



**AN EXPLORATION OF INTERACTIONAL  
METADISOURSE IN INTRODUCTION AND  
DISCUSSION IN TOURISM RESEARCH ARTICLES**

**BY**

**MISS SIRILUK JIRAWATTANASOMKUL**

**AN INDEPENDENT STUDY PAPER SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL  
FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR  
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF ARTS IN  
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING  
LANGUAGE INSTITUTE, THAMMASAT UNIVERSITY  
ACADEMIC YEAR 2017  
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INDEPENDENT STUDY

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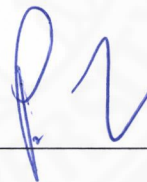
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AN EXPLORATION OF INTERACTIONAL METADISOURSE IN  
INTRODUCTION AND DISCUSSION IN TOURISM RESEARCH ARTICLES

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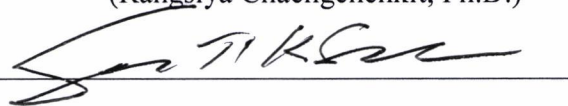
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### ABSTRACT

The research article is one of the academic writing forms that is widely used as social genre being employed as a “communicative way among members of a specific discourse community”. Therefore, as noted by Hyland (2004b), by means of metadiscourse analysis, it is used as a valuable means to explore academic writing, rhetorical features and preferences of different discourse communities. Moreover, metadiscourse is an aspect of language; it gives the connection between texts and disciplinary cultures. It helps define the rhetorical context by showing some of the expectations and understandings of the audience for whom a text is written. In line with these significances, the current study was conducted to explore the similarities and the differences in the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in the introductions and discussion sections. Twenty tourism research articles from seven leading international articles in tourism were selected as the sources for analysis. Results indicated that the writers in the tourism field similarly used interactional metadiscourse in both sections of research articles. Furthermore, similar functions were also found in both sections.

**Keywords:** Metadiscourse, Interactional Metadiscourse, Research Articles, Introduction Section, Discussion Section

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Miss Siriluk Jirawattanasomkul

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Introduction

Research articles (hereafter RA), are one of the most accepted forms in writing academic work (Gilbert & Mulkay, 1984). As mentioned by Hyland (1998) on the conceptualization of RA, it is “simply reporting or describing natural facts with almost no human intervention”. Put simply, in the case of the RA, “scientific text regarded as a neutral descriptive medium” tends to be inevitably found. Additionally, Bruce (2005) stated that RA is figured out as a social genre which is used as a communicative way among members of a specific discourse community. An academic genre of communication is related within any particular field of knowledge and considered as an important methodological issue in a discipline. Thus, to communicate information, RA is based on the accepted way and ideology of that field (Hewings, 2006).

In line with RA getting accepted or published, it is believed that the acceptance in the discourse community and a means to build up scholarship in the field are shown on the grounds that “writers have a clearer view towards the genre of RA” (Hyland, 1998, p. 439). Unsurprisingly, there are many research studies in which, in various ways, writers express their stance in the text. Based on Hewings (2006), writers in RA attempt to incorporate their claims and argumentations into the disciplinary accordance. Moreover, as described by Gilbert and Mulkay (1984), “RA has traditionally been taken as an example of an objective discursive style which aims to minimize writers’ voices in their texts” (p. 42). But in Huston’s statement (1994), RA is mainly aimed for persuasion. For now, it is clearly seen that RA is not as impersonal and factual as is generally thought (Pho, 2013). Moreover, writers not only present information or knowledge in an article but also express their opinions or points of view (Pho, 2013).

Regarding RA, many studies consider writers' expression within different sections of a research article, such as the Abstract section (Lorés, 2008; Promsin, 2006), the Introduction section (Ahamad & Yusof, 2012; Cortes, 2013; Jalali & Moini, 2014; Samraj, 2002), the Methods section (Lim, 2006), the Results section (Brett, 1994), and the Discussion section (Cheng & Unsworth, 2016; Flowerdew, 2015; Loi, Lim & Wharton, 2016). Lorés (2008), for example, found the use of first person pronouns in the Abstract section by examining the authors' visibility. As for the introduction section in medical research articles, the results from Jalali and Moini (2014) showed that most of the writers of medical research articles rely on noun phrases and phrasal bundles for establishing their written academic discourse. When viewed from the mentioned studies, the linguistic features have been identified as linguistic realizations of writers' stances across different disciplines.

From the theoretically underpinning mentioned above, it is clearly seen that RA from different disciplines differ in their representation of the subject matter, the audience, and the authors themselves, to the extent that "each text seems to be making a different kind of move in a different kind of game" (Bazerman, 1988, p. 46). It is thus important to shape RA through metadiscourse used to make the text persuasive and reader-friendly, and it also helps authors to arrive at audiences (Hyland, 2005a). Metadiscourse markers asserted by Hyland (2005a) are "facilitating tools in social communication" (p. 143). This can contribute to make knowledge within disciplines and due to the differential characteristics of the discipline where metadiscourse is differently employed in various disciplines. Moreover, with metadiscourse, a lens through writers' meta-awareness of themselves, readers and the text is provided, and this can be systematically explored (Hyland, 2005b).

However, the metadiscourse model which has been taken as a basis and accepted in the literature of numerous studies is suggested by Hyland and Tse's (2004). Based on their model, metadiscourse is divided into two fundamental categories: interactive and interactional. The former category as mentioned by Hyland (2005a) shows "the ways in which the author edits the reader's attention, rhetorical expectation, possible knowledge, and processing ability, such that the reader is

conscious of it” (p. 49). The writer’s purpose is “to develop and restrict the text in accordance with the reader’s needs and to edit arguments in such a way that the reader is able to evaluate the author’s conscious aim and interpretation” (Hyland, 2005a, p. 49). Evidentials, transitions, endophoric markers, frame markers, and code glosses are thus included in the interactive metadiscourse markers.

Nonetheless, another type of metadiscourse as previously said reveals “the way in which the author manages the interaction; in this aspect, the writer’s aim is explaining his or her own point of view and integrating the reader into the text” (Hyland, 2005a, p. 49). In addition, “interactional markers determine the level of subjectivity in a text” (Hyland, 2005a, p. 52). Interactional markers therefore consist of attitude markers, hedges, boosters, self-mentions, and engagement markers.

By reflecting on the past events of interactional metadiscourse, many scholars conducted studies to investigate different perspectives toward interactional markers. Many scholars (Aziz, Jin & Nordin, 2016; Duruk, 2017) conducted the studies to investigate and analyze factors (i.e., race and gender) that involve the use of interactional metadiscourse. Based on Duruk (2017), metadiscourse markers in academic written discourse produced by Turkish researchers was analyzed. Aziz et al. (2016) on the other hand, investigated how interactional metadiscourse resources were used to articulate and construct gender identity among ESL learners in a Malaysian context.

Research studies on interactional metadiscourse are, moreover, conducted with different sections as well as different disciplines of RAs. In tracing interactional metadiscourse used in English Abstracts, some scholars (e.g., Liu & Huang, 2017) investigated this in Chinese Economics Research Articles while the others (e.g., Jin & Shang, 2016) investigated this in BA theses across three different disciplines (Applied Linguistics, Material Science and Electronic Engineering). In addition, Kan (2016) compared the use of interactional metadiscourse in articles on Turkish education and literature.

Although many studies have examined the use of interactional metadiscourse in various disciplines and sections of academic genre in RAs as mentioned earlier (e.g., Kan, 2016; Jin & Shang, 2016; Liu & Huang, 2017), a few studies have been conducted to investigate the use of interactional metadiscourse in introduction as well as discussion sections of the tourism research articles. This study was thus conducted to investigate the use of interactional metadiscourse in these two parts because in effective writing introduction and discussion sections of RAs, “the writers need to position themselves and persuade readers to accept their claims” (Getkham, 2016, p. 80). In so doing, “they have to be able to produce appropriate critical comments, judge or make comments concerning empirical evidence and present their own findings” (Getkham, 2016, p. 80). This study moreover employed Hyland’s revised interpersonal model (2005a) which is considered as a “more personal” type in metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005a).

The findings of this study will benefit readers by allowing them to better understand the influence of interactional metadiscourse markers in the introduction and discussion parts of tourism research articles. This result will explain and assist as a guide to evaluate written style in tourism research articles.

## **1.2 Objectives of the Study**

This study seeks to firstly explore the similarities and the differences in the use of interactional metadiscourse markers in the introduction and discussion sections of RAs in the field of tourism.

Moreover, this study combined corpus analysis with particular focus to gain more insight into the influence of interactional metadiscourse markers in the introduction and discussion sections of tourism research articles.

### 1.3 Research Questions

In order to accomplish the above objectives, the specific questions driving my study are as follows:

1.3.1 What are the similarities and differences in the use of interactional metadiscourse between two sections, introduction and discussion, in Tourism research articles?

1.3.2 What are the functions of interactional metadiscourse used in both sections?

### 1.4 Definition of Terms

The definitions of the terms used in this study are as follows:

**1.4.1 Interactional metadiscourse** refers to “the dealing of the expression of the writers’ opinion, their relationship and interaction with their readers”. Put simply, interactional metadiscourse involves “the reader more overtly in the text by commenting on and evaluating the text material” (Hyland, 2005a, p. 44).

**1.4.2 Metadiscourse** refers “the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community” (Hyland, 2005c).

**1.4.3 Research Articles** refers to “a social genre employed as a communicative way among members of a specific discourse community” (Bruce, 2005).

### 1.5 Scope of the Study

With the aforementioned objectives, the data in this study was collected with 20 tourism research articles written in 2016, 2017, and 2018. They belong to the corpus of seven leading journals in the tourism area: *the Tourism Management*, *the International Journal of Tourism Research*, *the Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports*

*and Tourism Education, the Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management, the Journal of Sustainable Tourism, the Tourism Management Perspectives, and the Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research.*

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The findings of this study will benefit readers to better understand the influence of interactional metadiscourse markers used in the introduction and discussion parts of tourism research articles. The results will explain and assist as a guide to evaluate written style in tourism research articles.

### **1.7 Organization of the Study**

This research is divided into 5 chapters. As for chapter 1, the background and introduction of the study is presented; that is, the investigation into various sections of research articles is grounded. This is followed by discussion of the important use of metadiscourse and interactional metadiscourse in research articles. Moreover, objectives of the study, research questions, definition of terms and significance of the study are subsequently viewed.

In chapter 2, background literature as well as previous studies concerning “academic discourse” and “metadiscourse” are reviewed. They are followed by a review of “interactional metadiscourse” in which attitudinal markers, hedges, self-mentions, and boosters are subcategorized. Finally, the functions of each subcategory are presented.

For the third chapter, the methodology used in this study is presented. This includes research design, data collection, and data analysis.

With regards to the fourth chapter, the similarities and differences in the use of interactional metadiscourse in introduction and discussion of tourism RAs are reported. Furthermore, the results in this chapter also report the possible functions of interactional metadiscourse used in introduction and discussion of tourism RAs.

The final chapter discusses the conclusions received from this study. Lastly, recommendations and future concerns are included.



## **CHAPTER 2**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

The main purpose of this study is to explore the similarities and differences of interactional metadiscourse markers used in a corpus of introductions and discussion sections of research articles in the tourism field. This study additionally aims to gain more insight into the influence of interactional metadiscourse markers in the introduction and discussion parts of tourism research articles.

The reviews of literature in this chapter are divided into 3 parts as follows: 1. Academic Discourse 2. Metadiscourse and 3. Interactional Metadiscourse and its Functions

#### **2.1 Academic Discourse**

Discourse has been studied and become a main focus of research in various disciplines such as information sciences, social sciences, and humanities. Since this area of study can be moved towards many different perspectives, the term “discourse” and “discourse analysis” have come to be used in widely divergent ways. When viewing these two terms as applied to academic notions, ‘academic discourse’ is referred to by Hyland (2011) as the ways of thinking and using language that exist in academic fields. In line with complex social activities that rely on language, the academic discourse is significantly used in order to “educate students, demonstrate learning, disseminate ideas, and construct knowledge” (Hyland, 2011, p. 171).

The academic discourse not only allows universities to cope with teaching and research but also with constructs of social roles and relationships. These create academics and students, and sustain the universities, the disciplines, and the creation of knowledge itself. People therefore utilize language to compose, outline problems and comprehend issues in courses particular to specific social communities. By means of these things, social truth, individual identities and organizations are shaped. Discourse is at the academic core as it is the way people cooperate and compete with



each other, to initiate knowledge, to demonstrate learning and characterize academic obedience. The academy can neither be independent from its discourses nor present without them. There is no new revelation, invention, insight, or comprehension which has any importance unless it has become accessible to others. No university or individual will obtain acknowledgment for it until it has been unfolded through publication.

At one time, the academic discourse was studied as the focus for the achievement of academic life. However, beyond the university, the languages of the academy have gradually started to embed themselves into every corner of our lives, including technocratic and bureaucratic discourses, entertainment as well as advertising. Our whole world view has been reshaped by the academic discourses, turning them into the prevailing mode for interpreting reality and our own particular presence. This can be seen not only in well-known science periodicals but also in the broadsheets and the TV programs; it is the language of the drug labels and the goods' advertisement, the psychotherapist and the reusing flyer. It is messenger of expertise and prestige - the identification of "those who have knowledge and of those who wish to". According to the statement of Halliday (1993) and Martin (2005), the "language of science has become the language of literacy". Consequently, these are good reasons for academic discourse to be considered thoughtfully.

In light of the necessity of academic discourse as in the above, it is important to understand academic discourse studies which can be traced by discourse analysis. Discourse analysis includes an expansive set of techniques for studying language in practice and looking at texts that relate to the social contexts. Since language is an inevitable part of social life, this expansive definition has been interpreted in different ways across the social sciences. Regarding the academic contexts, nonetheless, there is a methodology called "Genre Analysis" in which concrete texts are focused on rather than institutional social practices. Specifically, it has to a great extent appeared as concentrating on specific academic genres such as the journal article, conference presentation and student paper. Genre analysis can be viewed as a more particular form of discourse analysis which aims at any component of recurrent language use,

including grammar and lexis, and which is applicable to the analyst's focuses. Therefore, genre analysis considers texts as representative of wider rhetorical practices by giving descriptions and explanations of both texts and the communities that use them.

Genres are the repeated uses of conventionalized structures through which people create relationships, set up communities and complete things using language. Genres can therefore be viewed as a sort of inferred contract amongst authors and readers which affects the conduct of the behavior of text producers and the expectations of recipients. The concentration on genre analysis is typically used to demonstrate what is common in collections of texts and help to uncover fundamental ideologies, discourses (Gee, 2004) and the preferences of disciplinary communities. These methodologies are affected by Halliday's (1994) perspective of language as a system of choices which link texts to specific patterns of lexico-linguistic and rhetorical features and by Swales' (1990) perception that these repetitive choices are firmly related to the work of specific discourse communities whose individuals share wide social goals.

Indeed, applications of discourse analysis are considered effective to academic texts in the sense that the lexico-grammatical regularities of particular genres are used to identify their structural identification. This sort of patterning is interpreted in a way which could yield useful data about the ways texts are built and how we perceive coherent patterning of text components. Some researchers have performed studies corresponding to the move analysis work pioneered by Swales (1990). In line with this, the procedures of particular institutional genres and the constraints on typical move consequences have been identified. Moreover, the researchers (e.g., Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Hyland, 2005a) have asserted that moves are identified by looking at how writers or speakers routinely use the rhetorical steps in order to develop their social purposes; the work on academic genres, as a result of this, have been conducted to produce descriptions of dissertation acknowledgements.

While it is proved that analyzing schematic structures is a valuable method for looking at texts, analysts have been progressively concerned with the risks of

“oversimplifying by assuming blocks of texts to be mono-functional and ignoring writers’ complex purposes and private intentions (Bhatia, 1999)”. In addition, there is the difficult issue of validating analyses to confirm that they are not simply results of analyst’s intuitions (Crooke, 1986). Although alterations from one move to another are regularly motivated outside the text, as authors usually react to their social context, analysts may not be able to generally distinguish the ways these shifts are expressly hinted at by lexio-syntactic designing (Paltridge, 1996). Thus, ample consideration has developed into analysis of specific features of particular genres, either grammatical, for example, “circumstance adverbials in student presentations (Zareva, 2009), functional, like hedging in research articles (Hyland, 1998), or rhetorical, such as evaluation in book reviews (Hyland & Diani, 2009).

Despite the fact that one of the necessary parts of discourse analysis is text analysis, the discourse analysis is not solely the linguistic analysis of texts. To develop the ways that texts are strongly implemented in the cultures and lives in which their users engage, in academic contexts, the interpretive and qualitative study of both texts and users are become increasing larger lately. One interesting case is Prior's (1998) investigation of the contexts and processes of graduate student writing at a US university. Taking on records of seminar discussions, student texts, investigation of institutional contexts, lecturer feedback, and interviews with students and lecturers, Prior offers a comprehensive explanation of the ways which students in four majors arranged their writing tasks and finally assimilated into their disciplinary communities. Regarding Li’s investigation (2006), supervisors’, a journal editor’s and reviewers’ advice could guide a Chinese doctoral candidate of physics through several drafts and multiple resubmissions prior to her paper’s acceptance for publication.

Ethnographic-oriented research has likewise investigated the literate cultures of academics by themselves. Conceivably, the most famous of these is textography at the University of Michigan conducted by Swales' (1998). Swales creates more noteworthy utilization of analyses texts and systems of texts in his methods than many other ethnographies, integrating discourse analyses with in-depth investigations and interviews. Co-ordinating these methods contributed to a detailed picture of the

expert lives, commitments and individual projects in three various academic cultures working in the Herbarium, the computer center, and the university English Language Center. The interaction of numerous types of information enables us to perceive how various impacts of personal experiences, mentors, peers and academic practices is all absorbed into their texts and experiences as academic authors (Paltridge, 1996).

It has clearly been seen that knowledge about discourse, together with discourse analysis, can help us understand how discourse works in academic fields. As for the next section, metadiscourse, which is the current form of discourse analysis, will be discussed. By this, the way writers and speakers interact with readers and listeners by using their language will be delineated.

## **2.2 Metadiscourse**

According to Fa-gen (2012), the term metadiscourse is “fuzzy” (p. 846) since it is discussed by means of the different perspectives of different writers. However, its characterization is simply perceived as “talk about talk” or “discourse about discourse”. As stated by Zahabi, Ghaemi and Pandian (2012), the common term of discourse refers to “the pragmatic use of language to comment reflexively on discourse itself” (p. 688). With this sense of metadiscourse, the focus of attention is shifted from progressing communication to the extension of discourse in context. It is interestingly seen that the meaning and practical conduct of communication are influenced by the specific context of a discourse.

In light of metadiscourse, its definition is, moreover, given and developed by many scholars (i.e., Hyland, 2005a; Williams, 1990). According to Williams (1990), he states that, with regards to the language we use in writing, we accidentally refer to the act and to the context of writing. Although metadiscourse in Williams’s statement (1990) does not refer to “what we are originally saying about our subject, it is what we need in everything we write”. Hyland (2005a), moreover, mentions that “language is not simply used to convey information about the world, it also acts to present this information through the organization of the text itself and engage readers as to how they should understand it”. From Hyland (2005a), it is clearly seen the two

communicative acts (organization of the text and engaging readers) are the main purpose of metadiscourse.

With regards to Hyland (2005a) as above mentioned, a widely pragmatic, functional, and socio-cognitive perspective is taken. This is because “all discourse is created between participants who bring to the encounter certain affiliations, experiences, expectations and background understandings” (Hyland, 2005a). These influences of interpersonal dimensions can additionally delineate how the message will be interpreted and responded to and how the interaction will be engaged in. Simply speaking, writing and managing social relationships are intertwined in the sense that “a text communicates effectively only when the writer has correctly assessed both the readers’ resources for interpreting it and their likely response to it”. The interpersonal process can be partly achieved through the use of metadiscourse.

Hyland’s notion (2005a) is, moreover, echoed in similar line with many scholars (i.e., Sperber & Wilson, 1995; Vande Kopple, 2002). According to these theorists, as for the writers, they have informative and communicative intention while as for the readers, they have to correctly interpret the writers’ informative and communicative intentions. The writers, nonetheless, should be certain that the same cognitive and contextual environment are shared by using various linguistic cues (i.e., connectors). In tracing metadiscourse, based on Hyland (2005a), the writers initiate their communicative intentions in order to convince the readers of the conveyed information, and to persuade them to act further by following the writers’ conveyed information. Clearly, the construction of meaning, text, and the management of the relationship between writer and reader are evolved by metadiscourse.

In addition, “the self-reflective expressions” are covered in metadiscourse with the belief that they are used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text. This can help a writer to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community (Hyland, 2005a; Sperber & Wilson, 1995).

Based on Hyland's work (2005c), metadiscourse can thus be divided into two main categories: interactive features and interactional features. The description of these two categories will be shown in Table 2.1 below.

**Table 2.1:** Hyland's model of metadiscourse

| Metadiscourse      |                      |
|--------------------|----------------------|
| <u>Interactive</u> | <u>Interactional</u> |
| Transitions        | Self-mentions        |
| Endophoric markers | Hedges               |
| Evidentials        | Boosters             |
| Code glosses       | Attitudinal markers  |

Source: Hyland (2005c)

### **2.3 Interactional Metadiscourse and its Functions**

Regarding Hyland's model of metadiscourse (2005a), the interpersonal dimension is discussed here. Metadiscourse takes readers' knowledge, processing needs, and textual experiences into consideration, and with this, the writers will give the rhetorical appeals for achieving it (Hyland & Tse, 2004). Since the focus of this study is on the use of interactional metadiscourse in RAs, the four interactional features based on Hyland's model (2005c) - attitudinal markers, hedges, self-mentions, and boosters – are analyzed. The in-depth explanations can be seen below.

#### **2.3.1 Attitudinal Markers**

Attitudinal markers are used in scholars' writings, research or reports with respect to expressing a clear position on the propositional meanings the scholars convey towards their readers. Moreover, the writers use attitudinal markers to convince their readers of the credibility and the validity of their outcomes. These kind of markers can display the writers' views, opinions, and judgements since it involves the value system of the particular community.

To indicate the writer's affective opinion or assessment of a proposition as mentioned earlier, many studies (i.e., Biber & Finegan, 1989; Biber et al., 1999; Halliday, 1994; Hunston, 1994; Hunston & Thompson, 2000) have been conducted under various frameworks such as stance, evaluation, attitude. The current study, however, employed Hyland's model of metadiscourse (2005c) in which attitudinal markers are categorized in interactional metadiscourse. In the analysis of attitude covering value and relevance, it is important to put more specific focus on the attitudinal lexis that expresses significance, importance, and a good or bad value. This can be understood by the following examples:

(SMJ2-I in Dueñas, 2010, p. 53) Given the *importance* of these factors, it is *not surprising* that Lieberman and Montgomery (1998, p. 1122) have suggested that studies on entry timing should attempt to investigate the factors that lie behind observed differences in the performance of late movers. In this paper, we therefore attempt to address this *important* topic that has been largely *neglected* by past studies.

(SMJ1-D in Dueñas, 2010, p. 53) Some mechanisms are *difficult* to implement in short order.

The examples of words used as attitudinal markers are in various linguistic forms as can be seen in below examples:

Adverbs: *amazingly, arguably, as expected, better, briefly, curiously, fast/hopefully, idealized, importantly, interestingly, poorly, right, sadly, scant, surprisingly, simply, too, unfortunately, well, worse*

Adjectives: *abnormal, accessible, accurate, advantageous, amazing, ambiguous, ambivalent, ample, applicable, best, better, critical, crucial essential, excellent, extreme, fair, fast, favorable, few, good, great, important, adequate, insignificant, anxious, limited, little, perfect, surprising, surprise, valuable, vast, arguable, very, worse, worthy, acceptable, advisable, appropriate,*

Verbs: *agree, prefer, disagree, recommend*

Nouns: *improvement, improvements, limitation, limitations, problem, problems, right, surprise*

### 2.3.2 Hedges

Hedging is a linguistic device with diverse objectives. It is adopted by authors, writers or authors who would like to express their claims carefully. However, “hedging” has been developed by different scholars in terms of definitions, taxonomies and functions for hedging.

According to Lakoff who is the pioneer of hedging, the term means “words or phrases whose job is to make things more or less fuzzy” (1972, p. 471). Hedging, however, provides the authors or the writers the opportunity to be careful in expressing claims without proof.

Moreover, based on Salager-Meyer (1994), hedging devices are used with two purposes; that is, they are used to make issues fuzzy and/or to enhance the precisions of authors’ claims. Regarding Salager-Meyer’s belief in the former purpose, “if the author presents the material explicitly, the chance of criticism will be given to other authors” (p. 151). The latter purpose in Salager-Meyer’s view (1994) can be seen by the fact that the precisions of writers’ claims can be increased by using hedging devices. Therefore, “hedging may present [...] the strongest claim a careful researcher can make” (Salager-Meyer, 1994, p. 151)

Similar to attitudinal markers, the words identified in the “hedge” category are in various forms as follows:

Modal verbs: *can, could, may, maybe, might, should, ought, will, would, wouldn’t*

Verbs: *appear, argue, assume, claim, doubt, estimate, feel, felt, guess, indicate, seem, suppose, tend*



Adverbs: *almost, essentially, frequently, likely, mainly, often, apparently, perhaps, possible, probably, broadly, relatively, generally, roughly, sometimes, about, fairly,*

Adjectives: *around, plausible, possible, probable, quite, rather, typical, uncertain, unclear, unusual*

Nouns: *assumption, possibility, probability*

Phraseology: *from my perspective, in general, in most cases, in my opinion, in my view, on the whole, to the best of my knowledge, as far as I know*

### **2.3.3 Self-mentions**

The authors viewing discourse by employing self-mention mean that they are revealing their authorial voices through the use of self-citations, plural pronouns, possessive adjectives, or first person singular. By means of these, the authors can present themselves as the reliable members or the experts who adhere to the necessary discipline of the community. When writing academic work, it is clearly seen that the authors should establish their supportive self-representation or persuasive academic discourse. The authors should additionally make and report credibility to convince those who read their works of the validity and novelty of their research. Attaining credibility can be by using self-mentions which involve “the desire to present oneself as an informed and reliable colleague, strongly identifying oneself with a particular view to gain credit for one’s individual perspective or research decisions” (Hyland, 2004a, p. 106).

Furthermore, self-mention in writing, as noted by Ivanič (1998), is the construction of the writer’s identity that is based on “possibilities of self-hood available to the writer in particular contexts”. As for interacting with the construction of the writer’s identity in written discourse, she categorized three different selves as follows:

1. *The autobiographical self* – referring to “the identity which people bring with them to any act of writing” (Ivanič, 1998, p. 24). This kind of self can be dealt with in the writer’s life-history, their own personal experiences or personalities.

2. *The discorsal self* - referring to “the impression [y] which people consciously or unconsciously convey of themselves in a particular written text” (Ivanič, 1998, p. 25). For this, “the writers may or may not accommodate to the readers’ expectations”.

3. *The self as author* - referring to “writers’ self-presentations or view as authors” (Ivanič, 1998, p. 26). Simply speaking, the writers’ authorial stances may originally come from their autobiographical selves or their modulated discorsal selves.

Therefore, to achieve success in writing a piece of research, Myers (1989) stated that the writers must not only display solidarity with the particular disciplinary community members, or only present their respect for the readers’ expectations, values and beliefs, but they must also convey innovation and relevance. Apart from Myers’s work (1989), Hyland (2001) is originally perceived as offering novel ideas of self-mentions. With a view from Hyland’s research, the most recent and influential metadiscourse taxonomies have been investigated. Based on his influence, “self-mentions or person markers are considered an independent category of interactional metadiscourse, as they greatly contribute to the relationship established between writer(s) and readers”.

From the above view, *I, me, my, we, us, our can* be used for identifying self-mentions.

### **2.3.4 Boosters**

Concerning the functions of boosters used in RAs, they are variously used as in the following discussion.

Boosting is used as the tools to permit writers to close down alternatives and express certainty in what they say. Additionally, in line with boosting devices, “the writers are able to display more fully their empowerment to assert and make claims”. “In doing so, they exercised an option of stressing shared knowledge between readers and themselves as a prerequisite for reaching identical and firm conclusions” (Hyland, 2005a, pp. 52-53).

Boosters, moreover, allow “the writer to anticipate and preclude alternative, conflicting arguments by expressing certainty instead of doubt” (Zahabi et al., 2012, p. 690). Words used as boosters, in the same vein of other categories, are from the various forms which can be exemplified below.

Verbs: *can, cannot, demonstrate, have, find, found, know, known, must, prove, realize, show, think, thought, will*

Adverbs: *certainly, clearly, conclusively, decidedly, definitely, highly, indeed, never, obviously, really, surely, truly*

Adjectives: *certain, clear, definite, doubtless, incontestable, inconvertible, indisputable, obvious, sure*

To briefly summarize the interactional metadiscourse functions, Hyland’s (2004a) model of metadiscourse in academic texts is shown in the below table (Table 2.2).

**Table 2.2:** A model of interactional metadiscourse in academic texts

| Category                | Function   | Examples                              |
|-------------------------|--|---------------------------------------|
| Interactional resources | Involve the reader in the arguments                  |                                       |
| Self-mentions           | Explicit reference to author                         | I/ we/ my/ our                        |
| Attitudinal markers     | Express writer's attitude proposition                | Unfortunately/ surprisingly           |
| Boosters                | Emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition | In fact/ definitely/ it is clear that |
| Hedges                  | Withhold writer's full commitment to proposition     | Might/ perhaps/ possible/ about       |

Source: Hyland (2004a, cited in *Metadiscourse in English and Chinese research article introductions*, 2013)

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

In this chapter, the researcher presents the research design and the procedures of data collection and data analysis. The relevant theories employed in this chapter are additionally addressed.

#### **3.1 Research Design**

This study is a combination of qualitative and quantitative research. As for quantitative design, it was employed to illustrate the frequency of interactional metadiscourse features in the introduction and discussion sections of tourism research articles. With this, the similarities and differences of the interactional metadiscourse types found in the two sections were investigated.

In terms of qualitative data, on the other hand, it was used to consider the function of interactional metadiscourse that was employed under the investigation of the research articles. It was to present valid findings within a more representative corpus written by the tourism groups of writers.

#### **3.2 Data Collection**

The data for the present study had been extracted from the Corpus of seven leading journals in tourism discipline. These were *the Tourism Management*, *the International Journal of Tourism Research*, *the Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports and Tourism Education*, *the Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *the Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *the Tourism Management Perspectives*, and *the Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*. By these corpora, 20 research articles were randomly selected from the year 2016, 2017, and 2018. However, the researcher employed criteria of the selected research articles from Duruk (2017) who conducted a study on the analysis of metadiscourse markers used in writing academic articles. The selected research articles of this study are listed as follows:

- “A framework for conflict analysis in spatial planning for tourism” (*Tourism Management Perspectives*)
- “A regional analysis of tourism education scholarships” (*Tourism Management Perspectives*)
- “A Sustainable Development Approach to Assessing the Engagement of Tourism Enterprises in Poverty Alleviation” (*Sustainable Development*)
- “Agglomeration Density and Labor Productivity in China’s Tourism Industry” (*International Journal of Tourism Research*)
- “Climate change and tourism–Are we forgetting lessons from the past?” (*Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*)
- “Dark tourism, abjection and blood: A festival context” (*Tourism Management*)
- “Emotional female managers: How gendered roles influence tourism management discourse” (*Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*)
- “Exploring the implications of virtual reality technology in tourism marketing: An integrated research framework” (*International Journal of Tourism Research*)
- “Have Australia's tourism strategies incorporated climate change?” (*Journal of Sustainable Tourism*)
- “Impact of responsible tourism on destination sustainability and quality of life of community in tourism destinations” (*Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*)
- “Residents’ perceptions on the traffic impact of a special event: a case of the Macau Grand Prix” (*Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*)
- “Shifting patterns and determinants of Asia-Pacific tourism to Australia” (*Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*)
- “Tourism destination decisions: the impact of risk aversion and prior experience” (*Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*)

- “Tourism as an exercise in three-dimensional power: Evidence from Ghana” (*Tourism Management Perspectives*)
- “Tourism and environmental subjectivities in the Anthropocene: observations from Niru Village, Southwest China” (*Journal of Sustainable Tourism*)
- “Tourism and disability in Italy. Limits and opportunities” (*Tourism management perspectives*)
- “Understanding primary stakeholders' multiple roles in hallmark event tourism management” (*Tourism Management*)
- “Value orientations and heritage tourism management at Petra Archaeological Park, Jordan” (*Tourism Management*)
- “Values in tourism higher education: The European master in tourism management” (*Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports and Tourism Education*)
- “VFR Travel: A Viable Market for Tourism Crisis and Disaster Recovery?” (*International Journal of Tourism Research*)

After the listed research articles were selected, the researcher collected data only from the introduction and discussion sections in these research articles and then transformed them into .txt format using Microsoft Notepad. The researcher additionally excluded all bibliographies, tables and figures, quotations and footnotes which showed in the research articles. This was to avoid “easily skewing the results for this category, as one or a few articles may yield a very high total number of such items” Dahl (2004, p. 1817 as cited in Getkham, 2016, p. 81).

In this study, the total corpus contains approximately 43,293 words of running text. For the Introduction sections, 13,201 words or 30.49% are used while the Discussion sections contains 30,092 words or 69.51%. The summary of the details of words in Introduction sections and the Discussion sections of each text is presented in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1:** Summary of the details of words included in the two sections of the selected RAs

| <b>Research articles (RAs)</b> | <b>Introduction</b> | <b>Discussion</b> |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| RA 1                           | 748                 | 1308              |
| RA 2                           | 526                 | 1508              |
| RA 3                           | 277                 | 2529              |
| RA 4                           | 713                 | 3656              |
| RA 5                           | 935                 | 4155              |
| RA 6                           | 525                 | 834               |
| RA 7                           | 490                 | 898               |
| RA 8                           | 498                 | 1602              |
| RA 9                           | 726                 | 758               |
| RA 10                          | 704                 | 823               |
| RA 11                          | 766                 | 745               |
| RA 12                          | 917                 | 2853              |
| RA 13                          | 475                 | 806               |
| RA 14                          | 437                 | 1122              |
| RA 15                          | 935                 | 549               |
| RA 16                          | 462                 | 1505              |
| RA 17                          | 1516                | 2123              |
| RA 18                          | 884                 | 1066              |
| RA 19                          | 288                 | 579               |
| RA 20                          | 379                 | 673               |
| <b>Total</b>                   | <b>13,201</b>       | <b>30,092</b>     |

### 3.3 Data Analysis

My analytic steps involved the use of AntConc (Anthony, 2013), a free online concordancing program to find the frequency of each feature of interactional metadiscourse. As part of a larger and ongoing study, I first examined a wide range of metadiscourse features across the corpora. I then narrowed my focus to four



subcategories of metadiscourse that emerged as developmentally meaningful; that is, they either incrementally used tourism writers in research articles of the year 2016, 2017, or 2018. These four subcategories of metadiscourse are 1) self-mentions, 2) attitudinal markers, 3) boosters, and 4) hedges. Following these above steps, with the focus only on interactional feature of metadiscourse, I begun interpreting how these metadiscoursal resources were functioning in terms of stance and reader positioning. Finally, I selected sentences from 20 research articles to serve as examples of the functional patterns.

Regarding the 20 selected research articles in this study, the total number of words varies from one move to another as described in Table 2.1. In order to accurately compare corpora (or sub-corpora) of different sizes, normalization of the frequencies is important to make the data comparable. According to Biber's (1995), the raw frequencies are normalized by having the raw frequency count divided by the number of words in the text and multiplied by 1000. The normalized procedure can be easily explained by the below formula:

$$\text{Normalized frequency} = \frac{\text{Frequency (Raw Count)} * 1,000}{\text{Number of words}}$$

To quantitatively and qualitatively analyze the similarities and differences of the use of interactional metadiscourse features in introduction and discussion sections, the frequency of the occurrences of the features was counted and then how they were used in their contexts was analyzed.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This chapter reports the results and discussion of the study in order to answer the research questions:

1. What are the similarities and differences in the use of interactional metadiscourse between two sections, introduction and discussion, in Tourism research articles?
2. What are the functions of interactional metadiscourse used in both sections?

To detail the findings of this study, the researcher divided this chapter into 2 parts: 1) Similarities and differences in the use of interactional metadiscourse in introduction and discussion and 2) Possible functions of interactional metadiscourses used in introduction and discussion.

#### **4.1 Similarities and Differences in the Use of Interactional Metadiscourse in Introduction and Discussion of Tourism RAs**

This present study employed Hyland's (2004a) model of metadiscourse in academic texts taken as the first step of analysis. By his model, two categories, interactive resources and interactional resources, are divided. As for their functions, the first category including endophoric markers, evidentials, frame markers, transitions and code glosses is used to help guide readers throughout the text. On the other hand, interactional resources which are self-mentions, boosters, hedges, and attitude markers are functioned to involve the reader in the argument. Concerning the current research study, the researcher applied this interactional metadiscourse function to interpret the result.

In order to identify the possible similarities and differences in the distribution of the four categories of interactional metadiscourse in introduction and discussion sections of tourism research articles, the frequency of interactional metadiscourse in

each section was computed per 1000 words. Table 4.1 reports the distribution of interactional metadiscourse in the section concerned. A closer look at that findings revealed that the tourism writers similarly use the same type of interactional metadiscourse in both introduction and discussion sections. Based on the figure illustrated in Table 4.1, there was similarity between introduction and discussion sections with regards to hierarchy of occurrence of interactional metadiscourse. “Attitudinal markers” acted as the leading category, with a total of 306 tokens (23.18 per 1000 words) in introduction section and 603 tokens (20.03 per 1000 words) in the discussion section, respectively. The second most frequent category was “hedges” (162 cases or 12.27 per 1000 words in introduction section, and 477 cases or 15.85 per 1000 words).

However, differences between the use of interactional metadiscourse between introduction and discussion sections of the tourism research articles can be found with regard to “self-mentions” and “boosters”. When viewed from the introduction section, “self-mentions” was the third most used category and they were used 90 times (6.80 per 1000 words). This is followed by “boosters” as the final rank. The “boosters” were used 32 tokens (2.42 per 1000 words). On the contrary, in the discussion sections, “boosters” were used more frequently than “self-mentions”. Simply speaking, 168 tokens (5.58 per 1000 words) of “boosters” were used. Finally, “self-mentions” were displayed in the last rank (105 tokens or 3.48 per 1000 words).

**Table 4.1:** Frequency analysis of interactional metadiscourses used in the two sections of tourism RAs (per 1000 words)

|                      | Introduction                |                           | Discussion                  |                           |
|----------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------------|
|                      | Raw no.<br>(per 1000 words) | Freq.<br>(per 1000 words) | Raw no.<br>(per 1000 words) | Freq.<br>(per 1000 words) |
| <i>Interactional</i> |                             |                           |                             |                           |
| Attitudinal markers  | 306                         | 23.18                     | 603                         | 20.03                     |
| Hedges               | 162                         | 12.27                     | 477                         | 15.85                     |
| Self-mentions        | 90                          | 6.80                      | 105                         | 3.48                      |
| Boosters             | 32                          | 2.42                      | 168                         | 5.58                      |

After viewing the whole picture of the frequency analysis of interactional metadiscourse used in the two sections, the frequency of each type of the international metadiscourse is shown in the next sections. (see Table 4.1.1, 4.1.2, 4.1.3 and 4.1.4)

#### 4.1.1 Attitudinal Markers

**Table 4.1.1:** Attitudinal markers in the two sections of tourism RAs (per 1000 words)

| Introduction                          |         |                              | Discussion  |         |                              |
|---------------------------------------|---------|------------------------------|---|---------|------------------------------|
| Words                                 | Raw no. | Freq.<br>(per 1000<br>words) | Words   | Raw no. | Freq.<br>(per 1000<br>words) |
| important                             | 20      | 1.51                         | important   | 37      | 1.22                         |
| key                                   | 12      | 0.90                         | positive  | 32      | 1.06                         |
| critical                              | 11      | 0.83                         | high  | 26      | 0.86                         |
| main/ relevant                        | 9       | 0.68                         | negative  | 21      | 0.69                         |
| essential/ little/<br>large/ negative | 7       | 0.53                         | clear   | 14      | 0.46                         |
| few/ appropriate                      | 6       | 0.45                         | consistent  | 11      | 0.36                         |
| complex/ major                        | 5       | 0.37                         | significant/<br>appropriate/<br>limited/<br>complex/<br>main/ major | 10      | 0.33                         |
| better/ considerable/<br>crucial      | 4       | 0.31                         | better/ good  | 9       | 0.29                         |
| good/ low/<br>numerous/prevailing     | 3       | 0.22                         | necessary   | 7       | 0.23                         |

Table 4.1.1 shows the frequency of attitudinal markers used in introduction and discussion sections of tourism RAs. As reported in Table 4.1.1, the word *important* was highly used in both sections. That is, 20 tokens (1.51 per 1000 words) and 37 tokens (1.22 per 1000 words) were respectively used in introduction and discussion sections.

### 4.1.2 Hedges

**Table 4.1.2:** Hedges in the two sections of tourism RAs (per 1000 words)

| Introduction |         |                           | Discussion |         |                           |
|--------------|---------|---------------------------|------------|---------|---------------------------|
| Words        | Raw no. | Freq.<br>(per 1000 words) | Words      | Raw no. | Freq.<br>(per 1000 words) |
| can          | 34      | 2.57                      | can        | 88      | 2.92                      |
| may          | 27      | 2.04                      | may        | 51      | 1.69                      |
| will         | 16      | 1.21                      | could      | 22      | 0.73                      |
| could        | 8       | 0.60                      | possible   | 18      | 0.59                      |
| might        | 5       | 0.37                      | perhaps    | 17      | 0.56                      |

The results from Table 4.1.2 indicate that the modal verbs are strongly used as hedges in both sections of tourism RAs. Clearly seen from Table 4.1.2, the word *can* was highly used in both sections of tourism RAs; that is, 34 tokens (2.57 per 1000 words) were counted in the introduction section and 88 tokens (2.92 per 1000 words) in the discussion section. Moreover, as shown in the above table, the modal verb *may* was used at the following rank in both sections: 27 tokens (2.04 per 1000 words) were counted in the introduction section while 51 tokens (1.69 per 1000 words) appeared in the discussion section.

### 4.1.3 Self-mentions

**Table 4.1.3:** Self-mentions in the two sections of tourism RAs (per 1000 words)

| Introduction |         |                           | Discussion |         |                           |
|--------------|---------|---------------------------|------------|---------|---------------------------|
| Words        | Raw no. | Freq.<br>(per 1000 words) | Words      | Raw no. | Freq.<br>(per 1000 words) |
| we           | 48      | 3.63                      | we         | 40      | 1.32                      |
| our          | 26      | 1.96                      | our        | 27      | 0.89                      |
| us           | 8       | 0.60                      | I          | 25      | 0.83                      |
| I            | 7       | 0.53                      | us         | 7       | 0.23                      |
| my           | 1       | 0.07                      | me         | 4       | 0.13                      |

Table 4.1.3 shows the frequency of self-mentions used in the two sections of tourism RAs. As seen from the above table, *we* was highly used, counting 48 tokens (3.63 per 1000 words) in the introduction section and 40 tokens (1.32 per 1000 words) in the discussion section. With using *our* in self-mention, 26 tokens or 1.96 per 1000 words were counted in the introduction section and 27 tokens or 0.89 per 1000 words were counted in the discussion section.

#### 4.1.4 Boosters

**Table 4.1.4:** Boosters in the two sections of tourism RAs (per 1000 words)

| Introduction    |         |                              | Discussion |         |                              |
|-----------------|---------|------------------------------|------------|---------|------------------------------|
| Words           | Raw no. | Freq.<br>(per 1000<br>words) | Words      | Raw no. | Freq.<br>(per 1000<br>words) |
| must            | 7       | 0.53                         | found      | 26      | 0.86                         |
| found/ show     | 3       | 0.22                         | show       | 15      | 0.49                         |
| realize/ though | 1       | 0.07                         | must       | 11      | 0.36                         |
|                 |         |                              | think      | 7       | 0.23                         |
|                 |         |                              | find       | 3       | 0.09                         |

As can be seen in Table 4.1.4, boosters used in the two sections of tourism RAs are indicated. *Must* was highly used in introduction sections by counting 7 tokens (0.53 per 1000 words). On the other hand, *found* counting 26 tokens (0.86 per 1000 words) was highly used in discussion sections.

## 4.2 Possible Functions of Interactional Metadiscourse Used in Introduction and Discussion of Tourism RAs

### 4.2.1 Attitudinal Markers

As noted in Table 4.1, the most frequent sub-category in the corpus was attitudinal markers. With the usage of attitude markers in tourism research articles, it is clearly seen that the academic writers of different cultural backgrounds

use similar ways for expressing their attitudes and they use attitude markers frequently in their texts.

Tourism writers are likely to use attitudinal markers (i.e., *important*, *crucial*, *considerable*, *negative*, *better*, *good*) to express affective values. That is, “attitude markers are used to indicate the writer’s affective, rather than epistemic attitude to propositions” (Fa-gen, 2012, p. 852). The sentences below are examples of the value judgments towards the statements which tourism writers are presenting in the sentences.

(1) “While often cited as a significant contributor to climate change, the tourism industry has an opportunity to play an *important* role in reducing global emissions through national policy responses”. (RA8-INTRO)

(2) “Tourism, as well as being an *important* economic factor for economic growth and job creation, has increasingly become a primary social need. Empirical studies show that tourism has a positive effect on people that take advantage of it”. (RA1-INTRO)

(3) “I have argued, from a poststructuralist political ecology perspective, that people as carriers of ideas and ideologies are *crucial* players in the hybridization of different regimes of nature”. (RA10-INTRO)

(4) “Tourism is a *crucial* industry for the Australian economy. In 2012–2013, tourism accounted for 6% of total GDP and 8% of Australia’s employment”. (RA18-INTRO)

(5) “It is *essential* that managers involved in event tourism therefore recognize the existing relationships amongst stakeholder groups as they interact with events in the destination”. (RA5-INTRO)

(6) “Policy makers need to remind that it is not mere job and meagre income, but perceptions concerning the local individual' s quality of employment and consistent income for sustenance are very *important*”. (RA13-DIS)

(7) “According to the IPA findings, the EMTM program needs to improve delivery of ethical issues to its students, which are valued as relatively *important* for the tourism industry”. (RA11-DIS)

(8) “In the context of leisure and medical tourism in Indonesia, it is *clear* that risk-seeking behavior significantly differentiates respondent behaviors”. (RA20-DIS)

(9) “Given that tourism agglomeration can be understood as both a physical and an intangible complex sociocultural entity, it incorporates the supposed benefits of both intra-industry and inter-industry networks of agglomerations, which provide additional and *important* external services to form diverse tourism products”. (RA16-DIS)

(10) “As criterion notes, marketing must be compatible with the resources available to the organization after a crisis or disaster. There is evidence of DMOs changing their marketing strategies to *better* reach their market segments, and also reducing costs and conserving resources”. (RA17-DIS)

A large number of adverbs and adjectives could be also found either in comparative or superlative forms in both introduction and discussion sections. Among the two kinds of the parts of speech, collocations with *important* are widely used.

(11) “A recent study on gender-typing in the Spanish hospitality industry shows how masculine characteristics are rated as *more important* than feminine characteristics for managerial positions”. (RA12-INTRO)



(12) “Granovetter noted that social structure affects economic outcomes in three possible ways of which the confidence that other stakeholders will do the “right” thing despite a clear balance of incentives to the contrary was by far *the most important*”. (RA4-DIS)

(13) “Extramural funding is increasingly becoming one of *the most important* revenue sources for colleges and universities in the United States”. (RA3-DIS)

(14) “Targeting the domestic VFR segment could be more compatible with the needs and wants of the destination and its community. This is perhaps *the most important* component of all because some forms of tourism are not compatible with the needs and wants of the local community and can add hardship and stress for the local residents”. (RA17-DIS)

(15) “The second and perhaps *most important* reason was government inclusion of Assin Praso as a commemorative site for PANAFEST/Emancipation Day events”. (RA4-DIS)

(16) “The Australian government tries to monitor, and *more importantly*, stimulate these developments in several ways”. (RA4-INTRO)

Remarkably, although the adjective “important” is widely used with regard to comparative or superlative forms as mentioned above, adjectives “better” and “best” are additionally used in both introduction and discussion sections of tourism research articles.

(17) “The findings of this study are anticipated to be of relevance to current and future strategic event tourism approaches, such as strategic portfolio development. They offer a *better* understanding of how the changing roles of primary stakeholders can impact upon relationships

with long-established hallmark events, leading to sustained success”.  
(RA15-INTRO)

(18) “The findings of this study are anticipated to be of relevance to current and future strategic event tourism approaches, such as strategic portfolio development. They offer a *better* understanding of how the changing roles of primary stakeholders can impact upon relationships with long-established hallmark events, leading to sustained success”.  
(RA5-INTRO)

(19) “The review is based on academic journal articles that have had a double blind peer review process between 1990 and 2016; it is argued that this represents a good sample of *the best*-quality research on the topic area available”. (RA17-INTRO)

(20) “Female managers are also perceived to be more analytical, giving more attention to detail when deciding what is *the best* solution for their company”. (RA12-DIS)

#### **4.2.2 Hedges**

As noted, hedges are also heavily represented in both introduction and discussion (12.27 and 15.85 per 1000 words respectively in tourism research articles). Hedging refers to a broad range of linguistic resources for reducing epistemic commitment and expanding discursive space. In light of these functions, the writers in tourism research articles employ different types with reference to these functions.

##### **4.2.2.1 Adverbial stances**

With adverbial stances, “perhaps” is therefore used by the tourism authors to signal some levels of doubt.

(21) “Recovery in the UK after the Foot and Mouth Outbreak in 2001 was slow due to the spatial and temporal extent of the disaster, whilst

frequent political unrest in the Middle East region has negatively affected tourism more than *perhaps* isolated terrorist attacks in Europe”. (RA17-INTRO)

(22) “The second and *perhaps* most important reason was government inclusion of Assin Praso as a commemorative site for PANAFEST/Emancipation Day events”. (RA4-DIS)

(23) “While discussions on terminology are *perhaps* useful in regard to what has happened in the past, they may not be as important concerning what will happen in the future”. (RA10-DIS)

(24) “Part of the current uncertainty around the notion of the “Anthropocene” as a time of human-induced climate change is due, *perhaps*, to the perceived more gradual changes occurring in the present”. (RA14-DIS)

(25) “Visiting Friends and Relatives travelers are also more likely to be repeat visitors, which were also more likely to return faster to a destination after a bushfire, *perhaps* because of their knowledge and destination loyalty”. (RA17-DIS)

#### 4.2.2.2 Modal verbs

By obvious reflecting the use of hedging in tourism RAs, modal verbs are the most frequently used in both introduction and discussion sections of tourism RAs. In the context of introduction section, the use of modal verbs such as *can, may, will, could, might* counted as 90 tokens (6.81 per 1000 words). On the other hand, modal verbs such as *can, may, and could* are found in discussion sections, they were counted as 161 tokens or 5.35 per 1000 words.

Viewing the functions of modal verbs used by tourism authors in writing their RAs, the authors tend to use modal verbs for expressing possibility.

(26) “This paper argues that tourism enterprises *could* adopt pro-poor CSR initiatives as a means both of increasing their contribution to poverty alleviation and of developing a competitive advantage for their business”. (RA9-INTRO)

(27) “Analyzing how gender influences tourism managers' decision-making styles *could* provide insight into how tourism management discourse is being transformed”. (RA12-INTRO)

(28) “Destination Marketing Organizations *may* feel pressure from both industry and government to undertake recovery marketing as soon as possible, sometimes even before the crisis or disaster is actually resolved”. (RA17-INTRO)

(29) “An adequate response to tourism crises and disasters *may* require destination marketers to alter their target markets, redesign their communication messages and the ways in which they communicate with markets”. (RA17-INTRO)

(30) “In particular, the marketers *may* determine whether they need to develop distinct marketing programs for both leisure and medical tourism services, and for experienced and inexperienced travelers”. (RA20-INTRO)

(31) “Scholars have long recognized that destination communities are heterogeneous with unequal power relations, which *may* lead to the exclusion of stakeholder groups with opposing views in the decision-making process”. (RA4-INTRO)

(32) “Heritage resources *might* be valued for their cultural and educational benefits, or serve as sources of local, national, or ethnic identity or pride, and some are expected to provide economic benefits for communities”. (RA6-INTRO)

(33) “However, as of yet, there is little understanding of how to effectively market tourism destinations to virtual world participants who are technology users as well as potential consumers nor has extensive research been conducted as to how the 3D tourism environment *might* affect individual experience or render the response of an intention to visit a tourist destination”. (RA15-INTRO)

(34) “Whilst destinations may be anxious to rebuild and DMOs *may* be trying to encourage an injection of new money through encouraging tourism, timing and appropriateness of marketing messages and segments must be well conceived”. (RA17-DIS)

(35) “As mentioned earlier, the uneven distribution of income in developing and newly industrialized countries *may* temper the translation of income growth directly to additional tourism demand”. (RA20-DIS)

(36) “Accessible tourism may bring economic benefits and a return on investment providing also a major source of job creation. It is, therefore, useful to highlight these economic benefits”. “In particular, they *can* be found in the reduction of the seasonal nature of some destinations, one of the problems of our country”. (RA1-DIS)

(37) “Some of the objectives were, in fact, the realization of accessible services within the accommodation facilities; the provision of equipment and assistance and activities which *can* be enjoyed by a wide range of visitors; the provision of detailed information about the accessibility of venues and activities throughout the national territory as well as the creation of targeted offers to meet the different needs of these tourists”. (RA1-DIS)

(38) “The sensitivity towards this type of product seems to grow, among the hotels, with the number of stars. In extra hotel sector,

however, there are more favorable operators among Hostels, Farm holidays and Camping. The huts *can* represent an additional strategic lever, probably because of their specific structural characteristics”. (RA1-DIS)

(39) “It *can* be concluded that the ENGOs and the TD groups are more focused on pointing out what is right and wrong”. (RA2-DIS)

(40) “A conclusion *can* therefore be drawn that the leading tourism scholarship hosts are highly competitive and are leading international tourism destinations”. (RA3-DIS)

(41) “Governments' involvement in tourism scholarship funding through intramural mechanisms *can* be closely tied to the perceived importance accorded to tourism in the national economy”. (RA3-DIS)

(42) “In describing how tourism *can* be applied to community development, informants provided insights into their experience of community-based tourism”. (RA4-DIS)

(43) “Indeed, sponsors' role in branding new events *can* assist in increasing positive brand equity, a key feature of hallmark events”. (RA5-DIS)

(44) “Surprisingly, there is no difference across the risk-taker and risk-averse groups in terms of visiting Singapore either for leisure or medical purposes. These mixed results lead to the possibility that there *might* be other potential moderating variables that contribute to this inconsistency”. (RA20-DIS)

(45) “This in itself is interesting, since it *could* suggest that male managers do not associate good management abilities with femininity”. (RA12-DIS)

#### 4.2.2.3 Adverbs

Interestingly, in addition to the two types of “hedges” mentioned earlier, approximative adverbs, specially *about*, can found in both introduction sections (12 tokens or 0.90 per 1000 words) and discussion sections (49 tokens or 1.62 per 1000 words).

(46) “About 15% of the world population has at least one disability”.  
(RA1-INTRO)

(47) “This Web-based 3D virtual world, founded in 2003, boasts more than 36 million residents from around the world, *about* 1 million of whom visit monthly”. (RA15-INTRO)

(48) “For estimated that the number of potential users in Europe tourism services is *about* 268 million people, equivalent to potential annual income of *about* 166 billion euro”. (RA15-DIS)

(49) “Today the Yellowstone National Park is part of the wider National Park System, which is a conglomerate of *about* 370 units”.  
(RA3-DIS)

(50) “According to DSAT, *about* half of the travelling trips were completed by walking, and one-third of the rest for the mechanized trips were by bus mode”. (RA19-DIS)

#### 4.2.3 Self-mentions

As previously noted in Table 4.1, the frequencies of self-mentions counted differently in introduction and discussion sections. That is, tourism writers used self-mentions in introduction sections (90 times or 6.80 per 1000 words) rather more than in discussion sections (105 tokens or 3.48 per 1000 words). Despite the differences in frequencies found in both sections, similar functions are shared as explained in the discussion below.

The first possibility for using self-mentions is to explain a procedure. Tourism writers employ self-mentions to describe the research procedures.

(51) “In the following, *we* challenge the gap between the concept of sustainable tourism development and its slow penetration into tourism practice. In particular, *we* examine how EMTM students assess the gap between the industry importance and educational performance of the value-set proposed by TEFI”. (RA11-INTRO)

(52) “The findings are discussed and as a result *we* contend that the integration of values into teaching and the creation of tourism knowledge are paramount if *we* want to bridge the gap between theory and practice of sustainable tourism development”. (RA11-INTRO)

(53) “In order to more thoroughly understand these connections between marketing and consumer intention in the context of 3D virtual tourism, *we* turn to the technology acceptance model, which has proven a useful framework in explaining the use of information technologies and has been applied as a theoretical framework in studies of consumer behavior and computer-mediated environments”. (RA15-INTRO)

(54) “In this study, *we* extend studies on agglomeration to the Chinese tourism industry. *We* also attempt to perform an empirical assessment of the effect of agglomeration density on labor productivity of tourism firms in China”. (RA16-INTRO)

(55) “Although some of this differentiation reflects distance and cultural heterogeneity, it is likely that this also reflects a shift in strategy where fast-growing markets receive extra attention. The increasing importance of Asia-Pacific as a source market for Australian tourism raises a number of questions, and in this paper *we* will focus on two of these”. (RA18-INTRO)



(56) “In this article, *we* use multiple regression analysis to model how these three factors have been underlying Asia-Pacific tourism to Australia between 1990 and 2010”. (RA18-INTRO)

(57) “The remainder of the article is organized as follows. First, *we* formally define tourism as to be able to operationalize it for the sake of quantitative research. This is followed by a detailed overview of the patterns of Asia-Pacific tourism to Australia, as well as a discussion of the hypothesized key drivers of these flows. Second, *we* describe our data and methodology, after which *we* discuss the results and implications of our regression analysis. The article is concluded with a summary of our main findings, indicating the limitations of our approach and outlining some possible avenues for further research”. (RA18-INTRO)

(58) “Bearing this in mind, in this article *I* see and use the notion of Anthropocene as further adding to the ever expanding forms of discourse on nature, both deriving from and contributing to these discourses”. (RA10-INTRO)

(59) “By combining income, population and distance as explanatory variables in this analysis, *our* methodology will combine a geographic and an econometric approach”. (RA18-INTRO)

(60) “As *I* will discuss below, this awareness is illustrated through the villagers’ increasing interactions with tourists and their other involvements in the local tourism development. *I* will then elaborate on individuals’ ideas and attitudes towards nature and how they form certain sets of environmental subjectivities, or social formations, mediated through ecotourism practices”. (RA10-INTRO)

(61) “If *we* want to relate a disabled person with mild limitations and one with severe limitations, *we* will observe that at a certain number

and/or a quality of service equal to  $\times 1$ , the probability of a DPSL to face a holiday is lower despite that of a DPML”. (RA1-DIS)

(62) “Specifically, our work builds on Sharpley and Stone’s theorizing of dark tourism whereby humans engage in effective interpretation of a space that brings death to life. The spaces *we* have studied are a lived consumption experience with specific subcultural narratives and a quest for extremity relating to the death and darkness”. (RA7-DIS)

(63) “In an international class like the EMTM, multicultural diversity and respect are integral to daily lived experiences and practices. *We* refer to Barnett’s ontological call for learning, which is not limited to knowledge and skills, as represented by the TEFI value of knowledge”. (RA11-DIS)

(64) “The ecological and socioeconomic development conditions in China are distinctly different, and Chinese provinces, autonomous regions and municipalities have different cultures, autonomies and political features. Xinjiang and Tibet autonomous regions have especially distinct characteristics in terms of socioeconomic, religious and institutional factors. Hence, *we* exclude these two autonomous regions from the econometrical models to address the robustness of estimation results”. (RA16-DIS)

Moreover, using *we*, *our* is reflected in a low degree of personal exposure.

(65) “The article is concluded with a summary of our main findings, indicating the limitations of *our* approach and outlining some possible avenues for further research”. (RA18-INTRO)

(66) “What is more relevant, yet less discussed, is how the Anthropocene on local levels is shaping *our* perception, decision-

making processes and actions in tourism studies and practices”. (RA10-INTRO)

(67) “Figure 5 relates to the probability of a disabled person to face a holiday and the number and/or quality of services provided. *We* distinguish, for example, three degrees of disability: mild, moderate and severe”. (RA1-DIS)

(68) “A further theme is predictability of climate change. As *we* have seen, the changes outlined above were often significant, but wholly unexpected”. (RA14-DIS)

(69) “By being insulated, they insinuate that *we* can pretend that death does not really exist or that we are somehow protected from its horrific realities”. (RA7-DIS)

Additionally seen is the use of self-mention to elaborate writers’ arguments.

(70) “*I* have argued, from a poststructuralist political ecology perspective, that people as carriers of ideas and ideologies are crucial players in the hybridization of different regimes of nature”. (RA10-INTRO)

(71) “In other words, *I* believe the significance of the term Anthropocene lies more in opening new ways of understanding and responding to the modern ecological catastrophe than in accurately defining the geological epoch”. (RA10-INTRO)

(72) “The type of experience *we* have studied goes beyond the search of the mere hedonic and the reproduced experience”. (RA7-DIS)

(73) “A further theme is predictability of climate change. As *we* have seen, the changes outlined above were often significant, but wholly unexpected”. (RA14-DIS)

The writers in tourism areas, additionally, use self-mention markers to state a goal or purpose.

(74) “To date, this question within tourism labor literature remains unanswered, and *our* current paper in these special issues aims to fill this gap in knowledge”. (RA12-INTRO)

(75) “Although forecasting in the strict sense is very difficult given the changing importance of these factors over time, our results allow formulating a number of anticipated changes and associated suggestions for Australian tourism policy”. (RA18-INTRO)

(76) “*Our* research explores the essences of a dark tourism experience whereby there exists a feeling of being closer to death”. (RA7-DIS)

(77) “*Our* findings illustrate that, in some ways, the tourism industry is playing the victim and failing to plan for the long-term issue of climate change”. (RA8-DIS)

Additionally, it is obviously seen that self-mention markers (e.g., *our*) are used to express self-benefits. This is a function which requires a personal statement, therefore, it can be shown that the writers usually employed this function only in the discussion section. This is because “some writers may accept self-mentions as a tool for a more effective means of engaging the readers when discussing” (Getkham, 2016, p. 89). Moreover, based on Getkham (2016), “self-mention may be used to show the level of writers’ confidence” (p. 89). Simply speaking, in discussion sections, “the writers may be more confident as they see the valuable findings of their research” (Getkham, 2016, p. 89). Some examples are shown below.

(78) “In *our* case, by utilizing the apparatus of the extremity in the shows and the direct confrontation with animal parts, blood and the putrid, the individual is not removed from death and is not merely watching it, but rather is an active participant in the ritual who may even come out blood soaked or stained”. (RA17-DIS)

(79) “*Our* reasoning here falls in line with Berridge’s work whereby she explains that witnessing death on television actually takes us away from death by presenting an insulated reality”. (RA7-DIS)

(80) “In *our* context, consumers attending a Watain show or a Gaahl’s Wyrld show are not going to sequester themselves from death - rather after years of performances, many will know what to expect - and that they are going to come face to face with death-related realities through ritual, through blood and through expo-sure to death. (RA7-DIS)

(81) “Specifically, *our* work builds on Sharpley and Stone’s theorizing of dark tourism whereby humans engage in effective interpretation of a space that brings death to life”. (RA7-DIS)

Ultimately, *I* and *we* were used by the tourism authors to present a summary of their studies in the discussion sections. Claiming their authority can also be seen in this.

(82) “In fact, in relation to the supply side, *we* observe the creation of maps and tourist guides and tourism related services and the realization of web sites”. (RA1-DIS)

(83) “*We* distinguish, for example, three degrees of disability: mild, moderate and severe. It seems to be logical to assume that the probability of facing a holiday is reduced with the increase of the degree of disability”. (RA1-DIS)

(84) “In the diversity of the tourism industry circumstance, *we* found that the variable of *div* has a significantly negative effect on labor productivity of such tourism firms as HASTs”. (RA16-DIS)

(85) “According to the IPA findings, the EMTM program needs to improve delivery of ethical issues to its students, which are valued as relatively important for tourism industry. *We* can only speculate whether the EMTM students think that more teaching and discussion on how to deal with ethical issues are needed in order to increase their understanding of tourism industry ethics”. (RA11-DIS)

(86) “When analyzing the results in Table 2, all the estimated parameters are significant at the 5% level or higher. Most of the parameters are significantly different from zero even at the 1% level. Thus, we are confident that all included variables have a significant effect on the labor productivity of tourism firms”. (RA16-DIS)

#### 4.2.4 Boosters

Boosters are employed in introduction sections (32 tokens or 2.42 per 1000 words) as well as discussion sections (168 tokens or 5.58 per 1000 words). Academically speaking, in tourism RAs, writers should employ the scientific or empirical method to report their results as well as experimental findings of the studies. With this essence, the certainty verbs (i.e., *find*, *found*) are frequently employed in both introduction and discussion sections. The additional point for using the certainty verbs as booster markers is contingent on the tense aspects. Put simply, “past simple tense” is applied when RA writers report the findings of their studies (Smith & Bernhardt, 1997), therefore, the certainty verb *found* (26 times or 0.86 per 1000 words) was used rather than *find* (3 times or 0.09 per 1000 words), which was especially seen in discussion sections.

(87) “The current study *found* evidence supporting Shumway's claim that descendants of slaveholders held sway over descendants of

'slaves' in Cape Coast and Elmina, based on the latter's economic status and closeness to well-heeled political elites". (RA4-DIS)

(88) "These results parallel other recent research that *found* a significant relationship between value orientation and tourists' motivations". (RA6-DIS)

(89) "The results confirmed the literature in showing that tourists' preservation value orientation could be an important predictor of tourists' support for or opposition to management actions. However, it was *found* that preservation value orientation emerged a stronger predictor for direct management actions more than indirect management actions". (RA6-DIS)

(90) "It was *found* that individual's perceptions regarding responsible tourism has a significant impact on their perception of sustainability of the tourism destination". (RA13-DIS)

(91) "We still *found* some support for a positive productivity effect of den and K/L by controlling the endogeneity of tourism development. All estimated effects are statistically significant". (RA16-DIS)

(92) "These findings are consistent with those *found* in literature, and the estimation coefficient of agglomeration density obtained with DPD model is smaller than our panel data model estimates, where accounting for endogeneity does not yield a contrary conclusion of tourism agglomeration density effect". (RA16-DIS)

(93) "Studies have *found* that repeat visitors are less concerned about travel health risks that can be present after a natural disaster as they have a more realistic risk perception". (RA17-DIS)

(94) “In this context, the destination country image may be significant, as was found in the context of Singapore tourism services”. (RA20-DIS)

Finally, figuring out the functions of this category in interactional metadiscourse, the use of epistemic stance adverbials, such as *certainly* and *obviously* are applied only in discussion sections to indicate certainty qualities of the tourism authors. The sentences are regarded to the degree of confidence in the truth of the proposition expressed ranging from “absolute judgments of certainty to indications of belief in various levels of probability (Biber et al., 1999). Clearly, the writers in tourism field tend to favor the expression of certainty or almost certainty rather than uncertainty or doubt.

(95) “Destination managers can *certainly* aspire to nurture successful hallmark events and related tourism activity through strategic event portfolio approaches; yet, the particular nature of hallmark events suggests they cannot be created and managed purely through planning efforts”. (RA5-INTRO)

(96) “This is *certainly* true in our study: international aviation services are extremely critical to Australia’s tourism industry, as over 99% of international visitors, travel to and from Australia by air”. (RA18-INTRO)

(97) “Population acts as an obvious control variable, as larger populations *obviously* lead to proportionally higher demand”. (RA18-INTRO)

(98) “*Certainly*, no evidence for this conclusion exists in the current study”. (RA4-DIS)

(99) “Tourism productivity varies enormously across Chinese provinces, and the spatial disparity of tourism productivity in various provinces is *obviously* large”. (RA16-DIS)



(100) “It is *certainly* possible to target VFRs, and doing this through the local residents is not only achievable but also palatable in terms of being considerate of the community’ s needs and wants”. (RA17-DIS)

(101) “The domestic VFR travel segment *certainly* offers durability and can only grow with population growth”. (RA17-DIS)

(102) “Tourism campaigns should *certainly* never be injurious or upsetting to local residents”. (RA17-DIS)

In conclusion, this chapter reveals the research findings through the use of interactional metadiscourses with regards to sub-categories: self-mentions, attitudinal markers, boosters, and hedges. The results of this study as discussed in this chapter provide the explanation of the conceptual analysis of interactional metadiscourse functions used in introduction and discussion sections of tourism research articles.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

This chapter details the conclusions of the study and consists of two sections. The first section is the summary of the findings involving the use of interactional metadiscourse in tourism RAs and their functions. The second one is provided for recommendations and future implications.

#### **5.1 Conclusions**

This study concentrates on the issues related to the metadiscourse model, focusing mainly on interactional features. The study illustrates that all research articles are based on tourism field, and they were analyzed by Hyland's metadiscourse model. After conducting the research design in chapter 3, 20 RAs were found from 7 corpora including *the Tourism Management*, *the International Journal of Tourism Research*, *the Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sports and Tourism Education*, *the Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, *the Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, *the Tourism Management Perspectives*, and *the Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*.

Among the research articles, the written text corpus was counted approximately 13,201 words for the introduction sections and 30,092 words for the discussion sections. In light of the results, the authors in tourism RAs are likely to apply similar selection of the interactional metadiscourse to their written texts in the introduction and discussion sections. Clearly, the results show how attitudinal markers acted in both introduction and discussion sections (23.18 per 1000 words in introduction sections and 20.03 per 1000 words in discussion sections). Also, counting of hedges (12.27 in introduction and 15.85 per 1000 words in discussion), self-mentions (6.80 in introduction and 3.48 per 1000 words in discussion), and boosters (2.42 in introduction and 5.58 per 1000 words in discussion) are respectively displayed.

With reference to interpreting how the metadiscourse resources are functioning, the researcher draws Table 5.1 to explain interactional metadiscourse functions employed in introduction and discussion sections of tourism RAs.

**Table 5.1:** Functions of interactional metadiscourse employed in two sections of tourism RAs.

| Category             | Introduction   | Discussion  | Functions   |
|----------------------|--|---|---|
| <i>Interactional</i> |  |   |   |
| Attitudinal markers  | critical, considerable, crucial, essential, important  | better, clear, complex, important, necessary, significant | Express “the writer’s affective, rather than epistemic attitude to propositions” (Fa-gen, 2012, p. 852) |
|                      | more important, more importantly                       | the most important  | Display comparative or superlative forms  |
|                      | better, the best                                       | better, the best  | Display comparative or superlative forms  |
| Hedges               | Perhaps  | Perhaps   | Signal some levels of doubt   |
|                      | <u>Modal verbs of possibility</u><br>may, might, could | <u>Modal verbs of possibility</u><br>may, might, could    | Decrease epistemic commitment   |
|                      | <u>Approximative adverbs</u><br>about                  | <u>Approximative adverbs</u><br>about                     | Express approximation and decrease epistemic commitment   |
| Self-mentions        | <i>we</i> explored; <i>we</i> used;                    | <i>we</i> explored; <i>we</i> used;                       | Explain and describe research procedure   |
|                      | we, our  | we, our   | Show a low degree of personal exposure.   |
|                      | From <i>our</i> study; <i>we</i> propose               | From <i>our</i> study; <i>we</i> propose                  | State a goal or purpose   |

| Category      | Introduction         | Discussion  | Functions  |
|---------------|----------------------|---|--|
| Self-mentions |                      | Alert <i>us</i> ; <i>our</i> study showed evidence; our findings reveal | Express self-benefits                                    |
|               |                      | I, we   | Claim writer's authority                                 |
| Boosters      | find, found          | find, found   | Report results and experimental findings of the studies. |
|               | certainly, obviously | Certainly   | Express the certainty or almost certainty                |
|               |                      | Clear; clearly  | Mark the author's highest degree of confidence           |

## 5.2 Recommendations and Future concern

This present study intended to investigate the use of interactional metadiscourse in tourism research articles. Firstly, it might benefit the writers of such research articles in tourism, helping to create more effective writing by study and analysis of each function. Furthermore, it might be useful as teaching material and for teaching strategies for those writing tourism research articles.

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