



**METADISCOURSE IN NEWSPAPER OPINION
ARTICLES: A COMPARATIVE STUDY BETWEEN
AMERICAN AND THAI ENGLISH-LANGUAGE
NEWSPAPERS**

BY

MR. APHISIT KHOPITAK

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF
ARTS PROGRAM IN ENGLISH LANGUAGE STUDIES**

**ENGLISH DEPARTMENT
FACULTY OF LIBERAL ARTS
THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY**

ACADEMIC YEAR 2015

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ENTITLED

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STUDY BETWEEN AMERICAN AND THAI ENGLISH-LANGUAGE
NEWSPAPERS

was approved as partial fulfillment of the requirements for
the degree of Master of Arts

on 9 August, 2016

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ABSTRACT

Metadiscourse is a group of text-functions that speakers or writers use to manage the texts that they are producing, and use to have interactions with their listeners or readers. The purpose of the present research was to compare and describe both the quantitative and stylistic features of metadiscourse in opinion articles by two groups of American and Thai newspaper writers.

Thirty opinion articles (28,516 words) written by 30 American writers from two American English-language newspapers, and 30 opinion articles (28,565 words) written by Thai writers from two Thai English-language newspapers, were collected to build up two corpora for contrastive textual analysis. Ädel's (2006 and 2010) reflexive metadiscourse models were adapted as an analytical framework for identifying the metadiscourse in the present research. All 60 texts were analyzed with five metadiscourse functions for text-organizing (Meaning Clarifying, Referring, Sub-topic Managing, Topic managing, and Discourse Act Labeling), and six functions for reader-interacting (Anticipating the Reader's Reactions, Aligning Perspectives,

Giving Evidence, Imagining Scenarios, Hypothesizing about the Reader, and Interactive Questions). Chi-square statistics were applied to test the significant difference in metadiscourse frequencies in the texts written by both groups of writers.

The results of the chi-square statistical tests indicated that, on the overall level, there was no significant difference in the metadiscourse frequencies of either the text-organizing and reader-interacting functions between either groups at the level of .05; but when statistical tests were performed for each metadiscourse function one by one, a significant difference was indicated with the function of Meaning Clarifying, with the number of metadiscourse in the texts written by the Thai writers being significantly higher than that of their American counterparts. Contrastive analyses on the styles of metadiscursive expressions by both groups of writers revealed that the metadiscursive language of both groups were in general similar rather than distinctly different.

The significant difference in the Meaning Clarifying function was thought to be caused by the differences in the first languages and in the genre perceptions regarding the use of this metadiscourse function in the opinion articles. The other ten metadiscourse functions that were not significantly different according to the statistical tests were assumed to be similar. The assumption was ascertained from the contrasts of the frequencies of most metadiscourse functions in the opinion articles with those in the texts of different genres. The common language of the newspaper genre was argued to have an effect on the similarities of the distributions of most of the metadiscourse functions in opinion articles of both groups of writers.

Keywords: metadiscourse, written text analysis, newspaper writing, intercultural rhetoric

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Aphisit Khopitak

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LIST OF SYMBOLS & ABBREVIATIONS

Symbols/Abbreviations	Terms
[AM]	The article number in American newspaper corpus
[TH]	The article number in Thai newspaper corpus
^	followed by
AWC	American writer corpus
TWC	Thai writer corpus
TOM	Text-organizing metadiscourse
RIM	Reader-interacting metadiscourse

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

One of significant indicators of the success in persuasive or argumentative writing is the fact that the reader is convinced of the argument proposed in the text. In written communication, the success in convincing the reader with the argument actually depends on several important factors. The experienced writer not only resorts to the art of logical reasoning to make the content of the message sound sensible, but he or she also relies on a large number of linguistic resources to achieve the goal of winning over the reader's conviction. For instance, the use of registers in certain fields of study helps the writer get the message across with ease, and at the same time the use of registers also brings about the sense that the writer and the reader are members of the same discourse community. In addition, stylistic devices, such as metaphor, simile, hyperbole, pun, irony, oxymoron, etc., also function as rhetorical tools for a seasoned writer to make an impression on the reader with the grace of the language and his or her thoughts. Another significant linguistic device that plays a crucial role in assisting the writer in achieving good rhetorical effects on composition is metadiscourse.

Metadiscourse is accepted by many as “*text about text*” or “*talk about talk*” (Toumi, 2009; p. 64), “*writing about writing*” (Williams, 1981; p. 50), “*discourse about discourse or communication about communication*” (Vande Kopple, 1985; p. 83), or “*discourse about the evolving discourse*” (Ädel, 2006; p. 2). In brief, it refers to a communicative phenomenon where particular linguistic elements are used to

mention the ongoing discourse.

There are several types of language use that can be considered as metadiscourse. In the literature, metadiscourse is typically classified into two main categories of functions. The first one is the function of organizing the text, and the second one is managing the interactions between the writer and the reader.

Examples of the first metadiscourse function are: logical connectives (additives: *in addition, furthermore*; adversatives: *however, conversely*; etc.), textual reference (nouns referred to the ongoing text: *this paper...*, *in this section...*), sequencers (*first,...; secondly,...*; etc.), code glosses (*in other words,...; To put it bluntly,...*). As for the second function, examples of the interaction-oriented metadiscourse are the following: imperatives (*Note that ...*), rhetorical questions (*But that's our own faults, isn't it?*) addressed directly to the reader, or some expressions representing the writer's direct talk to the reader (*As we all know, ...; You probably think...; Let's return to this point in the next chapter*).

Actually, metadiscourse is not limited only to the examples shown here; there are several more. Metadiscourse not only appears in a written text but also occurs in a spoken mode of communication (Ädel, 2010). More important, not all of the instances exemplified above are accepted as metadiscourse in all metadiscourse research. Which is considered as metadiscourse depends on the theoretical perspectives that an individual researcher uses to construct the taxonomy of metadiscourse in his or her study.

From the examples shown above, metadiscourse can be viewed as textual functions (for managing textual organization and managing interaction). With its managerial functions, metadiscourse is thus used as a linguistic device for helping the

text producer (speaker or writer) in many ways. A speech addresser may use it to organize the message by using logical connectives or sequencers, for example. Further, as all texts are dialogic, a writer may use metadiscourse to have interaction with the reader through the text produced by using interactional types of metadiscourse such as imperatives, rhetorical questions, or direct speech in writing, for example.

Not only does the text producer gain benefits from metadiscourse, but the text recipient (the reader or the listener) can also tap into these linguistic resources in order to achieve good comprehension or interpretation of the text produced. With its text-organizing function, the reader can treat the metadiscourse items in his or her reading passage as signposts to understand the organization of the text, which will help him or her better understand the message. In addition, with the interaction-managing function of metadiscourse, the reader or hearer can grasp the writer's or speaker's voice, attitude, opinion or stance. By being aware of the metadiscursive language together with the overall comprehension of the content of the text, the audience can quickly respond or react accordingly to the message it has received. Metadiscourse's positive effects on the process of both text production and reception have been shown in many studies; for example, Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995) on writing, Camiciottoli (2003) on the readability of academic texts, and Thompson (2003) on the listening comprehension of a lecture.

The present research aims at studying two types of metadiscourse in written texts: text-organizing and the interaction-managing metadiscourse. Briefly, text-organizing metadiscourse refers to metadiscursive expressions that are used mainly for organizing the text. Interaction-managing metadiscourse, on the other hand, is

comprised of those linguistic matters in the text that the writer employs to establish interaction with the reader. In order to understand more deeply the concept of all types of these metadiscourse markers, see information on theoretical strands, classifications of function, and instances of metadiscourse in Chapter 2, and details of the present study's metadiscourse taxonomy in Appendix B.

1.2 Background of the study

With the benefits and significance that metadiscourse contributes to text production and reception, as stated before, research on metadiscourse has been done in several areas with a variety of focuses and methods. Research on metadiscourse can be divided into three main areas: pedagogy, the academic genre, and the professional genre. Regarding metadiscourse research for pedagogical implications, the aim of the research is to make an improvement in instruction, material development, as well as cognitive learning strategies. Regarding metadiscourse studies focusing on the academic and professional genres, the research outcomes suggest appropriate proportions and suitable language use of metadiscourse in accordance with a particular genre that the writer should become aware of when composing a text. The findings of the research on metadiscourse in a particular genre are applied to the field of language education as well, especially in the field of English for academic and specific purposes.

From the start, metadiscourse research had been paid attention to in the field of language education. Metadiscourse was initially introduced to the academic community as early as 1981 by Williams' work on style for writing (Ädel, 2013). However, it was not until the late 1980's that metadiscourse formally became an

object of research in the field of applied linguistics (Mauranen, 2010). In language education, a large amount of metadiscourse research has been carried out with the main purpose of making improvements in pedagogical implications for: students' L2 English composition (Vande Kopple, 1985), teaching L2 writers (Intaraprawat and Steffensen, 1995), reading comprehension (Camiciottoli, 2003), and listening comprehension of academic lectures (Thompson, 2003), for example.

Regarding the research on metadiscourse in texts of the academic genre, most studies have largely been conducted to investigate how metadiscursive features are characterized in a specific type of academic text. There is a wide range of academic sub-genres in which metadiscursive features have been explored: research articles (Mur-Dueñas, 2011), Ph.D. dissertations written in L2 English (Bunton, 1999), research article abstracts (Gillaerts and Vand de Velde, 2010), among others. In academic texts, metadiscourse features have also been researched in several contrastive ways. For instance, metadiscursive characteristics have been contrasted between L1 and L2 English in academic papers (Valero-Garcés, 1996), between different academic disciplines but in the same genre (Hyland, 1998, 2007; and Hyland and Tse, 2004), or between sub-genres but in the same academic discipline (Kuhi and Behnam, 2011).

Apart from the academic context, metadiscourse research has also been extended into the other areas of text analysis. Professional business and media discourse are the two main research areas in which metadiscourse has been extensively studied. The metadiscourse in these two areas has been investigated in a variety of genres, for instance, the business discourse of financial disclosure (Camiciottoli, 2010), corporate environmental reports (Skulstad, 2005);

advertisements in magazines (Fuertes-Olivera et al., 2001), newspaper editorials (Le, 2004), and opinion articles in newspapers (Dafouz-Milne, 2003 and 2008; Noorian and Biria, 2010).

Additionally, it is worth noting that in the research strand of news discourse analysis, critical discourse analysis (CDA), was found to be applied as an analytical tool. Le's work (2004) is an example of research that was done using the framework of CDA. She applied CDA to studying metadiscourse in newspaper editorials in order to investigate the image construction of a French newspaper, *Le Monde*.

In addition, one of the distinctive features of the research found in all three strands is that most was conducted in a comparative fashion between L1 and L2 users or learners. The reason for doing so can be found in the fact that the outcomes of the research can be applied in some ways to raising the awareness of English users or learners regarding the conformity to the constraints of a particular genre.

English in media, especially in news discourse, has also been paid attention to by many researchers (e.g. Conboy, 2010; Gandon, 2013; Reah, 1998; etc.). The significance of this study could be attributed to the fact that language in the news discourse of both broadcast and printed media has unique characteristics that are different from those of other language varieties in society. The study of Biber (1988) revealed the significance of this particular language. With the technique of multimodal analysis, he found that news language is one of the four major registers in the English language; the other three are the language in conversation, academic writing, and fiction.

Another important aspect of the language in news is that it has the status of standard language in a society. Further, English, especially in the news discourse produced by world-class media producers of powerful nations such as the U.S. and the U.K., seems to have the power to set standards on language use for those other media manufacturers with less international roles to follow on the global stage.

Though the importance of researching English in media is suggested as stated above, there are still few studies on the use of English language in Thai printed media. Most of these studies, as reviewed below, have been carried out in a similar comparative manner, with L1 English being contrasted with L2 English by Thai users.

Navarat (1989) conducted a contrastive study on the discursive features of business English language by Thai and American business news writers at two newspapers, the Nation and the Wall Street Journal. In her study, she found distinct differences in some of the syntactic features (split infinitives, passive voice, nominalization, and contraction of negative forms) and styles of language use (forms of address, topics chosen, the use of anecdote in business news articles, and spelling). The major cause of the differences in the syntactic aspects of business language between both groups was attributed to the two groups' differences in awareness of the formality of language use. Regarding the differences in style, the differences in the norms of language use and the socio-cultural contexts of both newspaper organizations were discussed as possible causes.

Vadhanasindhu (2002) contrasted the discourse and linguistic features as well as the contents of editorials written between two groups of Thai and American newspaper writers. Her study was carried out in a cross-linguistic fashion; that is, the contrast was made between editorials written in Thai by Thai natives, in English by

Thai natives, and in English by English native speakers. She found that Thai texts were more complex, with more verb units than in the English texts; there were more editorial topics in the US than those published in English and Thai in Thailand; editorials in English published in Thailand and in the U.S. were similar to each other with respect to textual organization; and editorials in Thai were more diverse in terms of types of titles than those in English published in Thailand and the U.S. Apart from contrastive text analysis, she also investigated the reader's perceptions (both Thais and native English speakers) regarding the discourse features of editorials, and discovered that native English speakers were more correct than their Thai counterparts in telling whether the editorials were written by English natives, or published in Thailand or in the U.S., with awareness of some discourse features: editorial linearity of textual progression, strong voice, grammatical structures, and certain uses of idioms.

Trakulkasemsuk (2007) investigated the differences in the linguistic characteristics in the article features of magazines published in Thailand and in the U.K., and discovered that Thai writers preferred noun post-modifiers to pre-modifiers while U.K. columnists were likely to resort to pre-modifiers in their writing rather than post-modifiers.

Buripakdi (2011) studied the attitudes of Thai journalists at two leading newspapers, the Bangkok Post and The Nation, regarding their English usage and found that most of them adopted colonial perspectives on the use of English in news writing.

Chana (2011) compared the rhetoric of news reports in newspapers and

magazines in the U.S. and Thailand regarding the issue of political upheaval in 2010 by the Red Shirt group in Thailand. The framework of textual cohesion analysis inspired by Halliday was applied to studying the cohesive ties in news reports; moreover, critical discourse analysis was also incorporated into studying the strategies adopted to take a discriminatory stance and make discourse structures in the news reports.

Viboonchart (2013) studied the stances of two newspapers (the Bangkok Post and the New York Times) toward the Red Shirt demonstrations during 2010. Her study was based upon the framework of critical discourse analysis. With an analysis of five discourse features (transitivity process, topical theme, direct quotations, positive and negative meaning of words, and lexical choices) in news reports, she concluded that the Bangkok Post was likely to take the side of the government and to project a picture of demonstrations by the Red Shirt as violence, whereas the New York Times presented the demonstrations as a struggle for democracy by those that were poor and that held the majority of electoral votes.

Among these studies, it is the research by Buripakdi (2011) that was not language-oriented, whereas the rest were concerned with language use at the sentential or discourse level. Another research that is related to the English in newspapers in Thailand is that of Wibunsi and Woraphan (1987) on the development of English daily newspapers in Thailand. Their study traced the history of English daily newspapers from 1983 back to as far as 1868. Apart from the analyses of the historical development and changes in news content, the linguistic features of English newspapers were also described in their research, but without the support of sound linguistic analytical frameworks.

As shown above, there has been so far no research in which the metadiscourse used by Thai newspaper writers was studied. This suggests the significance of furthering research into the metadiscursive language of Thai newspaper writers. In the next section, the reasons why a study should be carried out to explore this uninvestigated matter are given.

1.3 Statement of the problem and significance of the study

According to the overall review in the previous section, no research has been conducted to study the differences in the metadiscursive features between opinion articles in leading English newspapers published in Thailand and those in the U.S. This calls for further research into the metadiscursive features in the specific genre of newspaper opinion articles. The research outcomes would not only contribute to the extension of the existing knowledge on metadiscourse and language use in opinion articles, but also would suggest some applications to the academic field of language education as well. There are three significances for furthering the comparative study of metadiscourse. All of them are taken into account next.

1.3.1 Research on metadiscourse

Hyland (1998) indicated the significance of research on metadiscourse in the following: “*metadiscourse is relatively new concept but one which is increasingly important to research in composition, reading and text structure*” (p. 437).

The present study explores a research area where metadiscourse is less investigated. Up until now, there has been no study on the use of metadiscourse in opinion articles in English-language newspapers published in Thailand; nor is there

any comparative study where the metadiscursive features in Thai English-language newspapers were contrasted with those in American English-language newspapers. Importantly, there has been so far no research on metadiscourse in opinion articles carried out with the framework of the reflexive metadiscourse model. In this circumstance, the result of the study will thus expand the existing knowledge on metadiscourse in the literature.

Regarding the application of the results of the study, other metadiscourse researchers may use the information on metadiscursive language gained from the present study in their studies. For example, the metadiscursive features of the present study can be used to contrast those of other English varieties, with those in texts of the same genre, or those in texts of different genres.

1.3.2 Language use in a particular genre

This study will make a contribution to the study of the newspaper genre. It will provide descriptions of the linguistic features of metadiscourse markers in the sub-genre of the opinion column. Apart from this, the results of the study may show some metadiscursive features found in the world-leading newspapers that do not necessarily occur in Thai English-language newspapers. It may be useful for Thai journalists to learn about how metadiscourse is used in opinion articles by the world-leading newspaper writers. The world-leading newspapers of which the opinion articles were taken to study in the present study were The New York Times and The Washington Post. Both newspapers are ranked among the 15 newspaper websites of the world that have the highest number of monthly visitors (ebizmba, 2012).

Yuen-Ying (2000) has proposed that regional media should consider

the English proficiency of the world-class media as one of the good models to follow. According to her, this is not because the world-class media, such as news companies, have higher standard in news production or they know more accurately about what is going on in a particular region of the world than do the local journalists; but it is because the local journalists are not able to use English proficiently enough to gain attention from the audience around the world though they are more insightful regarding the issues they report.

1.3.3 Pedagogical

implications

The knowledge gained from this study has pedagogical implications, especially in the course of language for specific purposes such as journalistic writing. The research outcome can be used as information for teachers of journalistic writing to consider how to assess the use of metadiscursive language performance in students' writing assignments.

Moreover, language in newspaper opinion columns is a kind of argumentative or persuasive writing. In writing classes nowadays, text-organizing metadiscourse is mainly taught, but interaction-oriented metadiscourse markers are often overlooked (Dafouz-Milne, 2008). The interaction-oriented metadiscourse function provides some pragmatic knowledge on the interaction that the writer has with the reader through written texts. If this interactional metadiscourse is taught to students, they will be equipped with interactional competence regarding written texts. As the present research explores both text-organizing and interaction-managing metadiscourse, the results of the study will be useful information for the language teacher to consider how to teach the use of metadiscourse as well as to assess the

metadiscursive performance of his or her students' argumentative writing.

According to Camiciottoli (2003), metadiscourse knowledge also helps student readers with reading comprehension. The techniques of metadiscourse analysis can be applied to teaching reading. The practice of coding metadiscourse revolves around taking apart linguistic elements serving text functions from those elements realizing the content matter of the text. This technical knowledge can help students analyze the functional parts of the text from the main content of the text. As shown before, there are two main functions of metadiscourse, text-organizing and interaction-managing functions. Knowledge on metadiscourse not only helps them see the organization of the text more clearly, but also assists them in grasping the writer's voice and the interaction that the writer has with the reader. Put in brief, awareness of metadiscursive language will help students in understanding the writer's rhetoric used in discourse.

1.4 Purpose of the study

This research studies two types of metadiscourse functions (text-organizing and interaction-managing metadiscourse) in newspaper opinions articles written in English by American and Thai newspaper writers. Text-organizing metadiscourse refers to metadiscourse markers that are used mainly for the purpose of structuring or organizing discourse; interaction-managing metadiscourse is a particular set of metadiscourse markers that the writer uses to have interactions with the reader in written texts. The purpose of the study is:

- 1) to identify the text-organizing and interaction-managing metadiscourse instances in the opinion articles published in American and Thai English-language

newspapers, and to compare differences of the quantitative features of both metadiscourse functions between both groups of journalistic writers

2) to describe the linguistic characteristics of text-organizing and interaction-managing metadiscourse markers in the opinion articles published in American and Thai English-language newspapers, and to compare the distinct differences of the stylistic features of both metadiscourse functions between both groups of journalistic writers

1.5 Scope

1) Two American and two Thai English-language newspapers were selected as sources for the opinion articles

2) Thirty opinion columns were selected from each of the American and Thai newspapers to build two corpora for textual analysis

1.6 Research Questions

1) Are the numbers of text-organizing and interaction-managing metadiscourse between American and Thai newspaper writers significantly different?

2) What are the different styles in the language use of the text-organizing and interaction-managing metadiscourse produced by both groups of writers?

1.7 Definitions of terms

1 Text

Text here means a linguistic text only, and the term is used interchangeably with *discourse*.

The term *discourse* in the present study is used with reference to the meaning of language above the sentential level, or a stretch of linguistic text. However, in the field of discourse analysis in applied linguistics, the term *discourse* carries different meanings other than language above the level of the sentence. In order to avoid any confusion regarding the use of the term, notes on the meaning of this word and how *discourse* is perspectivized in different strands of discourse analysis should thus be made. Details of the notes are provided under the following two subheadings.

Two meanings of discourse

Gee (2011) distinguishes two senses of the term. According to him, *discourse* can refer to as a stretch of text, on the one hand, and as “*ways of saying, being and doing*” (p. 30), on the other. The notion of *discourse* in the first sense refers to chunks of linguistic text or language above the level of the sentence, whereas *discourse* in the second sense is the linguistic text plus other social dimensions such as ideologies, values, and worldviews that members of a particular social group hold to construct their identities, create social realities and position their power in the relationship with members of the same group or those others outside of the group.

In following chapters, there are some times, especially in the discussion of the result, when the broader social contexts of newspaper are taken to discuss with the newspaper writers’ uses of metadiscourse in their opinion article writings. In such cases, the term *discourse* (in the second sense) is avoided in order to prevent any confusion with its meaning in the first sense. Specific words such as *ideal type*, *values*, *norms*, *genre conventions* are used instead to make explanation about the

social dimensions of the opinion articles written by both groups of writers.

Perspectives of discourse in discourse analysis

The use of the term *discourse* in the first sense is considered based on the focus of a method of analyzing discourse. Jones (2012) notes that discourse analysis can be divided into three main different ways of analyzing texts: formal, functional and social approaches. The formal approach analyzes linguistic textual structures with an emphasis on textual cohesion and coherence. The functional approach is interested in seeing how linguistic texts are used to do or to accomplish communicative acts in a particular situation. The social approach, in contrast, views linguistic texts as objects or tools for members of a social group to use to construct their identities according to the groups to which they belong, or to mediate some ideologies of the group. Moreover, the social approach becomes a critical study of discourse when the matter such as inequality in power relations is problematized.

For the present study, the method of text study can be considered as similar to the functional approach proposed by Jones above, as it seeks to understand how the newspaper writers use language in the metadiscursive acts in their article writings. Since the present study does not seek to understand the politics of the language use of the newspaper as a media institution of society in the tradition of critical discourse analysis, the term *discourse* in the present study is considered by the present researcher not to be used in the second sense, but is limited to only the reference to linguistic texts. Though social dimensions such as ideologies, norms or values of newspaper language are taken to explain the occurrences of metadiscourse in texts, they are not the focus or the object of the present study.

Additionally, it should be noted that, though the three strands of analytical

method lead to different ways of looking at discourse, such differences are just the different focuses that each analyst has when engaging in discourse analysis. According to Jones, the notion of discourse cannot be separated completely into three different parts, but the three dimensions are in fact interrelated elements of the discourse.

3 Pronominal referents to the text producer and the text recipient

In following chapters and appendices, when explanations are made on the use of metadiscourse functions in the process of text production and reception, there several times where the text producer and the text recipient are referred to at the same time using pronouns. To avoid confusion of pronominal references, in the present study from Chapter 2 onward, third person singular feminine pronouns (she, her, hers, herself) are used to refer to the text producer and the writer; and third person singular masculine pronouns (he, him, his, himself), to the text recipient and the reader.

1.8 Conclusion

In this chapter, metadiscourse has been introduced as a specific class of language used by text producers to organize the text they are producing, and to manage the interactions or relations in some ways with the text recipients. A general review over the research on metadiscourse in the literature has been made so that the overall picture of metadiscourse research could be illustrated. The review showed that there are still few studies on metadiscursive language used in the newspaper genre, and no study has so far been done on the metadiscourse used by Thai newspaper

writers. This suggests room for research. The significance, purpose and scope of the study have been stated. Two research questions inquiring about the differences in styles of the metadiscursive language used by American and Thai opinion article writers were addressed as the frame of the study. One research question must be answered with the contrast of quantitative data; the other requires descriptive comparison of the discourse features of metadiscourse as the answer. Next, in Chapter 2, a literature review will be undertaken on the concept of metadiscourse, and some notions of genre that are relevant to the present study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the literature review was undertaken with a focus on two issues: the concept of metadiscourse and the notion of genre. In section 2.2, metadiscourse is approached from various aspects. The literature review was concerned mainly with using general theoretical concepts of metadiscourse and the classifications of metadiscourse functions in taxonomy. In section 2.3, the notions of genre that were considered relevant to the study of metadiscourse in the present research are reviewed. The conclusion of the chapter is made in the last section, 2.4.

2.2 Metadiscourse

In this section, several dimensions of metadiscourse are reviewed. In subsection 2.2.1, the notions of metadiscourse are generalized from its text-reflexive nature and definitions on metadiscourse proposed by several scholars. In 2.2.2, the theoretical grounds of metadiscourse are explored. In 2.2.3, twelve sets of metadiscourse taxonomy from earlier until the recent times are studied in order to indicate and thus explain the core metadiscourse functions found in the literature. In 2.2.4, the distinctive features of the metadiscourse of the two major theoretical strands are contrasted. In the last subsection, 2.2.5, an evaluation of what metadiscourse model should be adapted for studying metadiscourse in the present study is made.

2.2.1 What is metadiscourse?

By its function, language is used to convey messages among participants in communicative situations. Apart from this basic task, there is another function that human language serves naturally: language can be used to talk about the language itself. This function is commonly known in language studies as *metalanguage*, or the phenomenon where language reflects on itself. Instances of metalanguage are lexical items that are reflexive of language, for example, *sentence*, *phrase*, *word*, *verb conjugation*, *grammar*, *adverb*, *mood*, *tense*, etc. One characteristic that all of these items share is that they all reflect some aspects of language. In one sense, metalinguistic instances are used to describe the language to which they belong.

Not only will the reflexivity on language occur at the level of the whole language, but the reflexive phenomenon can also be captured at a lower level of discourse. Linguistic expressions that reflect the ongoing discourse are called *metadiscourse*.

Regarding the definitions of what metadiscourse is, similar explanations are made of the reflexivity on the discourse (both spoken and written) that is being produced. Several scholars have mentioned that metadiscourse is comprised of the language expressions that are used to mention (or reflect) the ongoing discourse. Williams (1981) defines metadiscourse as “*writing about writing*” (p.50). Crismore (1983) says that “*Metadiscourse is, simply, an author's discoursing about the discourse.*” Vande Kopple (1985) describes it as “*discourse about discourse or communication about communication*” (p.83). Ädel (2006) explains about it as

“text about text” or “discourse about evolving discourse” (p.2).

Instances of linguistic matters of discourse reflexivity are, for example: *In this article, ...; in the following section...; as mentioned earlier ...; To conclude, ...; Firstly, ...* etc. What these metadiscourse instances reflect are certain parts or some text elements of the ongoing discourse in which the metadiscourse items are used. To explain, the first three metadiscourse instances are used to refer to some parts of text; the fourth is used to make a conclusion about the content of the text; and the last one is for itemizing some examples or points of the discussion in the text. From this, what metadiscourse actually reflects are text-managing functions. Put another way, metadiscourse is in fact a sort of text-managing function. The function of metadiscourse will be explained in detail in subsection 2.2.3.

Apart from its reflexivity, metadiscourse is also inherently interactional. The interactional nature of metadiscourse is indicated by its purpose of use; metadiscourse is used for the persuasive effects on the text. The text producer can strategically use it to lead the text recipient to understand the content of the text as she wants.

Crismore (1983) mentions the interactional features of metadiscourse as follows: “... *it is the author's intrusion into the discourse, either explicitly or non-explicitly, to direct the reader rather than inform. Metadiscourse is the directives given to readers so they will understand what is said and meant in the primary discourse and knowhow to "take" the author*” (p.2).

Likewise, Hyland (2005a) sees the reflexivity and interactional quality of metadiscourse as its central features, as he stated: *Metadiscourse is the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text,*

assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community (p.37).

Regarding the interactionality of metadiscourse, Ädel (2006) mentions that metadiscourse “*helps a writer to “guide, direct, and inform” (Crismore 1989:64) her reader about how she hopes he will respond to its content and is an important category both in creating and reading text” (p.2).*

From the set of definitions as well as the explanations above, metadiscourse can be viewed as the functional features of discourse. In addition, as metadiscourse is effective in maintaining the rhetorical relation between the text producer and the text recipient, it is also interactional by nature.

2.2.2 An overview of the theoretical grounds

Different theoretical views on metadiscourse lead to different ways in which metadiscourse is classified, and thus different linguistic features realizing metadiscourse. Ädel and Mauranen (2010) have investigated the conceptualization of metadiscourse and proposed that, in the literature, there are mainly two influential theoretical strands that classify metadiscourse functions differently: *the interactive model* and *the reflexive model*. Following them, this theoretical division is adopted in the present study as a frame to delineate a brief discussion of the historical development of metadiscourse research and some of the distinct differences of the two models.

Regarding the interactive approach, the notion of the *metafunctions of language*, which was conceptualized by Halliday, the founder of Systemic Functional Linguistics, is used as the theoretical ground for the metadiscourse model. The

metafunctions of language refer to the duties or functions that human language is used to serve in communication.

According to Bloor and Bloor (2004), Halliday proposes that there are three metafunctions of language: *ideational* (further divided into *logical* and *experiential* functions), *interpersonal*, and *textual*. The ideational function of language is the duty of language to express humans' ideas or experiences. The interpersonal function refers to the duty of language to communicate with others or to express attitudes, feelings or judgments on particular things. The textual function is for managing the text itself. Each of these metafunctions is taken into account as follows.

The *ideational metafunction* serves the purpose of helping humans express their own ideas, experiences, or worldviews. This metafunction is divided into *experiential* and *logical* modes. The former is the function of language enabling people to present their ideas as the content of discourse, whereas the latter is concerned with the logical relations made between ideas. The linguistic resources serving the *experiential metafunction* are linguistic items that help form the ideas of the speaker; for example, pronouns, nouns, and verbs that are syntactically used in a clause or sentence. Verbal resources for the *logical metafunction* are those of logical connectives such as some conjunctions, adverbs and prepositional/adverbial phrases whose linguistic property deals mainly with the management of the logical relation of the parts of the text. The examples of this type of connector are, for instance, *and*, *but*, *however*, *therefore*, *in addition*, *so*, *thus*, etc.

The *interpersonal metafunction* is a function of language that is used for helping people communicate with others. It provides the linguistic resources necessary to help people express their feelings, attitudes or to make judgments. Examples of the *interpersonal metafunction* are, among others, modality: *ought to*, *must*, *should*, etc.; adverbs: *maybe*, *certainly*, *perhaps*, etc, and personal pronouns.

The *textual metafunction* refers to one of the linguistic functions for organizing the structure of the text itself. The instances of *textual metafunction* are concerned primarily with the sequential organization of the text; for example, text sequencers such as: *first*, *second*, *third*, *fourth*, *last*, etc.

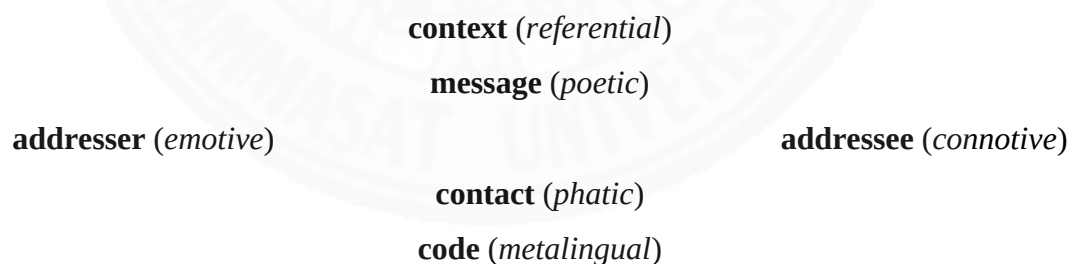
Regarding the interactive approach, the logical and textual functions are used for building the textual functions of metadiscourse; and the interpersonal function is used to build the interactional functions of metadiscourse. The ideational function of language remains as the content of the text, which is treated as non-functional at the discourse level. This characteristic of the division of metadiscourse functions can be found in a large amount of metadiscourse research such as that of Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore and Farnsworth (1990), Hyland (1998), Hyland and Tse (2004), Hyland (2005b), and Dafouz-Milne (2003 and 2008), for example.

The reflexive model of metadiscourse, on the other hand, bases metadiscourse frameworks on the notion of the reflexivity of the text, or the capacity of the text to reflect on itself. Lyons' (1977) notion of *reflexivity* was used as a theoretical frame in Mauranten's (1992) study on *text reflexivity* (a concept closely related to metadiscourse). Later, Jakobson's (1960) *functions of language* were applied as a theoretical ground that Ädel (2006 and 2010) used to develop a novel metadiscourse model in the reflexive strand. Toumi (2009) proposed a new

metadiscourse model but her model did not offer a new paradigm on the theoretical conceptualization of metadiscourse or the classification of metadiscourse functions. This is mainly because her model was constructed based on that of Mauranten (1992) and Ädel (2006). The most advanced metadiscourse model in the reflexive approach is that of Ädel (2006). Therefore, Ädel's (2006) theoretical framework on metadiscourse model construction is taken into account.

Jakobson (1960) puts forward that there are six aspects of communication that are constitutive of basic human communication; in addition, each of them is represented through language use, which he calls linguistic functions. The six basic communicative elements and their language functions are presented in Figure 2.1 below, and then followed by explanations.

Figure 2.1 The six basic communicative elements and their *corresponding linguistic functions* by Roman Jakobson (*linguistic functions* are in parentheses)



The **addresser** is the encoder of the text and the **addressee**, the decoder. The linguistic function for encoding is to serve the communicative purpose of self-expressing (**emotive**), such as verbal expressions marking the emotion or attitude of the encoder. On the other hand, the language function for decoding is for engaging the addressee. Imperatives or vocatives are examples of the **connotive**

function.

Context refers to the situation in which the text is produced. Context can be both the physical and psychological contexts that influence the communication. Linguistic expressions realizing the communicative elements of context (**referential**) are those that are used for assigning the reference to, or making a description of, a certain context.

The **message** is the body of the text itself, which is realized by the language in use. The corresponding **poetic** function of language is not limited to how the language is used aesthetically, but the *poetic* function covers all of the arts of language use or rhetoric that the addresser counts on in order to accomplish a certain communicative purpose with the message.

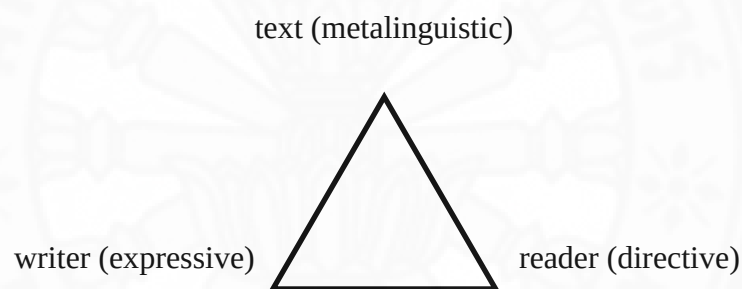
Contact is concerned with the medium or channel. The corresponding function **phatic** is to maintain the continuation of the communication. Language expressions that are used to ensure the establishment of the communication are, for example, exchanges in greetings.

Code here refers to the rules for organizing the linguistic message or the text itself. This communicative code is commonly shared and understood by the addresser and the addressee. Linguistic expressions actualizing this function are considered **metalanguage**, or the linguistic instances that are used to discuss, describe and thus reflect on the language itself.

Ädel (2006) takes three of the linguistic functions out of six to form a new metadiscourse construct. She argues that the earlier reflexivity model does not provide a clear picture of metadiscourse in the communicative event (p.54), so in her

new study she then incorporates the dimensions of the text participant into building a metadiscourse model. In so doing, the communicative components of the **addresser**, the **addressee**, and the **code** as well as their corresponding linguistic functions, **emotive**, **connotive** and **metalingual**, are adopted and modified as *the writer*, *the reader*, and the *text* with their paired discourse functions of *expressive*, *directive*, and *metalinguistic*, respectively. These three dimensions constitute what she calls “*the reflexive triangle*” (p.18), as presented in Figure 2.2 below.

Figure 2.2 Ädel’s (2006) reflexive triangle of metadiscourse (adapted from p. 18)



She constructs her metadiscourse model based on these three dimensions of text. *Text* here refers to the piece of writing produced by the actual writer of the current text and received by the actual reader of the same text. The *writer* is the one that composes the written text for the reader. The *reader* is the true reader that is acting on the reading of the current text composed by the writer. All three dimensions are the key elements of metadiscourse in her theory. This means that these three elements are central metadiscursive features that the analyst takes into consideration when judging whether particular linguistic instances or expressions in texts are actually metadiscourse or not. See also Appendix A for details on how these

three dimensions were used as a criterion for analyzing the metadiscourse of the texts in the present study since Ädel (2006) and (2010) were adapted in constructing the metadiscourse model of the present research.

The differences in theoretical conceptualization as described above lead to differences in the classifications of metadiscourse function and the ways that metadiscourse instances are identified from texts. The similarities and differences in the metadiscourse functions and instances that both theoretical camps employ are explained in the next section, 2.2.3., and the distinct characteristics of the metadiscourse that differentiate one theoretical camp from the other are summarized in section 2.2.4.

2.2.3 Metadiscourse functions and instances

Typically, metadiscourse instances are often presented in research with the categories of functions. How metadiscourse is classified into a specific function depends on the theory that it is conceptualized, and the adaptation of such a theoretical framework according to the specific purposes of each research. It is usual for the organization of metadiscourse categories as well as the name labels assigned to them to vary from one research to another though they are in the same theoretical strand.

In order to identify the core functions of metadiscourse and metadiscourse instances subsumed under the functions, it is necessary to take into account as many metadiscourse taxonomies as possible irrespective of the theoretical paradigms. For the present study, twelve sets of metadiscourse taxonomies were used

for comparison and analysis (Williams, 1981; Crismore, 1983; Vande Kopple, 1985; Crismore and Farnsworth, 1990; Mauranen, 1992; Hyland, 1998; Hyland and Tse, 2004; Hyland, 2005b; Ädel, 2006; Dafouz-Milne, 2008; Toumi, 2009; and Ädel, 2010).

According to the literature review, nine core metadiscourse functions were identified. All of the functions can be grouped into two main categories: 1) a category of metadiscourse functions for managing textual organization, and 2) a category of metadiscourse functions for managing the relationship with the text recipient (listener or reader). The text-organizing functions of metadiscourse in the first category are operated on texts; but the interaction-managing functions of the second category are operated through the text. The two categories of metadiscourse functions and their sub-functions are demonstrated in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Core metadiscourse functions identified in the literature

Text-organizing functions	Interaction-managing functions
1 Meaning connecting	<i>Interactive approach</i> (Hyland, 2005b)
2 Meaning clarifying	6 Evaluation and stance as interaction
3 Referring	7 Engagement
4 Listing	<i>Reflexive approach</i> (Adel, 2006 and 2010)
5 Doing speech acts in discourse	8 Interaction on text-organizing
	9 Audience interaction

As shown in the previous subsection, 2.2.2, there are two theoretical camps regarding the concept of metadiscourse: the interactive approach and the reflexive approach. The metadiscourse taxonomies of both approaches are relatively

similar to each other in the text-organizing functions, but they are distinctively different in the interaction-managing functions.

Text-organizing functions are commonly found in nearly all metadiscourse taxonomies regardless of the theoretical frameworks. All five text-organizing functions are found in all metadiscourse taxonomies in the interactive approach. For the reflexive approach, it is only Ädel (2006 and 2010) that does not accept Function 1 (meaning connecting) as a metadiscursive property, but others (Mauranen, 1992; and Toumi 2009) in the same theoretical camp do.

As for the interaction-managing functions, there are huge variations in the classification of functions and features of metadiscourse instances between both approaches. The distinction of the interactional aspects of the metadiscourse between both approaches can be seen with the metadiscourse taxonomies of Hyland (2005a and 2005b) regarding the interactive approach, and those of Ädel (2006 and 2010) regarding the reflexive approach.

Note that in the following explanations on metadiscourse functions, the work of Hyland and Ädel is put into contrast. This is because Hyland's models of metadiscourse functions have been extensively referred to as prototypical models adopted in a large amount of the research on the interactive approach, and Ädel's models can be seen as the most advanced in the research based on the reflexive approach, since she has recently proposed new paradigms on metadiscourse theory and metadiscourse identifying methods.

Hyland's metadiscourse functions for managing interactions, as representatives of the interactive approach, are presented with Function 6 (evaluation

and stance) and Function 7 (engagement). For the reflexive approach, Ädel's works on interaction-managing metadiscourse functions are presented with Function 8 (interaction on text organizing) and Function 9 (audience interaction).

Note also that some reflexive metadiscourse taxonomies (Mauranen, 1992; and Toumi, 2009) are found to overlap with the interactive model for Function 7, but the overlaps are only on the metadiscourse features of interrogations and imperatives, not the whole category.

Next are explanations of all the identified metadiscourse functions. All five text-organizing functions are illustrated first, followed by the four interaction-managing functions. The instances as well as the terminologies that are usually assigned to the functions in the literature are also taken into account.

Text-organizing functions

Function 1: Meaning connecting

The *meaning connecting* function refers to the action that a text producer takes to make a connection between sentences by assigning logico-semantic relations to the preceding and following parts of a discourse. In creating semantic relations between discourse parts, certain metadiscourse instances that carry this function are thus used in producing texts. Examples of the metadiscourse instances of this function are: *and, additionally, in addition* (additive); *as a consequence, as a result, so, consequently* (resultive); *but, however* (concessive); *to sum up, in conclusion, to conclude, finally* (summative). Note that the classification of metadiscourse instances into the categories of logico-semantic relations (additive, concessive, conclusive, resultive, etc.) varies according to the design of each research.

This metadiscourse function is assigned with a variety of names, for example, *internal connectors*, *text connectives*, *logical connectives*, *transition*, and *logical markers*.

Function 2: Meaning clarifying

Meaning clarifying is a metadiscourse function for clarifying the semantic features of words, phrases, or sentences in the text. The text producer uses it to clarify or comment on what she previously says or writes by expanding or narrowing down the scope of meaning (Hyland, 2007). Examples of metadiscourse instances of meaning clarifying are such as: *in other words*, *that is*, *to put another way*, ..., *this does not mean that....* This function is given names such as *reformulators*, *glosses*, or *code glosses*.

Function 3: Referring

Referring is a discourse function for referring backward or forward to a specific point or part in the on-going text.

The referential system in discourse is normally divided into two types: text-internal and text external reference. Text-internal reference is the reference made to a discourse part within the text. This referential type is conventionally separated further into two aspects: *anaphora* (referring to the previous part of the discourse) and *cataphora* (referring to the following part). In some research, such as that of Ädel (2006), the act of referring to the present part and time of discourse (realized by ‘*here*’ and ‘*now*’) is also treated as another class of referential system. For text-external references, the reference is made to another text, or the text outside the current text. This type of reference was found to be accepted in some metadiscourse taxonomies,

but for some other research this feature was not considered as metadiscursive.

The referring function is identified by several expressions used for the referential system of discourse, for instance, *as mentioned before; noted above* (anaphorics); *as will be shown later, see in the next paragraph* (cataphorics); *X says that....; according to Y,...; Z remarked that...* (text-external reference).

The referring function is given different labels such as *anaphorics*, *reviewing*, *reminders* (for referring backward); *cataphorics*, *previewing*, *announcement* (for referring forward); and *attributors* or *evidentials* (for text-external reference), and *endophorics* or *phorics*, for the whole function of referring.

Function 4: Listing

Listing is concerned primarily with the act where the text producer tries to make some points in the discourse more salient by listing or setting them in a sequential order. This function is realized through the use of enumerators or any expression concerning the act of listing in discourse. Instances of this metadiscourse function are, for example, *First, Second, Third, Last, To begin with, Firstly, Secondly, There are three important points to discuss*. Names of this metadiscourse function appearing in the literature are such as *sequencers*, *enumerators*, or *frame makers*.

Function 5: Doing speech acts in discourse

The text producer uses this metadiscourse function to tell explicitly the text recipient what she is doing with the content of the text at the moment. To illustrate, the text producer may use the word *argue* or *argument* to make it explicit to the reader or listener that she is going to argue for her points or against some issues; or, when clarifying some of her ideas by giving examples, she may use exemplifiers

such as “*for example*,” “*for instance*,” “*The example of X is...*” to signal to the text recipient that what she is going to say is the example she is using to support her opinion.

In fact, this function is the speech acts that the text producer performs in producing the on-going discourse. These acts are realized through speech act verbs and their nominalizations. There are several ways in which the text producer uses speech acts for her writing. For instance, in performing the act of arguing, the text producer may mention explicitly this act by using speech act verbs (or nominalizations) such as *claim*, *argue*, *assert*, etc.; the act of informing: *state*, *write*, *tell*, *address*, etc.; the act of describing: *describe*, *illustrate*, *delineate*, etc.; the act of explaining: *explain*, *make clear*, *to put in plain words*, *for example*, and so forth.

Like other functions, this metadiscourse is given different labels such as *illocutions markers*, *illocutionary markers*, *discourse labels*.

Note that the linguistic instances that are counted as this metadiscourse function vary considerably from research to research, reflecting the freedom of researchers regarding the organization of the classification of metadiscourse functions.

Interaction-managing functions

Unlike the text-managing function, the metadiscourse functions for managing the interactions between text producer and recipient were not shared by both theoretical groups. In order to show the distinctive differences in the relationship management by the use of metadiscourse, the most recently-developed and widely-adopted metadiscourse models by both groups were chosen to compare. The selected ones were the metadiscourse taxonomies by Hyland (2005b) and Ädel (2006 and

2010).

Interactive approach (Hyland, 2005b)

Function 6: Evaluation and stance as interaction

Evaluation and stance as interaction refers to ways in which the text producer makes an evaluation of and takes stance toward the propositional content of the text that she speaks or writes. Hyland divides this metadiscourse function further with four dimensions on evaluation and stance. The first one deals with the commitment that the text producer has toward the proposition that she is making in the texts whereas the second one is concerned with the certainty the text producer has regarding her proposition. The third one is for the affection and attitude toward the content that the text producer is expressing in the text. The last one is about the use of pronouns to refer to the evaluation and stance marker in the texts, or the text producer herself.

The categories of these four sub-functions together with examples of the metadiscourse instances representing the acts of evaluating and stance making, and terminologies labelled for each function, are displayed in Table 2.2

Table 2.2 Evaluation and stance as interaction

Categories of metadiscourse functions and examples of metadiscourse instance	Terminologies assigned to metadiscourse categories of function
Function 6 Evaluation and stance as interactions i) to express certain degree of commitment to the message proposed	Interactional resources/ Stance Hedges

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adverbs: <i>probably, perhaps, maybe</i> • Modals: <i>might, it must be x</i> 	
ii) to express certainty to the proposition	Certainty markers/ Emphatics/Boosters
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adverbs: <i>Certainly, Clearly, Honestly</i> 	
iii) to show affection or attitude toward the content	Attitude markers
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deontic verbs: <i>we have to/need to/must</i> • Cognitive verbs: <i>I feel/ think/ believe</i> • Adverbs: <i>Unfortunately; Interestingly; Luckily</i> • Adjectives: <i>It is surprising that ...; it is strange that ...</i> 	
iv) to refer to the text producer	Self-mentioned/Personalization/Inclusive expressions
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • First personal pronouns: <i>I, me, we, us</i> etc. 	

Function 7: Engagement

Engagement here refers to the act of engaging the text recipient in the content of the text produced by the writer or speaker. There are five dimensions of the act of engagement with varieties of linguistic instances used to enact the engagement in texts. The first one deals with how the text recipient is referred to by pronouns; the second one is about how the text producer speaks directly to the text recipient; the

third one is the use of questions; the fourth one is the use of shared knowledge to support a proposition; and the last one is the use of asides. The linguistic resources that realize the interactions between the text producer and text recipient are displayed according to each sub-functions in Table 2.3

Table 2.3 Engagement

Categories of metadiscourse functions and examples of metadiscourse instances	Terminologies assigned to metadiscourse categories of function
<p>Function 7 Engagement</p> <p>i) mention the reader directly with second personal pronouns (<i>you, your, yours</i>)</p> <p>ii) tell the reader directly to do what the writer wants</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Imperative: <i>Note that ..., See..., consider...</i> • Obligatory modal verbs: <i>must, should, ought...</i> • Predictives with the construct it+be+adj: <i>it is good to look at X</i> <p>iii) ask the reader some questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Interrogatives <p>iv) use shared knowledge as evidence to support argument</p> <p>Example: <i>Of course, we all know that</i></p>	<p>Reader pronouns</p> <p>Directives</p> <p>Questions</p> <p>Shared Knowledge</p>

v) use personal asides to express opinions in text Example: <i>And – <u>as I believe many TESOL professionals will readily acknowledge</u> – critical thinking has now ...</i> (Hyland, 2005b; p.183)	Personal asides
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The reflexive approach (Ädel, 2006 and 2010)

Function 8: Interaction on text-organizing

This function, in fact, is comprised of the interactional aspects of text-organizing metadiscourse Functions 2 (meaning clarifying), 3 (referring), 4 (listing) and 5 (doing speech acts in discourse). The interactional aspects of these text-organizing functions are identified with the presence of personal pronouns referring to the text producer (*I* and *we*) and the recipient of the on-going text (*you*). Therefore, if there is no these pronominal reference co-occurring with the metadiscourse instances, the identified metadiscursive instances will be considered as non-interactional. Examples of the metadiscourse instances of this function as well as the terminologies assigned to them are shown in Table 2.4 below.

Table 2.4 Interaction on text-organizing

Categories of metadiscourse functions and examples of instance	Terminologies assigned to metadiscourse categories of function
Function 8 Interaction on text organizing i) meaning clarifying Example: <i>What I mean is ...; By saying x I don't mean... but I mean ...</i>	Clarifying/ Metalinguistic comments

ii) referring Example: <i>Let's return to ...; I will demonstrate X in the next section; See Y below</i>	Discourse organization (Manage topic)
iii) listing Example: <i>There are three points I am going to argue...; On this issue, what I would like to discuss first is ... and then ...</i>	Discourse organization (Manage phorics)
iv) doing speech acts in discourse Example: <i>I will <u>discuss</u> X later</i>	Speech act labels

Function 9: Audience interaction

The interactional features of metadiscourse of the reflexive approach are taken from Ädel's (2010) *audience interaction*, which is constructed for analyzing the interactional feature of metadiscourse in both spoken and written texts. It is advanced from the previous taxonomy of the *writer-reader interaction* (Ädel, 2006).

For Ädel's models, there are five main dimensions (or functions) of audience interaction. The first one is how the text producer manages the channels or text coherence during the time of the text production. The second one is about how the text producer manages the text recipient's manners. These two metadiscourse sub-functions are found only in the spoken mode of communication. The other three categories of functions are the communicative acts that the text producer uses for: making some presupposition about the text recipient, appealing to the text recipient, and asking the text recipient to imagine.

In Table 2.5, all of the functions of audience interaction, the linguistic instances of metadiscourse used to act out these functions, and the name assigned to the functions in Ädel's work are exhibited in summary.

Table 2.5 Audience interaction

Categories of metadiscourse functions and example of metadiscourse instances	Terminologies assigned to metadiscourse categories of function
<p>Function 9 Audience Interaction</p> <p>i) Confirming with text recipient on the quality of the channel or text coherence</p> <p>Example: <i>Can you guys hear? Did I answer your question?</i></p> <p>ii) Controlling text recipient's manner</p> <p>Example: <i>can I get your attention, please?</i></p> <p>iii) Presupposing about text recipient</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> making a guess on how text recipient would react <p>Example: <i>you might think that...; you would say...</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> making assumption about the self of text recipient 	<p>Managing comprehension/channel *</p> <p>Managing audience discipline *</p> <p>Anticipating the audience's response</p> <p>Anticipating the reader's reaction</p> <p>Hypothesizing about the reader</p>

<p>Example: <i>you probably heard that...</i></p> <p>iv) Entreating text recipient</p> <p>Example: <i>I hope you enjoyed reviewing this materials; what I want you to consider about this is...</i></p> <p>v) Asking the text recipient to imagine</p> <p>Example: <i>Imagine the following situation.</i> (instance taken from Adel (2010; p. 90))</p>	<p>Managing the message/ Appealing to the reader</p> <p>Imagining scenarios</p>
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Note that the asterisk * denotes that these interactions occurs only in spoken texts.

2.2.4 Distinct characteristics of metadiscourse between theoretical approaches

As stated before, almost all of the text-organizing functions are commonly shared as core metadiscourse functions by both the interactive and reflexive approaches; however, for the interactional features, the approaches are distinctively different. There are at least three notable differences in the interactional functions of metadiscourse.

One, both approaches are different in the scope of the interactional dimensions in which the metadiscourse occurred. For the interactive approach, the scope of the interactional metadiscourse is broader than the reflexive approach. The interactive model takes on the verbal acts of evaluating, which includes the act of expressing stance and attitude (Function 6), as well as other communicative acts (Function 7). In contrast, the reflexive approach rejects the acts of evaluation as

metadiscursive (see also criteria for identifying metadiscourse in 2 in Appendix A). In this way, any linguistic expressions realizing the acts of stance making, or attitude expression, are not counted as metadiscourse in the reflexive approach, but they are accepted in the interactive approach.

Two, both approaches are different in terms of the criteria for identifying the interactional features of the metadiscourse. Of course, both agree that the use of both text-managing and interaction-managing metadiscourse for persuasive effects by the text producer reflects its interactional nature (see the rhetorical effects that metadiscourse has on the text recipient in 2.2.1). Nevertheless, both groups have different perspectives on the interactional features of metadiscourse. The reflexive approach holds that the interactional features of metadiscourse must be represented by at least an occurrence of first or second personal pronouns referring to the actual writer and actual reader of the current text. In this way, the occurrence of the personal pronoun is a significant linguistic feature for identifying interactional metadiscourse in the reflexive approach. By contrast, this is not the case for the interactive approach. The interactive approach views that both text-organizing and interaction-managing functions are interactional by nature (Hyland, 2005a), so it is not necessary to distinguish interactional elements from non-interactional ones in the text.

Three, both approaches are different in terms of the concreteness of the interaction that the metadiscourse functions serve. It is the reflexive approach where the categories of the interactional metadiscourse functions are identified with more concrete communicative acts; for example, the acts of making the text clearer, or referring (Function 8), the acts of anticipating the reader's reaction, and hypothesizing about the reader (Function 9). In contrast, in the interactive approach, what

communicative act the text producer is performing is not presented clearly. To illustrate, modal verbs, sentence adverbs, and personal pronouns (see Table 2.2 and 2.3) are counted as linguistic matters realizing interactional features, but these features cannot represent what kind of specific rhetorical interaction between the text producer and the text recipient is taking place.

2.2.5 The metadiscourse-analytical method adopted in the present study

According to the review above, Ädel's (2006 and 2010) metadiscourse models are adapted in the present study as an analytical method for identifying metadiscourse. There are mainly two reasons for the selection.

First, Ädel's (2006 and 2010) analytical models are designed with a narrow scope of analysis. By discarding the linguistic expressions for narration and evaluation (stance and attitude) as non-metadiscursive features, it can narrow down the analytical frame to just a few text dimensions (for more details on this, see 2 in Appendix A). With this restriction on the analysis, metadiscourse analysts can thus investigate more deeply and thoroughly the metadiscursive functions in the text. Moreover, the persistent problem of multi-functionality of metadiscourse (or the problematic condition that one metadiscourse item has more than one function), which can possibly occur during the practice of coding, could enormously be reduced. This is mainly because, when fewer text dimensions are involved as metadiscursive properties, the fewer problems of multi-functionality are likely to occur.

Second, since metadiscourse is a kind of text function, analyzing metadiscourse from texts is thus an analysis of text functions. Ädel's (2006 and 2010) metadiscourse models are designed as discourse function-oriented analytical methods. On the other hand, if the analytical method of the interactive approach is used, there is

some chance that the metadiscourse analysis can be reduced to a simple analysis of linguistic forms, especially when the research is intended to be a purely quantitative study (see this critique in Ädel and Mauranen, 2010).

Functional analysis is more complex than analysis of form. Textual function analysis cannot be done by merely looking at linguistic forms. Analysis of function requires that analysts take into consideration the context in which potential metadiscourse instances are identified. The analysts then use the details from the context to judge whether the identified linguistic instances truly represent certain metadiscourse functions or not. By contrast, analysis of forms can be easily done by matching the metadiscourse instances pre-defined in the categories with those of the same linguistic forms in the texts. Formal analysis ignores the consideration of the textual context; it overlooks the fact that the same linguistic forms may possibly have different functions when occurring in another textual context. In this way, formal analysis is thus inappropriate for analyzing the metadiscourse in texts.

With Ädel's function-oriented analytical method, especially the method of pronominal analysis (see Appendix A), it is difficult for analysts to perform their analytical tasks as purely analyses of form; rather, they are obliged to take the textual context into consideration to assure the accuracy of the analysis of the instances of metadiscourse. This quality is suitable for discourse function analysis. Because of its effectiveness as discussed so far, her model was adopted as the analytical framework for identifying the metadiscourse in the opinion articles in the present study.

2.3 Genre

The present study investigates metadiscourse in newspaper opinion articles; it is not a study on genre analysis of newspaper opinion articles. However, some concepts of genre were used to explain the metadiscursive features in opinion articles. Therefore, in the literature review, only the concepts of genre that were considered as relevant to the present study were used for the review. How perspectives on genre vary from one theoretical strand to others as well as how to conduct genre analysis according to each methodical approach were thus not taken into account.

2.3.1 Two meanings of genre

According to Bawarshi and Reiff (2010), there are two distinguishable perspectives on genre: genres as typified forms of text, and genres as social cognition. ‘Genres’ according to the first meaning refer to the concrete forms of texts that are repetitively produced several times so that they become recognized as a kind or a type of text. The second perspective on genre highlights the abstract quality of genre. Genres in this view are the knowledge, social cognition, or means of text production that the text producers count on when producing texts to communicate in a specific social setting. These two meanings of genre are taken into consideration as follows.

2.3.2 Genres as typified forms of text

A genre can be viewed as a class of text. According to Flowerdew (2013), recognized text rhetorical patterns and lexico-grammatical features are concrete textual elements that represent a genre as a kind of text. A type of text becomes recognized because it is reproduced or recurrently used over time. As Coe (2002) puts it, texts are recurrently produced because their forms are efficient for

communication in a specific situation. Zhu (2005) states that a genre is created in response to “*social and rhetorical needs*” (p.40). The needs here refer to the necessity to accomplish communicative tasks that are determined by some social purposes.

As noted above, concrete textual elements representing a genre are identified by recognizable textual patterns or lexico-grammatical features. An example of textual patterns of a genre is Swales’ (1990) sequences of *rhetorical moves*, or CARS in the introduction section of research articles. Another example of the concrete forms of genre is *text types*. Text types are textual units that the genre analysts of the Sydney School focus on for analyzing a genre. Text types are linguistic texts that realize several rhetorical functions: *recount, narrative, procedure, report, explanation, exposition, and discussion* (Nunan, 2008; p. 57).

The distinct features of a genre as a type of text are not only realized by sequences of the rhetorical patterns of a text such as the rhetorical moves or textual types mentioned earlier, but they can also be identified according to lexico-grammatical features or registers as well. Flowerdew (2013) notes that in a genre, there are a certain number of *conventionalized lexicogrammatical features* that can represent the characteristic features of language use in a genre. With his example, *action verbs* (which he calls “*material process verbs*”) are one of the lexico-grammatical features representing a genre of instructional manual since this feature is recurrently used (p. 141). Furthermore, Bhatia’s (1992) work is another example of a genre study that puts a focus on lexico-grammatical features. The study showed that there were distinct characteristic forms of nominals that varied according to different professional genres such as academic, media, or legal texts. The cause of nominal variations was attributed to the different rhetorical functions of each genre.

Since concrete forms of a genre are represented by both sequences of textual rhetorical patterns and lexico-grammatical features, the term ‘genre’ in the present study refers to both the sequences of rhetorical patterns and the lexico-grammatical aspects of the text.

2.3.3 Genres as social cognition

Apart from the genre perspective that focuses on textual forms, genres can be viewed as social cognition stored in the minds of individuals that can be used as a tool for communication in a particular social setting. With this paradigm, Hyland (2002) explains that “[g]enres are *abstract, socially recognized ways of using language*” (p. 114). For Bazerman (1997), genres are defined as “*frame for social action*” (p. 19).

Coe (2002) mentions genres conceptualized in this way, stating that people rely on genres as knowledge to understand the interrelations between typified forms of text and a specific context. Genres, according to him, “*are not just text types: they imply/invoke/create/(re)construct situations (and contexts), communities, writers and readers...*” (p. 199), genres thus “*embody socially established strategies for achieving purposes in rhetorical situations*” (p. 198). As social cognition, genre knowledge can thus guide text producers to produce texts appropriately in a specific context.

With the context specificity with which a genre relates to a typified form of a text, genre knowledge is concerned with the ‘situatedness’ of context. Considering genres in the academic realm, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) explain

the situatedness that a genre knowledge embodies, stating that “*genres are inherently dynamic rhetorical structures that can be manipulated according to the conditions of use, and ... genre knowledge is therefore best conceptualized as a form of situated cognition embedded in disciplinary activities*” (p.3).

2.3.4 Genres as categories of texts

Hewings and North (2009) note that it is difficult to draw a clear line between the boundaries of genres, due mainly to the possible mix of textual features of a discourse that could possibly be categorized into a different genre. As they suggest, categorizing texts into a type of discourse or labeling a genre should be done with caution.

According to Kong (2014), there are several methods for classifying genres; for instance, a genre can be identified by the domains of texts, by information flow, or by audiences. In the present study, a genre is identified by the domain to which it belongs. For example, research articles, dissertations or student essays are considered to be in the academic domain, or the academic genre. A domain can consist of varieties of sub-genres; for instance, opinion articles can be viewed as a sub-genre of the newspaper genre. On the other hand, research articles and dissertations can be grouped into the sub-category of academic genre which is different from student essays as a different kind of sub-genre.

2.3.5 Genres and social functions

Jones (2012) states that texts are typified to serve particular social functions. The social function of a type of text (or a genre) can be indicated by looking at what the text producer and text receiver do with the text produced. According to him, “*all texts are basically instances of people doing thing with or to other people*” (p.8). Put another way, the social functions of text are mediated by the actions that the text producer and receiver take toward the text produced. According to his examples, writing a newspaper article represents the action of informing; a recipe, instructing; and a job application letter, requesting. These actions are thus the social functions that genres serve.

In this sense, writing newspaper opinion articles is the action that represents the newspaper’s social function of giving an opinion to the masses. Apart from opinion giving, there are still three other main newspaper social functions: informing society with news, entertaining the masses with light-hearted types of content, and advertising for the income of the organization (Bunyasiripun, 2013).

2.3.6 Genre and community

The concept of community is used to identify the group of people that produce texts of the same genre. A community can be identified by the same occupation or a set of interests that the group shares. Members of a community are assumed to have similar genre knowledge so that they can produce texts in similar ways according to the conventions or norms that the group observes.

Johns (1997) notes that there are two similar concepts of community: the *discourse community* and the *community of practice*. According to Kong (2014),

the former concept overlooks the members' deviations from the norms or conventions of the community but stresses the commonalities that members share in text production, whereas the latter embraces more the differences that each individual member has, and the diversities that he or she may bring to text production.

Swales' (1990) concept of the discourse community has been pervasively applied in genre studies. He proposes that the discourse community is a group of people that share common goals of practice. Members of the community have particular ways to communicate within the group, a particular vocabulary known within the group, and different ranks of expertise. A discourse community has its own genres that are determined by the agree-upon purposes or goals of practice in order to communicate with people outside the community (p. 24-27).

Kong (2014) criticizes Swales' notion of *discourse community* as being too rigid and unable to present the dynamicity of the discourse community. He questions the *shared goal* as a factor determining the community members' practices of language use, noting that it reduces language to be rather static and ignores the active nature of language "*in shaping and negotiating reality*" (p. 46).

Killingsworth (1992) proposed that the discourse community should be viewed at two different levels: local and global. The first level refers to the geography that the members of the same discourse community belong to. The latter is the abstract notion of the community; that is, the commitment and conventions or values of the practice that all the members of the community share. His idea on the local and global discourse community implies that this community unites all members of the community, regardless of geographical differences, but members as individuals may possibly "[import] values and practices from previous experiences, from different

places’ and ‘eventually either conform to the established requirements of the new community or change the community to accommodate their own perspectives’ (p. 121).

For the present study, the term “discourse community” refers to a social group. It is the group of newspaper writers that work in the newspaper corporations, and contributors, who have different careers such as university instructors, diplomats or freelance writers. Though contributors of opinion articles may have different professions, they are still considered in the same discourse community as long as they take the same social actions—that is, expressing opinions on a particular issue by writing newspaper opinion articles for the masses. Furthermore, though American and Thai journalistic writers are in different places and times, they are considered as members of the same discourse community of newspaper writers since they have the same communicative goals, though in different speech communities.

2.3.7 Genre and language ideology

Genres reflect some aspects of ideology of language. The ideas or rationales underlying the typification of texts by professionals such as scientists, legal professionals, or journalists are the language ideologies of the occupational groups. In order to understand the inter-relatedness between genre and ideology regarding language use, it is necessary to take into account in the first place the notion of ideology. The review uses the general concept of ideology first and then moves onto the notion of language ideology. The significance of ideology in relation to language use lies in the fact that the use of language is never neutral or automatic by the users’

freewill, but rather is influenced by several social factors; to put it another way, it is socially constructed.

Jones (2012) explains that *“an ideology is a specific set of beliefs and assumptions that people have about things.”* According to him, ideologies are like *“models of how the world is supposed to be”* (p.12). For van Dijk (2006), what is an ideology is considered as a “belief system.” Similar to Jones’ proposition, ideologies, according to van Dijk, provide members of a social group with assumptions about the world, giving them values on how to see things in the world, what is good or bad, right or wrong, what actions they should take or avoid, and how performance in work should be carried out for instance.

Based on van Dijk’s explanation, though an ideology or the belief system is operated at the cognitive level, it is socially shared by members of social groups such as professions (journalists or scientists), social movements (feminists, or anti-racists), or social institutions (the church, mass media, or education), among others. He further notes that ideologies are not equal to private or personal beliefs of individuals; nor are they shared by considerably large social groups identified by culture, nation, or language. In this way, social and cultural knowledge is not an ideology. Ideological groups are in fact communities of practice or discourse communities. He states that members of ideological groups should be distinguished from social groups *“such as those of gender and ethnicity: women or black women do not have ideologies, but feminists and anarchists do”* (p.120). Groups classified by occupations can be regarded as ideological groups as well, and ideologies that professionals hold to may be used to *“promote and protect their interests”* (p. 120).

There are two main types of ideology (van Dijk, 2006). The first one is concerned with “*legitimizing domination*” by the dominant group over the dominated, or “*articulating resistance in relationships of power*” (p. 117). To use Woolard’s (1998) words, this type of ideology is considered as “*ideas, discourse, or signifying practices in the sense of struggle to acquire or maintain power*” (p. 7). For the second strand of conceptualization, van Dijk (2006, p. 117) notes that an ideology is viewed rather as a “*guideline*” for the practices of some professions, for example. Woolard (1998) remarks on this notion of ideology that it rather carries a more neutral sense as compared to the first perspective, which is featured as the critical and negative perspectives regarding power relations. The present study is rather related to the second strand of the notion of ideology than the first one, since it is about how language is used (language ideology) by a specific professional group—newspaper writers.

Apart from the ideologies identified by discourses such as feminist ideology, racist ideology or anti-capitalism ideology as mentioned above, there is also language ideology. The ideology of language refers to a set of beliefs or ideas about how language should be used (Johnstone, 2008). In this way, a genre, as social cognition of communication, which provides people with schematic frames for communication in a specific event, is an ideology of the language use.

Ideas or knowledge about the language that a genre carries within as a communicative frame can also be seen as the so-called metapragmatic, or ideal type of language use, suggesting or guiding the language users in the ways in which they should use language. The metapragmatic sources for newspaper writing can be grasped from the advice given by professional journalist writers, scholars or experts in

handbooks, guidebooks or textbooks on the issue; or from ideas or values stated by the newspaper writers about the writings.

Another significance of ideology is hegemonic power. This element of ideology is related to genre, especially with respect to *genre conventions* (which will be reviewed next). Unlike the power exerted by the legal process or the commands from higher position in an organization, hegemony is a sort of power that is less obvious but is more persuasive (Simpson and Mayr, 2010). This kind of power lures rather than forces people into seeing an ideology (a set of ideas) that they adopt as “*perfectly natural ... common sense ... and normal ways of thinking and acting*” (Mooney, 2011; p. 18). Since genres are ideological, the hegemonic elements embedded in genres are another factor that drives members of a group, such as legal professionals, scientist writers or newspaper writers, to rely on genres as conventions on language use in order to typify their discourses, or to re-produce their texts similarly and recurrently in a certain situation. However, this does not mean that genre will be rigid all the time without any possible changes. This point is discussed next in the notion on genre conventions.

2.3.8 Genre conventions

Genre conventions refer to the norms or general rules that text producers observe as a general guide for producing texts in a similar way. Text recipients, on the other hand, are aware of such conventions and then expect texts to be produced accordingly. Bhatia (2004) mentions that “*Genres are highly structured and conventionalized constructs, with constraints on allowable contributions not only in terms of the intentions ... but also in terms of the lexico-grammatical resources one*

can employ to give discorsal value to such formal features” (p.23).

Although there is fixity of language use (sequential stages of rhetorical patterns and some features of lexis and grammar) in texts identified to belong to a specific genre, textual constraints vary from one type of genre to another. This means that there are variations in the degrees of deviation or freedom of creativity in each genre. Bhatia (2006) proposed that genre constraints on language use can be measured on a continuum, with one end being conservative and the other being liberal. For example, legal documents such as legal contracts or written laws passed by legislative bodies can fall somewhere on the side of the conservative end whereas fiction and advertising falls on the liberal one (p. 390). Though by convention genre is stabilized as a type of text, it is not static or steadily fixed, but dynamic and actively evolved constantly (Bhatia, 2004).

2.3.9 Genre and schema

Widdowson (2007) defined schema as “*a construct of familiar knowledge*” (p. 28). He explains that people normally have in their mind expectations or assumptions about what they and others are supposed to do in a particular event so that they can carry out the activity easily and successfully. In terms of schema theory, the assumptions or expectations in people’s minds form a “*frame of reference*” (p.29). This frame of reference is not based only on the action that one should take but also the use of language that one should practice appropriately when carrying out such activities.

He also points out that written texts, especially those of long monologue, are always seen as non-interactive since there is no turn-taking as in

conversations, but because of the schema (or the frame of reference) that gives the readers some expectations they should make during reading, written texts are interactional according to what he calls *interpersonal schemata*, as in a speech event.

For Bhatia (1993), genre is schematic since it requires mutual understanding in communication, as he explains that a genre is “*identified and mutually understood by members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs*” (p.13).

Genre knowledge is acquired through the experience gained from participation in a communicative situation. According to Flowerdew (2013), it is the recurrent pattern of a genre that contributes considerably to the acquisition of genre knowledge gained by individuals. In terms of textual schema, the textual patterns and lexico-grammar of a genre are stored in the minds of individuals through repetitive exposition to recurrent situations in which the texts of a genre are produced. The expectation of particular features of texts, or schema of a genre, is activated when individuals participate in a communicative situation in which such a genre plays a crucial role. Therefore, by participating in a communicative event, one can have a chance to practice using the language and, as a result, finally learn how to produce and receive texts in that communicative situation.

2.4 Conclusion

In this chapter, a literature review was conducted on several topics concerning the notion of metadiscourse and some notions of genre. Regarding the idea of metadiscourse, the literature review was undertaken with the two main theoretical paradigms, categories of functions, examples of instances of metadiscourse, and the

distinct differences in metadiscourse perspectives of the two theoretical camps. The review of the literature also led to an evaluation of what metadiscourse model was used to study metadiscourse in the present research. Finally, several aspects of genre that were considered relevant to the study of metadiscourse in newspaper opinion articles were reviewed. In the following chapter, information concerning the research methodology is provided in detail.



CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter the varieties of methods adopted in this research are described. Section 3.2 depicts the overall picture of the procedures that the researcher laid out for this study, while the other sections provide more details on the research methods. Section 3.3 shows how the data were collected and how two corpora of newspaper opinion articles were built up for comparison. Section 3.4 demonstrates the metadiscourse taxonomy that the researcher used to code the metadiscourse markers from the texts. The next section, 3.5, is concerned with information about the statistical tool used for comparing the frequencies of the coded metadiscourse occurrences in this study. In the last section, the analytical methods for identifying the metadiscourse from the texts are explained. The identifying methods involved in the present study included: analytical reading, and the application of a software tool and search terms that were employed in this study to retrieve the potential metadiscourse items in electronic files.

3.2 Procedure

The aim of this study was to explore and compare the use of metadiscourse expressions in the newspaper opinion articles by the two groups of writers. The research was carried out according to the overall procedures as described in the following.

First, four English-language newspapers, two American newspapers and the other two Thai, were determined as the sources of the opinion articles.

Second, fifteen opinion articles were collected from each of the four newspapers as the texts to be analyzed for the metadiscourse expressions. All of the opinion articles were taken from each of the newspaper's websites. The texts from the American newspapers were gathered to build up the corpus of American newspaper writers, and those from the Thai newspapers to form the corpus of Thai newspaper writers.

Third, all of the texts were analyzed for metadiscourse. The metadiscourse expressions were identified according to the functions they served. Coded metadiscourse items were quantified into frequencies of metadiscourse occurrences in each corpus.

Fourth, all of the frequencies of metadiscourse in each function of one corpus were compared to those in the counterpart functions of the other corpus. Statistical testing was performed to investigate whether there were the significant differences in the frequency distribution of the metadiscourse functions between both groups of writers. The use of each metadiscourse function of the two corpora was also described in contrast.

Fifth, all of the results were described and taken into discussion based on the research questions.

There are further meticulous details on each step of the research procedures. The significant information is illustrated in the following sections.

3.3 Data collection and corpora building

Before the corpora of the opinion article texts were created, several qualities of texts in both corpora were controlled for the comparability of the texts for contrastive analysis. The comparability of the texts here refers to the principle of “*comparable corpora*” (Moreno, 2008), which holds that corpora for comparing texts (in two or more languages or between L1 and L2 of one language) should be controlled “*as many of the relevant contextual factors as possible*” (p. 25). If not, a discussion on the effect that language and socio-cultural context factors have on the textual features would not be reliable. The more contextual differences there are between two corpora, the more other factors must be taken into discussion about possible causes of such differences. It should also be noted that, though corpora should ideally be similar to each other “*to the maximum degree*” (p.25), it is impossible to control every contextual aspect of a text, e.g. the writing process, the procedure of writing, or writing tools. What was taken into consideration about the comparability of the texts was the following: the selection of newspapers, the selection of the opinion articles, the length of all the texts by total word count, the number of writers per text, and variations in the topics of the articles. All of these features are described in the four sub-sections below.

3.3.1 The selection of newspapers

Newspaper websites were used as sources for collecting the texts for the corpora build-up and analysis. All of the opinion articles were retrieved from four newspaper websites. For the American newspaper corpus, opinion article texts were retrieved from two websites: *The New York Times* with *International Herald Tribune*:

Global Edition (<http://www.nytimes.com/pages/opinion/global/index.html>) and *The Washington Post* (<http://www.washingtonpost.com/opinions?hpid=z2>). For the Thai newspaper corpus, the opinion articles were taken from the *Bangkok Post* (<http://www.bangkokpost.com/opinion>) and *The Nation* (<http://www.nationmultimedia.com/opinion/>).

The criteria for selecting newspapers for both corpora concerned mainly with the internationally- or domestically-leading characteristics of the newspapers. In the United States, there are a lot of newspapers published daily; however, the two American newspapers were chosen particularly because they have been internationally ranked in the first fifteen news and newspaper websites in the world that have the highest number of monthly web-visitors, according to ebizmba (2012). Since there were several other American newspapers in the rank of the top fifteen websites, the two newspapers were selected on a random basis.

The selection of Thai newspapers was made with no choices offered, because of the fact that there are only two leading newspapers printed daily in English in Thailand.

The total word count of the American news corpus was 24,816; for the Thai news corpus it was 24,856. The number of total words summed up in both corpora was 49,672. These figures show that Thai corpus was 0.08% higher (or 40 words more) in total word count than the American corpus.

3.3.2 The selection of opinion articles

Fifteen articles were taken from each newspaper. Thirty opinion articles were compiled into one corpus. All of the selected texts were collected from

the opinion section, or the so-called op-ed page of the newspaper websites. None of them was an editorial or another type of newspaper feature writing. All of the articles in both corpora were collected during the time period of January 1, 2012 to December 31, 2012.

The topics of the opinion articles were restricted to seven themes concerning social life, politics, the economy, international affairs, education, healthcare, and the environment. In some articles there was a possible overlap of two topics among these seven issues. For example, in one article, the writer wrote about healthcare policy and discussed it from the angle of economic problems.

Information about the topics and dates of publishing of all the opinion articles of the American corpus is displayed in Table 3.1, and that of the Thai newspaper corpus in Table 3.2

Table 3.1 Opinion articles of American newspaper corpus

Text number	Article heads	Date
AM 01	Gates puts the focus on teaching	May12, 2012
AM 02	The emperor of all identities	Dec 18, 2012
AM 03	Return of the organic fable	Sep 27, 2012
AM 04	Bullies on the bus	Jun 22, 2012
AM 05	Get it right on gas	Aug 04, 2012
AM 06	Who wants to be a millionaire?	Jan 13, 2012
AM 07	Don't blame autism for Newtown	Dec 17, 2012
AM 08	Manlashes, manscara and mantyhose	Mar 10, 2012
AM 09	Down the insurance rabbit hole	Apr 4, 2012
AM 10	Want to ruin teaching? Give ratings	Oct 14, 2012
AM 11	Our newly lush life	Jul 14, 2012
AM 12	Learning from the superstorm	Nov 3, 2012
AM 13	It's a smart, smart, smart world	Dec 12, 2012
AM 14	Can liberal Christianity be saved?	Jul 14, 2012
AM 15	Meet Sam Schwartz	Mar 4, 2012
AM 16	Is mentioning Rev. Wright racist?	May 19, 2012
AM 17	The real battle for the soul of America	Jan 13, 2012
AM 18	Drumming up a phony war on religion	Feb 15, 2012
AM 19	Poverty is more than tuna and pasta	Sep 11, 2012
AM 20	Unraveling secret money in California	Nov 7, 2012
AM 21	Pakistan blew its chance for security	May 16, 2012
AM 22	Free college? We can afford it.	May 1, 2012
AM 23	A fiscal cliffhanger? Of course, it's in our nature.	Dec 14, 2012
AM 24	Can Japan make the tough decisions?	Apr 19, 2012
AM 25	The Swedish model for economic recovery	Apr 25, 2012
AM 26	In China, the only certainty is uncertainty	Sep 20, 2012
AM 27	WikiLeaks, meet ObamaLeaks	Jun 18, 2012
AM 28	It's a question of context	Aug 11, 2012
AM 29	A scrubbing on foreign policy	Oct 8, 2012
AM 30	Obama's Iran and Syria muddle	Jun 11, 2012

Table 3.2 Opinion articles of Thai newspaper corpus

Text Number	Article heads	Date
TH 01	Doing time made easier by Face Time	Feb 13, 2012
TH 02	Capability or just expediency?	May 21, 2012
TH 03	'October spirit' lacking as reds mark uprising	Oct 19, 2012
TH 04	Wake-up smack for a changing society	Jan 15, 2012
TH 05	Let's lighten political load of charter vote	Dec 18, 2012
TH 06	Consumer spending binge	Dec 19, 2012
TH 07	Rural kids falling through the cracks	Oct 31, 2012
TH 08	US poll has huge implications for Thailand	Nov 2, 2012
TH 09	For the depressed there's help waiting	Nov 6, 2012
TH 10	One scene has ended but the opera goes on	Nov 26, 2012
TH 11	In digital age, youth leave mark on politics	Oct 27, 2012
TH 12	Feminine 'white' wash goes too far	Sep 14, 2012
TH 13	Graft permeates very fabric of our society	Jun 21, 2012
TH 14	Sorayuth case presents challenges to society	Oct 23, 2012
TH 15	Yingluck on spot	Sep 20, 2012
TH 16	The new rising star of Asia: if reforms continue apace	May 10, 2012
TH 17	Asia in transformation	Jun 30, 2012
TH 18	Is a country like a large corporation?	Feb 28, 2012
TH 19	Bill showdown could spill over onto the streets	Jun 2, 2012
TH 20	The super agency and the little people of Ayutthaya	Feb 9, 2012
TH 21	Are we really so scared of our own shadow?	Apr 10, 2012
TH 22	Only if we can learn from the wisdom of others	Jul 24, 2012
TH 23	Lecturers struggling to cope with ordinary wages, unfair evaluation systems, group says	Jul 9, 2012
TH 24	Japan is back on its feet again for the region	Mar 19, 2012
TH 25	No easy solutions in the Middle East	Aug 31, 2012
TH 26	A prayer for the new year: Let there be hope to guide us	Dec 27, 2012
TH 27	Sometimes you just can't see the funny side	Apr 11, 2012
TH 28	US offers models for innovative engineering education	Apr 9, 2012
TH 29	Software and people are more important than hardware	Nov 24, 2012
TH 30	Corporate imperialism and the nano age of colonialism	Aug 28, 2012

3.3.3

The writer

The writers of each opinion article were either newspaper columnists, or contributors to the opinion columns. In the American newspaper corpus, there were six opinion articles written by contributors; and in the Thai newspaper corpus, there were ten. The proportion between male and female writers was 18:12 in the American newspaper corpus, and 17:13 in the Thai newspaper corpus.

Regarding the number of writers per article, it is usual for one opinion article to be co-written by more than one journalist. However, for the present study, the number of writers was limited to one person per article. Put another way, all sixty articles in both opinion article corpora were written by fifteen different writers per newspaper in one year.

3.3.4 Deletion of irrelevant textual elements

Before the textual analysis was performed, all of the textual elements irrelevant to the authenticity of opinion article writing were excluded. These elements were bylines (or details about the writers such as name, occupation, educational background, personal interests, etc.) and information on publishing dates and places.

There were two reasons for the deletion of the publishing dates and place, and bylines. First, the bylines were not found to be consistently given in all of the opinion articles. Second, information on publishing places and dates was considered irrelevant to the content of the opinion article texts though they were commonly found in all opinion articles. In order to make every text comparable with the same textual qualities, the bylines and data on publishing dates and places were eliminated.

3.4 The construction of metadiscourse taxonomy

In the present study, the construction of the metadiscourse taxonomy was based on Ädel (2006 and 2010). Her metadiscourse models were studied, adopted, and modified in accordance with the discourse features of newspaper opinion articles. The theoretical principles as well as the methods of metadiscourse analysis remained almost the same as the original models. However, the categories of metadiscourse functions were reorganized.

The adaptations were made based on the present researcher's own observation of the recurrence of some of the discourse features in the opinion articles. These discourse features were considered as possible metadiscourse functions (see more details about the adaptations made regarding the original model in Appendix B).

3.4.1 Metadiscourse functions

There were two main categories of functions: text-organizing metadiscourse and reader-interacting metadiscourse. The two main functions together with the categories of sub-functions are shown in Table 3.3 and 3.4 below. Examples of the metadiscourse of each function are also displayed in the tables (see Appendix B for more detailed explanations of each of metadiscourse functions and how to code and count metadiscourse units).

Table 3.3. Taxonomy of text-organizing metadiscourse

Text-Organizing Metadiscourse (Non-interactive)	
1 Meaning Clarifying	<i>in other words; That means; Put bluntly; etc.</i>
2 Referring	<i>Many of the <u>above</u> issues; But <u>the latter</u> is not; The <u>following</u> cases illustrate; etc.</i>
3 Enumerating	<i><u>There are several important things to point out about...</u> <u>first is ...; second is ...</u>; etc.</i>
4 Topic Managing	<i><u>In sum</u>; <u>To conclude</u>; <u>All this said</u>; etc.</i>
5 Discourse Act Labeling	<i><u>for example</u>; <u>for instance</u>; <u>say</u>; etc.</i> <i>Can Japan make the tough decisions? <u>The question</u> here is no different than in Europe ... Why? <u>The short answer</u> is that</i> <i>it is impossible to <u>discuss</u> critical problems... Also it is important to <u>note</u> that ... It can be <u>argued</u>, though, that knowing can't compare to seeing.</i>
Text-Organizing Metadiscourse (Interactive)	
1 Meaning Clarifying	<i>For the past many years, the righteous, harmonious balance of Thai society has been a bit out of whack. <u>We are not only talking about</u> uppity provincial/colonial peasants</i>
2 Referring	<i><u>Before I get to</u> the dreary budget debates in Washington, here's a bright spot of good news: <u>We're getting smarter</u>.</i>
3 Enumerating	<i><u>There are two points I'd like to make about</u> this vaginal whitening trend.</i>
4 Topic Managing	<i><u>I am bringing this up because</u> the current presidential race has demonstrated that... <u>I will begin by</u> acknowledging the several good points</i>
5 Discourse Act Labeling	<i>As best <u>we can tell</u>, our frontal cortex began expanding 3 to 4 million years ago ... for every successful prosecution of public corruption, <u>I dare say</u> there are thousands others...</i>

Table 3.4 Taxonomy of reader-interacting metadiscourse

Reader-Interacting Metadiscourse	
1 Anticipating the Reader's Reactions	<p><u>Opt out of Google's data collection?</u> Sure, you can do that — but you'll also have to delete...</p> <p><u>You would think that</u> a casino owner would know what futile acts of desperation...</p>
2 Aligning Perspectives	<p>Today, <u>we have seen</u> covert sources and current operations exposed.</p>
3 Giving Evidence	<p><u>Consider this</u>, posted on Facebook yesterday by a friend of mine from high school who ...</p> <p><u>Look at the record</u>. ... Sweden's job growth (as a percentage) rivals Germany's since 2006; present</p>
4 Imagining Scenarios	<p><u>Imagine</u> what would have happened during the recession if, say, food stamps...</p> <p><u>Picture</u> two men talking. The one that haunches his back and shoulders, hands folded ...</p>
5 Hypothesizing about the Reader	<p>If you asked her a question, <u>you would need to</u> give her extra time to figure out the...</p> <p><u>It seems you don't</u> park your Range Rover outside...</p>
6 Interactive Questions	<p><u>Is experience in running a large corporation a reliable qualification indicator for running a country and its economy?</u> Not necessarily. <u>Why?</u> The short answer is that a country is ...</p>

3.5 Statistical

analysis

Chi-square statistical testing was carried out in order to see whether there were significant differences in the frequencies of the metadiscourse between the two groups of columnists. The chi-square statistics were selected based on the data type of the present study.

Chi-square is appropriate for less accurate data types (Dörnyei, 2007). The data in this study were of a nominal or categorical type, which is less precise

compared to interval data. To illustrate, in this study, the samples (raw frequencies of metadiscourse markers) taken from the population (texts) could not be put into categories of numerical order or rank (interval data), but all of the frequencies were classified into nominal categories (categories identified with metadiscourse functions). The categories of metadiscourse functions do not have numerical values affecting the quantitative values of the samples in the category.

For the interval data, the categories of variables have interval scales of equal differences in size or degree, which affects the values of the sample. As the samples taken from population can be numerically ordered in scales, the normal distribution and homogeneity of variance can thus be measured. Parametric statistics such as t-tests or variance analysis are appropriate for testing these interval data. The tests are applied when there is an assumption that the samples are normally distributed, or that variances within the group are the same.

Chi-square is a non-parametric test; it does not assume that the samples taken from the population are normally distributed, nor does it require the variances within group to be the same. With the less precise characteristics of the data of this study, chi-square, which has greater leniency regarding data inaccuracy, was thus employed to test the significant difference in the metadiscourse frequencies between the two groups.

Though the chi-square test is allowable for weaker types of data, it also has some restrictions in application. According to Key (1997), the chi-square requirements are:

1. Samples must be drawn randomly from the parent population.
2. The data must be in frequency and measured on nominal or categorical scales.
3. Variables must be independently measured.
4. Sample size must be adequate. (More than 5)
5. The distribution basis must be decided before the data are collected.
6. The sum of the observed frequencies must equal to the sum of the expected frequencies.

The chi-square value was calculated with the equation shown below:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(f_e - f_o)^2}{f_e}$$

where χ^2 = the chi-square test statistic

f_o = the frequency observed in each cell of contingency

f_e = the frequency expected in each cell of the contingency table if there were no difference between the groups' distribution

(Diekhoff, 1996; p. 211)

The observed frequency was the number of cases in each sample of each variable category. The expected frequency was the number of cases in each sample that would be expected in each variable category “*if the two samples were distributed identically*” (Diekhoff, 1996; p. 210-211). The expected frequency was calculated with formula as shown below.

$$f_e = \frac{f_o \times (\text{number of sample})}{(\text{total number of sample})}$$

3.6 Software

tool

The computer-aided program AntConc version 3.2.4w was employed in the

present study as a software tool to help the researcher find potential metadiscursive expressions in the opinion articles texts. Though AntConc has been introduced to language learners as a user-friendly tool to help them with learning or acquiring appropriate use of the language on their own (Charles, 2012, and 2014; and Weisser, 2016), the capacity of the software program is not limited to just an assisting tool in the activity of language learning; AntConc has been widely used in advanced research projects as well. It is applied in doing theses, dissertations and academic research in a variety of fields, for example, rhetorical genre studies (Aull, 2011), institutional discourse and genre analysis (Sinsheimer, 2011), sociolinguistics (Howe, 2012), comparative study of literary texts (Meyer, 2012), old English (Sommerer, 2011), academic writing (Lee and Casal, 2014), among others.

The capacity of AntConc met well the requirements of the textual analytical performance of the present study. With the Concordance tool of the software program, potential metadiscursive items could be retrieved and shown in a full list. The researcher could use the information provided in the concordance lines to judge the retrieved items one by one as to whether they were actually used as metadiscourse. In addition, when the information provided in the concordance lines was not adequate for the researcher to make an accurate judgment, the researcher could operate the File View tool to locate the position of the marked item in a larger scale of text (opinion article texts). By so doing, the researcher was able to use a lot more information surrounding the marked item to evaluate more precisely whether it was actual metadiscourse.

3.7 Search terms

The search terms were used in tandem with the software program, AntConc 3.2.4w, in order to identify the potential metadiscourse instances in the texts. The search terms for identifying the metadiscourse instances were derived from the sets of metadiscourse instances provided by Hyland (2005a) and Ädel (2006).

Note also that, from Hyland's (2005a), only the metadiscourse instances in the function of code gloss (p.218) were chosen as search terms to find some meaning-clarifying metadiscourse in the present study. This is because the code gloss in his study had a functional equivalence with the Meaning Clarifying of the present study. Other metadiscourse functions in Hyland's (2005a) model did not have a functional equivalence with those of the present study, so they were discarded.

3.8 Search terms and text reading

The technique of using search terms and text reading were both applied as methods of the metadiscourse identification. This was because if one relied only on either of the methods, there would possibly be some shortcomings. To illustrate, it was not guaranteed that the scope of the search terms derived from Hyland (2005a) and Ädel (2006) would be extensive enough to cover all of the range of the metadiscourse instances that actually occurred in the texts.

On the other hand, if the present researcher had only relied on the reading of the entire opinion articles, he would easily have missed potential metadiscourse instances during the time of reading. This was mainly due to the fact that analyzing metadiscourse is very much a cognitive-demanding task for human researchers. The analysts have to force themselves to be fully aware of several metadiscourse functions

and sub-functions when trying to detect any possible metadiscursive expressions in texts.

In order to handle the problem of the scope of the search terms and the possible misses regarding actual metadiscourse instances that would occur through the reading of the human researcher, both search terms and text reading were used in tandem for the metadiscourse identification. A record of the metadiscourse instances manually coded using the method of text reading was compared with the record of the metadiscourse instances identified by search term technique in order to capture the instances of metadiscourse that were newly found in the opinion articles but that were not supplied in the original sets of the search terms. The metadiscourse instances that were newly found in the opinion articles were added to the original sets of search terms, making it a new set of search term instances. This new set of metadiscursive instances was then used with the software program again to search for potential metadiscourse in order to ensure the consistency of potential metadiscourse identification.

3.9 Conclusion

The overall procedure of the research conducted was delineated in this chapter. Details on the data collection and corpora building were also given. The metadiscourse taxonomy was shown as the scope of the metadiscourse functions of the present study. The reason why chi-square statistics were employed in the present study, and why AntConc, a software program, was incorporated as an assisting tool in conducting the textual analysis, were explained. In the next two chapters, quantitative data on the metadiscourse frequencies and differences in the style of the

metadiscursive language are reported and described as a result of the study. Chapter 4 is concerned with text-organizing metadiscourse, and Chapter 5, with reader-interacting metadiscourse.



CHAPTER 4

FINDINGS: TEXT-ORGANIZING METADISCOURSE

4.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the results of the textual analysis of the quantitative and qualitative (or stylistic) features of the metadiscourse in the opinion articles are reported and described. In section 4.2, the general findings on the metadiscourse frequencies of both corpora are presented with charts and tables, and described in contrast. In section 4.3, more details on the quantitative and stylistic features of each of the specific metadiscourse sub-functions are described. In the last section, the results of text-organizing metadiscourse (TOM) are concluded.

4.2 General findings

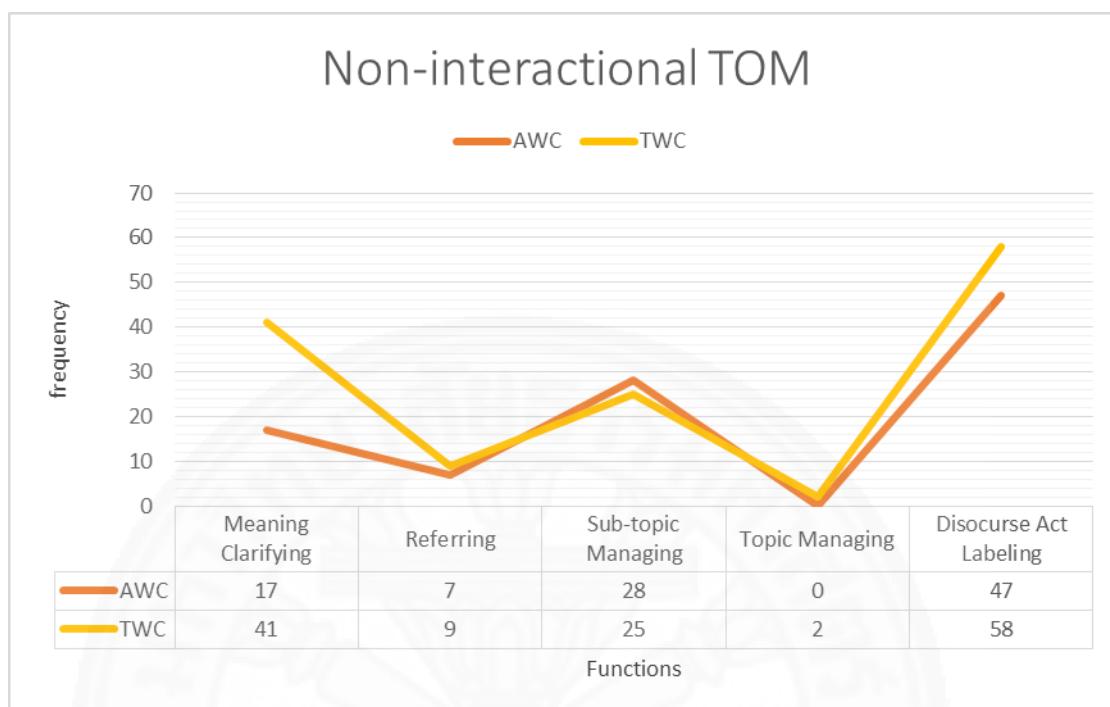
According to the original metadiscourse model (Ädel, 2006 and 2010), there are two dimensions of text-organizing metadiscourse functions: the non-interactional and interactional types. The non-interactional ones are metadiscourse expressions identified without the presence of personal metadiscursive pronouns. The interactional ones, on the other hand, are those in which there must be at least an occurrence of the personal metadiscursive pronoun.

The outcomes of the textual analysis showed that both of the American writer corpus (AWC) and the Thai writer corpus (TWC) shared similar distributional patterns of non-interactional and interactional types of text-organizing metadiscourse. The proportion of the non-interactional type to the interactional one was huge, with the non-interactional occurring much more frequently (AWC, $n = 99$; TWC, $n = 135$)

than the interactional (AWC, $n = 13$; TWC, $n = 14$) across the two corpora.

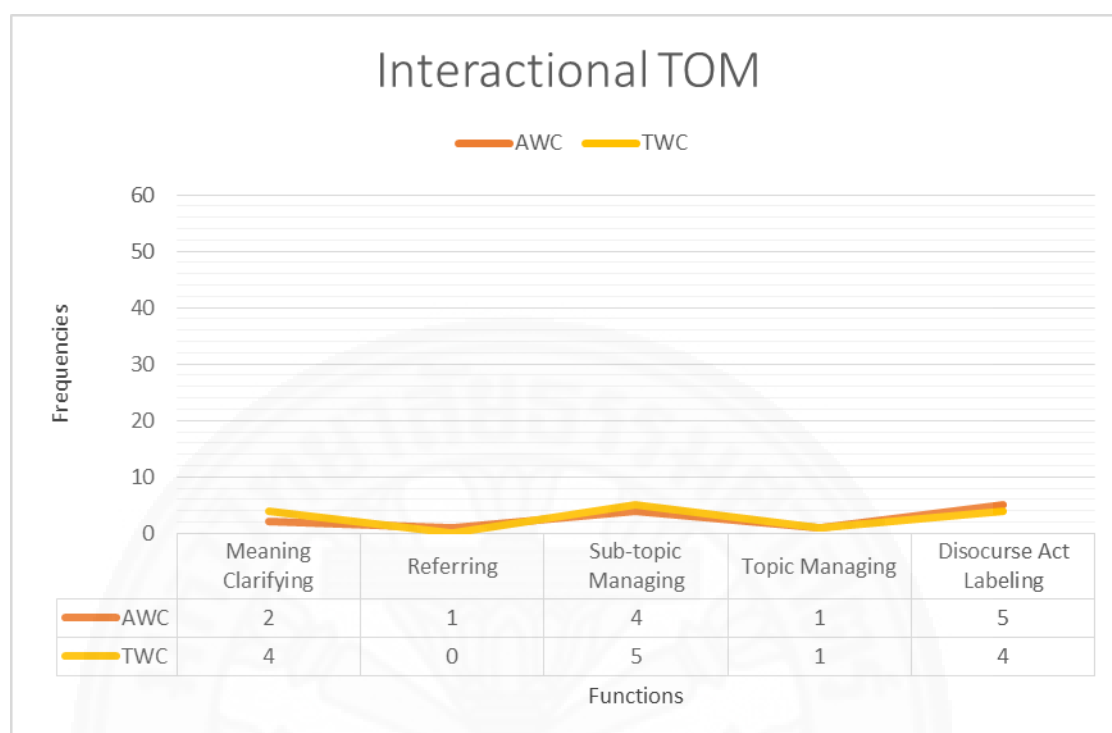
Due to the very low number of the interactional types, it was impossible to carry out a separate statistical test for the significant difference in this type of metadiscourse. To be able to find out whether differences in frequencies of TOM between the two groups of writers were statistically significant, the predetermined separation between the non-interactional and interactional categories of text-organizing function was thus cancelled; instead, both of them were integrated into a single category of text-organizing function, making it one whole dimension of TOM. In order to see the matter clearly, the frequencies of both non-interactional and interactional types of each sub-function of TOM of both corpora are displayed in Figure 4.1 and 4.2, respectively.

Figure 4.1 Non-interactive text-organizing metadiscourse in both corpora



As the graph shows, the distributional pattern of the non-interactive TOM in both AWC and TWC was rather of a similar shape. Both corpora also shared similar proportions of metadiscourse frequency, with Discourse Act Labeling being the most frequently-used metadiscourse function (AWC, $n = 47$; TWC, $n = 58$). The exception was the second and third rank of highest frequency. While in AWC Sub-topic Managing ($n = 28$) was in the second rank followed by Meaning Clarifying ($n = 17$) in the third rank, in TWC Meaning Clarifying ($n = 41$) was in the second rank, and Sub-topic Managing ($n = 25$) in the third. Next was Referring (AWC, $n = 7$; TWC, $n = 9$), which was in the fourth rank, and Topic Management (AWC, $n = 0$; TWC, $n = 2$) was the function that was used the least in texts. Moreover, among the five-sub-functions, it was only the function of Sub-topic Managing where the metadiscourse occurrences in AWC outnumbered their counterparts in TWC, but very slightly.

Figure 4.2 Interactional text-organizing metadiscourse in both corpora



For the interactional type, the frequencies of the metadiscourse distributed in both corpora were at a very low level, with no more than five instances of metadiscourse occurring across the five functions. As seen in the graph shown above, no distinguishing distributional patterns of interactional metadiscourse were observable in or between AWC and TWC.

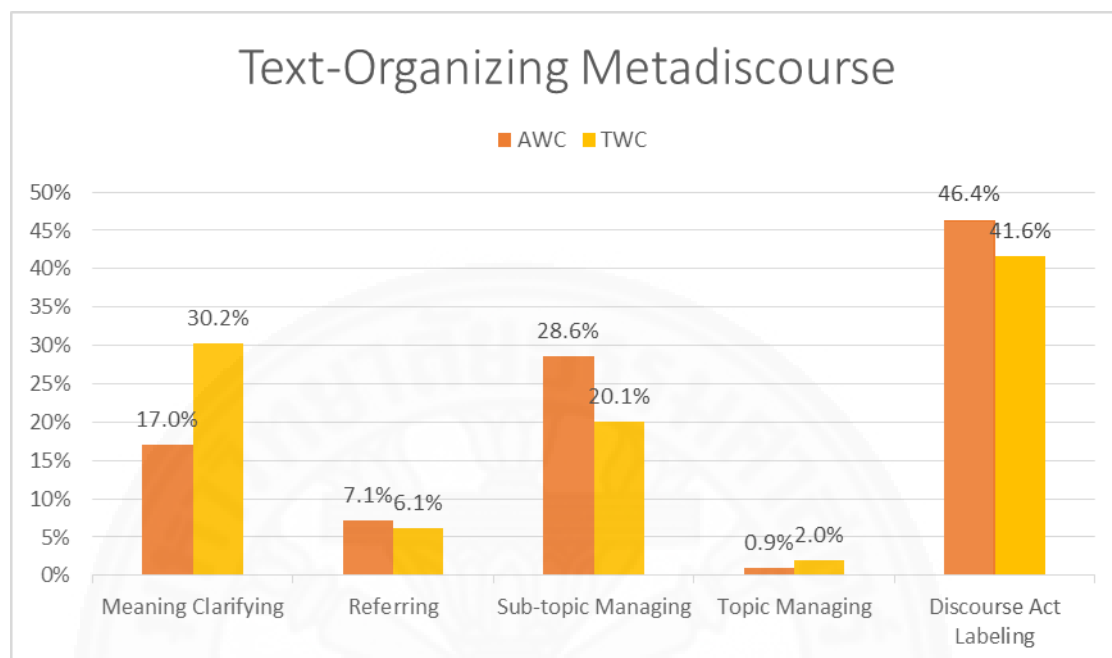
In order to be able to find out whether the difference in the use of the text-organizing of metadiscourse between both groups of writers was statistically significant, the numbers of interactional metadiscourse in each sub-function were thus added to those of the non-interactional counterparts, making it one whole dimension of TOM in both corpora. The total of the numbers of metadiscourse in each sub-category of function are displayed in the Table 4.1 below.

Table 4.1 Text-organizing metadiscourse in each functional category

	Meaning Clarifying	Referring	Sub-topic Managing	Topic Managing	Discourse Act Labeling	Total
AWC	19	8	32	1	52	112
TWC	45	9	30	3	62	149

According to the purpose of the present study regarding the quantitative features of metadiscourse, as stated in Research Question 1, the distributions of the TOM frequencies across texts in both corpora were contrasted. In order to see the differences in terms of rank order regarding the frequencies of metadiscourse between both corpora, the raw frequencies of each type of metadiscourse functions were computed into percentages and are presented in Figure 4.3 below. After that, the results of the statistical tests on the significant differences of the frequency of TOM between both corpora are reported.

Figure 4.3 Text-organizing metadiscourse in percentages across corpora



According to Figure 4.3, the distributions of TOM between both corpora exhibited different patterns in terms of rank. The most commonly-used TOM function in both corpora was Discourse Act Labeling.

The difference in the rank order of preferable types of metadiscourse between both corpora was found in the second and third ranks. In TWC, Meaning Clarifying was in the second rank followed by Sub-topic Managing. Conversely, in AWC, Sub-topic Managing ranked in second place, and Meaning Clarifying in third place.

Referring, on the other hand, was the fourth ranked in both corpora, and Topic Managing metadiscourse was the metadiscourse function that was used the least in both corpora.

The result of the chi-square test indicated that the frequencies of TOM distributed in the texts of both corpora were not significantly different: $\chi^2 (4, n = 261)$

= 7.468, $p = 0.113$. It can be interpreted that the differences in the use of the functions of TOM did not correlate with national groups, or the American and Thai journalistic writers were not significantly different in the use of any of the text-organizing functions in writing opinion articles. From this, it can be concluded that, at a general level, there was no significant difference in the frequency of TOM between the groups of writers according to the results of the statistical test.

However, for a closer scrutiny, when the statistical tests were performed separately for each specific category of text-organizing functions, the results showed that it was the Meaning Clarifying function where the significant difference was indicated at the level of 0.05 ($\chi^2 = 6.053$, $p = 0.014$). For the rest of the text-organizing functions, there were no significant differences between the groups of writers according to the test results: Referring ($\chi^2 = 0.128$, $p = 0.721$); Sub-topic Managing ($\chi^2 = 2.513$, $p = 0.113$); Topic Managing ($\chi^2 = 0.532$, $p = 0.466$); and Discourse Act Labeling ($\chi^2 = 0.603$, $p = 0.437$).

4.3 Findings on specific metadiscourse functions

In this section, the numbers of metadiscourse between the two corpora are compared. Since the corpus sizes of both AWC (24,816 total word counts) and TWC (24,856 total word counts) were different, the raw frequencies of metadiscourse occurrences in both corpora could not be compared without standardization. In order to make the two sets of numerical data comparable, the raw numbers of metadiscourse occurrences were calculated into the same scale of frequency per 10,000 words. The standardized numbers of metadiscourse are shown in Table 4.2. The frequencies per 10,000 words of other sub-categories of TOM are shown in the following sub-sections of the five head categories.

Table 4.2 Frequency per 10,000 words of TOM in AWC and TWC

Category	<i>f</i> - 10,000 wds (raw frequency) TWC		<i>f</i> - 10,000 wds (raw frequency) AWC	
Discourse Act Labeling	25.0	(62)	21.0	(52)
Meaning Clarifying	18.1	(45)	7.7	(19)
Sub-topic Managing	12.0	(30)	12.8	(32)
Referring	3.6	(9)	3.2	(8)
Topic Managing	1.2	(3)	0.4	(1)
Grand totals	59.9	(149)	45.1	(112)

By converting the raw numbers of metadiscourse occurrences into the same standardized scale of frequency per 10,000 words, it can be seen in the Table 4.2 that the overall frequencies of the TOM functions in TWC occurred 14.8 more times than in AWC when the texts progressed with the rate up to every 10,000 words.

A closer look into each category of functions revealed that for every 10,000 words in TWC there were 4 more metadiscourse occurrences of Discourse Act

Labeling, 11 more of Meaning Clarifying, 0.4 more of Referring, and 0.8 more of Topic Managing than in AWC. However, it was only Sub-topic Managing where occurrences of metadiscourse were found to be greater in AWC (0.8) than in TWC for every 10,000 words.

More quantitative and qualitative details on each of the sub-functions of TOM are described as in the following sub-sections.

4.3.1. Meaning Clarifying

Meaning Clarifying metadiscourse, according to its function, is used for explaining certain meanings of some parts of texts. It is used to illuminate textual meanings from the lexical to the inter-sentential level. Another label for this metadiscourse that can be found in other research is *reformulators*, *code glosses* or *glosses*. More explanations of the function of Meaning Clarifying as well as other functions are provided in Appendix B.

Table 4.3 Frequency of Meaning Clarifying

	TWC		AWC	
	f-10,000	raw frequency	f-10,000	raw frequency
Meaning Clarifying	18.1	45	7.7	19

Meaning Clarifying was the only text-organizing function where the difference in frequency distribution between the two groups was the greatest (about 10 f-10,000 more in TWC than in AWC). Further, the outcome of the statistical test indicated a significant difference in the frequencies of metadiscourse between the groups of American and Thai journalistic writers: $\chi^2 (1, n = 261) = 6.053, p = 0.014$, with the interpretation being that the difference in the distributional frequency of metadiscourse correlated with nations.

A distinct difference in the use of Meaning Clarifying between both groups of writers was found with the metadiscourse marker *call*. Though both groups shared commonality in the use of *call* for giving definitions of particular semantic units in discourse, it was found that Thai writers used *call* when they wanted to suggest an implicit critique of what they were talking about in texts, whereas American journalists did not use this strategy.

The verb “call,” as a metadiscourse function for meaning-clarifying, was used for commenting on some aspects of the meaning of the discourse, especially by defining with a noun or noun phrase, as in, *a new imperialistic tendency called corporate imperialism* [TH 30], or *Er, I think it's called a prison, a correctional facility,...* [TH 1]. Both groups of writers similarly used *call* for illuminating the meaning of what they were talking about by referring to things (*corporate imperialism* or *prison*) that everyone in general could understand.

Drawing on contextual analysis, it was revealed that the metadiscourse marker ‘*call*’ used by Thai journalists usually occurred when they implicitly criticized the persons or things they wrote about. Consider the following extract 4.1 and 4.2 below.

(4.1)

After May 30, the country will witness the return of only a handful of qualified politicians. The rest are really difficult to justify being called Grade A. They were unexpected victims of Thaksin's decision to put a bunch of his loyalists on TRT's executive in order to please them. [TH 2]

(4.2)

As I left the October 14 Memorial, the commemoration was coming to an end. The red shirts started to leave. If there is such a thing called the “October spirit”, an openness to different opinions, then I hardly noticed it at the red gathering there. [TH 3]

In contrast, the occurrence of this metadiscourse marker by American writers was used for clarifying meaning, as in *I was what is sometimes called “voluntarily poor.”* [AM 19]; or in the extract 4.3 below:

(4.3)

Flynn argues that I.Q. is rising because in industrialized societies we give our brains a constant mental workout that builds up what we might call our brain sinews. [AM 13]

There were 5 cases of *call* (out of 7 instances) that were used in association with implicit critique in TWC, but none of this metadiscursive style in AWC (where 2 cases of *call* were used for only making meaning clearer).

4.3.2 Referring

Referring is a metadiscourse for making text-internal references. There are three sub-functions of Referring metadiscourse: Endophorics (referring to the present time and location in text), Anaphorics (referring backward), and Cataphorics (referring forward).

Table 4.4 Frequency of Referring

	TWC		AWC	
	f-10,000	raw frequency	f-10,000	raw frequency
Endophorics	0.4	1	1.2	3
Anaphorics	2.8	7	1.2	3
Cataphorics	0.4	1	0.8	2
Total	3.6	9	3.2	8

In making internal references in written discourse of this specific genre, all types of phoric markers were rarely used, with no more than ten occurrences in both corpora. No significant difference was shown according to the outcome of the statistical test: $\chi^2(1, n = 216) = 0.128, p = 0.721$.

Like the quantitative feature, no distinct difference was found in the styles of linguistic forms between the two corpora.

4.3.3 Sub-topic Managing

Sub-topic Managing is a metadiscourse function serving the duty of organizing units of minor topics in texts. It can be considered as a kind of phoric, or point in texts, but its function is not for managing reference to a particular point as that of the previous Referring function. There are three separate sub-functions for managing the minor topics in text: *Topic Shift markers* (raising up new relevant issue), *Sequence Markers* (transferring points in texts), and *Closing Markers* (concluding idea of a particular sub-topic).

Table 4.5 Frequency of Sub-topic Managing

	TWC		AWC	
	f-10,000	raw frequency	f-10,000	raw frequency
Topic Shift Markers	4.4	11	1.2	3
Sequence Markers	7.2	18	10.4	26
Enumerating	6	4	7.2	8
Enumerators	1.2	14	3.2	18
Closing Markers	0.4	1	1.2	3
Total	12	30	12.8	32

In the table above, it is revealed that the metadiscourse sub-function of Sequence Markers was the metadiscourse function that was used most among all the sub-topic managing functions in both corpora. Distinct differences could be perceived in the frequencies of the function of the Topic Shift Markers between the two corpora, with there being 3.2 f-10,000 (or 8 items) more items in TWC than in AWC.

The result of the chi-square test on Sub-topic Managing revealed that there was no significant difference in the metadiscourse frequencies between the

groups: $\chi^2(1, n = 216) = 2.513; p = 0.113$.

The stylistic features of each sub-function are described with quantitative information in more detail in the following.

4.3.3.1 Topic shift markers

Table 4.5 revealed that there were 4.4 f-10,000 (or 11 occurrences) Topic Shift Markers in total. The constructs [On + subject matter, ...], as in *On fiscal policy, ...; On the monetary policy, ...; On the Palestinian issue*, were found more in TWC (2.8 f-10,000; or 7 occurrences) than in AWC (0.4 f-10,000; or just 1 occurrence). Moreover, Thai writers also used questions to mark a shift of topic before they gave more details about it. The questions were initiated with *What about* + a subject matter, as in *What about this third wave, information technology? There's no doubt that Asians want ...* [TH 17]. In AWC, on the other hand, the employment of this interrogative strategy to shift the topic was not found.

4.3.3.2 Sequence markers

In both corpora, the number of texts in which the metadiscourse function of Sequence Markers was used was similar: 6 articles in AWC, and 5 in TWC. Moreover, out of these texts, there was one article in both corpora where the Sequence Markers were overloaded, with 3.6 f-10,000 (or 9 items) being found in one article in AWC, and 2.4 f-10,000 (or 6 items) in one article in TWC. In the other texts, the Sequence Markers detected were not more than 1.2 f-10,000 (or 3 items).

Regarding *Enumerating*, a distinct stylistic difference was found in the interactional aspects of enumerating expressions. In AWC, the writers enumerated points in a rather implicit way as compared to the Thai writers. They did not tell the reader explicitly that they were enumerating, as in *I will begin by*

acknowledging several good points [AM 3], *Let's me clear up a few misconceptions* [AM 7]. In contrast, a Thai writer stated explicitly the act of enumerating: *There are two points I'd like to make about ...; This question brings us to my second point* [TH 12]. There were 1.6 f-10,000 (or 4 cases) items of implicit enumerating with interactional aspect being found in AWC, but none in TWC. On the other hand, the instances of explicit enumerating with the interactional dimension were found at 0.8-f 10,000 (or 2 cases) in TWC but none in AWC.

Regarding the Enumerators, on the other hand, the repetitive uses of the construct: enumerators + noun + be, as in *the second challenge is ...*, *the third challenge is ...*, *the fourth challenge is ...*, were found only in TWC in only one article. However, this construct was not found across texts in AWC.

4.3.3.3 Closing markers

Closing Markers were found more in AWC (1.2 f-10,000; or 3 occurrences) than in TWC (0.4 f-10,000; or 1 occurrence), but the numbers of these discourse functional markers were too few in either corpus to suggest a significant difference. For the qualitative features of this metadiscourse, the linguistic resources employed as concluding remarks for sub-topic were not different from ordinary concluding markers for the whole essay (In conclusion, To conclude, To summarize, etc.). The Closing Markers identified in both corpora were used in the form of a sentence or sentence adverb: *And that is the final point; In short, ...; All this said, ...; and Finally, ...*.

4.3.4 Topic Managing

Topic Managing is a metadiscourse function that is used to organize texts at a higher level of discourse than the previous metadiscourse function of Sub-

topic Managing. It deals with a discourse unit of the whole text or a complete article. There are three sub-functions of Topic Managing metadiscourse: *Contextualizing*, *Introducing Topic*, and *Concluding Topic*. Contextualizing and Introducing Topic are strategies that the writer uses to give more information about the topic of the article she writes, whereas the Concluding Topic is for making a conclusion about the whole article.

Table 4.6 Frequency of Topic Managing

	TWC		AWC	
	f-10,000	raw frequency	f-10,000	raw frequency
Contextualizing	0.4	1	0.4	1
Introducing Topic	0	0	0	0
Concluding Topic	0.8	2	0	0
Total	1.2	3	0.4	1

Among the five functions of TOM, Topic Managing was the metadiscourse function that occurred the least in both corpora. The results of the chi-square test did not show a significant difference in the frequencies of this metadiscourse function between the corpora: $\chi^2(1, n = 216) = 0.532, p = 0.466$.

For Contextualizing, there was one metadiscursive item found in both corpora. No metadiscourse instances were found at all in the category of Introducing Topic in either corpus. Regarding Concluding Topic, it was only in TWC that two metadiscourse items were identified. Both corpora were similar in terms of the very rare occurrences of this metadiscourse function.

The stylistic features of each sub-function are described with quantitative information under the following subheadings.

4.3.4.1 Contextualizing

There was only one text in each corpus where the writer contextualized for the reader her article by providing some information about the topic. An American writer performed this function by giving the reason why she chose the topic to write about (*I am bring this up because ...* [AM 6]), whereas in TWC, a Thai journalist chose to describe a socio-economic situation at the time when she wrote her article (*Just as I am writing this piece, the local capital market is filled with interesting developments* [TH 22]). Because of the very rare instances of this metadiscourse function, a claim could not be made that significant different styles between TWC and AWC actually existed.

4.3.4.2 Introducing Topic

There were no occurrence of this metadiscourse function in either corpus.

4.3.4.3 Concluding Topic

Concluding Topic instances, on the other hand, was found only in TWC, with two items of common metadiscourse markers: *In sum* and *In conclusion*.

4.3.5 Discourse Act Labeling

Discourse Act Labeling deals with speech acts of writing that the writer performs in composing written discourses. For Discourse Act Labeling, there are three sub-divisions of metadiscourse sub-functions: the act of exemplifying (Exemplifying), the act of using questions and answers to develop textual progression (Question and Answer), and other speech acts (Other Speech Acts) concerning the

writing of newspaper opinion articles, such as the act of articulating (to mention, say, tell etc.), the act of arguing (to argue, discuss, acknowledge etc.), or the act of composing (to write).

Table 4.7 Frequency of Discourse Acts Labeling

	TWC		AWC	
	f-10,000	raw frequency	f-10,000	raw frequency
Exemplifying	14.6	36	14.1	35
Question and Answer	6	15	2.5	6
Other Speech Acts	4.4	11	4.4	11
Total	25	62	21	52

Among the TOM functions, Discourse Act Labeling was used most by both groups of writers. Among the three sub-functions, Exemplifying metadiscourse occurred most and the number of occurrences in both corpora was similar. As for Question and Answer, the sheer difference in the frequencies of the metadiscourse was observable whereas the number of Other Speech Acts was the same. The chi-square test results indicated that there was no significant difference in the frequency distribution between the groups of writers: $\chi^2(1, n = 216) = 0.603, p = 0.437$.

The stylistic features of each sub-function are described with quantitative information in detail under the following subheadings.

4.3.5.1 Exemplifying

Exemplifying metadiscourse was distributed across both corpora at relatively the same frequencies. Both corpora shared similar exemplifying metadiscourse instances: *for example*, *for instance*, *such as*, and *like*. See (4.4) and (4.5) below for examples of the metadiscourse of exemplifying.

(4.4)

As the founder of a charter school network in Harlem, I've seen firsthand the nuances inherent in teacher evaluation. A few years ago, *for instance*, we decided not to renew the contract of one of our teachers... [AM 10]

(4.5)

Several other stimulus measures, *such as* the tax incentive schemes for first-time homebuyers and soft loans for flood victims, will also expire soon

However, the qualitative features of this metadiscourse function showed a difference in word selection. The Exemplifying metadiscourse maker “say” as in, *Imagine what would have happened during the recession if, say, food stamps — now known as SNAP (Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program) — were a fixed block grant to states, as Romney envisions* [AM 17], was found to be used only in AWC (2.4 f- 10,000; or 6 occurrences); on the other hand, no occurrence of *say* as Exemplifying metadiscourse was detected in TWC.

4.3.5.2 Question and Answer

Unlike Exemplifying, no stylistic difference was found in the metadiscursive expressions for the act of questioning and answering. Both corpora shared the same linguistic forms, that is, the words *question* and *answer*. Consider extract (4.6) and (4.7) for examples of Question and Answer.

(4.6)

Is experience in running a large corporation a reliable qualification indicator for running a country and its economy? Not necessarily. Why? *The short answer is* that a country is not a large corporation. [TH 18]

(4.7)

“Will it be a transition to a clean energy future, or does it defer a clean energy future?” That is *the question* — because natural gas is still a fossil fuel. [AM 5]

4.3.5.3 Other Speech Acts

In terms of stylistic features, the speech acts in the writing that the writers in both groups performed were similar to each other in terms of semantics since the meaning scope of the speech acts in both corpora did not vary.

For AWC, the semantic scope could be grouped into five categories: articulating (*not to mention, to say the least, tell, say*); arguing (*acknowledge, discuss, point out, dismiss*); marking (*it's worth noting that ...*); writing (*write*); explaining (*let me clear up some few misconception*). In (4.8) below can be seen an example of Other Speech Acts in AWC.

(4.8)

Amid all the grim economic news from Europe, it's worth noting that there are also some success stories. [AM 25]

In TWC, there were six domains of meaning: arguing (*assume, it can be argued that, there is a counter-argument, I dare say*); articulating (*say, talk*); marking (*it is important/interesting to note ...*); writing (*writing*); explaining (*explain*); adding (*Adding to the fact that...*). Extract (4.9) presents an example of Other Speech Acts in TWC.

(4.9)

Another difference between business strategy and economic analysis is that businesspeople are accustomed to thinking about open systems while economists are used to thinking about closed systems and their respective feedback implications. This explains why economists generally see policy ... differently from businesspeople. [TH 18]

4.4 Conclusion

At the general level, there was no significant difference in the frequency of metadiscourse functions in either group of writers. Looking more closely into each sub-function, however, the chi-square test results indicated that there was a significant difference in the metadiscourse frequencies of Meaning Clarifying function between both groups. Regarding the styles of metadiscursive expressions between both groups, certain differences were found in the use of some metadiscourse functions, such as the use of *call* as Meaning Clarifying metadiscourse to suggest the implicit critique of persons or things in only TWC (See 4.3.1), enumerating expressions with the interactional feature in only AWC (See 4.3.3), and *say* as Exemplifying metadiscourse in only AWC (See 4.3.5). However, the different features found in the style of the metadiscursive expressions were too few, as compared to the overall size of the corpora, to claim that they were distinctively different. It hence can be concluded that though some variations in the metadiscursive styles were detected, they were merely slight differences. To sum, the quantitative and stylistic features of the TOM functions were found to be rather commonly shared between both groups of journalistic writers than distinctively differentiated with unique metadiscursive characteristics.

Discussion of the findings of TOM is done in Chapter 6.

CHAPTER 5

FINDINGS: READER-INTERACTING METADISCOURSE

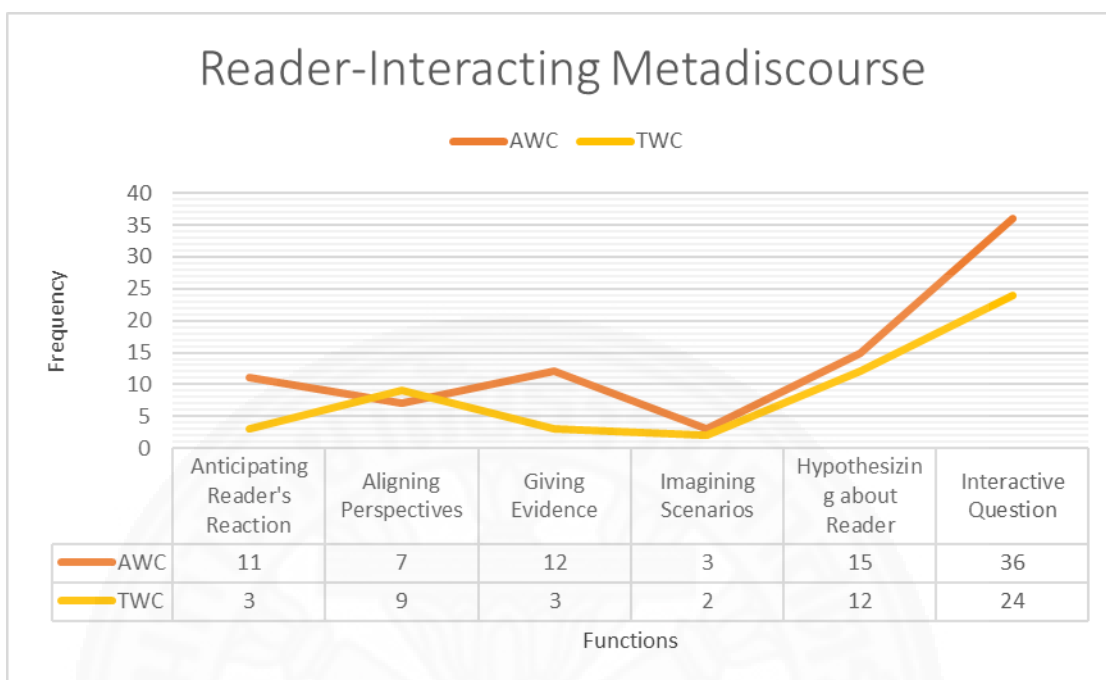
5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the findings on reader-interacting metadiscourse (RIM) are reported. Both quantitative and qualitative features of RIM are described. Reader-interacting metadiscourse is a category of discourse functions that the writer uses in her writing to have interaction with the reader. The sub-functions of RIM represent the types of interaction that the writer has with the reader. In section 5.2, the general findings on the frequencies of RIM functions in both corpora are presented with charts and tables, and described in contrast. In section 5.3, more details on the quantitative and stylistic features of each of specific sub-functions of RIM are given. In the last section, the results of RIM are concluded. Discussion of the results of RIM is presented in the next chapter.

5.2 General findings

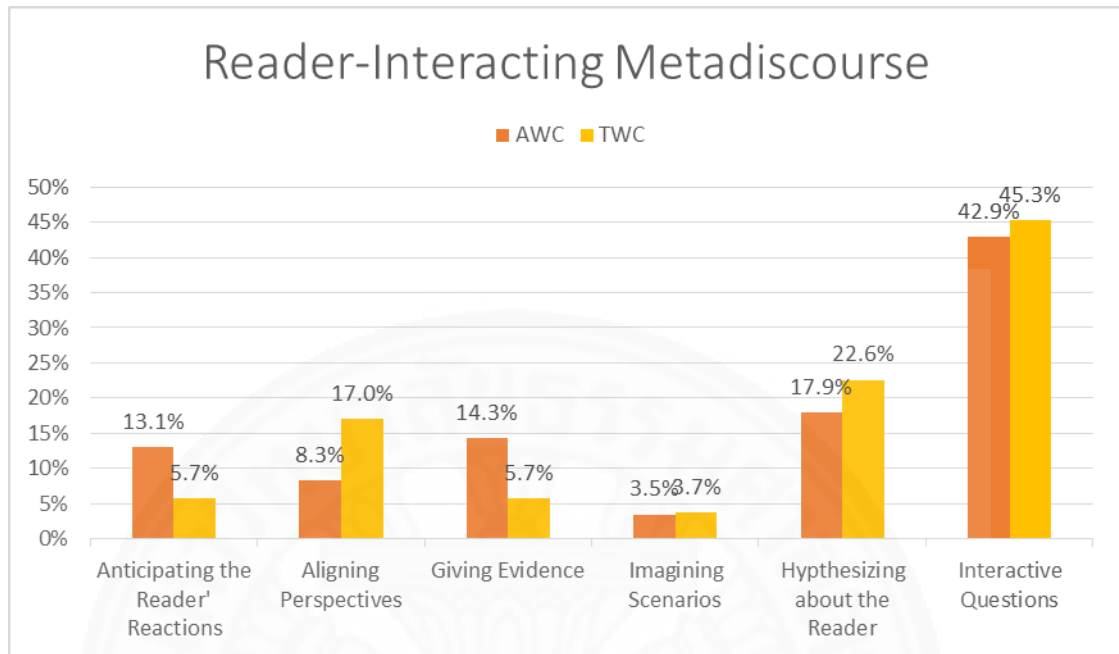
Unlike TOM, there is no non-interactional dimension of RIM; for RIM, all functions are viewed only from an interactional perspective. The raw frequencies of RIM across the texts in both corpora were contrasted according to Research Question 1, which was addressed to see whether there was any significant difference in the frequency distribution of the metadiscourse functions. The contrasts of the frequencies of all functions of RIM are displayed in Figure 5.1 below.

Figure 5.1 Distribution of reader-interacting metadiscourse



In order to see the differences in terms of the rank order of the frequencies of metadiscourse between both corpora, the raw frequencies of each type of metadiscourse functions were computed into percentages and are presented in Figure 5.2. After that, the results of the statistical tests on the significant differences of the frequencies of the RIM function between both corpora are reported.

Figure 5.2 Reader-interacting metadiscourse in percentages across corpora



Imagining Scenarios.

Giving Evidence ranked third in AWC, whereas Aligning Perspectives occupied this rank in TWC.

As for the next two ranks, the table revealed that in AWC Anticipating the Reader's Reactions was fourth ranked, and Aligning Perspective was at the fifth rank. In TWC, on the other hand, it was Anticipating the Reader's Reactions and Giving Evidence that occupied the fourth and fifth rank, with the same percentage.

According to the results of the statistical test, at the overall level there was no significant difference indicated for the RIM function at the level of 0.05, $\chi^2(5, n = 137) = 6.472, p = 0.263$.

When chi-square tests were performed for each of the sub-functions between AWC and TWC, no significant difference was reported at the level of 0.05:

Anticipating the Reader's Reactions, $\chi^2(1, n = 137) = 1.958, p = 0.162$; Aligning

Perspectives, $\chi^2(1, n = 137) = 2.356, p = 0.125$; Giving Evidence, $\chi^2(1, n = 137) = 2.480, p = 0.115$; Imagining Scenarios, $\chi^2(1, n = 137) = 0.004, p = 0.951$; Hypothesizing about the Reader, $\chi^2(1, n = 137) = 0.470, p = 0.493$; and Interactive Question, $\chi^2(1, n = 137) = 0.078, p = 0.780$.



5.3 Findings on specific metadiscourse functions

In this section, the numbers of metadiscourse between both corpora are compared. For the comparability of the frequencies of the metadiscourse in different

corpora, raw numbers were calculated in the same scale of frequency per 10,000 words, as shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1 Frequency per 10,000 words of RIM in AWC and TWC

Category	<i>f</i> - 10,000 (raw frequency) AWC		<i>f</i> - 10,000 (raw frequency) TWC	
Interactive Questions	14.5	(36)	9.7	(24)
Hypothesizing about the Reader	6.1	(15)	4.8	(12)
Giving Evidence	4.8	(12)	1.2	(3)
Anticipating the Reader's Reactions	4.4	(11)	1.2	(3)
Aligning Perspectives	2.8	(7)	3.6	(9)
Imagining Scenarios	1.2	(3)	0.8	(2)
Grand totals	33.8	(84)	21.3	(53)

By converting raw numbers of metadiscourse occurrences into the same standardized scale of frequency per 10,000 words, it can be seen in Table 5.1 that the overall frequencies of the RIM functions in AWC occurred 12.5 more times than in TWC when the texts progressed at the rate of every 10,000 words. More quantitative and qualitative details on each of the sub-functions of RIM are described in the following sub-sections.

A closer look into each category of function revealed that, for every 10,000 words, there were more occurrences of metadiscourse function in AWC than in TWC: 4.8 more occurrences of Interactive Questions; 1.3 more of Hypothesizing about the Reader; 3.6 more of Giving Evidence; 3.2 more of Anticipating the Reader's Reactions; and 0.4 more of Imagining Scenarios. The exception was to Aligning Perspectives that there were more 3.5 occurrence of metadiscourse in TWC than in AWC.

5.3.1 Anticipating the Reader's Reactions

Regarding the persuasive effects, Anticipating the Reader's Reactions was strategically used for forestalling the reader's possible objections to the writer's arguments in the texts. In rhetorics, it is called *prolepsis*, which can be presented in several ways: verbal and non-verbal styles, or interactional and non-interactional features, for example. For the present research, the focus of the study was placed only on the interactional metadiscursive aspects.

Based on the findings, Anticipating the Reader's Reaction was found to occur more in AWC than in TWC. The numbers of metadiscourse occurrences in both corpora were not large (AWC, 4.4 f-10,000 words or 11 occurrences; TWC, 1.2 f-10,000 or 3 occurrences). The interpretation could be made from the findings that American writers employed this argument tactic more in an interactional manner in their writings than the Thais did, though no significant differences in frequency distribution between the two groups were indicated by the results of the statistical test.

As the number of metadiscourse in TWC was too few, it could not be interpreted with confidence that there were differences in styles or linguistic forms with this metadiscourse. One common feature of Anticipating the Reader's Reactions that was found in both AWC and TWC was interrogation, which the writer said what she guessed about the reader's mind as in *Opt out of Google's data collection? Sure, you can do that — but you'll also have to delete ...* [AM 2]; *Sounds like WikiLeaks? Think again. It's ObamaLeaks.* [AM 27]; *Confused? My question from real life is ...* [TH 20].

Another frequent style of using Anticipating the Reader's Reactions was the direct address to the reader with second personal pronoun *you*, followed by

the verb *think*, as in *You would think that a casino owner would know ...* [AM 6]; *You thought our problem were political?* [AM 23].

5.3.2 Aligning Perspectives

Aligning Perspectives is one of the tactics that the writer employs to convince the reader about her argument in an implicit way. The voice of this implicit conviction can be captured by the use of personal metadiscourse pronoun “we,” which is usually followed by modal plus cognitive verbs, as in *based on x, we can predict that ...*; *From x we can see/agree/expect*; *Today we have seen ...*; *Clearly we were all ...* . Through this kind of expression, the reader is unwarily forced to agree with what the writer proposes.

The findings showed similarities in both the quantity and quality of the use of this metadiscourse function by both groups. The numbers of Aligning Perspectives metadiscourse function were found to be slightly greater in TWC (3.6 f-10,000 or 9 occurrences) than in AWC (2.8 f-10,000 or 7 occurrences). The results of the statistical test indicated that there was no significant difference between the two groups.

For the qualitative features, on the other hand, both groups shared similarities in the use of language. The strength of the persuasive effect was emphasized by *all (we all)* or adverbs such as *clearly, today*, which implied that there were some particular facts or truths that everyone shared in common, suggesting that the writer and the reader were in the same group, or presupposing that they all knew that something was true and thus undeniable. An example is shown in extract 5.1 below.

(5.1)

Based on this simple biological truth, we can predict with some certainty that our leaders will follow the example of the Mayan, Roman and Khmer civilizations, and more recently, Greece and Spain: They will run the clock out. [AM 23]

The writer used this metadiscursive expression to present a fact that everyone would agree on before making a claim. In this way, this metadiscourse function is one of several ways that the writer uses for making a sound argument.

5.3.3 Giving Evidence

Giving Evidence is used to present supporting evidence to the writer's argument in the evolving discourse. Though the metadiscourse taxonomy of the present study was built upon the metadiscourse model of Ädel (2006 and 2010), there was no function of Giving Evidence in the original model. Giving Evidence was added to the present study's metadiscourse category because there were recurrent occurrences of this function in the newspaper opinion articles. Hence, the present researcher proposed it as one of the metadiscourse functions in metadiscourse taxonomy (see 7.2 in Chapter 7 for the limitations on the construction of taxonomy of metadiscourse function of the present study). Giving Evidence is operated by an imperative. In this way the interaction takes place between the writer and the reader. See the following extract below.

(5.2)

Sweden. To many Americans, Sweden is a bloated, inefficient welfare state. But the reality and the stereotype don't match.

Look at the record.

Sweden's job growth (as a percentage) rivals Germany's since 2006; present unemployment at 7.5 percent is low among advanced economies; inflation averages about 2 percent; economic growth in the past five years slightly exceeds Germany's; and government debt as a share of the economy is lower than Germany's, ... [AM 25]

Giving Evidence was another interactional metadiscourse function where the difference between the numbers of metadiscourse occurrences were observable (AWC, 4.8 f-10,000 or 12 items; TWC, 1.2 f-10,000 or 3 items). The proportion of this metadiscourse of AWC to TWC was similar to that of Anticipating the Reader's Reactions. When the frequencies were converted into the scale of frequency per 10,000 words, it could be seen that the metadiscourse function was distributed at a low level across texts in both corpora. However, in AWC the occurrences of this metadiscourse were more interspersed across texts in the corpus than in TWC. Out of 30 articles in AWC, there were 8 texts (8 writers) in which this metadiscourse function was found. In contrast, out of 30 articles in TWC, there was only 1 text (1 writer) where this function was identified. It could be inferred that Giving Evidence is more commonly used among American journalist writers since there were more varieties of writers adopting this interactional rhetoric feature in their argumentative writing. Yet, according to the chi-square test, there was no significant difference in the frequencies of this metadiscourse function for either corpus.

Most of the instances of this metadiscourse were identified by the imperative form of verb "*consider*" followed by a noun, noun phrase, or a paragraph of supporting details or even a short story. There were 8 items of the construct (*consider* + NP) found across both corpora (6 in AWC and 2 in TWC). Other

expressions could be found as well to give the same effect such as *Guess ...; Look at the record; let's put what we know on the table.*

5.3.4 Imagining Scenarios

Imagining Scenarios is used to tell the reader to visualize what the writer has imagined. The picture that the reader sees is in fact plotted by the writer and used for persuasive effect. Imagination can be used as an introduction to her discussion or as potential supporting details for her argument.

Imagining Scenarios was found to be used the least among the six sub-functions in both corpora; 1.2 f-10,000 or 3 expressions were identified in AWC and 0.8 f-10,000 or 2 expressions in TWC. According to the outcome of the statistical test, there was no significant difference between the numbers of Imagining Scenarios in either group of writers.

Regarding the qualitative features, both groups of writers also shared the similarities in the use of this metadiscourse. The result of the textual analysis revealed that Imagining Scenarios was usually followed by an if-clause. The use of it with the conditional if-clause was attributable to the writer's intention to have her reader seriously consider an unavoidable outcome if something would happen in the future or would have happened in the past. Consider extract (5.3 and 5.4)

(5.3)

Imagine what would have happened during the recession if, say, food stamps — now known as SNAP (Supplemental Nutrition Assistance Program) — were a fixed block grant to states, as Romney envisions. [AM 17]

(5.4)

The fear of opening up dialogue to express one's opinion is far more dangerous and is in fact the real threat to national security. *Imagine*: What if the people of this country couldn't produce any kind of art to examine their past, and what if all newspapers were not allowed to talk about the red-shirt movement or the pro-democracy student uprisings of the past? [TH 21]

For another feature of Imagining Scenarios, it was found that this function was usually followed by description, as shown in the following extracts 5.5, and 5.6

(5.5)

Imagine there was an organization that serially leaked the nation's most highly protected secrets — exposing intelligence sources and methods, and sharing classified information with the press that put lives at risk. Sounds like WikiLeaks? Think again. It's ObamaLeaks. [AM 27]

(5.6)

Picture two men talking. The one that haunches his back and shoulders, hands folded meekly across his pelvis (in a metaphorical effort to protect his last manly possession, his jewel box, as social norms have already given his dignity to the phuyai) and head nodding rhythmically once every three to five seconds, with lips muttering dutifully, "khrap, khrap, khrap, khrap".

Yes, you have either witnessed this scene or been a part of it before. [TH 04]

In extract 5.5, the writer used this metadiscourse function in the leading paragraph to usher the reader into her argument. The topic of the writing was reintroduced by question and answer: *Sound like WikiKeaks? Think again. It's ObamaLeaks*. In the

following extract, 5.6, the reader's imagination was initiated by the writer's description before the reader was brought into the writer's claim that what she had narrated was the fact that everyone could not disagree.

5.3.5 Hypothesizing about the Reader

Hypothesizing about the Reader is a metadiscourse function that the writer employs to interact with the reader by making a judgment about the reader's certain qualities, abilities or experiences relevant to the issue in her writing. In all metadiscursive expressions of Hypothesizing about the Reader, there must be the pronoun "you," referring to the actual reader of the article.

Hypothesizing about the Reader was identified more in AWC than in TWC, but the difference in numbers was not huge (AWC, 6.1 f-10,000 or 15 occurrences; TWC, 4.8 f-10,000 or 12 occurrences). In addition, this metadiscourse function was detected in more texts in AWC (7 articles, or 7 writers) than in TWC (4 articles, or 4 writers). From this, it can be interpreted that this metadiscourse function is more commonly used by American writers than their Thai counterparts.

Hypothesizing about the Reader was used in similar ways between the two groups. The function could be used by assuming some hypotheses regarding one of the reader's characteristics, identities or experiences. Across both corpora, the expressions of this metadiscourse function were usually found in an if-clause or when some conditions were proposed in the writer's argument, as in extracts 5.7 and 5.8.

(5.7)

IF you live in New York, commute to New York, or occasionally visit what Russell Shorto called the island at the center of the world, you have experienced the indignity of our city's transportation hell. You have endured the screeching,

flood-prone subways. You have surrendered exorbitant carfare to escape our eyesore airports, then lurched along congested highways, over creaking bridges and into our truck-clotted city streets. You have dodged the camping homeless at the Port Authority bus terminal, or wandered lost in the miasmal misery of Pennsylvania Station. New York City [AM 15]

(5.8)

When introduced to someone who is referred to as "khun", you might breathe a sigh of relief because this means you do not have to grab your jewel box. But if that someone is referred to as a "tan", you know the dude is a high-and-mighty superior and that you should wipe your sweaty palms [TH 4]

In another case, the interaction with the reader using this metadiscourse function was found in the answer that the writer gave to the question used to anticipate the reader's reaction, as in extract 5.9.

(5.9)

For now, Google uses the data to sell targeted ads, but who says the company's use of the data will be restricted to that purpose? Opt out of Google's data collection? Sure, you can do that — but you'll also have to delete your Gmail account and leave Google's ecosystem. [AM 2]

According to extract 5.9, the writer anticipated what the reader had thought by posing a question, and then by answering that question, she made a judgment on the action that the reader was supposed to take.

5.3.6 Interactive Questions

In the present study, types of question were divided into three functions. One is for facilitating the progression of text. Another one is for expressing opinions, or so-called rhetorical questions. The last one is the questions expressing

doubts (see examples of rhetorical questions and questions expressing doubts in Appendix B.). Interactive Questions are principally used for text progression. This metadiscourse function was not present in Ädel's metadiscourse models. It was added to the present study's metadiscourse taxonomy because of the present researcher's personal observation on the frequent occurrences of this type of question in opinion articles. One of the common characteristics of Interactive Questions is that the answer is provided immediately after the question has been addressed by the writer herself.

Interactive Questions were found to occur the most among other functions of RIM in both corpora, with more frequency in AWC (14.5 f-10,000 or 36 items) than in TWC (9.7 f-10,000 or 24 items). From this it can be interpreted that it is more commonly used by American journalists than their Thai counterparts. Though the difference in the numbers of this metadiscourse function between the two corpora was evidently wide, the results of the statistical test showed no statistically-significant difference.

Since the function is fixed to text-progression and the form is restricted to only the interrogative, no differences were found in the styles of language use of this metadiscourse function. As noted above, Interactive Questions are a kind of question set for facilitating the progression of the text; it must be immediately followed by an answer. An example of an Interactive Question is shown by the extract 5.10 below.

(5.10)

Will frustrated lecturers work well for their class? The answer in a large number of cases is probably "no". Yet, many

educational institutes have now left a large number of their teaching staff in frustration [TH 23]

Moreover, questions in headlines are also considered as Interactive Questions since the answer is given in whole text connected to the headline.

5.4 Conclusion

To sum, in this section the results of RIM for both quantitative and stylistic features have been reported. At a general level, the statistical test results revealed that in general there was no significant difference between the frequencies of metadiscourse functions between the two groups. For a closer observation, statistical tests were performed for each metadiscourse function for both groups. The results also revealed that there was no significant difference for any of the metadiscourse functions between the two groups. Regarding the stylistic features of the metadiscursive expressions, both groups shared similarities in the linguistic forms of metadiscourse. Though different uses of RIM were identified, the differences were small. Discussion of the results of RIM is presented in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

6.1 Introduction

Discussions on the results were made based on the two research questions. Research Question 1 inquires about the quantitative features of the metadiscourse frequency distributions of the two groups of writers: *Are the numbers of text-organizing and interaction-managing metadiscourse between American and Thai newspaper writers significantly different?* Discussions of the quantitative results of the study were separated into three sections: 6.2, 6.3, and 6.4. In section 6.2, discussion is made on the metadiscourse distributions of TOM and RIM at the overall level, and the ten metadiscourse functions that were not indicated with a significant difference at the specific level, according to the statistics. Section 6.3 is devoted to the discussion of the significant difference of Meaning Clarifying. As for section 6.4, other possible causes influencing the occurrences of metadiscourse in opinion articles are discussed.

Research Question 2, on the other hand, was posed to investigate the styles of metadiscursive language of both groups of writers, asking: *What are the different styles of language use of text-organizing and interaction-managing metadiscourse by both groups of writers?* Discussion of the differences in metadiscursive styles between both groups is made in the subsequent section, 6.5. For the last section, 6.6, a conclusion was made on the overall discussion in this chapter

6.2 Similarities of metadiscourse functions

According to the statistical test results, at the overall level, no significant difference was indicated for either the TOM or RIM functions between AWC and TWC. However, at a more specific level, when statistical tests were performed for each of the metadiscourse functions, it was the metadiscourse function of Meaning Clarifying that was indicated with a significant difference while the other ten metadiscourse functions were not significantly different.

The statistical test results can be interpreted that, at the overall level, the differences in metadiscourse frequencies of TOM and RIM functions between AWC and TWC occurred by chance and were not correlated with nations or the first languages of the groups. The same interpretation could be made as well with the result of each of the ten functions that was not indicated with significant differences by the statistics at a specific level. For Meaning Clarifying, see the next section, 6.3.

The distributional patterns of metadiscourse frequencies at both the overall level of the whole TOM and RIM functions and at the specific level of each of metadiscourse functions, except for Meaning Clarifying, of both AWC and TWC seemed to be similar. The influence of the newspaper genre was argued to be the main cause of the assumed similarities of the metadiscourse distributions between AWC and TWC.

Discussion of the similarities of metadiscourse distributions between AWC and TWC was divided into further four sub-sections. In the sub-section of **6.2.1 Metadiscourse contrasted across genres**, assumptions concerning the similarities of the metadiscourse in the opinion articles in both AWC and TWC were first ascertained by the results of the contrast of the metadiscourse frequencies in the

opinion articles with those in the texts of different genres.

In **6.2.2 General discussion**, the unique feature of the newspaper genre, which places emphasis on economy of expression, was argued to characterize the general language use in the newspaper texts, and the general language of newspapers in turn shapes the way that metadiscourse occurs in opinion articles. This characteristic language of newspaper was discussed as being shared internationally, and thus having an effect on similar distributional patterns of metadiscourse in both AWC and TWC.

As for **6.2.3 Specific discussion**, each of the ten metadiscourse functions that were indicated as not being significantly different according to the statistics was taken into the discussion one by one. The influence of genre on text production was used to explain the similarities of metadiscourse distributions in AWC and TWC, and the distinct differences in metadiscourse distributional patterns between the opinion articles and research texts.

In the last section **6.2.4 Conclusion**, a summary of the similarities of metadiscourse between AWC and TWC as discussed in this section was made.

Next, the contrast between metadiscourse frequencies in the newspaper opinion articles and those in texts of a different genre was demonstrated.

6.2.1 Metadiscourse contrasted across genres

The ascertainment of the similarities of metadiscourse distributions between AWC and TWC was done by contrasting the metadiscourse frequencies of the ten functions, where significant differences were not indicated by the statistical tests, in the opinion articles with those in the texts of a different genre, with the following hypothesis: If huge differences between the metadiscourse frequencies of

opinion article texts and those of texts of different genres are obvious, similarities in the metadiscourse frequencies in AWC and TWC can be assumed with certainty. The results of the contrast showed the following:

- The distributions of the metadiscourse frequencies were similar in the corpora of texts of the same genre.
- Characteristic distributional patterns of metadiscourse frequencies were distinguished between different corpora of texts of different genres.
- Metadiscourse frequencies were rather low in the opinion articles as contrasted with those in the research texts.

The contrast of frequency distributions of each metadiscourse function is displayed in the graph charts in Figure 6.1 and Figure 6.2. The overall picture of the contrast was drawn next in the subheading **Contrasts in summary**. However, before moving onto the contrast, there were five important points that first needed to be taken into account about the contrast.

One, it was unfortunate that there was little research where metadiscourse functions could be considered as equivalent to those of the present study. There were only four studies. These studies investigated metadiscourse in only academic genres with four types of texts: research articles of four academic disciplines (Hyland, 1998); L1 and L2 dissertations (Hyland and Tse, 2004); L1 and L2 university student argumentative essays (Ädel, 2006), and L1 and L2 biomedical research (Pérez-Llantada, 2010). In fact, there were studies on metadiscourse in newspaper comment articles, (Dafouz-Milne, 2003 and 2008; and Noorian and Biria, 2010). However, the numerical data regarding the metadiscourse frequencies of these

studies could not be contrasted with those of the present study due mainly to the fact that the taxonomies of the metadiscourse functions of these studies were based upon the interactive approach, which was different from the present study.

Two, the contrasts between the frequencies of the metadiscourse functions of the present study and those of other studies were separated into two, according to the distinct differences in the generic qualities of the texts. First, the contrast was made between the metadiscourse frequencies of opinion articles and those of research texts (in the studies of Hyland, Hyland and Tse, and Pérez-Llantada), and second, between those of opinion articles and those of university student essays (of Ädel's study).

This was because, though student essays and research (articles and graduate dissertations) could be labeled as belonging to the academic genre, they were yet distinctively different, especially in terms of both text forms (length and format) and the writer's professionalism (professional researchers vs. student writers).

Three, all frequencies of metadiscourse from different studies were standardized into the same scale of frequencies per 10,000 words, principally because the corpus size of each of these studies was different. Details on the use and alternations of the numerical data from other studies and other significant information about them are provided in Appendix C.

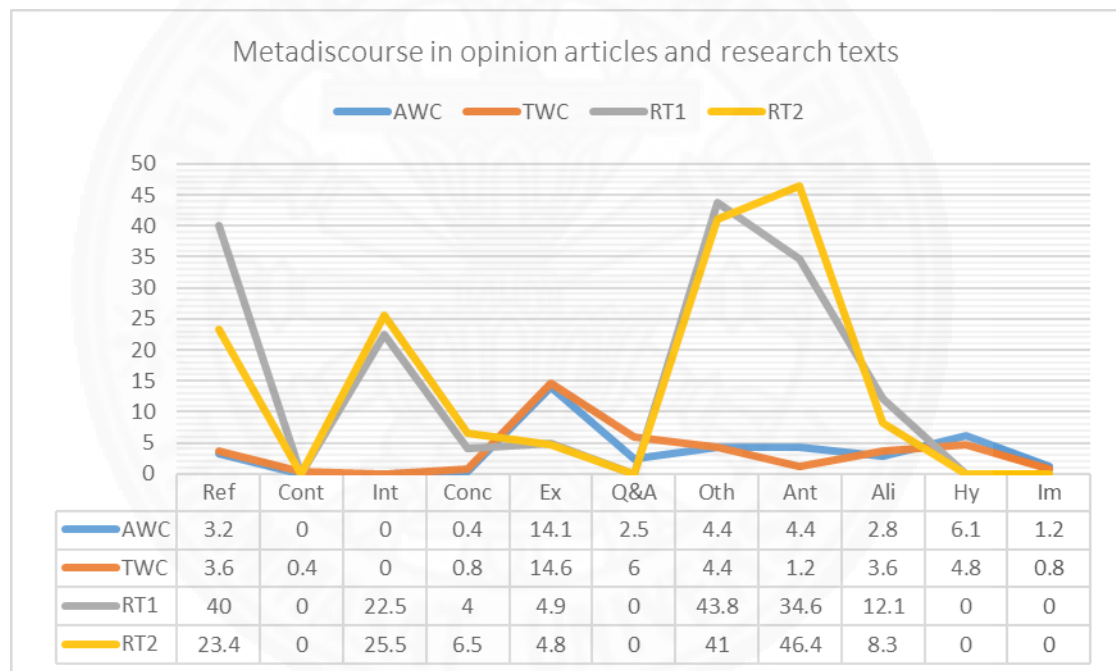
Four, not all of the functions or sub-functions could be taken into the contrast, since there were no counterpart functions found in other studies.

Five, the contrasts presented an approximate rather than accurate picture of the distributions of the metadiscourse functions. This was due mainly to the fact that there were some slight differences in each study in terms of functional

boundary of metadiscourse, the organization of the taxonomy of the metadiscourse functions, and the techniques for quantifying metadiscourse, for example.

Next are the two graph charts displaying the distributional patterns of the metadiscourse frequencies of the opinion articles in contrast with those of the research texts (Figure 6.1), and those of the university student essays (Figure 6.2).

Figure 6.1 The contrast of metadiscourse frequencies in opinion articles and research texts



Note: 1 Ref: Referring
Cont: Contextualizing
Int: Introducing
Conc: Concluding
Ex: Exemplifying
Q&A: Question and Answer
Oth: Other Speech Acts

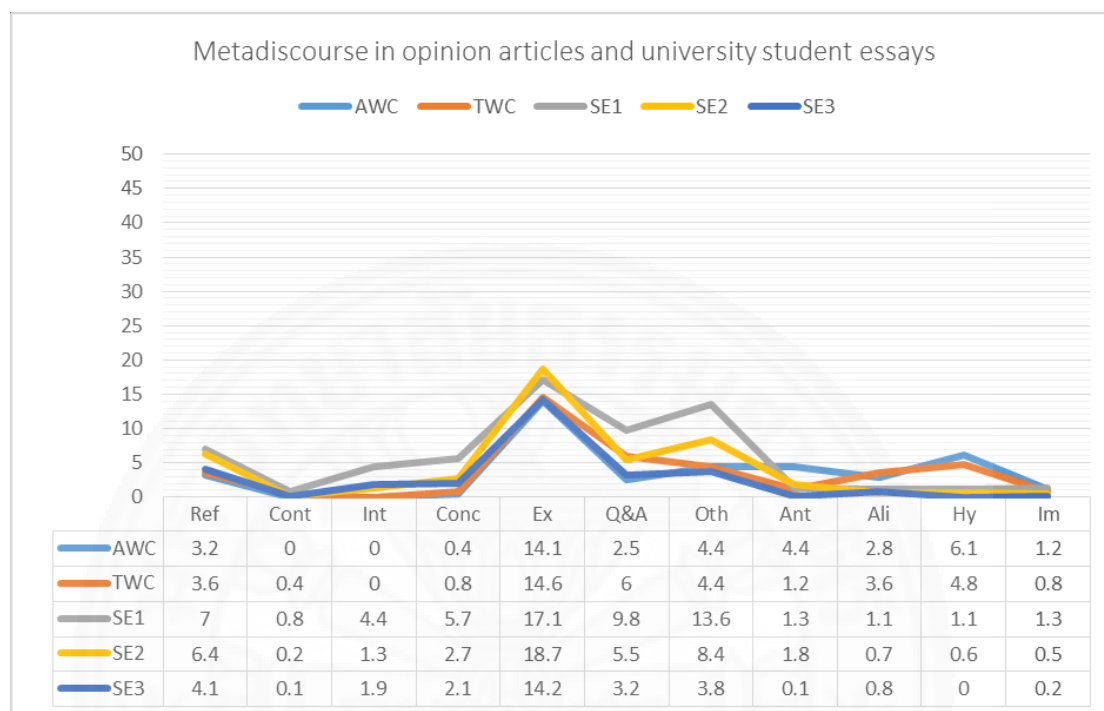
Ant: Anticipating Reader's Reaction
Ali: Aligning Perspectives
Hy: Hypothesizing about the Reader
Im: Imagining Scenarios

2 For Ref, RT1 refers to Hyland's (1998) metadiscourse frequencies in research articles; and RT2 refers to Hyland and Tse's (2004) metadiscourse frequencies in L2 Dissertations.

3 For other functions, RT1 refers to Pérez-Llantada's (2010) metadiscourse frequencies in the corpus of L1 American English biomedical research articles; and RT2 refers to Pérez-Llantada's (2010) metadiscourse frequencies in the corpus of L2 English biomedical research articles.

4 There were no functions of Contextualizing, Question & Answer, Hypothesizing about the Reader, and Imagining Scenarios reported in Pérez-Llantada's (2010) only.

Figure 6.2 The contrast of metadiscourse frequencies between opinion articles and university student essays



Note: SE1: Ädel's (2006) metadiscourse frequencies in the corpus of L2 English university student essays.

SE2: Ädel's (2006) metadiscourse frequencies in the corpus of L1 American English university student essays

SE3: Ädel's (2006) metadiscourse frequencies in the corpus of L1 British English university student essays

Contrast in summary

The previous contrasts showed that the metadiscourse frequencies were distributed in a characteristic manner according to the genre to which they belonged. Simply put, each genre characterized the distributional patterns of the metadiscourse. There were huge differences in the frequencies of most of the metadiscourse functions between the opinion articles and research texts. When contrasted with the research texts, the shapes of the metadiscourse distributions of AWC and TWC seemed to be similar and in a characteristic manner. Evidence supporting this can be seen in the

considerably lower numbers of the metadiscourse occurrences of Referring, Introducing, Concluding, Other Speech acts, Anticipating Reader's Reactions, and Aligning Perspectives, and the relatively higher number of metadiscourse occurrences of Exemplifying in AWC and TWC as contrasted with those in the research texts. On the other hand, when contrasted with the university student essays, the frequencies of most of the metadiscourse functions in both opinion articles and student essays were rather similar; yet, distinctions were still found with Other Speech Acts and Hypothesizing about the Reader. All of this indicates that a metadiscourse function in one genre is not necessarily distributed in a similar manner in another genre. To put it another way, metadiscourse functions varied differently according to genres, or genres affect the occurrence of metadiscourse functions in texts.

6.2.2 General discussion

In the General Discussion, genres were argued to have an influence on the similarities of the metadiscourse in the newspaper opinion articles. In brief, a genre is commonly known as a type or a category of text. However, the notion of genre is not perspectivized only as the typified forms of texts (such as sequences of rhetorical patterns of texts, or lexico-grammatical features commonly occurring in texts); it is also conceptualized as an abstract notion (Bawarshi and Reiff, 2010). As an abstract notion, genres are like “*orienting frameworks, interpretive procedures, and sets of expectations*” (Hanks, 1987; p. 670 as cited in Woolard, 1998; p. 14), or as “*abstract, socially recognized ways of using language*” (Hyland, 2002; p. 114). In the present study, the concept of genre was applied in a broad sense, incorporating both concrete and abstract dimensions. See more details on the notions of genre and

other relevant concepts in the literature review in 2.3 Genre in Chapter 2.

In the discussion below, the newspaper genre was illustrated as being created to serve the communicative needs of the newspaper itself. The newspaper's social functions were first discussed as a major determining factor characterizing the newspaper genre, or general language use in newspapers, with regard to both the concrete forms of newspaper texts and the abstract notion of a schematic frame for communication. After that, the newspaper genre was argued to be commonly shared internationally, giving rise to similarities in the way that general newspaper language as well as metadiscourse are used in opinion articles.

The newspaper as a social institution of mass communication, according to Bunyasiriphan (2013), serves mainly four functions for society: first, to inform (by disseminating information to society or news reporting, whether it be news on politics, economy, environment, international affairs, crimes, technology, or business etc.); second, to give opinions (newspapers have a large amount of in-depth information about several important issues that should be revealed to society; so based on this information journalists have to present other sides of important issues for people in society to consider more analytically and critically); third, to entertain (not only do newspapers have the duty to tell serious news stories, they also have to entertain people in specific sections with light content such as movie reviews, people's stories, fashion, food, art exhibitions, etc.); and last, to advertise (because the main source of income of a newspaper is derived from advertisements).

In order to serve efficiently and effectively the social functions described above, newspapers need genres to communicate with the masses. Genres here refer to both *communicative events* (Bhatia, 1993) in which specific

communicative actions (newspaper writing), which Miller (1998) notes as *typified rhetorical actions based in recurrent situations* (p.13), take place; and *typified forms of discourse* (Tardy, 2014) as concrete results of communicative actions on text production in such specific communicative events (see also more relevant dimension of the concept of genre in the literature review in 2.3, Chapter 2). In newspapers, one will find that there are typically four types or sub-genres of newspaper texts, in which the language use (lexico-grammar or register, and patterns of rhetorical sequences of text) varies accordingly. These four sub-genres are: news stories in news reports; opinions in editorials or op-eds; advertisements in the classifieds (or in little boxes for the on-line version); and entertainment writing in features, for example.

Considered from the point of view of its daily duties based on the four social functions, it can be said that newspapers are centrally concerned with the simultaneous dissemination of a large volume of information, with a wide range of topics, in various kinds of sections, to a mass of people, and certainly on a daily basis. To respond to such a communicative context, the texts of newspapers are thus characterized by unique features, making the language use in them totally different from the texts of different genres such as novels, research papers, and official legal documents for instance. In fact, time (rapidity and frequency of publishing), volume (amount of information), topics (varieties of subject matters), and audience (literate people in general) are what newspapers are concerned about regarding their text productions, and can be viewed as parameters or genre constraints shaping the way that journalists produce texts or use language accordingly in general.

The characteristic features of newspaper language in general revolve around the value on the economy of linguistic expression, which centers on conciseness, accuracy, and simplicity of language use. Hicks et al. (2008) observed that newspaper writing in general is not very different from writing *précis*, a kind of summary writing, where all of the crucial information remains and is condensed according to a given length. Stovall (2009) makes this point clear—that good newspaper writing should be done in a way that “*it lets the content speak for itself*” (p.3), which reflects well the value of the economy of expression.

Of course, newspaper texts can be divided into different sub-genres (news reporting, commenting, entertaining, and advertising) as noted before, where the language use and the provided space vary accordingly; but the constraints of the general newspaper genre, emphasizing economy of expression, still influence the language use in all sections, including the opinion section. Komonbut (2013) advises conciseness, clarity, and accuracy for writing both editorials as well as opinion articles; furthermore, he also suggests that the shortening of sentences and paragraphs as well as the “briefing-up” of the content are what should be done for newspaper article writing. Wheeler (2009) also advises that argument sharpness and focus are the qualities of good and accessible newspaper comment articles, implying that wordiness should be avoided.

Regarding space, on the other hand, the length of an opinion article is ideally not lengthy, thus reinforcing the linguistic economy of the newspaper. Though the Internet provides a vast space for newspapers, the typical length of opinion articles is limited to 600-800 word counts, or up to 1,200 words as the highest acceptable limit (note: the figures were roughly calculated from the

numerical data on the approximate length of opinion articles required by 100 American newspapers from the website Communication Consortium Media Center: www.cmc.org/node/16179). The average lengths of the total opinion articles of AWC (830 word counts) and TWC (830 word counts) also fit the expected length of general newspaper opinion articles.

What is more, the emphasis on the economic use of language in newspapers seems to be well observed and sustained worldwide. Evidence supporting this universal characteristic of the economy of newspaper language was found in similar advice for good writing in several manuals or textbooks on newspaper writing both in Thai (Komonbut, 2013) and in English (e.g. Hicks, 2013; Hicks et al, 2008; Keeble and Reeves, 2015; Pape and Featherstone, 2005; Stovall, 2009). This leads to similar general language use in newspapers, and thus similar distributions of metadiscourse functions across AWC and TWC.

Further, a study by Buripakdi (2011) on the attitudes of Thai newspaper writers toward the use of English in their newspaper writings showed that the similar ideal language of newspapers seemed to be accepted in the journalist community of English-language newspapers in Thailand. In her interview, one Thai newspaper writer stated that newspapers around the world were not different as she saw the pattern of newspaper as “*One formula, one soup, one universal*” (p. 67). An interviewee also stated that “*the underlying goal of newspapers was to convey messages as quickly and as possible to grasp reader’s attention*” (p. 68), which reflects well the value of the conciseness of language use. The tendency for similar language use to be adopted in writings in the same newspaper-writer community was highlighted in her study, as another interviewee reported that that there were some

Thai newspaper writers attempting to imitate the writing styles of their American and British counterparts.

Though similar newspaper language uses were argued to be shared by both groups of American and Thai writers, it should be noted that this was generalized in a broad sense, in the sense that it had an effect only on the case of metadiscourse, not all other features of discourse. To make a sound claim that the newspaper language used by both groups was actually similar in all discourse aspects, it is necessary to carry out further investigation into various kinds of text features typically and pervasively used in the writing of opinion articles; for instance, the uses of asides, evaluative language, the uses of rhetorical functions (e.g. argumentative, hortatory, explanatory, discussion), sequences of rhetorical patterns of texts, or figurative language, etc.

Limited space and the value of newspaper writing regarding the economy of expression are the two characteristic features of the newspaper genre that make the metadiscourse distributional patterns of AWC and TWC similar to each other and distinctly different from those of other genres, especially when contrasted with research texts. In the next section, how these unique features of the newspaper genre in general influence the distribution of the metadiscourse frequencies of each of the contrasted metadiscourse functions is discussed specifically one by one.

6.2.3 Specific discussion

The characteristic features of the newspaper genre as discussed previously in the General Discussion were used to explain why the occurrences of metadiscourse in the opinion articles were distributed similarly in AWC and TWC,

and differently in the research texts and university student essays. The generic dimensions of texts such as physical space, the schema of the communicative participants, audience, and the value of language use of the different communities, were incorporated into explaining the effect of genre on the occurrences of the metadiscourse in texts of different kinds. Specific discussions were separated into two parts, under two sub-headings: Discussion of TOM, and Discussion of RIM. For numerical information, consult Figure 6.1 and 6.2.

Discussion of TOM

With regard to **Referring** and **Topic Managing** from the contrasts in 6.2.1, the metadiscourse of these functions were distributed more in the academic texts than in the opinion articles. This is because academic writers can make more use of this metadiscourse function than opinion article writers do. Academic texts, by nature, are rather long and complex in the presentation of information and ideas. In contrast, opinion articles as well as newspaper texts in general are not expected to be long or difficult, but are supposed to be accessible to most people in society.

Swales (1990) notes that metadiscourse abounds in academic texts such as dissertations or in written texts of a considerable length. He describes some metadiscourse functions, which can be considered as equivalent to **Cataphorics**, **Endophorics (Referring)** and **Concluding (Topic Managing)** of the present study, as “*signaling of where the authors are going, where precisely they have got to, and what they achieved so far*” (p. 188). These metadiscourse functions are practical for academic writers in terms of organizing their complex thoughts and substantial information in written texts in order to make it easy to understand. For researcher writers, what to mention or emphasize first and what to say later at different stages of

discussion seem to be their primary concern since they have to put all of the interrelated, complex ideas into a line of logic in a relatively long text.

Unlike research articles, explicit metadiscursive expressions for text-organizing are not very necessary in newspaper texts. The content of opinion articles is not expected to be complex as compared to that of research texts. The topics that the newspaper writers select are rather common issues in everyday life experience and are familiar to, and lie in the interests of, most people in general. In addition, opinion articles are ideally short. The length of an opinion article is normally limited to around 800 words, as mentioned before.

According to Buripakdi (2011), one newspaper writer interviewed in her study stated that one characteristic of newspaper language is its ability to send the message across as quickly as possible and its power to keep the content ever interesting or appealing to the reader. Newspaper texts are thus not expected to be written in a style of academic prose, which is full of these metadiscourse functions, requiring the reader to go back and forth to check particular information for recognition of what has been said so far or what is to be said afterwards, or requiring the reader to spend a lot of time reading a long introductory anecdote before getting to the main point of the writing. This can also help explain why the other sub-functions of Topic Managing, **Contextualizing** and **Introducing**, are not needed to a great extent in writing newspaper opinion articles.

What is more, frequent use of these metadiscourse functions (Referring and Topic Managing) may have bad effects on newspaper readership. Pape and Featherstone (2005) warn about the loss of readership, suggesting that newspaper readers will quit reading a column and move on to read another one at

any time they encounter difficulties caused by language use.

For **Exemplifying**, on the other hand, the higher frequencies distributed in both AWC and TWC than in the research articles may be due to the fact that they have persuasive effects that match the newspaper language. Exemplifying can help the reader understand quickly and clearly the ideas proposed in the argument as it helps the reader see things more clearly from the examples brought up for explanation. From the perspective of persuasion, examples can simply be used to present supporting evidence for the argument of the writer. Presenting facts or supporting details for arguments in research articles may require different methods rather than an easy and direct metadiscursive act of exemplifying, as in opinion articles and student essays.

Regarding the function of **Question and Answer**, there were no equivalent functions in the research texts in Pérez-Llantada's study. However, the use of this metadiscursive language in the opinion articles and student essays implies that both groups of writers began their arguments by posing a question and developing their discussion by answering the question. Variations on the frequencies of this metadiscourse function were found across the corpora of the opinion articles and student essays. Whether such variations were caused by the high flexibility of genre constraints regarding the metadiscourse function, or by differences in the first languages of the users, requires further investigation.

As for **Other Speech Acts**, this metadiscourse was more functional in texts of the academic genre (both research articles and student argumentative essays) than in the opinion articles. Academic writers have to count on several speech acts to make explicit the rhetorical acts (such as arguing, adding some ideas, describing,

discussing, explaining, etc.) in order to make clear their ideas, especially when discussing certain points. However, this function may not be very necessary for the opinion articles. The newspaper readers are ordinary people that want to understand as easily and quickly as possible the ideas proposed; they will not seek to understand the writer's rhetorical acts used in their comment articles. Ädel (2006) remarked on the overuse of metadiscourse, as it may cause the reader's intelligence to be insulted. This implies that metadiscourse in one sense has a highly academic tone of voice. Frequent uses of it in newspaper articles would result in scholastic pomposity, which is rather discordant in newspaper texts, where the emphasis is placed more on clarity, accuracy, and simplicity of language use. In this way, explicit rhetorical acts and other text-organizing functions are not very necessary in newspaper writing. This can also help explain why there were fewer occurrences of some functions of TOM in the opinion articles when contrasted with the argumentative written texts of different academic genres, especially research articles, or dissertations.

For the **Sub-topic Managing**, a closer look into each sub-function showed that there were obvious variations in the metadiscourse frequencies across the sub-functions in AWC and TWC (see table 4.3.3). Due to the lack of equivalent functions of texts in another genre, it could not be claimed with confidence that the frequencies of the sub-functions of Sub-topic Managing were similar. However, at the overall level, the sub-topics in opinion articles seemed to be managed similarly by both the American and Thai writers since the frequencies were distributed relatively at similar levels (AWC, 12.8; TWC, 12.0).

Discussion of RIM

Reader-interacting metadiscourse represents in a written text the writer's voice regarding the interactions she has with the reader. In terms of persuasive effects, all RIM functions can be considered to be used for strengthening the writer's argument. In contrast to TOM, the persuasive features of RIM are more explicit; they are applied with the agenda of convincing the reader. With this quality, RIM is integrally related to the writer's rhetoric, or the art of persuasion that the writer uses in interactions with the reader.

Like TOM, the RIM in AWC and TWC were similar to each other when compared to those of other studies. Put another way, according to the contrasts each genre has its own characteristics of metadiscourse distribution. The differences in metadiscourse frequencies across genres were seen to be more remarkable between the opinion articles and research texts, rather than between the opinion articles and university student essays. This may be because the space of the opinion articles and student essays was not long as compared to that of the research texts. In effect, the chance to use the function of Anticipating the Reader Reactions and Aligning Perspectives by newspaper and student writers was limited in a similar way. Yet, distinct differences in the metadiscourse functions between the opinion articles and student essays were still obvious in the function of Hypothesizing about the Reader due to different types of audience.

The frequencies of **Anticipating Reader's Reaction** in the discussion section of research texts were several times higher than that of the opinion articles. Pérez- Llantada (2010; p.56) attributes the cause of the high frequencies of this metadiscourse function to the writer's attempt to mark explicitly the highlights and

noteworthy features of the findings. This shows the particular concern that the members of an academic discourse community have regarding the rhetorical or persuasive effects they use in their writings. Such concerns are not necessarily the same as those of the discourse community of newspaper writers. What opinion article writers are concerned most about is how to convince the reader with their arguments proposed in a limited space. As discussed before, the ideal of good newspaper language revolves around simplicity, conciseness, and accuracy. Then, when newspaper writers anticipate the reader's reactions in order to convince him, they do not necessarily make the act of anticipation as explicitly or frequently as researcher writers do.

In the case of **Aligning Perspectives**, too, the influence of the newspaper genre as discussed above can be used to explain the characteristic metadiscourse distributions in both AWC and TWC. With a limited space and the ideal language use of newspaper that values conciseness and simplicity, the writer does not necessarily make explicit or frequent use of this metadiscursive language in opinion articles.

Regarding **Hypothesizing about the Reader**, this function was not reported to be used to find out metadiscourse in biomedical research articles in Pérez- Llantada's study. This might be because, in scientific written discourse, explicitly mentioning the imagined reader's characteristics or personal qualities is not appropriate. On the other hand, when it comes to writing opinions in newspapers, it is possible to use this metadiscourse function for interaction with the reader, especially when the writer creates light-hearted content in an informal style.

For the contrast between opinion articles and student essays, the perceived variations of this metadiscourse function across genres may be due to the fact that the two groups of writers have different audiences. The imagined readers of a newspaper cannot be known exactly; they can be anyone if they are literate, and they can be anywhere on earth if they can access newspaper websites on the Internet. On the other hand, the reader of student essays is not unknown; the reader can be only the professor. Since the metadiscursive act of hypothesizing involves making judgments on the varieties of the reader's qualities such as personality, experience, and capabilities, learner writers may feel reluctant to engage directly with their teachers, who give them grades, by making some hypotheses about their respected professors. As such, hypothesizing about the reader is more functional in the opinion articles in AWC and TWC than in student essays.

With regard to **Imagining Scenarios**, the frequencies in both the AWC and TWC corpora were comparable to those of the student essays, but no function of Imagining Scenarios was reported to be used to analyzing metadiscourse in Pérez- Llantada's study. The lack of this function in biomedical research articles may be due to the awareness of the inappropriateness of language use in the community of scientific research writing. The interaction with the reader by telling him to imagine something in the research article is likely to be prohibited by the genre convention of writing scientific discourse, especially in the field of hard science such as biomedical science. Though this function was found in the opinion articles and student essays, there was less preference for this function as contrasted with different functions.

As for **Giving Evidence** (AWC, $n = 4.8$; TWC, $n = 1.2$) and **Interactive Questions** (AWC; $n = 14.5$; TWC, $n = 9.7$), there were no equivalent functions found in other studies. Thus it cannot be assumed with certainty that the differences in the metadiscourse frequencies of these two functions between AWC and TWC are similar or not. Further investigation into these interactional functions of texts in other genres is thus needed if one wants to find out the answer.

6.2.4 Conclusion

The assumed similarities at the overall level of both TOM and RIM and at the specific level of each of the ten metadiscourse functions, which were not significantly different according to the statistical tests, were ascertained by the contrasts made across genres. The similarities in metadiscourse frequencies in both AWC and TWC were argued to be influenced by the newspaper genre that was generally shared among Thai and American writers. The common features of the newspaper genre of both American and Thai English-language newspapers were the value of the language use, which revolves around the economy of expressions, and the space of the opinion section, which is conventionally limited. These qualities, along with the communicative schema of a genre, such as who the audience is, what topics to write about, and what rhetorical styles to use, shaped in similar ways the characteristics of the language as well as the use of the metadiscourse functions in AWC and TWC (opinion articles), which was not necessarily similar to the language use or metadiscursive expressions in texts of different genres (research texts or university student essays).

6.3 Significant differences in Meaning Clarifying

According to the statistical tests, a significant difference regarding the frequencies of the metadiscourse between AWC and TWC was indicated only with the metadiscourse function of Meaning Clarifying. With considerably higher numbers of Meaning Clarifying in TWC than in AWC, it can be interpreted that, when writing opinion articles, Thai writers are likely to write them with more frequent use of meaning-clarifying metadiscourse than their American counterparts. This suggests that differences in the first languages or nationality of newspaper writers can cause differences in the use of metadiscourse in opinion article writing.

However, the causes of different characteristics of language use can be attributed to more than one factor, or to the first language in the case of the present study. Those that subscribe to a linguistic-deterministic view are likely to explain the same discourse phenomenon differently from those that view language as socially constructed. For instance, Dafouz-Milne (2008) attributed the cause of the frequencies of adversative discourse connectives (such as *but*, *however*, or *nevertheless*) found significantly more in English opinion articles than in Spanish texts (in which additive connectors such as *and*, *in addition*, *moreover* were used more) to the characteristic natures of the two languages. On the other hand, Hick et al. (2008) gave a different explanation. For them, the frequent uses of *but* in English newspapers were caused by the convention of English newspaper writing, which revolves around the rhetorical effects of “*shock, surprise and contrast*” (p. 28), thus requiring the writer to use it, especially at the beginning of the clause, simply to get attention from the reader or to make the content more interesting.

In the discussion on the significant difference of Meaning Clarifying, L1 discursive transfer as a relatively linguistic determinant factor and genre conventions as a socially-influential factor were taken as the two major causes of differences. Which of the two factors are more likely to cause the differences cannot be answered with confidence, due mainly to the lack of research on metadiscourse in Thai written texts and the genre perceptions of this metadiscourse function used by newspaper writers. To make a sound claim on this, further investigation is necessary. Detailed discussions of the two possible causes were made under the two sub-headings: **L1 discursive transfer** and **Genre conventions**. See also the section 6.4 for the other possible factors influencing the occurrence of metadiscourse in general.

L1 Discursive transfer

L1 discursive transfer is assumed to be a distinguishing factor in the significant difference in the metadiscourse function of Meaning Clarifying between AWC and TWC. Specifically put, the assumption was made regarding the fact that Thai writers used specific L1 discourse features in their L2 English writing, thus causing significantly more frequent use of meaning-clarifying metadiscourse in the opinion articles.

Discursive transfer, according to Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008), refers to the influence of certain discourse features of one language on another. According to them, there are mainly three perspectives on discursive transfer. First, the discursive features of one language can be transferred into another in both productive and receptive procedures. Second, a discursive feature can be transferred in both a forward direction (L1 to L2) and a reverse direction (L2 back to L1); and last, for written texts both forward and reverse transfers are often positive (p. 103-104).

Moreover, they also explained that the discursive transfer of text in the written mode involves not only the transfer of language but also the transfer of writing conventions. Writing conventions here are closely associated with Kaplan's (1966) hypothesis on culture-specific rhetorical patterns of writing.

In current studies on metadiscourse, e.g. Valero-Garcés (1996), and Dahl (2004), Dafouz-Milne (2003 and 2008) and Noorian and Biria (2010), the culture-specific rhetorical preferences of a language were presented according to several rhetorical dimensions; for example, the degrees of toleration of the writer's digression, the preferred argument styles (for instance, the progressive strategy, in which the main idea is presented first and followed by supporting evidence, or the retrospective strategy, in which pros and cons of the idea are presented in a parallel manner), the concept of politeness, or Hinds' (1987) distinction between the writing typology of the writer's responsibility and the reader's responsibility, among others. In these studies, the culture-specific preference for rhetorical patterns was argued to affect the overall L1 discourse structures, and thus the occurrence of metadiscourse in texts. When significant differences were found in the metadiscourse frequencies between L1 and L2 English texts in these studies, the cause of such differences was attributed to the differences in the rhetoric assumed to be preferred differently in L1 languages.

Due to the lack of research on metadiscourse in L1 Thai discourse, how Thai writers use metadiscourse in L1 Thai discourse, especially the Meaning Clarifying function, in their L2 English texts cannot be taken into account. This suggests further investigation into the metadiscursive language in texts written in L1 Thai, thus calling for cross-linguistic studies on metadiscourse between Thai and English (both

L1 and L2) texts.

Genre conventions

In the studies in which the L1 discursive transfer was considered as the main cause of the significant difference in metadiscourse frequencies between groups of writers, the crucial role of genre in text production seemed to be overlooked. In this discussion, the significance of genre as another level of control of text production was argued as another possible cause of the significant difference of the metadiscourse function of Meaning Clarifying.

Conventions or norms of writing do not necessarily operate at only the level of the general rhetoric of L1 discourse, which is often associated with nation or language. For this matter, Widdowson (2007) remarked that a frame of reference for communication, or communicative schema, is not necessarily located at the level of large national or cultural groups, but it can also be shared among people that are in smaller units of society such as those classified by the community of a profession.

Newspaper language is not a language at the general level that represents a whole individual language, such as Thai, English, Chinese, or French. Newspaper language is a specific language of a specific social group used in a certain communicative situation. In the case of the present study, the social group is the professional newspaper writer community which produces the professional discourse of opinion articles. As a genre of a professional community, there are, apart from grammatical rules, several other dimensions of language use that the language users (members of the community) are aware of when producing texts; for instance, some values concerning the practice of language (or language ideology guiding the ways in which texts should or should not be produced) held within the community, or the

group's preferred rhetorical styles, frequent uses of some registers, and the mediating tools or perceptions of the audience.

As such, differences in genre perceptions, especially in the use of Meaning Clarifying in the opinion articles between the two groups, will give rise to different uses of Meaning Clarifying, and thus differences in the distributional patterns of this metadiscourse function in texts. To put it another way, it is assumed that there might possibly be some differences in the genre conventions of newspaper opinion article writing between American and Thai journalist communities that control the ways that writers perceive the use of Meaning Clarifying metadiscourse in text production.

Günthner (2009) pointed out that the same genre can possibly be perceived in different ways by people from different socio-cultural backgrounds though they are in the same discourse community or situation of communication, leading to different styles of communication. Moreover, according to the social constructive view, as used earlier by Hicks et al. (2008) to explain the influence of genre conventions on the high frequencies of adversative conjunctions, the influence of genre on text production cannot be ignored.

Further research is needed on how the newspaper genre as a frame for communication is perceived by different groups of writers. This can be carried out by, for example, interviewing writers for information about what language ideology or values regarding language use they have for this specific metadiscursive act of meaning clarifying in writing (as in the case of the pervasive uses of *but* for the purpose of grasping the reader's attention, as discussed earlier).

To conclude, the possible cause of the significant difference in Meaning Clarifying between the two groups was attributed not only to L1 discourse transfer

(or differences in the first languages), but also to differences in genre perception, especially in terms of the use of this metadiscourse function in opinion articles. Further research thus needs to be done on the characteristics of metadiscourse in Thai written texts as well as the genre perceptions of the use of this metadiscourse function by journalists. So far, there has been no research investigating the metadiscourse in either Thai spoken or written texts. Looking at how metadiscourse functions in Thai may reveal some interesting yet undiscovered aspects of L1 discursive transfer regarding the metadiscourse in L2 English texts produced by Thai writers.

Apart from the two possible factors as causes of the significant difference, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2008) noted that there are cases of research on contrastive text analyses where similarities were discovered instead of distinct differences, and this suggests that researchers take into consideration other possible factors influencing the use of language as well, e.g. individuals' aptitude for writing, competency in the English language, and age.

6.4 Other possible factors influencing the occurrence of metadiscourse

Personal choices and editorial processes were viewed as two factors that indirectly influence the occurrence of metadiscourse in opinion articles. They help to explain why there were no equal numbers of metadiscourse occurrences in any of the sixty texts, although differences in metadiscourse frequencies between AWC and TWC were seen as relatively similar rather than distinct. Each of the two factors is discussed below.

Personal choice

Though in most newspaper opinion articles there are recognizable generic text patterns (headline ^ leading paragraph ^ body ^ conclusion), the ways in which opinion articles are written are not regarded as highly stable or rigidly fixed as with official documents, such as official letters or legal documents. Holmes (2005) mentions the flexibility of writing styles of the newspaper comment articles as, “*a column can be about anything and it can be written in any style*” (p. 176). Wang (2006) identified several rhetorical styles, or “micro-genres” as he calls them, in newspaper comment articles. According to him, these are: media exposition (subdivided into explanatory, argumentative, and hortatory exposition), problem-solution, media challenge, and media discussion. The writers have to use the language in accordance with the micro-genre that they choose for writing their own comment articles. This means that the selected rhetorical styles would affect the way in which the language is used in general as well as in terms of metadiscursive language.

This freedom allows article writers to have more than one choice about the stylistic strategies they will deploy in their article writing. Nearly all of the opinion articles were written based on reasoned argument, provocation, or entertainment. Nevertheless, it was found that there were two writers (of the texts TH 8 and TH 9) that chose to write their opinions in a reportive style, which was like news-reporting in the news section. This style of writing heavily restricted the metadiscursive occurrences in text. This is because, with the characteristic of news-reporting, authorial presence is prohibited and linguistic choices for explicit textual organization are reserved, leading to no explicit interaction between the writer and

the reader (RIM), or the use of the writer's explicit voice for text-organizing (TOM). This shows that the writer's individual preference regarding particular styles of writing has both positive and negative effects on the occurrence of metadiscourse occurrence as well.

Editorial process

As shown above, the writer as a human agent has freedom in the selection of the style of writing that she chooses. Yet, newspapers, as corporate organizations, still have their own rules to control the writer's style of writing. The so-called *house style* is standards for writing of the organization that newspaper writers have to observe. The house styles of each newspaper will make the newspaper writer aware of “important issues like ‘political correctness’, gender and race to detail – whether to use single or double quote, when to use italics and whether to prefer ‘spelt’ or ‘spelled’” (Hick, 2013; p. 14).

Apart from the house style, the organizational intervention of the newspaper publisher in the writing of the columnists can be seen in the editing process. Each newspaper may have different ways of editing. Chana (2011) reported that it was the native-speaker sub-editors of English-language newspapers published in Thailand that had a duty to revise the English writing by Thai writers.

In contrast, The New York Times has article contributors revise their writing themselves but under the guidance of the editors. Hall (2013), who is one of the editorial members of The New York Times, wrote in an opinion article about the newspaper's preferred characteristic of writing that would be selected to be published, and the way that the newspaper scrutinized the opinion articles sent by contributors, in the following passage:

If your piece has the germ of an idea we find fascinating but feels jumbled and out of order, we will probably ask you to revise it. We will never tell you what to think, but we will try to make your thinking and your writing as clear and orderly as possible. We will try to help you strengthen your argument. We want your thinking to win converts (para. 8).

Newspaper opinion article writing is somehow interfered by editing processes of the newspaper organization. The extent to which the editing process has an effect on the occurrences of metadiscourse in texts is unclear, but it can be concluded that the editing process has an indirect influence on the use of metadiscourse by the writer since the opinion writing of the writer is partially controlled by it.

6.5 Differences in styles of metadiscourse

Some characteristic styles of the use of metadiscourse were identified in both AWC and TWC. However, the occurrences of these unique styles in both corpora were too few to make a confident claim that the styles of the use of metadiscourse by both groups of writers were distinctively different.

Distinct differences in the styles of metadiscursive language between American and Thai writers were detected with three metadiscourse functions. For Meaning Clarifying, the use of *call* to critique implicitly things and persons by the writers was found in only TWC (see 4.3.1). Enumerating instances expressed in an implicit and interactional manner (see 4.3.3), and ‘say’ as Exemplifying (see 4.3.5), were found only in AWC.

Though distinctions regarding the styles of the use of metadiscourse were detected, such differences were not huge at all. This is mainly because the occurrences of these metadiscourse characteristics were infrequent: 5 occurrences of

Meaning Clarifying (only in TWC), 4 occurrences of Enumerating and 6 occurrences of Exemplifying (only in AWC). Moreover, the characteristic styles were identified with only 3 out of all 11 metadiscourse functions.

For the possible causes of these slight differences, personal preferences on style, the house style of each newspaper organization, as well as the genre knowledge regarding the use of metadiscursive language of both groups of writers may be assumed, but further research is needed to confirm this.

6.6 Conclusion

Each of the ten metadiscourse functions of AWC and TWC that was not significantly different according to the statistics was assumed to be similar in frequency distribution. The assumption was ascertained by the contrasts on the metadiscourse distribution made across genres. Though not all of the metadiscourse frequencies of the ten functions could be contrasted between genres, characteristic patterns of metadiscourse frequency distribution were distinguished between the texts of different genres, suggesting that various metadiscourse functions are distributed similarly in texts of the same genre, and that a metadiscourse function in one genre is not necessarily distributed with a similar frequency in another genre; that is, each genre characterizes its own patterns of metadiscourse distribution.

A common newspaper genre, especially in terms of the value of the economy of language and the limited space for opinion articles, was argued to be shared among Thai and American newspaper writers, thus giving rise to similarities in the frequency distributions of nearly all metadiscourse functions in both AWC and TWC.

As for the significant difference of Meaning Clarifying between AWC and TWC, different L1 discursive transfers and different genre perceptions on the use of this metadiscourse function in the opinion articles were argued to be major possible causes. Apart from this, personal choices on the style of language use and the editing process of the newspaper organization were also discussed as other factors indirectly influencing the occurrence of metadiscourse.

In terms of the styles of the use of metadiscourse, though some distinct features of metadiscourse language were distinguished between both groups of writers, the occurrences of these characteristic uses of metadiscursive language were not frequent at all, and only three out of eleven metadiscourse functions were identified as having unique styles of use. As such, it can be concluded that there were only slight differences in the styles of the use of metadiscourse between both groups.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSION

In this chapter the overall picture of the present research is delineated as a conclusion of the study in the first section. The limitations of the research are also acknowledged in the following section. How the outcomes of the study can be applied to the language classroom is also discussed in the section on implications. The chapter ends with suggestions for further study on metadiscourse.

7.1 Conclusion of the study

The present study had two purposes. One was to explore and compare the metadiscursive aspects of newspaper opinion article texts written by both American and Thai writers; the other was to see whether the differences in metadiscourse frequencies were significant or not.

In order to conduct the study, thirty opinion articles were taken from two Thai English-language newspaper websites to build up a corpus of opinion articles by Thai writers, and the same number of opinion articles from two American English-language newspaper websites were taken to construct the counterpart American writer corpus. Ädel's metadiscourse models (2006 and 2010) were adapted to construct the metadiscourse taxonomy of the present study for analyzing the metadiscourse instances of the opinion articles. Chi-square statistics were performed to test for significant differences in the metadiscourse frequencies between both corpora at general and specific levels.

At the general level, the results showed that there was no significant difference in the metadiscourse frequencies of the TOM and RIM functions between the groups. At the specific level, when each of the eleven metadiscourse functions was scrutinized by statistical tests, it was found that the function of Meaning Clarifying demonstrated a significant difference at the level of 0.05, whereas the rest of the ten functions were not significantly different.

The differences in metadiscourse frequencies at the overall level, and at the specific level, where ten metadiscourse functions were not indicated by statistics with significant difference, were interpreted as occurring by chance and not correlated to the first language of the members of the groups (since the first languages were distinguishing qualities of the two groups). The metadiscourse frequencies between both groups were assumed to be similar. The assumption was ascertained from the result of the contrast of the frequencies of most of the metadiscourse functions in the texts of different genres. The similarities were discussed as being influenced by the common newspaper genre that both groups of writers shared when writing opinion articles.

The significant difference in Meaning Clarifying between AWC and TWC as indicated by the statistics can be generalized—that is, Thai newspaper writers are likely to use more of this metadiscourse function than American newspaper writers when writing opinion articles. The significant differences in metadiscourse can be explained by two possible factors: first, L1 discursive characters; and second, the possibility that there might be some differences in genre perceptions on the use of this metadiscourse function between the two groups of writers.

Regarding the styles of metadiscursive language, though characteristic usages of some metadiscourse functions were distinguished between the two groups of writers, the variations in the styles were not huge at all since there were only a few metadiscourse occurrences that were detected as being used in a unique way.

7.2 Limitations

There were certain limitations to the present study. First, the reliability of the study was not ensured regarding the consistency of the coding practice. Coding reliability can be checked by conducting an inter-coder reliability test, which can be performed by having another coder analyze the metadiscourse instances in the texts. The coding reliability can be measured according to the differences between the number of metadiscourse analyzed by the researcher and that by the other coder; that is, the smaller the differences are, the higher the reliability can be assumed.

However, the coding inconsistency of the present study was handled by applying the computer-aided program AntConc to the coding practice by a human analyst. The use of search terms helped the analyst sift through the whole corpus more thoroughly for potential metadiscourse in the text. With the concordance tool, all of the captured potential metadiscourse items could be shown on a list and the analyst could consider the metadiscursive property of each item one by one, making the analytical performance more exhaustive. The file view tool of the software program helped the text analysis be accurate (see details on the use of this software program in Chapter 3, section 3.6 Software tool, 3.7 Search terms, and 3.8 Search terms and text reading). Without the computer-aided program, the human coding performance would be less competent since the brain is faced with several reading tasks simultaneously—

reading the text, inferring the meanings, scanning for several metadiscourse functions and sub-functions, and analyzing the metadiscursive property for any potential metadiscourse instance found in the text.

Second, the construct validity of the metadiscourse taxonomy of the present study, which was modified by the researcher's own knowledge, was not assessed by metadiscourse experts. However, the metadiscourse taxonomy of the present study was not intended to be a justifiable and comprehensive metadiscourse category. The modification of the metadiscourse taxonomy here may inspire those interested in metadiscourse to think more about what the ideal type of metadiscourse model should be, or how an efficient metadiscourse model could be constructed in the future. This would keep vibrant the activity on metadiscourse research.

Third, in the results discussion in Chapter 6, it was suggested that the results interpretation could be made with more confidence by using data from the texts of other genres, or by using evidence gained from different approaches. The research could be triangulated using different methods; for instance, interviews with the writers, on-site observations, or ethnographic studies.

The last one concerns the population size effect. In the case of the present study, it is the size of the corpus, which was still too small to represent all American and Thai newspaper writers. The higher the number of writers or texts in the corpora increases, the more reliable the generalization on how the two groups of writers use metadiscourse can be made from the results.

7.3 Implications

The results of the study have pedagogical implications as discussed under three sub-headings below.

Metadiscourse search terms

Some of the metadiscourse instances identified in the opinion articles extended the range of the set of metadiscourse search terms. There were some metadiscourse instances that were not in the sets of the search terms but were in the opinion articles; for example, *in a nut shell*, *case* and *literally*. These terms can be added to the original sets, broadening the scope of the metadiscourse search terms to be applied using the corpus technique in future studies.

Teaching writing

Many of the identified metadiscourse instances from the study can be used as a stock of metadiscursive expressions for students in the writing class. This can help them to be more articulate when they search for some expressions for organizing text structures, and for having interactions with the reader in their writing tasks.

Moreover, genre should also be incorporated into the teaching of writing as well, especially media argumentative writing. This would be very beneficial for journalistic writing classes. If someone wants to write opinion articles, they should have knowledge on newspaper genre. As discussed in Chapter 6, genre plays a crucial role in shaping how language is used in a particular context. Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) stated that “[a]s forms of situated cognitions, genres ... enable their users not only to communicate effectively, but also participate in (and reproduce) a community’s norms, epistemology, ideology and social ontology” (p. 80).

Metadiscourse, as a class of language operating at the discourse level, is also influenced by genre. According to Mauranen, (2007), overuses of metadiscourse markers have been reported in L2 learner essays since they are taught in ESP and EAP classes. This might be due to the learner writer's unawareness of genre constraints regarding the use of language and registers. In order to handle this problem, contrasting the frequency of metadiscourse in texts of one genre with another would be effective in helping them become more aware of the appropriate use of metadiscursive language in the texts of a certain genre.

Additionally, discussions on the inter-relation between the language ideology embedded in the genre of a particular social group and the ways in which texts are produced (see the notion of language ideology and genre in 2.3, Chapter 2) should be made in the classroom, so that students can learn some rules or values held to by members of a specific community, and the degrees of rigidity as well as possible deviations from the norms of language use. In fact, teaching genres only as forms of discourse (sequential patterns of texts or the frequent and pervasive lexico-grammatical features in texts) in the classroom may have some negative effects. This is because “[d]escribing a genre in terms of its formal linguistic features runs the risk of treating genres as sets of rules that must be followed, turning genres into something static and normative rather than fluid and evolving” (Hewings and North, 2009; p. 47).

Assessing writing

The frequencies of metadiscourse functions and styles of metadiscursive expressions, as shown in Chapter 4 and 5, together with genre knowledge on newspaper opinion articles, are useful information for the instructor to assess the use

of metadiscourse in student essays, especially in the class of writing for specific purposes like journalistic writing.

Teaching reading

Metadiscourse knowledge can be taught to students in a reading class. Students can apply their metadiscourse knowledge as a reading strategy for understanding the content of text. Metadiscourse instances of the TOM functions are text functional markers explicitly telling the reader about the structure of textual organization, the semantic relationship between the preceding and the following parts of a text, or the author's speech acts on managing discourse, for example. These metadiscourse functions, according to Ädel (2006), are like signposts that the writer uses to guide the reader regarding the rhetorical aspects of text. The reader, on the other hand, can make use of the benefits of metadiscourse by interfering the text-functional meanings of the metadiscourse markers in order to facilitate their reading comprehension.

7.4 Suggestions for further studies

1. The multi-functionality of metadiscourse has been acknowledged in the research community as an inherent nature and an unsolvable problem of the study of metadiscourse. This problem can be reduced if research on metadiscourse is carried out by placing the focus of the study on fewer or only one function. Hyland's work (2007) is an example of research that focuses on only the one metadiscourse function of code glossing. If the study is narrowed down to just one function, the research can be more in-depth and exhaustive and the analytical workload of the researcher is reduced as fewer dimensions of metadiscourse are examined. A less complex category of metadiscourse functions can be constructed, consequently decreasing the perennial

problem of the multi-functionality of metadiscourse. Moreover, an inter-coder reliability test can be easily performed.

2 As pointed out in 7.2 above, another inter-coder should be asked to code the metadiscourse so that the reliability of the coding practice can be checked. If some theoretical paradigms are altered or modifications of the metadiscourse taxonomy is made, scholar experts on metadiscourse studies should be invited to evaluate, comment, and advise on the construct validity of the metadiscourse model and taxonomy.

3. For the sake of convenience for contrastive analysis of metadiscourse frequencies between different studies, the data of metadiscourse frequencies should be demonstrated with accounts of both raw frequencies and frequencies calculated into a standardized scale, for instance, a scale of frequencies per 10,000 words.

4. Metadiscourse occurs as well in spoken texts (Ädel, 2010; and Mauranen, 2010). According to Ädel, some metadiscourse functions are not found in written texts but occur only in spoken texts. Exploring metadiscourse in a long monologue, such as an official announcement, an academic lecture, or a speech, etc., would reveal other undiscovered yet interesting aspects of metadiscourse usage in the spoken mode of communication.

5. Research on metadiscourse in Thai written texts should be started. So far, a large amount of research has been carried out on English texts and other languages, but there has yet been no research into the metadiscourse in Thai written texts. Analyzing metadiscourse in Thai would reveal some interesting metadiscursive features that are different from those in other languages. The information gained from such study can be used for investigating the effect of the L1 discourse transfers of

metadiscursive language on the L2 English written texts by Thai writers as suggested in Chapter 6.

6. As suggested in 6.3 in Chapter 6, interviews or participatory observations should be performed in order to know what ideology regarding the language use or genre perceptions that opinion article writers hold in producing their texts.

Information about the ideology of language use would lend insight into why some linguistic features of discourse are recurrently produced in a particular genre.



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Other Materials

- AntConc (Version 3.2.4) [Computer software]. Retrieve from <http://www.laurenceanthony.net/software/antconc>

The image features a large, faint, circular watermark of the Thammasat University seal in the background. The seal contains the university's name in Thai script at the top and "THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY" in English at the bottom, surrounding a central emblem.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

CRITERIA FOR IDENTIFYING METADISCOURSE

Since Ädel's (2006 and 2010) metadiscourse models were adapted in constructing the metadiscourse taxonomy in the present study, her criteria for metadiscourse identification were thus applied to analyzing the metadiscursive instances and expressions in the texts. There were six central metadiscourse properties that constituted the metadiscursive instances or expressions in the discourse here. Any linguistic instances that were considered as metadiscourse had to be embodied with some of these six properties. Next, how each of these features was used as criteria for metadiscourse identification is explained one by one.

1. Metadiscourse must reflect the current state of the text.

The current state of the text refers to the present time or the immediate moment of the text. Italicized metadiscourse instances of example sentences in (1) below realize the current state of the text. These expressions bring to the writer and the reader a sense that they are in a course of communication.

(1)

Next I will explain why malaria still persists in hot countries.

As mentioned earlier, malaria still persists in hot countries.

Second, malaria still persists in hot countries.

As we have seen in our discussion above, malaria still persists in hot countries.

I am not saying that malaria still persists in hot countries.

All the italicized parts of the sentences signal a communicative state that a text is being produced, or that it is evolving at the moment. When the reader comes across

these expressions, he becomes aware that the text is being progressed onward, and that he is one of the participants in a communicative event, the person that is reading the passage. Any expression realizing the immediate state of the text like this is considered as metadiscourse.

2. Metadiscourse must refer to the current discourse, not to matters in the world outside discourse.

Ädel puts forward two concepts, *the world of discourse* and *the real world*, to distinguish linguistic matters that are metadiscourse from those that are non-metadiscourse. The concepts are summarized in the table below (note also that the mode of *Participation* in the category of the real world refers to narration).

Table A.1 (revised from Ädel, 2006; p. 44)

The world of discourse		The real world	
Metatext: <i>text managing/ organizing/ guiding the reader through text</i>	Writer-reader interaction: <i>variety of interactions which the writer has with the reader in the text</i>	Stance: <i>the writer's opinion expression, attitude marking, evaluation made toward the content matter</i>	Participation: <i>the writer's narration on her own experience in the real world</i>

The world of discourse and the real world were used as criteria for distinguishing verbal expressions that were metadiscourse from those that were not. Theoretically, the world of discourse is a linguistic matter that refers to the textual parts of the ongoing discourse or the writer-reader interactions in the text. The real

world, on the other hand, is those linguistic elements that refer to the content matter of the text that the writer is writing about. The content matter can be her own ideas about a particular topic, opinions toward a situation, reflections on a problem, and so on. Or, it can be about an event in the real world outside the text that she recounts in the ongoing text. What refers to the world of discourse is considered as metadiscourse; what to the real world, the propositional content of text.

In order to differentiate the world of discourse from the real world, consider the example sentences (a) and (b) in (2) below.

(2)

(a) *the third question asked before will be answered in the next paragraph.*

(b) *There has been much discussion of the question of how to evaluate teachers; it was one of the biggest sticking points in the recent teachers' strike in Chicago. [AM 10]*

In sentence (a) the underlined word *question* is considered to be in the world of discourse since it is previously asked in the current text and will be answered later in the same text. It does not refer to matter in the real world outside the current discourse but it does refer to a part of the current discourse. Once the reader comes across this expression, he becomes aware of the text he is reading and that it is being organized or produced by the writer. Therefore, the *question* in sentence (a) possesses metadiscourse quality, but the *question* in (b) refers to something that has frequently been discussed in the real world. According to criteria 1 above, it does not activate the sense of the current state of the text. It refers to something in the real world external to the current text. From this perspective, it is considered as non-metadiscourse.

These two concepts are used in both interactive and reflexive approaches to metadiscourse analysis to make a distinction between what can be counted as metadiscourse and what is the content of the text. Yet, both approaches are different in what is included in the world of discourse. For the reflexive approach, metadiscourse is identified with linguistic matters realizing the writer's acts of text-organizing and some interactions with the reader. Linguistic expressions used to serve the writer's acts in expressing attitude, stance, evaluation, and narration are viewed as non-metadiscursive in the reflexive approach. For the interactive approach, in contrast, verbal expressions concerning stance-making and all kinds of evaluations are treated as qualities of metadiscourse.

3. Metadiscourse must be explicit in reflecting the current state of the text.

The explicit reflection on the current state of the text can be manifested through linguistic matters that are used to actualize the writer's actions regarding textual organization. Thus, expressions used for text-organizing are considered as metadiscourse. Examples of this metadiscourse are those instances of various kinds of metadiscourse in the category of text-organizing functions (see instances of text-organizing metadiscourse functions in 2.2.3 in Chapter 2).

Note that, for Ädel's metadiscourse models, logical or discourse connectives, such as *however*, *in addition*, *but*, *so* and so on, are not treated as metadiscourse because they are not considered as explicit enough to reflect the ongoing-ness or current state of the text. However, for other studies on metadiscourse based on the same reflexive approach (Mauranen, 1992; and Toumi, 2009), logical connectives are also included as one of the metadiscourse functions. As her metadiscourse models are

applied to analyzing metadiscourse in the present study, logical connectives are thus not considered as metadiscourse in the present study.

4. Metadiscourse must refer to the current text, not another text.

The metadiscourse model of the present study considers the ongoing text (the text that the writer has written for the reader) as an entity in which metadiscourse occurs. Linguistic expressions for making reference to some parts of the ongoing text (or text-internal reference) are considered as having reflexivity on the text. In this way, they are metadiscourse. On the other hand, those expressions for making reference to other texts or someone or something outside the ongoing text (or text-external reference) are not reflexive of the current text, so they are treated as non-metadiscourse.

Examples of metadiscourse for text-internal reference are linguistic instances such as *the above questions, the following paragraph, the next section*. All of the underlined words refer to some parts of the current text, not to another text.

For text-external references, attributors such as *according to Mr. X, In the article written by Y, as Z said* are examples of linguistic expressions used for referring to a different text or someone outside the current text. They are non-metadiscursive. Nor are excerpts or any quoted words or sentences from different sources considered as metadiscursive. This is because these linguistic features have attributes of intertextuality rather than text-internal reference.

5. In the interactional mode of metadiscourse, the person that initiates the interaction must be the actual writer of the current text.

The presence of the actual writer of the current text is manifested by the explicit use of first person pronouns such as *I* and *we* as in *We will discuss this later,*

or before *I go into debate on ...*, let me show you something. Moreover, the writer must perform the discourse acts that are in the world of discourse as described in the criteria 2. The discourse acts that the writer performs in these previous examples are concerned with the ongoing discourse, not the actions she performs in the real world. In this way, these expressions are considered as metadiscursive.

By contrast, evaluations made of the propositional content of the text, or narrations made on particular happenings are the writer's acts that fall out of the world of discourse. In this way, pronouns referring to the writer that performs evaluative as well as narrative acts are considered as non-metadiscursive. Take this sentence as an example: *I went to the Bangkok Art Center and found that ...* Of course, the pronoun *I* in this sentence refers to the true writer that actually has written the text, but *I* here is the *narrative I* since the writer recounts a story happening in the real world through her experience. Thus this *I* is not in the world of discourse, and thus not metadiscourse.

In the case of the pronoun *we*, the referents that the pronoun *we* refers to must be the actual writer of the ongoing text, or the writer and the reader of the current text; otherwise it cannot be considered as metadiscourse. In addition, the act that *we* performs must be in the world of discourse. The discourse acts in the world of discourse restrict the range of the referents that the pronoun *we* refers to—just the writer and the reader of the current text. For example, in the phrase: *we will discuss this later*, the act of discussing is performed in the world of discourse, and it must be performed by only the writer, not another person.

Yet, there are many cases where the referents that the pronoun *we* refers to does not refer to the writer or the reader of the ongoing text. They can be the writer

plus other people that are outside the interaction between the writer and the reader of the ongoing text, as in *we went to the location last week and ...* In this example, the pronoun *we* of course refers to the actual writer, but it does not refer to the actual reader of the current text. Rather, it refers to the writer of the current text plus another person, so it is not metadiscourse. Moreover, the writer herself also does not act in the world of discourse, but performs the act of narrating her experience with another person in the real world. Therefore, *we* here is not a metadiscursive pronoun.

6. In the interactional mode of metadiscourse, the actor that is the addressee in the interaction is restricted to the actual reader of the current text.

The reader in the text is represented by second person pronouns and some other words referring to the actual reader of the current text such as “*Dear readers.*” The second person pronouns *you*, *your*, *yours*, and *yourself* are considered as pronominal referents to the imagined reader that is reading the text. The second person pronouns referring to the actual reader that is reading the text are the pronominal items that are used for text-organizing functions, for instance, *as shown to you in the last paragraph, x is y.*

However, for the interaction-managing functions, the semantic range of person that the second person pronoun *you* is used to refer to is not necessarily restricted to only the actual reader that interacts with the writer by the acts of text-organizing. The semantic scope is extended to cover people in general as well. The person pronoun *you* that refers to people in general other than the actual reader can be found in the metadiscourse interaction-managing functions of *Anticipating the Reader's Reactions* and *Hypothesizing about the Reader* in Ädel (2006), or *Anticipating the audience's response* in Ädel (2010). Consider the underlined second person pronouns in (3).

(3)

For now, Google uses the data to sell targeted ads, but who says the company's use of the data will be restricted to that purpose? Opt out of Google's data collection? Sure, you can do that — but you'll also have to delete your Gmail account and leave Google's ecosystem. [AM 2]

The pronouns *you* and *your* are used to refer not only to the reader that is reading the passage, but also to those in general that use Gmail.

However, in some cases the second person pronouns possibly refer to persons other than the actual reader of the current text. Sometimes they can be used to refer to people in general, or members of a particular group. Consider the example in text (4) below.

(4)

Another reason for the protest was that they weren't happy with the mobile phone signals being blocked.

It probably annoyed them because they couldn't make the calls to their drug dealer network to conduct business and that could seriously jeopardise their income and lifestyle.

What kind of warden does that?

Doesn't a prisoner have rights? Can't a guy make a call or two without having his signals scrambled? What kind of establishment are they running here, anyway?

Er, I think it's called a prison, a correctional facility, where the most basic of human rights – freedom – is usually compromised to teach you a lesson for something unlawful you have done. [TH 01]

The writer in the extracted text above writes an article about prisoners that staged a protest in a prison in a province in Thailand. The pronoun *you* here does not explicitly refer to all of the actual readers that are reading the article, but it refers to those that have done something unlawful in the real world. In fact, it is used to mean the

members of a certain group of people, the prisoners.

To sum, all six metadiscursive dimensions were treated as criteria for identifying linguistic instances or expressions that are considered metadiscourse. In practice, when the text analyst has some doubts about whether the targeted linguistic instance is actually a metadiscourse item, he or she has to take into consideration these six metadiscursive properties.



APPENDIX B

TAXONOMY OF METADISCOURSE FUNCTIONS

Appendix B illustrates how each of the metadiscourse functions of the present study is used in discourse. In one sense, the appendix is like coding rubrics that show how the metadiscourse expressions were identified in the texts of the present study.

There are six separate sections in this appendix. Section 1 presents the overall metadiscourse taxonomy in the tables. Section 2 is about the construction of the present metadiscourse model and its adaptations from original metadiscourse models. Sections 3 and 4 are concerned mainly with the explanations of the functions of text-organizing metadiscourse and reader-interacting metadiscourse, respectively. Explanations of each of the sub-functions of text-organizing-metadiscourse and reader-interacting metadiscourse in these sections are provided with examples of metadiscursive expressions analyzed from texts in AWC and TWC. Furthermore, what was treated as potential metadiscourse and exceptions to what was counted as metadiscourse is demonstrated in these two sections. Section 5 deals with how to count instances of metadiscursive expressions. At the end, section 6 is about the nature of multi-functionality of metadiscourse and how to quantify multi-functional metadiscursive expressions

1 Metadiscourse Taxonomy

Metadiscourse is divided into two main types in the present study: text-organizing metadiscourse (TOM) and reader-interaction metadiscourse (RIM). The overall picture of metadiscourse taxonomy is displayed below in Table 1.

Table B.1 Metadiscourse taxonomy

Text-Organizing Metadiscourse (Non-interactional and Interactional metadiscourse)	
1	Meaning Clarifying
2	Referring
2.1	Endophorics
2.2	Anaphorics
2.3	Cataphorics
3	Sub-topic Managing
3.1	Topic Shift Markers
3.2	Enumeration
3.2.1	Enumerating
3.2.2	Enumerators
3.3	Closing Markers
4	Topic Managing
4.1	Contextualizing
4.2	Introducing Topic
4.3	Concluding Topic
5	Discourse Act Labeling
4.1	Exemplifying
4.2	Question & Answer
4.3	Other Discourse Acts
Reader-Interacting Metadiscourse	
1	Anticipating the Reader's Reactions
2	Aligning Perspectives
3	Giving Evidence
4	Imagining Scenarios
5	Hypothesizing about the Reader
6	Interactive Questions

2 The construction of the present metadiscourse model

Three issues needed to be noted about the construction of the metadiscourse model of the present study: the ambiguity of metadiscourse, the modification of the original models, and the interactional features of the metadiscourse of the present study. All three issues are explained in separate sub-sections below.

2.1 Ambiguous nature of metadiscourse

According to Crismore's (1989, cited in Ädel, 2006) recommendation, "*multifunctionality as well as scope, degree of explicitness and fuzzy categories*" (p. 22) are four common aspects of metadiscourse models. These four aspects represent the ambiguous nature that metadiscourse models in all studies share irrespective of theoretical approaches.

Multifunctionality refers to the fact that one metadiscourse instance may possibly have more than one functions. Put differently, metadiscourse multifunctionality refers to possible overlaps between two or more metadiscourse functions in a taxonomy. The other three are concerned with the imprecise boundary of functions, forms, and categories. In fact, all four are interrelated and present the fact that there is no clear-cut boundary of metadiscourse function. Moreover, though the function of metadiscourse is defined and described in taxonomy, how many linguistic forms serving such a function cannot be known exactly. As such, the classification of metadiscourse into categories of functions may be fuzzy in some respects.

The ambiguous nature of metadiscourse is generally acknowledged in the literature. Note thus should be made to those that are outside the metadiscourse

research community that, due to the ambiguous nature of metadiscourse, there is no absolutely correct or perfect metadiscourse model constructed without these possible deficiencies.

2.2 Modifications of original metadiscourse models

As noted before, the metadiscourse taxonomy of the present study was modified from Ädel's (2006 and 2010) models. Alternations were made based on the present researcher's personal view of writer-reader interactions in text, and personal observation on some of the recurrent discourse features found in all sixty opinion articles in newspapers. These features were not found in the original models

The present model is different from the original models in two distinct ways. One, there were additional metadiscourse features (emphatic markers such as *specifically, especially, particularly*) added to the category of metadiscourse function for clarifying meaning (see 3.1 below). Moreover, a new sub-function, Topic Shift Markers, was established in the text-managing function (see 3.3.1 below). Two, questions and imperatives were treated as interactional features of metadiscourse in the present study. Both were found in some interactional features of the metadiscourse functions (Topic Shift Markers, Giving Evidence, Interactive Questions, for instance), but they were not considered as metadiscourse in the original models.

2.3 The interactional features of the metadiscourse of the present study

In Ädel's (2006 and 2010) models, questions and imperatives were not treated as interactional features of metadiscourse, theoretically because they were neither considered as linguistic features explicitly referring to the text itself

(metadiscursive qualities for TOM), nor as explicit metadiscursive instances reflecting the presence of the actual writer and actual reader of the current text via forms of personal pronouns (interactional features of both TOM and RIM). See the essential elements of the metadiscursive features of metadiscourse models of Ädel (2006 and 2010) in Appendix A.

In the present study, however, Ädel's (2006 and 2010) criteria for identifying interactional metadiscourse were adapted by allowing the interrogative and imperative forms to have metadiscursive qualities. Questions and imperatives were thus investigated and analyzed for the metadiscourse functions they served.

The notion of questions and imperatives of the present study is different from Ädel's; they are considered as adequately reflexive of the interactions between the writer and the reader even though there are no metadiscursive pronouns (pronouns referring to the actual writer and actual reader of the current text) occurring in them. The reason is derived from the present researcher's personal view that it is perceivable that the questions and imperatives (with metadiscursive properties) are addressed directly to the true reader of the current text without personal pronouns. Consider the extract (1) below.

(1)

Imagine there was an organization that serially leaked the nation's most highly protected secrets — exposing intelligence sources and methods, and sharing classified information with the press that put lives at risk. [AM 27]

It is understandable that the imperative form of the verb *Imagine* at the beginning of the paragraph is the voice of the writer addressed directly to the reader of the current text (not other persons in the world), asking him to imagine (thus serving the function

of Imagining Scenarios), even though there are no personal pronouns representing the explicit presence of the writer or the reader. In the case of questions, see example (2) below.

(2)

For now, Google uses the data to sell targeted ads, but who says the company's use of the data will be restricted to that purpose? Opt out of Google's data collection? Sure, you can do that — but you'll also have to delete your Gmail account and leave Google's ecosystem. [AM 2]

The underlined interrogative form is a question addressed directly to the reader (not to any others in the real world) and it is used to anticipate the reader's reactions to the matter that the writer is talking about (thus serving the metadiscourse function of Anticipating the Reader's Reactions). In the same vein, though there is no presence of the writer or reader with first or second person pronouns, it is clear that the question is asked of the reader of the current text.

Note also that not all questions and imperatives in the corpora were considered as metadiscourse, however. They were coded as metadiscourse as long as the contextual analysis indicated that they were addressed by the actual writer of the text to the actual reader of the text. Put another way, they must not be quoted from other sources, which suggested that they had been addressed by another person other than the writer of the text. Additionally, they must be classifiable into one metadiscourse function in the taxonomy.

3 Text-Organizing Metadiscourse

In this section, explanations of the five functions of TOM are provided. They are explained with examples of metadiscourse items and expressions, all of which

were taken from the sixty newspaper opinion articles in both AWC and TWC.

According to the reflexive theory of metadiscourse adopted in the present study, TOM is viewed according to two dimensions: the non-interactional and interactional. In order to show examples of TOM, non-interactional ones are presented first followed by the interactional ones. This order was applied to all of the explanations of all five sub-functions of the TOM.

At the end of the section, the search terms used for finding potential metadiscourse instances in each category of the text-organizing functions are provided in Table B.2. For RIM, no account of the search terms is displayed since the search terms for this metadiscourse were restricted to only the first and second person pronouns.

3.1 Meaning Clarifying

This discourse function is commonly known as ‘glosses’ or ‘code glosses’ in several other studies using the interactive approach (e.g. Hyland 1998; Hyland and Tse, 2004; Dafouz-Milne 2008, etc.). The Meaning Clarifying in the present study refers to the verbal expressions that the writer uses to comment on a certain linguistic aspect of the preceding text—whether it be a linguistic form or a semantic feature of a word, phrase, clause, or chunk of discourse. Consider example (3) for a non-interactional type of Meaning Clarifying.

Non-interactional

(3)

And that leads to another question: whether the centre can improve – or, in other words, fully serve its functions – without the expansion plan. Cultural centres all around the globe have shown that they can work with limitations in their infrastructures. [TH 29]

The underlined *in other words* here is a unit of metadiscourse. It is used to paraphrase the preceding word *improve* by narrowing down the semantic range with the more specific meaning of *fully serve its functions*, which is what the writer intends to mean in the context.

The discourse functions of Meaning Clarifying, are used to reformulate the preceding text. Textual reformulation like this can be done in two ways: first by expanding the meaning by explanation and implication, and second by narrowing down the meaning by paraphrasing and specifying (Hyland, 2007). Many reformulators are sentential adverbs such as *put bluntly*, *that's to say*, *to put another term*, etc. marked in appositives, or located at the beginning of a clause/sentence, as in: *Put bluntly, without fertilizer the world grounds to a halt.* [AM 3] In the present study, reformulating expressions are considered as Meaning Clarifying metadiscourse.

Moreover, emphasizing markers such as *specifically*, *especially*, *particularly*, and *in particular* can also be used to specify meaning in discourse, especially for illuminating a certain semantic aspect in the discourse. The present study takes only those functioning at a discourse level as potential metadiscourse, for example, those that are used at the beginning of the sentence, or in an aside, and those that are particularly marked with punctuative devices such as dashes or commas. Those that are used to modify adjectives or verbs (such as *especially important*, *particularly low* etc.) were disqualified since they were not used at the discourse level, but rather at the sentential level. Examples of these types metadiscourse are displayed with (4), (5) and (6)

(4)

Asian cities — particularly smaller but rapidly growing ones — have significantly fewer resources available to them than those in North America and Europe to prepare for and manage the challenge of major storms. [AM 15]

(5)

Her answer certainly reflects her political maturity after a year in office. More specifically, it shows her political skills in staying removed from a controversy that might land her in a difficult situation. [TH 15]

(6)

But the rising figure, at the same time, suggests that more people fall victim to mental illness, especially those in big cities who are more prone to developing the diseases than those in rural areas given they are overwhelmed by stress and work-related pressure, family conflict, skyrocketing cost of living, financial crisis and so forth. [TH 9]

Additionally, verbs such as *call*, *suggest*, *imply* and *mean* that the writer uses when commenting some aspects of the meaning, or in giving a definition of a text, or connoting a specific meaning in the on-going discourse are also counted as metadiscourse. Examples (7), (8), and (9) illustrate the clarification of meaning that these verbs are employed for.

(7)

Today, by contrast, the leaders of the Episcopal Church and similar bodies often don't seem to be offering anything you can't already get from a purely secular liberalism. Which suggests that perhaps they should pause, amid their frantic renovations, and consider not just what they would change about historic Christianity, but what they would defend and offer uncompromisingly to the world. [AM 14]

(8)

... thus leading to a new imperialistic tendency called corporate imperialism. [TH 30]

(9)

None of this means that people today are born smarter. While I.Q. measures... [AM 13]

Nevertheless, there are some cases where *call* and *mean* are not counted as metadiscourse. If *call* is used for mentioning the name of an object or a person, as in “... *the launch of an Internet gadget called the Pyramid.*” [AM 8], it is not considered as metadiscourse since it has nothing to do with explaining or connoting meaning. As for *mean*, if the word carries the sense of “intend”, as in *I didn’t mean to do that* [invented], it is disqualified from being actual metadiscourse.

Apart from the commenting device mentioned above, there are some particular terms (e.g., *sentence*, *word*, *term*) used to refer to a part of the on-going discourse for the purpose of clarifying meaning. These words are also categorized in the function of Meaning Clarifying. The underlined word in (10) below shows how this type of word serves the function of Meaning Clarifying.

(10)

It's been well established as the most prestigious venue in the country, although event organisers and artists who would like to use the space know well that it is being operated with a high level of bureaucracy. Plus, the centre doesn't frequently organise its own events. And when there are no events, it feels like a desert – a term which cannot be used to refer to the Centre Pompidou or, for a more regional example not mentioned in the report, the Esplanade in Singapore. [TH 29]

Interactional

Interactional metadiscourse of Meaning Clarifying, and all the other types of TOM as well, must be identified with metadiscursive pronouns. See the underlined phrases in extracts (11) and (12) as examples.

(11)

Flynn argues that I.Q. is rising because in industrialized societies we give our brains a constant mental workout that builds up what we might call our brain sinews. [AM 13]

(12)

What also amazed me was that each raid of these prison facilities turned up dozens of mobile phones, many of them smartphones and even iPhones. I mean, I don't have an iPhone! I'm jealous! [TH 1]

Clarification by using Meaning Clarifying metadiscourse can be expressed by negations as well. Ädel (2006, and 2010) treats the negations performed by the writer of the text as one of her metadiscourse categories of *Clarifying*. See (13) and (14) for examples of the negated metadiscursive expressions of Meaning Clarifying.

(13)

Fourth, although I noted that “organic farming is probably better for the environment because less soil, flora and fauna are contaminated,” I did not allude specifically to a concern of many organiacs: The damaging effects of big agriculture’s fossil-fuel driven mono-cropping culture and the positive effects on biodiversity and sustainability of smallholders with organic farms. [AM 3]

(14)

For the past many years, the righteous, harmonious balance of Thai society has been a bit out of whack. We are not only talking about uppity provincial/colonial peasants marching on the Bangkok Empire, demanding to make things square and what not. There are other symptoms that have been upsetting the divine tranquility in this tropical Southeast Asian Eden. [TH 4]

With these metadiscursive expressions in (13) and (14), the writer sends a message with the hidden intention suggesting that “this is not what you (the reader) would think.” With this function, the writer tells the reader to not get her wrong on a particular point of argument or discussion, or to not interpret her message in another way. This type of negation is the result of the writer’s attempt to make a

guess concerning the reader's mind about how he will interpret the meaning of what she is writing, which usually occurs during the writing process.

3.2 Referring

Referring is concerned with the phoric system of discourse (text-reference system). In pragmatics, there are two main types of reference: 1) reference to the internal parts of a text, which is called *endophoric*; and 2) to the external parts outside the ongoing text, or *exophoric*. The metadiscourse function of Referring of the present study deals only with text-internal reference. It was sub-divided further into three functions: Endophorics (referring to the present time and location of text), Anaphorics (referring backward), and Cataphorics (referring forward).

Non-Interactional

Instances of the metadiscourse function of Endophorics (referring to the immediate time and point in text) are found with words: *here* and *now*; as in *Before I get to the dreary budget debates in Washington, here's a bright spot of good news: We're getting smarter.* [AM 21] Note that *here* and *now*, which do not refer to a part of the text that the reader is reading, are not treated as metadiscourse, for example, *Here in Massachusetts, ...* [AM 9], *What kind of establishment they are running here anyway?* [TH 1]

An example of Anaphorics (referring back) is shown in (15), and Cataphorics (referring forward) in (16) below.

(15)

As expected, the report received both praise and condemnation. But the latter is not only louder, it is also coming from those now in power. Therefore, it will not be at all easy for the TRC recommendations that have upset the red camp to be implemented by the government. [TH 15]

(16)

Recent major curriculum changes have not really delivered desirable results. New problems, after all, have arisen. The following cases illustrate the lessons I learned from visiting several universities in the US. [TH 28]

Interactional

For the interactional type of phoric, metadiscourse can be found in expressions such as the underlined phrases in (17), which function as Cataphorics, or referring forward to the upcoming part of the text.

(17)

Before I get to the dreary budget debates in Washington, here's a bright spot of good news: We're getting smarter. [AM 13]

3.3 Sub-topic Managing

This metadiscourse function is used for managing minor topics in argument writing. In this study, the writer's acts in managing sub-topics were divided into three stages according to the text procedural progression: topic raising, topic transferring, and topic closing.

Metadiscourse markers for creating a new minor topic is classified in the category of Topic Shift Markers; for transferring or indicating points in a series, Sequence Markers; and for wrapping up ideas of a sub-topic that has been discussed, Closing Markers. In writing, it is not necessary that all of these three types of metadiscourse be used consecutively in a row; one might occur without the others, depending on the writers' personal style and the textual coherence.

3.3.1 Topic Shift Markers

Topic Shift Markers are linguistic markers or verbal expressions that signal explicitly that a new sub-topic is being raised in a flow of continually-progressing text. This metadiscourse typically appears with certain constructions such as: On + a subject matter, In terms of + subject matter, With regard to + subject etc.; as in *On fiscal policy, the Myanmar government is likely to run a large fiscal deficit in the...*[TH 16]; *On monetary policy, the central bank's willingness to print money to finance the public.* [TH 16]

Only those that are used at discourse level are counted as potential metadiscourse; that is, those that function inter-clausally or inter-sententially. These markers are often identified at the beginning of a sentence as adverbial, and in some cases at the beginning of the paragraph. A topic shifter is a metadiscourse category equivalent to the *topicalizer* (Dafouz-Milne, 2008) in the interactive approach.

Regarding the interactional features of this metadiscourse, the question form in the construct What about + sub-topic? can be counted as this metadiscourse function, especially when it occurs at the beginning of the paragraph. After the new subject matter is raised by the question, the writer usually supplies details about the topic she has shifted in the following. Consider the extract (18) below.

(18)

Asia is catching up to the West in the agricultural revolution and in industrialisation. What about this third wave, information technology? There's no doubt that Asians want to participate. Indonesia has the second largest number of social media network users in the world after the US. India, the Philippines and Thailand are among the top seven. [TH 17]

3.3.2 Sequence Markers

Sequence markers are those linguistic markers that are employed specifically to manage the points in a series. The writer's performance in sequence managing can be perceived in the writing act of enumerating or itemizing discourse points. In this study, there were two sub-divisions of Sequence Markers: Enumerating and Enumerators.

3.3.2.1 Enumerating

Enumerating refers to the expressions that the writer uses to tell the reader how many points that she is going to mention or discuss.

Non-interactive

(19)

There are several important things to point out about the Gates approach. [AM 1]

(20)

There are reasons to regard this proposal as improbable, starting with the owners of owners of Madison Square Garden, who are in the middle of renovating their venue. [AM 15]

Interactive

(21)

There are two points I'd like to make about this vaginal whitening trend. First is about the white-skin frenzy among Thai women (and men), and second is about the issue of consumer protection. [TH 12]

(22)

But how can we bring this white skin craze to an end? This question brings us to my second point. [TH 12]

3.3.2.2 Enumerators

Enumerators are numerical markers that itemize the points of the discussion in sequential order. The writer makes use of them in order to mark explicitly the discussion points that she is arguing in the text, or to itemize some aspects of something that she is going to describe one by one in a series. There is no interactional dimension of Enumerators. Extract (23) displays some of enumerators found in texts.

Non-interactive

(23)

To answer this question, we must understand the main drivers of the recent increase in private consumption. First, the government has adopted a few fiscal initiatives to stimulate consumer spending. ... Second, the minimum wage hike in April 2012 has enhanced the purchasing power of many low-income workers. ... [TH 6]

3.3.3 Closing Markers

The metadiscourse function of Closing Markers is used for concluding the ideas of a certain point that the writer has discussed or elaborated on before. They are always identified in the middle of the article when the writer wraps up an idea before moving on to discuss another point. Closing Markers must not function as a concluding remark of the whole argument, which usually appears at the end of the article. Concluding the whole idea of a text is not done at a sub-topic level but rather at a higher level of the text. Making a conclusion of what the writer says in the entire article is categorized in the Topic Managing functions (the next function of TOM).

Metadiscourse instances of Closing Markers are identified with concluding remarks such as *In short* as in (24) below.

(24)

Google has been modest about its dominance in the modern information society, asserting that competing search engines, like Yahoo or Microsoft's Bing, are just "one click away" if people wish to use them. The Internet is an extraordinarily complex domain with equally powerful challengers, the company points out. Facebook makes Google's own social media platform look like a joke. Far more shoppers begin their online product searches through Amazon than Google. In short, there's enough competition out there, Google says, that consumers ought not to fear the company's mighty role in the information economy. [AM 2]

3.4 Topic Managing

Unlike Referring and the Sub-topic Managing, which are used for managing points in a discourse, Topic Managing is one of the metadiscourse functions that is used to manage a higher level of discourse structure. It is centrally concerned with the language expressions that the writer uses to talk about her own topic or the issue she chooses to write about in her own article. This metadiscourse function is done in three different ways: Contextualizing, Introducing Topic, and Concluding Topic. All of them are sub-functions of Topic Managing.

Contextualizing metadiscourse is used by the writer to tell the reader about the social or physical context at the time that she was writing her article. Contextualizing can be represented by the writer's mentioning the physical environment, her emotional feeling at the moment of writing, or some issues that are at the center of people's attention in society at the time.

Introducing Topic metadiscourse is realized through the linguistic expressions that the writer uses to introduce the topic to the reader. It is always used at the beginning of the article before the writer guides him into the text content.

Concluding Topic metadiscourse is used for the writer to conclude her opinion at the end of the article. It is simply discourse concluding remarks such as *In sum*, *To conclude*, *In conclusion*, etc., for instance.

Non-interactional

An example of non-interactional Topic Managing metadiscourse is shown in example (25) for the sub-function of Concluding Topic.

(25)

In sum, the tax rebate from the expiring first-time car buyer programme and the second round of the minimum wage hike will provide an important support to private consumption. So the answer to our question is yes – consumer spending will continue to drive the economy in 2013, but at a growth rate lower than in 2012. [TH 6]

Interactional

Examples of interactional metadiscourse are shown in (26) for the sub-function of Contextualizing, and (27) for Introducing.

(26)

I am bringing this up because the current presidential race has demonstrated that a million dollars is nothing — nothing — these days. Nothing! A million dollars is what they give you for designing the best pantsuit on a reality TV show. [AM 6]

(27)

In this essay, I would like to discuss about + (topic)...;
[invented]

In this article, I'm going to show you + (topic) etc. [invented]

3.5 Discourse Act Labeling

Discourse acts basically refer to the speech acts that the writer uses into performing varieties of actions in the composition. The writer can do a lot of things with the process of composition. For example, she may let the reader know that she is adding to the text an explanation, or one or more discussion points. She may tell the reader explicitly that she is arguing, exemplifying, explaining, answering a question posed in the discourse, addressing questions in the text, or comparing two sets of ideas, and so on. All of these acts of composition are called *discourse acts* in the present study. They are used metadiscursively when the writer wants to notify the reader explicitly about what she is going to do with her composition at a particular moment in the text. These discourse acts are realized through the direct speech acts performed for exemplifying, adding topic, arguing, informing, answering, or questioning, for example.

There are numerous kinds of discourse acts. The common feature that all the acts share is that they are involved with verbalization. Linguistic matters that are used for performing discourse acts are those of *verba dicendi* (Ädel, 2006), or verbs of linguistic articulation, such as *say, speak, write, express, discuss, argue, mention, note* and so forth. Not only verbs but their nominal forms and their nominalizations are also used for searching the metadiscourse of discourse acts. This is because the writer resorts to both verbs and nouns for performing her discourse acts.

The sub-categories of this metadiscourse function were created according to the high frequency of the metadiscourse occurrences found in the text analyzed. Those that occurred at a high frequency were Exemplifying and

Questioning and Answering. Other discourse acts that occurred with very low frequencies were categorized into the separate sub-function of Other Discourse Acts. The reason for doing this is that it is worthless to provide each of other low-frequency discourse acts in separate categories. There were too few occurrences of some types of discourse acts; for example, there were two occurrences of the act of noting in one corpus whereas there was only one in the other corpus. Comparing very rarely-occurring discourse acts between two corpora will not yield any significance. For this reason, the group of discourse acts with very low frequencies should be lumped into one single sub-category. Below are explanations of these sub-categories of function.

Exemplifying metadiscourse simply refers to any expressions that are used by the writer to provide examples in the text. Linguistic matters realizing this discourse function are those commonly-known fixed phrases such as *for example*, *for instance*, *such as*, and *like*. Note also that the word *like* possesses several meanings; only those that have the same meaning of *such as* are counted as metadiscourse of exemplifying.

Questioning and Answering metadiscourse is any verbal expression that the writer uses to address a question, and answer the question addressed by the writer herself in the text. The linguistic resource that the writer uses to perform the acts of questioning and answering is the words: *question* and *answer*.

Other Discourse Acts was set up as a separate category for varieties of discourse acts other than *exemplifying* and *questioning and answering*. This group of speech acts encompassed several kinds of discourse acts such as the acts of noting, discussing, and writing. These discourse acts occurred considerably less frequently than the acts of exemplifying and questioning and answering.

Non-interactive

Extract (28) displays an example of Exemplifying metadiscourse; (29) shows Questioning and Answering metadiscourse; and (30) represents discourse act of noting.

(28)

While Mayor Bloomberg has suffered frustrations and failures aplenty in his bids, say, to improve public education and relieve congestion in Midtown Manhattan, he has had the greenest of thumbs. [AM 11]

(29)

Can Japan make the tough decisions?

The question here is no different than in Europe or The United States: Can democracies still rouse themselves to do hard things? Prime Minister Yoshihiko Noda, the sixth Japanese leader in as many years and many accounts the most sensible, is trying to provide a novel answer. [AM 24]

(30)

Also it is important to note that domestic demand in 2013 will be given a substantial lift by various public investment projects. [TH 6]

Interactive

The interactional dimension of Questioning and Answering metadiscourse is shown in extract (31) and Other Discourse Acts (the act of informing) in (32)

(31)

To answer this question, we must understand the main drivers of the recent increase in private consumption. [TH 6]

(32)

Just as I am writing this piece, the local capital market is filled with interesting developments. [TH22]

Table B.2 Search terms for Text-Organizing metadiscourse

Metadiscourse Functions	Search Terms
1 Meaning Clarifying	<i>call*, defin*, mean*, i.e., in other words, namely, put*, brief*, blunt*, that is, that is to say, in a nutshell, literally, so to speak, sentence*, text*, word*, term*, suggest*, particular*, imply, implice*, especially, and specifically</i>
2 Referring Endophorics Anaphorics Cataphorics	<i>here, now</i> <i>above, again, already, back to, before, earlier, last, previous*, remind*, so far, the former, and the latter.</i> <i>below, following, later, next, over to, plan*, subsequent, and turn* to</i>
3 Sub-topic Managing	<i>first*, second*, third*, fourth*, and fifth* point*, thing*, case*, begin*, end*, final*, introduc*, last*, and start*.</i>
4 Topic Managing Contextualizing	<i>writ*, wrote, choose*, chose*, subject, space, time*, period, think*, thought, think of, and now.</i>

Introducing Topic	<i>aim*</i> , <i>intend*</i> , <i>intention*</i> , <i>outlin*</i> , and <i>present*</i>
Concluding Topic	<i>conclu*</i> , and <i>sum*</i>
5 Discourse Acts Verbalizing	
Exemplifying	<i>case*</i> , <i>exempl*</i> , <i>instance</i> , <i>e.g.</i> , <i>such as</i> , <i>like</i> , and <i>say</i>
Questioning and Answering	<i>answer*</i> , <i>ask*</i> , <i>question*</i> ,
Other Discourse Acts	<i>express*</i> , <i>mention*</i> , <i>put*</i> , <i>say*</i> , <i>said</i> , <i>speak*</i> , <i>spoke*</i> , <i>state*</i> , <i>answer*</i> , <i>add*</i> , <i>agree*</i> , <i>argu*</i> , <i>believ*</i> , <i>belief*</i> , <i>disagree*</i> , <i>emphas*</i> , <i>stress*</i> , and <i>underlin*</i>

4 Reader-Interacting Metadiscourse

All functions of RIM are interactional metadiscourse. All of the metadiscourse expressions in this category must be identified with personal pronouns referring to the actual author, or the actual reader, or both of them. The methods of identifying of these metadiscursive pronouns are explained in 5, and 6 in Appendix A. As the present study incorporates questions and imperatives as interactional features of the RIM functions, apart from pronouns, all of the questions and imperatives in the texts were analyzed for potential metadiscourse. There are six types of RIM. Below are explanations of all the functions and methods for identifying metadiscourse functions.

4.1 Anticipating the Reader's Reactions

This function refers to the writer's act of guessing the reader's mind.

The writer may think about her imagined reader in many ways, for example, what he would think about the ideas she has proposed in the essay, or whether he would agree or disagree on the point of the argument she made, or whether or not he likes the examples she chose in her article, and so on. All of the possible expectations that the writer can have in relation to the reader's mind serve this function, and so any linguistic expressions that actualize such textual performance are considered as Anticipating the Reader's Reactions. An example of how the writer anticipates the reader's reactions is shown in (33) in the following.

(33)
Newt Gingrich's "super PAC" got \$5 million from billionaire Sheldon Adelson, a casino owner, in what Adelson's associates said was an act of friendship. I certainly hope so, since giving money to the Gingrich-for-president effort at this point is like betting that the New York Jets will win the Super Bowl. You would think that a casino owner would know what futile acts of desperation look like. [AM 6]

4.2 Aligning Perspectives

Aligning Perspectives is a metadiscourse function that the writer employs to convince the reader about her proposal in a rather forceful but implicit way. It has a persuasive effect on the reader's mind in that force is imposed on the reader to follow unwarily the writer's argument. See extract (34) as an example.

(34)
Usually, the recipient was a poor schlub who was over the top with joy until it turned out that the money didn't buy happiness. Clearly, we were all better off in our humble homes, clustered around our 14-inch TVs. [AM 6]

At the cognitive level, this metadiscourse function occurs when the

writer has previously given information as premise for her reader to draw a conclusion (or a proposal of text). The writer chooses to express her opinion by the style of perspective-alignment. The linguistic clues that help metadiscourse analysts in detecting the writer's voice with Aligning Perspectives are sentential adverbs such as “*Clearly*” as in (34) above, or some expressions such as “*Based on this biological truth*” in (35) below, which indicates that a conclusion can be inferred from the preceding information of the current text.

(35)
Based on this simple biological truth, we can predict with some certainty that our leaders will follow the example of the Mayan, Roman and Khmer civilizations, and more recently, Greece and Spain: They will run the clock out. When the cliff is upon us, and our hearts pound and our bodies fill with ancient chemicals, we will spring into action with the same urgency we have when encountering a snake in our path. [AM 23]

This metadiscourse function is identified with the occurrences of the pronominal *we*. This pronoun is known as the *rhetorical we*, or the *we* that refers to the writer and the reader. This *rhetorical we* suggests the sense that the writer and reader are in the same group. In the metadiscursive expressions of Aligning Perspectives, the pronoun *we* is always followed by the modal verbs with the construct of (we + modal + verb), as in *as we can see*, *as we all know*, or *we can expect that ...* and so forth.

In one respect, Aligning Perspectives can simultaneously be seen as stance markers rather than as metadiscourse, clearly because they are used for arguing (stance making). Expressions such as *we should encourage...*, *we need national accepted standard*, *we need to emphasize that ...* can be viewed as assertions, which is

one way that the writer uses to express her opinion. Nevertheless, Aligning Perspectives with a strong sense of an asserting opinion were not counted as metadiscourse in the present study, since the linguistic expressions for making a stance or evaluation are not counted as metadiscourse (see the criteria for metadiscourse identification in 2 of Appendix A).

In the present study, not all of the expressions with the construct of [we + modal + verb] were considered as Aligning Perspectives. The borderline that separates the Aligning Perspectives, which are considered as metadiscursive, from those that are not is that the metadiscourse of Perspective Aligning must not be assertive but conclusive. The act of asserting is rather explicit in stance making, but the conclusive tone of voice is more implicit in the expression of opinions or attitudes.

The assertive aspects of Aligning Perspectives can be manifested through *deontic verbs* such as *must*, *should*, *need to*, for instance. For the metadiscourse function of Aligning Perspectives, there must not be occurrences of these deontic verbs in the unit of the metadiscursive expression. Extract (36) shows an example of this metadiscourse function.

(36)

Is experience in running a large corporation a reliable qualification indicator for running a country and its economy? Not necessarily. Why? The short answer is that a country is not a large corporation. A fuller answer requires us to turn to the difference between good business judgment and good economic analysis and policy-making. [TH 18]

4.3 Giving Evidence

Giving Evidence is expressed through the form of the imperative. Most of the items of Giving Evidence markers found in the corpus were the word *consider*, and it was usually followed by evidence. Evidence here refers to the details that the writer uses to suggest the supporting idea of her argument. Evidence can be a single word or a whole narrative paragraph of a story. Extract (37) shows how Giving Evidence functions.

(37)

Somewhere along the line, talking heads, politicians and experts decided that every problem we face is caused by politics and economics. So the only solutions we hear about are along these lines. In other words, a kind of narrowing has taken place: We blame our government, we blame the economy, we blame foreign competition, we blame Wall Street and big business.

But consider this: Every country in the world is struggling with a similar list of problems — job creation, wild fluctuations in financial markets, climate change, clean water, terrorism and so on. And yet, they each have their own political and economic systems, as well as vastly different cultures. At some point, a light bulb ought to go off. The reason the cliffs keep looming, one after the other, isn't just politics or economics. What we have is a species-wide problem. [AM 23]

4.4 Imagining Scenarios

As the name makes clear, Imagining Scenarios is a metadiscourse function used as a strategy for the writer to direct the reader to imagine. In writing especially argumentative texts, the reader is not allowed to try to think or imagine something as freely as he would like. In written texts, the act of telling the reader to imagine something is not done without intention, but it is done with a certain purpose.

In extract (38) below, the writer uses this metadiscourse function to interact with the reader by ordering the reader to imagine a possible situation in the lead paragraph before introducing him to what the article is written about.

(38)

Imagine there was an organization that serially leaked the nation's most highly protected secrets — exposing intelligence sources and methods, and sharing classified information with the press that put lives at risk.

Sounds like WikiLeaks? Think again. It's ObamaLeaks. [AM 27]

The Imagining Scenarios metadiscourse can be captured in texts by the typical word *Imagine* in the form of an imperative, and it can be followed by a *what-if* interrogation to challenge the reader's disagreement, as in the text (39)

(39)

The fear of opening up dialogue to express one's opinion is far more dangerous and is in fact the real threat to national security. Imagine: What if the people of this country couldn't produce any kind of art to examine their past, and what if all newspapers were not allowed to talk about the red-shirt movement or the pro-democracy student uprisings of the past? [AM 21]

Imagining Scenarios has a similar function with Giving Evidence, in that what the reader is told to imagine is a kind of evidence for approving the writer's argument, but the borderline between these two functions is that Imagining Scenarios takes what would possibly happen in the future as likely evidence while Giving Evidence takes what has happened or what people in general know about or as concrete evidence.

4.5 Hypothesizing About the Reader

Like Aligning Perspectives, this interactional metadiscourse function overlaps with the stance making or attitude expressing since Hypothesizing the Reader “*judge[s] or evaluate[s]*” (Ädel, 2006; p. 77) the reader on several qualities such as identities, capabilities, or attitudes. Another feature that this metadiscourse function overlaps with *the real world* (see the concept of *the real world* and the *world of discourse* in Appendix A) is the fact that the referents, to which the second person pronoun *you* refers, extends to include people in general in the world other than the actual reader of the on-going discourse.

Though in one sense it can simultaneously be seen as an evaluative marker, the interaction between the writer and reader is explicit. With metadiscursive expressions of Hypothesizing about the Reader, the writer has a chance to talk directly to the reader about the self of the reader. Viewed from the angle of the reader, it sounds as if the writer is talking to the reader. According to this direct interaction, it is considered as interactional metadiscourse. Consider the interactional feature that this metadiscourse function carries with it in extract (40).

(40)

In Beijing last week, every conversation ended the same way. You could start off talking about art, or the stock market, or food. You could be sitting at a formal banquet or in somebody's house. You could be chatting with a businesswoman in a chic dress or a bureaucrat in a gray suit — but sooner or later she or he would lean over and ask: Have you heard anything? [AM 26]

The writer can talk about the reader in many ways depending on the situation that the writer is writing about; for example, the writer can make an

evaluation of how her imagined reader would react when meeting with a friend of hers suffering from a psychological disease (see example 41 below). The main linguistic items that are treated as discourse clues for searching Hypothesizing About the Reader are thus the pronoun *you* (as subject of a verb) and verbal hedges (such as modal verbs and some adverbs such as *probably*, *maybe*, *perhaps*, etc.). The following text (41) is an example of Hypothesizing about the Reader.

(41)

If treated properly, depression can be cured within a month even though medication is necessary for the next six months. Though on medication, however, my friend still showed no sign of improvement. She was still acting very slow and many times turned completely quiet with no good reason. If you asked her a question, you would need to give her extra time to figure out the answer. Ask her now and she would answer you 10 seconds later. [TH 9]

4.6 Interactive Questions

The metadiscours function of Interactive Questions in the present study refer to questions used for facilitating textual progression. Though the function is centrally concerned with managing information flow, it cannot be categorized as a TOM function. This is mainly because questions do not have linguistic elements that refer to the text itself, but because of the interactional nature embodied in the question, they are thus categorized as RIM. Before describing the function of Interactive Questions in detail, it is necessary to indicate how many types of questions there are in discourse and to discuss what types were used as Interactive Questions in the present study.

Fahnestock (2011) reviewed types of questions and concluded that there are in general three basic types of questions:

1 Erotema or a rhetorical question is a kind of question “*that requires no answer other than the audience’s agreement with the proposition implied*” (p. 298); see extracts (45) and (46) for examples.

2 Rogatio or Anthypophora is another type of question that is set and answered by text producers themselves. It “*is useful for managing issue construction and flow of support in arguments and for arranging the subtopics in expository texts*” (p. 299); see also extracts (42), (43), and (44) for examples.

3 Aporia is “*Neither an assertion masquerading as question nor a question that the rhetor will answer, this figure expresses a doubt, an unresolved point. The asker cannot answer it, or wishes to suggest an answer without specifying, or want to plant suspicion*” (p.299); see extract (47) as an example.

In order to ascertain which one is an interactive question and which one is not, it is necessary to consider the quality of each type of question as to what text functions it serves—or more specifically, whether it falls into the *world of discourse* or the *real world* as discussed in Appendix A. The *world of discourse* is concerned with the writing process of the on-going text, while the *real world* deals mainly with the content of the text and the writer’s stance expressed toward the content.

According to the characteristics of each types of questions given by Fahnestock (2011) above, Rogatio or Anthypophora is more text-oriented since it is mainly concerned with the duty of textual management, and it is thus in the *world of discourse*. With this characteristic, only Rogatio or Anthypophora was considered as a type of question that was metadiscursive in the present study; Erotema and Aporia were disqualified. Examples of Interactive Questions are shown below, followed by

those of Erotema and Aporia.

Examples of an Interactive Questions (Rogation or Anthypophora) are displayed below in extracts (42), (43) and (44). The common feature of Interactive Questions is that the question is set by the writer herself and immediately answered on her own. It is a facilitating technique for developing the flow of information. The following answer given by the writer can technically function as bringing up a discussion, providing a supporting idea, or just adding additional information. It can also be used as an introduction to a new sub-topic, or *topical question* (Ädel, 2006).

(42)

Will frustrated lecturers work well for their class? The answer in a large number of cases is probably "no". Yet, many educational institutes have now left a large number of their teaching staff in frustration [TH 23]

(43)

At that point, the group's attorneys decided not to appeal to the U.S. Supreme Court, as they had previously pledged to. Instead, they released the name of the donor: yet another 501(c)(4), the Center to Protect Patient Rights, run by Sean Noble, a longtime associate of the billionaire Koch brothers. And where did the Center to Protect Patient Rights get its donation? From the Virginia-based group Americans for Job Security — still another entity whose tax status enables it to avoid disclosing the identity of its donors, at least in federal elections. [AM 20]

(44)

Religion and commercialism can't be separated. The people in charge have simply learned to effect the merger in their own subtle ways. Well, more or less. Dhammakaya became questionable because the temple took the unholy marriage of spirituality and materialism to an extraordinary new level. "Heaven" became some sort of a condominium. The more you pay (in cash), the higher the floor you'll get. Not rich enough to donate millions? Fine. Stay in the lower units, then. [TH 27]

Erotema, on the other hand, has an evaluative function since the writer can use this type of question to assert her opinion toward the content of the text, but in

an indirect way. For Erotema, though not requiring an answer from the audience, its quality of being a rhetorical question forces the audience to agree with the writer's point once it is addressed. Aporia, too, has nothing to do with writing-process management or discourse-flow development but is used for raising doubts concerning the issues proposed.

See extract (45) and (46) as examples of Erotema, and (47) for Aporia.

(45)

After achieving a white face, white body, extra-white teeth, and white armpits, Thai woman's new mission is to have white private parts. (Who cares about white lies?) [TH12]

(46)

The looming arrival of the New Year gave me a chance to find an excuse to rebel against my warped but real existential agony. I look harder to find a way out of where I have been. After all, what do I have to lose, or to be afraid of? The deep dark pit where I have been is already a most dreadful place. [TH 26]

The questions addressed in (45) and (46) are rhetorically used to imply the writer's opinion that using the whitening wash is believed to be good for women, and no one would become aware that the ad is a kind of white lie.

(47)

If anyone knows the story of Macbeth, they will agree that if you pick any place on the world map and dig into its history, you surely find the story of Macbeth at some point. So why can people and governments around the world tolerate the same story and our censors cannot? [TH 21]

Also note that interrogative headlines are considered as Rogatio or Anthypophora. They are regarded as interactive questions because the reader will not know the opinion of the writer from information given in the headline; the reader has

to read the rest of the text for this opinion. In this respect, the interrogative headline functions like a guiding question, leading the reader to find out the answer or the writer's opinions about the whole content of the text below the headline.

5 **How to count metadiscourse**

There are three relevant issues concerning the quantification of metadiscourse in the present study: units of metadiscourse function, the calculation of frequencies of function per 10,000 words, and frequencies of metadiscursive pronouns and frequencies of functions. All of them are described in the following subheadings.

Units of metadiscourse function.

Following Ädel (2006), metadiscourse was counted by the occurrence of the function. A metadiscourse function was counted by neither words nor sentences. Regarding the non-interactional feature of TOM, metadiscursive instances were counted based on the search terms. For the metadiscourse items such as *for example*, *Put bluntly*, *That means*, *the former*, *the latter*, *in other words*, each of the terms was counted as one unit of metadiscourse function though each was composed of two or three lexical items.

For the interactional feature of metadiscourse of both TOM and RIM, the units of metadiscourse function were counted based on the instances of the metadiscursive pronouns. For example, the sentence *We are not talking about the uppity of ...*, which functions as Meaning Clarifying, was counted as one occurrence of a metadiscourse function. The personal pronoun "We" represents the interactional dimension between the writer and the reader of the current text. Verbs in the negative form "*are not talking about*" represent the metadiscourse function of clarifying meaning. Though

there are 5 words for using the function in an interactional manner, the whole sentence is counted as one functional unit, not 5 units.

Moreover, for the present study questions and imperatives were treated as interactional features of metadiscourse (RIM); one metadiscursive question was counted as one unit, and one metadiscursive imperative was counted as one as well.

Frequencies of metadiscourse pronouns and metadiscourse functions

Although pronouns are the index of interactional features, it does not mean that an occurrence of a metadiscursive pronoun will necessarily equal an interactional metadiscourse function. There were cases where more than one metadiscursive pronouns occurred in one metadiscourse function. See the extract (48) below.

(48)

Sure, you can do that — but you'll also have to delete your Gmail account and leave Google's ecosystem. [AM 2]

In (48), there are two units of metadiscourse functions (Hypothesizing about the Reader). One is counted by the first sentence; the other by the appositive. All three underlined pronouns are metadiscursive pronouns, but the acts of hypothesizing about the reader occurred two times, with the first and second pronouns *you* together with their following verb phrases being the indicators of the function. The third pronoun “*your Gmail*” is implicit in signaling the act of hypothesizing about the reader.

Frequency per 10,000 words

In the present study, the frequencies of metadiscourse functions were quantified with a scale of 10,000 words for the comparability of metadiscourse occurrences in different studies. For example, in this study, if ‘18.1 f-10,000 words’

were reported, it would be understood as: in the length of 10,000 words, there were 18.1 occurrences of a metadiscourse function.

6 Multi-functionality of metadiscourse

In metadiscourse research, it is normal that one metadiscourse expression can be categorized into more than one class of function. The metadiscourse identifying method of the present study is function-oriented; it is not an analysis on form, so the frequency of metadiscourse was thus calculated by the occurrences of functions used in the text. This means that, if one expression has a double function, it was counted twice according to the functions that metadiscursive expression serves.

For example, the sentence *There are several important things to point out about the Gates approach* [AM1] is considered as serving the metadiscourse function of Enumerating. On the other hand, the phrasal verb “*point out*” simultaneously functions as one of the writer’s rhetorical acts in the current text. In such a case, ‘*point out*’ is also classified as a metadiscourse function of Discourse Act Labeling.

APPENDIX C

METADISCOURSE FREQUENCIES OF OTHER STUDIES

In this Appendix, how the numerical data of metadiscourse frequencies of other studies was altered for the comparability of the contrast in 6.2.1, Chapter 6, is explained. Metadiscourse research, though based on the same theoretical ground, varies considerably from one to another in terms of equivalence of function, functional classifications, organizations of taxonomy, names assigned to each function, and corpus sizes. Therefore, it is necessary to make all of these differences comparable when contrasting the metadiscourse functions from different studies. Detailed notes on these alternations, which included the standardization of the number of metadiscourse of different corpus sizes into the same scale, the merging of some metadiscourse sub-functions of other studies in order to make them equivalent to those of the present study, are explained.

There were four studies from which the numerical data on metadiscourse frequencies were used as a contrast with the present study. These studies were: Hyland (1998), Hyland and Tse (2004), Ädel (2006) and Pérez-Llantada (2010). Next, how the numbers of metadiscourse of these studies were altered for the contrasts in 6.2.1 is explained. Note also that the names of metadiscourse functions of other studies are presented with bolded letters.

1. Hyland (1998) has researched metadiscourse in research articles in four academic disciplines: applied linguistics, astrophysics, biology and marketing. Only the metadiscourse sub-function of **Endophoric markers** was contrasted with the equivalent function of Referring of the present study.

In his study, the number of metadiscourse of this function was calculated with the scale of frequency per 1,000 words. The number of **Endophoric markers** was reported to occur 4 items per 1,000 words, or 637 words in the corpus totaling 160,000 word counts (p. 446). This figure was standardized into the same scale as the present study's scale of frequency per 10,000 words, or 40 items, so that it was equivalent to and contrastable with those of Referring of the present study.

2. Hyland and Tse (2004) have studied L2 English metadiscourse in master's theses and doctoral dissertations. The metadiscourse sub-function of **Endophorics** was contrasted with the equivalent function of Referring of the present study. The number of metadiscourse contrasted with that of Referring was the averaged number of the total of both the master's theses and doctoral dissertations as reported in their study (p. 170). The metadiscourse frequencies of their study were already standardized with the same scale of frequencies per 10,000 words as that of the present study, so standardization of the raw frequencies of metadiscourse was not performed.

3. Ädel (2006) has studied metadiscourse in argumentative essays written by university students. There were three corpora in her study: Swedish L2 English, L1 American English and L1 British English.

In order to be contrastable with Referring of the present study, the numbers of metadiscourse occurrences of only three sub-functions (referring backward, forward, and to the current place and time) of **Phorics** (p.103) were merged whereas those of the other three sub-functions of **Phorics** (itemizing, introducing and closing subtopic) were excluded.

The number of **Contextualizing** (p. 79) metadiscourse in her study was used without alternation.

To be functionally equivalent to the Introducing and Concluding of the present study, the numbers of **Introducing** and **Concluding** in the category of personal **Metatext** (p. 79) were added to those of **Introducing** and **Concluding** of the category of impersonal **Discourse Labels** (p. 116)

To be contrasted with the Exemplifying of the present study, the numbers of uses of **Exemplifying** in personal **Metatext** were summed with those of **Exemplifying** in impersonal **Discourse Labels**.

To be equivalent to the Question and Answer of the present study, only the numbers of metadiscourse instances functioning as *asking*, *answering*, and presenting *questions* in **Saying & Defining** in impersonal **Discourse Labels** were summed.

To be contrasted with Other Speech Acts of the present study, the numbers of uses of **Saying** in personal **Metatext** were added to those of the three sub-functions of impersonal **Discourse Labels: Saying & Defining** (by excluding the numbers of metadiscourse functioning for *defining*, which was presented by *as it were* and *call*; and for *asking*, *answering*, and presenting *questions*), and **Arguing** and **Adding**, so that they could be contrasted with those of the present research.

For the reader-interaction functions, four functions in Ädel's study were contrasted with those of the present study without alternations because of functional equivalence. These functions were: **Anticipating the Reader's Reactions**, **Aligning Perspectives**, **Imagining Scenarios**, and **Hypothesizing about the Reader**.

In her study, the metadiscourse frequencies were calculated with the scale of frequency per 100,000 words, which was different from the present study's scale. In order to be contrastable with the metadiscourse frequencies of the present study, the number of metadiscourse occurrences in her study was thus standardized into the

scale of 10,000 words.

4. Pérez-Llantada (2010) has studied metadiscourse in two sections (introduction and discussion) of biomedical research articles. There were three corpora in her study: L1 American English, Spanish L2 English, and L1 Spanish. Only the metadiscourse frequencies of the two English corpora were used to contrast with those of the present study in 6.2.1 (see also the accounts of the numerical data in her study).

The metadiscourse functions that were equivalent to those of the present study were: **Exemplifying**, **Introducing** (equivalent to Introducing Topic of the present study), **Concluding** (equivalent to Concluding Topic of the present study), **Anticipating Reader's Reaction** (equivalent to Anticipating the Reader's Reactions), and **Aligning** (equivalent to Aligning Perspectives of the present study). **Adding** and **Arguing** were merged to be equivalent to Other Speech Acts of the present study.

In her study, metadiscourse frequencies of **Introducing** were analyzed from only the introduction section of the article (p. 48), and those of **Concluding** from only the discussion section (p. 53). For the rest of the functions, **Exemplifying**, **Adding** and **Arguing** (p. 48, and p. 53), **Anticipating Reader's Reaction**, and **Aligning** (p. 51, and p. 56), the numbers of metadiscourse of each function contrasted in 6.2.1 were derived from the totaled frequencies found in the introduction section and those in the discussion section.

All of the frequencies of the metadiscourse in her study were calculated into the same scale of frequency per 10,000 words as that of the present study, so standardization of the number of raw frequencies was not performed

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