in the English and Spanish newspapers' opinion columns (n=40) were found to be Hedges (Dafouz-Milne, 2008). Although, cautious language is synonymous with academic writing it appears to also play an important role in journalistic writing. However, Dafouz-Milne (2008) reported that there were nuanced differences in the structure of an argument across the two languages:

Spanish conventions build arguments positively using *additive markers*, whereas English arguments have a 'dialectical approach (i.e pros and cons), a strategy that implies the use of *adversative markers*' (Dafouz-Milne, (2008:105).

Dafouz-Milne (2008) study drilled down further into the data to identify the most prevalent forms of Hedging marker in the journalistic register. These were: '...epistemic verbs (i.e.

can, could, would (or equivalent Spanish) poder, seems/parece in detriment of other strategies.’ Dafouz-Milne (2008:107). The most frequently used modal was ‘would (n-45) followed by may (n-28) could (n-23) and can (n-17). In Spanish, poder (n-37) was followed by conditional forms (functionally equivalent to would)’ (Dafouz-Milne, 2008:107). Another point of difference between the two languages was the use of ‘Interpersonal’ (interactional) metadiscourse expressing certainty (Certainty markers/Boosters):

... most frequent attitudinal expressions correspond to deontic verbs in both groups (i.e. must/deber, should/deberí’a) with the English using nearly double the amount that the Spanish writers use (Dafouz-Milne, 2008:108).

In addition, in Dafouz-Milne’s (2008) study there were no obvious differences between the use of different types of markers . In addition, although journalism is a professional not an academic register Dafouz-Milne’s (2008) study’s report identifies the way one national language and culture might structure arguments differently to another. This evidences the significance of knowledge of the rhetorical metadiscourse conventions in persuasive writing across different languages.

In contrast, Lee and Casal’s (2014) Contrastive Rhetoric study found significant difference between L1 English (n-100) and L1 Spanish (n-100) writers use of Hedges and Certainty markers in the academic register of their first language based on a corpus (n-200) of master’s in Engineering Results and Discussion Chapters part-genres. They found that in the discipline of Engineering the Results and DC of Engineering master's theses were conflated as one Chapter in both languages. However, Lee and Casal (2014) following Hyland’s (2005a) model not only found significant differences in metadiscourse frequency across the two corpora (L1 Spanish and L1 English students), but also across ‘most of the sub-categories’. Hedges were the most frequent Interactional metadiscourse language markers in both corpora (Lee and Casal, 2014): ‘at a frequency of ‘110.6 and 67.3 per 10,000 words’ (Lee and Casal (2014:43) in the L1 English and L1 Spanish master’s dissertations respectively. English master’s dissertation writers were found to use more Hedges than their Spanish counterparts, although both L1 English and L1 Spanish writers used fewer boosters (Certainty markers): ‘93.8 and 72.5 per 10,000 words’ (Lee and Casal (2014:43) respectively. Therefore, L1 English writers had a greater frequency of Certainty markers. The metadiscourse marker detail of Lee and Casal’s study (2014) might enable a more in-depth comparison in the discussion of this study’s findings later in Chapter 7. However, as Lee and Casal (2014:49) warn, their study was

focused on one discipline (Engineering) so their findings cannot be generalised to other disciplines in the hard or soft sciences. In addition, their analysis was of a chapter of merged Results and Discussion chapters, and not a discrete Discussion Chapter as in this study.

A recent language and cultural Contrastive Analysis study by Kheryadi and Ahmad (2022) reports that Hedges were more frequently used in English articles than in corresponding Arabic RAs. Kheryadi and Ahmad (2022:317) noted that Arabic writers: ‘..frequently utilize frequency adverbs to emphasize constraints on the application of their arguments, such as, *adatan* (usually), *ahyanan* (sometimes)..’ In addition, Kheryadi and Ahmad (2022:319) referred to the identification of a ‘high frequency’ of the *Emphatic* (Certainty marker) ‘*inna*’, which conveys an assertive discoursal self, by the-Arabic authors. This may be linked to why Arabic RA authors in their study utilised fewer Hedges when writing in their first language than English authors did in their L1. These insights into Arabic language and culture serve as a reminder of the importance of the students’ profile in the creation of a student needs analysis. In addition, Kheryadi and Ahmad’s (2022) study provides evidence of difference in the social action of the expression of stance across writers of the same genre, who have different languages and cultures. Thus, supporting the concern that language and cultural differences might challenge some international students’ ability to develop their academic voice and expression of stance.

To sum up, metadiscourse has become a highly researched feature of academic writing, albeit the findings are based on a variety of metadiscourse models. The original sub-division into two types of metadiscourse: textual and interpersonal has been modified by Hyland and Tse’s (2004) model by adopting the terms *Interactive* and *Interactional* (Thompson, 2001, cited in Hyland and Tse, 2004:168). This aligned with Hyland and Tse’s (2004) conceptualisation of all metadiscourse as having the communicative purpose of persuading readers to accept writers’ claims. Research studies that have explored Interactional metadiscourse use in the RA and a few master’s dissertation corpora have mainly aligned, in that Hedges have been found to be the most prevalent metadiscourse marker across disciplines, language and cultures. Notable exceptions occur in studies conducted in Engineering (Lee and Casal, 2014) and Dentistry (Crosthwaite et al’s (2017)). Whilst Contrastive Rhetoric studies have suggested that Interactional (interpersonal) metadiscourse features of academic writing are inexorably linked to the specific language and disciplinary cultural contexts in which genres are written even within the same discipline and part-genre. In this way, the choice of metadiscourse reflects

not only the epistemology and values of a discipline's discourse community (Crosthwaite et al, 2017; Hyland, 2017), but also the language and culture of the writer (Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Lee and Casal, 2014; Kheryadi and Ahmad's, 2022), and the identity (novice or expert) of the writer in the discourse community (Crosthwaite et al, 2017; Hyland and Tse, 2004). The latter factor is of course closely associated with genre. These findings support Hyland's (2000) view that:

....writing is a culturally-situated social activity, and metadiscourse is another example of how writing reflects a rhetorical sensitivity to interpersonal and intertextual relationships (Hyland, 2000: 110).

Hyland's explanation of the significance of metadiscourse uses the term rhetoric '... not in its contemporary sense as discourse level organizational patterns, but as, strategies of persuasion, focusing on the categorizations of classical rhetoric...' (Hyland, 2019:75). Thus, not only does metadiscourse research afford an exploration of differences in genre features, whether significant or nuanced, but also it illuminates writers' positioning to their discourse community. In this way, this study was able to consider Research Question 5 later in Chapter 7. This dissertation will now proceed to present this study's methodology based on its rationale and practice concern: the limited part-genre knowledge of the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation DC. Thus, following the ESP approach of conducting research in response to the needs of students with the aim of creating useful discourse community specific pedagogical resources.

Chapter 4: Methodology

4.1: Research Context

This study was set within a branch of Education focused on the ‘Teaching of English as a Second or Other Language’ (TESOL). Within this branch of Education there has been much debate on whether research into Second Language Acquisition was relevant to the development of pedagogy and practice. This has been referred to as the ‘research and practice gap’ (Lantolf and Poehner, 2014:5). There were two schools of thought in the TESOL community. Firstly, the ‘two coins approach’: theory and practice are viewed as separate entities (Clarke, 1994; Stewart, 2006; Jakobivits and Gordon, 1974, cited in Lantolf and Poehner, 2014:3). Secondly, an approach that sees theory and practice as ‘two sides of the same coin’ (Long, 2009; and Ellis, 2005b, cited in Lantolf and Poehner, 2014:5). The latter position seems salient to TESOL. For example, over my twenty years of ESP (EAP and ESAP) practice I conducted my own research on a master’s degree in ‘Teaching of English as a Second or Other Language’ (MATESOL) and was involved in a few small research projects with colleagues when the opportunity arose.

Although proponents of different research approaches Long (2009) and Ellis (2005b) created similar lists of significant core features of research and teaching that are relevant to the pedagogical aims of this study.

- respect for ‘learner syllabuses/developmental processes’
- provision of rich (not impoverished) input
- classroom level use through a ‘potentially infinite range of pedagogy’
- instruction must be directed at implicit knowledge (Lantolf and Poehner, 2014:5)

The ‘provision of rich (not impoverished) input’ (Ellis, 2005; Long, 2009, cited in Lantolf and Poehner, 2014: 4-5) recommended that TESOL pedagogy requires the support of research. This aligns with Lantolf and Poehner’s (2014) argument for ‘... a praxis-based perspective, which is at the foundation of Vygotsky’s theory, the relationship [of which] is cyclic: theory-practice-theory’. Furthermore, Lantolf and Poehner’s (2014) argued that Vygotsky’s Socio-cultural Theory (SCT) was the way of bridging the research and practice gap in TESOL. This study is an example of *praxis* (Vygotsky, 1978) as it responded to a practice concern in a master’s level dissertation writing workshop regarding the limited part-genre knowledge of students and lecturer. Indeed, ESP teachers have since the 1960s been associated with the

creation of a responsive pedagogy by putting students' needs at the forefront of research. For example, ESP research into academic writing as described earlier in Chapter 3 has identified the rhetorical structural features of part-genres and their variation across academic disciplines.

Therefore, the need for research into the academic writing conventions of specific disciplinary discourse communities has grown in significance as students require guidance to develop their academic discursive self within local discourse communities as described earlier in Chapter 1 and 2. If more in depth research studies are conducted in the disciplines this might not only inform students and lecturers of their local discourse communities' preferred way of expressing voice and stance, but also highlight those features which are generic across the disciplines. In addition, as noted in Chapter 2, feedback on students' written work is an essential element of ESP pedagogy so teachers need to develop genre and part-genre knowledge within a local discourse community. Thus, this study adopted a Critical Genre Analysis text in context research approach as it aimed for the 'provision of rich (not impoverished) input' (Ellis, 2005b; Long, 2009, cited in Lantolf and Poehner, 2014: 5) in ESP pedagogy. In this way, the provision of genre knowledge set in a Clinical Pharmacy master's programme's local discourse community would not only enhance students' and my own part-genre knowledge, but also might contribute to other ESP and discipline lecturers' feedback on the master's dissertation DC. In addition, it could contribute to the development of knowledge regarding the academic conventions of the high stakes master's dissertation DC part-genre.

Despite, the increased interest in a text in context approach supported by several researchers, there still remains an argument for further context rich, discipline specific research into genres and part-genres (Bhatia, 2017; Flowerdew and Wan, 2010 [in professional fields]; (Hyland, 2017; Moreno and Swales, 2018 [in academic disciplines]. This would provide 'thick' descriptions of genres in the discourse communities in which they are written (Geertz, 1973; Swales, 1990; Swales and Feak; 2000; Bhatia; 1993, 2008, 2017). Thus, enabling an exploration of the communicative reasons for a discipline's academic writing conventions, which is thought to be related to its: particular form of knowledge content; research methodology; and professional profile (Swales, 1990; Moreno and Swales, 2018; Crosthwaite et al, 2017; Hyland, 2017, 2019). Thus, text in context knowledge could improve the transferable academic writing skill outcomes, for students transitioning onto their professions or academic research. As noted earlier in this Chapter Bhatia (2008, 2017) has long insisted

that only by ‘moving from text to context [can] true understanding be achieved’ (Bhatia, 2008:162). Hence, his development of the Critical Genre Analysis approach which provides an explicit contextualised development of Swales (1990) Genre Analysis Theory. This Chapter will now be divided into four further sections: Section 4.2 will review the study’s research context; Section 4.3 will restate the study’s aims and research questions; Section 4.4 will discuss the criteria by which the Critical Genre Analysis (CGA) approach was selected; Section 4.5 will present and discuss the qualitative and quantitative methods; Finally, Section 4.6 will discuss and describe the methods.

4.2: Study Context

This study was conducted in a UK university’s Clinical Pharmacy master’s programme from 2009–2021. The programme ran over two semesters with student entry in Semester B (January – April), and completion in semester C (May–July). The student cohort usually consisted of around twenty international students mainly from the Middle East. However, between 2019–2021 international student recruitment was severely affected by the Covid 19 pandemic. From 2000–2021 I was an ESP (EAP and ESAP) lecturer on a variety of TESOL undergraduate and postgraduate programmes (often simultaneously) at the university. This included my role from 2009–2021 as the School of Pharmacy, now Department of Pharmacy, Academic Skills Tutor. The role of Academic Skills Tutor was initially part of a government funded framework for academic language and skills support at the university. This model embedded Academic Skills Tutors in several Schools including Business, Pharmacy, Nursing, and Engineering. The programme was available to all students whether home or international, undergraduate or postgraduate. After the withdrawal of government funding, the embedded Academic Skills model in the Clinical Pharmacy master’s programme continued to be supported by a suite of master’s dissertation writing workshops and tutorials. It was a practice concern in this academic writing support course, that motivated this study’s research project.

4.3: Aims of Study

The main aim of the study as noted in Chapter 1 was to explore the key rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features of the Clinical Pharmacy master’s dissertation DC, with reference to the intertextuality and interdiscursivity of its local discourse community. As described earlier in Chapter 1 to achieve these aims five research questions were focused on as follows:

1. What are the key rhetorical structural features of a Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation Discussion Chapter and Discussion Sections of the research articles (RAs) they cite (*intertextuality*)?
2. What variation, if any, is observed in the rhetorical structural features of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter and the Discussion Sections of the RAs they cite (*intertextuality*)?
3. What are the key rhetorical metadiscourse features of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter and the Discussion Sections of the RAs they cite (*intertextuality*)?
4. What variation, if any, can be observed between key rhetorical metadiscourse of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapters and the Discussion Sections of the RAs they cite (*inter(intertextuality)*) ?
5. How can the selection of key rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features in the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation Discussion Chapter be explained in terms of its context (*interdiscursivity*)?

Exploration of the study's five research questions required a mixed methods (quantitative and qualitative) research study design. The RA DS part-genre was also explored as the RA was a key genre in the genre network of the master's dissertation DC. This is because for all students in UK Higher Education it is the convention for writers to support claims with reference to previous research, models, and theories. Indeed, as noted previously, much ESP research has focused on the RA as an exemplar for academic writing. This includes its overall rhetorical structure drawn from that of the 'scientific method' in terms of its part-genres: Introduction, Methodology, Results and Discussion (IMRD) (Swales,1990). According to, Bruce (1983, cited in Swales,1990:133) a cognitive linguistics researcher, this structure was valued as its: 'format followed the logical cycle of inductive inquiry'. Therefore, the RA's influence on master's students' academic writing is twofold: as a source of content knowledge, and an exemplar of academic writing conventions (norms) within a discipline. This will be discussed further in Chapter 5 when the local discourse community's context is explored via its participant's perceptions, documentation, and ESP pedagogy. Although the Clinical Pharmacy programme's supervisors recommended the RA as an exemplar, the master's dissertation and the RA genres have different communicative purposes. The dissertation is a highly weighted Higher Education assessment task, whereas the RA provides information regarding current research studies' findings, models and theories. In addition, the master's dissertation is written by a novice in research and English academic research writing

conventions, whereas the RA provides information regarding an experienced researcher/writer's current study's findings, models and theories. Therefore, I hypothesised in Chapter 1, that the RA DS part-genre might not be the best exemplar of rhetorical structure and metadiscourse use in the master's dissertation DC. Thus, this study adopted a mixed methods CGA research design to afford quantitative analysis of the findings of a manual (qualitative) Genre Analysis of the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS.

4.4: Critical Genre Analysis (CGA)

This consisted of a Genre Analysis of the key rhetorical structures (moves and steps) in two corpora: a master's dissertation DC and a RA DS corpus, followed by a quantitative comparison of their frequency. Thus, an exploration of Research Questions 1–4 was achieved. On the other hand, Research Question 5 required a qualitative approach to draw together the local discourse community's members' perceptions of the dissertation DC, with the guidance available in the Clinical Pharmacy programme's documentation, supervision and ESAP support pedagogy. As described earlier in Chapter 2 there are a number of discourse analysis approaches that could have been employed to explore the study's research questions including those of: New Rhetoric (NR), Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), and English for Specific Purposes (ESP.) According to Coulthard (1994, preface) these are all based on 'four shared assumptions' as follows:

... text analysis is best located within a Systematic view of language; that written text is essentially interactive; that it is imperative when analysing texts to be aware of the purpose and process of creation; that any given text is just one of a series of possible textualisations and for that reason gains part of its meaning from what has not been said (Coulthard, 1994, preface).

The selection of the Critical Genre Analysis approach was based on its alignment with my methodological, theoretical and pedagogical positions. Firstly, as noted previously in Chapter 2, methodologically there are three perspectives of academic writing research: 'text oriented'; 'writer oriented'; and 'reader oriented' (Hyland, 2002a: 6, 22, 33). According to Hyland, (2002a), the text-oriented approach dichotomises into two views of texts as: 'autonomous objects' (Hyland, 2002a: 6), or 'discourse' (Hyland, 2002:11). The former is a grammar and syntactical view of text based on Chomsky's concept of Transformational Grammar, whilst the latter is a discoursal view sometimes referred to as 'language in use' (Crystal, 2004a:10)

which resonates with my own ontological view of academic writing as a social action. In this view, grammar and structure are not only components of a text, but also demonstrate the writer's subject knowledge, opinion and discourse community (Crystal, 2004). Likewise, Hyland (2002) states that the:

...discourse' approach... draw[s] the analyst onto a wider paradigm which locates texts in a world of communicative purposes and social action, identifying the ways that texts actually work as communication (Hyland, 2002:11).

Although both Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and Genre Analysis Theory follow this text-oriented approach as described in Chapter 2, they have significantly different frameworks. Firstly, the SFL approach does not situate its 'elemental genres' within a socio-cultural context, whilst The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach (Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2000, 2004) identifies key texts as genres and recognises the importance of their social-cultural context (Hyland, 2004). This approach aligns with my own view of writing as a socio-cultural action: communication between a writer and reader.

Secondly, the ESP approach aligns with Genre Analysis Theory (Swales, 1990), in its adoption of a move/step structural framework to explore the phenomenon of rhetorical language use. Genre Analysis Theory (Swales, 1990) has defined genre as realising the communicative purpose of a discourse community, which can be global or local (Killingsworth, 1992). Thus, the Genre Analysis approach affords an exploration of key genres within the local discourse community of the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme. Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) have described Genre Analysis as having a systematic, schematic approach to the categorisation of moves as the macro-components of genre structure. In this way, it affords a comparison of its findings across key genres within a discourse community and across other local discourse communities. Thus, enabling the development of a local and global view of the academic writing conventions of the discipline of Clinical Pharmacy.

Finally, pedagogically the Genre Analysis approach affords the transfer of part-genre knowledge gained from research into ESP pedagogy and practice. In contrast, to other discourse analysis approaches it has a systematic framework focused on texts as genres, sub-

genres and part-genres, as described in Chapter 2. This has proved of assistance to students at the tertiary level of HE as noted earlier in Chapter 2. The close relationship of the Genre Analysis approach with pedagogical reasons for research into genre has been explained by Dudley Evans (1994) as follows:

In ESP we are interested, often for pedagogical reasons, in exploring established but not necessarily codified conventions in certain key genres about style of presentation of content, the order of the presentation of that content and all the myriad rhetorical factors that affect the plausibility for readers of the argument presented (Dudley-Evans, 1994:219).

In addition, the application of Genre Analysis to practice aligns with Socio-cultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978), which views writing as a social activity that can be developed by the use of appropriate tasks addressed by pairs or groups of students resulting in scaffolded learning (Vygotsky, 1978). This also aligns with ESP genre pedagogy's use of elements of Task Based Learning pedagogy (Willis, 1996). As described in Chapter 2, the SFL and Genre Analysis pedagogical approaches use different terminology: the former explores the rhetorical *macro structure* (Van Dijk, 1972) of a text, such as, a Report in terms of *stages*, such as: Orientation/Problem/Conclusion. On the other hand, the Swalian (1990) schemata terms its components as moves categorised as: Introduction /Problem /Solution /Evaluation. Although the differences in terminology do not significantly hinder comparison between the two models, in my opinion the ESP approach provides a clearer categorisation that facilitates the transfer of part-genre knowledge from findings to pedagogy. In addition, ESP research terminology is transferable into the metalanguage of its pedagogy as described earlier in Chapter 2.

Another important feature of ESP research terminology is that it employs a grammatical metalanguage which is similar to that applied in many TESOL course books. For example, *Academic Writing: A Handbook for International Students* (Bailey, 2015) and grammar text books, such as, *Advanced Grammar in Use* (Hewings, 2005). However, the Genre Analysis approach does require the introduction of some unfamiliar structural terms: moves and steps. In my opinion, these are comparatively straightforward and relatable to the Genre Analysis framework. Therefore, a shared metalanguage referring to grammatical features affords direct transference of this study's findings to pedagogy. In addition, this use of a 'standard grammar' metalanguage provides a user friendly metalanguage for the student and teacher/researcher,

which I believe would encourage the adoption of the Genre Analysis approach.

Turning to the appropriateness of the chosen research design I reviewed this study's application of the CGA approach according to the four parameters suggested by Bhatia (1993) across the scales of: 'theoretical orientation; general-specific; application to pedagogy; and surface-deep analysis (Bhatia, 1993: 3-5). Firstly, in terms of theoretical orientation CGA applies Genre Analysis Theory with its view of writing as discourse, and its systematic framework of genres and part-genres. Thus, it provides a systematic schema of a macro-structure of moves consisting of a micro-structure of *steps*. Secondly, this study aligns with Socio-cultural Theory (Vygotsky, 1978) in terms of an ontological view of writing as a social activity which can be developed in *scaffolded* group tasks. In addition, CGA has a focused approach on genre and part-genre in a local discourse community so would fit high on the general-specific scale in terms of its specificity. In addition, its application in the practice of ESP pedagogy responds to students' needs. Finally, it enables a '*thick*' (Riley, 1971; and Geertz, 1973) analysis of a text in context which Bhatia considers of 'perhaps of most importance' (Bhatia, 1993:5). Therefore, the four parameters of the CGA approach have explicitly extended Genre Analysis Theory's contextual approach to research design by viewing:

...genres [as] constructions of professional [or academic] community discourse whose meaning is created by, and for the consumption of, the members of the professional [or academic] community. This implies that any comprehensive and useful understanding of discourses of this kind must necessarily be informed by the perceptions, experiences and practices of the professional [or academic] community Bhatia (2017:67).

In this way, CGA attempts to explore and understand the desired outcomes of local discourse communities, key genres (intertextuality) and the contextual factors (interdiscursivity) that impact on them. In other words, Bhatia (ibid) provides an approach that can '... narrow the gap between text and context' (Lillis, 2008:356). To achieve a CGA research design Bhatia (2008) advocates the conflation of three sets of data as previously recommended by Foucault (1981) which provides:

... an examination of the intertextual relationships amongst practices;
...narratives of experience drawn from key practitioners within these institutional cultures and tested against the experience of other community

members; and selective analyses of critical moments in the discourses of ... practices in specific sites of engagement (Foucault, 1981, cited in Bhatia, 2008:170).

Thus, this study is situated in a critical moment of HE assessment practice within a local discourse community. Following the exploration of the study's context its focus pivoted to an exploration of the rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features related to the expression of criticality. In Bhatia's (2017) CGA framework an interpretive ethnological approach based on Smart's model (Smart, 1998, 2006, cited in Bhatia, 2017: 68) was employed to '.. make sense of it all'. However, in this study with its focus on voice and stance in the discipline of Clinical Pharmacy I followed Gross and Chesley's (2012) medical science professional profile framework based on Aristotle's Rhetoric (2007). This type of research design has been termed as *ethnographically oriented* by Hyland, (2006:65) rather than *ethnography* as defined by Hammersley and Atkinson, (2007) and Lillis, (2008). Although similar in approach and outcomes the latter 'involves researcher involvement over an extended period of time.' (Hammersley and Atkinson, (2007:3). However, the former is ethnographic in terms of its outcomes as it:

- Offers a comprehensive, detailed and 'thick' description (Geertz, 1973)
- Portrays an insider's perspective which gives precedence to the meaning of the event or situation to participants.
- Provide[s] an account grounded in data collected from multiple sources which develops a conceptual explanatory framework (Hyland, 2006a: 66)
- A relatively open-ended approach (Maxwell, 2004b cited in Hammersley and Atkinson, 2007).

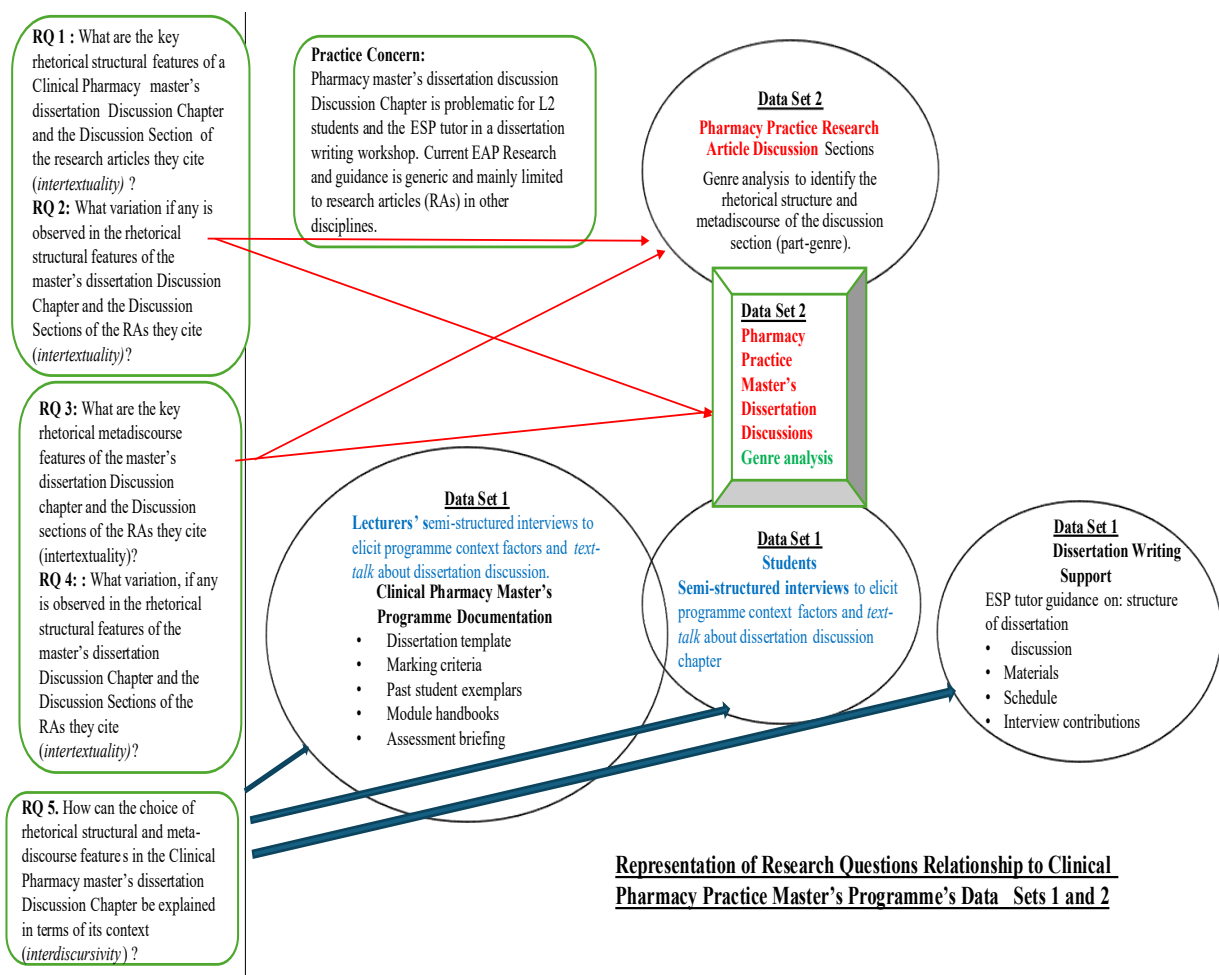
In this way academic writing can be explored as a social activity and not a product created by an individual within a vacuum. In addition, Bhatia (2008) has strongly advised that any analysis of discourse features of a particular genre requires comparison with another genre, in order to determine whether such features are stable across genres or indeed variable as seems more likely. Thus, this study has compared the master's dissertation DC with the other key RA genre in its genre network. The next section of this Chapter will describe this study's application of qualitative and quantitative methods in its CGA approach.

4.5: Methods

4.5.1: Introduction

This section will describe and discuss the mixed methods applied in this study's CGA research design in relation to the Research Questions explored as demonstrated in Figure 2 below. There were two data sets: data set 1 which included the participants' perceptions and data drawn from the Clinical Pharmacy documentation, ESP pedagogical resources, and external dissertation guidelines; and data set 2 which includes the findings of the genre analysis of sampled students' master's dissertations and RAs accessed by students.

Figure 2: Diagram Representing the Application of Mixed Methods in Research Questions in Relation to this Study's Research Questions



Before the methods adopted in this study's ethnographically oriented research design can be described it should be noted that, such a study that involves participants must consider its Ethics approach as a priority. Therefore, the next section, sub-section 4.5.2, will present an overarching

description of this study's Ethics approach. This will be followed by sub-sections 4.5.3. and 4.5.4. which will describe the adopted qualitative and quantitative methods to collect and analyse data collected from data set 1 and 2 respectively. Sub-section 4.5.3 will present the qualitative methods adopted to collect and analyse data set 1. Firstly, the semi-structured interviews of students (n-4) and lecturers (n-7) who were members of the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme between 2016-2019, and the thematic analysis of the interview transcripts. Secondly, relevant information was collected from programme and module documents including: the programme's learning aims and outcomes; the assessment schedule; dissertation writing templates; and assessment briefing. In addition, ESP master's dissertation writing support resources and external dissertation writing guides, such as, the Cochrane Systematic Review (2019) guidelines. Finally sub-section 4.5.4 will describe and discuss the Genre Analysis (qualitative/quantitative approach) of the master's DC and the RA DS corpora. This will include: corpus selection; step coding; identification of moves; and the calculation of step and move frequencies. Finally, a computer assisted corpus study of metadiscourse use in the two corpora will be described.

4.5.2: Ethics

As an EdD student I complied with the university's Ethics procedure and protocols. For example, the study was approved by the Social Sciences, Arts and Humanities ECDA under the protocol numbers: EDU/PGR/UH/03167 and aEDU/PGR/UH/03167(1). In planning and conducting the research I referred to the British Educational Research Association (BERA) guidelines with regard to participant recruitment and handling of collected data. BERA states that their ethics guidelines and regulations: ' .. represent the tenets of best ethical practice that have served our community of researchers well in the past and will continue to do so in the future.' (BERA, 2018: iii). I followed BERA's five principles (see Appendix A). As a teacher/researcher the principle of respect for others was a core feature of my own approach to the study's design and engagement with the participants. In this way I believe it was possible to build trust between myself and the participants which aligned with BERA's (2018:5) guidance that:

Trust is a further essential element within the relationship between researcher and researched as is the expectation that researchers will accept responsibility for their actions (BERA, 2018:5).

BERA (2018) sets out its ethical guidelines under five headings in terms of the researcher's responsibilities to:

- participants
- sponsors, clients and stakeholders in research
- the community of educational researchers
- publication and dissemination
- researchers' wellbeing and development (BERA, 2018:5)

These are based on the principle of 'do no harm', which the guidelines describe as 'Harm arising from participation in research' BERA's (2018). For example, in this study the effect of any student perceptions of power relationships valid or perceived had to be considered. A key factor that might have contributed to student participants' perceptions of any power I might hold in the local discourse community, was whether I was seen as an *insider* on the *insider/outsider continuum* (Merton, 1972, cited in Hellawell, 2006: 484). I had practised at the University as an ESP (EAP and ESAP) lecturer since 2000 and worked in the role of Academic Skills Tutor for the School of Pharmacy for twelve years (2009 – 2021). Therefore, I had gained some insider knowledge of the ethos and ideology of the Clinical Pharmacy programme's discourse community. In addition, I believe that mutual trust had been built up with some members of the programme team over a decade of working with undergraduates and postgraduates in the School of Pharmacy, which had resulted in further collaboration between myself and the subject lecturers. Therefore, I believe I was perceived as an insider by the programme's lecturers and students albeit at the periphery. I believe this meant I was better situated to make research design decisions. For example, the semi-structured interviews were delayed until after the student assessed dissertations had been submitted. Therefore, the study's participant interviews did not intrude on students' or lecturers' busy programme schedule in semester C (May – July), when in addition to their other studies students began their master's research project. Thus, students' and lecturers' time constraints, with the stress and anxiety that they might cause, were respected at the business end of the course. However, I was aware that students might have been concerned that participation in the research would have some impact on their dissertation assessment grade, so it was made clear via face to face meetings, in the recruitment email, and via the participant information sheet that confidentiality was a priority of the study, and that I had no assessment responsibilities or influence on the grading of their dissertations.

The anonymity of the participants and the confidentiality of the collected data was maintained

in compliance with the university's Ethics protocols: all participants' names were removed from stored audio files and interview transcripts; data in my doctoral dissertation; and in any internal or external presentations of the data. All files, paper notes and transcripts were also kept securely according to university protocol. In this way it was hoped that the participants would feel comfortable in sharing their personal views. Indeed, the participants involved seemed reassured to see that the appropriate university documentation was in place. In reflection it is clear that by carrying out my responsibilities to the participants and by adhering to the University's Ethics protocols I was also fulfilling 'Responsibilities to sponsors, clients and stakeholders in the research.' (BERA, 2018).

4.5.3: Collection and analysis of contextual data

In this study, participants were recruited from two distinct membership groups in the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme's local discourse community: students (n-4) and lecturers/supervisors (n-7). The two groups were not differentiated according to any other criteria. Recruitment proved to be challenging even though lecturers of the 2016/17 cohort assisted by suggesting other colleagues as participants and even assisting with setting up meetings. Likewise, student participants also helped to recruit their peers by advising me of their availability post assessment submission. This has been termed '*snowball sampling*' (Vogt, 1999, cited in Atkinson and Flint, 2001). However, recruitment was further constrained by the effects of the Covid 19 pandemic on the master's programme's student recruitment leading to its suspension in 2020. Despite this all the participants were committed to the study's semi-structured interviews which took place in 2018.

Semi-structured interviews are '...are most appropriate for research that is exploratory or explanatory' (Schumm and Singabub1996:34). One of the main benefits of the semi-structured interview is the affordance of the *negotiation of meaning* (Foster and Ohta, 2005) between the interviewee and interviewer by an interchange of questions and clarification. This might have been of particular assistance to the L2 international students if confronted with any unfamiliar vocabulary. In addition, a new view or theme could be constructed which might benefit both the researcher and participant (Denscombe, 2007). Hyland (2003b) describes interviews as:

generally representing a very different way of understanding human experience, regarding knowledge as generated between people rather than objectified and external to them (Hyland (2003b:254)

To attempt to ‘understand the world from the subjects’ points of view’ Kvale (1996:1) recommends that the researcher takes an exploratory approach, which is similar to a traveller listening to the stories of the communities they visit. This is in contrast to the researcher being viewed as ‘miner’ looking for ‘nuggets in meaning’ (Kvale, 1996:1). This study’s interviews were usually conducted in one-to-one meetings, with the exception of one paired meeting, and were fitted into the lecturers’ and students’ schedules. The individual semi-structured interview process was manageable in terms of following a line of opinion in the prompts, and by the interjection of any necessary interaction in terms of probes, clarification, or negotiation of meaning. A video recorder was used to record audio only, because it provided excellent sound quality and an efficient replay facility for transcription purposes.

In the meetings I adopted the role of *monitor* (Kreuger, 1996) which required: ‘...a passive and neutral stance’ (Denscombe, 2007). Thus, a conversational dynamic was created, an important factor of which was the language spoken: English. Although the lecturers were all expert speakers/writers of English it was not always their first language (L1). However, all the student participants were L2 speakers, but were expert or close to expert speakers of English with some having an IELTS score of 7 or above in speaking. However, Cortazzi et al (2011) believes that the use of English in the interview may disadvantage L2 international students’ response. Therefore, they recommended that ideally the interviewer should share the participants’ L1 in order to avoid any breakdown in communication. However, within the time and cost constraints of this study it was not feasible for the researcher to learn Arabic or employ another interviewer. Moreover, there were possible issues of confidentiality in the use of L1 interviewers if they were other than the researcher. Although the participants appeared to be confident with the use of ‘*text-talk*’ the student meeting time allocation was increased after the preliminary interview, heeding Cortazzi et al’s (2011) recommendation that: ‘...interviewers should allow for extra time for possible explanations required by L2 participants.’ In addition, a *clarification prompt* was created, which was asked if any loss of researcher understanding occurred. This language issue was clearly also relevant to the development of the interview prompts (questions) as described in Appendix B. One of the student participants suggested a vocabulary change in the prompt schedule and the use of scaled questions. These were incorporated into the prompt sheet so participants could refer to a simple visual scale (see Appendices C, D and E). The lecturers’ prompt sheet was a modified version of the students’ prompts, but sometimes I asked them what they thought students might do.

A total of seven hours and thirty-five minutes of interviews with four students and seven programme lecturers was recorded and transcribed manually, as soon as possible after each recording. The transcriptions had a total word count of 26,740. Each transcript was then reviewed against the recording at least three times. Although a time consuming task it enabled early engagement with the gathered data. Later I employed someone to type up the anonymised transcripts, so that extracts could be analysed further with a concordancer, and examples extracted for this dissertation. Next a thematic analysis of the transcripts was conducted to explore: the master's students' backgrounds; academic writing guidance preferences (supervision, RAs, ESP support; the internet, and/or friends); and the participants' perceptions of writing a master's dissertation, in particular the master's dissertation DC (text talk). A preliminary analysis of the semi-structured interviews was conducted by manually highlighting and counting frequently repeated words and phrases which correlated with Miles and Huberman's (1994, cited in Kvale, 1996: 204) description of thirteen qualitative analysis strategies in terms of '*Noting patterns, themes (1)*' and *Counting (5)*. Other strategies that aligned with Miles and Huberman's (ibid) analysis process were applied bearing in mind Rapley's (2011) advice that these methods might not occur in a specified order, but rather as Kvale (1996:203) proposes in an *ad hoc* staging. This approach to data analysis appeared to align with an 'ethnographically oriented' research design in that it followed the data. In addition, I maintained an awareness of any non-prompted *emergent* themes (Cohen et al, 2013).

The preliminary analysis appears to have followed the six '*phases*' of Thematic Analysis as set out by Braun and Clark (2006:85). This was adopted for the final analysis with a focus on one or both of the two key features of the coded data: 'relevance' and 'prevalence' (Braun and Clark, 2006:81) (see Braun and Clark's (2006) model in Appendix F). Later the collected data was transferred from the transcripts into Word tables according to the theme or documentation. In addition, ESAP resources were accessed to note the guidance provided regarding writing a master's dissertation DC, and any reference to the RA as an exemplar of academic writing (intertextuality). However, a thematic analysis of the master's programme's documents was not conducted, but instead a manual analysis was undertaken based on the identification of key words, such as, 'criticality', 'research article', 'publishable'. The next section of this chapter will move on to describe and discuss the Genre Analysis model adopted and adapted in this study.

4.6: Genre Analysis

4.6.1: The model

This study conducted a Genre Analysis, because as previously discussed in Chapter 2 this appears to combine elements of SFL and NR to provide a more comprehensive approach to by placing genres within specific contexts, whilst analysing their lexico-grammatical and rhetorical structural features (Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2004). In addition, the ESP cycle of research into pedagogy (praxis) has been of great use to university students (home and international) attempting to join or develop their membership of academic disciplines (Van Dijk, 1972; Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993; Halliday and Martin, 1993; Hyland, 2002; and Hyland, 2017). Much ESP Genre Analysis research has focused on the RA Introduction part-genre with Swales' (1990) CaRS model found to be useful in ESP HE pedagogy worldwide. In addition, the move/step structural framework presented in the CaRS model as described earlier in Chapter 2 has been adopted in previous research into the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS including that of: Hopkins and Dudley- Evans (1988); Dudley-Evans (1994); Buckingham and Liu (2018); and Moreno and Swales (2018). This study followed Moreno and Swales' (2018) five move hierarchical move/step model in RA DSs from the disciplines of: Life Sciences, Healthcare Sciences, Social Sciences and other Natural Sciences. The next sub-section of this Chapter will describe the five stages of the Genre Analysis method applied in this study: 1) creation of the corpora (master's dissertations DC and RA DS); 2) selection and modification of Moreno and Swales' (2018) five move/step coded model; 3) manual coding of steps in corpora texts; 4) manual identification of moves; and 5) a computer assisted calculation of move and step frequencies.

4.6.2: Stage 1: Creation of corpora

Firstly, after receiving permission from the university's Chair of the Ethics Committee, a sample of master's dissertations (n-11) were selected from an online archive of Clinical Pharmacy past students' dissertations (n-67) between and including 2014/2015 to 2017/2018. The corpus consisted of two dissertations sampled from each academic year, with the exception of 2017/18, from which there were three. The criteria for selection was that dissertations had passed the course, and they had some commonality in their selected topic, which was mainly related to patient safety. This approach was similar to that taken by Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1988) who analysed master's dissertation DCs and RA DSs within a similar topic area in the discipline of Biology. In this study, the sampled dissertations utilised one of three types of research method: the systematic review (the investigation of previous

research studies' findings (secondary research); the 'audit' which was a retrospective analysis of the placement hospital's recorded data (secondary research); and the survey (primary, first hand research). This mix of study design could afford the opportunity for future research to explore any variation of rhetorical features according to study methods.

Secondly, to explore the intertextuality between the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS in the local discourse community, a corpus of sampled RAs (n-17) was compiled. A list of the RAs sampled is provided in Appendix M. Bearing in mind van Enk and Power's (2017) exploration of RA variation, this study defined an RA as a peer reviewed, published paper. Therefore, published sources, such as, NHS Guidelines were not included in the RA corpus. The selection of each RA was based on its association with the master's DCs, in terms of its frequency in each DC in the corpus. However, this selection method resulted in the RA's methods not always being reflected in the methodology of the master's dissertation they were cited in. But there was usually a relationship to the research topic. Initially a sample of twenty-four RAs was selected, but later this was reduced to seventeen. There were two main reasons for this: firstly, it was noted that three RAs were utilised by two or more of the master's dissertations. This could have resulted in data being skewed towards a particular frequency of rhetorical features present in one or two of the RAs. Therefore, the duplicated RAs were reduced to only one example in the RA corpus. Secondly, one dissertation was removed along with its sampled RAs as its data appeared to skew the overall findings due to extreme outliers in the move and step frequencies. This might have been due to this RA's mixed methods approach, and its uniquely high 'Recommendation' move frequency in the form of a bulleted list. These anomalous findings suggested that further research on mixed method RA studies might be of further pedagogical interest, as has been recommended by Hashemi and Moghaddam (2019).

Finally, the discussion texts from both corpora were copied and extracted from the whole master's dissertation and RA texts. The main challenge was the consideration of whether the presence of recommendations in the master's dissertation DC meant there was an overlap with the Conclusion section. I decided to delineate the Discussion text by its heading and not to include the Conclusion or any other later section. The overall presentation of the master's dissertations and the RAs' Discussion texts will be presented later in Chapter 6. Tables and diagrams were removed from texts prior to the manual Genre Analysis. The Word files were then stored in folders where the past student writers' and RA authors' anonymity was

preserved by the removal of all names, and instead labelled with a single (student) or double (lecturer) letter of the alphabet. The master's dissertation corpus (n=11) had a word count of 132,864 words, whilst the RA corpus (n=17) had a word count of 80,458. The master's dissertation DC corpus (n=11) had a word count of 42,394 words, minus the sections noted above, which represented 32% of the full dissertation word count (132,864). On the other hand, the RA DS corpus (n=17) with a word count of 20,246 represented a slightly smaller proportion (25%) of the RA whole article corpus word count (80,458). The master's dissertation Discussion Chapters had a median word count of 3,633, the lowest count being 2,554 with the highest 4,967.

4.6.3: Stage 3: Coding

A manual move analysis of the RA DS corpus was piloted based on my reading of previous research. The RA DCs were significantly shorter in length than those of the master's dissertation DC, so they afforded some expediency in conducting a pilot analysis. I wrote appropriate move descriptors against the texts identifying their communicative function. These descriptors aligned with the move types identified by previous research studies of the master's dissertation DC and RA DS (Hopkins and Dudley Evans, 1988; Swales, 1990; Dudley Evans, 1994; Yang and Allison, 2003; and Hashemi and Moghaddam, 2019). Previous studies' models, as described in Chapter 2, were found to be similar in the basic communicative purposes assigned to their move categories, albeit under a variety of often nuanced terminology. This study adopted Moreno and Swales's (2018) five move model, but I made modifications to some of the terminology and sub-divided the Evaluation move into Local and Global. These amendments were in response to the specific needs of the Clinical Pharmacy discourse community's master's students: the development of criticality.

As discussed earlier in Chapter 3 most move models appeared to have sufficient similarity to allow for comparison of their move structure between studies, despite differences in research purposes and researcher methodological preferences. For example, despite Hashemi and Moghaddam's (2019) application of a different discourse analysis approach, their five-move model aligned with that of Moreno and Swales (2018). Therefore, with the exception of this study's division of the *Evaluation* move into *Local* and *Global*, and some differences in terminology Hashemi and Moghaddam's (2019) move model is similar to this study's model too. For example, I interpreted Hashemi and Moghaddam's (2019) 'Discussion move' as equivalent to this study's *Findings plus comment* move. This similarity in communicative

functions was despite Hashemi and Moghaddam's (2019) (see Table 2 below) corpus consisting of Applied Linguistics (soft discipline) RAs, and not the Medical Science (hard discipline) Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertations of this study. A key reason for following Moreno and Swales' (2018:52) model was its comprehensive step coding system, designed for pedagogical purposes. This was based on Moreno and Swales' (2018) and Flowerdew's (2002) argument that to bridge the form function gap the step rather than the move is at a more appropriate level for initial text exploration.

Table 2: Comparison of Study's Discussion Chapter Move Model with that of Hashemi and Moghaddam (2019:251) and Moreno and Swales (2018:55) [*MD = master's dissertation]

This study's 6 move model (RAs and MD* corpora)	Hashemi and Moghaddam's 5 move model (RA corpus)	Moreno and Swales 5 move model (RA broad corpus)
Moves (Communicative Functions)		
Background information	Study	Background information
Findings plus comment	Discussion	Commenting on key results or other features
Findings report	Results	Summarizing or restating key results
Local evaluation	Evaluation	Evaluating the current study or other research or practice
Global evaluation		
Recommendation	Suggestions	Drawing implications

Moreno and Swales (2018) derived their move model from a broad cross disciplinary corpus of RA DS in: Life Sciences; Healthcare Sciences; Social Sciences; and other Natural Sciences, as they wanted to encompass moves across a broad range of disciplines. In this way, the model could then be used to identify specificity in move selection according to the writers' language and cultural differences (Contrastive Rhetoric). The similarity in the models in Table 2 above indicates a structural thread of generic move types across the two key academic part-genres: the master's dissertation DC and RA DS. Therefore, these move types should be transferred into ESP (ESAP and EAP) pedagogy.

As described above I followed Moreno and Swales' (2018) move/step coded model whilst making a few modifications in terms of descriptors and terminology (see Table 3 below). These modifications and my reasoning for making them are detailed in Appendix G. The modification of the move/step categorisation was driven by the pedagogical aim of this study: to focus on the expression of criticality in the part-genres. In addition, terminology was simplified to create relevant and accessible pedagogy for L2 international students. In this

way, students could be enabled to develop an academic voice, and expression of stance appropriate to that of their discourse community. For example, the move ‘Summarising or restating [current study’s] key results’ which was originally coded SUM by Moreno and Swales (2018) was included in the *Findings report* move. The step codes were employed during the Genre Analysis. However, I usually used the full name of each move rather than its code as demonstrated in Table 3 below. The final genre analysis model applied in this study is presented in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Coded Step/Move Model adapted from that of Moreno and Swales (2018: 52)

MOVE	STEP CODE and FUNCTION
<i>Background information</i>	KFS = Re-stating key features of the current study
	RWC = Reporting background information with citations
	POC = Providing background information without citations
<i>Findings report</i>	STATE = The state of knowledge or practice in broad terms
	RES = Presenting results neutrally
	MEAN = Establishing the meaning of findings (outcome)
<i>Findings plus comment</i>	EXPL = Explaining results or discussing effects (cause).
	CRES = Contrast with other results in current study
	SRES = Similarity with other results in current study
<i>Local Evaluation</i>	HRES = Highlighting results
	POS = Pointing out positive features of the current
	LIM = Pointing out limitations of current study
<i>Global Evaluation</i>	CPR = Contrast with previous research or guidelines
	SPR = Similarity with previous research findings or guidelines
	CONTR = Stating the contribution of the current study
<i>Recommendation</i>	APP = Suggesting the applicability of results or usability of outcomes
	REC = Making recommendations for future research or practice
	HYP = Hypothesizing for the future

The step coding system was applied at the sentence level to label all the steps and functional (ISS and ELF) ‘fragments’ in the master’s dissertation DC and RA DS text corpora. The corpora were manually coded for the first time in February 2020 with the coding reviewed in March 2020. This iterative process was interrupted in 2020 by the consequences of the Covid pandemic on my workload and subsequently my well-being. Genre Analysis was continued

through to October 2022. All coded findings in this study were determined from the final iteration in January 2023. Despite the benefit of reference to Moreno and Swales' (2018) code and the decisions they made regarding its development, the step coding was not without its challenges. Some of which Moreno and Swales (2018) had explored which resulted in their development of a segmentation protocol that broke the text into 'functional fragments', and from which 'segmentation was not necessarily sentence based' (Moreno and Swales, 2018:49). This resulted in an update to their definition of step as follows:

A step is a text fragment containing 'new propositional meaning' from which a specific communicative function can be inferred at a low level of generalization by a competent reader of the genre ... as 'essential to advance the text' in the direction expected 'to achieve the purposes of the [part] – genre ...' (Moreno and Swales, 2018:49).

This modified definition was helpful in terms of coding this study's corpora. For example, the master's dissertation DC writers sometimes communicated in long sentences. This created a question as to whether to represent the two fragments, such as, LIM and EV steps separately or to acknowledge their presence in one sentence so: LIM/ EV (see Coding Example 1 below). In the final iteration of this study's Genre Analysis coding the latter option was implemented. In addition, the emphasis on 'new propositional meaning' as a key characteristic (Moreno and Swales, 2018:49) resulted in Moreno and Swales (2018) reconsideration of the categorization of two coded fragments: 'Announcing' and 'Elaborating' as functions (Moreno and Swales, 2018:50,52) as neither of these communicated a 'new propositional meaning'. Therefore, these 'fragments' were redefined as purely 'functional' in terms of 'introducing text sections ('Announcing') or providing further detail (Elaborating). In this study 'propositional meaning' was understood as text content regarding 'the world outside the text, which often occurs together with 'metadiscourse meaning' which is more concerned with the text and its reception, in the same sentence' (Hyland, 2005:40-41). Coded Example 1 on the next page provides an illustration of the move/step hierarchical approach.

Coding Example 1: Extract from a RA Discussion Section [Key: A – H = paragraph; G1 = 1st move in paragraph G]

<u>Moves</u>	<u>Steps</u>	
Background Information	ISS G1 POC POC	¹ There are several limitations to our study. ¹ The reporting system at BWH is a Web-based vendor application that is accessible to all employees. ¹ Reporters are asked to provide patient information, specific details of safety events, severity, and any possible contributing factors or suggestions for the prevention of future events. ² We do not know what proportion of overall ADEs was captured with our voluntary reporting system. ² We recognize that we may have underreported more serious events and that our reported event rate may be lower than the actual event rate. ³ We did not conduct a root-cause analysis on each reported event. ³ Although nurses and pharmacists have been shown to provide an important “safety net” in intercepting and preventing ADEs, ⁴ we did not investigate their role in errors of commission or further...
Local Evaluation	G 2. LIM LIM/EV	
Local Evaluation	G 3. LIM EV/LIM	
Local Evaluation	G 4. LIM	

Overall, there were two main coding challenges: interpreting the code descriptors accurately and consistently where some fuzziness occurred between the two descriptors, and lexis ‘Playing different functions in different rhetorical contexts’ (Moreno and Swales, 2018:54). Firstly, although most step coding seemed straightforward some steps presented difficulties in descriptor interpretation due to ‘fuzzy definition boundaries’(Freedman and Medway,1994). For example, coding for ‘Reporting background information with citations’ (RWC) and ‘Providing background information without citations’ (POC) as opposed to ‘Evaluating the state of knowledge or practice in broad terms’ (STATE). The differentiation between the three types of background information required the researcher to consider the semantics of the text very carefully. Moreno and Swales (2018:54) described this as ‘Giving rise to borderline interpretations’. However, I believe that by the final coding iteration my coding skill had improved and was consistent as I rechecked against earlier coding. Reflecting on the iterative process of coding these three steps it seemed to be comparable to the process of reading research articles:

1. Read to get the gist (is the proposition contextual)
2. Read for key ideas (is it local or wider in context)
3. Read for supporting ideas (does it refer to previous research)

In this way I identified further criteria to make it easier to determine each step type.

Secondly, there was the issue of steps ‘Playing different functions in different rhetorical contexts’ (Moreno and Swales, 2018:54). This was exemplified in this study by the step ‘Explaining results’ (EXPL) which had three forms: firstly, and mainly the writer’s own explanation; secondly, that of previous researchers; and, finally, in the explanations of the selected research studies’ authors’ ideas which occurred in a few dissertations which were systematic reviews. The latter was sometimes difficult to unpick as a few student writers lacked the metadiscourse to refer to authors of other studies. However, some writers did it very well by using phrases, such as: ‘in Swales review’ [own example]. This coding challenge highlighted a language issue affecting the clarity and cohesion of a few dissertation DCs which could be addressed through the support of ESAP pedagogy.

In addition, during coding it was observed that multiple forms of an individual step type might occur and could be considered as ‘sub-steps’. For example, the step ‘Making recommendations for future research or practice’ (REC) was noted to have three possible types: ‘for further research’; ‘for practice’; or ‘for ‘education/training’’. In this study sub-steps were not coded, although an awareness of further specification might be a useful area of future research and add to the development of a greater depth of part-genre knowledge in ESAP pedagogy. Moreover, it was noted that the different degrees of strength of a recommendation, in terms of the necessity for action, were not always indicated by the Hedging or Certainty metadiscourse markers. In addition, in this study steps were categorized according to whether they expressed criticality (stance) or not. Those expressing criticality were termed *critical steps*, whilst those with a neutral stance were termed *neutral steps*. This approach is I believe specific to this study.

4.6.4: Stage 4. Move identification

On completion of coding the corpora’s steps the coded boxes were transferred into a Word table. An analysis of each discussion text in the corpora was then undertaken to establish the grouping of coded steps into an appropriate move (see Appendix L for details of the Move Identification table). As in all the elements of the Genre Analysis this grouping was based on the researcher’s interpretation of how steps combined to form the specific communicative purpose of a particular move type. This was a bottom-up process led by the content of the steps rather than a grammar analysis. In other words, the decision on whether to group sequential steps together or not was based on consideration of the overall sense of the text (semantics) rather than its grammar (syntax). Reference was made to my modified model based on that of Moreno and Swales’ (2018) coded model. Five move categories were initially identified in both the master’s

dissertation DC and RA DS texts: *Introduction*; *Findings report*; *Findings plus comment*; *Evaluation*; and *Recommendation*. This move terminology was similar to that identified in previous research, but was kept simple to allow for ease of transfer into ESAP pedagogy to afford accessibility to students and ESAP and discipline lecturers. However, it was decided to divide the *Evaluation* move into two sub-categories: *Local Evaluation* (of current study); and *Global Evaluation* (of general practice and research) as demonstrated earlier (see page 91). This splitting of the Evaluation move (Moreno and Swales, 2018) was undertaken because this study was focused on the expression of stance, so I believed that a more detailed analysis of the Evaluation move could provide useful knowledge of the use of broader ‘big picture’ concepts.

4.6.5: Stage 5. Recording step and move data

The collected step and move counts (raw data) were entered into an Excel table: related to step or move frequency. In this way each frequency count was recorded against each step or move type in each master’s dissertation DC or RA DS corpus. The counts were then normalised in Excel by taking the individual text’s total number of steps or moves and converting them into percentages for each step and move type. In this way the data from the two corpora could be compared. In a similar way using the Excel tables of the raw count data, the presence of individual step and move types could be detected in each master’s dissertation DC and RA DS text. Thus, it could be determined whether a step or move was optional or conventional in each corpus.

4.6.6: Stage 6 - Statistical test protocol

A Pearson Chi-Square test of Independence was conducted using SPSS to systematically determine if any significant relationship was present between move frequency and the master’s dissertation DC and RA DS part-genres. In all tests a p -value of 0.05% was applied above which no significant association could be claimed, for example:

Test 1: Master’s dissertation DC corpus and RA DS corpus relationship to their moves.

The hypotheses were as follows:

H_0 - The frequency of move types do not differ according to the corpus,

H_A = The frequency of moves differ according to the corpus.

4.7: Corpus Analysis of Metadiscourse

4.7.1: Metadiscourse marker categories

This study followed Hyland and Tse's (2004) metadiscourse model as described in Chapter 3. There was a focus on the expression of stance (criticality) due to the lecturers' perceptions that this posed a challenge for students, as will be presented in the next chapter: Chapter 5. A list of Interactional metadiscourse was created: Hedges and Certainty markers (boosters). In addition, a range of Interactive metadiscourse was listed which included *Causative* and *Contrastive* metadiscourse markers highlighted during the manual coding of the steps. Thus, by following Hyland and Tse's (2004) model (see Table 4 below) this study hoped to avoid the ambiguity of the differing terminology and categorisations of metadiscourse within the literature.

Table 4: Study's Metadiscourse Model (adapted from Hyland, 2005:169) [Hyland and Tse's (2004) model].

Category	Function	Examples [own as noted in corpora]
Interactive resources	Help the reader through the text	
Transitions	Express semantic relation between main clauses	Comparative markers: however, while, although, but, despite, contrast, whereas, contrary, nonetheless, nevertheless, yet, whilst, though, even though, similar*, likewise. Causal markers: because, due to, therefore, thus, since, hence, consequently, so, as a result, leads to*, as
Interactional resources	Involve the reader in the argument	
Hedges	Withhold the writer's full commitment to proposition	may, could, might, possible, if, whether, probably, appears to, seems to.
Certainty markers [Boosters]	Emphasise force or writer's certainty in proposition	should, would, must

In addition, this model's approach to Interactive metadiscourse as being an expression of stance (criticality) aligned with my own belief that linking (cohesive) devices were of high importance in academic writing. Likewise, Wallace and Wray (2021) noted in their postgraduate guide, that their approach was based on the concept that: '...as a writer, one develops one's own argument, making it as strong and as clear as possible, so as to communicate with and convince one's target audience' (Wallace and Wray, 2021: xiv). This aligns with Hyland and Tse's (2004) integration

of Interactive ('textual') and Interactional ('interpersonal') metadiscourse as they argue that all 'textual' metadiscourse is Interactional (interpersonal) as it represents the:

... decisions of the writer to highlight certain relationships and aspects of organization to accommodate readers' understandings, guide their reading, and make them aware of the writer's preferred interpretations. It therefore contributes to the interpersonal features of the text (Hyland and Tse, 2004:164)

The following sub-sections will describe the corpus analysis method used in this study. For the sake of expediency, the Wordsmith version 7 (Scott, 2019) concordancer was chosen to collect metadiscourse frequency data, as I had used a similar concordancer (Wordpilot) previously in my master's degree. The use of a concordancer enabled a systematic approach (Upton and Connor, 2001) to the collection of metadiscourse data from the discussion texts. The two corpora (master's dissertation DC and RA DS discussion texts) were cleaned of tables and diagrams and converted into Plain text (*Text) in preparation for uploading onto the Wordsmith concordancer. Text boxes containing coding in the Word documents were not visible after conversion to Plain text.

4.7.2: Metadiscourse data and frequency calculation

To establish the saliency of the metadiscourse markers in each of the corpora the frequency of their occurrence was calculated according to the total word count of each corpus. The corpora's files were uploaded and metadiscourse markers were searched for in each corpus as listed below:

- Comparative markers: *however, while, although, but, despite, contrast, whereas, contrary, nonetheless, nevertheless, yet, whilst, though, even though, similar, similarly, similarly and likewise.*
- Causal markers: *because, due to, therefore, thus, since, hence, consequently, so, as a result, leads to*, and as.*
- Hedges (cautious language): *may, could, might, possible, if, whether, probably, appears to, and seems to.*
- Certainty markers: (boosters): *should, would, and must*

The frequency of each metadiscourse marker in the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora was recorded in an Excel sheet and its frequency expressed per 1,000 words of each corpora's word count, a standard approach in corpus analysis, and then transferred to a Word document table. The concordancer afforded the ability to check that the meaning of some

markers, such as, *could* and *would* represented their ‘critical’ meaning within each text’s sentence. In addition, a key word list and a full Wordlist were created. Using the Wordlist other salient vocabulary which expressed critical comment was noted and recorded along with the number of texts that utilised that word or phrase. The use of nouns or verbs to express stance had been noted in previous research: Crosthwaite et al’s (2017: 25) ‘Wordings’ and Hyland’s (2019) ‘*meta nouns*’, so by extension I have labelled the verbs noted in this study as *meta verbs*. Although it could be argued that these forms of boosting and hedging are part of the wider lexico-grammatical features that express stance, including in particular the choice of citation language, which has not been explored in this study. In the next sub-section, the method used to identify the reasoning behind the selection of particular steps and metadiscourse by members of a discourse community will be explored.

4.7.3: Exploration of social factors

This study based its analysis of the possible social reasons for the way in which stance is expressed, on Gross and Chesley’s interpretation of Aristotle’s Rhetoric’s (2007, cited in Gross and Chesley, 2012). In which Aristotle’s equivalent of stance ‘ethos’ is subdivided into three categories as described by Gross and Chesley (2012: 86): *Phronesis*, *Aretai* and *Eunoia*. These are described in Aristotle’s Rhetoric (2007) in terms of the legal profession and the speeches they present, which Gross and Chesley (2012) adapted to provide a professional profile for medical researchers. This study will refer to this framework to suggest a profile for a Clinical Pharmacist as follows: ‘*Phronesis* is practical wisdom, the ability of lawyers to amass the best arguments in favour of a client’ (Aristotle’s Rhetoric’s, 2007, cited in Gross and Chesley, 2012:86). Therefore, in terms of clinical pharmacists, this practical wisdom could be said to be evident as ‘expert knowledge’ of medication and the ability to transfer that knowledge into practice. Whilst ‘The *aretai* are usually translated as virtues; they include some strengths of character as courage and generosity’ (Aristotle’s Rhetoric, 2007, cited in Gross and Chesley, 2012:86). To establish the *aretai* Gross and Chesley (2012) followed Merton’s (1968) four norms for the ‘proper conduct of science’ (Merton, (1968, cited in Gross and Chesley, 2012:87). It is these norms that will be used as reference points in exploring the reasons for the use of particular metadiscourse in Clinical Pharmacy to express stance:

‘... *communalism* ... freely to share results with others’

‘... *universalism* ... anyone following our methods will arrive at our results.’

‘... *disinterestedness* ... never to confuse our goals with that of our science.’

‘... *organised skepticism* ... doubt [is] methodological principle, one equally applied to our results and the results of others.’

‘*Originality* [added by Gross and Chelsey]’... never to repeat what is known except in pursuit of what is to be discovered’ (Merton, 1968, cited in Gross and Chesley, 2012:87).

In this way key characteristics of the writer’s professional ‘*self*’ could contribute to possible reasons for the adoption of particular writing conventions. Thus, addressing Research Question five: ‘How can the choice of rhetorical structures and metadiscourse in the Clinical Pharmacy master’s dissertation Discussion Chapter be explained in terms of its context (*interdiscursivity*)?’ In addition, I employed my past experience as a research assistant at a School of Pharmacy in a UK polytechnic, and my insider knowledge of the ethos and ideology of the discipline of Pharmacy to interpret the context data. In this way an exploration of the local discourse community’s context was conducted in order to answer Research Question five, the findings of which are presented in the following Chapter.

Chapter 5: The Clinical Pharmacy Local Discourse Community

5.1: Introduction and global context

This Chapter will present, the contextual findings of the ethnographically oriented exploration of the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme's local discourse community to address Research Question 5. These findings consider: the global context of scientific writing; the perceptions of the local discourse community's members (students and lecturers); programme documentation; and ESAP pedagogy. In the 21st century the field of Pharmacy is situated within the global discourse community of medical science (see Figure 3 below).

Figure 3: Representation of Clinical Pharmacy Discourse Communities

Global discourse communities: academia, industry, government regulation, hospital and community practice.

UK HE academia

School of Life and Medical Sciences (LMS)

Clinical Pharmacy master's programme's local discourse community

In the UK professional pharmacists have a variety of roles that are defined according to their work setting: academia; industry; government health regulation; and hospital or community practice. Within these specific settings pharmacists may specialise in particular professional roles associated with the disciplines of Clinical Pharmacy, Pharmacology or Pharmaceutics. The Clinical Pharmacists' role in general practice teams in the UK has developed with:

... over 1000 Full Time Equivalent clinical pharmacists working across the country through the NHS England Clinical Pharmacists in General Practice Programme since it started in 2015 (NHS England, 2023).

The Clinical Pharmacist's professional role within a hospital or community practice setting is public facing in both its practice and research. The former role includes: 'carrying out structured medication reviews for patients with ongoing health problems and: '...improving patient safety, outcomes and value through a person-centred approach' (NHS England, 2023). In this study the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme's local discourse community was set within the School/Department of Pharmacy, along with the disciplines of Pharmacology and Pharmaceutics. Each of these disciplines have specific academic writing conventions which

reflect their knowledge content and epistemology. In addition, they are part of the wider field of science which has received much attention in terms of academic writing research. The next section of this Chapter will describe the evolution of scientific writing in academia.

5.2: Scientific Writing

Scientific writing in the global discourse community can be traced back to the exchange of personal letters as a means of communication between 17th century scientists. This form of communication then developed into the first scientific periodical, the Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society (Bazerman (1983, as cited in Swales, 1990). Scientific academic writing has been the subject of much research, with the research article (RA) genre receiving the most attention. Halliday and Martin's (1993) comprehensive account of the scientific register described its two most significant features as 'technical vocabulary and nominalized grammar' which are 'interdependent':

... although we recognize two different phenomena taking place ... in practice they are different aspects of a single semiotic process: that of evolving a technical form of discourse, at a particular 'moment' in sociohistorical time (Halliday and Martin, 1993:7-8).

Halliday and Martin (1993) stated that in this way science developed the use of *nominalisation* to describe ideas and arguments in a factual manner, which gives an impression of power, prestige and hierarchy. According to Halliday and Martin (1993: 7-8), the origins of this 'technical form of discourse' is knowledge that is embedded in an empirical epistemology, which requires empirical evidence. Another key feature of the RA is the rhetorical structure of its part-genres: Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion (IMRD) (Swales, 1990). In addition, scientific writing has been noted to take a cautious stance as noted earlier in Chapter 4. According to Gross and Chesley (2012: 85): scientific stance: '... is caution itself, the desire to embody in their prose the organized skepticism the scientific community so values.'

This aligns with Salager-Meyer's (1997:105) observation that: 'One of the most important aspects of scientific discourse is to weigh evidence and draw conclusions from data.' Therefore, to avoid 'bold and presumptuous statements ... frowned upon by the scientific discourse community' (Salager-Meyer, 1997:117) researchers tend to use Hedging. In this way a fuzziness or vagueness around claims is created. Thus, Salager-Meyer (1997) believes that students must also develop an awareness of the use of Hedging as it: 'is critical to

academic success and eventual membership in a professional community.’ (Salager-Meyer, 1997:118). Thus, the evolution of the scientific RA is dependent on its discourse community’s need to achieve its communicative purpose, which is to disseminate research findings and persuade the reader to align with the author’s opinion, which demonstrates the socio-cultural nature of academic writing. The next section of this Chapter will explore the socio-cultural aspects of this study: the Clinical Pharmacy master’s programme’s local discourse community’s context and interdiscursivity.

5.3: The Local Discourse Community

The Clinical Pharmacy master’s programme was designed for mature, international students. Cohorts ranged from 15 to 20 students when the study was conducted between 2015–2019. during the years this study was undertaken, there appeared to be more balance between the number of male and female students. Mainly from the Middle East, students were Arabic speakers with most students’ spoken English of a high standard with IELTS scores of 7 or above. All students met the Clinical Pharmacy’s language criteria for the master’s programme as advised on the university website (see Slide Extract 5.1 below). However, some students were less familiar with English academic writing and its key HE assessment genres. All students were professional pharmacists in their own country or another Middle Eastern country, as stipulated in the admission requirements of the programme. Some students might have also studied for their first degree away from their home country. After achieving their master’s degree the majority of students returned to their home country or their professional home, whilst a few students went on to study for PhDs in the university or at another UK university.

Slide Extract 5.1: Clinical Pharmacy Practice Programme Introduction (2019)

You must be a registered pharmacist in your home country with at least 6 months of patient facing practice in a hospital and a good bachelor's degree in

Pharmacy (at least 55% GPA) or equivalent. IELTS score of 7.0 or equivalent with a minimum of 6.0 in any band.

As noted earlier in Chapter1, international students whose IELTS scores were lower than required could join the Pre-sessional English Advanced course (duration 6 weeks) prior to the

start of their master's degree programme. Three of the four participants in this study took this route due to a lower IELTS score in writing. During their time on the master's programme all students were able to access a range of academic writing support. These included scheduled ESAP academic writing workshops and tutorials, which provided support on key assessment genres (essays, reports, reflective reports and dissertations). Throughout both semesters attendance was voluntary. In addition, all ESAP workshop resources were made available on the university's online platform. Academic writing support was also available from a postgraduate Medical Science writing programme, and the university Academic Writing Centre in the form of drop-ins at the Learning Resources Centre. In addition, discrete workshops on academic reading and writing were available to students across the disciplines. In addition, students were allocated supervisors, and the Clinical Pharmacy programme documentation included a student booklet which provided a template for the master's dissertation's required overall structure.

Attendance of the ESAP workshops as I remember was higher in the first semester, with almost a full cohort attendance when the schedule was timetabled, decreasing in the second semester during which students had their hospital placements. Timetabling sessions became more difficult. Although ESAP workshops were not mandatory the master's programme team encouraged attendance and sometimes referred students. I did not have a sense that students attended the drop-ins at the Learning Resources Centre from discussions with my colleagues in the Academic Writing Centre, or when I saw attendance registers. I did not meet any Clinical Pharmacy students during a drop-in session or workshop, in my experience postgraduate student use of drop-ins was rare at that time. Although there was some liaison with the postgraduate Medical Science (Dermatology and Cardiology) writing programme leader I did not get a sense of student attendance. I had a sense that supervisors encouraged ESAP workshop attendance and access to tutorials (face to face or via email providing feedback on drafts). This was confirmed by lecturers' comments during this study's semi-structured interviews. Students' and lecturers' perceptions of writing the highly weighted dissertation DC assessment task, and the available writing guidance will be presented in the next section of this Chapter.

5.4: Participants' Perceptions

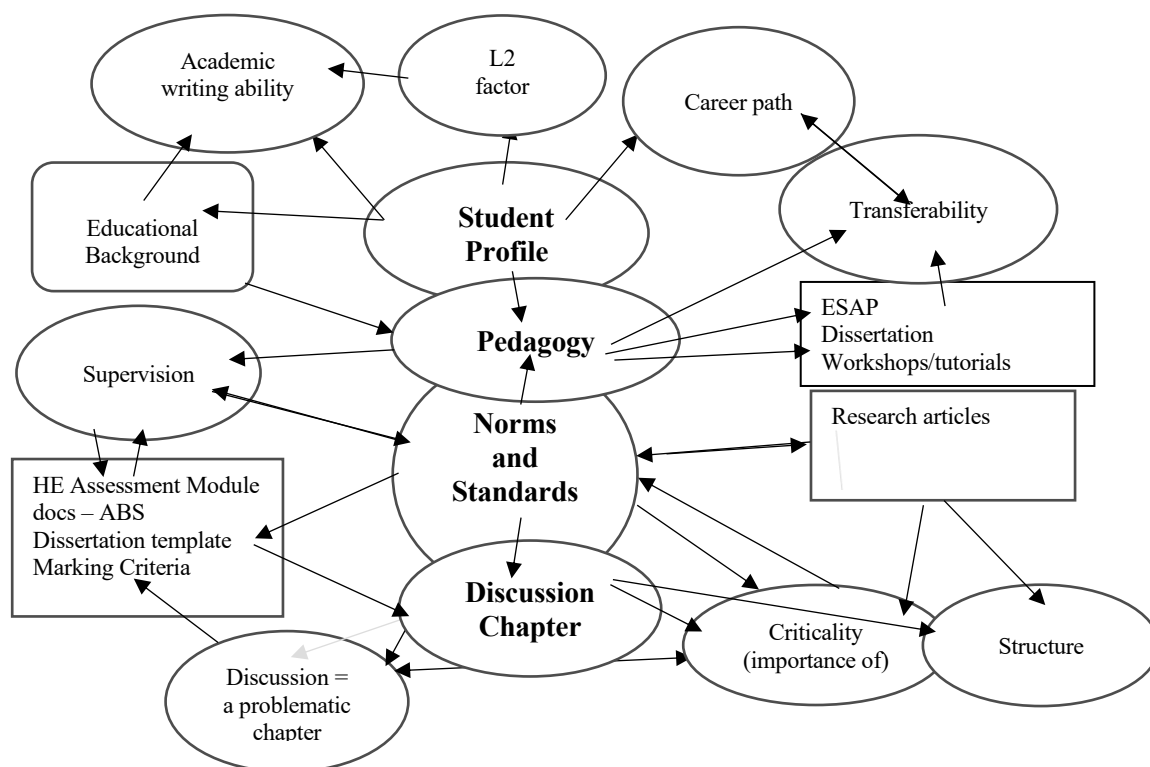
5.4.1: Themes

Four main themes were identified in the transcripts of the participants' (students and lecturers) semi-structured interview transcripts as listed below:

1. **Student Profile:** educational background; L2 factor; academic writing ability; career pathway; and transferability of academic writing skills.
2. **Norms and Standards:** key features of academic writing; HE assessment standards; research articles; and academic writing ability.
3. **Academic writing guidance (pedagogy):** supervision; ESAP academic writing support; and research articles.
4. **Text Talk:** comments focused on the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation in particular the Discussion Chapter including its rhetorical structure; and criticality.

These themes resonated not only with the aims of this study, but also with the content of a typical ESAP workshop needs analysis, which is a key tenet of ESP pedagogy. These four key themes were linked and sub-themes noted (see Figure 4 below). The latter indicated areas where pedagogy required greater consideration for further development

Figure 4: Theme Diagram



As demonstrated in Figure 4 above, linking occurred between themes. Firstly, pedagogy is linked directly to student profile and norms and standards. Further linking occurs between the sub-themes of supervision and ESAP writing support sessions through pedagogy. Student learning interactions with their supervisors and ESAP pedagogy introduced students, at the periphery of the local discourse community, to the academic writing norms and standards

established by its core members in key assessment genres. Secondly, the text talk of students and lecturers also resonated with the aims of this study and its research questions in terms of a focus on rhetorical structure. In addition, the lecturers' concern regarding a lack of criticality in the master's dissertations, as noted previously in Chapter 4 (pp. 85, 111), pivoted the focus of this study to its expression in the master's dissertations DC and RA DS.

5.4.2: Student profile

This study's student interviewees consisted of four females, three of whom subsequently transferred onto PhD studies, with one participant returning home to practice in a hospital setting. As noted earlier in Chapter 1, international students whose IELTS scores were lower than required could join the Pre-sessional English Advanced course (duration 6 weeks). Three of the four participants took this route due to a lower score in writing. One of the participants described her experience as follows:

the Pre-sessional advanced English gave me the background and the basics too and I learnt how to write academic English I learnt the basics how to paraphrase citations etc. (Student W).

Although all the student participants (n=4) in this study spoke Arabic as their first language (L1), in the interviews no one addressed the challenges of English being their second language (L2). However, they did talk about their experience of learning English as a second language in their previous Higher Education institutions. On the other hand, all the lecturers addressed the challenge of writing in academic English faced by international students whose L1 was not English. Thus, acknowledging that some international students need academic English language support. Lecturer PA commented:

some of them are finding it really difficult I think ... not only do they have the challenge of the dissertation that they are doing it in a second language I can see that it is something that they need a fair bit of support with

As discussed earlier in Chapter 2, differences in L1 and L2 language conventions are considered to present a challenge for international L2 student writers and might affect a student's perceived writing ability. One lecturer shared their own experience of developing their written academic English as an L2 speaker/writer as follows:

I can relate to the struggle they may have because having English as a second language and thinking with that of their mother tongues and there's a lot of differences subtle differences between Arabic and English that I've only

understood I think it was in the second year of my Ph.D I was often frustrated by getting comments on my draft that I wasn't consistent with my terms/expressions it is a thing in English to be consistent with terms and expressions but in Arabic the writing in that sense is considered weak the writing is more eloquent if they use synonyms as you go along (Lecturer TC)

This exemplified how one language's conventions may cause confusion and not transfer well into another. This is an area of current growing research interest as noted earlier in Chapter 3. This knowledge of English and Arabic conventions was applied in the supervisor's supervision practice as explained below:

whenever I supervise students who speak Arabic this is one of the first things I tell them before they attempt at showing me drafts and I find that useful actually (Lecturer TC).

Moreover, another lecturer reflected on the complexity of learning a language such as English because of its different registers:

...we have the same challenges with home students the fact they speak English doesn't mean they can write English if they can write English maybe they can't write academic English it's just a different complexity and sophistication (Lecturer RD).

This observation aligns with my own experience of working with L1 and L2 home students. As noted earlier, some students' challenges may occur due to cultural issues. These challenges will be explored in the next sub-sections: 5.4.3: cultural differences; 5.4.4: educational background; and 5.5.5: the transferability of academic writing knowledge.

5.4.3: Cultural differences

Lecturers also noted that socio-cultural factors might impact on an international student's development of an academic English writing voice. Lecturer SF commented that:

... it could be cultural as well you know might have students who are very abrupt and straight to the point from different backgrounds and others who like want to paint a bigger picture than you need more details and again it's all dependent on the student way of writing you have two students from same background international students but have completely different styles

This lecturer makes a particularly good point that cultural factors may not be due to just

national cultural stereotypes, but also to more complex personal and local discourse community factors (Geertz, 1973). Indeed, the term ‘culture’ is ‘one of the most contentious concepts in academia, not to mention the rest of the world’ (Atkinson, 2004: 5).

5.4.4: Educational backgrounds

The student participants had a variety of HE backgrounds with Lecturer UE noting that:

...most of them coming from countries where they are not used to writing dissertations and essays so it's first exposure for them to write 10-15000 words [in English]

This was supported by Student W's description of her experience:

I didn't have a lot of writing things to do most of my exams were MCQ based ... whatever I did there was simpler in form I attended a workshop about scientific writing during my first year of this degree and that helped me a bit.

In addition, Student W explained that she had:

...graduated from high school in a governmental school it was basically more in Arabic, but one subject was English ... two courses in each semester and one course in the second year so that gave us more of English to understand the more medical English phrases and after that we have subject which makes us learn more of the pharmaceutical and the pharmacology

Considering the significance of developing an academic voice when writing on a master's programme Student W commented that her previous English study prior to entry to the University was ‘very basic’: ‘*it has little impact on writing our researches our reports*’ (Student W). Thus, exemplifying a shortfall in the knowledge gained from earlier learning experiences to master's level at a UK university.

5.4.5: Transferability of academic writing skills

One of the key concerns of ESP pedagogy has been with regard to student outcomes, in terms of the transferability of academic writing skills to a future or ongoing career practice (Bhatia, 2008). Likewise, lecturers participating in this study noted that the importance of academic writing varied according to a student's follow-on career. One lecturer highlighted the difference between different professional *discourse community* settings, such as, a hospital and a regulatory body explaining that:

If I work in the regulatory and I can't write even if I got first class degree and three PhDs in my name I'd be sacked on the first day because that's all I've got to do is write I've got to write all these documentations but if I am a community pharmacist or I'm a hospital pharmacist and I'm dealing with patients day to day and I'm just looking at the clinical data I just write two probably three sentences (Lecturer RD)

Similarly, the significance of academic writing in students' follow on careers was described by students Z and W as follows:

... my professional licence is under the procedure of upgrading I've been waiting for my certificate and documents and awards from this degree now that I've got them I'll go through the procedure of grading so that I can get and need upgraded job ... my licence will be upgraded to a Senior Pharmacist or a Clinical Pharmacist earlier I was just a pharmacist (Student Z).

Student Z explained that as a senior pharmacist report writing in English would be a requirement.

... everything is written in English I work in Saudi Arabia ... where a lot of people in health care come very different background we have Arabs, Asians and a lot of people from East China so the main medium of communication has to be English (Student Z).

Whilst student W commented that in studying for a PhD in today's research world academic writing was: '*... the way of communicating the information you have in your own field to the whole world and your profession* (Student W). Three out of the four student participants went on to study for PhDs in the UK. If these students were confident in writing in academic English within their Clinical Pharmacy master's discourse community it would have enabled them to achieve their Ph.D., and to publish in research journals which as noted in Chapter 1, are mainly written in English. Student Z stated that academic writing was important to her because: '*in making research available to the practitioners that's how I think it is important for academic writing in the field of Pharmacy.*' The students' reasons for learning English were not unexpected as it is well known that most research is published in English (Swales, 1990, Llantada, 2014, Moreno and Swales, 2018; and Hyland and Jiang, 2019). However, I was surprised by the hegemony of English across another country's health system as a consequence of the multilingual and multi-national profile of its practitioners.

Of course, this is also true in the UK's National Health System (NHS), but to be expected as English is the national language of the UK. This suggests that English is also an international language of medical science. It makes sense as medical science including Pharmacy utilises the publication of research to share current ideas and information. This is exemplified not only in the publishing of journal articles, but also in the recording of reports in databases, such as, the Cochrane data base for Pharmacy (2024), and in published health system guidelines, such as, the UK's NHS guidelines. The Cochrane database of systematic reviews provides guidance in the *Cochrane Overview* (Higgins, et al, 2023) on writing a review for its database. This resource was recommended to students on the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme. Half of the dissertations in this study's corpus were systematic reviews. Therefore, the *Cochrane Overview* probably influenced the norms and standards of the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme's dissertation writing conventions. A systematic review was defined in the Cochrane Library (2024) as:

... attempts to identify, appraise and synthesize all the empirical evidence that meets pre-specified eligibility criteria to answer a specific research question. Researchers conducting systematic reviews use explicit, systematic methods that are selected with a view aimed at minimizing bias, to produce more reliable findings to inform decision making (Cochrane Library, 2024).

The main reason for using the systematic review, as an assessment task was probably the challenges involved in conducting first hand (primary) research at students' placement hospitals. Some students were tasked with an audit of the placement hospital's recorded data focusing on a topic, such as, 'medication error', whilst a few students undertook a qualitative research study (survey). This variation in research methodology might be a factor in variation within each part-genre corpus.

It is clear from this section that the student profile is important to the design and application of pedagogy. Therefore, it is essential to have knowledge of students': Higher Education experience; knowledge of English academic writing; differences between English and students' own national language; and any cultural differences. In this way ESAP course schedules can be designed to better reflect the students' needs. In addition, this awareness of students' needs could further develop an informed pedagogy, regarding the norms and standards of a local discourse community's academic writing conventions. In this way greater equity can be achieved for international students studying for master's degrees in English.

5.5: Norms and Standards

5.5.1: Norms

There was consensus amongst programme lecturers that English academic writing was a significant part of the norms and standards of the Clinical Pharmacy global discourse community. Lecturer QG commented that: ‘as it is a medical field evidence from literature is required and published’; whilst another lecturer summed it up so: ‘[academic writing] *in the post graduate sense... it’s really important*’ (Lecturer PA). The Clinical Pharmacy programme students were introduced to the academic conventions of their discourse community through relevant writing assignments over two semesters (B and C) including: essays, care plans, reflective accounts, a proposal and poster. In this way students were able to develop an awareness of the norms and standards of academic writing in their discourse community. The final and most heavily weighted written assessment genre was the dissertation. This assessment task reported on a project usually undertaken whilst students were on a hospital placement. The report’s findings were usually later distributed within that placement hospital so would also have a wider readership. Thus, an understanding of the norms and standards of the academic writing of the master’s dissertation was an important part of this assessment task as two lecturers explained:

the dissertation obviously a big piece of writing for the students they also aim to do an essay on patient safety and they also have to produce a portfolio which has a lot of care plans in it and we also want them to do a lot of reflective accounts within that portfolio so that’s the academic ability (Lecturer PA).

The master’s dissertation was weighted at 60 credits, which was one third of the master’s degree assessment total of 180 credits. The importance of the dissertation assessment task in the Research Project module was demonstrated in the assessment breakdown provided in the module handbook (see Document Extract 5.1 below). Here it can be seen that the dissertation was not only the most highly weighted assessment task at 60% of all the marks for the module, but also the Discussion Chapter was the most heavily weighted part-genre at 30% of the total marks allocated to the dissertation in 2016/17 to 2018/19.

Document Extract 5.1: Assessment breakdown from module handbook 2017/18 semester B and C.

The breakdown of coursework marks is as follows:

1. Initial research proposal - 10%
2. Critique presentation of a published paper 10%
3. Statistics test 10%
4. Dissertation 60%
5. Poster presentation of dissertation 10%

The statistics test and dissertation must be passed to pass the module. For the remaining elements (1, 2 and 5) students must achieve a minimum of 40% to attain an overall pass mark (of 50%) for the module.

Thus, Lecturer RD was justified in commenting that the interview question regarding the importance of academic writing ability was redundant as:

it is a pre-requisite for them to be able to write well otherwise they don't pass how could academic writing not be of importance if somebody decides to take a PG course when over sixty credits which is one third of it is going to be assessed by their writing

In addition, the module handbook suggested that students schedule most of their self-study (360 hours) time to the dissertation assessment. Due for submission in the penultimate week of the final semester, the dissertation was required to have a minimum word count of 8,000 words with a structure that followed a genre model (section headings with suggested word counts). The model adopted the scientific RA genre structural model: Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion (IMRD). This provided a scaffolded learning experience for students in the adoption of an overall organisation for the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation. This was pedagogically appropriate guidance for L2 international students, as was exemplified by the student participants of this study. Anecdotally, students noted a lack of familiarity with the master's dissertation genre, and that they had not written a text in English of over a thousand words before studying in the UK. However, students had, as noted earlier, written other assessment HE tasks on the master's programme in their first semester including: an essay of 1,500-2,000 words. In this way the programme's schedule of written assessments enabled students to develop their academic writing over two semesters, with the guidance of their supervisors, ESAP workshops, and tutorials, as will be described later in the next section.

5.5.2: Criticality (stance)

All lecturers (n=7) agreed that criticality(expression of stance) provided a challenge for students across the dissertation. This feature of academic writing was explicitly noted in a programme document where it was described as a student's ability to: 'critically appraise the

inter-relationship of the resultant parts’ of knowledge related to ‘Theory and practice’. Five lecturers (n=7) placed criticality as the top academic writing feature in terms of priority for student writing development. Lecturer TC summed up the challenge for students as follows:

it’s one of the most difficult things for students to get their head around or understand it’s a shift in thinking it is one of those things that differentiate PG level work and UG and school teaching it’s this criticality and knowing how to tease out or express all ideas and perceptions about people’s

In the Clinical Pharmacy programme handbook (2017-18) the Learning Outcomes section emphasised the importance of criticality in the dissertation by the repetition of the word ‘critically’ (see Document Extract 5.2 below). In addition, a statement provided guidance regarding which aspects of the subject area should be critically evaluated: current knowledge, related theory and their own study’s data. This is again pedagogically appropriate guidance for the assessment of L2 international students. However, there was no explicit guidance on how to express such criticality in academic English, or any reference to the academic writing support that could be accessed. Therefore, although the norms of the local discourse community’s academic writing conventions were made explicit in the programme handbook, it lacked explicit guidance on how to express that criticality.

Document Extract 5.2: from the Clinical Pharmacy Programme Handbook (2017/18)

Learning Outcomes
<u>Critically review</u> different sources of information that contribute to existing knowledge on the selected topic.
<u>Discuss and/or challenge</u> subject related theory. <u>Critically interpret</u> information and data within the context of existing published materials, including the wider implications of the project.
Present, <u>justify and defend the findings and implications of the research</u> in the form of a research project.

As Lecturer TC stated:

with grammar and references you have rules that they can refer back to check the work and understand but with the expression of criticality there is sort of thing you need to know but its untold there is no rule of thumb one size fits all kind of thing that is the difficulty and that’s why I rate it higher than grammar and references if that makes sense

However, I believe that this is an area of academic writing conventions that the ESAP workshops provided useful guidance as demonstrated in the ESAP slide example below:

ESAP Slide Extract 5.1.

To indicate the **significance** of a finding

Omitted or delayed doses (**encountered in 40% of all errors**)

To suggest possible consequences of the findings

hypothetical



....expose patients to longer periods of unanticipated hyperglycemia and **could have serious consequences** (National Patient Safety Agency, 2010a). **hypothetical result**

Could is used to indicate that this **scenario** is a – possible/**hypothetical consequence** of the findings noted but not one that the research confirmed.

Other cautious language = may, might, possibly, probably



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Moreover, all (n=7) lecturers noted criticality was a significant feature in the achievement of excellence in writing a dissertation. Although one lecturer noted a dissertation would need to be excellent in all its features. Lecturer UE commented that excellence required:

criticality definitely and knowledge about suitable articles to be cited and methods to be used and I'd like to see the student's effort or personality in the discussion

Although criticality seemed to be a norm of the local discourse community's academic voice that was highly valued by the lecturers, it was not commented on by students. This difference in the perception of the importance of criticality seems to align with that noted by Lock and Lochart (1998). However, the 2017-18 module guide (see Document Extract 5.3 below) was explicit in highlighting the need for a critical approach to academic writing in the dissertation.

Document Extract 5.3: Project Module Guide 2017- 18, Semesters B and C, Number of Credit Points: 60: [emphasis added]

Module aims

- The aims of this module are to enable students to...
Undertake original research or an extended systematic review in a pharmacy related area

- **Critically review** and evaluate the relevant scholarship in the context of the chosen area
- Design and conduct a research project under the direction of an academic supervisor
- Produce a dissertation in the form of a research paper demonstrating comprehensive understanding and **critical interpretation** of the methodologies and data to set the research in context

Intended learning outcomes

Knowledge and Understanding:

Successful students will typically:

- Demonstrate a **critical** understanding of the philosophy behind research design
- Select and design an original research project, and produce an appropriate project proposal/protocol
- Assess the safety and/or ethics of planned research protocol

Skills and Attributes

Successful students will typically:

- **Critically** undertake extensive and current literature review
- Use advanced techniques to generate data relevant to the proposed plan of research
- Demonstrate competence in the preparation of a project thesis and dissemination of results, and their interpretation through oral or poster presentation.

It was notable that all forms of the word critical were used across all of the module guide's sections as demonstrated below:

- **Critically** review and evaluate the relevant scholarship in the context of the chosen area
- a **critical** understanding
- **Critically** undertake extensive and current literature review

Therefore, criticality (stance) was a norm of the local discourse community's academic voice, which was highly valued by the lecturers, but was not commented on by students. However, all participants shared a concern for the organisation of the Discussion Chapter. Therefore, in response to students' needs this study's original focus on an exploration of the key rhetorical structural features and metadiscourse use, was pivoted to focus on the expression of the writer's stance via criticality. This will be discussed in the next sub-section as criticality and the expression of stance were integral parts of the local discourse community's assessment standards. This finding highlights the importance of exploring the perceptions of members of a local discourse community, and collaboration between ESAP and discipline lecturers. In this way, an understanding of students' perceptions and needs can be developed, with regard to the language of criticality and its use to express a writer's stance in a manner that is appropriate for their discourse community.

5.5.3: Standards

The standards by which the dissertation was assessed in the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme were set out in the marking criteria (see Document Extract 5.2 below). The highest classification band in the marking criteria included descriptors of excellence, such as: 'Exceptional clarity of presentation, organization and structure'. This seems to align with lecturers' comments as they often spoke of 'creating a story'. Interestingly, the criteria also contained a grading for 'grammar, spelling or punctuation' too. Reference was made to the RA as a source of guidance or as an exemplar of excellence, in the norms of academic writing with the inclusion of the descriptor 'of publishable quality'. The criteria's categories of 'Understanding of knowledge' and 'Theory and practice' included the descriptors 'ability to critically analyse' and 'critically appraise' respectively.

Document Extract 2: Master's Dissertation Marking Criteria [emphasis added].

Reference grade 98 95 92	Key differentiating features (in general)	Understanding of knowledge	Theory and practice	Development of thought	Organisation and Structure
Classification Distinction Performance Indicator Outstanding	Innovative and of publishable quality	Exceptional and comprehensive knowledge and insightful understanding of key concepts. A recognition of recent developments in the field. A clear ability to identify and critically analyse key issues and justify judgements made about them. A willingness to challenge orthodoxy and accepted thinking and to make links to wider contexts. There is clear originality in the work.	Demonstrates exceptional ability to break down complex areas of knowledge and critically appraise the inter-relationship of the resultant parts . This leads to original uses of ideas and concepts in the development of own practice, possibly leading to the development of own theory. Exceptional fluency and authority in use of the literature.	Arguments are innovative with explicit logical coherence demonstrating mature reflection. There is comprehensive consideration of alternative perspectives. Arguments are explicitly and consistently placed in context. Originality is a predominant feature of arguments, for example demonstrating important discoveries about own and/or professional setting practice. New ideas are generated and alternative possibilities for the	Exceptional clarity of presentation, organisation and structure. Conclusion demonstrates originality in the synthesis of research findings. Outstanding presentation of supporting material Referencing is completely accurate. No grammatical, spelling or punctuation errors. Of publishable quality.

				development of practice are created.	
Reference grade 98 95 92	Key differentiating features (in general)	Understanding of knowledge	Theory and practice	Development of thought	Organisation and Structure

Thus, the norms and standards of the dissertation genre were introduced to students via: supervisors' feedback; programme and module documentation; and in the ESAP support workshops. The next section will explore the available academic writing guidance and students preferred options.

5.6: Academic Writing Guidance

5.6.1: Supervision

Students reported that RAs, supervision, and academic writing support in that order, were the most important sources of 'guidance' when writing a dissertation. For example: Student Z commented that:

I think I'll go first with written feedback from supervisor because my supervisor was so nice to me and even made grammatical corrections

Whilst Student W recalled:

helped me with high importance and low importance points frequently addressed in the literature that's the way we organised the factors

Likewise, lecturer RD talked about how they advised students to:

start by going to see their supervisor to set straight what the expectations are

However, both lecturers and students commented on issues with supervision with lecturer UE stating that the main issue was:

we spend a lot of time which should be allocated to clinical skills and information and focus on writing correct academic language ... I do send them samples of dissertations now but the issue with this is I want to make sure we are not crossing the line of directing them (Lecturer UE)

Another issue was noted by Lecturer (TC):

they may have different supervisors and supervisor relationships or experience.

This awareness of differing approaches to supervision was also noted by Student W who stated that:

I think none of her students before did systematic review although other supervisors helped their students with article to follow but she advised me

This study did not explore the types of supervision provided, but the participants' comments supported the view that there may be different approaches due to variation in lecturers' underlying pedagogical approaches, and students' preferred learning styles. Such nuances of supervision require further exploration considering the expectation of HE students in the UK to undertake autonomous learning.

5.6.2: Academic writing support

As described in Chapter 1 section 4, students on the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme were offered academic writing support to further develop their academic writing via an in-session ESAP course. This consisted of a schedule of workshops on academic writing in the discipline, which ran through semesters B and C (semester B entry) between 2009 and 2020. However, workshop attendance was optional. The aim of the workshops was to enable students to develop their awareness of their discourse community's academic writing conventions in terms of academic voice and stance. The ESAP workshop schedule in semester C was focused on writing the key and highly weighted dissertation assessment genre: the master's dissertation. Thus, it focused on an exploration of the following key assessment genres:

- The research project proposal: focusing on the Abstract and Literature review part-genres.
- The dissertation part genres: Abstract, Introduction, Literature Review, Methods, Findings, Discussion and Conclusion.
- Referencing conventions.

In addition, students could attend one to one and small group tutorials and/or receive feedback on an emailed draft. The latter was popular in conjunction with tutorials as students were working on their placement projects. As the Pharmacy Academic Skills Tutor I employed an ESAP genre analysis pedagogy in the workshop sessions, which incorporated a framework of session activities based on Task Based Learning as described earlier in Chapter 2. I believe this can empower students' choice of appropriate rhetorical language in a scaffolded learning

environment. Thus, enabling students to negotiate a *discoursal self* as an academic writer within their local discourse community.

The ESAP genre based pedagogy included a combination of ‘teacher talk’ and ‘student talk’. The former included: elicitation of student current knowledge; task set-up; facilitation of individual and group work; and review of task outcome. The latter was composed of the sharing of previous writing experience and part-genre knowledge; peer interaction and support; and interaction with the teacher. The tasks included paired and group tasks, such as: ‘jigsaw’ activities. For example, the reassembling of the abstract part-genre from a relevant RA, followed by reflection on how they had identified and organised the moves. I believe this approach empowered students’ choice of appropriate rhetorical structure and language. Thus, enabling students to negotiate a *discoursal self* as an academic writer within their local discourse community. One of the students commented that:

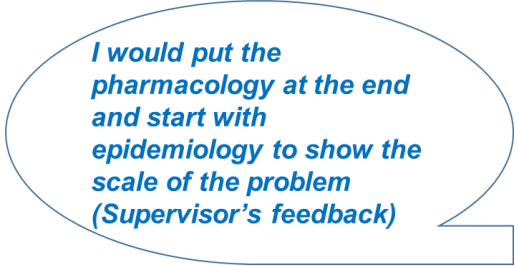
(Student W): *I remember one of the workshops had better influence I remember that was really helpful you had pieces of the abstrac*

During the final five years of teaching on the Clinical Pharmacy master’s programme I collaborated with a senior lecturer, who participated as the local discourse community expert in a few undergraduate workshop sessions. In this way, over a decade of working with students at undergraduate and postgraduate levels in the School of Pharmacy I gained some ‘insider’ knowledge of the ethos, ideology and key assessment types related to the project module on the master’s programme: the poster; research proposal; and dissertation. I applied this knowledge in the ‘Dissertation writing’ workshops. For example, I included relevant RAs, a few of which were recommended by Clinical Pharmacy programme lecturers. These were used to provide examples of language use and rhetorical structure. In addition, a few past students’ dissertations were made available by discipline lecturers, from which I selected useful extracts regarding organisation and language use. In addition, students were also encouraged to access RAs they were currently reading, to read for examples of the academic writing conventions of their discipline. In this way, the use of authentic texts as a pedagogical resource also encouraged learner autonomy and a ‘reading to writing’ approach. An example of a slide which reviewed academic writing structure is presented below (ESAP Slide Extract 5.2). Its content was derived from a programme lecturer’s feedback on the structure of the Literature Review of a past student’s research proposal. In this way students could discuss the

organisation of ideas within the proposal text to consider the norm of academic writing content moving from general to specific across a text.

**ESAP Slide Extract 5.2.: The Academic Structure of a student's research proposal
Literature Review (1,500 words)**

Immunity
How Vaccines Work
Vaccine Safety
Influenza
Pathogenesis
Epidemiology
History
Community Pharmacy Services



*I would put the
pharmacology at the end
and start with
epidemiology to show the
scale of the problem
(Supervisor's feedback)*

If the academic structure of a literature review is usually from general to specific, how would you reorder the sections shown above?

In this way PowerPoint slides of authentic extracts were used to elicit text talk in the workshops and were also accessible to students and lecturers via the Clinical Pharmacy project module site on the university's online platform. Students provided positive anecdotal feedback on this aspect of the ESAP workshops. One student when interviewed commented that the power point slides were of value to her whilst drafting her dissertation:

there were a lot of slides from those workshops so I accessed those slides and they were very helpful too (Student Z)

This access to ESAP resources on the university's online platform might have resulted in greater student satisfaction across a cohort, as individuals may have different learning and study skills strategies. This was addressed by one lecturer whilst reflecting on student learning preferences from the student perspective commenting that:

my character is extrovert and I like to talk to lots of people and ask where and how they've done the course ... but it could be someone is an introvert and they could be much more inclined to look at the literature and find stuff and guidance on the internet I think it's very personal (Lecturer RD)

This leads us on to the students' most popular source of academic writing guidance: the RA.

5.6.3: The RA as an exemplar

The reasoning behind the application of norms to academic writing was summed up by one lecturer as follows: *should be writing in the same sort of style so you can compare like with like about the meaning of what they are writing* (Lecturer OM). This aligns with the communicative purpose of scientific RAs as described earlier in Chapter 2. Indeed, the dissertation and RA genres are part of a network of key, HE academic genres in the Clinical Pharmacy discourse community. Thus, the norms adopted by the RA in the medical science global discourse community, and in particular the Pharmacy global discourse community, were those that the local discourse community supervisors expected students to apply in the dissertation assessment genre of the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community. This exemplifies Fairclough's (1993:30) definition of intertextuality as the application of shared genre conventions. In other words, one key genre's conventions influence those of another key genre in the same discipline. Therefore, it makes sense that the RA key genre should be viewed by students as the most important source of dissertation writing guidance. In contrast, most lecturers considered the RA of lower importance, placing supervision meetings or supervisor feedback first. Students discussed their approach to reading RAs for guidance as follows:

I read journal article not same as my topic but just to see how the flow is going
(Student Y)

On the other hand, Student Z described her approach as:

reading journal articles it help me format the whole I tried to get most of my help from reading journal articles on the same subject

Likewise, Student W described how she read:

some phrases to explain more and give more details so I think reading is the most important part of how I improved my writing

However, students also identified a possible drawback in the use of RAs as models of academic writing norms. For example, one student commented that:

every journal has its own style of writing and when we are in conflict with our supervisor I used a different journal to what my supervisor did and ended up with a different style that I have to write it again according to what the supervisor wants (Student X).

This suggests that students need to discuss with their supervisor the suitability of the RAs they refer to in terms of writing guidance. On the other hand, although the supervisors were aware of the importance of the use of RAs in their teaching practice, they seemed less aware of the high importance students attributed to them as sources of academic writing guidance. For example, one lecturer commented that:

they are not keen on writing and reading journals but obviously it's something they need... but obviously it's something they need to do and we're trying to encourage it to learn that reading is important (Lecturer TC).

Most lecturers considered reading RAs as less important than supervision feedback, or academic writing support. One lecturer stated that their advice to students was:

start by going to see their supervisor to set it straight what the expectations are followed by if there's a workshop for the dissertation then reading journals (Lecturer RD).

However, the usefulness of reading RAs was described by Lecturer RD as follows:

... by reading the journal they learn the terminology they learn the appropriate language the phrases that is used and then eventually they get to learning the style of writing something like the structure of academic writing

A few of the lecturers noted the success of the recently introduced journal clubs in helping students develop criticality in their reading and thinking. Lecturer RD commented that:

we've tried to run these journal clubs and in the feedback received ... they have acknowledged their journal clubs.

To sum up, it was evident from the participant interviews that reading RAs was important to students in terms of subject knowledge, and the norms of academic writing in their discipline. In addition, both the supervisors and I utilised RAs in our practice to provide examples. This suggests that RAs probably had a great deal of influence on students' writing in terms of rhetorical structure and use of lexico-grammatical features including metadiscourse. Hence, supporting this study's Genre Analysis of both the master's dissertation DC and RA DS, in the exploration of the significance of intertextuality on the academic conventions of key assessment genres in a discipline. The next section of this Chapter will present the participants' perceptions of the highly weighted master's dissertation assessment genre's highly weighted part-genre: the Discussion Chapter

5.7: Text Talk

Lecturers thought that students found the more descriptive dissertation part-genres easier to write: the background content in the Introduction; the Literature Review; and the reporting of Methods and Results. Five (n=7) lecturers identified the DC as the most challenging part-genre for students. It was suggested this was because it was more fluid and dependent on the student's own ideas and language use. Lecturers SF and UE commented as follows:

the more fluid sections like the introduction and the discussion are where they need to show ability to understand the literature and show the relationship to what the literature is saying and this is where they struggle most I think (Lecturer SF)

maybe you will like the introduction method and results but there's such a deterioration in the discussion just because they tell me they do it at the last minute (Lecturer UE).

The students' perceptions of the master's dissertation DC appeared to be in close alignment with that of the lecturers as when asked about the most difficult chapter to write all (n=4) students agreed it was the Discussion Chapter. Students X and Y explained that:

it's the discussion because it mainly depends on your findings some of your findings may overlap and we have difficulties organising them especially when we have to discuss every fact separately then I have to go back to the previous idea because problem in linking the ideas together (Student X)

I agree the discussion was the difficulty was about linking the results sometimes because for me my results it was about themes the process of synthesizing the themes then I had to make other grouping for the discussion to link all the problems together (Student Y)

These issues may not have been purely related to the norms of the organisation of the DC, but also to the cognitive nature of the writing process, which may lead the writer to a new perspective and/or clarity regarding their knowledge and understanding of key subject concepts. Student W offered a suggestion based on her experience.

because you have stated the results and then you are discussing it in the same way as the results sections so it will have more coherent view and I also tried to connect each paragraph to have a flow in the dissertation (Student W).

This tip for organising the DC was confirmed by lecturer SF and maybe originated from them, as they advised that:

in order to write a good discussion you need to present your results in a sensible logical way as well and sometimes people find it difficult to decide what is the right order the right way of doing that with some projects where you are using different methodologies and different sources of information there can be different ways of presenting information and structuring the information /and it doesn't really matter to a certain extent what one uses as language as it makes sense rather than it jumps all over the place so my guidance is use the same approach as you used for presenting the results rather than suddenly change it all it helps with coherence this is nothing I've been told it's just evolved from my own experience (Lecturer SF).

Such suggestions could be useful to other students if incorporated into ESAP pedagogy on the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme, and probably across other medical science disciplines too. The lecturer's tacit knowledge of the way to organise ideas in the DC is of value to a novice researcher/writer, and also ESAP pedagogy.

To sum up, within the Clinical Pharmacy master's programme's local discourse community, RAs, supervision, and academic writing support, in that order, were seen by students as the most valuable means of accessing writing guidance. All students noted RAs as their first choice for academic writing guidance. This may be because RAs were an easily accessible online resource, and were also recommended to them by their supervisors, whose guidance was highly valued. RAs are peer reviewed published examples of expert writing, so this key genre could justifiably have been viewed by students as exemplars of academic writing in their discipline. In contrast, most lecturers saw supervision as the main source of dissertation writing guidance; only one lecturer believed that students would prefer accessing guidance from RAs. However, the module and programme documentation did highlight the RA as an exemplar for the norms and standards of academic writing in the local discourse community. This was manifested in its reference to the RA in assessment documents. For example, a feature of excellence in the marking criteria was noted as 'publishable'; the use of the scientific and technical RA IMRD structure was provided as a structural model; and by the sharing and use of RAs as examples by the supervisors

and me. Thus, the usefulness of RAs as academic writing guidance appeared to be both implicit and explicit in the programme. Both groups of participants (students and lecturers) viewed the master's dissertation DC as a challenging part-genre, which supported the significance of this study's practice concern. On the other hand, criticality was only noted by lecturers as an important feature of academic writing. However, students were very concerned about the organisation of the DC. Thus, development of ESAP dissertation workshop pedagogy could play a part in making the RA's usefulness in terms of examples of academic language conventions and supervisors' (reader's) expectations more explicit, particularly in terms of criticality in a given discipline. This dissertation will now move on to report the findings of the comparative Genre Analysis of the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS.

Chapter 6: A Comparative Genre Analysis

6.1: Introduction

This Chapter will present the findings of a comparative Genre Analysis of two corpora: eleven past students master's dissertation DCs, and a sample of seventeen cited RA DSs situated in a Clinical Pharmacy master's programme local discourse community. In this way, Research Questions 1 to 4 will be addressed by identifying the frequency and range of the key rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features in each corpus. The RA is a key genre in the network of academic texts in the Clinical Pharmacy discourse community, so it has a significant intertextual relationship with other texts in terms of academic writing conventions of voice and expression of stance. Thus, this study also enabled consideration of the suitability of the RA DS as an exemplar for the master's dissertation DC. In addition, any differences found between the part-genres' rhetorical structural features and metadiscourse (Research Questions 2 and 5), could be shared with students via ESAP pedagogy to further develop their part-genre knowledge. In addition, as a result of the study's pivot to focus on the expression of criticality (stance), the conventions applied by the RA authors could be identified and utilised to guide students in adopting appropriate rhetorical structure and use of metadiscourse. This Chapter will now report on this study's findings as follows: firstly, Section 6.2 will report on the word count, and presentation of the master's dissertation and RA corpora's Discussion texts; secondly, in Section 6.3 the normed frequency and range of the steps in each corpus will be reported; followed in Section 6.4 by the normed frequency of the moves in each corpus; finally, in Section 6.5 the type and frequency of metadiscourse expressing a writer's stance will be reported for each corpus.

6.2: Text Presentation

The master's dissertations' whole texts minus the abstract, acknowledgements, and references consisted of 132,864 words, whilst the RA whole texts, minus the sections noted above, had a total word count of 80,458. Thus, the master's dissertation DC corpus (n-11) with its word count of 42,394 words represented 32% of the corpus of whole master's dissertation texts. On the other hand, the RA DS corpus (n-17) with a word count of 20,246 represented a slightly smaller proportion (25%) of the whole RA text corpus. This significant apportioning of word count to the master's DC and the RA DS highlights their importance to the whole dissertation or RA text. The average word count for the master's dissertation DC and RA DS texts was 12,078 and 4,732 respectively. Whilst the average dissertation DC and DS had a word count

of 3,854 and 1,190 respectively. Therefore, the RA DS is just under a third in length (30%) of the master's dissertation DC. Eight (73%) of the master's dissertation DC corpus (n=11) headings were entitled Discussion, whereas the remainder were entitled Discussion and Conclusion(s) (see Table 5 below, and Appendices H and I for detail). This can be explained by the students' use of the module documentation dissertation model, which included separate Discussion and Conclusion part-genres. However, it appears that three students may have resisted this guidance. The possible reason for writers' selection of structural and metadiscourse choices will be discussed in detail later in Chapter 7. As noted previously in Chapter 4 if a Conclusion was present in a master's dissertation DC it was removed from the text before adding it to the DC corpus. Thus, the texts across the corpora were similar in their choice of chapter headings (see Table 5 below).

Table 5: Master's Dissertation (MD) DC and RA DS Presentation Features

MDs (n=11)	Discussion heading	Sub-headings	Diagrams per text	Tables per text	Conclusion(s)
number of texts	11	11	4	2	11
RAs (n=17)	Discussion heading	Sub-headings	Diagrams	Tables	Conclusion(s)
number of texts	17	9	2	5	9

However, difference was noted in the use of sub-headings with all the dissertations using them, but only 53% (n=9) of the RAs. Likewise, diagrams were found in 36% of the dissertation DCs, but only in 12% (n=2) of the RA DSs (n=17). In contrast, 18% of DCs contained diagrams whilst only 29% of the RAs employed these visual aids (see Appendices H and I for details). Finally, the presence of a Conclusion as a final section in whole master's dissertations or RAs varied across the two corpora (see Table 5 above). The majority (n=9) of master's dissertations had a discrete Conclusion, whilst four texts used the section headings Conclusion and Recommendation(s). This latter heading was not found in the RA corpus, but 47% of the RAs had a discrete Conclusion. Other noted options for the location of a Conclusion were as follows: under a Discussion text sub-heading as seen in two master's dissertations and RAs. In addition, a Conclusion was provided as a paragraph within two of the RA DSs; this was not seen in the dissertation DCs. Three RAs applied alternative sub-headings: Implications; Implications for theory and research; Implications for theory and practice; and The Future.

In summary, not only was there a marked difference in the word counts of the master's

dissertation and RA texts, but also variation in the wording of the discussion texts' headings and even the location of a Conclusion if present. In addition, there was a marked difference in the use of visual aids: the master's students appeared to prefer the use of diagrams, whilst the RA authors appeared to prefer the use of tables. These presentation and rhetorical structural differences provide a clear indication of the part-genre specificity of the master's dissertation and RA discussion texts. This is supported by Pride's (1970) observation that: 'An important feature of social differentiation between systems, or between the different users of the same system, is probably their superficial or stylistic character' (Pride, 1970:7). This Chapter will now move on in the next section to report the paradigm of the rhetorical micro and macro-structure present within the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora. Thus, providing a deeper analysis of the rhetorical structure and language choice of both corpora.

6.3: Microstructure (Steps)

6.3.1: Step frequency in the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter (DC)

The master's dissertation DC corpus consisted of 2006 items of which one hundred and fifty-five items had an 'Elaborating Function' (Moreno and Swales, 2018:50) (see Appendix J for detailed step table). These functions were coded as follows: Clarification (CLAR); Justification (JUST); and Exemplification (EXEM). In addition, 29 items were coded as Introducing structure or sections (ISS) and were not considered steps according to the definition of a step in Chapter 4. Together these items had a combined frequency of 8%, the remainder (92%) of items were categorised as steps (see Table 6 below for detail of step counts and frequency percentages). Seventeen step types of a possible twenty were recorded at a frequency of 1% or above in the master's dissertation DC corpus (see Table 6 on the next page). Three of the possible step types had a frequency lower than 0.1%, so were recorded as zero: 'Similarity with other results in current study' (SRES); 'Highlighting results' (HRES); and 'Hypothesizing for future research' (HYP).

Table 6: Master's Dissertation Discussion Chapter (DC) Corpus Counts (*) and Step Frequencies

STEP and FUNCTION	DC	A*	B*	C*	D*	E*	F*	G*	H*	I*	J*	L*	Count Total	% of Total steps in corpus (1822)
RES = Presenting results neutrally	48	30	36	64	27	31	37	56	23	27	37		416	23%
RWC = Reporting background information with citations	21	44	26	7	1	52	10	11	7	12	28		219	12%
EV = Evaluating the current study or other research or practice	7	3	8	41	8	21	12	11	22	14	16		163	9%
REC = Making recommendations for future research or practice	11	28	5	21	2	40	4	3	5	22	13		154	8%
EXPL = Explaining results or discussing effects (cause)	14	12	21	10	4	21	12	6	2	17	3		122	7%
MEAN = Establishing the meaning of findings (<i>outcome</i>)	9	6	33	6	2	16	6	14	12	5	11		120	7%
SPR = Similarity with previous research findings or guidelines	6	22	13	2	1	16	13	13	7	8	14		115	6%
LIM = Pointing out limitations of current study	6	5	6	27	6	10	7	3	12	10	8		100	5%
KFS = Re-stating key features of the current study	9	1	7	19	18	3	6	3	4	10	5		85	5%
STATE = Evaluating the state of knowledge or practice in broad terms	19	5	11	12	0	3	3	10	7	4	7		81	4%
POC = Providing background information without citations	11	6	18	6	3	22	0	1	1	8	5		81	4%
CPR = Contrast with previous research or guidelines	8	3	4	1	1	3	7	2	8	6	4		47	3%
CONTR = Stating the contribution of the current study	4	4	1	0	5	6	1	0	1	1	6		29	2%
POS = Pointing out positive features of the current	2	1	1	16	0	7	0	0	0	0	1		28	2%
GAP = Noting gaps in knowledge or deficiencies in other research or practice	1	0	3	5	2	1	2	1	1	0	0		16	1%
CRES = Contrasting with other results in current study	8	0	0	2	3	2	1	1	0	0	0		17	1%
APP = Suggesting the applicability of results or usability of outcomes	1	1	2	0	2	2	0	2	0	1	1		12	1%
SRES = Similarity with other results in current study	2	0	0	1	1	1	2	0	1	0	0		8	0%
HRES = Highlighting results	0	0	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	0		7	0%
HYP = Hypothesizing for future research	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1		2	0%
Totals	187	171	196	241	87	259	124	138	114	145	160		1822	

In this study, the ten critical step types in the master's dissertation DC corpus account for 38% of all steps (see Table 6 above), which was much lower than that of the frequency of neutral steps (62%). This appears to align with the lecturers' interview comments which placed much emphasis on the importance of the presence of criticality (stance) in a master's dissertation, which was also evident in the programme and module documentation (see Chapter 5, sub-section 5.5.2). Of the ten critical steps in the master's dissertation DC only four had a frequency of 5% and over: 'Evaluating the current study or other research or practice' (EV) at 9%; 'Making recommendations for future research or practice' (REC) at 8%; 'Similarity with previous research findings or guidelines' (SPR) at 6%; and 'Pointing out limitations of current study' (LIM) at 5 %. The two most frequent critical steps (EV and REC) seem to demonstrate the students' confidence and ability to not only critically evaluate their own and other's studies (EV), but also analyse their findings to provide recommendations for further research and practice (REC).

The data in Table 6 above also demonstrates that there was variation in the frequency of each step type across individual DCs. For example, Discussion Chapter D demonstrated the highest frequency (count-64) of the neutral step 'Presenting results neutrally' (RES). This DC had the second highest total step count at 241 where the corpus median was 160. In addition, it had a word count of 4,361 whilst the corpus' median was 3,633 and the highest count was 4,997. The student writer also wrote the second longest dissertation at 14,527 where the median word count was 12,702. Although of interest, within the time constraints of this study, the possible reasons for individual text differences in step frequency were not explored in depth. Future research could take a case study approach into individual writers' profiles (context) and the text features of each text (count and frequency of other steps, word count, topic and research design). However, it is clear that the RES step had the highest count and frequency in each individual text except for E, D and F. The data from these atypical texts reveals individual writers' particular use of steps which could inform both ESAP and discipline lecturers regarding the academic writing challenges of individual students.

The identification of high frequency steps within the corpora enables a pedagogical focus on the most used critical steps and affords consideration of possible reasons for this. However, although the step 'Pointing out the positive features of the study' (POS) which expresses mitigation for the limitations of a student's methodology, and the step 'Stating the contribution of the current study' (CONTR) had slightly lower frequencies of 5% and 3% respectively;

these steps are considered important in the demonstration of criticality. Therefore, they should be, if not already, recommended to students by ESAP and programme lecturers, as will be discussed in Chapter 7. These findings can increase an ESAP teacher's awareness of and reasons for students' writing strengths and challenges. This could enable further development of appropriate ESAP pedagogy and resources. For example, providing students with text extracts that exemplify the use of or lack of criticality. Thus, enabling a discussion regarding the conventions of their discipline, with that of their L1 language and culture. The next subsection will move on to present the findings regarding the frequency of steps in the RA DS corpus.

6.3.2: Step frequency in the RA Discussion Section (DS)

The RA DS corpus consisted of 892 items (see Appendix J). Sixty-two items with an elaborating function were coded: Clarification (CLAR); Justification (JUST); and Exemplification (EXEM); whilst thirteen items had an organisational function (ISS). These 75 items had a combined frequency of 8% which was the same frequency as in the master's dissertation corpus. Eighteen step types were recorded in the RA corpus (see Table 7 below) which is one more than in the master's dissertation DC corpus: the 'Hypothesizing for future research' (HYP) step. These eighteen step types accounted for 92% of all the items in the RA DS corpus, which was the same frequency as in the master's dissertation DC corpus. In the RA DS corpus, the 'Presenting the study's research findings neutrally' (RES) step had the highest frequency at 24% (see Table 7 below), which was a very similar frequency (23%) to that of the master's dissertation DC corpus (see Table 8 below for comparative data). The next highest in frequency in the RA DS corpus was the 'Evaluating the current study or other research or practice' (EV) step at 12%. This was in contrast to the master's dissertation DC corpus in which the 'Reporting background information with citations' (RWC) step had the second highest frequency at 12%. The 'Pointing out limitations of current study' (LIM); 'Making recommendations for future research or practice (REC); and 'The state of knowledge or practice in broad terms' (STATE) steps were third highest in frequency at 8%. Likewise, the master's dissertation DC corpus REC step had a frequency of 8%. However, the LIM and STATE steps' frequencies were lower in the master's dissertation corpus: LIM (5%) and STATE (4%). The 'Explaining results or discussing effects [Cause]' (EXPL) step was very similar in frequency in the DC and DS corpora with a frequency of 7% and 6% respectively. In addition, it was noted that the POC (3%) and KFS (3%) steps were similar in frequency. but lower than in the master's DC corpus (POC 4% and KFS 5%). These findings will be

discussed further in Chapter 7.

Table 7: Research Article (RA) DS Corpus Counts (*) and Step Frequencies

STEP and Function	A1 *	A2 *	B1 *	B2 *	C1 *	C2 *	D1 *	D2 *	E1 *	E2 *	F1 *	F2 *	G1 *	G2 *	H1 *	I2*	J2*	Count Totals *	% of Total (817)
RES = Presenting results neutrally	8	6	18	30	21	11	10	6	4	5	16	13	17	4	6	8	13	196	24%
EV = Evaluating the current study or other research or practice	1	7	2	8	0	11	8	10	9	8	6	5	2	2	6	0	9	94	12%
LIM = Pointing out limitations of current study	1	10	1	3	0	6	5	5	8	4	9	2	0	5	2	0	8	69	8%
REC = Making recommendations for future research or practice	4	0	1	6	12	6	1	0	1	2	1	7	10	0	5	8	1	65	8%
STATE = Reporting the state of knowledge or practice in broad terms	2	1	4	2	10	1	1	2	0	1	4	6	19	6	4	0	2	65	8%
RWC = Reporting background information with citations	5	0	2	2	1	2	1	2	0	1	9	5	10	2	7	8	0	57	7%
EXPL = Explaining results or discussing effects (Cause)	6	7	4	5	3	2	3	2	1	3	0	2	1	3	3	0	2	47	6%
POS = Pointing out positive features of the current	0	4	2	17	0	0	0	4	2	6	4	0	0	1	0	0	2	42	5%
MEAN = Establishing the meaning of findings (outcome)	1	0	1	4	4	1	0	3	0	0	2	5	2	0	3	3	0	29	4%
CONTR = Stating the contribution of the current study	1	0	2	6	0	0	2	1	4	2	0	5	0	1	2	0	2	28	3%
POC =Providing background information without citations	2	1	2	2	2	2	0	1	2	1	0	5	3	2	0	0	1	26	3%
SPR = Similarity with previous research findings or guidelines	1	7	1	5	2	0	0	1	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	2	25	3%
KFS = restating key features of the current study	3	1	2	4	0	2	2	5	0	2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	25	3%
CPR = Contrast with previous research or guidelines	1	5	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	3	0	0	16	2%

Table 7 cont...STEP and Function	A1 *	A2 *	B1 *	B2 *	C1 *	C2 *	D1 *	D2 *	E1 *	E2 *	F1 *	F2 *	G1 *	G2 *	H1 *	I2* *	J2* *	Count Totals *	% of Total (817)
GAP = Noting gaps in knowledge or deficiencies in other research or practice	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	1	1	0	0	11	1%
APP = Suggesting the applicability of results or usability of outcomes	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	9	1%
HRES = Highlighting results	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	7	1%
HYP = Hypothesizing for future research	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	5	1%
SRES = Similarity with other results in current study	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0%
CRES = Contrasting with other results in current study	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Totals	36	53	43	98	57	48	34	43	31	38	53	68	67	29	46	30	43	817	100%

Each corpus had seven neutral step types (see Stage 2 of Methods in Chapter 4). However, their frequencies differed: the master's dissertation corpus had a frequency of 62%, whilst only 55% of steps are neutral in the RA DS corpus (see Table 8 below). The overall impression is that neutral steps are core components of each corpus; however, the RA DS corpus has a lower frequency of these steps. These seven neutral steps accounted for 62% of all steps in the corpus; five of which were at a frequency of 5% or above, and two at 2%. 'Presenting results neutrally' (RES); 'Reporting background information with citations' (RWC); 'Providing background information without citations' (POC); 'Restating key features of the current study' (KFS); 'Explaining results or discussing effects [cause]' (EXPL); 'Establishing the meaning of findings [outcome]' (MEAN); and 'The state of knowledge or practice in broad terms' (STATE) (see Table 8 below). The step 'Presenting the study's research findings neutrally' (RES) had the highest step frequency (23%). The next highest in frequency was the 'Reporting background information with citations' (RWC) step (12%).

Table 8: Frequency of Master's Dissertation (MD) DC and RA DS Neutral Steps across the Corpora

MD STEP and FUNCTION	MD Count* Total	% of Total steps in corpus (1822)	RA STEP and FUNCTION	RA Count* Totals	% of Total steps in corpus (817)
RES = Presenting results neutrally	416	23%	RES =Presenting results neutrally	196	24%
RWC = Reporting background information with citations	219	12%	STATE = The state of knowledge or practice in broad terms	65	8%
EXPL = Explaining results or discussing effects (Cause).	122	7%	RWC = Reporting background information with citations	57	7%
MEAN = Establishing the meaning of findings (outcome)	120	7%	EXPL =Explaining results or discussing effects Cause?.	47	6%
KFS = Re-stating key features of the current study	85	5%	MEAN = Establishing the meaning of findings (outcome)	29	4%
STATE = The state of knowledge or practice in broad terms	81	4%	POC = Providing background information without citations	26	3%
POC = Providing background information without citations	81	4%	KFS = Re-stating key features of the current study	25	3%
Totals	1144	62%		444	55%

Eleven critical step types were noted in the RA DS corpus (see Table 9 below). These steps constituted 45% of all steps in the RA corpus, which was higher than that recorded (38%) in the master's dissertation DC corpus. The frequency differential (7%) aligns with the lecturers' emphasis on the importance of developing criticality in student dissertation writing. The most frequently occurring critical steps in the RA DS corpus were as follows: EV (12%), LIM (8%), and REC (8%) (see Table 9 below). These three steps are explicitly focused on expressing critical comment. This suggested that the expert RA authors have the confidence and writing ability to not only critically evaluate their own and other's studies (EV), but also to discuss the limitations (LIM) of their own study providing mitigation with the use of the step 'Pointing out positive features of the current positive claims (POS) (5%'. On the other hand, the master's dissertation DC corpus has a low POS step frequency (2%). Therefore, the use of the POS step should be highlighted in ESAP pedagogy which might assist students to comment regarding a lack of criticality in the students' master's dissertation writing.

There were four critical step types (see Table 9 below) that had a low frequency across the corpora. Firstly, the step ‘Stating the contribution of the current study’ (CONTR) at 3% in the RA DS corpus and at 2 % in the master’s dissertation DC corpus. Secondly, the step ‘Contrast with previous research or guidelines’ (CPR) had a similar frequency across the master’s dissertation DC and RA DS corpora at 3% and 2% respectively. In addition, both corpora had a low frequency (1%) of the step ‘Noting gaps in knowledge or deficiencies in other research or practice’(GAP). However, this step was present in eight (72%) of the master’s dissertation DC corpus texts (n-11), but only seven (41%) of the RA DS texts (n-17) had this step. Therefore, although not conventional in the corpora it should be recommended to student writers. Finally, three of the critical step types were not found in either corpus: firstly, the step ‘Hypothesizing for future research’ (HYP) had a frequency of less than 0.01% (present in one text (n-11) in the master’s dissertation DC corpus so was recorded as a zero frequency; whilst in the RA DS corpus it had a frequency of 1% with a presence in only three texts (n-17); secondly, only the master’s dissertation DC corpus contained the ‘Contrasted findings across their own study’ (CRES) step, albeit at a low frequency (1%), whilst it was absent from the RA DS corpus. Likewise, the ‘Similarity with other results in current study’ (SRES) step was only present once in one RA text so its frequency was 0.1% , so recorded as zero.

Table 9: Frequency of Master’s Dissertation (MD) DC and RA DS Critical Steps across the Corpora

MD STEP and FUNCTION	MD Count Total	% of Total steps in corpus (1822)	RA STEP and FUNCTION	RA Count Total	% of Total steps in corpus (817)
EV =Evaluating the current study or other research or practice	163	9%	EV =Evaluating the current study or other research or practice	94	12%
REC =Making recommendations for future research or practice	154	8%	LIM = Pointing out limitations of current study	69	8%
SPR = Similarity with previous research findings or guidelines	115	6%	REC = Making recommendations for future research or practice	65	8%
LIM = Pointing out limitations of current study	100	5%	POS = Pointing out positive features of the current	42	5%
CPR = Contrast with previous research or guidelines	47	3%	CONTR = Stating the contribution of the current study	28	3%
CONTR = Stating the contribution of the current study	29	2%	SPR = Similarity with previous research findings or guidelines	25	3%

MD STEP and FUNCTION	MD Count Total	% of Total steps in corpus (1822)	RA STEP and FUNCTION	RA Count Total	% of Total steps in corpus (817)
POS = Pointing out positive features of the current	28	2%	CPR = Contrast with previous research	16	2%
GAP =in knowledge or deficiencies in other research or practice	16	1%	GAP =in knowledge or deficiencies in other research or practice	11	1%
APP = Suggesting the applicability of results or usability of outcomes	12	1%	APP = Suggesting the applicability of results or usability of outcomes	9	1%
CRES = Contrasting with other results in current study	8	1%	HRES = Highlighting results	7	1%
			HYP = Hypothesizing for future research	5	1%
Totals	672	38%		306	45%

In summary, this study found a lower frequency of critical steps in the master's dissertation corpus. This seems to indicate how the master's dissertation might appear to have less criticality than expected by the reader (discipline lecturer). For example, the 'Evaluating the current study or other research or practice' (EV) was the most frequent critical step in the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS corpora at 9% and 12 % respectively. However, it is debatable whether or not a differential of 3% between the corpora's frequencies, would be sufficient to cause the lecturers' concern regarding the use of criticality in the student dissertations. But in combination with other low frequency critical steps an impression of an overall lack of criticality may have been created.

These findings not only answer Research Question 4, but could also as a result increase in the ESAP lecturer's awareness of possible reasons for students' academic writing strengths and challenges, which could enable further development of ESAP pedagogy. For example, by providing students with contrasting text extracts that exemplify the use and lack of criticality. Thus, enabling a discussion regarding the conventions of their discipline with that of the conventions of their L1 language, and national and personal cultural conventions. The pedagogical implications of the findings will be discussed further in Chapter 7, whilst the next section of this Chapter will move on to explore the macrostructure (moves) which convey the communicative purpose of the two part-genres.

6.4: Macrostructure (moves)

6.4.1: Introduction

As described in Chapter 4 this study adopted a six-move model: *Background information*; *Findings plus comment*; *Findings report*; *Local Evaluation*; *Global Evaluation*; and *Recommendation*. This followed Moreno and Swales' (2018) five move model. However, as described in Chapter 4 the Moreno and Swales (2018) model was modified by splitting the *Evaluation* move into two separate moves to enable an exploration of the expression of criticality (stance) in the corpora. In this study, moves were usually complete paragraphs but occasionally transferred over two paragraphs or were just a part of one paragraph. This aligns with similar research findings by Moreno and Swales (2018). Variation in paragraph length was noted within and across the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora, with lengthy paragraphs noted in some of the master's dissertation DCs.

All move types were conventional (present in all texts) as defined in Chapter 3 in the master's dissertation DC corpus: the *Background information* move; *Findings report* move; *Findings plus comment* move; *Local* and *Global Evaluation* moves; and *Recommendation* move. In contrast, only one of these moves was conventional in the RA DS corpus: the *Findings report* move with a similar frequency (22%) to that (23%) found in the master's dissertation DC corpus. However, all the remaining moves were found in most of the texts in the RA corpus:

- *Local Evaluation* (16/ n-17, 94%) - *Highly recommended*
- *Global Evaluation* move (15/ n-17, 88%) - *Recommended*
- *Background information* (14/ n-17, 82%) - *Recommended*
- *Recommendation* (13/ n-17, 76%) - *Recommended*
- *Findings plus comment* move (12/ n-17, 71%) – *Optional*

Therefore, those moves with a high percentage of occurrence across the individual texts of the RA DS corpus were categorised as follows: *Highly recommended* if 16 texts and above or *Recommended* if 13 texts and above with regards to inclusion in pedagogy. However, as noted by Hussein and Moghaddam (2019) even if *Optional* consideration of the communicative function in terms of a pedagogical focus. The next sub-section will focus on the range and frequency of each of the five move types in the order they are usually found in in a text.

6.4.2: The *Background information* move

As demonstrated in Table 10 below, the frequency of the *Background information* move varies from text to text in each corpus. The overall frequency of the *Background information* move in the master's dissertation DC corpus was 18%, which seemed to align with a frequency of 12% for the 'Reporting background information with citations' (RWC) step as reported in the previous section of this Chapter.

Table 10: Comparison of Master's Dissertation (MD) DC and RA DS Corpora's *Background Information* (BGI) Move: Counts and Frequencies

MD	BGI moves	% of BGI moves	RA	BGI moves	% of BGI moves
A	14	13	A1	5	13
B	15	14	A2	0	0
C	20	18	B1	3	7
D	7	6	B2	3	7
E	2	2	C1	3	7
F	18	16	C2	1	2
G	3	3	D1	1	2
H	6	5	D2	1	2
I	8	7	E1	1	2
J	10	9	E2	0	0
L	7	6	F1	3	7
			H1	3	7
			I2	2	5
			H1	3	7
			I2	2	5
			J2	0	0
			Total	38	
					14% of all move types

Furthermore, the importance of the background information in a master's dissertation DC was reinforced by the identification of the 'Reporting background information with citations' (RWC) and 'Providing background information without citation' (POC) steps in other move types:

Findings plus comment, *Findings report*, *Evaluation*, and *Recommendation* moves (see Move Examples 1–4 below).

Move Examples (1 - 4) [KEY: master's dissertation (MD) - corpus; B – text; RWC – coded neutral step; SPR = coded critical step]

Move Example 1: (MD – B) D.1 Background information move

RWC = 'Background information with citation' (step)
RWC

Move Example 2: (MD – B) D 2. Findings plus comment move

SPR = 'Current study's findings similarity with previous research' (step)
RWC
RWC

Move Example 3: (MD – A) I 2. Local Evaluation move

EV = 'Evaluation of current or other studies' (step)
RWC

Move Example 4: (MD – D) S 3. Recommendation move

POC = Providing background information without citation (step)
REC = recommendation (step)

Move Example 1 above demonstrates the *Background information* move when found in a post 'heading' (first paragraph) position. This was a common position for the move, which often followed a functional item introducing the overall organisation of the text (coded ISS) in the master's DC corpus. In addition, most of the master's dissertations DC texts displayed a *cycling* (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988) of move structures throughout the DC. These were usually organised according to themes established in the Findings part-genre. In this way, the *Background information* move might be found at the beginning of later themed sections in the master's dissertations' DC. In contrast, two of the RA corpus texts lacked a *Background information* move. Therefore, it appeared that the *Background information* move was *optional* in the RA corpus. Furthermore, some RA DSs had other moves located in the head position, such as, the *Findings report move* (see Move Example 5 below).

Move Example 5: RA – F 1 (text) Findings report (move)

[KEY: RA = corpus ; F1 = text; A = paragraph; RES = coded neutral step; REC = coded critical step] A1 = First move in first paragraph

Findings report move

A 1. RES 1/CLAR

A 2 RES 2 (steps)
RES 3
RES 4

Discussion (chapter heading)

Main findings

¹There was a small but significant increase in recollection of the antibiotic campaign posters in England, **but** the increase in England was only 2.3% greater than the increase in Scotland.² The 'hand' poster was recalled most often. ³ **We could not detect** any positive effect of the campaigns. ⁴ **We did not detect** the lack of benefit of antibiotics for coughs

Hopkins and Dudley-Evans' (1988) study did not find the *Background information* move in all sampled master's dissertation DCs or RA DSs. Therefore, they considered it an optional move across their corpora. In this study, in some RA DSs the lack of a *Background information* move in the head paragraph seemed to be compensated later on in the DS by the presence of an appropriate step, such as, the 'Restating key features of the current study' (KFS) or 'Reporting background information with citation' (RWC) steps in a different move type: *Findings plus comment*, *Findings report*, *Local Evaluation*, and *Recommendation* (see Move Example 6 below).

Move example 6:[KEY: RA = corpus ; C1 = text; A = paragraph; **RWC = coded neutral step**; **REC = coded critical step**] Move Example 6: RA – C 1 (text)

Recommendation move

REC (steps)
RWC
REC
STATE

The head positioning of the *Background information* move aligns with that reported by previous studies including that of: Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) (Science - Biology); Holmes (1997) (Social sciences); Yang and Allison (2002) (Applied Linguistics); Liu and Buckingham (2018) (Applied Linguistics); and Hashemi and Moghaddam (2019) (Applied Linguistics). Liu and Buckingham (2018) noted that there were other alternative opening moves in their RA DS corpus: 'Reporting results' and 'Summarising results'. This was similar to this study's findings in that the RA DSs' first moves were mainly focused on their findings and contribution to the field. These opening moves were usually followed by the most frequent and conventional moves: the *Findings report* and the *Findings plus comment* moves. These will be explored in the next sub-section of this Chapter.

6.4.3. The *Findings report* and the *Findings plus comment* moves

The *Findings report* and *Findings plus comment* moves, usually followed on from the *Background information* move if present in the corpora, with the *Findings report* move positioned before the *Findings plus comment* move. All the master's dissertation and RA corpora Discussion texts contained the *Findings report* move so it was conventional in each corpus (see Table 11 below). In addition, each corpus had the same frequency for the *Findings report* move: 22% per cent. The similarity in the frequency of the *Findings report* move aligned with the frequency of the step: 'Presenting the study's research findings neutrally'

(RES) which was ~~also~~ the most frequent step in both the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora at 23% and 24% respectively. This alignment in step and move frequency makes sense, and highlights the conventional nature of the neutral move and step in terms of pedagogy. This is an area of rhetorical structure in which students demonstrate genre knowledge, as they followed the local discourse community's conventions. In contrast, the critical *Findings plus comment* move was absent from five (n=11) RA texts so appeared to be optional in the RA corpus. In the master's dissertation DC corpus, the *Findings report* and *Findings plus comment* move frequencies 22% and 17% respectively (see Table 11 below) had a differential of 5%. In contrast, the RA differential between the two moves was unexpectedly much higher at 12%.

Table 11: Master's Dissertation (MD) DC and RA DS Corpora's *Findings' Moves*: Counts and Frequencies

MD Findings plus comment (Counts)	%	MD Findings report (Counts)	%	RA Findings plus comment (Counts)	%	RA Findings report (Counts)	%
9	9	12	9	1	3	2	3
13	13	13	9	8	27	2	3
8	8	19	14	0	0	6	10
5	5	20	14	5	17	6	10
4	4	9	6	2	6	7	11
13	13	9	6	0	0	4	6
17	17	8	6	2	6	2	3
7	7	23	17	1	6	2	3
9	9	8	6	0	0	1	2
9	9	7	5	0	0	2	3
10	9	11	8	1	3	4	6
104		139		1	3	5	8
	17%		22%	1	3	7	11
				2	6	2	3
				3	10	2	3
				0	0	3	5
				1	3	3	5
				28		60	
					10%		22%

The frequency of the *Findings plus comment* move differed substantially (7%) between the master's dissertation DS and RA DC corpora: at 17% and 10% respectively. This was

unexpected in terms of the overall higher frequency of critical steps in the RA corpus, but was probably related to an assumption that RA readers had knowledge of relevant previous research; whilst their priority was to communicate their own study's new findings within the limited word count of the RA DS. This Chapter's next sub-section will explore the findings regarding the *Evaluation* and *Recommendation* moves.

6.4.4: The *Evaluation* and *Recommendation* moves

As these move labels suggest they express the critical comment of the writer in the form of statements of evaluation and recommendation. All master's dissertation DC and RA DS texts had both the *Local* and *Global Evaluation* moves, although the former was almost three times as prevalent in both corpora (see Tables 12 and 13 below). However, the frequency of the *Local Evaluation* move differed between the master's dissertation DC corpus (19%) and the RA (27 %) corpora: an 8% differential. This finding aligned with the frequency differential of 3% between the 'Evaluating the current study or other research or practice' (EV) step in the master's dissertation DC (9%) and RA DS (12%) corpora. In addition, the master's dissertation DC corpus demonstrated a low frequency (6%) of the *Global Evaluation* move, whilst the RA DS corpus frequency (10%) was almost double.

In contrast, all master's dissertation DCs had *Recommendation* moves, whereas almost 23% of the RA DSs did not. This was probably related to the presence of discrete Conclusion sections in some RA texts, in which the RA authors presented their recommendations. Despite only 77% of RA DSs containing Recommendations, the corpus frequency of 16% was similar to that of the master's dissertation DC corpus (19%). This could be interpreted as the *Recommendation* move being of higher frequency in those RA DS in which it was included. In terms of ESAP pedagogy students might benefit from the exploration of the rhetorical choice made by the RA writers in relation to the master's dissertation model. In addition, in the master's dissertation DC corpus a merging of both *Evaluation* moves produced a lower frequency (25%) of moves than that of the merged '*Findings*' moves (39%). In contrast, the RA DS corpus had a total frequency of 37% if the *Evaluation* moves were merged (see Table 12 below). This was a greater frequency than that of the merged *Findings* moves (32%). This appears to be a demonstration of the higher level of criticality in the RA Discussion Section.

Table 12: Master's Dissertation (MD) DC Corpus' *Evaluation and Recommendation***Moves: Counts and Frequency**

Local Evaluation (Counts)	%	Global Evaluation (Counts)	%	Recommendation (Counts)	%
12	10	5	14	9	8
4	3	4	11	15	13
11	9	5	14	6	5
30	25	4	11	15	13
6	5	5	14	2	2
13	10	5	14	23	20
6	5	2	6	2	2
7	6	1	3	5	4
14	11	1	3	10	8
11	9	1	3	19	16
8	7	2	6	11	9
Total 122	19%	Total 35	6%	Total 117	19%

**Table 13: RA DS Corpus' *Evaluation and Recommendation* Moves:
Counts and Frequencies**

Local Evaluation (Counts)	%	Global Evaluation (Counts)	%	Recommendation (Counts)	%
2	2	1	4	2	5
3	4	1	4	0	0
1	1	1	4	1	2
8	11	3	11	5	11
0	0	1	4	7	16
6	8	0	0	4	9
7	9	1	4	0	0
8	11	1	4	0	0
7	9	2	7	1	2
7	9	2	7	1	2
7	9	1	4	1	2
6	8	0	0	1	2
4	5	8	29	7	16
2	2	0	0	5	11
3	4	2	7	0	0
3	4	2	7	4	9
2	2	2	7	3	7
5	7	2	7	3	7
Total 74	27%	Total 28	10%	Total 44	16%

6.4.5: Frequency of move types across the corpora

The relationship between the move frequencies of the two corpora is demonstrated in Table

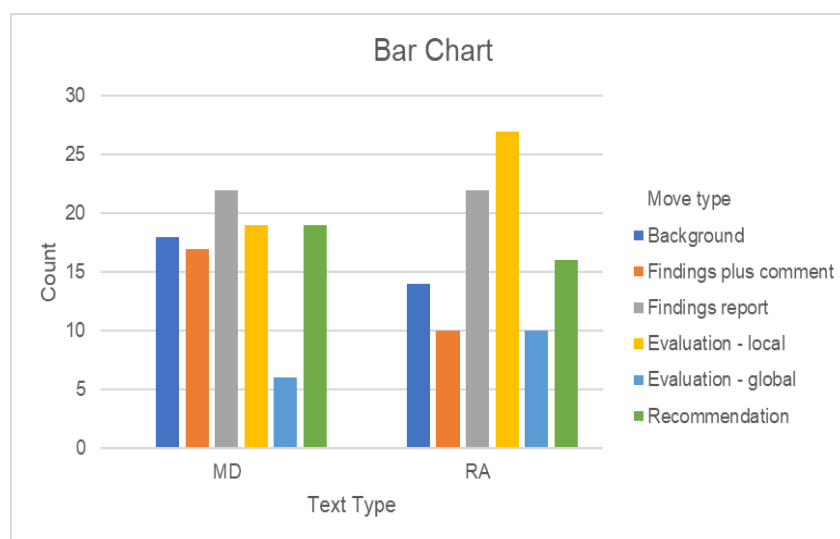
14 below. The only move with the same frequency in both corpora is the *Findings report* move at 22 %. All other moves demonstrated a differential across the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora. The *Background information move*, *Findings plus comment move* and *Recommendation move* all had higher frequencies in the master's dissertation DC corpus than the RA DS corpus with differentials of 4%, 7% and 3% respectively. However, these differentials appeared to be due to their optional nature in the RA DS corpus texts rather than any resistance to their use by the RA writer. The lower move frequencies of the *Local* and *Global Evaluation* moves in the master's dissertation DC corpus, indicated that they are key areas for the development of student writer's criticality in the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community. Therefore, these should be addressed by ESAP pedagogy.

Table 14: Comparison of Move Frequency in the Master's Dissertation (MD) and the Research Article (RA) Corpora

MOVES	Total number of moves in corpora		Number of moves as % of total in corpora	
	MD texts (n=11)	RA texts (n=17)	MD (n= 627)	RA (n=272)
Background Information	110	38	18%	14%
Findings report	139	60	22%	22%
Findings plus comment	104	28	17%	10%
Local Evaluation	122	74	19%	27%
Global Evaluation	35	28	6%	10%
Recommendation	117	44	19%	16%
TOTALS	627	272		

These differences in move frequency between the corpora are illustrated in the bar chart below (Figure 5). The possibility that such differences in move frequency were related to chance rather than being a specific feature of the part-genres was statistically tested using the Chi-Square of Independence statistical test (see Chapter 4 for protocol detail). Despite the clear differences demonstrated in Figure 5 below, no statistical relationship was determined between move frequency and the corpora. However, these findings are notable, and would not only lend themselves to further research, but also to prioritisation in ESAP pedagogy to develop students' expression of stance according to the conventions of their discourse community.

Figure 5 : Bar Chart Demonstrating the Frequency of Moves in the Master's Dissertation DC and RA DS Corpora



In summary, a six-move model was adopted in this study: *Background information; Findings plus comment; Findings report; Local Evaluation; Global Evaluation and Recommendation*. The *Findings report* move was conventional in both corpora and at the same high frequency (22%). In contrast, five texts (n=17) in the RA corpus lacked the *Findings plus comment* move, and there was a notable differential of 7% between the frequencies of the two corpora: the master's DC frequency at 17% whilst the RA DS corpus was at 10%. The frequency of the *Local Evaluation* move in the RA DS corpus was 30% higher than that of the master's dissertation DC corpus. In addition, the *Local Evaluation* move was almost three times as frequent in each corpus than that of the *Global Evaluation* move. The frequency of the *Global Evaluation* move in RA corpus was 40% higher than that of the master's dissertation DC corpus. Although the *Recommendation* move was conventional in the master's Dissertation DC corpus, it was optional in the RA DS corpus. However, the frequency of this move was similar across the corpora: the master's dissertation DC corpus at 19% and the RA DS corpus at 16%. This dissertation will continue in the next section with a report on this study's findings regarding the rhetorical lexico-grammatical features (van Dijk, 1972) of which metadiscourse plays a prominent part.

6.5: Comparative Corpus Analysis of Metadiscourse

6.5.1: Introduction

This section of the dissertation will report on the findings of the comparative corpus analysis of metadiscourse in the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora. As the lecturers

interviewed (see sub-section 5.5.2) were concerned about students' criticality in the master's dissertation DC; this study focused on metadiscourse that expressed criticality (stance) (see Chapter 4). As defined in Chapter 3, Section 5 in this study, metadiscourse is divided into two types: Interactive and Interactional following Hyland and Tse's (2004) model.

6.5.2: Interactive metadiscourse

Transitions expressing contrastive propositions in the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora were found to have a total normed frequency of 7.8 and 9.3 per 1,000 words respectively (see Table 15 below). The master's students used the following contrastive markers: *however*, with a frequency of 2.1 per 1,000 words; *although* 0.7 per 1,000 words; whilst *despite* occurred with a frequency of 0.4 per 1,00 words. These were slightly lower frequencies than in the RA DS corpus in which *however*, *although* and *despite* were recorded as having frequencies of: 2.7, 1.1, and 0.6 per 1,000 words respectively. On the other hand, the frequency of *while*, *in contrast*, *whereas*, and *yet* had the same or similar frequencies in each corpus. Likewise, the more formal, archaic concession markers *nonetheless* and *nevertheless* were rare in the master's dissertation DC corpus, and absent from the RA DS corpus. The markers *similar* (adjective) and *similarity* (noun) were the most frequently used lexis to express similarity in both corpora; the master's dissertation DC corpus having a slightly higher frequency than the RA corpus: 1.7 per 1,000 and 1.2 respectively. It is notable that the expression of similarity occurs only 3.1 per 1,000 words across both corpora. This was not unexpected as there is a much more limited English lexis expressing similarity than there is for the expression of difference.

Table 15: Contrastive Markers in the Master's Dissertation (MD) DC and Research Article (RA) DS Corpora (per 1,000 words)

Corpus	However	while	although	but	despite	In contrast	whereas	Contrary
MD	2.1	0.8	0.7	0.6	0.4	0.2	0.1	0.2
RA	2.7	0.7	1.1	1.2	0.6	0.3	0.1	0
Cont... MD	None- theless 0.1	Never- theless 0.1	yet 0.1	whilst 0	though 0.3	even though 0.3	Total 6	
RA	0	0	1	0	0.2	0.1	8	
Cont... MD	Likewise 0.1	Similar * 1.7	Total 1.8				Overall Total 7.8	
RA	0.1	1.2	1.3				9.3	

On the other hand, *Transitions* expressing causal (cause and effect) relationships were observed to occur at a similar frequency in both the master's dissertation DC and RA DS

corpora: 6.5 and 6.2 per 1,000 words respectively (see Table 16 below). The two most frequently occurring items of causal metadiscourse in both corpora are *because* and *due to*. The master's student writers manifested a greater preference for the use of *thus* (0.6), *since* (0.7), *hence* (0.7), and *consequently* (0.4), whilst RA writers used double the frequency of *so*.

Table 16: Comparison of the Frequency (per 1,000 words) of Causal Metadiscourse in the Master's Dissertation (MD) DC and RA DS corpora

Corpus	because	due to	therefore	thus	since	hence
MD	1	1.1	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7
RA	1.5	1.3	0.6	0.4	0.4	0.4
Cont...	Consequently	so	as a result	leads to*	as	Overall Total
MD	0.4	0.3	0.1	0.3	0.7	6.5
RA	0.1	0.6	0.2	0.3	0.4	6.2

6.5.3: Interactional metadiscourse

The frequency of Interactional metadiscourse expressing caution (Hedges) in the DC corpus was 6.7 per 1,000 words, whilst in the RA DS corpus it was higher at 8.3 per 1,000 words (see Table 17 below). On the other hand, *Certainty* markers had a similar frequency in both the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora, at 2.4 per 1000 and 2.8 per 1,000 words respectively. A difference in frequency was also observed between the corpora at the level of the use of individual Interactional metadiscourse markers (see Table 17 below). For example, the occurrence of *may* at 2.4 per 1,000 words in the master's dissertation DC corpus was just over half of its frequency in the RA DS corpus. In contrast, *could* in the RA DC corpus was half the frequency of that in the MD DC corpus.

Table 17: Comparison of the Frequency (per 1,000 words) of Hedging and Certainty markers in the Master's Dissertation (MD) DC and RA DS corpora

Corpus	may	could	might	possible	if	whether	probably	appears
MD	2.4	1.5	0.7	0.9	0.8	0.3	0.1	0
RA	4.2	0.8	1.2	0.4	0.7	0.6	0.3	0
Cont...	seems	Total		should	would	must	Total	Overall Total
MD	0	6.7		1.6	0.6	0.2	2.4	9.1
RA	0.1	8.3		1.3	1.0	0.5	2.8	11.1

Because *may* and *could* are able to express more than one meaning any differences in their usage was reviewed in the concordance lines. On reviewing the corpus analysis in the concordancer it was noted that although *may* had the same meaning (expression of caution) throughout the two corpora, *could* expressed both caution and ability (Thornbury,1997;

Hewings, 2010). It was noted that in seven concordances *could* expressed ability in the RA corpus. The frequency of *could* in the table of Hedges was, therefore, adjusted so that only its use to express caution was recorded. Likewise, the use of *would* was reviewed in the concordances for its meaning as it might have conveyed: a description of past behaviour or habits (ibid); or indicate a hypothetical or conditional proposition (ibid). Thornbury (1997) noted:

...according to the COBUILD corpus, *would* is the most frequently used modal verb in English, and that in at least a half of its occurrences *would* is used to talk of events which are of a hypothetical nature (Willis, 1990, cited in Thornbury (1997: 222).

In only a few concordances in each corpus did *would* describe past behaviour rather than a recommendation framed as a hypothetical statement. In addition, in this study's data *if* and *whether* have been included as interactional metadiscourse markers expressing conditional claims. It was observed that the frequency of expressions of *Certainty* in the master's dissertation DC corpus were similar to that of the RA DC corpus. In contrast the RA DS corpus had a higher frequency of Hedging than in the master's dissertation DC corpus. This differential between the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora, can inform ESAP lecturers' lexico-grammatical focus to enable further development of students' awareness of the rhetorical features of metadiscourse of the two key part-genres.

6.5.4: Metadiscourse markers and other salient lexis

Three metadiscourse markers were found to be conventional in the master's dissertation DC corpus: *may*, *however*, and *similar** [* = lemma: including other noun and verb forms], and the noun *limitations** (see Table 18 below). In addition, the Interactional markers *due to* and *would* were found in ten texts (n-11), so were also considered conventional. The Interactional Certainty marker *should* was present in 80% (9 of 11 texts) of the master's dissertation DC corpus, and in 70% of the RA DS corpus. Therefore, it was considered *Recommended* in pedagogical terms. Other *Recommended* markers and lexis included: *could*, *while*, *therefore*, and *but*. In contrast, the RA corpus had only one *conventional* marker: the Interactive marker, *however*. Although *may* was the most frequently occurring hedging word in the RA corpus, it did not occur in all texts (15 of 17). However, *may* must have been used multiple times in most if not all of the fifteen RA texts in which it was observed, as it had a high frequency. Thus, it should be highly recommended to students. The Hedges *could* and *would* were only present in 40% of the RA DS corpus, which suggests that these two modals were optional.

The fifth modal *might* was recorded in just over 50% of the master's dissertation DC and RA DS texts. Only one Interactive marker was missing completely from the master's dissertation DC corpus: *albeit*. On the other hand, the RA corpus lacked Interactive markers: *contrary*, *nevertheless*, *whilst*, *nonetheless*, and *albeit*. The lack of *whilst* (Interactive) and *appears* (Interactional) across the corpora was unexpected (see Table 18 below). The master's dissertation DC corpus had four conventional metadiscoursal markers: *however* and *similar* (Interactive); *may* (Interactional) and the meta-noun *limitation(s)*. In contrast, only one metadiscourse marker was conventional in the RA DS corpus: *however* (Interactive); although *may* (Interactional); was recorded in fifteen texts (n-17), and *limitation* in fourteen texts so were both considered as *Highly Recommended*.

Table 18: Metadiscourse and other Salient Lexis Recorded in the Individual Texts of the Master's Dissertation DC and RA DS corpora

Lexis	MD TEXTS (n-11)	Lexis	RA TEXTS (n-17)
may	11	however	17
however	11	may	15
similar*	11	limitation(s)	14
limitation(s)	11	should	12
cause*	10	cause*	11
recommend*	10	but	11
due to	10	recommend*	10
compared	10	because	10
would	10	due to	10
could	9	compared	9
should	9	similar	9
reason(s)	9	might	9
possible	9	whether	9
while	9	although	8
therefore	9	so	8
but	9	could	7
if	8	would	7
although	8	if	7
since	8	thus	7
lack	8	while	6
on the other hand	8	lack	6
because	7	reason(s)	6
thus	7	possible	6
despite	7	as (because)	6
might	6	therefore	5
as (because)	6	despite	5
so	6	must	5
hence	5	since	5
consequences	5	consequences	5

consequently	5	hence	4
must	5	suggests	4
suggests	4	benefit(s)	4
whether	4	in contrast	3
though	4	probably	3
as a result	4	as a result	3
benefit*	3	led to	2
even though	3	On the other hand	2
in contrast	3	though	2
contrary	3	whereas	2
led to	3	consequently	1
nevertheless	2	yet	1
whereas	2	leads to	1
likewise	2	likewise	1
probably	2	seems	1
leads to	2	even though	1
nonetheless	2	contrary	0
yet	1	nevertheless	0
whilst	1	whilst	0
appears	1	nonetheless	0
seems	1	appears	0
albeit	0	albeit	0

To sum up, this study's findings align with most previous studies. Differences between the master's dissertation DC and RA DS use of metadiscourse can inform ESAP lecturer's lexicogrammatical focus, enabling the development of students' genre awareness of the rhetorical features of metadiscourse in the two part-genres. These findings can inform ESP (EAP and ESAP) pedagogy to empower students to further develop their awareness, and use of Interactive and Interactional metadiscourse. In this way, students can learn to express their stance according to the accepted academic voice of their discipline. This dissertation will now move on to discuss this study's findings in relation to previous research studies, and their application to ESP and ESAP pedagogy. It will also explore the master's dissertation DC within its local discourse community's context to consider the possible factors influencing the choice of academic writing conventions.

Chapter 7: Discussion

7.1: Introduction

This Chapter will discuss the key findings presented in Chapters 5 and 6, in terms of students' development of an academic voice and expression of stance in a Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community. Firstly, a brief review of this study's background and methodology will be presented. Secondly, the norms and standards of the academic voice of the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community will be discussed, in relation to the perceptions of its members (lecturers and students), and the programme's documentation. In addition, the possible challenges faced by L2 international students in terms of the conventions of academic writing assessment tasks will be discussed in relation to their education, language and cultural background. The organisation of this Chapter will consist of six further sections which will follow a cyclic structure of moves: *Background information*; *Findings report*; *Findings plus comment*; *Local Evaluation*; and *Global Evaluation*. Recommendations for the application of the findings to pedagogy and practice will be provided in a discrete Conclusion (Chapter 8).

7.2: The Study: (Practice concern, Rationale, and Aims)

This study was conducted in response to noticing a gap in part-genre knowledge of the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation DC as described in Chapter 1. The DC was the most highly weighted (30% of total marks) part-genre in the high stakes dissertation assessment task, which was weighted at 60% of the project module's total mark allocation (2016/17 to 2018/19). However, the discipline lecturers interviewed expressed concern regarding the level of criticality (expression of stance) in students' dissertations. There was consensus amongst the lecturers that criticality was a key requirement in order for a student to achieve a good to excellent grade in the dissertation (see Chapter 5 p.112). Criticality was described in the module's dissertation assessment briefing sheet: 'as a demonstration not only of the requirement for an understanding of complex knowledge, but also a 'critical appraisal' of it (see Section 5.5.2). This was coupled with a requirement for the demonstration of 'originality in approach, leading to a contribution to practice and theory.' Thus, this study pivoted its focus to the expression of criticality, in the local discourse community's key genres' rhetorical structural features and metadiscourse (Research questions 1-4). Thus, the study's main aim was to explore the use of the key rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features, of the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS. The part-genre knowledge gained could then be transferred into ESAP pedagogy. In this way, both the students and I could develop, our part-genre knowledge of the Clinical Pharmacy master's

dissertation DC. In addition, discipline lecturers could also find the study's findings and Genre Analysis approach useful when discussing academic language and providing feedback to students, as Genre Analysis is systematic and has an accessible metalanguage with which to discuss genre and part-genre rhetorical features. Furthermore, other ESAP and EAP lecturers could use the part-genre knowledge in their own practice and/or conduct a CGA study in their own practice local discourse community.

A CGA approach was conducted (see Chapter 4) as it afforded a text in context view of the dissertation DC in the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community. Such a mixed methods approach also enabled the exploration of the interdiscursivity of the local discourse community (see Chapter 5), and the intertextuality (see Chapter 6) of its key genres. The RA is clearly the key genre of the Clinical Pharmacy global and local discourse communities, so its analysis afforded information regarding the academic writing conventions of the discipline. In this way, this study sought to contribute to filling a gap in part-genre knowledge regarding the rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features of a HE high stakes assessment task: the master's dissertation DC. To achieve these aims the following research questions were set to explore the rhetorical structure and metadiscourse of the corpora's part-genres:

1. What are the key rhetorical structural features of a Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation Discussion Chapter and Discussion Sections of the research articles (RAs) they cite (*intertextuality*)?
2. What variation, if any, is observed in the rhetorical structural features of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter and the Discussion Sections of the RAs they cite (*intertextuality*)?
3. What are the key rhetorical metadiscourse features of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter and the Discussion Sections of the RAs they cite (*intertextuality*)?
4. What variation, if any, can be observed between key rhetorical metadiscourse of the master's dissertation Discussion Chapters and the Discussion Sections of the RAs they cite (*intertextuality*)?
5. How can the selection of key rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features in the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation Discussion Chapter be explained in terms of its context (*interdiscursivity*)?

7.3: The Local Discourse Community's Norms and Standards

7.3.1: Communicative purpose

The communicative purpose of an RA is to disseminate cutting edge research in a peer reviewed journal, which is read by other members of their discipline's global discourse community. This aligns with two of Merton's (1966) medical science research norms: '*... communalism ... freely to share results with others*' and '*... universalism ... anyone following our methods will arrive at our results*' (see Section 4.7.3). The latter being the basis of the academic research requirement for: validity and reliability. Therefore, there are four possible reasons for the RA's particular presentation features. Firstly, due to the comparatively short text length of the RA DS and the high value attributed, by the discipline, to validity and reliability of data and methods, the use of tables in the DS affords a clear and concise presentation of a study's results. Secondly, the RA writers' variation in the use of sub-headings might have been due to the conventions of different journals' publishing conventions (see Appendix M), which would align with its discipline. On the other hand, as published research authors in the global discourse community, they probably had sufficient confidence in their discursalselves to incorporate personal preferences for the use of sub-headings and a discrete Conclusion.

It is notable that the dissertation DCs as reported in Chapter 6 were more conventional in the use of presentation features than the RA DS corpus texts. This may have been due to the students' (novice writers) aim to convey a discursalself (Ivanic, 1997), that was receptive to the writing conventions of the academic voice of its discipline's local and global discourse communities. This is evidence of the pedagogical complexity of using the RA as an exemplar for students writing an assessed dissertation. However, the intertextuality between the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS in the genre network of the local discourse community is clear to see. For example, the IMRD (see Chapter 2) overall organisational norm of the RA genre was conventional in the master's dissertation DC corpus. This had been recommended in the module handbook's model as reported in Section 5.5.7. In addition, the student participants had stated that RAs were their main source of academic writing organisation guidance, so they would have been aware of this convention. This was a prime example of intertextuality between the key RA genre of the Clinical Pharmacy global discourse community, and the master's local discourse community's dissertation genre. As stated previously, the study pivoted to focus on the expression of stance (criticality) in the two part-genres (Chapter 4:85,111). Thus, the next sections of this Chapter will focus on a discussion

of the comparative analysis of the frequency of the neutral and critical steps in each part-genre's corpus. In addition, the use of metadiscourse markers across the corpora will be discussed.

7.3.2: Neutral steps' range and frequency

A Genre Analysis of the corpora identified two key findings, which demonstrate student writers' adoption of the RA DS rhetorical structural (steps and moves) norms in the master's dissertation DC. Firstly, there is alignment between the number of step types: seventeen in the master's dissertation DC corpus, and eighteen in the RA DS corpus. Secondly, both corpora had seven neutral step types, all of which were conventional in the master's dissertation corpus, but only one neutral step was truly conventional in the RA DC corpus: the 'Presenting results neutrally' (RES) step. Despite this, most steps in the RA DS corpus can be considered as pedagogically important according to their range across the corpora's texts. Therefore, they should be recommended to students (see Chapter 8 for pedagogical recommendations). The RES step has the highest frequency in both the master's dissertation DC corpus and RA DS corpora at 23% and 24% respectively (see Table 8 Chapter 6, Section 6.3.2). Thus, the RES step is generic across the part-genres' corpora. Likewise, three of the other neutral steps had a similar or same frequency across the corpora; EXPL, KFS, and POC (see Chapter 6, Section 6.3.2). Basturkmen (2009) in her granular study of the 'Commenting on Results' move reported the inclusion of many explanations, which she subdivided into sub-steps as the RA writer in particular had a greater distribution and more varied type of explanation. This was not seen in this study, so it suggests it may be a discipline specific feature in the discipline of TESOL as according to Hyland (2004:151): 'different disciplines can have their own ways of crafting arguments.' The remaining three neutral steps differed in frequency across the corpora with the 'Reporting background information with citations'(RWC) step demonstrating the greatest differential of 5 %: the dissertation DC corpus frequency at 12%, whereas the RA DS corpus frequency was 7%. Neutral steps had an overall frequency of 62% in the master's dissertation DC, whereas in the RA DS corpus the frequency was lower at 55%. Although, it was clear from the programme documentation and participants' interviews that the local discourse community's academic writing norms and standards were demonstrated in its key genre: the RA, the master's students used more neutrality in their writing.

Where differentials in the frequency of neutral steps occurred between the corpora, they might be explained by the writers' positioning in the local discourse community. Students are

positioned at the periphery of their discourse community, which probably makes them believe that their ideas require more support from previous research findings to establish the validity of their claims. Therefore, the higher use of the RWC step demonstrates to their assessor (supervisor) that they are well aware of the academic requirement to support a claim (proposition) with evidence or opinion from another source. In this way, they present a receptive discorsal self that understands how the global discourse community builds its discipline knowledge. Merton (1986) described this as the norm of communalism. In contrast, the RA published writer's discorsal self has greater research and writing experience, due to publishing in a peer reviewed journal. This situates them nearer to the core of their global discourse community. This positioning would not only have strengthened their confidence in their research and academic writing ability, but also their judgement of their readers' knowledge of a topic and its previous research. However, the RA writer is constrained by the word count of the RA text, which is usually much lower than that of the dissertation, as they must ensure that their new findings are shared with the discourse community (communalism). This is a priority of the communicative purpose of the medical science RA genre.

A possible alternative reason for the lower frequency of the RWC step in the RA corpus: the RA writers used a higher frequency of the step 'The state of knowledge or practice in broad terms' (STATE) than the student writers. The RA DS corpus STATE frequency was 8% whilst the master's dissertation DC frequency was only 4%. Therefore, it seems that the RA writer visualises their reader as a member of the global community who is more likely to be interested in the global implications of their findings. Thus, the different communicative purposes of the dissertation assessment task and the RA genre's word count are significant factors influencing the language choices made by writers in this study. These differences have been noticed in other studies including that of: Yang and Allison (2003), Basturkmen (2009) and Liu and Buckingham's (2018). Another possible explanation may be that the higher frequency of use of the RWC step by the international student writers is because it affords a more subtle, face saving approach to the evaluation of other's studies, which might align with the conventions of their national language and culture. In contrast, the RA writers seemed to prefer the use of evaluatory statements to demonstrate to the reader the strength of their claims. This may be linked to the higher frequency of Hedging in the RA DS corpus which will be discussed later in Section 7.4.3.

Finally, another demonstration of the frequency of neutral steps in the master's dissertation

DC and RA DS corpora is the similarity of their combined frequency of the neutral steps ‘Presenting results neutrally’ (RES) and ‘Reporting background information with citations’ (RWC): a 4% frequency differential. The master’s dissertation DC corpus at 35%; and the RA DS corpus at 31% (see Tables 6 and 7 in Chapter 6). These two step types were the most frequent steps in the master’s dissertation DC corpus. In contrast, the RWC step is only sixth in the RA DS frequency table at 7%, with the ‘Evaluating the current study or other research or practice’ (EV) step its second most frequent step at 12%. In contrast, the master’s dissertation DC corpus had a slightly lower frequency of the EV step at 9%. This might be explained in that the choice of reporting verbs or phrases within the RWC step can also provide criticality, in terms of the writer’s stance to a previous research study, or current practice guidelines. Maybe the RWC step can be considered evaluatory in some situations, and therefore, a critical step communicating a writer’s stance. Such an approach would align with Hyland and Tse’s (2004) integrated metadiscourse model. In addition, it is arguable that the ‘Explaining results or discussing effects’ (EXPL) step is completely neutral as categorised in this study, as it can play a part as a method of persuasion. Likewise, ‘The state of knowledge or practice in broad terms’ (STATE) could indicate a writer’s stance to current knowledge and practice. These three steps could be placed on a scale indicating degrees of stance so: STATE ---EXPL---RWC---CPR---EV---CONTR---GAP, where GAP is an explicit high level expression of stance whilst STATE is implicit and low level. However, in this study the step STATE coded for steps that provided information neutrally, whilst if a step was evaluatory it was coded as ‘Evaluating the current study or other research or practice’ (EV). Of course, the separation into neutral and critical steps is a device I introduced to focus on the exploration of the expression of stance in the master’s dissertation DC. This has proved useful in the exploration of the part-genres’ rhetorical structural features of ‘criticality’ in terms of range and frequency in the corpora. For example, demonstrating that neutral steps represented 62% of the total number of master’s dissertation corpus steps, whilst only 55% of steps in the RA DS corpus. This leads to the next section’s discussion of the frequency of critical steps in both corpora, which is key to achieving the identification of the structural and language components used in the expression of criticality.

7.3.3: Critical steps’ frequency and range

The master’s dissertation DC corpus consisted of ten critical step types, whilst the RA DC corpus had eleven (see Chapter 6). It is notable that the total frequency (38%) of all the critical steps in the master’s dissertation DC corpus, was much less than that of its neutral steps (62%).

In contrast, The RA DS corpus demonstrated a greater balance in frequency between its neutral and critical steps: 55% and 45% respectively. In addition, there is a differential of 7% between the master's dissertation DC corpus frequency (38%) of critical steps and the master's dissertation RA DC corpus (45%). This differential between the two corpora appears to support the lecturers' practice concern, that students need to develop criticality (stance) in their writing according to the conventions of the local discourse community (see section 5.5.2.) These findings indicate how the master's dissertations might appear less critical in approach to their reader, than the RAs. However, there is similarity in step frequency in four of the critical step types. In addition, the 'Evaluating the current study or other research or practice' (EV) was the most frequent critical step in both corpora: the master's dissertation DC at 9% and the RA DS at 12 %. The differential between the two frequencies seems insufficient to cause the lecturers' concern regarding the criticality of student dissertations. However, the RA DS corpus also had a greater frequency of the LIM critical step (8%), which is its second most frequent critical step, whilst the master's dissertation DC corpus LIM step is almost half the frequency at 5 %. Although these steps represent a relatively small proportion of all the steps in each corpus, together they might persuade the reader to accept the writer's argument. This might have a similar effect as adding a small amount of chilies to a dish. Of course, not everyone likes spicy food so it is important that the chef is aware of their diners' preferences, in the same way as it is important that writers are aware of the academic writing conventions of their readers' local discourse community.

Similarly, four of the critical steps have similar low frequencies across the corpora: GAP, CPR, CONTR, and REC. Although these big picture claims may be of low frequency, they communicate a great deal of subject knowledge and have critical weight. Linked by a problem/solution logic: a gap in knowledge (the problem); the evaluation of one's own and other's studies' findings (the evaluation); resolved or reduced by the research study's contribution and recommendation (the Conclusion). This cycle of critical steps would fit into Dudley-Evans (1994:224) description of the Discussion move cycle as an '...overarching three-part framework ...: **Introduction - Evaluation - Conclusion**. The lower frequency (5%) of the LIM step in the master's dissertation DC corpus was unexpected in terms of the writer's research experience, but was probably related to students' *resistance* (Ivanic,1997) to reporting issues with their own study's research design. This was probably due to the dissertation, as noted earlier, being an important assessment task in their master's degree. Student writers

may also have been challenged by differences in language use, culture, and previous educational experience.

In the literature three studies report on the frequency of steps in Applied Linguistics RA DSs: Yang and Allison (2003); Liu and Buckingham (2018); and Hashemi and Moghaddam (2019). The former two studies suggested ten step types related to three moves, whilst the latter identified nineteen step types associated with five moves. The two latter studies associated particular steps with particular moves as did this study's model (see Appendix G) which followed the coded model of Moreno and Swales (2018). However, despite some steps being always present in particular moves, so tagging those moves, this study discovered that steps were not necessarily fixed to any one particular move. For example, the 'Presenting results neutrally' (RES) step was found across different moves. This aligns with Yang and Allison's (2003) finding, that the obligatory move 'Commenting on results' could be: '...realized through any one or more of a number of steps' (Yang and Allison, 2003:377). The paradigm of steps was not explored in detail in this study, as it was focused on identifying and comparing the frequency of moves and steps across the two part-genres' corpora. Such research could be undertaken in the future using this corpora's data. The next section of this Chapter will move on to discuss the findings related to the part-genres' rhetorical macro-structure: the moves. These are the communicative functions which play an essential part in creating the structure of the text, not only in terms of its constituent language elements, but also its knowledge content.

7.3.4: Rhetorical macrostructure (frequency and range)

The *Findings report* move was found to be generic across the corpora: it was conventional in both the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS corpora, and had the same frequency of 22%. This move was also found to be conventional in previous studies albeit sometimes described with different terminology (Peng, 1987; Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988; Yang and Allison, 2003; Liu and Buckingham, 2018; and Hashemi and Moghaddam, 2019). Although only one move the *Findings report* move was found to be conventional (obligatory) across these five studies, whilst Peng (1987) reported four obligatory moves within the hard science discipline of Chemical Engineering. As noted previously in Chapter 6, this was probably due to Chemical Engineering being a hard discipline in terms of its knowledge and epistemology. In this study, the *Findings report* and the *Findings plus comment* moves differed in frequency: the former at a frequency of 22% and the latter at 17 %. On the other hand, in the RA DS

corpus a greater differential in frequency occurred between the two moves: the *Findings report* move frequency (22%) was more than double that of the *Findings plus comment* (10%) move. The low frequency of the latter is probably due to its absence in five of the RA DS texts (n=17). This move is, therefore, *optional* in the RA DS corpus. This was unexpected in terms of the expected high levels of critical comment from the RA writer, but was probably related to the RA writers' assumption that the RA readers had a wide knowledge of previous research, whilst their priority was to communicate their own study's 'new' findings within the limited word count of the RA text.

Similarities and differences were noticed across the corpora in the range and frequency of the *Local Evaluation* and *Global Evaluation* moves, and the *Recommendation* move. Firstly, the former were conventional across the corpora so they can be considered generic moves in the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community. However, their frequency across the corpora differed. The *Local Evaluation* move's frequency was 27% in the RA DS corpus, which was a third higher than that of the master's dissertation corpus (19%). Likewise, the RA DS corpus' frequency (10%) of the *Global Evaluation* move was almost double that of the master's dissertation DC corpus (6%). Moreover, if the *Local* and *Global Evaluation* moves are combined, as more often represented in other studies, as a single *Evaluation* move it would have the highest frequency of all moves in both the part-genres' corpora: master's dissertation DC (25%) and RA DS (37%). Therefore, these moves should be prioritised in ESAP pedagogy. However, the differential between the two combined frequencies is high at 12%. The *Local Evaluation* move was almost three times as frequent as the *Global Evaluation* move in both corpora (see Chapter 6, Table 14, p.140). Secondly, it was noted that the *Local Evaluation* and *Recommendation* moves have the same frequency (19%) in the master's dissertation DC corpus, so appeared to be paired in use. In contrast, the RA DS corpus has a much higher *Local Evaluation* move frequency (27%), whilst its *Recommendation move* frequency is much lower at 16%. It was noted that nearly a quarter of the RA DS texts did not contain Recommendations, so a low frequency was expected. This was due to nearly a quarter of the RA *Recommendation* moves, being placed by the RA author in a discrete Conclusion Chapter. However, the RA DS corpus frequency (16%) of *Recommendation* moves was only slightly lower than that of the master's dissertation DC corpus frequency (19%) so when present in an individual RA DS its frequency was high.

Thus, the Genre Analysis approach provided a schema, that enabled an exploration of the way

in which stance is expressed by the key rhetorical features at a micro and macro level in the two key part-genres. The higher frequency of both evaluatory moves in the RA DS corpus, aligns with this study's findings that RA DS critical step frequencies were higher than those of the master's dissertation DC frequencies. These findings resonate with the discourse community's lecturers' concern about the lack of criticality in some students' master's dissertations. In addition, the findings afforded a determination of how student criticality compared with the norms evidenced in the RA DC corpus. Thus, conventional and high frequency RA DS moves can be considered as essential features of a master's dissertation DC. If such moves are lower in frequency in the master's dissertation DC corpus, then these moves should be focused on in ESAP pedagogy. However, care is required in the interpretation of the findings. For example, although the *Recommendation* move was conventional in the master's dissertations' DCs, almost a quarter (23%) of the RA DS texts lacked this move. Therefore, a comparison of frequency across the two corpora alone, did not provide a full picture in this instance. However, it was noticed that the move's communicative function was conveyed in other ways within the RA text (see Chapter 6). This demonstrates the importance of the critical expression of possible solutions to practice issues, and suggestions for further research in the RA DS, however brief. Since the *Recommendation* move's frequency was higher than might be expected in the RA DS corpus due to its absence in five texts, it can be deduced that it was high in those RA DS in which it was included. Therefore, it should be a highly recommended move in ESAP pedagogy.

In a medical science discipline, such as, Clinical Pharmacy, the importance of the Recommendation move and step is to be expected as it is people facing and places a high value on a problem-solving practice approach. However, the different location of the Recommendation move in the RA DS corpus might be an example of a change to the rhetorical features of a part-genre (Bhatia, 2017) by expert writers in the field of Pharmacy (see Chapter 2). Although this may be termed unconventional behaviour by the RA expert writers in the discipline of Clinical Pharmacy; it could also be considered innovational and part of the evolution of a discourse community's language use and norms of academic writing, (Bazerman, 1983, cited in Swales, 1990:113). Other possible explanations are that different study methodologies create a preference for the move to be located in one part-genre rather than another, or that the RA writers are complying with the publishing criteria of different journals. Further CGA research would probably provide the answers. This aligns with Bhatia's (2017) advice regarding the need for research to include: the perceptions, experiences,

and practices of the [academic community] (Bhatia, 2017:67). For example, although not included in the data, one of the lecturers was well aware of this phenomenon as anecdotally he expressed his own preference for recommendations to be placed in a discrete Conclusion Chapter. This finding illustrates that Genre Analysis research findings and pedagogy is not based on an inflexible, singular structure, but resonates with Bhatia's (1993) observation that:

...constraints, ... are often exploited by the expert members of the community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognised purpose(s) (Bhatia, 1993:13).

This definition supports the concept of genre flexibility in key features to accommodate the needs of a specific discourse community's members, perhaps in response to a change in external factors. Thus, further research into the part-genre situation of the *Recommendation* move in the RA genre is needed to explore the possible reasons for the RA authors' choices in terms of the topic and research design. The next section of this Chapter will move on to discuss the findings of the comparative analysis of metadiscourse comparative analysis across the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora.

7.4: Metadiscourse frequency and range

7.4.1: Introduction

As described earlier in Chapters 2 and 3 one of the main ways academic writers communicate their stance to the reader is by the use of Interactive and Interactional metadiscourse (Hyland and Tse, 2004:169). This study followed Hyland and Tse's (2004) integrated view of metadiscourse: both types of metadiscourse can convey stance to persuade the reader to align with their point of view. As described earlier in Chapter 2 metadiscourse expresses the writer's opinion (evaluation and judgements), not only of their own and previous studies research design and findings, but also as in the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community, on current practice guidelines and theoretical models. As such, metadiscourse is an important feature in the step microstructure of the dissertation. Previous metadiscourse research studies, as noted previously in Chapter 3 Section 5, enabled cross language and discipline studies comparisons to be conducted providing insight into the challenges of academic English conventions in terms of the expression of stance.

7.4.2: Interactive metadiscourse: Transitions

Transition markers used to express Contrastive propositions in the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora were found to have a total frequency of 7.8 and 9.3 per 1,000 words respectively (see Table 15 Section 6.5.2). In this study, the master's students most frequently used the following *Contrastive* markers: *however*, with a frequency of 2.1 per 1,000 words; *while* at 0.8 per 1,000 words; and *although* at 0.7 per 1,000 words. In contrast, the RA writers used a slightly higher frequency of *however* at 2.7 per 1,000 words; *however*, was the most frequently used marker in both corpora. The metadiscourse markers *although* and *but* had similar frequencies of 1.1 per 1,000 words and 1.2 per 1,000 words. On the other hand, Causal metadiscourse markers occur at a similar frequency in both corpora (see Table 16, Chapter 6, Section 6.5.2). This aligns with Hyland and Tse's (2004) study of master's and doctoral dissertations in which the master's dissertation corpus had a lower frequency of Transitions than that of the doctoral students, who were positioned more centrally in the discourse community than the master's dissertation writers. However, Hyland and Tse's (2004) study reported a frequency of Transitions of 8.7 per 1,000 words in the corpus of Biology texts, which did not align with this study's higher frequency based on just Contrastive and Causal Transitions. This might have been because this study's findings were from a medical science discipline rather than that of Biology. On the other hand, it may be linked to medical science writers use of a higher frequency of explanatory ('Explaining results or discussing effects' and evaluatory ('Evaluating the current study or other research') steps. Therefore, it results in a higher frequency of Causal and Contrastive metadiscourse. However, Hyland and Tse's (2004) study was of whole dissertation texts rather than the Discussion part-genre, although it is expected to have a high degree of writer claims and opinion. Hyland and Tse's (2004) reported that Interactive (textual) markers were more frequent than Interactional (interpersonal) markers across their corpora of postgraduate dissertations (master's and doctoral) with the master's dissertations more balanced between interactive and interactional metadiscourse. Hyland and Tse, 2004) noted that the PhD dissertations were found to have 35% more metadiscourse than the master's dissertations when the texts were normed for word count (Hyland and Tse, 2004:171). This indicates that there was variety across the same genre according to the academic level of the HE assessment task resulting in sub-genres of the dissertation genre. This might be because of, as noted previously, the different communicative purposes of the dissertation genres. This aligns with this study's findings and those of Liu and Buckingham's (2018) exploration of the RA DS.

7.4.3: Interactional metadiscourse: Hedges and Certainty markers

In this study the frequency of Hedges differed across the part-genres' corpora with 6.7/1,000 words in the master's dissertation DC corpus, and a higher frequency of 8.3/1,000 words in the RA DS corpus. On the other hand, the frequency of Certainty markers was at a similar low frequency in both corpora: 2.4/1000 and 2.8/1,000 words in the master's dissertation DC and RA DS corpora respectively. This difference in the frequency of Hedges and Certainty markers (boosters) aligns with previous research in the field across disciplines and genres (Hyland and Tse, 2004 [postgraduate dissertations]; Hyland, 2018 [RAs]; Liu and Buckingham, 20018 [RAs]; and Lee, 2018 [RAs]. In contrast, Lee and Casal (2014) found little difference between the frequency of Hedges and Certainty markers in a corpus of Engineering master's dissertations (theses). This may be because Engineering is considered a 'hard' science based on empirical epistemology, whereas the other studies explored the 'softer' disciplines of Applied Linguistics. However, Hyland (2018) reported that Hedges outnumbered Certainty markers (boosters) across two corpora: Arts/Humanities and Science/ Engineering RAs. Thus, there appears to be substantial evidence across the literature of a higher frequency of hedging across both soft and hard research disciplines. This is an area where further research into the less explored hard sciences (Engineering, Computer Science and Physics) is required.

In addition, in this study a comparison between the master's dissertation DC corpus and the RA DS corpus noted that the former had a lower frequency of Hedges than the latter. This aligns with the lower frequencies of the critical step 'Evaluating the current study or other research or practice' and the *Local Evaluation* move frequencies in the master's dissertation DC corpus (see Chapter 6, Table 12:138). In contrast, Crosthwaite et al's (2017) study reported that Hedges were 'significantly higher' in the students' DC corpus (L2, 5th year dentistry students in Hong Kong), than in the DS corpus of RAs from a high profile dentistry journal. However, there is a noticeable time differential between their corpora. Crosthwaite et al (2017:11) states: '... research articles were selected from 2010 to 2012', whereas 'all L2 group research reports produced between 1984 and 2010' (Crosthwaite et al 2017:12). I think that the decrease in the use of cautious language in medical science over recent decades (Gross and Chesley, 2012), might account for the lower frequency of Hedging in Crosthwaite et al's (2017) RA corpus. In addition, the higher frequency in the L2 student corpus may be associated with their national language and culture. Further research into the study's method and context would probably provide the answer.

Interactional metadiscourse is often associated with a writer's national culture, so it is an important aspect of the development of the discoursal self. Such language and cultural challenges have been observed in the findings of Comparative Rhetoric studies of Spanish writers' use of metadiscourse markers in terms of language and argument structure (Perez-Llantada, 2014). Whilst Kheryadi and Ahmad (2022:317) report that Arabic RA writers: '...frequently utilize frequency adverbs to emphasize constraints on the application of their arguments, such as, *adatan* (usually), *ahyanan* (sometimes), and others..'. Similarly, Crosthwaite et al (2017) also noted the use of such lexis by Chinese RA writers to describe behaviour. In addition, Kheryadi and Ahmad (2022:319) referred to the identification of a 'high frequency' of the *emphatic* 'inna' by Arabic authors of RAs, which conveys an assertive discoursal self. According to Kheryadi and Ahmad (2022) this may be linked to Arabic authors' use of fewer Hedges. Thus, language and cultural conventions might conflict with the academic English convention of writers taking a more cautious stance to the *evaluatory* claims they make. This highlights the importance of the language and cultural context of academic English, in relation to students' own national language and culture. However, one must not oversimplify the complexity of culture, as one of the discipline lecturers commented:

it's all dependent on the student way of writing you have two students from same background but have completely different styles of writing (Lecturer SF)

In this study, the consequences of student writers' use of a lower frequency of Hedges might have resulted in their DC being perceived as lacking in the caution and criticality of a 'broader and higher pass' (Swales and Feak, 2000:219) in a discourse community that values skepticism. This might not only have affected their grade for the DC, but also for the dissertation overall as this Chapter was the most heavily weighted part-genre of the master's dissertation. Thus, it is essential that students are aware of the norms of their local and global discourse community's academic voice and expression of stance. According to Salager Meyer (1997), Hedging allows scientists to make new research claims in a way that recognises the effect that events in time may have on their propositions, and also as a politeness strategy (Brown and Levinson, 1987) when commenting on other's research work. In addition, she also noted that in some instances it may just be a way of expressing a limited knowledge of a particular topic.

7.5: Criticality and Writing Guidance

As reported in Section 7.4.3 above, it seems that in this study the student writers may have felt less confident in expressing a stance regarding others' research studies, or current knowledge and practice. This might have been because students faced the challenge of expressing their stance in the academic voice of their local community. Lecturer OM commented:

...they may link it to their findings concur with other research but then they are not going to a deeper level of critical appraisal and that again is reflected in the language used

However, students had received guidance via the discourse community's documentation, and in programme and module handbooks, which advised that the RA was an exemplar of academic writing. For example, the module handbook's 'Learning Outcomes' list included the statement: 'Present the findings of the project in a style and quality appropriate for a research report' (Project Module guide, 2017/18). Indeed, all student participants rated RAs as their first choice for dissertation writing guidance, whilst most lecturers placed supervision as the prime source of academic writing guidance. In contrast, the students' participating in this study did not acknowledge any issue with criticality or the challenge of being an L2 writer of academic English, but were concerned with the organisation of the DC. However, according to Hyland and Tse (2004), both Interactive and Interactional metadiscourse have a role in persuading the reader to accept the writer's claims. This might explain why students expressed concern regarding text organisation, which may be, unknown to them, also instrumental in conveying their stance (criticality) through the selection of appropriate Interactive metadiscourse markers. In addition, they might have been less familiar with the significance of Interactional markers due to cultural/language differences with their first language as noted in Chapter 1, Section 1.4. Hopefully, through further development of part-genre knowledge and an increased focus on criticality in a socio-constructivist ESAP genre pedagogy; students can be supported in their exploration of their discourse community's academic writing conventions. In this way, students can develop their own discursial self's: 'voice, [that] acknowledges the authorised ways of speaking as a community member' (Hyland, 2012: 134). Hence, they would be empowered '*to a deeper level of critical appraisal ... reflected in the language used*' (lecturer OM). The next section of this Chapter will reflect on and evaluate this study's limitations: small sample size; my insider position; *step* and *move* identification;

comparison with previous studies; consultation with participants; and overall DC/DS structure: move cycling.

7.6: Limitations

7.6.1: Sample size

Two corpora were established: eleven master's dissertation Discussion Chapters (DC) and seventeen cited RA DSs. After receiving permission from the Chair of the Ethics Committee, a sample of eleven master's dissertations DCs were selected from an online archive of Clinical Pharmacy past students' dissertations over four academic years between and including 2014/2015 to 2017/2018. These were principled samples from a relatively small postgraduate student population (n=67) as noted earlier in Chapter 4. This was a similar approach to that taken by Hopkins and Dudley Evans (1986) who analysed master's dissertation DCs and RA DSs of a similar topic area in the discipline of Biology. The criteria for selection included that the dissertation was a pass (over 50 %), and on a similar topic: patient safety and medication error, the latter being a necessary constraint. Despite this, the corpus (n=11) of past students' dissertation DCs provided a substantial word count of 42,394 words; whilst the RA corpus (n=17) had a word count of 20,246. Likewise, there was a small sample of interviewees, as plans to recruit from the academic year 2018/19 and 2019/20 did not go ahead due to extremely low student numbers on the course as a result of the Covid pandemic, which led to the programme's temporary suspension. However, as noted in Chapter 4 the participants (n=11) were committed to the study providing invaluable insights (see Chapter 5).

7.6.2: Insider position

In this study the coding of the interview transcripts and selection of discourse themes were strongly linked to the data, but there may have been an element of researcher preconception regarding the response to some interview questions: students' backgrounds; the academic writing resources utilised by students; and text talk regarding academic writing guidance and text organisation. This was probably due to my insider position in the local discourse community, and the knowledge gained as a member of the global Pharmacy discourse community in my early career. On the other hand, as noted earlier in Chapter 3, this insider position had benefits in the recruitment of participants, and my understanding of my responsibilities to participants. For example, I was aware of the time pressure under which they studied (master's students) and worked (lecturers). In addition, I had an advantage in having a familiarity with the norms and standards of the master's dissertation and RA genres,

in the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community. Therefore, although my initial practice concern was focused on the organisation of the DC, the lecturers' concerns regarding criticality persuaded me to pivot the study's focus onto this important aspect of writing in the sciences.

7.6.3: Consultation with participants and document analysis

Although the local discourse community's participants were committed to this study I believe opportunities may have been lost as I did not invite lecturers' collaboration regarding: the selection of research articles; their definition of 'criticality' and examples of it; a review of selected documentation and its purpose; and comment on this study's findings. There were of course constraints on my and the lecturers' time due to teaching and research commitments. However, the activities suggested above might provide a basis for key areas of collaboration with Clinical Pharmacy lecturers going forward. A thematic analysis of the master's programme's documents was not conducted. However, a manual analysis of the programme's documentation was conducted based on the identification of key words, such as, 'criticality', 'research article', 'publishable'. A thematic analysis of the programme's documentation in the local discourse community should be developed in future research as part of a CGA approach, to enable greater depth to the contextual findings. However, this may be constrained by time constraints especially for the solo researcher.

7.6.4: Step and move identification

There were seventeen types of *steps* in the master's dissertation DC corpus, of these some were easier to identify than others as noted in Chapter 4. For example, 'Making recommendations for future research or practice' (REC), and 'Explaining results or discussing effects' (EXPL) were fairly straightforward to identify. On the other hand, the steps STATE and MEAN were initially problematic. Although I was able to refer to Moreno and Swales' (2018) discussion of similar issues, being a solo researcher made such decision making one-sided and time consuming, maybe posing questions regarding validity and reliability. However, the validity of the findings, where possible, has been supported by previous research findings. This is not to say that the coding of steps and categorisation of moves would not be best conducted by a small team as noted by Moreno and Swales (2018). They state that their research design methods 'are in their entirety, probably too complex and time consuming to be adopted by an individual EAP teacher' Moreno and Swales (2018:58). However, most complex activities are often time consuming, but well worth that time and effort. I hope this study's research design based on selected theories and methods will encourage other teacher/researchers to continue in the ESP tradition of praxis,

in the same way as Moreno and Swales (2018) Genre Analysis method and coding schema has enabled this study.

7.6.5: Comparison with previous studies

Comparison of this study's findings with previous studies often required interpretation of terminology across different move models, with different categorisations. This sometimes made it difficult to be certain that like was being compared with like. Although the communicative functions of the moves in this study seemed to be comparable with that of Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) and Moreno and Swales (2018), I made amendments to the latter's coded step model for research and pedagogical reasons. This was based on my interpretation of the original model. Therefore, this study's terminology and move category sub-divisions were made, not only to provide clarity in the research model framework of this study, but also to enable the transfer of the findings to pedagogy in response to a specific practice concern in a specific discourse community. However, this tailoring of the move model to this particular study may limit its adoption by other studies without further modification. However, the reliability and validity of this study's CGA research approach requires repetition in similar local discourse communities. This issue is exemplified by Liu and Buckingham's (2018) study based on Dafouz-Milne's (2008) meta-discourse model which divided 'Logical markers' (Transitions) into sub-categories: 'Additive, Adversative, Consecutive and Conclusive' which differed from that of Hyland and Tse's (2004) model. In addition, information about the frequency of particular meta-discourse markers was unavailable in some previous studies. Therefore, it was often only possible to compare, with any precision, the frequency of metadiscourse markers in terms of their general categorisation: Transitions, Hedges and Certainty markers. This issue has been noted by Hyland (2019) as a barrier to research and the development of theory. However, I believe this variation is due to differences in studies' focus, which has provided answers to different aspects of metadiscourse by the exploration of a variety of research questions.

7.6.6: Overall structure

Previous researchers have noted the cycling of moves according to individual themes arising in the overall structure of Discussion texts (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans 1988; Swales, 1990; Peacock, 2002; and Liu and Buckingham, 2018). Dudley-Evans (1994:224) described the Discussion move cycle as an '...overarching three-part framework ...: **Introduction - Evaluation - Conclusion.**' However, Basturkmen (2009) found in her study that RA and

student writers ‘... discussed their results primarily through a series of Result-Comments Sequences that focused on results from their study dealt with one by one (or sets of related results)’. Although of pedagogical interest, in this study the overall patterning of the cycle of moves was not explored in detail. However, it was noted that the *Findings report* and *Findings plus comment* moves usually followed on from the *Background information* move when in the ‘head’ position; the *Findings report* move was usually positioned before the *Findings plus comment* move. The *Recommendation* move always came last in the move cycle of both sub-genres. The patterning of moves and their step components requires future research. In the next and final Chapter of this dissertation, I will summarise the key findings in terms of their practice and pedagogical implications. In addition, I will offer some recommendations and determine this study’s contribution to ESP research and ESAP pedagogy.

Chapter 8: Conclusion

8.1: The Rationale

Over the course of two decades of teaching practice as an EAP and ESAP lecturer, and module and programme leader, I noticed that some international and home students, who were often second language (L2) speakers/writers of English, lacked awareness and knowledge of the rhetorical structure and metadiscourse of the key HE written assessment genres of their discipline. In addition, I also noticed that Genre Analysis pedagogy was relevant to students' development of an academic discursal voice as they transitioned into UK academia, at pre-sessional, undergraduate, pre-master's and master's levels. This was not only important for L2 international students, but also for home students especially if they were unfamiliar with academic writing, because most UK HE assessment is written. Despite this, there has been a tendency in HE for academic writing to be perceived as a skill that can be developed tacitly and that TESOL is a remedial practice (Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2003). Furthermore, according to Hyland (2003a) the process approach to writing has created a: '... deficit view which ... misrepresents writing as universal, naturalised and non-contestable way of participating in communities' (Hyland, 2003a:19). As noted in Chapter 1, such a 'deficit model' places the onus of the development of academic writing firmly on the shoulders of the student, rather than any lack of appropriate guidance within the HE institution. Thus, any lack of equity in HE and L2 teaching appears to be justified. This does not empower the less advantaged student, but instead continues to enable teaching approaches which do not address the deep differences in education provision as a result of nationality, class or culture (Hyland, 2003a). On the other hand, the ESP approach with its research focus on responding to student needs, has addressed the development of awareness and knowledge of key academic genres and part-genres.

In my own practice I realised that there was a gap in part-genre knowledge of the Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation DC. The discipline specificity of academic writing conventions have been argued for and demonstrated by the findings of ESP studies (Hyland, 2000, 2012, 2018; Peacock, 2002; and Moreno and Swales, 2018). In this study, it was noted that despite the guidance provided by subject lecturers, module and programme documents, and ESAP workshops, subject lecturers still expressed a practice concern (see Chapter 5, section 5.5.2) regarding the level of criticality in some students' dissertations. This closely aligns with my own practice concern regarding the limited specific part-genre knowledge

salient to the Clinical Pharmacy high stakes, master's dissertation assessment task. Therefore, to address students' needs, this CGA study pivoted to focus on the expression of stance (criticality) via the use of key rhetorical structural features and metadiscourse of the master's dissertation DC and RA DS key HE genres.

8.2: Study Design

To address the five research questions set out in Chapter 1 (p.21) and Chapter 7 (p.154) a text in context CGA (Bhatia, 2017) approach was conducted. This enabled a detailed analysis of the master's dissertation DC's interdiscursivity, and its intertextuality with the RA key genre in terms of the expression of stance (criticality). Semi-structured interviews with members (students and lecturers) of the local discourse community were undertaken. A Thematic Analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006) of the interview transcripts elicited themes that were instrumental in providing not only an understanding of the participants' perceptions of academic writing in the local discourse community, but also the factors that might affect students' development of a discursual self. In addition, the lecturers' practice concern was acted on by pivoting the study's focus on to the expression of criticality in the two key part genres (dissertation DC and RA DS). A Genre Analysis of the key rhetorical structural and metadiscoursal features was conducted in which the hierarchal step/move schema afforded a comparison of the corpora in terms of the frequency of steps and moves. As far as I know this study and that of Liu and Buckingham (2018) are the only studies that have explored steps, moves, and metadiscourse frequency. In addition, to enable a more detailed comparative analysis of the intertextuality of criticality in the part-genres I created a division in step types into neutral and critical steps. Likewise, I split the Evaluation move into two moves: Local and Global.

8.3: Key Findings

8.3.1: Presentation

The Discussion Chapters' word count (median, 3,635) accounted for a third of the whole master's dissertation, whilst the RA Discussion Section word count (median, 1,1461) represented a quarter of the whole article's word count. This highlights the importance of the part-genres in both the master's dissertation and RA genres and aligns with the participant's perceptions of the master's dissertation as the 'heart of the dissertation'. Differences in

presentation were found in the use of visual aids, and the presence and location of a discrete 'Conclusion' as reported in Chapter 6, Section 2. For example, the master's student writers appeared to prefer the use of diagrams rather than tables, whilst the RA DS writers preferred tables. This highlights these particular visual aids as distinctive features of the part-genres and, therefore, the genres. It was notable that the students (novice research writers) were more conventional in their selection of sub-headings, whereas the RA authors (expert writers) demonstrated variation in their use, and also in the inclusion of a discrete Conclusion Chapter. The reasons for differences in presentation were discussed earlier in Chapter 7 and included: the communicative purpose of the genre; the word count constraints of the RA; and the writers' positioning (novice or expert) in terms of writing and research experience as manifested in their discoursal self.

8.3.2: The RA as exemplar

Similar to other disciplines, Clinical Pharmacy utilises the research article (RA) to achieve its communicative goals in the global discourse community. The *raison d'être* of which is '...to weigh evidence and draw conclusions from data' (Salager-Meyer, 1997:105) (see Chapter 5, Section 5.1.2.). This is because its knowledge: 'is embedded in an empirical epistemology where research claims require empirical evidence.' (Halliday and Martin, 1993:7-8). It was established in this study that the RA did embody the academic writing norms of the global medical science community. Therefore, it was an appropriate exemplar in its broadest sense. However, the Genre Analysis found that the part-genres demonstrated different text presentation preferences (Section 6.2) as noted above. Such differences were also recorded in the frequency of steps, moves and metadiscourse. This evidenced the pedagogical complexity of using the RA genre as an exemplar for students writing a dissertation genre. However, this is a prime example of intertextuality between the key RA genre of the global discourse community, and the local discourse community's HE dissertation assessment genre.

Turning to Research Questions 1–4 regarding the rhetorical structural paradigm and use of metadiscourse in the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS there are four key findings; all of which have pedagogical relevance.

1. Firstly, following Moreno and Swales' (2018) five move model, all six moves in this study's modified (splitting of *Evaluation* move) model were present across each corpus.

The neutral *Findings report* was found to be generic across the corpora: conventional in range across both the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS corpora, and at the same frequency of 22%. This move was also found to be conventional in previous studies albeit sometimes described with different terminology (Peng, 1987; Hopkins and Dudley-Evans, 1988; Yang and Allison, 2003; Liu and Buckingham, 2018; and Hashemi and Moghaddam, 2019), as noted previously in Chapter 3, sub-section 3.2.2. In addition, a pairing of moves of similar frequency was noted within each corpus.

2. Secondly, the *Findings report* move's frequency (22%) in the RA DS corpus was double that of the *Findings plus comment* (10%) move, due to its absence in five of the RA texts, so this move was optional in the RA DS corpus. This is probably related to the assumption that RA readers have a wide knowledge of previous research, and the RA's communicative purpose is to share their own study's 'new' findings (commensulism), within the limited word count of the RA DS. This finding exemplifies a key reason for differences in frequency between the two corpora: the different communicative purposes of the master's dissertation and RA genres. In addition, it demonstrates that part-genres are not inflexible in their move structure. On the contrary, the RA at the centre of the discourse community's genre network can be: '...exploited by the expert members of the community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognised purpose(s) (Bhatia, 1993:13).

3. Another key finding that answers Research Questions 1-4, is that the master's dissertation DC corpus consisted of ten critical steps, whilst the RA DC corpus had eleven. Despite this similarity, it is notable that the total frequency (38%) of all the critical steps in the master's dissertation DC corpus was much lower than that of its neutral steps (62%). In contrast, the RA DS corpus demonstrated more balance in frequency between the neutral and critical steps: 55% and 45% respectively. These findings resonate with the discourse community's lecturers' concern about the lack of criticality in some students' master's dissertations. Therefore, critical steps should be considered essential features of a Clinical Pharmacy master's dissertation DC, so require priority in ESAP pedagogy. The step 'Presenting results neutrally' (RES) had the highest frequency of all the steps in both the corpora. Likewise, the remaining neutral steps had a similar or same frequency across the corpora: 'EXPL, KFS, and POC (Chapter 6, Section 6.3.2). Therefore, the corpora have a core of generic neutral steps.

4. Finally, the frequency of metadiscourse Transitions (causal and contrastive markers), and Hedges and Certainty markers in the RA DS corpus provides an understanding of academic writing's Interactive and Interactional conventions in the Pharmacy discipline's global discourse community. In this study the RA DS corpus had a higher frequency of Hedges which aligns with the norm of skepticism required by this medical science discipline (Salager-Meyer, 1997 and Gross and Chesley, 2012). In contrast, the lower frequency in the master's DC corpus demonstrates a lack of criticality, and awareness of how knowledge is shared in the discipline (commensulism), as a lack of Hedging indicates a lack of mitigation of critical comment.

Thus, this study's findings have addressed the study's research questions, with a focus on the use of criticality in the master's dissertation DC. Therefore, not only affording the transfer of its findings into ESAP Genre Analysis practice and pedagogy, but also contributing to part-genre knowledge of the master's dissertation DC and the RA DS key genres in the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community's genre network.

8.4: Practice Implications

This study's findings highlights the continuing need for ESP academic writing research to explore gaps in genre and part-genre knowledge, and to further develop a socio-cultural, communicative, Genre Analysis approach to pedagogy. In addition, the development of genre and part-genre knowledge could assist the development of HE written assessments in collaboration with discipline lecturers. In this way, students' needs can be addressed, and greater equity can be achieved in HE assessment task outcomes for L2 international students. In terms of resources, Genre Analysis pedagogy requires the incorporation of computer technology, that is easily accessible and user friendly for students and lecturers. For example, concordancers, such as, Sketch Engine and Wordsmith. In addition, for quick and easy checks the very accessible Word Navigation pane could be used by students to check their own texts for the use of key steps, moves and metadiscourse.

Further development of collaboration between ESAP lecturers and their discipline colleagues in terms of pedagogy, feedback, and assessment practice would benefit both lecturers and students. For example, consultation over subject programme documentation and curricula would enhance genre awareness and knowledge, which could inform discipline lecturers'

choice of: curricula, assessment tasks, assessment briefing sheets and marking criteria. This might contribute to more targeted and effective language guidance that enhances the students' learning experience and assessment outcomes. Furthermore, an increased understanding of the RA DS in this study's local discourse community may better inform its use as an exemplar for its academic writing norms, but not necessarily as a dissertation genre exemplar. Further liaison between the ESAP skills tutor and the Clinical Pharmacy programme's lecturers could address practice concerns, and be instrumental in developing ESAP guidance linked directly with relevant sessions in the master's programme, such as, the journal clubs. In my own practice experience, of a mixed discipline course for pre-master's students, the use of authentic articles chosen by the students themselves increased student engagement. Furthermore, to move forward greater collaboration between subject lecturers, ESAP lecturers and master's students, would enable Genre Analysis pedagogy to integrate into the master's programme's curriculum. For example, there are six possible types of collaboration:

- ESAP lecturer integrates authentic texts recommended by subject lecturer into resources
- ESAP lecturer and subject lecturer create writing activities, checklists and tips together to be integrated into supervision, journal clubs and ESAP workshops and drop-in tutorials
- Discipline and ESAP lecturers to discuss the development of ESAP pedagogy and the Clinical Pharmacy programme's guidance on writing a Discussion Chapter
- Team teaching or shadowing
- Design of language informed assessment briefing sheets
- Collaboration with students via focus groups

Despite, the collaborative nature of supervision and the ESAP sessions, it must be difficult for students who as professional pharmacists are at the core of their profession, to find themselves at the periphery of the HE master's programme. Further development of the autonomous nature of the ESAP course by encouraging Genre Analysis of their own selected journal articles or use of those worked on in the journal club, could help to develop students' academic discursal self. Collaboration with the discipline lecturer in the journal clubs would be ideal in blending discipline knowledge with genre knowledge to further support students' development of an academic discursal self. In addition, group or paired writing activities (discussion of brief, planning and drafting) leading to an essay or report on a current topic of interest, suggested by a subject lecturer or students, such as, 'The Application of AI in Clinical Pharmacy', followed by diagnostic feedback could help to build confidence in the development of a student's discursal-self on the master's programme. This could be written in the first semester in which

they already write an essay related to the role of the Clinical Pharmacist. Perhaps the two tasks could be merged to allow for individual writing of the final draft followed by peer feedback. The next section of this Chapter will move on to consider the pedagogical implications of the study's findings.

8.5: Pedagogical Implications

Knowledge of the DC and DS part-genres' macrostructure, microstructure and use of metadiscourse can be transferred into ESAP pedagogy, so that students and lecturers can access the information using an accessible metalanguage that applies standard grammatical terminology. Thus, confirmation of the differential between the master's dissertation DC and RA DS frequency of critical steps (7%), enables the identification of those critical steps used at a lower frequency in the DC corpus. It is these steps that should be prioritised in ESAP pedagogy. For example, possible student resistance to the use of the critical step 'Pointing out limitations of current study' (LIM) could be mitigated, if pedagogy encourages the use of the 'Pointing out positive features of the current study' (POS) step, as exemplified by its use in the RA DS corpus. In this way, the reader's expectation, and possible approaches to a description of a study's 'Limitations' can be demonstrated and discussed. In this way, students can consider the bigger picture of language and culture, whilst accessing a range of discipline appropriate metadiscourse and rhetorical structures. This could empower students to further develop a *discoursal self* in their discourse community.

Thus, Genre Analysis pedagogy can be applied in a variety of individual, paired and/or group tasks, which use authentic texts (extracts from past students' dissertation DCs and RA DSs). These could be used to:

- Exemplify moves, steps and metadiscourse using this study's findings
- Create jigsaw and gap-fill exercises
- Provide comparison of degrees of criticality within and across texts
- Analyse RA DSs in the student's own discipline to explore academic norms
- Compare examples of past students' master's dissertation DCs extracts
- Incorporate contrastive rhetoric studies' findings to inform discussion of differences across language and culture

Even a change in terminology use from criticality to a focus on stance might enable a greater understanding and acceptance of the role played by moves and steps in expressing a writer's

position. The meaning of criticality within the discourse community could be explored further by referring to the ‘assignment briefing sheet’ (see Chapter 5, Document Extract 1) where it is described as: a demonstration of not only the requirement for an understanding of complex knowledge, but also a ‘critical appraisal’ of it. This was linked to ‘originality’ which could develop into a contribution to ‘practice and theory’. This document provided a clear statement of the outcome and impact of criticality on a research study. In addition, this document also presented a cognitive explanation of the meaning of ‘critical appraisal’ in terms of an analysis of ‘complex areas of knowledge’, followed by further critical analysis of the relationships between its parts. This could be elaborated with an analysis of appropriate language extracts exemplifying moves, steps and metadiscourse. In my opinion, assessment briefing documentation provides a good basis for eliciting an initial discussion with students regarding the nature and purpose of the master’s dissertation DC. In my own practice, I found that programme documentation can not only inform the design of session plans, but also ESAP schedules. In addition, if used as a resource it can increase the relevancy of the genre and part-genre knowledge reviewed with students. This relevancy can help to motivate and focus students by highlighting the communicative purpose of criticality, and the conventions of taking a stance in the academic writing of their local discourse community. This understanding of the use of criticality may enable student writers and discipline lecturers to view the discursial self as flexible in nature: developing over time and adaptable in future or ongoing careers in local and global discourse communities (see Chapter 5, Section 5.1 and 5.3.7).

In addition, data (tables and bar charts) from this study could be used as a resource, so students can visualise where differences in the frequency of steps and moves occurred across the dissertation DC and RA DS part-genres’ corpora. Matching exercises and multiple-choice questions (see Appendix N) would be useful in an initial workshop, possibly using an online tool, such as Padlet or the university online platform. The focus could then turn to a comparison of a step or move’s frequency across the two part-genres. Similarity between the part-genres could be demonstrated and discussed. For example, the master’s dissertation DC POC (4%) and KFS (5%) step frequencies are similar in frequency to the RA DS corpus steps POC (3%) and KFS (3%). These tasks would not only develop familiarity with the Genre Analysis meta-language and step coding, but also provide a discussion of the purpose of criticality (stance) in academic writing. Finally, students could write a brief draft move relevant to their own study. Thus, students’ development of their discursial self can be scaffolded by ESAP pedagogy. Likewise, the RES step and *Findings report* move could be

explored in initial tasks; later tasks could analyse differences across the corpora and the reasons for them.

8.6: Further research

ESP (ESAP and EAP) is a relatively new field of research and pedagogy. Therefore, where knowledge is limited I believe it is necessary for a lecturer to consider conducting their own research, not only as part of Continuous Professional Development (CPD), but also as a tool to address practice concerns. and offer a contribution to the development of academic writing genre and part-genre knowledge. This follows the ESP pedagogical praxis approach of responding to student needs. I have found this beneficial to the development of my own practice and use of pedagogy. Therefore, I believe that to achieve more explicit guidance regarding the conventions of academic writing, more research is still required into the rhetorical features of the key genres and part-genres across local discourse communities in the disciplines. This should include further CGA studies into the under researched master's dissertation, in local discourse communities of less researched disciplines, such as, Medical Science, Engineering, Education and Computer Science. As mentioned previously, further research into the relationship between moves, their step components and metadiscourse in master's dissertations DC and RA DS is still required. In this way, the conventions of key HE assessment genres across the disciplines can be clarified. In addition, further research into move and step sequencing is needed, following on from this study and the research foci of the previous studies of Yang and Allison (2003); Liu and Buckingham (2018); Basturkmen (2009) and Hashemi and Moghaddam (2019). Further research into move, step and metadiscourse frequency can determine the conventions of their use, across genres and part-genres across the disciplines. Thus, enabling the identification of key moves and steps in genres and part-genres leading to a more informed ESAP pedagogy.

In addition, further CGA research of genres in context will enable a greater understanding of the reasons for the academic writing conventions of discourse communities. Thus, enabling the development of a socio-cultural pedagogy, that empowers students with a greater understanding of their readers' expectations, and their own language preferences. This would enable greater engagement not only with the student's chosen HE local discourse community, but also their global discourse community via practice, research and publishing. Maybe in this way students would move further towards the centre of their chosen discipline on completion of their university degree course.

Considering the value placed on criticality by the Clinical Pharmacy local discourse community's lecturers, it is a feature of academic writing that would benefit from further ethnographically oriented research. The consideration of a local discourse community's perception of criticality gathered by semi-structured interviews or focus groups, and an analysis of its programme documentation would lead to a pedagogy informed by the local discourse community's own knowledge and practices. This could further enable the development of the student writer's expression of stance according to their local discourse community's academic voice. In addition, consultation with members of a discourse community could increase lecturers' awareness of the possible reasons for students' strengths and challenges, such as, the expression of stance in their writing. This would enable further development of an appropriate ESAP and discipline pedagogy and course schedule.

This study followed a text in context approach, which Bhatia (2008, 2017), Swales (1990), and Moreno and Swales (2018) have continued to argue for in the Genre Analysis of texts in professional and academic local discourse communities. In this way, possible reasons for the rhetorical language choices made in the key part-genres have been explored. This could lead to a greater understanding not only of the societal factors which produce the norms and standards of academic writing, in the various academic disciplines and professional settings, but also the factors that create variation within and across genres (Swales, 1990; Martin, 2001; Hyland 2006; Bhatia, 2008; Gross and Chesley, 2012). This could result in further development of ESP (ESAP and EAP) pedagogy that would enhance the success of students in academia and their following professional careers. In addition, this study contributes to ESP research by adding to the database of rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features of local discourse communities in the disciplines. In this way, knowledge of key genres and part-genres will become more specific and enable further development of ESAP pedagogy. Hence, I believe this study has contributed to knowledge of the rhetorical structural and metadiscourse features of an under researched part-genre in a specific academic context: the master's dissertation Discussion Chapter of a Clinical Pharmacy discourse community.

Although the findings of this study are not generalisable to other local discourse communities or disciplines, the application of a CGA approach is generalisable. In addition, it affords the transfer of a study's findings into ESAP Genre Analysis pedagogy, and a framework for the discussion of academic writing when in collaboration with discipline lecturers.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A (Chapter 4)

BERA's Five Principles (BERA, 2018:4)

- a. Social science is fundamental to a democratic society, and should be inclusive of different interests, values, funders, methods and perspectives.
- b. All social science should respect the privacy, autonomy, diversity, values and dignity of individuals, groups and communities.
- c. All social science should be conducted with integrity throughout, employing the most appropriate methods for the research purpose.
- d. All social scientists should act with regard to their social responsibilities in conducting and disseminating their research.
- e. All social science should aim to maximise benefit and minimise harm.

APPENDIX B (Chapter 4)

Stages in Design of Semi-structured Interview Prompt Schedule

- creation and ordering of prompts
- checking of question types
- piloting a draft version on a family member for conversational style, timing, clarity and fit with desired outcomes (were answers relevant to the aims of the research)
- modifying the draft of the Version 2 PS
- piloting the prompts
- noticing any language issues during the preliminary FG meeting and data analysis then making appropriate changes
- rechecking relevance of prompts to the research questions
- finally, checking the draft of Version 2 with a participant. Atkinson and Flint (2001:6) termed such support as the participant or participant acting as an 'informal research assistant.

APPENDIX C (Chapter 4)

Student Interview Questions (Students)

1) How does your previous experience of academic writing in your first degree influence your approach to writing the dissertation?

2a) Which section of the dissertation do you feel most confident in writing?

*(Prompt if necessary) Is it the abstract/introduction/literature review/
method/findings/discussion/conclusion?*

2b) Why?

3) There are several approaches to writing an introduction which of these do you prefer: (List provided)

- Write it first in order to set context and create organisation for whole dissertation.
- Write it last as no idea what the findings and lit review will cover until written.
- Intro is hard to write so I leave until the end.
- Intro is challenging to write but helps me think through my main ideas and consider a possible structure for the rest of the dissertation.
- I write it at the beginning and keep returning to it to improve it as I write the literature review etc.
- Other

4a) Which of the following concerns you most about writing the project dissertation?

(Prompts if necessary)

- *The word count?*
- *Organising the ideas in each section?*
- *Referencing the sources?*
- *Writing in accurate grammar?*

4b) Why?

5a) Which of the dissertation sections do you find most difficult to write?

(Prompts if necessary)

Introduction

Literature review

Method

Findings

Discussion

Conclusion

5b) How would you place the following writing features in order of difficulty?

(Provide list of choices)

- Expressing your opinion.
- Explaining the key ideas and arguments.
- Organising the key ideas into sub-sections within each main section.
- Linking between the different sections.
- Linking between the paragraphs in a section.
- Linking between the ideas in a paragraph.
- Other – please add indicating where in the list this concern would be.

6) How do you find information to help you develop your dissertation writing?

(Provide list of choices)

- By reading journal articles and noting the way in which ideas are linked and organised.
- Attendance of supervision meetings and/or dissertation writing workshops.
- Written feedback on draft from supervisor or academic study skills tutor.
- Asking friends for advice.
- Internet sites.
- Other and 7) Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed and answering my questions. Would you like to add anything else?

APPENDIX D (Chapter 4)

Participant review of second version of student prompt schedule.

Post piloting of the first version of the student participant prompts I considered how to enable the prompts to be more L2 friendly. Based on Cortazzi et al's (2011) advice to provide more time for L2 speakers 15 minutes will be added to the 45 minutes originally provided previously giving one hour for the FGI. In addition, I reconsidered the prompt language and asked one of the preliminary study's participants to meet me in order to review the newly drawn up prompt schedule (Kreuger 1998). The student suggested that the inclusion of a fuller research summary would be useful to the participants even if they were sent the prompts in advance. The scale language (very important - important - unimportant) in *Prompt 4* was considered to be easily understood. However, the participant noted that *Prompt 6* needed clarification: 'What concerns you about writing the project dissertation?' Did it mean any concerns about the dissertation or which section causes any concern. As can be seen from the prompt schedule *Prompt 7* already referred to dissertation sections (see Appendix E). Therefore, the participant agreed that the word 'generally' inserted at the beginning of *Prompt 6* would clarify the meaning.

Moving onto another new question *Prompt 9* the participant approved of the use of an activity to order factors according to their influence believing it allows the participant more time to consider their answer and allow the listing to be achieved more efficiently. However, there was an issue in comprehending the word 'influenced' which meant that it requires an explanation employing the word 'factors'. Satisfied with this approach the participant asked if an individual could weight an element that they had no experience of. I replied yes, but on further consideration I think this needs further elaboration in the following manner: 'If it isn't something you have experienced then place to one side or strike through (only order elements you have experienced) *Prompt 11* (a new prompt) was considered 'very useful' as it enables the FG participant to discuss the answer in terms of a 'friend' rather than the individual's experience. Therefore, a second version of the student prompt schedule has been modified accordingly (see Appendix E) and in future the schedule will be sent to participants in advance of the meeting.

APPENDIX E (Chapter 4)

Lecturers' Interview Questions (version 3)

- 1) Could you introduce yourself and your role at the University?
- 2) How would you rate the importance of academic writing within the field of Pharmacy?

Very important

Important

Unimportant

- 3) In which assessment is good academic writing of the most importance?
- 4) How would you rate the importance of the academic writing ability of a student on the Advancing Clinical Pharmacy Practice programme?

Very important

Important

Unimportant

- 5) Which section of the dissertation do you think students have the most confidence in writing?
- 6) What do you think is the reason for this?
- 7) Which section of the dissertation do you think students find the most difficult to write?
- 8) What do you think is the reason for this?
- 9) Which of the following aspects of academic writing do you think students need to focus on in their dissertations? Could you order those chosen according to degree of importance?
(List provided)
 - Expression of criticality (stance).
 - Organisation of key ideas.
 - Linking of ideas between the different sections and sub-sections.
 - Linking of ideas between the paragraphs in a section.
 - Linking of ideas between the ideas in a paragraph.

- Grammar
- Referencing
- Explanation of the key ideas and arguments.
- Other – please add indicating where in the list this concern would be.

10) How do you think students find information to help them develop their dissertation writing? Order according to importance.

- Attendance of dissertation writing workshops.
- Reading journal articles.
- Attendance of dissertation writing tutorials in order to review a draft.
- Supervisor meetings.
- Written feedback from supervisor.
- Written feedback from academic study skills tutor.
- Advice from friends.
- Internet sites offering dissertation writing advice.
- Other, such as, external documents.

11) If you were advising a supervisor how to identify excellence in a dissertation what two features or qualities would you advise them to look for?

12) What do you think were the most important points discussed today?

13) *Monitor's Summary*

Have I missed anything in my summary? Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed and answering my questions. Have you anything else you want to add?

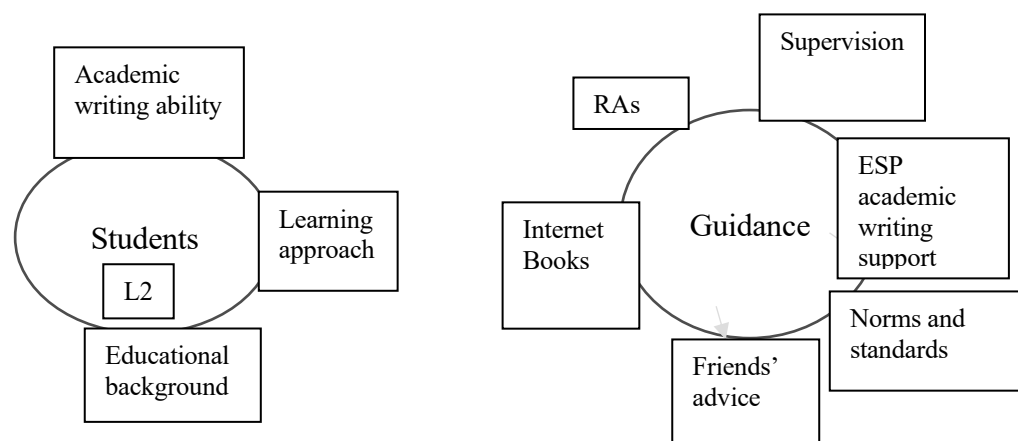
APPENDIX F (Chapter 4)

Thematic Analysis Phases Following Braun and Clark (2016)

1. Familiarisation: As noted earlier key words relevant to the study's topic and research questions were manually highlighted in the handwritten focus group transcript and counted (frequently occurring). For example, 'Confidence' was highlighted as it was related to lecturers' or students' perceptions of 'academic writing ability' or '*competence*' (Hymes: 1993).

2. Initial coding: Identification of key words/phrases that described an aspect of a topic which could be coded. For example, 'confidence' was coded as a description of an aspect of a writer's 'academic writing ability' as was 'difficulty'. This coding was added to in terms of context factors including: L2, academic writing support, educational background, teaching practice, friends' advice, feedback, internet, learning approach, norms and standards and writing experience. Next the coding was collated into three basic themes: 'Students', 'Guidance' and 'Text talk'. The first two themes are illustrated in the diagram below:

Diagram demonstrating initial contextual themes noted in the thematic analysis of items in Data set 1 (semi-structured interviews).



Some of the codes were then merged after the preliminary analysis. For example, coding for feedback was relevant to both 'supervision' and 'academic writing support' so became sub-codes within each of them. Other coding is seen to consist of separate features. For example,

L2 may include both linguistic and cultural aspects. Interview extracts were identified as 'student' or 'lecturer' and initialed with a random selection of letters, for example, QG.

3. Searching for themes (relevance): The relationship between codes was considered and collated within a theme. For example, coded transcript examples of 'academic writing ability' were seen as part of a theme: Students (See Figure 4 above).

4. Reviewing themes: Checked the relevance of the themes to the study's topic, research questions and Data set 2's themes.

5. Defining and naming themes: Reviewed coded lists and refined sub-coding. For example, in the theme 'Text-talk' it was observed that extracts could be identified as discussing norms and standards. In addition, it was noted that in the theme 'Students' 'Academic writing ability' also contained some extracts which identified as views on 'Norms and Standards'. This confirmed the overlapping nature of these themes as, for example, 'Text talk' included comments on student difficulties /problems which directly related to comments about text sections and features. This seemed to suggest that coded items for student 'difficulties/issues' should be reviewed and its allocation to a theme reconsidered. However, in terms of this study it is interesting to focus on the text in areas of challenge whilst separately noting lecturers' and students' perceptions of challenges at a broader level.

6. **Report writing:** Following the final review of coded data and themes generated from Data set 1 a final selection of data extracts was made, and a new framework created. Coded extract items were reviewed on a concordancer to identify key words within each group of items. In this study's later phase prevalence was counted within each data item and across the data set. This enabled an understanding of whether themes were more or less significant to lecturers or students. In this way, the salience of the coding could be reviewed via observing the prevalence of the key words for each corpus's coded items. In this study coding and themes were strongly linked to the data but there was an element of researcher preconception regarding the response to interview questions regarding: student background information; the academic writing resources used by students; and data regarding text talk. Issues related to one aspect of academic writing was, as a result of the significance attached to it by lecturers, focused on in the study's genre analysis (Data set 2). This study's Thematic Analysis was set within a Critical Genre Analysis framework and based on an interpretative socio - constructivist epistemology. Thus, the study's overall approach to Thematic Analysis appeared to be inductive and data driven (Patton, 1990, cited in Braun and Clark, 2006:83) within a socio-constructivist paradigm.

APPENDIX G (Chapter 4)

Table Demonstrating Modification of Moreno and Swales' Step/Move Coded Model (2018:52)

Moreno & Swales (2018) move/step code for type of communicative function e.g. BGI (Move) KFS (Step) modification underlined	Communicative function <u>modification underlined</u>	Reason for modification
AF: SEC, EXT, MSP [replaced by] <u>ISS</u>	<u>Introduction to sub-sections,</u> <u>moves or steps [includes statement</u> <u>of organisation] not included in</u> <u>frequency data</u>	EXT (referring to external sources) was not used as I created two other codes (CPR and SPR), which reference previous research. RWC also acknowledges citation.
BGI <i>Background information</i> KFS RWC POC <u>STATE</u> (moved from Evaluation)	Background information Re-stating key features of the current study Reporting background information with citations Providing background information without citations <u>The state of knowledge or practice</u> <u>in broad terms</u>	No modification
SUM Summarising or restating [current study's] key results [replaced by] <u><i>Findings report</i></u> RES <u>MEAN</u> <u>EXPL</u>	Reporting findings neutrally RES Presenting results neutrally Establishing the meaning of results Explaining results (possible reasons for)	Pedagogical reasoning that change was a simplification Queried how MEAN differs from EXPL = <i>cause</i> Checked for consequences/effects of findings = MEAN
COMM Commenting on key results or other features [replaced by] <u><i>Findings plus comment</i></u> CRES <u>SRES</u> HRES	Contrasting with other results in the study <u>Similarity with other results in the</u> <u>study</u> Highlighting results	Specific steps for contrast and similarity as study focused on criticality

Comparing with previous research (COMP step)[replaced by] <u>CPR</u> + <u>SPR</u> EXPL (moved to Findings report move) PRED REACT	<u>Contrast with previous research or guidelines</u> <u>[Similarity] with previous research or guidelines</u> Explaining results [possible reasons for] Making predictions Reacting to results or other features	Specific steps for contrast and similarity as study focused on criticality [Not found in this study's corpora] [Not found in this study's corpora]
EV move Evaluating the current study or other research or practice [Replaced by] <u>Local and Global Evaluation (2 moves)</u> + EV (STEP) LIM CONTR POS GAD [replaced by] <u>GAP</u>	<u>Evaluating other research or practice</u> Pointing out negative features or limitations of current [own] study Stating the contribution of the current [own] study Pointing out positive features of the current or proposed study Noting specific gaps in knowledge or deficiencies in other research or practice	Introduced this step to note evaluation of other studies' research designs. Maybe a more common feature in scientific discipline writing. I split this step by introducing EV step above so use of GAP step could be differentiated in my findings from deficiencies of studies, which is covered in new step 'EV'.
IMP Drawing implication [replaced by] <u>Recommendation</u> REC APP HYP	Making recommendations for future research or practice Suggesting the applicability of results or usability of outcomes Hypothesizing for future research	The change was a simplification for pedagogical application
ELF JUST EXEM CLAR	Elaborating (function) {Not a move or step} Justifying what is stated in a neighbouring proposition Exemplifying what is stated in the previous proposition Clarifying what is stated in a neighbouring proposition	No modification

Firstly, the Announcing (function) (AF) was replaced by ‘Introduction to sub-sections, moves or steps’ (ISS). This was for pedagogical purposes as ‘Introduction’ is a more familiar term for students and teachers and is used in ESP and pre-sessional English coursebooks. Next the step ‘Comparing with previous research or guidelines (COMP) was split into two steps: ‘Contrast with previous research or guidelines (CPR) and ‘Similarity with previous research or guidelines’ (SPR). This enabled differentiation between the writer’s expression of contrast and similarity of their own findings or in comparison with those of previous research. This modification was made in alignment with this study’s focus on the expression of stance. Likewise, I added another step: ‘Similarity with other results in the study’ (SRES) to the step ‘Contrasting with other results in the study’ (CRES) (Moreno and Swales (2018:52). In addition, another step ‘Evaluating other research or practice’ (EV) was added to the model to differentiate the evaluation of other studies from that of the writer’s own. These modifications increased this study’s ability to explore the writer’s expression of stance (criticality).

APPENDIX H (Chapter 6)
Table of Master's Dissertation (MD) Presentation Features
KEY: [Y= yes, present; N = no absent]

MDs (n=11)	Discussion heading	Sub- headings	Diagrams per text	Tables per text	Conclusion(s)
A	Y	Y	Y (n=10)	Y (n=5)	Y and Recommendations
B	Y	Y	N	N	Y
C	Y	Y	Y (n= 1)	N	Y and Recommendations
D	Y and conclusion	Y	Y (n= 3)	N	Y
E	Y	Y	N	N	Y (sub- heading of Discussion)
F	Y	Y	N	N	Y
G	Y	Y	N	N	Y
H	Y	Y	N	N	Y Conclusion and Recommend - actions (section)
I	Y	Y	Y (n=1)	N	Y Conclusion and Recommend -ation (section)
J	Y and Conclusions	Y	N	N	Y – (sub-heading of Discussion)
L	Y and Conclusions	Y	N	Y (n=1)	Y Conclusions and Recommend- ations (sub-heading)
Totals (number of texts)	11	11	4	2	11

APPENDIX I (Chapter 6)

Table of Research Article (RA) DS Presentation Features

Key: [Y= yes, present; N = no, absent]

Discussion heading	Sub-headings	Diagrams per RA	Tables per RA	Conclusion(s)
Y	N	N	N	Y (separate section)
Y	N	Y (n=1)	Y (n=2)	...In conclusion, (in Discussion)
Y	Y	N	N	Y followed by 'Relevance to Clinical Practice' (separate section)
Y	Y	N	N	Y
Y	N	N	N	N
Y	Y	N	N	Y Conclusions
Y	N	Y (n=1)	Y (n=1)	... In conclusion (in Discussion)
Y	Y	N	N	Y
Y	N	N	N	New para: Finally, ...
Y	N	N	Y (n= 3)	New para: In summary...
Y	Y	N	N	Implications (final sub- heading)
Y	Y	N	N	Y 'Implications for theory and research' (separate section). Plus 'Implications for practice' final (subheading.)
Y	Y	N	N	The Future (sub- heading)
Y	N	N	N	N
Y	N	N	Y (n=1)	Y (separate section) also section for Limitations
Y	Y	N	Y (n=1)	Y (separate section)
Y	Y – just Conclusions	N	N	Y (sub-heading)
17	9	2	5	

APPENDIX J (Chapter 6)

Table Demonstrating the Frequency (*) of Steps, Organising and Elaboratory Functions in the Research Article DS Corpus

CODE and FUNCTION	A1 *	A2 *	B1 *	B2 *	C1 *	C2 *	D1 *	D2 *	E1 *	E2 *	F1 *	F2 *	G1 *	G2 *	H1 *	I2*	J2*	Totals*	% of corpus (892)
RES = Presenting results neutrally	8	6	18	30	21	11	10	6	4	5	16	13	17	4	6	8	13	196	22.0%
EV = Evaluating the current study or other research or practice	1	7	2	8	0	11	8	10	9	8	6	5	2	2	6	0	9	94	11%
LIM = Pointing out limitations of current study	1	10	1	3	0	6	5	5	8	4	9	2	0	5	2	0	8	69	8%
REC = Making recommendations for future research or practice	4	0	1	6	12	6	1	0	1	2	1	7	10	0	5	8	1	65	7%
STATE = The state of knowledge or practice in broad terms	2	1	4	2	10	1	1	2	0	1	4	6	19	6	4	0	2	65	7%
RWC = Reporting background information with citations	5	0	2	2	1	2	1	2	0	1	9	5	10	2	7	8	0	57	6%
EXPL = Explaining results or discussing effects Cause?.	6	7	4	5	3	2	3	2	1	3	0	2	1	3	3	0	2	47	5%
POS = Pointing out positive features of the current	0	4	2	17	0	0	0	4	2	6	4	0	0	1	0	0	2	42	5%
JUST = Justification	2	1	1	4	3	0	0	1	3	1	2	6	4	0	3	0	1	32	4%
MEAN = Establishing the meaning of findings(outcome)	1	0	1	4	4	1	0	3	0	0	2	5	2	0	3	3	0	29	3%
CONTR = Stating the contribution of the current study	1	0	2	6	0	0	2	1	4	2	0	5	0	1	2	0	2	28	3%
POC = Providing background information without citations	2	1	2	2	2	2	0	1	2	1	0	5	3	2	0	0	1	26	3%
SPR = Similarity with previous research findings or guidelines	1	7	1	5	2	0	0	1	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	2	2	25	3%
KFS = Re-stating key features of the current study	3	1	2	4	0	2	2	5	0	2	1	1	0	0	1	1	0	25	3%
CLAR = Clarification	1	0	4	1	2	0	1	0	2	2	1	0	1	0	0	2	0	17	2%
CPR = Contrast with previous research or guidelines	1	5	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	0	2	3	0	0	16	2%
ISS = Introducing overall organisation or sections of text	1	1	1	0	0	1	1	1	0	1	1	2	1	1	1	0	0	13	1%
EXEM = Exemplification	0	0	1	2	3	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	1	3	0	13	1%
GAP = Noting gaps in knowledge or deficiencies in other research or practice	0	0	0	1	1	2	0	0	0	0	0	5	0	1	1	0	0	11	1%
APP = Suggesting the applicability of results or usability of outcomes	0	0	0	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	0	0	9	1%

Appendix J cont... CODE and FUNCTION	A1 *	A2 *	B1 *	B2 *	C1 *	C2 *	D1 *	D2 *	E1 *	E2 *	F1 *	F2 *	G1 *	G2 *	H1 *	I2* *	J2* *	Totals*	% of corpus (892)
HRES = Highlighting results	0	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	7	1%
HYP = Hypothesizing for future research	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	5	1%
SRES = Similarity with other results in current study	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0%
CRES = Contrasting with other results in current study	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0%
	40	55	50	10 5	65	49	36	45	37	42	57	78	73	30	51	35	44	892	

APPENDIX K (Chapter 6)

Table Demonstrating the Frequency Counts (*) of Steps, and Organising and Elaboratory Functions in the Master's Dissertation DC Corpus

<i>STEP and FUNCTION</i>	<i>DC A*</i>	<i>B*</i>	<i>C*</i>	<i>D*</i>	<i>E*</i>	<i>F*</i>	<i>G*</i>	<i>H*</i>	<i>I*</i>	<i>J*</i>	<i>L*</i>	<i>Count Total</i>	<i>% of Total steps in corpus (1822)</i>
RES = Presenting results neutrally	48	30	36	64	27	31	37	56	23	27	37	416	23%
RWC = Reporting background information with citations	21	44	26	7	1	52	10	11	7	12	28	219	12%
EV = Evaluating the current study or other research or practice	7	3	8	41	8	21	12	11	22	14	16	163	9%
REC = Making recommendations for future research or practice	11	28	5	21	2	40	4	3	5	22	13	154	8%
EXPL = Explaining results or discussing effects (Cause).	14	12	21	10	4	21	12	6	2	17	3	122	7%
MEAN = Establishing the meaning of findings(outcome)	9	6	33	6	2	16	6	14	12	5	11	120	7%
SPR = Similarity with previous research findings or guidelines	6	22	13	2	1	16	13	13	7	8	14	115	6%
LIM = Pointing out limitations of current study	6	5	6	27	6	10	7	3	12	10	8	100	5%
KFS = Re-stating key features of the current study	9	1	7	19	18	3	6	3	4	10	5	85	5%
STATE = Reporting the state of knowledge or practice in broad terms	19	5	11	12	0	3	3	10	7	4	7	81	4%
POC = Providing background information without citations	11	6	18	6	3	22	0	1	1	8	5	81	4%
CPR = Contrast with previous research or guidelines	8	3	4	1	1	3	7	2	8	6	4	47	3%
CONTR = Stating the contribution of the current study	4	4	1	0	5	6	1	0	1	1	6	29	2%
POS = Pointing out positive features of the current	2	1	1	16	0	7	0	0	0	0	1	28	2%
GAP = Noting gaps in knowledge or deficiencies in other research or practice	1	0	3	5	2	1	2	1	1	0	0	16	1%
CRES = Contrasting with other results in current study	8	0	0	2	3	2	1	1	0	0	0	17	1%
APP = Suggesting the applicability of results or usability of outcomes	1	1	2	0	2	2	0	2	0	1	1	12	1%
SRES = Similarity with other results in current study	2	0	0	1	1	1	2	0	1	0	0	8	0%
HRES = Highlighting results	0	0	1	1	1	2	1	1	0	0	0	7	0%
HYP = Hypothesizing for future research	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	2	0%
Totals	187	171	196	241	87	259	124	138	114	145	160	1822	

APPENDIX L (Chapter 4)

Example of Move Identification from the Grouping of Steps [Key MD – master’s dissertation; SR - Systematic review; red font = critical steps; blue font =neutral steps]

MD	Background Information KFS STATE RWC POC	Findings plus comment SPR CPR CRES SRES HRES	Findings report RES	Evaluation (local) - of current and/or other studies methods LIM EV POS	Evaluation(global) -practice and research CONTR GAP	Recommendation REC APP
E SR 2016 Rheumatoid medical issues	K 1. RWC KFS	G. RES CRES RES	F 1. RES EXEM	D.KFS KFS KFS EV	A. CONTR CONTR CONTR	K 2. RES REC PR
	F 2. POC	I 1. RES	L 1. ISS/ RES/ MEAN	E. KFS/KFS	B. KFS GAP	Q 3. APP
	POC	SPR	L 2. RES RES	KFS/KFS	KFS	APP
		J. CPR	M 1. RES	EV	KFS	
		EXPL	RES	H. CRES ISS	C. GAP KFS	
		P. SRES	M 2. RES RES	EV EV	KFS KFS	
		CRES	RES/EXPL	EV	KFS	
		EXPL	MEAN	I 2. EV	KFS	
			N 1. POC RES	RES	Q 2. CONTR	
			N 2. RES JUST	EXPL	R 1. CONTR/ LIM	
	2	4	9	6	5	2

APPENDIX M (Chapter 4)

Reference List of Sampled RAs in the RA Discussion Sections' Corpus

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Appendix: N (Chapter 8)

Pedagogical resource for in-session face to face discussion, or online via the university platform

Question 1: Why might the ‘Providing background information without citation’ (POC) step have a low frequency (4%), in comparison with the RWC step (12%) in the dissertation DC?

[Answer: indicates that the master’s students are aware of the academic requirement to support a claim (proposition) with evidence or opinion from another source]

Question 2: Why might the KFS step have a lower frequency (4%) in the master’s dissertation DC?

[Answer: It is probably due to this information being described comprehensively in the dissertation’s methodology section].

Question 3: What is the function of the KFS step in the DC?

[Answer: Appears to serve as a reminder of a particular key feature’s significance in obtaining the study’s findings, or as part of an acknowledgement of a limitation in the study’s method].