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Articles

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Foreword

On behalf of the Editorial board, we would like to extend our heartfelt gratitude to those who continue to make Philippine ESL journal a resource for knowledge creation and dissemination in the area of ESL research in the Philippines and its neighbouring countries. Special thanks to Dr. Teresita Tajolosa from Palawan State University, Philippines, and Ms. Flora Debora Floris from Petra Christian University, Indonesia, for their time and effort in reviewing the articles and in giving their invaluable comments in order to improve the articles.

In this special issue, three articles on discourse analysis are featured. First, the abridged version of Kexiu Yin's doctoral dissertation examined whether the role of speaking the truth has been duly performed by intellectuals in mainland China, by analyzing five public events in 453 journalistic texts from leading English newspapers in mainland China, Hongkong, and other Asian countries from 2008-2012 using Critical Discourse Analysis framework. Second, Miciano's abridged masteral thesis used genre analysis, to look into the moves, strategies, and cognitive structuring of job application letters written by Filipinos. Third, using intercultural rhetoric and genre analyses frameworks, Ying Zhu and Gocheco's paper examined the rhetorical structures and metadiscoursal features found in the introduction section of research article genre in two different cultural contexts–English L1 texts by native speakers of English and L2 texts written by Chinese speakers.

Leah Espada Gustilo, Ph.D.
Andrew Bernardo, Ph.D.
Editors, Philippine ESL Journal

"Speaking the truth"? A CDA Perspective of Intellectual Role Performance in Leading English Newspapers in Mainland China

Kexiu Yin
Yunnan University, China
De La Salle University, Manila

Abstract

With the theoretical and methodological insights from the critical discourse analysis (CDA), the study aims to explore how the intellectual role performance can be systematically examined and discussed by discourse analysts. In order to investigate whether the role of speaking the truth has been duly performed by intellectuals in mainland China, the topics of five public events that took place in mainland China across 2008-2012 in a total of 453 texts taken from the leading English newspapers in mainland China, Hong Kong and other countries were analyzed. The research findings show that: (1) the inclusivity of topics in the English newspapers in mainland China is generally low; (2) the topics excluded from the English newspapers in mainland China seem to constitute a pattern of omission that disfavors the Chinese government; (3) the intellectual role performance in mainland China in terms of speaking the truth may be compromised due to the selective pattern of topic choice; and (4) the social constraints on intellectual role performance in mainland China may include the state-owned background of the media, the reliance on advertising revenue, the dependence on government sourcing, the apprehension of flak and the fear of subversive forces. Finally, the implications for future research on intellectual discourse are provided.

Key words: intellectuals, role performance, speaking the truth, inclusivity of topics, topic choice, social constraints

Introduction

"It is the responsibility of intellectuals to speak the truth" (Chomsky, 1967, p. 2).

Since the Dreyfus Affairs in the late 19th century, intellectuals have projected themselves on the stage of public affairs as defender of justice in search for truth (Lukes, 1985; Jennings, 2000; Conner, 2006; Chomsky, 2011). Despite diverse interpretations of truth, studies of intellectuals seem to converge in terms of taking intellectuals as those who are specialized in one field or more and disseminate information with their professionalism (Chomsky, 1967, 2011; Gramsci, 1971; Foucault, 1980; Jacoby, 1987; Said, 1994; Xu, 2003; Hill, 2012). For their strength in knowledge and pursuit of the truth, intellectuals were held in high esteem in China over the decades.

Unfortunately, the commendatory term has changed flavor in recent years. A number of words with pejorative sense against intellectuals were created by netizens and quickly became popular in the mass media, most of which present the public's disappointment at the role performance of intellectuals. An example is the word *brickist* (*zhuanjia* 砖家), homophone of the term "expert" (*zhuanjia* 专家). In Chinese online forum, criticizing others is described as throwing bricks toward them. The word *brickist* depicts the image of a bought expert who receives bricks from the public for his/her distortion of the truth about public affairs. Apart from the pejorative terms, the other evidence of the declining intellectuals reputation is the online survey conducted by the *Global Times* in 2012, in which over seventy per cent respondents acknowledged that their impression of intellectuals was turning bad (Zhu, 2012).

The intellectual role performance related to the intellectual reputation crisis is worth a linguistic attention. Based on the assumptions that a role comes with behavior (Steimann, 2000; Hindi, 2007) and that discourse is a form of social action (Fairclough, 1989), it seems that publicizing their discourse of social events is a way of performing roles for intellectuals. Since journalists, editorialists and columnists have been regarded as intellectuals in a number of studies (e.g., Gu, 1999; Pietilainen, 2002; Lagonikos, 2005; Murray, 2005; Meer, 2006; Tendi, 2010), their discourse in newspapers can serve as the basis of discussing intellectual role performance.

In the examination of how intellectuals perform their role of speaking the truth, the critical discourse analysis (CDA) may provide an informative perspective. Holding the belief that truth/reality is constructed and mediated by power relations within social and historical contexts, CDA explores how manipulation is realized in discourse. More often than not, the construction of truth/reality in newspapers is realized by an intentional selection of topics. van Dijk (1986) posits that "the ideological nature of discourse in general, and of news discourse in particular, is often defined by the unsaid" (p. 178). Also, Molina (2009) maintains that "often the informative identity of media, particularly the written press, is provided by its informative omissions, i.e., by what is not informed and kept in silence – rather than by what is published" (p. 187). In recent years, there has been CDA research on topic choice in newspapers issued in the US, the UK, Syria, the Philippines and China, among others.

Huckin (2002) studied 163 newspaper articles and editorials on homelessness published in the US during early 1999. He produced an inventory of the main topics mentioned in the corpus. Then he examined what topics got excluded from individual articles in the corpus and whether the exclusion of the topics was systematic. Finally he reached the conclusion that the topic exclusion was a manipulative means of constructing the social phenomenon of homelessness in the discourse.

The other study of US newspapers was conducted by Izadi and Saghaye-Biria (2007), who examined all the editorials from 1984 to 2004 on Iran's nuclear program in three American newspapers. Employing van Dijk's (1998) concept of ideological square made up of four dimensions resulting from the polarization between "Our good things" and "Their bad things" (p. 42) by means of emphasis and mitigation, Izadi and Saghaye-Biria (2007) discussed how Orientalism was presented in the discourse. It is found that while the US responsibility under the terms of Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) to fight the spread of nuclear weapons to Iran was repeatedly emphasized, a most central tenet of the NPT, i.e., nuclear disarmament, was kept silent in the discourse for the benefit of the US.

The US is by no means the only setting where topics are manipulatively selected in newspapers. Meer (2006) analyzed the columns on Muslim in five British newspapers. Seven columnists were chosen as representative of the conservative nationalist camp and five as representative of the secular liberal camp. Meer defined these columnists as "print media public intellectuals" (p. 36). Through the examination of the topics in their discourse, Meer found the convergence in their anti-Muslim sentiment between the two positions. A variety of topics were adopted to reinforce the dominant stereotype of Muslims as anti-modern and antipathetic to democratic and human rights in Britain. Meanwhile, topics that served the opposite purpose were left outside the discourse.

Whereas the studies by Meer (2006) and Izadi and Saghaye-Biria (2007) demonstrate how Orientalism was presented in western journalism by means of topic choice, Al-Sharoufi's (2006) research shows that the same strategy was applied in Arabic newspapers to indoctrinate the reader with Occidentalism as opposed to Orientalism based on the analysis of 31 editorials taken from two newspapers published in Syria and one issued in London between 1998 and 2005. The editorials all revolved around the main topics whose axis was based on a long history of conflict between the Occident and the East, showing the utmost hatred towards the West and its allies.

In the Philippine setting, Dayag's (2010) research delved into how a hostage drama in Iraq involving an overseas Filipino worker was framed in newspapers. The analysis was performed on more than 200 news stories of the event from eighty five issues of five leading English broadsheets in the Philippines. The findings show that there were more similarities than differences in the discursive strategies among the newspapers. However, it was also found that *Manila Bulletin*, unlike the other four newspapers, kept silent on the episode involving government officials perceived to be responsible for a premature announcement on the supposed release of the abducted Filipino and the confusion arising from it. It was inferred that the silence of *Manila Bulletin* might be attributable to its "conservative and pro-establishment" (p. 356) editorial policy.

In China, the omission of a national contest in newspaper coverage is revealed by Huang (2011), who analyzed intellectual controversies about the 2005 Super Girl Voice Contest (SGV). It is found that the intellectual controversial discourses of SGV only appeared in liberal newspapers such as *Southern Weekend*; whereas, Party organs such as *People's Daily* and their provincial counterparts intentionally ignored the event. Huang maintained that the coverage and omission of the event might be related to the market-orientation of liberal newspapers owned by corporations and politics-orientation of Party organs under the control of the government leadership.

While these studies have shown that discourse in newspapers is product of topic choice, few studies have gone so far as to discuss how topic choice affects the practice of speaking the truth, a role intellectuals are expected to perform in society. On the other hand, most non-CDA studies of intellectual role performance (e.g., Liu, 2007; Chen, 2010; Ding & Wu, 2010) are based on the analysis of the Chinese-language discourse in the mass media. English-language newspapers of China seem to deserve the attention by CDA researchers.

The present study aims to fill the gaps. The central interest of the study lies in discussing how topic choice in discourse reveals the intellectual role performance in terms of speaking the truth from a CDA perspective.

To fulfill the research aim, it is necessary to position the Chinese intellectual setting into a global discourse context. In order to facilitate the comparison between the topics in the discourse made by intellectuals in mainland China and those by intellectuals outside mainland China, the public events that took place in mainland China and gained both national and international newspaper coverage were chosen for the analysis.

The study attempts to answer the following questions:

1. What is the inclusivity of topics in texts on public events written by intellectuals in leading English newspapers in mainland China compared with those in other international English newspapers?

2. What messages are conveyed by the topic choice in texts on public events written by intellectuals in leading English newspapers in mainland China?

3. How do these messages contribute to the intellectual role performance in terms of speaking the truth in leading English newspapers in mainland China?

4. How do social conditions account for the intellectual role performance in terms of speaking the truth in the context of mainland China?

Theoretical Framework

The study adheres to the theoretical framework consisting of the following resources: (1) Fairclough's (1989) research model for CDA studies; (2) Huckin's (2002) approach to analyzing topics; and (3) Herman and Chomsky's (1988) proposition of analyzing the social conditions on the media behavior.

On the Model of Research Stages

The study subscribes to the three-stage model of analyzing discourse proposed by Fairclough (1989): description, interpretation and explanation.

Fairclough (1989) takes discourse as a "social process" - both the process of production and the process of interpretation (p. 24). The formal properties of a text can be regarded as traces of the productive process and on the other hand as cues in the process of the interpretation (p. 24). Furthermore, discourse is regarded as a political and ideological practice that constitutes particular power relations and ideologies; different types of discourse may come to be invested in different ways (Fairclough, 1992, p. 67). Following the three stages, the study first identifies the discourse properties of the texts (i.e., topic choice) in the English newspapers, then offers an interpretation of the discourse properties, and finally explores the relation between the social conditions and the texts.

On the Inclusivity of Topics

Huckin's (2002) systematical approach to the identification of excluded topics, or "textual silences" (p. 347) in his term, is adopted in the study. Huckin defines textual silence as "the omission of some piece of information that is pertinent to the topic at hand" (p. 348). In Huckin's procedure, the first step is corpus building by collecting the texts representative of the public discourse on the topic. The second step is the development of an inventory by compiling the subtopics that constitute the public discourse on the topic based on the application of qualitative content analysis to all the texts in the corpus. The third step is the examination of the subtopics in a text by comparison with the inventory obtained in the second step to find out which ones are included in the text and which ones are not. Those subtopics that are not included then constitute the textual silences.

On News Filters in the Propaganda Model

Given its widely reported applicability in the actual settings (e.g., Aronson, 1990; Winter, 1992, 2007; Klaehn & Mullen, 2002; Knightly, 2003; Andersen, 2006; Sussman, 2010; Robertson, 2010; Mullen & Klaehn, 2010), the Propaganda Model (PM) proposed by Herman and Chomsky (1988) to understand the performance of the mainstream media is employed.

In the model, there are five filters that function to screen out news to the public, which are "the forces that cause the media to play a propaganda role" (Herman & Chomsky 1988, p. xi). The first filter is the media ownership. Media organizations are possessed and operated by the government or large corporations, and they are profit-driven and have their ideological positions as such. The second filter is advertising. Today's media rely more and more heavily on advertising income rather than sales. A predictable consequence is that the media would practice self-censorship to cater to the advertisers who pay the bill even at the cost of the interest of the public. The third filter is sourcing. The market-driven media have to rely on elite sources such as government officials and professional experts to get the news at the least cost. Limited and biased sourcing can thus frame truths. The fourth filter is flak. Media may receive threats from advertisers, the government or other sources if the news and reports are unwanted. When threats and cost are too severe and too high to bear, media may decrease the relevant investigative journalism. The last filter is fear. Labels such as communism and terrorism are used as controlling mechanism to arouse fears among the public.

Conceptual Framework

Drawing on the theoretical framework, the conceptual framework of the study is shown in Figure 1.

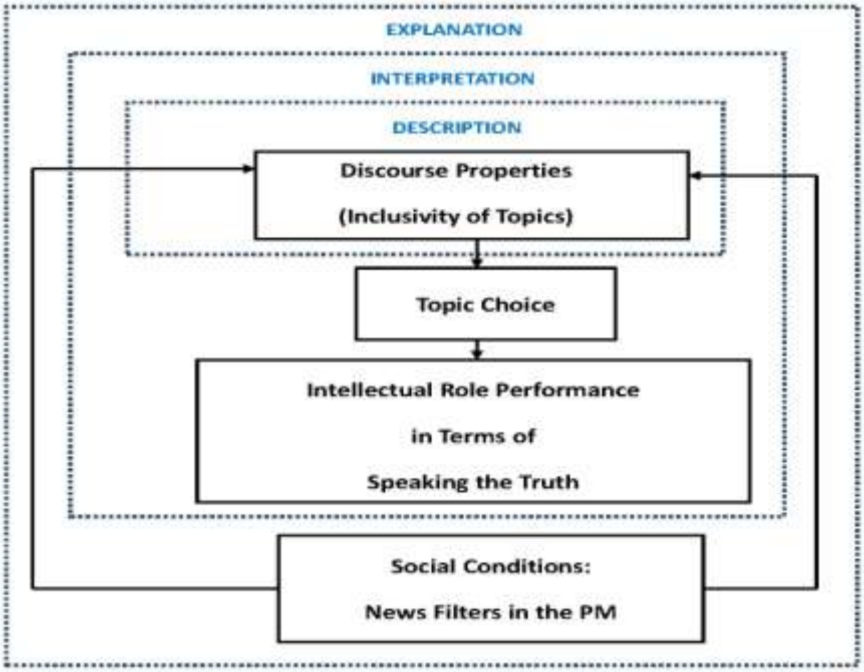

Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the study (adapted from Fairclough, 1989, p. 25)

As is shown in Figure 1, the three stages of the study are marked by the dotted lines, and the research questions are answered as the research stages develop. The stage of description addresses research question 1. The discourse properties are identified in terms of the inclusivity of topics. Then, the stage of interpretation addresses research questions 2 and 3. Lastly, research question 4 is discussed in the stage of explanation, which is concerned with the interaction between the text and the social context.

Method

Research Design

The research is descriptive-analytic in nature, for its central interest lies in the documentation of actual language use in social practice and the analysis of the relationship between language and social context.

English Newspapers Selected for the Corpora

The identification of the inclusivity of topics in the discourse of mainland China required a larger discourse context (e.g., an international one). Given the difference in media attention to the public events occurring in mainland China, three corpora had to be built, i.e., the core corpus, the accessory corpus and the reference corpus. Data coding was applied in the three corpora in the same way.

The core corpus consisted of the data from *China Daily* and the *Global Times*, the only two English newspapers on the international level in mainland China. This corpus served as the central basis of examining the discourse in mainland China that gave rise to the study.

The accessory corpus was comprised of the data from the *South China Morning Post* and *The Standard* (also named as *Hong Kong Standard*) in Hong Kong. Both were rated the most trusted media leaders by the School of Journalism and Communication, the Chinese University of Hong Kong in the two consecutive surveys conducted in 2006 and 2009 ("*Post* ranked as most trusted source", 2009, p. A8). This corpus served as the main comparison corpus of the core corpus, for the Hong Kong media may be the one that attended to mainland China events the most compared with other mainstream media outside.

The reference corpus contained the data from leading English newspapers in other countries, including *Manila Bulletin* in the Philippines, *The Straits Times* in Singapore, the *New York Times* in the US, the *Guardian* and *The Independent* in the UK, and *The Australian* in Australia. This corpus served as the second-place comparison corpus of the core corpus due to the less attention to the public events in mainland China by comparison with the Hong Kong media.

The Public Events Selected for the Study

Three criteria for selecting the public events and the groundings of setting these criteria are provided as follows. First, the public events had to take place between 2008 and 2012, for the remarkable intellectual reputation crisis has been observed since 2007. Second, the public events had to be among the annual top ten public events, for they may gain much media coverage and social attention than other public events. Third, the triggering incidents of the public events had to be directly related to power or wealth.

Following the criteria, five public events were selected. The event of 2008 is the riot in Weng'an county, Guizhou province (henceforth the 2008-event), typical of the events involving the conflict between the public and the local government over judicial justice and public order. The event of 2009 is the traffic accident committed by a young man who was a wealthy family member in Hangzhou, Zhejiang province (henceforth the 2009-event), typical of the events involving the tension between the public and the unruly rich. The event of 2010 is the traffic accident (henceforth the 2010-event) committed by a young man whose father is a high-ranking official in Hebei province, typical of the events involving the tension between the public and the bullying officials' family members. The event of 2011 is the high-speed train collision in Wenzhou, Zhejiang province (henceforth the 2011-event), typical of the events involving the conflict between the public and the government over safety issues. The event of 2012 is the protests in Shifang city, Sichuan province (henceforth the 2012-event), typical of the events involving the conflict between the public and local government over environment issues.

Data Gathering Procedure

The data was downloaded from the online archives section in compliance with the terms and conditions of the selected English newspapers. The texts reporting or commenting on the selected public events were obtained by searching relevant key words through the search engine of the online newspapers.

Corpora

Three corpora were built for each public event, the core corpus, the accessory corpus and the reference corpus, as seen in Table 1.

Table 1
Corpora of the Study

Year	Newspapers Period Covered for the Core Corpus and the Accessory Corpus	Core Corpus	Accessory Corpus	Newspapers Period Covered for the Reference Corpus	Reference Corpus
2008	June 28, 2008 - July 28, 2008	18	26	June 28, 2008 - March 31, 2013	8
2009	May 7, 2009 - March 31, 2013	30	4	May 7, 2009 - March 31, 2013	4
2010	October 16, 2010 - March 31, 2013	22	15	October 16, 2010 - March 31, 2013	12
2011	July 23, 2011 - August 23, 2011	164	59	July 23, 2011 - March 31, 2013	45
2012	July 1, 2012 - August 1, 2012	20	12	July 1, 2012 - March 31, 2012	14
Total		254	116		83

Coding and Compilation of Topics

The unit of analysis is sentence. Each simple sentence, coordinate sentence and complex sentence was regarded as a complete unit. Besides, the headline in the form of a noun phrase was treated as a sentence, for it presented a proposition which Fairclough (1995) considers essential for a sentence.

Huckin's (2002) procedure of developing a weighted inventory of topics was followed in the coding of the texts in the three corpora. First, the topics in the text were obtained through qualitative content analysis. Second, the topics were categorized based on the consultation of the scholarly literature on the public event in study, as is proposed by Huckin (2002, p. 356). Third, a weighted total was given to each topic to show the emphasis it received in the text. The mention (no matter once or more) of the topic in each text gained 1 point for the topic; an additional 1 point was given to the topic when it appeared in the headline or the first four sentences. Then, sequencing the topics according to the weighted totals and categories yielded the weighted inventory of topics in the corpus.

Since there were three corpora for each public event, three individual inventories were obtained for each event. Merging the three inventories produced the total inventory of all the topics in the three corpora for the event. Then, the inclusivity of topics of each corpus was obtained by working out the percentage of the topics that the corpus contributed to the total in the three corpora. Meanwhile, the topics excluded from the core corpus were identified based on the comparison of the topics among the three individual inventories.

Figure 2 shows how a text on the 2011-event in the core corpus was coded (underlines and sentence numbers added).

The Text	Topic Category	Topic
<u>Girl, 2, found alive in wreck</u>	RESPONSES	Rescue
Toll: <u>35</u> confirmed <u>dead</u>, <u>192</u> <u>injured</u>	RESULTS	Death, Injury
	DEMOGRAPHICS	Death, Injury
Sackings: 3 <u>railway officials dismissed</u>	RESULTS	Officials sacked
Clue: Device similar to ‘black box’ discovered		
(1) Wenzhou, Zhejiang – Twenty-one hours after a high-speed train <u>crashed</u> into the back of another that had stopped after losing power near Wenzhou, rescue workers found a 2-year-old girl alive in the last carriage of the stalled train.	ACCIDENT	Crash
(2) Xiang Weiyi, from Wenzhou, had suffered no apparent injuries after being		

trapped in the carriage, rescue workers said.		
(3) She was not crying when they discovered her about 5:20 pm as they cleared the wreckage on a viaduct.		
(4) "When we found her, she could still move her hands,"		
(5) a firefighter said.		
(6) She was taken to No. 118 Hospital of the Chinese People's Liberation Army in Wenzhou, he said.	RESPONSES	Medical treatment
(7) Weiyi's uncle said she had been traveling with her parents.		
(8) He did not know if they had survived.		
(9) As of 10:30 pm Sunday, the number of confirmed dead stood at 35 people.		
(10) A further 192 had been injured, said Ministry of Railways spokesman Wang Yongping.		
(11) The accident happened at 8:38 pm on Saturday on a bridge in East China's Zhejiang province when a high-speed train, D301, rear-ended a stalled bullet train, D3115.		
(12) President Hu Jintao and Premier Wen Jiabao called for "all-out efforts" to rescue injured passengers.	RESPONSES	Top officials' directives /action
(13) Vice-Premier Zhang Dejiang arrived on Sunday at the site to direct rescue efforts and help with the investigation into the accident.		
(14) Wang apologized to the injured and their families.		
(15) He said the ministry would draw lessons from the crash to prevent similar accidents from happening.		

Note: From "Girl, 2, found alive in wreck," by Z.Wang and D. Xin, 2011, July 25, *China Daily*,
Page 1. Copyright 2011 by *China Daily*.

Figure 2. Coding of Topics in Sample Text 1

Prior to the coding, five categories were proposed under which the specific topics were to be grouped for the data on the 2011-event through the discussion between the researcher and two inter-coders based on their impressionistic assessment of the corpora and the scholarly literature on the event. The categories were the Accident, Results, Responses, Causes and Background and Demographics. The words presenting the topics were underlined, and the topics were coded on the right side of the sentences at their first appearance. Their following occurrences were no longer coded and did not repeatedly count in the weighted totals. The topics in the headline, sub-headline and the first four sentences gained 2 points and the rest gained 1 point. Accordingly, the weighted inventory of topics in sample text 1 was developed below:

Table 2
Main topics mentioned in sample text 1

Categories	Weighted Totals
Accident	
(1) Crash	2
Causes and Background	
N/A	N/A
Results	
(2) Death	2
(3) Injury	2
(4) Officials sacked	2
Responses	
(5) Rescue	2
(6) Medical treatment	1
(7) Top officials' directives /action	1
Demographics	

(8) Numbers of passengers dead	2
(9) Numbers of passengers injured	2

As the coding of other texts went on, more topics would enrich the inventory. After the inventories of the three corpora were completed, the inclusivity of topics in each corpus was computed, and the topics excluded from the core corpus were identified. Take the corpora for the 2011-event. A total of 41 topics were coded in the three corpora, of which 36 appeared in the core corpus, hence the inclusivity of topics 87.8% of the core corpus.

Inter-coding and Inter-coding Reliability

Apart from the researcher herself, two inter-coders were invited to assist the data coding. More than 30% of the data was subjected to inter-coding. The researcher herself coded all the texts (*N*=453). Huckin's (2002) procedure of gaining the reliability was followed and adapted. When discrepancies occurred, the researcher and the inter-coders would read the original text again, consult the criteria and hold discussion in an effort to reach agreement. Finally, above 85% of the discrepancies were settled.

Interviews with Journalists

As a resource in the process of interpretation, the text is on the other hand the product of the process of production (Fairclough, 1989, p. 25). Interviews with journalists were conducted to capture the process of textual production in the newspapers in mainland China. The interviews were carried out with a semi-structured questionnaire. The questionnaire was furnished with English and Chinese versions, and the respondents were invited to complete it in either language they would prefer.

The researcher sent the questionnaires to 55 email addresses supposedly used by the writers and editors of the 254 texts in the core corpus. Within two weeks, a total of five responses were received. Two questionnaires were completed in English and the other three in Chinese, which were translated by the researcher into English. For reasons of confidentiality, the respondents were referred to as interviewee X, Y, Z and the like in the study.

Findings and Discussion

Research Question 1: Inclusivity of Topics

There are three corpora for each of the five events. The inclusivity of topics in the three corpora across the five years is provided in Table 3.

Table 3
Inclusivity of topics in the three corpora across 2008-2012

Year	Core	Accessory	Reference
	p	*P*	*P*
2008	59.3%	85.2%	51.8%
2009	75.5%	53.1%	67.3%
2010	67.4%	74.4%	62.8%
2011	87.8%	73.2%	73.2%
2012	58.4%	82.0%	51.7%

For ease of reading, the findings in Table 3 are presented in Figure 3.

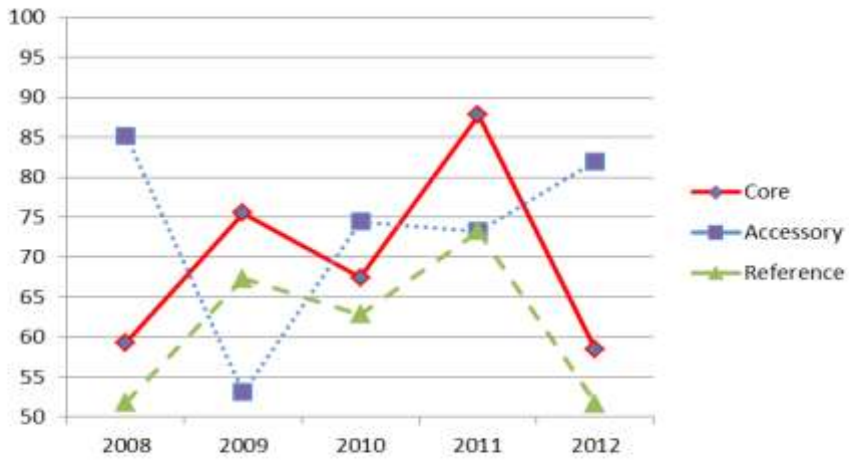

Figure 3. Inclusivity of topics in the three corpora across 2008-2012

Figure 3 shows that the inclusivity of topics in the core corpus is inconsistent across the five years and that it is generally lower than that of the accessory corpus yet higher than that of the reference corpus. There is neither a consistent rising nor falling tendency of the inclusivity of topics in the core corpus across the five years. More often than not, the inclusivity of topics in the core corpus is remarkably lower than that of the accessory corpus, especially in the discourse of the 2008-event and the 2012-event; on the other hand, it is consistently higher than that of the reference corpus. It is worth mentioning that there is a great disparity in the size among the three corpora: the core corpus consists of 254 texts, the accessory corpus contains 116 texts and the reference corpus includes 83 texts. The low inclusivity of topics in the reference corpus may be partly attributable to the corpus size. However, despite its overwhelming advantage in the corpus size, the core corpus surprisingly provided fewer topics than the accessory corpus. Thus, it seems safe to conclude that the general inclusivity of topics in the core corpus across the five years is by no means high, although it is not the lowest among the three corpora.

The inclusivity of topics in the categories in the three corpora has been further explored and shown below (for ease of reading, the lowest inclusivity of topics each year is shown in bold type).

Table 4
Inclusivity of topics in the categories of the core corpus across 2008-2012

Year	The Protests / The Accident	Causes & Background	Results	Responses	Demographics
2008	55%	68.8%	75%	**21.4%**	73.3%
2009	100%	**64.7%**	76.9%	84.6%	75%
2010	100%	70%	64.3%	**61.5%**	66.7%
2011	100%	**75%**	100%	91.7%	100%
2012	64.5%	60%	56.5%	**28.6%**	62.5%

It can be seen in Table 4 that the lowest inclusivity of topics is generally found in the category of Responses (in the 2008-event, 2010-event and 2012-event) and the category of Causes and Background (in the 2009-event and 2011-event). Besides, the inclusivity of topics in most categories is not high across the five years. Even in the category of The Protests/The Accident that contains all the topics in the discourse of the 2009-event, 2010-event and 2011-event, the inclusivity of topics is rather low in the discourse of the 2008-event and 2012-event.

The findings arouse the question: how does the process of textual production account for the discourse properties in terms of the inclusivity of topics? Thus, the writers of these texts were interviewed. For the question about the categories that could have been enriched with more information in their reportage, all of the five options in correspondence with the five topic categories were chosen by the interviewees who also provided explanations. For example, according to interviewee X, the information in the category of Response in his/her reportage was insufficient, because "it is impossible to include all the participants' responses to the event due to the restriction on the length of the reports". Since the length of the texts has to be taken into consideration by all journalists (Huckin, 2002), it seems that the low inclusivity of topics in the core corpus can hardly be justified by the reason offered by the interviewees. However, the answers given by the interviewees suggest that the low inclusivity of topics in the core corpus has been realized and acknowledged by the interviewed writers.

Research Question 2: Topic Choice

Topic choice is actualized by topic exclusion. The analysis suggests that the topic exclusion in the discourse in the core corpus forms a pattern and that the pattern is consistent across the five years: to omit the topics that may disfavor the government. Among a variety of topics excluded from the core corpus, the topic of "censorship" was consistently left unmentioned across the five years. Other topics, such as the public discontent of the government, social injustice, the police force against protesters and government inaction, were among the most excluded from the discourse of the events.

The consistency in the pattern of topic exclusion across the five years leads to the inference that the topic omission may be intentional. Huckin (2002) proposed that the intentionality of topic omission could be inferred based on the opportunity of using the topics in the genre and the writer's knowledge of the topics (p. 362). Following the proposition, the topic exclusion across the five years is interpreted as follows. On the one hand, the topic exclusion from the core corpus can be hardly attributable to the restrictions imposed by genre. The texts in the three corpora had the same genres, i.e., the news discourse and the opinion discourse. The appearance of the topics in the accessory and reference corpora shows that the core corpus had the same opportunity of using the topics in the genre. On the other hand, the writer's lack of knowledge of the topics seems to be unconvincing of the topic exclusion from the core corpus. The five public events took place in mainland China, hence the advantage of the mainland China-based newspapers (from which the texts constitute the core corpus) in their access to the topics of the events. For example, the topics on the public distrust and discontent of the government were excluded from the core corpus for the 2008-event, 2009-event, 2010-event and 2012-event. The exclusion seems to be intentional for it is highly unlikely that there was no negative response among the public after the events took place and that the mainland reporters had no access to the public responses. Particularly, the topics of censorship were consistently mentioned and received emphasis in both the accessory and reference corpora across the five years. It is presumed that the writers for the core corpus had the knowledge of how other mainstream media made discourse of the events. Yet, the topics of censorship had been kept out of the reader's sight in the discourse in the core corpus.

It is natural that the discourse in the core corpus, as a component of the international discourse of the events, could not include all the topics of the events. However, this does not justify the selective pattern of excluding topics disfavoring the government. Therefore, it is inferred that the exclusion of these topics was intentional for the benefit of the government.

While the foregoing discussion presents the process of interpreting the texts, it is necessary to look at the process of textual production. When asked what factors would influence their decision of presenting the information, all of the interviewees chose the professional consideration and political consideration. According to their explanation, professionalism (i.e., journalism) required them to exclude the information when it could not be confirmed. It is noted that, although political consideration was the other most chosen option, only one interviewee provided the explanation, which read that “it is necessary to follow the mainstream political orientation”. It is unclear whether the explanation means that the interviewee was willing to consider the political factors or that the interviewee was forced to do so. However, the answers at least show that political consideration was one of the factors that would affect the topic choice in mainland China.

Research Question 3:
Intellectual Role Performance in terms of Speaking the Truth

When a public event takes place and gains media coverage, the truth is constructed in the language, manipulatively or not (e.g., Foucault, 1980; van Dijk, 1998; Fairclough, 2003). Reporting social events is like restoring a shattered vase. What reporters can do is to collect the fragments to represent the original one. Unfortunately, some tiny fragments are neglected; what is worse, among the fragments on the ground, some are not from the shattered vase; and in most cases, the reporters have no idea of the original vase. Missing the fragments or taking the wrong fragments, intentionally or not, affects the restoration work. In the same way, the exclusion of topics, despite the possibility that some of them are irrelevant, may result in the failure to speak the truth of the event.

It is revealed in the analysis that the intellectual discourse in the core corpus excluded a number of topics of the events, and the topic choice formed a pattern of omitting the information tainting the government image. True, it is possible that not all of the excluded topics are the truth fragments of the events. In this sense, the consistent occurrence of the topic of the censorship in the mainstream English newspapers of Hong Kong and the countries such as the US and UK does not necessarily prove an actual stipulation of censorship in mainland China. However, if these reports made false accusation, the lack of any government denial of censorship in the mainland leading English newspapers seems to be rather strange in so long a time span across five years.

Besides censorship, the responses (mainly public responses) and government inaction were also among the most unmentioned topics in the intellectual discourse in mainland China. In particular, the intellectual discourse of the 2008-event and 2012-event involving mass protests presented a strikingly low inclusivity of topics on the responses. This reflects that the discourse may have missed quite a few topics on the public responses as possible truth fragments of the events. Meanwhile, the topics on the government inaction mostly appeared in the reportage of the background or the causes of the protests or accidents, for example, the poor law enforcement, the tolerance to speeding cars in the city, the ignorance of experts' warnings of high speed train safety and the indifference to environment protection. The exclusion of these topics shows that some possible truth fragments of the government inaction were kept out of the reader's sight. Apart from the three kinds of topics, most of the other excluded topics of the five public events also shared the similarity of containing the information disfavoring the government. The consistent pattern across the five years led to the inference of an intentional topic choice for the benefit of the government.

It is understandable that the restricted length of texts in newspapers makes it impossible to include all the topics of the event (Huckin, 2002). Nevertheless, it is evident that the behavior of intentionally keeping silent on things, just like telling lies, works against the aim of speaking the truth. The pattern of topic choice for the benefit of the power implies an intentional dereliction of duty. Therefore, the intellectual role performance of speaking the truth seems to have been compromised.

Research Question 4:
Social Conditions on Intellectual Role Performance

As a form of social action (Fairclough, 1989), discourse is a product determined by a number of social conditions, including the media ownership, advertising, sourcing, flak and fear (Herman & Chomsky, 1988).

Media Ownership

Media ownership is the first filter in the PM that news gets through before reaching the audience. The owners, either the government or corporations, have their own slant on social events. Understandably, media serves their owners' interest.

Both *China Daily* and the *Global Times* are state-owned. They are the publications of the China Daily Group and the People's Daily, respectively. The former is subordinate to the Information Office of the State Council (Hu, 2006) and the latter is a unit of the ministerial status (Qian, 2012). In mainland China, such organizations at the gray area between the state functionaries and state-owned enterprises are called *shiye danwei*, or public service units sponsored and managed by the state or local government (Lu & Perry, 1997; Weng, 2012). For example, the state financial allocation accounts for nine per cent of the net income of *China Daily* (Hu, p. 9). Supportive as the financial allocation is, it may put a constraint on the journalism practice as well.

Government ownership may explain the overall pro-government line in the intellectual discourse in the main corpus. The topic choice serves the function of maintaining a positive image of the government. The negative image of the government is minimized, when unavoidable, in the topics. The state ownership may also account for the tendency of focusing the criticism on the local governments instead of the central government. A feature of the state-sponsored public service units in China is that they have a formal administrative level, although they are not the administrative departments (Kong, 2011). The ministerial level of the *Global Times* and the vice-ministerial level of *China Daily* are both above those of the local governments. In the topics of the government handling of the violent protests, the car accidents and the train crash in the five public events, the blame is unanimously placed on the incompetence of the local governments instead of the central government.

However, it is worth mentioning that the pro-government line is not to be understood as anti-public. After all, protecting the public interest is the legitimacy of the government ruling in democratic countries. The point is that the government image tends to be prioritized in the state-owned media. As a result, the intellectual role performance may be constrained due to the state ownership of the media.

Advertising

The second filter in the PM is advertising. Few advertisers pay the bill for promoting the discourse harmful to their interest in the media. The newspapers thus have to be careful not to step on the toe of the advertisers.

Similar to other mainstream newspapers, *China Daily* and the *Global Times* rely heavily on advertising revenue. Advertising income and sales account for seventy percent of the net income of *China Daily* (Hu, 2006). Unfortunately, the list of advertisers in the two newspapers is inaccessible, for it remains confidential. Nevertheless, there seem to be clues of the media avoidance to offend the advertisers. In the discourse of the 2008-event, the government announced that the local disputes over mines were among the causes of the protest; yet, neither reportage nor comment was made on the problems in the mining industry. Also, in the discourse of the 2009-event, the analysis of the automobile industry was absent in contrast to the in-depth analysis of the high traffic accident rate, the rampant illegal car modification, the lack of a wealth culture and other problems considered pertinent to the event. Similarly, in the discourse of the 2012-event in which the local residents' opposition to the construction of a chemical plant triggered violent protests, neither reportage nor analysis of the chemical industry was presented. It is observed that the products of the mining industry, automobile industry and chemical industry are constantly advertised in the two newspapers. The observation renders the suspicion of the intentional downplay of the negative information pertinent to the advertisers.

Sourcing

Sourcing is the third filter in the PM that restricts the free movement of information. The *Global Times* and *China Daily* present a heavy dependence on the sources of the government background.

The information in both newspapers is mainly provided by their staff reporters and Xinhua News Agency, another state-owned ministerial-level public service unit. Given their own government background, i.e., the vice-ministerial level of *China Daily* and the ministerial-level of the *Global Times*, the sourcing of both newspapers is heavily government-dependent. Due to the heavy reliance on the government source, a number of possible truth fragments may be crowded out in the discourse.

Flak

Flak is the fourth filter in the PM that threatens press freedom. If the reportage conflicts with the interest of a specific economic or political group, it is possible that the group gives negative feedback to the media in forms such as the cancellation of advertising or administrative punishment. In most cases, the flak is not made public for the benefit of both parties.

It is not rare that the editors and reporters of the unwanted information receive the flak ranging from warnings to removal from one's position under a number of seemingly justified excuses. Without the joint confirmation by the punisher and the punished, it is difficult to verify the direct causal relation between the unwanted reportage and the punishment. As a result, most allegations of the flak are based on inference. In the 2011-event, there were online rumors that several editors, reporters and television hosts had been warned by the authorities and suspended from their duties for their investigative reportage of the train crash defying the official ban. While these rumors have been neither confirmed nor denied, a sharp decrease was observed in the investigative reportage of the high-speed railways development after the alleged three bans issued by the authorities after the crash.

Administrative restrictions on the reportage of the public events may also present how the filter of flak affects the intellectuals to perform their role of speaking the truth. There are ordinances directly related to media reportage of public events issued by the State Council. Take the *National Contingency Plans for Emergencies* (the Chinese version as《国家突发公共事件总体应急预案》) issued in 2006. The ordinance requires that the reportage of public events be timely, accurate, objective and comprehensive and that the information be released mainly through the authorized agency, news reports, interviews and press conference. While providing the media legislative support in the reportage of public events, there are problems in the practical enforcement. Due to the difference in the interpretation of what is "accurate, objective and comprehensive", the reporters are subjected to the accusation of violating the rule. As Ba (2012) points out, the integration of information release into the government handling of the public event may hamper the media performance. The requirement on information release through authorized agencies may be used as a license of news blackout.

Fear

The last filter in the PM is fear, artificially created on the assumption that frightened people tend to believe that the state will protect them. By frightening people that communism would pose disastrous threats, the western media make people believe that they need the protection of the state, hence the justification of blocking the information labeled as communism (Herman & Chomsky, 1988). The anti-communism filter, like the anti-terrorism filter (Mullen, 2009) and the anti-capitalism filter (Lovaas, 2008), is just a sub-case of the filter of fear. In the study, there seems to be an anti-subversion filter in the intellectual discourse in mainland China.

Subversive activities are hostile to the ruling power in nature and lead to social instability. When people's interest is protected in a stable society, subversive forces are unwelcome. Therefore, the anti-subversion filter works in the way that the information labeled as hostile to the nation and particularly to the government rule gets either completely screened out or sharply denounced. There are two examples of shielding the information from the media coverage. In the discourse of the 2008-event, while the Information Centre for Human Rights and Democracy appeared as a source of information in *South China Morning Post* (e.g., in "Police control county after rioting", June 30, 2008), neither *China Daily* nor the *Global Times* presented any information provided by the Center, which is identified by the mainland government as a foreign hostile organization and yet legally registered in Hong Kong. In the discourse of the 2012-event, *South China Morning Post* reported Mr. Wang Dan's view on the students' participation in the protests (in "Post-90s generation speaks up", July 14, 2012), whereas *China Daily* and the *Global Times* did not present a single word of the man. Mr. Wang was the leader of the student-led Tiananmen movement in 1989 and lives in the United States as an exiled political activist. In both examples, the identity of the Center and Mr. Wang as the hostile force against mainland China may prevent the media coverage of their information in the two newspapers.

Consonant with the foregoing discussion, the interview with the journalists in the study, together with the findings of previous studies, shows that the five filters did work in the process of textual production in mainland China. For example, the interviewees admitted that political consideration would affect their selection of the information on public events in the reportage. Given the state-owned background of their newspapers, the answer can be regarded as reflecting the effect of the first filter in the PM, i.e., the ownership. Besides, in Wang's (2010) study, three mainland newspapers were forced by officials to apologize for their reportage of a corruption case which was unwanted by the government (p. 16), which shows the effect of the filter of flak in the PM.

Conclusion, Limitations and Implications

The study shows how theoretical and methodological insights from CDA can be applied to sociological studies. In order to investigate the intellectual role performance in terms of speaking the truth in the leading English newspapers in mainland China, the topics in the discourse of public events across five years were examined. Research findings suggest that the topic inclusivity was generally low in mainland China intellectual discourse of the public events. It is inferred that the discourse may have missed a considerable amount of information on the events. Consequently, there may be a compromise in the intellectual role performance. The social constraints on the intellectual discourse were explored.

There are limitations of the study. First, the limited access to information may be the bottleneck of exploring the social conditions on the intellectual role performance. For example, the lack of first-hand statistics of the newspapers' revenue rendered the discussion mainly based on second-hand statistics of previous research findings. Second, the study only covered the leading English newspapers in mainland China and other mainstream international English newspapers. The regional English newspapers were not included.

Despite the limitations, the study may have three implications for future research. First, the study would contribute to CDA studies on English newspapers in mainland China, particularly in terms of the analysis of topics. Second, the study may have implications for journalism practice and research. It remains a problem how to improve the credibility of the mainstream English-language media in mainland China (Guo, 2002; Yang, 2006; Xie, 2011). The media credibility is gained through their observance of the journalism principles, among which the obligation to the truth (Kovach & Rosenstiel, 2007) corresponds to the intellectual role of speaking the truth. Third, the present study only focused on the leading English newspapers in mainland China, and more research is expected to obtain a full picture of intellectual role performance, such as in the private English-language presses and in the mainstream Chinese-language media.

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About the Author

Kexiu Yin is currently a faculty member of the English Department of Yunnan University, China. She earned her PhD degree in Applied Linguistics from De La Salle University-Manila in 2013. Her research interests include critical discourse analysis, world Englishes and translation studies. Further correspondence may be addressed to the author at 2 Cuihubeilu Road, Yunnan University, 650091 Kunming, China. Email: yinkexiu@gmail.com.

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"Greetings! I am …": A Genre Analysis of Job Application Letters written by Filipinos

Mishima Z. Miciano
University of the Philippines, Manila

Abstract

Using genre analysis, this research looks into a form of business communication that is often overlooked and that is written by a group of nonnative English speakers: job application letters written by Filipino applicants for different positions. The goals are: (1) to characterize the participants involved in the writing and reading of genre and its role in the recruitment process, (2) to determine the rhetorical moves, strategies, and cognitive structuring of the corpus and (3) to explain these tactical choices in relation to the genre's context. The analysis shows rhetorical moves and strategies that are unique to the corpus and a predominantly indirect cognitive structuring, contrary to the prescribed organization in textbooks. These characteristics may be explained by the social context of the genre. Implications for teaching and research are presented.

Keywords: genre analysis, application letters

Introduction

As English is the *lingua franca* of the business world, written business communication becomes an area of interest for language scholars, especially in this era of globalization in which English is increasingly being used by nonnative speakers. This is because while English has become a common linguistic denominator, different users of English have also transformed the language, giving rise to various "Englishes." As English spread to Outer Circle countries (usually former colonies where English is a second language), and to countries belonging to the Expanding Circle (places where English is a foreign language) (Kachru, 1998) these countries have left their respective imprints on the language--each country shaping the English language with its culture. This is no less true for the Philippines where, as the poet Gemino Abad (as quoted in Bolton & Bautista, 2004, p. 1-2) aptly puts it: "We have our own way of thinking . . . our own way of feeling, by which we then use this language called English. So that English is ours. We have colonized it too."

This phenomenon brings forth the need to understand the cultural motivations on which all forms of communication, including written business communication, are grounded. St. John (1996, p. 13, emphasis mine) points this out in her survey on the teaching of Business English: "There is a definite need to understand more *of the generic features of different events* such as meetings . . . *to understand the role of cultural influences*." In other words, there is a need to study business discourses and how these are shaped by culture. Scholarship in this area facilitates effective communication, especially in cross-cultural settings.

An area of interest within written business communication is business correspondence. Various studies have been done on politeness strategies in these discourses, as with Bargiela-Chiappini and Harris' (1996) research on request letters, which studied linguistic variations as they relate to interpersonal variables of power, social distance, imposition and status. Similarly, Yeung (1997) analyzed polite requests in English and Chinese business letters, in terms of imposition, social distance and relative power. In addition, Pilegaard (1997) focused on the use of positive and negative politeness strategies in request letters, while Maier (1992) contrastively analyzed politeness strategies in business letters written by native and non-native English speakers. A different approach is employed by Sims and Guice (1992) in their study of letters of inquiry from native and non-native English speakers. In examining how culture affects the text, they concentrated on the type of information found in the samples, and included as well the tone, length, and the number of mechanical errors.

A significant type of business correspondence is the *job application letter* (JAL), or cover letter, a type of written communication sent to an organization by an individual seeking placement within that organization. Some organizations in the Philippines no longer require a JAL to accompany a resume; however, it remains a relevant area of concern, especially for Filipinos who plan to work abroad. For example, a survey of employers in the

US by Schullery, Ickes, and Schullery (2009) reveals that 56 % still prefer having a cover letter accompany the resume. In the Philippines, while some companies may not require an application letter upon entry, they may require a similar letter later on when employees apply for promotion. (When employees want to move to a higher position, they are essentially applying for a new job, although now they are inside the organization, instead of seeking entry into it.) Students who are required to undergo company internships are also required to write application letters to their target organizations. Therefore, it can be argued that it is important for present and future employees to be familiar with, if not to master, the application letter, not only for gaining employment but also for moving up the corporate ladder.

The JAL has been the subject of only a limited number of studies, an observation which is supported by Henry and Roseberry (2001). Many of these studies have been influenced by Bhatia's pioneering work, which involves the analysis of a "typical" job application letter. He concludes, based on this analysis, that JALs are similar to sales letters and should be classified as a form of promotional discourse.

A number of studies on JAL show the impact of culture on this type of business communication. For instance, Nkemleke's (2004) study of job applications and student complaint letters in English written by Cameroon writers reveals uncertainty in the choice of closings, as well as distinct linguistic structural features which he relates to the culture and history of Cameroon. Similarly, Al-Ali's (2004) comparison of English and Arabic JALs written by native speakers of both languages shows how the culture of the writers affect the type, frequency of use, and structuring of rhetorical moves within these letters.

These studies all confirm what Bhatia (1993, pp. 68-69) speaks of as "the nativization of job applications." This nativization may be just as true in the Philippines, where other discourse genres have demonstrated how the cultural substrate has given rise to an English with a distinctly Filipino flavor. Culturally grounded studies of genre such as these are not only interesting, but empowering, and thus significant, in its affirmation and dignifying of a country's discourse practices as distinct and meriting attention.

Genre Analysis

This study draws mainly on genre theory as pioneered by John Swales and further developed by Vijay Bhatia. A major trend in the study of language use, genre analysis (GA) is commonly associated with English for Specific Purposes, and is motivated by the goal of enabling students to learn and make effective use of various academic and professional genres (Derewianka, 2003).

Swales (1990) defines genre as "a class of communicative events" (p. 58); they are language-centered occurrences or events in which "language (and/or paralanguage) plays both a significant and indispensable role" (p. 45). These communicative events consist "not only of the discourse itself and its participants, but also the role of that discourse and the environment of its production and reception, including its historical and cultural associations" (p. 46). According to Swales, a set of language-centered activities becomes a genre because of a recognized common denominator: its communicative purpose or rationale, a "defining feature" (Dudley-Evans,1994, p. 219) that governs a writer's syntactic and lexical choices, and distinguishes one genre from another. Thus, a different communicative purpose means a totally different genre (Bhatia, 1993). Genres, whether written or spoken, are ways of encoding and maintaining social relationships that, with frequent use, have come to be regarded as conventional and predictable (Ramanathan & Kaplan, 2000). In fact, what makes discourses recognizable as "genres"—in other words, what makes them "generic"—is their predictability and recurrence, without which "our interactions will be random and chaotic" (Derewianka, 2003, p. 135).

Genres are always defined in relation to *discourse communities*, another key concept in genre theory. Swales (1990, p. 24) defines a discourse community as a "sociorhetorical community" that is oriented towards and prioritizes functional goals, like the goals of special interest groups or professional associations. He also characterizes a sociorhetorical community as "centrifugal" as it separates people by interest or profession, and as a group which recruits its members "by persuasion, training or relevant qualification."

Ramanathan and Kaplan (2000) explain that there is actually a dialogic relationship between the genres and discourse communities: discourse communities maintain certain genres to serve their purposes; at the same time, these genres identify a particular discourse community. Thus, "both genre and discourse community belong to, and to some extent determine, each other's domain" and "what glues the community together is also a result of the community" (p. 175, 176).

Bhatia (1993, p.313) defines *genre analysis* (GA) as generally "the study of linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic and professional settings." It is intended to answer the question, *why do members of specific professional communities use the language the way they do*? He argues that in order to answer this question, the study of genres cannot be limited to investigating texts in isolation; text-external factors, such as the culture and practices of a professional or discourse community, as well as other texts which affect the way a text makes sense within a particular community, are just as significant.

Bhatia further explains that GA combines functional orientations in its study of language use, two of which are the focus of this study: the sociological orientation and the psychological orientation.

The *sociological orientation* relates to the notion that genres are socially constructed; therefore they cannot be interpreted in isolation. GA explains the content, form, and style of a particular genre in relation to the social situations that give rise to it, that is: "social roles, group purposes, professional and organizational preferences and prerequisites and even cultural constraints" (Bhatia, 1993, p. 18).

Finally, the *psychological orientation* of genre analysis is related to what Bhatia calls the "tactical aspects of genre construction" (p. 19); in other words, the choices individuals make for the purpose of successfully achieving their communicative goals. Bhatia calls these choices *rhetorical moves*. These rhetorical moves, in turn, can be expressed through a number of ways; these are the different *strategies* used to execute a move. For example, an advertisement may have the communicative purpose of selling a product. Within this discourse are rhetorical moves contributing towards this goal, like gaining the target's attention and pointing out product benefits. These moves may be executed through various linguistic expressions or rhetorical strategies; for example the target's attention may be gained through asking a question, among others.

A conventional pattern of organizing these rhetorical moves usually emerges, one that arises from the collective knowledge of a discourse community. This emergent pattern is referred to as the *cognitive structure* of a genre. As Bhatia explains, "These regularities [of organization] must be seen as cognitive in nature because they reflect the strategies that members of a particular discourse or professional community typically use in the construction and understanding of that genre to achieve specific communicative purposes" (Bhatia, 1993, p. 21). In other words, a genre's cognitive structure reflects how discourses are organized in a way that makes sense to a discourse community given a communicative purpose.

GA has been extensively used in the study of various types of discourses. On academic discourses like research articles as dissertations, the studies of Swales (1990, 2004), Dudley-Evans (1994) and Samraj (2002) provide useful insights on the generic features and some disciplinal variations of these discourses. Similar studies on research articles or their sections have also been done in the Philippines, as in the works of Miranda (1991) and Mercado (2008).

Genre analysis has also been used in studying legal discourses, usually in terms of cognitive structuring and lexico-grammatical features, as in Bhatia's (1993) analysis of legislative provisions; Badger's (2003) investigation of the cognitive structure and lexical and syntactic features of law reports in newspapers; and Bowles' (1995) comparative study of discourse structures case presentations in newspapers law reports and in the *All England Law Report*. In the Philippines, GA has been used to unlock genre features of various types of legal discourses, namely: (a) the cognitive structure of criminal appeal cases, as in Castro's (1997) and Brylko's (2002) studies and (b) the cognitive structure and lexico-grammatical features of real estate laws in Gocheco's (2007, 2011) studies.

Genre analysis, however, is by no means limited only to written forms of discourse. Oral discourses, such as the Ph.D. dissertation defense, as well as other forms of "research talk," such as research group meetings, colloquia and invited lectures, and conference presentations, have also been studied as genres, most notably by Swales (2004). Lastly, Forey and Lockwood (2007) used genre analysis to map out the generic structure of call center interactions in the Philippines.

The studies enumerated above show the viability of using GA in studying various genres. This, along with its goal of enabling learners and its orientation towards contextual and psychological factors of discourse production, shows that GA, as a theoretical approach, can yield a richly textured and utilizable analysis of professional genres, including job application letters.

The Current Study

This study answers the following questions:

(1) On the *discourse community*:

a. Who are the writers and the readers of the text? What are their professional/ organizational backgrounds?
b. How is the recruitment process done? What are the steps and the different requirements?
c. For the readers, what is the communicative purpose of JALs?

(2) On the *genre* of JALs:

a. What are the different *rhetorical moves* used in order to realize this overall goal? Which ones are obligatory? Which ones appear in the majority of the samples?
b. What are the different *strategies* that constitute these rhetorical moves?
c. How are these moves organized in the samples (*cognitive structuring*)?

(3) What aspects of the context (organizational and cultural) explain the presence of certain moves and strategies and the cognitive structuring?

Method

Gathering the Corpus

A total of 48 JALs were collected from five departments of an academic institution (biology, communication and arts, behavioral science, physical sciences, and medicine) and three business organizations (pharmaceutical, real estate, and retail companies). Eleven JALs, all from business organizations, were e-mailed, while the rest were printed. The positions applied for were teaching, nursing, sales, marketing, accounting, engineering, and administrative jobs; three cover letters, however, did not identify the position being applied for. The final corpus had 8,675 words.

Analyzing of the Corpus

To identify the rhetorical moves in the corpus, a list of rhetorical moves and their definitions, as identified in the previous studies of Bhatia (1993) and Henry and Roseberry (2001), was compiled (Table 1 below). The names of these moves and their codes were modified for consistency.

Bhatia's move categories were included since his study is the forerunner of many others; later studies (e.g. Al-Ali, 2004; Henry & Roseberry, 2001; and Nkemleke, 2004 to name a few) of JALs build upon Bhatia's framework and compare their findings to his. On the other hand, Henry and Roseberry's categories were also included because these were derived from application letters written by native English speakers. Native speakers from Inner Circle countries—countries where English is historically rooted and where it is spoken as a first language (Kachru, B., 1998)—are often regarded by Outer Circle countries as "norm providing," especially when it comes to written English; Outer Circle countries tend to derive their models for written English from the Inner Circle countries (B. Kachru, as cited in Bhatt & Mesthrie, 2008). Thus, comparing this study's findings with that of Henry and Roseberry will show the degree to which a particular group of Outer Circle writers (i.e. Filipinos) conform to or deviate from the "norm."

Table 1
Rhetorical Moves and Their Definitions Based on the Studies of Bhatia's (1993) and Henry and Roseberry (2001)

RHETORICAL MOVES (CODE)	**DEFINITION**
From Henry and Roseberry (2001, p. 159)	
1. Opening (O)	"The writer identifies the target and invites the target to read the letter."
2. Referring to Job Advertisement (RJA)	"The writer refers to the advertisement in which the position was named and described."
3. Offering Candidature (OC)	"The writer states an interest in applying for the position."
4. Stating Reasons for Applying (SRA)	"The writer gives reasons for wanting the position."
5. Stating Availability (SA)	"The writer indicates when he or she would be available to take up the position."
6. Promoting the Candidate (PC)	"The writer presents selected information demonstrating qualifications and abilities relevant to the desired position."
7. Stipulating Terms and Conditions of Employment (STC)	"The writer indicates expectations regarding salary, working hours, and other relevant contractual matters."
8. Naming of Referees (NR)	"The writer names referees who will support the candidature."
9. Enclosing Documents (ED)	"The writer lists documents enclosed with the letter."
10. Ending Politely (EP)	"The writer ends the letter in a conventional manner."
11. Signing Off (SO)	"The writer signs his or her name in a respectful manner, thus claiming ownership of the letter."
From Bhatia (1993)	

RHETORICAL MOVES (CODE)	DEFINITION
12. Soliciting Response (SR)	The writer requests action, such as an interview or further correspondence to answer questions
13. Using Pressure Tactics (UPT)	The writer uses pressure tactics to achieve a quick response
From Bhatia's 1989 study (as cited in Bhatia,1993, p. 70)	
14. Glorifying Oneself (GO)	The writer makes an "unsupported claim" of his or her "superiority based simply on feelings or desires rather than on rational judgment."
15. Glorifying the Target (GT)	The writer praises his or her reader or the target institution.
16. Degrading Oneself (DO)	The writer points out the disparity between his current situation and his desired position in order to evoke pity or compassion in the reader.

Two cases need to be further explained. One is that of Polite Ending (here renamed "Ending Politely" for consistency). Bhatia's definition is narrower, in that it includes only goodwill statements that usually end letters, such as "Thank you very much," whose goal is to maintain a good relationship with the reader; Henry and Roseberry's, however, includes clichéd statements like "I look forward to hearing from you" as well as conventional phrases usually labeled as complimentary close, such as "Yours truly." In this study, Henry and Roseberry's definition is adopted, as a broader definition is more flexible and easier to apply. The more specific details of how the letters in the corpus politely end were identified as strategies. Also, in connection with this, a strategy labeled *Closing*, so named as a counterpart to *Opening*, was added under the Ending Politely (EP) move. This was done because Henry and Roseberry's list of EP strategies did not include conventional complimentary closes even if his sample analysis did include such conventions under Polite Ending.

As mentioned, the list of move categories was used in classifying the sections of the JALs in the corpus. The results were tallied. The moves present in all text samples were categorized as *obligatory moves* (Henry & Roseberry, 2001) whereas those that were present only in some samples were categorized as *optional moves*. The moves that were present in the majority (more than 50%) of the corpus were also noted.

Any statement that could not be classified under any of the rhetorical moves above were noted, compared, and reclassified. In these cases, the researcher came up with a name for these moves.

The same procedure was followed for identifying strategies within certain moves. Strategies previously identified in Bhatia's and Henry and Roseberry's studies were noted and used for classifying subtypes of a rhetorical move. Subtypes that could not be classified under these strategies were segregated, compared, and grouped under a new strategy name that the researcher came up with.

Aside from the moves and strategies, the cognitive structure was also determined. This was done by mapping the rhetorical moves in a grid where the moves are placed in order of appearance within each letter. Each move type per move number was tallied to determine predominant move type per move number,

Lesikar, Flatley and Rentz (2008) classify letter structures into two, depending on where the purpose of the letter is introduced: the *direct order*, which begins with the purpose of the communication right after the Opening move (conventionally the salutation), and the *indirect order*, in which the statement of the purpose is delayed, i.e., presented after one or more interposing rhetorical moves after the Opening move. These terms were borrowed in order to describe the emergent pattern of moves in the corpus. Since the purpose of the letter is to apply for a position, the placement of the Offering Candidature (OC) move was used as a reference in describing the cognitive structure. This means that for the JAL to be considered as a direct order letter, the OC move should be the second move from Opening move ("Dear X"), which is, conventionally, the first move in a letter. Another direct configuration is to place OC as the third move if prefaced by a Reference to Job Advertisement (RJA), as it is common to include both OC and RJA in one sentence.

Characterizing the Context

In order to examine the context of the JALs, information was gathered regarding the members the discourse community involved in the recruitment process and the reading and writing of JALs—in other words the people who screen applicants and the writers of the JALs themselves.

Interviews were conducted with members of academic screening committees and human resource (HR) managers from the organizations where the letters were obtained. They were asked about their organization's recruitment processes, as well as their perception of the overall purpose of JALs based on their professional practice.

Each of the five academic departments that participated in this study had its own screening committee; thus one screening committee member, selected based on the department chair's recommendation, was interviewed from each department. Three HR officers were interviewed, one from each business organization. The number of interviewees, therefore, was eight.

As for the letter writers, their educational background was gathered from the letter's contents. In cases where the letters do not mention the writers' academic background, their minimum educational level was inferred based on the requirements of the target position, using the job advertisement as reference.

Results and Discussion

Question 1: On the Discourse Community

This section provides context to the genre of JALs by:

(1) characterizing the *background* of the discourse community, i.e., the writers and readers of the text,
(2) describing the *recruitment process* and the role played by JALs in this process, and
(3) presenting the JAL readers' (i.e. people involved in the recruitment process: members of department screening committees and HR officers) views on the *communicative purpose*.

Discussing such contextual aspects as these is important. First, they affect the psychological aspects of the genre, i.e. the presence (or absence) of certain rhetorical moves and strategies and the generic cognitive structuring. In addition, knowledge of the writers' and readers' background has implications on the worth of the corpus and the kind of insight provided by the interviewees.

The writers' background. The letter writers' background could only be inferred from what they said in their letters. The identity of the writers had been concealed for ethical reasons.

In terms of level of education, 46 of the 48 writers mentioned having at least a university degree or were applying for positions that required at least a bachelor's degree; one writer had a diploma and one writer's minimum level of education could not be inferred as it was neither mentioned in the letter nor indicated in the job advertisement. Nevertheless, it can be concluded that the corpus is suggestive of the genre practices one group of educated Filipinos.

Background of the interviewees. The eight interviewees, four male and four female, had the following backgrounds: All five interviewees from the academic institution (henceforth "academic interviewees") had spent more than ten years teaching in the department, and had served in their departments' applicant screening committees more than once. The three interviewees from business organizations (henceforth "non-academic interviewees") had each worked one, four, and five years in their current company and are all human resource (HR) officers involved in the screening of employees in the higher levels (i.e., after an initial screening has been done by the departments requesting new personnel). It should also be noted that the one who had been an HR officer for only a year had more than 15 years of experience as HR manager in his previous company.

Thus, because of their positions in their organization, it may be inferred that the interviewees are qualified to describe their department's recruitment practices. Also, because of the length of time they had served as members of their organizations and their experience in screening applicants, it is assumed that they can be considered as rather mature (instead of amateur) members of the discourse community. This is important because, as Bhatia (1993) points out, members of a discourse community have varying levels of knowledge and expertise in the genres used by that community, with the more senior members, as opposed to novice members, having these to higher degree.

The recruitment process. All interviewees stated that the JAL is optional; applicants could actually be hired even without it by submitting other required documents (e.g. resume, transcript of grades, and/or application forms) and undergoing the required procedure (e.g. interview, teaching demonstration, and tests as applicable).

Nearly all the interviewees reported that the recruitment begins by announcing job openings. These announcements are done through word of mouth, the Internet, and postings in colleges and universities, and job fairs. One interviewee, from the medicine department of the academic institution, said that recruitment is done only through the recommendation of candidates by senior faculty; thus no announcement of vacancies is done.

All interviewees said that application papers pass through a screening committee. In the academic institution, this screening committee consists of the department head and other members who have been elected by the department faculty. The committee also evaluates the applicants through interviews and teaching demonstrations, except for the medicine department, which requires only an interview. The committee then comes up with a recommendation for hiring an applicant.

In two departments (medicine, and communication and arts) a pre-screening of the application papers is sometimes done before they are submitted to the screening committee. The interviewee from the communication and arts department said that some department chairs pre-screen application documents before handing these to the screening committee; the interviewee from the medicine department said the heads of the department's subsections may have a hand in pre-screening the applicants.

The nonacademic interviewees reported similar processes in their recruitment, beginning with the announcement of vacancy through job fairs and job-search websites (e.g. www.jobstreet.com) or through the company's own website, followed by an initial screening through tests and interviews, short-listing of candidates, and ending with a job offer in which the job description and compensation are presented to the applicant.

To summarize, the JAL is just one of three documents that are used in the screening process and it is not required. Besides these documents, other layers of screening are used in assessing applicants. The ones with privileged, expert knowledge on the recruitment process and the relative values assigned to certain procedural and documentary requirements are, of course, the more senior members of the discourse community. Novice members, like most of JAL writers, would have relied on previous knowledge gained from their education and training and the requirements stated by the target organizations themselves as they go through the application process.

The interviewees' view on the communicative purpose of JALs. While all of the interviewees stated that the JAL is not required, they also said that it serves the following purposes: (1) as a formal way of signifying the applicant's intention, (2) a way for the applicant to introduce himself/herself, (3) a way to indicate what position is being applied for, and (4) a means of evaluating the candidates' qualifications. It can also (5) boost an evaluator's perception of an applicant, as one who is more prepared and courteous.

Textbooks (see for example Lesikar et al., 2008 and Pfeiffer, 2006) usually state that JALs have the purpose of "selling" the applicant to prospective employers; in fact Bhatia (1993) classifies JALs as under promotional literature, along with sales letters. However, as the interview revealed, not all purposes appear to have this goal, but only number 4, which points to the applicants' credentials, and 5, which seems related to creating a positive image of the candidate, and thus may also be a way of selling an applicant. Purposes 1 and 3 appear to be connected to administrative concerns: the need for a written record of the intention to apply and the position being targeted. Purpose 2 appears rather unusual: the JAL as a means of introducing the applicant to the readers seems to suggest a more relational aspect in viewing the genre--as if reading the JAL is like meeting a person.

Question 2: On the Genre of JALs

This section analyzes the corpus in terms of its psychological orientation, particularly: (1) the *rhetorical moves* and (2) the *cognitive structuring* of the rhetorical moves. These aspects of the genre are also explained in terms of contextual factors related to culture or the professional sub-culture.

Rhetorical moves. The analysis shows that the samples used many, but not all, of the moves in Bhatia's (1993) and Henry and Roseberry's (2001) studies. These moves are presented in Table 2, which shows the moves used and the number of letters in which they appeared. The moves in boldface, Greeting the Reader (GR) and Introducing Oneself (IO), are moves that were not identified in the Bhatia and Henry and Roseberry studies and have been added by the researcher.

As shown in Table 2, 14 rhetorical moves were used in the corpus. Only one move, Offering Candidature (OC), can be considered *obligatory*, i.e., present in all the samples in the corpus, while 15 are *non-obligatory*. It is worth noting, however, that another move is present in nearly all (47 out of 48) letters, Promoting the Candidate (PC). The other nonobligatory moves (from the most frequently used) are: Ending Politely (EP), Signing Off (SO), Enclosing Documents (ED), Opening (O), Soliciting Response (SR), Greeting the Reader (GR), Introducing Oneself (IO), Glorifying the Target (GT), Referring to Job Ad (RJA), Stating Reason for Applying (SRA), Stating Availability (SA), and Stipulating Terms and Conditions (STC). Of these other non-obligatory moves, only the following appeared in the majority of the samples (more than 50%): SO, EP, ED, and O.

Table 2
Rhetorical Moves Used in the Corpus and the Number of Letters Where They Appeared (n = 48)

MOVES (CODE)	TOTAL
1. **Offering Candidature OC**	48
2. **Promoting the Candidate (PC)**	47
3. **Ending Politely (EP)**	44
4. **Signing Off (SO)**	43
5. **Enclosing Documents (ED)**	40
6. **Opening (O)**	40
7. **Soliciting Response (SR)**	22
8. **Greeting the Reader (GR)**	18
9. **Introducing Oneself (IO)**	16
10. **Glorifying the Target (GT)**	11
11. **Referring to Job Ad (RJA)**	8
12. **Stating Reasons for Applying (SRA)**	8
13. **Stating Availability (SA)**	1
14. **Stipulating Terms and Conditions (STC)**	1

The preponderance of OC and PC suggests that both the JAL readers and writers share the same view of the communicative purpose of the JAL as a way of signifying one's intention to apply and a means of evaluating the applicant's credentials. PC was expected to be an obligatory move; however, one e-mailed letter (Letter [L] 28) did not contain PC, but only the following moves (in order): O-OC-ED-CN-C-SO. Thus, L28 appeared to be more concerned with referring to the attached document, the resume, and failed to make use of the opportunity to highlight the applicant's credentials, a tendency that Bhatia (1993) found in his study of South Asian JALs.

As with PC, O, EP and SO were also expected to be present in all JALs as these are considered standard letter parts. However, while these moves were present in nearly all of the printed letters (with the exception of L30 which lacked an O move), they were occasionally missing in the e-mailed letters. Out of 11 e-mailed letters, only four had an O; the others had no O, but had an ON in its stead. The C-SO pair also appear in only 5 out of the 11 e-mailed letters.

The absence of these expected obligatory moves in the e-mailed JALs may be explained by the format of the e-mail. An e-mail has a header of "From:" and "To:" fields; possibly, the presence of such headers might have made the O and SO moves appear redundant to the writers. With the absence of SO, EP, a move with includes the complimentary close that normally goes with an SO in a standard business letter, was also omitted.

Another move that was expected to be obligatory was Enclosing Documents (ED), which was present in 40 out of 48 letters. Business writing textbooks usually prescribe including such a reference to the applicant's resume or other relevant documents. Interestingly, ED appears in nearly all (23 out of 24 letters) of the non-academic letters; it appears in fewer instances (17 out of 24 letters) in the academic JALs. This may suggest that the nonacademic applicants, more than the academic applicants, put greater importance to referring to their resumes. Perhaps this valuing of the resume comes from the practice among business organizations to specify a resume but not a cover letter among its application requirements. This can create the perception that among many businesses, the resume is more important than the cover letter.

The ending moves in model cover letters of Western textbooks (see for example Lesikar et al., 2008, pp. 270-271) consist of a request for action, usually an interview, directed at the reader. These textbooks, in other words, prescribe Soliciting Response (SR) as an ending move. However, the more predominant ending move in the corpus is Ending Politely (EP). While both EP and SR may be present in a letter, EP was used more frequently in the corpus, appearing in 44 out of 48 letters, as opposed to the SR move which appeared in only 22 letters.

The last five moves appeared in the minority of the JALs in the corpus. The GT move appeared in 11 out of 48 letters. This move, called "adversary-glorification" by Bhatia (1993), was a move he found in South Asian letters.

The Reference to Job Ad (RJA) move appeared in 8 out of 48 letters. While textbooks recommend mentioning the job advertisement in the cover letter in the case of solicited applications, the majority of the letters in the corpus obviously did not use this move. This leads to the inference that the majority of the applications were perhaps unsolicited, or the applicant simply did not see any persuasive value in the move. However, in the case of one participating academic department (medicine), the absence of RJA is explained by the absence of such advertisements, as recruitment is based on solely a faculty member's recommendation.

As expected, Stipulating Terms and Conditions (STC) and Stating Availability (SA) were both found in only one letter. Considering the disparity between the status of the applicant and that of the reader, it is expected that statements that seem to impose conditions for one's employment would be very uncommon as it has the possibility of being negatively perceived. The writer of this letter, however, seemed to be aware of the delicacy of the situation and tried to mitigate the imposition by explaining how the stipulated condition may affect the target institution, as seen in the passage below from L 44.

> I am a resident of [place] and I would like my intentions to be known that I would like to find employment somewhere near in order to minimize the overly long travel time and to be able to perform my job as a hemodialysis nurse more effectively for the benefit of your clients. I realize the challenges in terms of time, energy and finances of working far from home.

On the other hand, SA appeared in only one letter in which a part-time position was being applied for; thus the SA move in which the applicant stated her available time for taking up her duties might have been appropriate in supplying information necessary for the readers.

As mentioned, two moves emerged from the corpus that could not be classified under the rhetorical moves in Bhatia (1993) and Henry and Roseberry (2001). These are Greeting the Reader (GR), where the applicant states a greeting as a way of beginning the letter, and Introducing Oneself (IO), in which the applicant unnecessarily states his/her name, or even some personal information like age and place of residence, in the body of the letter. "Greetings!" and "Good day!" or their variations were the most commonly used GR statements. It should also be noted that these were the only statements punctuated with an exclamation point, perhaps as a way of approximating cheerful greetings in oral communication. The GR move has no connection to the communicative goal of selling the applicant to the reader; however, it does function as a politeness marker for which the goal may be to simply create goodwill between the writer and the reader.

The presence of the IO move, on the other hand, suggests that the letter writers and the readers share the view of the JAL's purpose as a way of introducing the applicant. The sequence of GR-IO actually mimics a normal face-to-face introduction between two participants, as in "Hello! I'm [name]."

Strategies within the PC move. In addition to the moves described above, the analysis also reveals strategies within two rhetorical moves, Promoting the Candidate (PC) and Ending Politely (EP).

As shown in the list below, most of the PC strategies found in Henry and Roseberry (2001) were also found in this study's corpus. (The number of letters with these strategies is in parentheses.)

a. *Listing qualifications* (33)
b. *Predicting success* (23)
c. *Listing relevant skills and abilities* (20)
d. *Stating how skills and abilities were obtained* (14)
e. *Demonstrating knowledge of target position* (2)
f. *Naming present job* (1)
g. *Giving reasons for leaving present job* (0)

Interestingly, the corpus also contains PC strategies that were not covered in Henry and Roseberry's list. These are:

h. *Describing feelings for the position* (15) – The applicant shares feelings of desire, passion, or great interest regarding the job.
i. *Sharing insights about experiences* (5) - The applicant shares convictions or realizations gained from previous experiences.
j. *Stating plans* (4) – The applicant states what he/she will do if hired.
k. *Overcoming possible objections* (2) – The applicant mentions information that may be negatively perceived by the reader and rebuts these objections.

Describing feelings for the position is used quite frequently in the corpus, considering that it is seen in almost as many letters as the more factual and expected strategy of *Listing relevant skills and abilities*. This strategy is quite similar to Bhatia's (1993, p. 70) "self-glorification" in that it makes reference to the applicant's desires or ambitions; however, the writers make no attempt to "claim superiority" based on these feelings. Rather, it seems that to the applicants, stating that they hold the target position in such great value is in itself a form of persuasion, something that will lead the reader to positively consider the applicant. Below are examples:

> **[L33]** I am passionate about pursuing a career in the beauty and fashion industry, and I believe that landing a position in your company is the first step to achieving my goals.

> **[L46]** As a Nursing graduate and have [sic] worked in the field of selling medical supplies, I can't imagine a better job than sharing my enthusiasm with your customers.

Sharing insights about experiences (in 5 letters) is an interesting strategy in that it seems only tangentially related to the target position. Here, the applicant expounds on education, work, or life in general; thus, it can be surmised that the persuasion of such a strategy may be related to the impression it creates of the applicant as a thoughtful, reflective person. Below are examples.

> **[L3]** I believe that education is our first calling thereby I made the most out of it. I have been weighed and tested as a student and, I could say that, the "[UNIVERSITY] struggle" was the most challenging of all. More so, I'm a great believer in [DEPARTMENT's] excellence. . . . I believe that a good working relationship is a necessity in every profession. . . .

> **[L12]** I believe that I will be doing service to our country by empowering them in telling their stories using the visual medium of motion pictures. Teaching also enhances my craft and sensibility as an artist, because it enables me to view art, society, and life, from the perspective of my students.

Stating plans (4) is a persuasion strategy that is possibly difficult to employ and is therefore unexpected in an application letter. After all, it presupposes familiarity with the target organization's own strategic plans; otherwise, the applicant's proposals might turn out irrelevant. In the four instances of *Stating* *plans*, only one specified concrete details, L24, which was sent to the medicine department. Considering the recruitment process and the professional practices of the medical field—for instance internships in which the doctor-in-training is under close supervision of the very mentors who will recommend him/her for the target position—it can be assumed that the writer of L24 had knowledge of the target institution's goals. Other statements of plans, in contrast, are more vague statements, as shown in L2 below:

> **[L24]** I would like to help cultivate the section's thrust towards improvement in training, service and research by:
>
> 1. Conducting clinical research at your institution, including but not limited to my XXX Program approved research proposal investigating the use and cost effectiveness of bedside ultrasonography and biopsy by the nephrologist. . . .

> **[L2]** If I would be given a chance, I plan to educate my students holistically, that is, to dwell not only on theories but also to relate our lessons in practical situations in life. The classroom will be an interactive stage, where the teacher and students exchange facts, misconceptions and opinions.

Presenting information that may be negatively perceived—a step involved in the strategy *Overcoming possible objections*—seems to run counter to the goal of an application letter. However, this technique of anticipating and addressing the reader's objections is actually a sales technique that is found in other forms of promotional literature (Lesikar et al., 2008). Below is an example, with the negative information underlined.

> **[L3]** Professor [RECIPIENT], I know that this position is up for grabs. And <u>I know that I'm</u> <u>a neophyte, a fresh graduate. I lack teaching experience</u>. But despite my youth, I am capable. I've been prepped by the department itself. . .

While there were only two instances of *Overcoming objections* in the corpus, it is easy enough to imagine that in real life, situations that call for such a strategy are quite common, as when an applicant falls short of certain requirements such as length of experience. Thus, this strategy might be worth teaching to business writing students

The foregoing analysis shows that the JAL writers made use of not only the expected factual strategies like *Listing qualifications, Listing relevant skills and abilities, Stating how skills and abilities were obtained, Demonstrating knowledge of target position current job,* and *Naming present job*; they also took advantage of more subjective strategies like *Predicting success, Describing feelings for the position, Sharing insights about experiences, and Stating plans.* In contrast, *Overcoming objections* may be regarded as both factual and subjective: the negative information is certainly based on facts; however, the counterargument to the objection may use both facts and subjective statements. Overall, these strategies suggest that the writers of the corpus had more latitude insofar as far as the choice of persuasive strategies to use in a JAL and that they perceived the subjective strategies to be just as valuable as factual strategies in achieving their goals. It is worth exploring, however, whether JAL readers actually feel the same way.

Strategies within the Ending Politely move. As with PC, *Ending Politely* can be realized through a number of strategies. The classification based on strategies from Henry and Roseberry (2001) reveal the following (number of letters in parentheses):

a. *Closing* (39)
b. *Thanking* (31)
c. *Welcoming response* (19)
d. *Inviting favorable consideration* (8)

There were also EP strategies that did not fit the categories above, for which the researcher gave the following names and definitions:

e. *Blessing the reader* (9) – The writer ends with expressions of blessings and good tidings for the reader.
f. *Anticipating acceptance* (5) – The writer looks forward to working in the target organization.

Finding blessing at the end of a JAL may, to other cultures, be as strange as finding “Greetings!” at its beginning. However, this simply affirms the influence of the writers′ culture—something also seen in the discourses of other Outer Circle countries. For instance, Bhatt and Mesthrie (2008) cite a Kashmiri writer’s e-mail letter of request which includes similar expressions of greeting and blessing the reader. Such expressions, they explain, show that “patterns of expressing politeness, apologies, compliments and face-saving devices are often carried over from L1 practices to New English” (p. 141). Thus, it is inferred, that these “unusual” (from a native English speaker’s perspective) strategies may be the Filipino way of encoding discourses as they are orally conducted in face-to-face settings using the native language—an encoding of Filipino culture, albeit in English.

Lastly, *Anticipating acceptance*, as shown in the example below, seems to be a rather bold statement: here, the applicant looks forward to being a part of the organization, thus ignoring the reality of the recruitment process that places a few more hurdles to the realization of this goal.

> **[L26]** I will be looking forward to work [sic] in your prestigious company and give [sic] my very best performance for this institution.

However, as most of these statements (4 out of 5) use the phrasing “I look forward to. . .,” this might be nothing more than an attempt to vary the clichéd “I look forward to hearing from you” under *Welcoming response*.

Cognitive structuring. Table 3 below shows the mapping of the cognitive structure per letter, with the OC moves highlighted for reference.

Table 3
Cognitive Structure of the Job Application Letters in the Corpus

LETTER CODE	EMAIL (E) or PRINT (P)	MOVE NUMBER AND CODE											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
L1	P	O	IO	PC	SRA	OC	ED	EP	SO				
L2	P	O	GR	IO	PC	IO	OC	PC	EP	SR	EP	SO	
L3	P	O	PC	OC	SRA	PC	SRA	GT	PC	EP	SO		
L4	P	O	GR	RJA	OC	GT	PC	ED	PC	EP	SO		
L5	P	O	GR	IO	PC	OC	SRA	PC	SRA	ED	SR	EP	SO
L6	P	O	PC	OC	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO				
L7	P	O	OC	IO	PC	ED	EP	SO					
L8	P	O	RJA	OC	PC	ED	PC	SR	EP	SO			
L9	P	O	GR	IO	PC	OC	GT	PC	OC	ED	SR	EP	SO
L10	P	O	OC	RJA	PC	ED	EP	SR	EP	SO			
L11	P	O	GR	OC	ED	PC	EP	SR	EP	SO			
L12	P	O	IO	PC	OC	PC	ED	PC	EP	SO			
L13	P	O	OC	PC	ED	PC	EP	SR	EP	SO			
L14	P	O	OC	SRA	GT	ED	PC	GT	EP	SO			
L15	P	O	GR	IO	PC	OC	PC	SA	EP	SO			
L16	P	O	OC	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO					
L17	P	O	GR	OC	PC	ED	EP	SO					
L18	P	O	IO	PC	GT	OC	ED	EP	SO				
L19	P	O	OC	PC	SRA	PC	EP	SO					
L20	P	O	IO	PC	OC	PC	EP	SO					
L21	P	O	PC	OC	PC	EP	SO						
L22	P	O	OC	ED	PC	EP	SO						
L23	P	O	OC	PC	ED	EP	SO						
L24	P	O	OC	PC	EP	SO							
L25	E	GR	OC	RJA	PC	ED	EP						
L26	E	O	OC	PC	ED	GT	PC	EP	SO				
L27	E	GR	OC	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO					
L28	E	O	OC	ED	EP	SO							
L29	E	GR	OC	ED	PC	SR	EP						
L30	P	PC	OC	PC	EP	GT	ED	EP	SO				
L31	E	GR	IO	PC	RJA	OC	ED	EP					
L32	E	GR	IO	PC	RJA	OC	ED	EP					
L33	E	O	PC	OC	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO				
L34	E	GR	IO	OC	RJA	PC	SR	ED	SR	EP			
L35	E	GR	OC	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO					
L36	E	O	GR	PC	OC	ED	EP	SO					
L37	P	O	GR	IO	OC	PC	ED	EP	SO				

LETTER CODE	EMAIL (E) or PRINT (P)	MOVE NUMBER AND CODE											
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
L38	P	O	GR	RJA	OC	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO			
L39	P	O	GR	OC	GT	IO	PC	ED	EP	PC	EP	SO	
L40	P	O	IO	OC	PC	ED	EP	SO					
L41	P	O	SRA	GT	OC	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO			
L42	P	O	OC	IO	PC	ED	PC	SR	EP	SO			
L43	P	O	OC	GT	PC	SR	ED	EP	SO				
L44	P	O	PC	ED	OC	ED	STC	EP	SO				
L45	P	O	OC	GT	OC	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO			
L46	P	O	OC	SRA	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO				
L47	P	O	OC	PC	SR	EP	SO						
L48	P	O	IO	PC	OC	PC	ED	SR	EP	SO			

The table shows that a greater number of JALs in the corpus (26 out of 48 letters) followed the indirect order. Among the indirect letters, 9 letters placed OC in the third slot, 9 in the fourth slot, 7 in the fifth slot, and 1 in the sixth slot. There is little difference between the number of direct order (22 letters) and indirect order letters. However, it should be noted that in 7 direct order e-mailed letters, the move preceding OC was not O but GR, as in "Christian Greetings! I would like to apply for any available position suited for me in your company" (L29), without the conventional "Dear [reader]" as a beginning.

The job application letter, as with most business letters, is supposed to follow the direct order and state its purpose at the onset. However, most of the JALs in the corpus are indirect, with the statement of purpose placed as fourth move or further down. This reflects a Filipino's predilection for indirectness in transactional situations. The cultural orientation of the writers thus prevails over textbook prescriptions.

In many ways, the genre of JAL may be regarded as a textual manifestation of Filipino cultural practices--specifically an encoding of oral transaction patterns in the Philippines. Anthropologist Dr. Michael L. Tan, for example, observes that conversations among Filipinos go through "long prefatory remarks" as it is considered rude to go straight to the point (Tan, 1998, para. 10) It is also a common observation that any oral transaction in the Philippines that occurs between relative strangers of different social statuses proceeds indirectly, beginning with a polite greeting, followed by introduction of the person initiating the transaction, some preliminary remarks, the actual objective of the conversation, and leave taking. Because of the similarity in the social context between this type of oral transaction and job applications (i.e. the letter recipient usually being a stranger to the writer and the two usually having different social statuses), it is possible that this normal pattern of oral transaction has been carried over to the written communication.

Another interesting observation revealed by Table 3 is the tendency of some moves to recur, as in L8's O-RJA-OC-PC-ED-PC-SR-EP-SO. Such move recurrences were found in 22 letters, with PC being the most commonly recurring move. The passages below illustrate such a recurrence.

L 8: PC recurrence

I have a degree of Management Accounting with work experience of 11 years over of professional accounting experiences in all aspects of Accounts Receivable as well as general accounting knowledge **<PC>** and would like to apply for the Credit & Collection or Operations logistics or any relevant [sic] to my experienced in your company. **<OC>**

Currently, I am working with XXX Inc. (XXXX Brand XXX) as Accounting Staff, and later was absorbed into the company as Senior Accounts Receivable. **<PC>**

Letter 10: EP recurrence

I look forward to further discussing opportunities with [DEPARTMENT]. **<EP>**
If you have any questions or would like to schedule an interview, please call me at [NUMBER] or email me at [ADDRESS]. **<SR>**

Sincerely, **<EP>**

Letter 9: OC occurence

The aim of this letter is to inform you of my intent to join **<OC>** your highly-esteemed company **<GT>** to further develop and inculcate skills and competencies that your organization may offer in the course of a potential employment especially in the field of ADVERTISING.

[interposing moves]

> If you think then that I may fit any vacancy or position related to **EVENTS, MARKETING OR BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT** in your company, **<OC>** I hope that you will find the contents of my resume attached herewith very satisfactory. **<ED>**

The recurrence of PC, as well as other moves like EP and OC, may be explained in the tendency of some writers to: (1) break up information-heavy texts, as in the case of PC; (2) put an SR move between two EP strategies, instead of the more conventional SR-EP-SO configuration; or (3) repeat some information for either amplification (as in letter 9) or emphasis. It is worth considering whether these might be attempts to make the letter more readable or less conventional.

The data in Table 3 can also be used to determine the likeliest move total per letter in the corpus. The highest was 9 moves per letter (13 letters), followed closely by 7 moves (11 Ls), 8 moves (10 Ls), 6 moves (6 Ls), and 10, 11, and 12 moves (all 2 Ls).

Table 4
Tally of Rhetorical Moves Per Move Number

Rhetorical Move Number											
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**	**8**	**9**	**10**	**11**	**12**
GR = 7	IO = 9	**PC = 18**	OC = 10	PC = 12	ED = 12	SR = 9	**EP = 14**	**SO = 12**	EP = 2	SO = 2	SO = 2
PC = 1	GR = 11	SRA = 2	SR = 1	EP = 4	SO = 4	**EP = 12**	SO = 10	PC = 1	SR = 2	EP = 2	0 = 46
O = 40	RJA = 1	GT = 3	**PC = 18**	**ED = 13**	SR = 4	SO = 9	SR = 1	EP = 3	SO = 2	0 = 44	
	SRA = 1	ED = 4	GT = 3	SR = 5	PC = 7	ED = 3	OC = 1	ED = 2	0 = 42		
	OC = 21	IO = 7	ED = 7	IO = 2	**EP = 14**	SA = 1	PC = 2	SR = 1			
	PC = 5	OC = 10	RJA = 3	OC = 7	GT = 1	GT = 2	SRA = 1	0 = 29			

		RJA = 4	EP = 3	GT = 3	SRA = 2	0 = 8	0 = 19				
			SRA = 3	SO = 2	STC = 1	PC = 4					
					0 = 2						
					OC = 1						

Legend: 0 = no move in the slot

Table 4 above shows the predominant moves per move number. This provides a convenient way of determining the likeliest cognitive structure in the corpus. It also provides a way to determine in which section of the letter (as reflected in the move number) a move has the most number of occurrences.

As expected, the first move is dominated by Opening (O), which had 40 occurrences, while the second move is predominantly Offering Candidature (OC) (21 tokens). The third and fourth sections of a letter are both dominated by Promoting the Candidate (PC) (18 for both slots), the fifth by Enclosing Documents (ED) (13 tokens), the sixth, seventh, and eighth slots by Ending Politely (EP) (14, 12, and 14, respectively) and finally by Signing Off (SO) in the ninth move slot.

Thus, synthesizing what has been said so far, the JALs in the corpus are most likely to have 9 moves, six of which are ordered as follows: O-OC-PC-ED-EP-SO. These six, it can be recalled, are also the moves that appeared in the majority of the JALs in the corpus, as previously detailed in Table 2.

The next three moves (by frequency of use) are Soliciting Response (SR), Greeting the Reader (GR), and Introducing Oneself (IO). From Table 4, it can be seen that places in the letter where they had the most occurrences are:

a. SR = 7th move slot (9 tokens)
b. GR = 2nd move slot (11 tokens)
c. IO = 2nd move slot (9 tokens)

GR logically comes before IO and after O. SR, on the other hand, logically comes before the complimentary close, which is considered an EP strategy; it is also usually the case that EP and SO are placed consecutively. Taking these together and considering the greater number of indirect letters in the corpus, it can therefore be inferred that the most predominant cognitive structure is as follows:

Opening
Greeting the Reader
Introducing Oneself
Offering Candidature
Promoting the Candidate
Enclosing Documents
Soliciting Response
Ending Politely
Signing Off

The sample below, consisting of passages from various letters, thus represents the prototypical letter of the corpus. (The rhetorical moves and the corresponding sections are in parentheses.)

Prototypical Letter of the Study Corpus

([1]O)	[1] Dear [recipient]:
([2]GR)	[2] Good day!
([3]IO, [4]OC)	[3] I am [name]. [4]I would like to apply for a lecturer position at the Department of XXX, College of XXX.
([5-7]PC)	[5] I graduated April 20XX as magna cum laude from XXX University. [6] From 20XX – 20XX, I worked at . . . [other credentials] [7] It has always been my passion to teach, guide and learn from my fellow scholars towards objective and critical thinking, hard work, perseverance and nationalism through the physical sciences most especially chemistry and biochemistry.
([8]ED)	[8] Along with this letter is my resume outlining relevant qualifications for application.
([9]SR)	[9] I can be reached anytime via email at [ADDRESS] or through my cell phone, [NUMBER].
([10-12]EP)	[10] I look forward to hearing from you soon. [11] Thank you and God bless. [12]Sincerely yours,

([13]SO)	[Applicant]

Conclusions and Recommendations

The highlights of this study's findings are as follows:

1. **On the discourse community:** The majority of the JAL writers were educated Filipinos who had at least a baccalaureate degree.
2. **On the recruitment process:** the JAL was not a required document, unlike the resume and transcript of grades. However, the interviewees, all senior members of their professional discourse communities, stated that JAL has the following purposes: (a) to formally signify one's intention, (b) to introduce the applicant, (c) to state the position being targeted, (d) to provide means of evaluating the candidate's qualifications, and (e) to increase the positive perception of the candidate's courtesy and preparation.
3. **On the rhetorical moves and strategies:** Overall, only one rhetorical move, Offering Candidature (OC), is obligatory; however, the following are found in the majority of the corpus: Promoting the Candidate (PC), Ending Politely (EP), Signing Off (SO), Enclosing Documents (ED), and Opening (O). Two additional moves, Greeting the Reader (GR) and Introducing Oneself (IO) were also found in the corpus.

   Two moves, PC and EP, are realized through various strategies. PC strategies include *Listing qualifications, Predicting success, Listing relevant skills and abilities, Stating how skills and abilities were obtained, Demonstrating knowledge of target positions,* and *Naming of present job*, based on Henry and Roseberry's (2001) categories. Other strategies that were unique to the corpus were also found: *Describing feelings for the position*, *Sharing insights about experiences*, and *Overcoming possible objections*. Overall, the corpus writers exploited both factual and subjective strategies in their persuasion.

EP strategies found in the corpus include *Closing, Thanking, Welcoming response,* and *Inviting favorable consideration.* EP strategies unique to the corpus were *Blessing the reader* and *Anticipating acceptance.*

4. **On the cognitive structuring:** A little more than half of the letters in the corpus followed an indirect order. The likeliest arrangement of rhetorical moves in the corpus is: O-GR-IO-OC-PC-ED-SR-EP-SO.

Genre analysis seeks to answer the question *why do certain groups or professions write the way they do?* This study provides an answer by explaining the writing tendencies of one group of writers: college-educated Filipino applicants, as represented in the corpus.

The genre characteristics summarized above can be explained in terms of relevant contextual factors. The presence or absence of rhetorical moves and strategies can be attributed to the recruitment process, the medium used (electronic or traditional print), and cultural factors, as in notions of politeness. Similarly, a cultural predilection for indirectness accounts for the predominant cognitive structure of the corpus.

As previously mentioned, the rhetorical moves, strategies, and cognitive structure comprise the psychological orientation of genre analysis, i.e. the tactical aspect involved in creating genres. Thus, these things reflect the corpus writers' tactical choices for achieving a particular communicative purpose.

It has also been seen that much of the writers' tactical choices were revealed as the analysis reached the level of strategies. In terms of rhetorical moves, the corpus of this study is largely similar to the Henry and Roseberry (2001) and Bhatia (1993) studies, except for two moves; however, the analysis of strategies reveals that there is a great difference in the choice of tactics for the achievement of a particular communicative purpose. The presence of these strategies confirms Bhatia's claim on the nativization of the JAL. This tendency of culture to shape discourses in English is not unique to the Philippines. This pattern can as well be seen in other written discourses of countries in the Outer or Expanding Circles. Bhatt and Mesthrie (2008, p.144) point out:

> One generalization that has emerged from studies of English discourse across cultures is that there is a strong relationship between the forms that English manifests and its speakers' perceptions of reality and the nature of their cultural institutions (Gumperz 1982; Y. Kachru 1983). In the WE [World Englshes] context Y. Kachru (1983) observes that it is the *cultural context and not the English language which constrains the ways of encoding interactions and leads to different discourse patterns*. [emphasis mine]

This study is based on a limited number of samples and as such, its conclusions are not generalizable for the entire population of Filipino job applicants. What it has done is to simply provide a preliminary analysis that can be the catalyst of future studies. Thus, the researcher recommends the following for future research:

1. A genre analysis involving a much larger corpus consisting of applications directed at different professions, in order to determine whether professional culture has an effect on genre production
2. A survey involving a larger number of applicant screeners regarding their views on the value of the job application letter – As it appears from the limited number of interviews that the JAL is not a required document, a survey should be conducted to confirm this. This has pedagogical implications: it is worth considering whether cover letters should be stricken off business writing curricula in order to make way for other more relevant topics.
3. A comparison of genres as they are presented in different media – One of the findings of this study is the difference between e-mailed cover letters and the more traditional printed ones. Thus, one possible direction for future genre analysis is the comparison of genres that come in different platforms.
4. An analysis of other standard forms of business communication - This research confirms how a more or less standard business communication genre like the job application letter has been "nativized" by Filipino writers.

Given the prevalence and importance of such standard forms of communication in business, it may be useful to do more research on how other types of written business communication (e.g., other types of correspondence like solicitation letters and negative responses; and of business reports like annual reports and audit reports) in the Philippines have likewise been nativized. Such research may also serve as an initial step towards studies in contrastive rhetoric.

In terms of pedagogical implications, this research raises some dilemmas for the business communication teacher. Since this research has affirmed, though in a limited sense, the distinctiveness of the Filipino way of writing cover letters from that of the Western textbook models, it brings about the question of what exactly should the teacher teach: should Western discourse practices still be privileged, as is often the case? And if the native discourse practices are upheld, what will the implications be, especially for a global workforce?

Perhaps the most practical answer is not to slavishly adhere to any particular way, but to simply create an awareness that different cultures have different discourse practices. This awareness is especially relevant in this era of globalization in which people of different cultural backgrounds come into contact. The input from foreign textbooks must be balanced with knowledge on how Filipino genres are shaped and constrained by cultural factors that affect the reading situation. This research can contribute to awareness-raising in making Filipinos conscious of their own discourse traditions. To reiterate what Vergaro (2004) says, this awareness of one culture's discourse traditions is helpful, as it paves the way for an awareness of the discourse traditions of other cultures.

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Mishima Z. Miciano is a full-time faculty member of the Department of Arts and Communication of the University of the Philippines Manila where she teaches academic and technical writing. She earned her M.A. English Studies (Language) degree from the University of the Philippines Diliman and her baccalaureate degree in Communication Arts from the University of the Philippines Los Baños. Her research interests include genre-based learning approaches and the study of various professional discourses.

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A Contrastive Study on the Macro-structure and Metadiscoursal Features of the Introduction Section in the English L1 and Chinese L2 Research Articles

Ying Zhu, Paulina M. Gocheco
De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines

Abstract

This paper reports a contrastive study on the rhetorical structures and metadiscourse resources used in the introduction section of research article genre in two different cultural contexts--English L1 texts by native speakers of English and L2 texts by Chinese speakers. The researchers examined RA introductions in the field of Applied Linguistics by adopting Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS Model and Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse model as investigative tools. Through an analysis of 100 RA introductions, the study found that not only at the macro level but at the micro level, English writers seem to be more sophisticated than Chinese writers in the realization of genre structures and metadiscourse categories. Chinese L2 texts tend to display a less elaborate but more implicit version than L1 texts. The major differences identified between groups are most likely to be attributed to socio-cultural factors, that is, Confucian Thought and Collectivism in China, versus Aristotelian Philosophy and Individualism in western countries. The results gained from this study could help teachers devise relevant EAP teaching materials for Chinese writers to develop their writing skills and meet the expectations of native-English speaking readers.

Keywords: research article introductions, contrastive rhetoric, CARS Model, interactive and interactional metadiscourse, Confucian Thought, Collectivism, academic writing

Introduction

The past decades have witnessed a great deal of renewed interest in the study of academic writing, not only in the traditional areas of the structure of different genres, but also in the metadiscoursal elements from a cross-language/cultural perspective.

Contrastive rhetoric as "an area of research in second language acquisition that identifies problems in composition encountered by second language writers and, by referring to the rhetorical strategies of the first language, attempts to explain them" (Connor, 1996, p.5) has been dedicated to the study of L2 writing by analyzing written production (Taylor & Chen, 1991, Abdi, 2002, Sheldon, 2011; Burneikaitė, 2008; Bunton, 1999, Hyland, 2004) of advanced learners of English with different language backgrounds, and the findings from which may raise the L2 writers' awareness of genre conventions, develop their social interactions with readers, and help teachers and course designers to prepare relevant research writing courses.

Employed in the contrastive rhetoric, genre analysis dealing with professional and academic writings like the research article (RA) has been dedicated to the expansion of a research area that compares the written production (e. g. RA) in one or more languages and looks into how they differ rhetorically and culturally. Most of the studies in this domain are conducted by examining different genres in other languages, while the number of studies in the examination of English texts by L2 writers is rapidly growing due to the increasing demand of English for academic purposes throughout the world.

The study undertaken by Taylor and Chen (1991) focused on the interplay between cultural and disciplinary variation, which, revealed a uniform pattern of rhetorical structure in all language groups (Anglo-Americans writing in English, Chinese writing in English, and Chinese writing in Chinese) and disciplines (mineral processing, geophysics, and materials engineering), but systematic variations in the use of moves did exist. The focus of this study was not how the CARS model fit the Chinese texts or L2 products but rather the socio-cultural differences. The major difference observed from this study was the fewer citations employed by Chinese. The results concluded that irrespective of language, Chinese writers paid much less attention in summarizing the literature in their field of study, less emphasis on Move 2. This finding thus could be ascribed to the absence of a long time disputation in the Chinese scientific tradition. Additionally, the lack of citations was due to the inaccessibility of the bibliographic resources that are available in western countries.

Admittedly, Taylor and Chen's (1991) study significantly depicts the way Chinese organize the introduction section of scientific papers and provided the impetus for further studies, yet it suffers from some delimitations. Since the corpus was drawn from journals published more than 20 years ago, from 1986 to 1989, it might not have captured the discourse features of scientific RAs generated thereafter especially in the 21st century where people have more exposure to the worldwide academia. The physical science studies are commonly described as hard science, whereas the soft science and the applied linguistics are not given much attention by the two researchers. Moreover, Swales' (1981) four-move structure, the old version of CARS Model (establishing the field, summarizing relevant previous work, preparing for present research by showing gaps, and introducing the present project by stating its purpose or objectives), failed to capture the inseparability of Move 1(establishing the field) and Move 2 (summarizing the previous research) (as cited in Al-Qahtani, 2006). Swales' (1990), thus, revised it to the new version of CARS Model with three moves and constituent steps. Contrastive rhetoric studies indeed offer a great help for researchers to find the differences among Chinese, English L1 and English L2 writing.

Since L2 writers may encounter more English-language problems than natives (Flowerdew & Li, 2007) in pursuing their articles for international publication, it is more significant for researchers to investigate the rhetorical variations between L1 and L2 texts cross culturally. Many studies (Mauranen, 1993; Valero-Garces, 1996; Adel, 2006; Burneikaitė, 2008) have found that the published articles by L2 writers indicate certain deviation from the RAs in L1 in the macro-structure level and also in the use of metadiscoursal elements. To achieve the publication of research articles is more than just conforming to the genre convention. Also, a writers' strong devotion to building a successful reader-writer relationship is quite important. Metadiscourse as "the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community'' helps both native and non-native speakers of English to convey their ideas and engage with their readers effectively (Hyland, 2005, p.37).

A number of taxonomies on metadiscourse markers have been proposed since initial interest began decades ago. Many metadiscourse studies make use of the Hallidayan (1973) distinction between textual and interpersonal functions. Vande Kopple (1985) defined textual metadiscourse as devices that help organize discourse while other studies of textual discourse use the term metatext (Mauranen, 1993; Valero-Garce, 1996; Bunton, 1999); On the contrary, interpersonal metadiscouse primarily plays the role of interacting with the reader and processing their needs.

Hyland and Tse (2004) argued that the taxonomy of metadiscourse as textual and interpersonal function seems to separate abruptly the organization of discourse from the writers' attitude toward texts. Instead, they put forth a stronger interpersonal view on metadiscourse claiming that all metadiscouse categories are essentially interpersonal since they need to take into account the readers' knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs. Therefore, a proposed new model of metadiscourse, classified as interactional and interactive resources was put into practice. And, this categorization was entirely adopted in the current study.

Tracing the previous studies on academic writing, a considerable attention has been paid on the study of metadiscourse in different genres by L2 writers, such as Mauranen's (1993) and Valero-Garces'(1996) endeavor to explore the usage of metadiscourse in economic texts by Finnish and Spanish writers, Bunton's (1999) contribution to the PhD dissertation, Hyland and Tse's (2004) and Hyland's (2004) inspection of L2 postgraduate writing, Adel's (2006) attempt on L2 argumentative writing, Burneikaitė's (2008) comparison on master's thesis, Cao and Hu's (2011) big effort on English RA abstracts by Chinese writers, etc.

Earlier in 1993, Mauranen's contrastive survey on the English economics texts by Finnish background speakers and native speakers of English inspected the way in which Finnish and Anglo-American writers use metatext, or rhetorical strategies, to guide readers through a text. The findings showed that English L2 texts by Finnish speakers employed relatively fewer rhetorical strategies for explicitly organizing the text and orienting the reader. In other word, Finnish writers acted more like a "supervisor" to displays their thoughts for the readers to follow, showing the lack of interaction between writers and readers. On the contrary, Anglo-Americans seemed more concerned with the readers' interests by making fewer demands on the reader. They guided them all throughout the text by being interactive. Mauranen (1993), thus, attributed this difference to the two groups' different notion of politeness and different assumptions of shared knowledge in the communication process. In the Finnish context, the target audiences were presumed to be homogeneous with a great deal of knowledge shared by the writer and the readers, therefore, Mauranen (1993) believed that under this circumstance, the writer might not guide the readers' interpretation process very deliberately. The significance of the study is to further confirm Kaplan's (1966) theory and conclude that the writers' culture of perceiving written texts may influence the rhetorical choices and strategies in composing L2 texts. Later, Valero-Garce (1996) conducted a similar study but changed Finnish context to Spanish context and the results from which were consistent to a certain degree with Mauranen's (1993).

Taking Mauranen's (1993) categories of metatext as a starting point, Bunton (1999) reported a study on the investigation of how research student writers made use of metatext in terms of textual function, which includes previews, overviews and reviews as text references in their Ph.D theses. The corpus comprised of 13 Ph.D dissertations were written by Chinese native speakers in different disciplines. The findings suggest that non-natives may need to be encouraged to use more previewing strategies to orient and guide their readers in their theses.

Another noteworthy research on masters and doctoral dissertations was conducted with the collaboration of Hyland and Tse (2004) and also Hyland (2004). Hyland and Tse (2004) argued that the taxonomy of metadiscourse as textual and interpersonal function seems to separate abruptly the organization of discourse from the writers' attitude toward texts. Instead, they put forth a stronger interpersonal view on metadiscourse claiming that all metadiscouse categories are essentially interpersonal since they need to take into account the readers' knowledge, textual experiences, and processing needs. Therefore, a proposed new model of metadiscourse, classified as interactional and interactive resources was put into practice. The investigation established links between texts and disciplinary cultures. Comparing the two high stake research genres, researchers found that there are substantial variations in the realization of metadiscourse across the two degree corpora. Overall, Ph.D dissertations contained greater use of metadiscourse. This suggested that they have more attempts to engage and negotiate with the readers. The six disciplines: Applied Linguistics, Public Administration, Business Studies, Computer Science, Electronic Engineering, and Biology investigated in this study were broadly divided into "soft" and "hard" science. The findings further indicated that overall, mere metadiscoursal resources were employed in the more "soft knowledge" social science disciplines. Besides, the greatest difference as manifested in the use of hedges, attitude markers and self-mentions, the higher frequency of which in the soften fields shed light on the influence of disciplinary communities on the way writers argue and engage with their readers.

Metadiscourse and culture is always a dynamic topic in the discourse analysis and ESL/EFL instruction. Amiryousefi and Rasekh (2010), in their review of metadiscouse issues, argued that cultural factors shape our background understandings, and may affect the ways we write and the ways we organize our writing. Regarding the differences between English L1 and L2 writers, Chesterman (1998) emphasized that the influence of L2 writers' first language may affect the ways and patterns of organizing their ideas and engaging their readers distinctly from L1 writers.

Dahl's (2004) endeavor to study whether cultural identities are language-specific or discipline-specific is worth mentioning. Dahl (2004) selected the research articles in three languages (English, French, and Nowegian), in three different disciplines disciplinarily (linguistics, economics, and medicine). The rhetorical category she used was less comprehensive but restricted to the meta-elements which primarily have a textual function. As regards disciplinary differences, Dahl (2004) found that the medical texts seemed very different from the other two. No matter what language was used, medical texts displayed a uniform pattern of using only a few metatext, this suggests more importance is given in medicine compared to linguistics and economics. Regarding language differences, the findings highlighted that the language variable is more salient within linguistics and economics than medicine.

More recently, Mur-Duenas (2011) conducted a comprehensive cross-cultural analysis in English and Spanish academic business management writing by taking metadiscouse as the analytical framework. The findings of this study reinforced the notion that metadiscoursal features vary to some extent across the two linguistic, cultural-contexts, and that the awareness of genre conventions is needed. Those who want to publish their research article internationally are suggested to adjust their writing conventions in order to meet the prevailing expectations and persuasive strategies in the new cultural context and to facilitate the publication of their research.

Cao and Hu's study (2011) focuses mainly on the similarities and differences in the use of hedges and boosters as metadiscursive resources among three groups: Chinese and English abstracts in the Chinese-medium and English abstracts in the English-medium. The results suggested a manifest cross-cultural/linguistic contrast that are attributed to the different cultural practices and divergent epistemological beliefs about science in the two contexts. This study gives us one great insight into the way Chinese compose their written productions.

Kaplan (1966), in his pioneering study to explore the thought pattern of different cultures, argued that Chinese, as well as other oriental writing, is circular and indirect. However, a number of studies after Kaplan about Chinese writing have controversies on whether it is linear or circular, direct or indirect (Matalene, 1985; Schollon, 1991; Cai, 1993; Kirkpatrick, 1993) Even Kaplan (1987), when he reviewed the previous work, readjusted his position and regretted his oversimplification and overstatement of differences between languages.

Several studies attribute the circularity and indirectness of Chinese writing to the influence of two traditional Chinese rhetoric patterns: *ba gu wen* (eight-legged essay, Cai, 1993, as cited in Connor 1996, p.37) and *qi chen zhuan he* (commonly glossed as "beginning", "development", "turn", and "conclusion", Wang, 2006). Some studies are in support of the indirectness hypothesis but claim that that may not be due to the influence of the two traditional patterns but due to Confucian thought developed two thousand five hundred years ago in China (Scollon,1991, as cited in Connor, 1996, p.38).

Since there is no universal definition of Confucian philosophy, it is more easily described than defined by terms like "*guanxi* (relationship), *yi* (justice), *li* (ritual), *xiao* (*filial piety*), *ren* (humaneness), virtue, and social order" which seem to capture the concept (Chuang, 2007, p.21). Confucius, or *Kong Zi*, the greatest educator and founder, attached great importance to humaneness and the social relationship of human being in the society. The essential value of *ren* (humaneness), according to Chuang (2007, p.28), is being moderate and not going to an extreme that could apply to emotion, attitude, behavior and thought, etc. In Loi and Evans' (2010) study, the moderate way, also known as *Zhong Yong Zhi Dao* (the Doctrine of the Mean), was adopted into Chinese writing to avoid making strong research claims in the realization of rhetoric moves (steps). Shaped by Confucian Thought, Chinese deeply value a pleasant or harmonious relationship with others and are more concerned on their role in the society, family and group (Lu, et al., 2003).

Besides Confucian Thought, collectivism in China might be another major factor that influences the way Chinese people think and compose their written production. Indirectness is also its essential value. Traditionally, China is considered as a collectivistic country significantly different from western individualism. Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988) argued that:

> Collectivistic cultures tend to be associated with high-context communication; people from high-context cultures typically view group harmony as more important than personal feelings, which means that direct communication is not being used very much since it can hurt the group's harmonious relationship (as cited in Hsu, 2011, p.12)

Gudykunst (2003, p.83) further confirmed that since communication in high-context cultures is generally perceived as indirect and implicit, "people from high-context cultures integrate information from the environment, context, situation and nonverbal cues." In contrast, individualistic cultures "tend to be associated with low-context communication" (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, as cited in Hsu, 2011, p.12). Ting-Toomey's (1991) study found that "people from low-context communication are much more likely to express immediacy overtly and explicitly through verbal communication than are people from high-context cultures" (as cited in Gudykunst, 2003, p.84). Chinese individuals are inclined to see themselves interdependent with others while western individuals tend to view themselves as independent of collectives (Tian, 2011, p. 10).

Regarding the relationship between macrolevel and microlevel, Van Dijk (1980, p.26) pointed out that "…discourse cannot be adequately accounted for at the microlevel alone" but integrated with macrolevel that empowers the target readers to grasp the whole picture of the organization of a text, as well as "the ways writers project themselves into their discourse to signal their attitude towards both the content and the audiences of the text" (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p.156). In Vergaro's (2004) and Milagros del Saz Rubio's (2011) studies, they unanimously agreed with Van Dijk that rhetorical patterns, together with linguistic choices, interact in contributing to the achievement of the communicative purpose of a genre.

Based on the reviewed literature on move structure and metadiscoursal units, few studies were done on a dual analysis, both at macro and micro level. The information gathered from previous studies shows that no study addresses both the issue of how L2 writers of Chinese background organize their introduction section of RAs and how they convey their ideas and engage their readers through the use of metadiscousal elements. The two most relevant studies, by Taylor and Chen (1991) on rhetorical structures of introduction on hard science and Cao and Hu (2011) on hedges and boosters of abstract in Applied Linguistics, provide the researcher with inspiration to conduct a dual-level analysis on the certain genre and explore the underlying socio-cultural factors that may account for varations between the two different texts. Therefore, three research questions were developed as follows:

1. What are the similarities and differences between the introduction sections of research articles written by Chinese native speakers and English native speakers in terms of the genre structure of moves and steps?

2. What are the metadiscoursal features employed in the research articles introductions in L1 and L2?

3. What are the socio-cultural inferences that can be drawn from the different use of genre structure and metadiscoursal features in L1 and L2?

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of the current study includes the depiction of Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS Model and the categorization of metadiscourse proposed by Hyland (2005). Genre analysis of research writing has been deeply influenced by Swales' (1990, 2004) Create a Research Space Model (hereafter referred as CARS Model).

Table 1
Swales CARS Model for RA introductions

The CARS model for RA introductions. Swales (1990. 2004)
Move 1. Establishing a Territory
Step 1. Claiming centrality
and/or
Step 2. Making topic generalizations
and/or
Step 3. Reviewing items of previous research
Move 2. Establishing a Niche
Step 1A Indicating a gap
or
Step 1B Adding to what is known
Step 2. (optional) Presenting positive justification
Move 3. Occupying the Niche
Step 1 (obligatory) Announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively
Step 2* (optional) Presenting RQs or hypotheses
Step 3 (optional) Definitional clarifications
Step 4 (optional) Summarizing methods
Step 5 (PISF**) Announcing principle outcomes
Step 6 (PISF) Stating the value of the present research
Step 7 (PISF) Outlining the structure of the paper
* Steps 2-4 are not only optional but less fixed in their order of occurrence than others.
** PISF: Probable in some fields, but unlikely in others

Hyland's Categorization of Metadiscourse

Hyland (2005) proposed a theoretically robust and analytically reliable model of metadiscourse which advocates the need to view all metadiscourse as interpersonal. The new model comprises of two main categories of "interactive" and "interactional" resources that originated from Thompson and Thetela's (1995) conception (as cited in Hyland, 2005, p.48), but it takes a wider focus by including stance and engagement markers (Hyland, 2005).

Interactive Resources

The interactive resources of metadiscourse refer to "the writer's awareness of a participating audience and the ways he or she seeks to accommodate its probable knowledge, interests, rhetorical expectations and processing abilities" (Hyland, 2005, p.49), and is comparable to what Halliday (1994) has called the textual metafunction (as cited in Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010). These resources, according to Hyland (2005, p.50-52), contain the following:

Transition markers: these devices are mainly conjunctions and adverbial phrases used to mark additive, contrastive and consequential steps in an argument, for example, *and, furthermore, similarly, correspondingly, thus, in conclusion*.

Frame markers: they indicate text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure, used to sequence parts of the text (*first, at the same time, 1/2*), label text stages (*summarize, in sum, by way of introduction*), announce discourse goals (*I argue here, my purpose is, the paper proposes*) and indicate topic shifts (*well, right, ok, now, let us return to*).

Endophoric markers: they refer to information in other parts of the text and make the additional material available for the readers, for example, *see Figure 2, refer to the next section, as noted above*.

Evidentials: they refer to the representation of an idea from another source, for example, *according to X, Z states*.

Code glosses: they are the signal of the restatement and elaboration of what has been said by the writer to ensure readers' comprehension of the intended meaning, for example, *namely, such as, in other words*.

Interactional Resources

Interactional resources of the metadiscourse highlight the writers' goal "to make his or her views explicit and to involve readers by allowing them to respond to the unfolding text" (Hyland, 2005, p.49). In other words, these resources deal with the expressions of the writers' opinion and their relationship and interaction with the readers, suggesting a more personal touch. They also involve readers more overtly in the text compared to interactive recourses (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010). The interactional resources include (Hyland, 2005, p.52-54)

Hedges: mark the writer's reluctance to present propositional information categorically allowing the writer to assume some distance from a statement and minimizing damage to personal credibility, for example *might, perhaps*, etc.

Boosters: express certainty, for example, *in fact, definitely*

Attitude markers: indicate the writer's affective, rather than epistemic, attitude toward proposition conveying surprise, agreement, importance, and obligation, etc. Examples are*: I agree, hopefully, remarkable, surprisingly*

Self-mentions: they refer to the extent of the author presence in terms of first person pronouns and possessives, for example, *I, we, our, mine*.

Engagement markers: address readers explicitly, or make a relationship with the reader through second person pronouns, imperatives, question forms and asides, such as *you can see that, note that, consider*

Methodology

The current study established two corpora containing English research articles written by native English and Chinese speakers respectively within the field of Applied Linguistics. Each corpus consisted of 50 research article introductions published during the year 2006 and 2010.

The journal articles selected for the English L1 corpus were based on three criteria: first, one Ph.D students' recommendation and journal's impact factor. The Ph.D student who specialized in the field of Applied Linguistics was asked to name certain well-known journals that publish research articles related to this discipline after she understood the purpose of the current study. The Journals given were *Applied Linguistics* (henceforth *AL*) (impact factor: 1.45) and *TESOL Quarterly* (henceforth *TQ*) (impact factor: 0.646). Second, only those articles whose writers' name are native to the country concerned and affiliated in the institutions located in Anglophone countries (specifically United States, Britain, Canada, Australia and New Zealand) were taken into consideration. Since not every article

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in the journal may meet this criterion, an equal distribution of the article over the years could not be possible. Third, these articles should be empirical studies and should follow the IMRD structure. According to the above mentioned three criteria, there were altogether 35 RAs in *AL* and 30 in *TQ* between the year 2006 and 2010.

In order to get 25 RAs from *Applied Linguistics* and *TESOL Quarterly* respectively, the researcher selected the first four to six articles each year, however, in the year 2009, *AL* included only two articles that met the criteria.

Concerning the L2 corpus, it included articles selected from one local journal – *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics (*henceforth *CJAL)*, the only journal in China that publishes papers on theories and practice in foreign language education and other areas of applied linguistics written in English. It was first launched in 1978 as ELT Newsletter. This journal publishes every two months with six issues per year. More than 95% articles of the whole publication were authored by either college students or professors from universities located in China. The writers had typical Chinese names like *Cui Yanyan*, *Qian Xiaoxia*, etc. Thus, the researcher was able to distinguish between L2 writers from L1 writers. Excluding a few research articles authored by writers from foreign countries, each of 10 articles from Volume 29 to Volume 33 was randomly selected to build the L2 corpus. To ensure the variety of sources, no two articles from the same author were selected for either corpus and it was ascertained that the corpora contain only texts from native English and Chinese speakers.

All of the research articles chosen from the two corpora were complied and saved electronically. Only the introduction section of each article was chosen and converted from PDF file to Word document for the preparation of hand-tagged analysis.

The data were analyzed using three specific steps. The researcher read and labeled 100 RA introductions according to Swales' (1990, 2004) CARS Model. There was no major difficulty encountered in determining the moves and its constituent steps except for some common cases where one sentence contained two different moves, while in these cases, the most salient of the two moves was taken as the dominant one (Milagros del Saz Rubio, 2011).

Metadiscoursal items were identified using both the manual codification and WordSmith 4.0, a concordance program. The RA introductions were carefully read word by word in search of potential metadiscoursal features. Once a feature was determined, it would be assigned under either the interactive feature or interactive feature outlined in Chapter 1. Then, this feature would be searched electronically in the whole corpus using the software mentioned above so that the total number of particular instances (tokens) of that particular feature would be obtained. Once retrieved, each token would be carefully analyzed in context to ensure that it actually functions as a metadiscourse item in the text and could be incorporated into the counts.

There was a trial coding in the data analysis. Out of 100 journal articles, five RA introductions from each corpus were coded to identify moves (steps) and metadiscoursal features. This was done by the researcher and by a second coder, the Ph.D student who named two English journals as L1 corpus. Although the second coder had the research experience in genre theory studies and contrastive analysis, the researcher gave her specific orientation in terms of data coding. The inter-coder agreement reached 90%. The cases of disagreement were resolved through discussion, clarification and criteria checking until a consensus was reached. The second coder was responsible for coding 50% of the total number of journal articles, 25 L1 and 25 L2 RA introductions, both at macro and micro levels. Lastly, the realization and occurrence of rhetoric structure and metadiscourse was discussed according to similarities and differences between L1 corpus and L2 corpus. This is to infer the social cultural factors in the data.

Results and Discussion

The realization of moves in the introduction section of RAs was presented. Table 2 illustrated the distribution of moves in the English L1 texts and L2 texts.

Table 2
Occurrence of move 1/move 2/move 3 in the L1 and L2 corpus

	L1 Corpus		L2 corpus	
	frequency	Percentage	frequency	percentage
Move 1	49	98%	50	100%
Move 2	48	96%	42	84%
Move 3	50	100%	50	100%

Legend: move 1 establishing a territory; move 2 establishing a niche; move 3 occupying the niche

As can be seen in Table 2, Move 1 and Move 3 were mandatory components in the writing of the two groups, almost 100% in all introductions while Move 1 failed to appear in TQ22 from the L1 corpus. Accordingly, it can be said that both English L1 and L2 writers believe the importance of creating a common ground at the beginning of an introduction part and describing their own research at the end.

With regard to Move 2, the English L1 corpus appeared to have conventionalized this move reaching 96% of 50 RAs (AL18 and TQ21 are exceptions). This means that almost all of the L1 writers had consistently used this move of either indicating a gap in the previous research or presenting positive justification. By contrast, the L2 group only reached 84% (42 out of 50) in their use of Move 2. This is consistent with the observation from past studies that Chinese writers tend to pay less attention to Move 2 and express their ideas more implicitly with less elaboration (Taylor & Chen, 1991; Loi & Evans, 2010). Looking into the move patterns of each article, 18 out of 50 RA introductions in the L1 corpus strictly followed the M1-M2-M3 pattern and 25 out of 50 in the L2 corpus did too. The remaining introductions, however, showed certain cyclicity of moves. Crookes, (1986) analyzed 96 scientific articles based on Swales' (1981) earlier model, and suggested that the patterns proposed by Swales occurs in shorter RA introductions, but that in longer ones "a variety of alternatives is possible" (p.65). Swales (1990, p.158) further concluded that "in the social sciences, the move cyclicity is likely to be attributed to the length of the introduction and the way how the research field is perceived, for example if the field consists of several loosely-connected topics, then a cyclic approach may be preferred." In this study, the researcher found that a certain move did occur cyclically in the discipline of Applied Linguistics. The more extensive and detailed the literature review, the more likely the cycling would occur. For instance, Move 1 and Move 2 were cycled in the eight cases of L1 corpus (*AL*02, *AL*14, *AL*16, *AL*19, *AL*21, *TQ*07, *TQ*10, *TQ*23) and five cases of L2 corpus (*CJAL* 26, 34, 35, 46, 48).

Move 1 Establishing a Territory

In order to determine the existence of any variations in the occurrence of Move 1, 2, 3 and their constituent steps in the RAs in both corpora, the occurrence and frequency of each step in Move 1, 2, 3 were calculated and summed. The recurrence of certain steps was not taken into consideration in this study. Table 3 below showed the results of the occurrence of each step in Move 1.

Table 3
Occurrence of steps in Move 1 (50 RA introductions each corpus)

Corpus	Move 1/ Steps			Total
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	
L1	47 94%	38 76%	41 82%	126
L2	44 88%	24 48%	40 80%	108

Legend: step 1 claiming centrality; step 2 making topic generalization; step 3 reviewing items of previous research

As can be seen in Table 3, Move 1 occurred more frequently in the English L1 group as compared with the total occurrence in the L2 group (126 over 108). As mentioned previously, only one L1 introduction (TQ22) lacked Move 1. It started with Move 3 which is describing the present research.

In the L1 corpus, step 1 occurred 47 times while in the L2 corpus, RA introductions which utilized step 1 reached 44 times. Therefore, it could be inferred that both L1 writers and L2 writers seemed to be willing to affirm the importance of the topic of their research studies. Some examples are presented as follows:

Step 1-claiming centrality
(TQ04) Teaching and learning English for academic purposes (EAP), which deals with students studying at or preparing to study at postsecondary institutions, has drawn substantial interest…
(CJAL01) Since the mid-1980s, vocabulary size studies of Chinese EFL learners began to prosper. These investigations covered a wide variety of subjects in university…

Statistically, the Chinese writers used less step 2 of move 1 than the English writers. It can be noted from the table that 38 RA introductions out of 50 from the L1 corpus utilized step 2, however, less than half of the introduction from the L2 corpus were found to utilize this step. Step 2 usually served to confirm and validate the claims made by the writer. The more the step used the more explicit function it labeled. Therefore, English L1 writers tend to be more explicit than L2 writers in providing information related to the research topic.

Actually, in the identification of step 2, the researcher found the same problem as Samraj (2002, p.6) she mentioned in her study that "There appears to be no clear basis for distinguishing (step 2) topic generalizations from (step 3) review of previous research." In this study, some sentences or even paragraph with citations were most likely to be identified as step 3 if the presence of citation was regarded as a determining factor. This is because these controversial sentences are mostly definition of terms which is centrality claims (step 1) and seemed to be the expansion of the statement of knowledge – one representation of step 2. Thus, the researcher believed that such cases should be reconsidered as step 2, under the umbrella of topic generalization.

Among the 38 L1 RA introductions that utilized step 2, 12 of them were actually cases of definition while 6 out of 24 of L2 introductions were. The following are the examples regarding step 2:
Step 2-making topic generalization
(AL06) Comprehension is held to come about through a process of 'interaction' between the two
parts of the metaphor (Black 1979) and the 'emergence' of new

properties or features of the Topic through this interaction (Gineste et al. 2000)…

(CJAL04) Field independence (FI) addresses the degree to which an individual focuses on some aspect of experience and separates it from its background. Morgan (1997) describes that when the field is not clearly organized…

The third step "reviewing previous research" is considered as the obligatory step in Move 1 by Swales (1990), but it might suggest certain variation across disciplines. In the field of Applied Linguistics, Hu (2008) identified an Introduction-Background (Literature Review)-Method-Results-Discussion structure in the RAs of linguistics articles written in English and Chinese. She further concluded that the ILrMRD structure was commonly used in the Applied Linguistics regardless of language. As the researcher observed in the current study, highly 70% of L1 RAs and 62% of L2 RAs conformed to the ILrMRD structure. In other words, more than half of the RAs in the entire corpus included Literature Review section that might account for the absence of step 3 (reviewing previous research) in the introduction section. Table 3 showed that around 20% of the two groups did not use step 3, but the absence was remedied in the consecutive section.

Below are the examples of step 3:

Step 3-reviewing items of previous research

(AL15) More specifically, both Doughty and Williams (1998b) and Ellis (2006) analyse the relationship between grammar teaching and communicative activities in terms of broad instructional options available to L2 teachers.

(CJAL20) Ma conducted research on self-repair behavior among 44 fresh men's oral activities in
groups, and Wen and Zhuang carried out a study to examine to what extent...

Move 2 Establishing a Niche

In this move, the authors create a research space for their studies by either indicating a gap in their field of study (M2S1A), by adding to what is known (M2S1B) or by presenting positive justification for the approach in their own research study (M2S2).

As the aforementioned occurrence of Move 2 in each corpus, it was not surprisingly to see that almost all (96%) L1 writers used this move, which was in fact, a vital component of the introduction section, but L2 writers showed lower tendency with 8 RAs downplaying this feature. Table 4 suggested the usage of each step of Move 2 by both writers.

Table 4

Occurrence of constituent steps in Move 2 (50 RA introductions each corpus)

Corpus	Move 2/ Steps			Total
	Step 1A	Step 1B	Step 2	
L1	40 80%	N/A	20 40%	60
L2	35 70%	N/A	12 24%	47

Legend: step 1A indicating a gap; step 1B adding to what is known; step 2 presenting positive justification

In Table 4, it could be seen that there was a slight difference in the use of step 1A between the two groups. The L1 writers manifested a higher tendency than L2 writers. Thus, it might be inferred that English writers preferred to indicate the shortcomings, gaps or unanswered questions for further investigation within move 2 more than Chinese writers did. More than 75% of the writers in the samples knew the importance of gaining confidence in the academic community. But the exercise of S1B was likely to be the least preferred option of Move 2, in fact, it was not actualized in neither of the corpora. Regarding step 2, the table suggested that L1 writers might present more justifications to precisely indicate the necessities of doing the present research than L2 writers. Overall, the English L2 group intriguingly displayed a weaker version of this move, less elaborate compared to the English L1 group.

The examples of Move 2 step 1A and step 2 are presented as follows:

Step 1A-indicating a gap
(AL11) However, we know of no study that has directly attempted to quantify the size of a proficient user's phrasal lexicon.
(CJAL28) In recent years, continuous efforts have been made to explore the underlying mechanisms in L2 idiom comprehension (e.g. Abel 2003; Cooper 1999; Liontas 2001). However, Chinese EFL learners' comprehension of English idioms remains largely unexplored.

Step 2-presenting positive justification
(TQ17) In order to understand the relationship between semantic elaboration and L2 vocabulary
learning in both intentional and incidental learning contexts, new research is needed.
(CJAL26)There is a need for research which documents the metacognitive knowledge learners bring to specific tasks of language learning and language use (e.g., reading, listening in formal and informal settings, acquiring vocabulary).

Move 3 Occupying the Niche

The role of Move 3 fulfilled by seven step options is to turn the niche established – Move 2 into the research space that validates the present article. In this study, all the journal RA introductions exhibited this move, qualifying it as obligatory, even though some of the texts lacked niche creation in establishing the writer's territory. Table 5 presented the use of seven steps in the L1 and L2 corpus.

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Table 5
Occurrence of each step in Move 3 (50 RA introductions each corpus)

Corpus	Move 3/ Steps 1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Total
L1	46 92%	8 16%	8 16%	14 28%	10 10%	12 24%	2 4%	100
L2	45 90%	13 26%	4 8%	5 10%	N/A	8 16%	N/A	75

Legend: step 1 announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively;
step 2 presenting RQs or hypotheses;
step 3 definitional clarifications;
step 4 summarizing methods;
step 5 announcing principle outcomes;
step 6 stating the value of the present research;
step 7 outlining the structure of the paper

As can be seen from Table 5, the authors of the L1 introductions utilized all of the step under Move 3 but only step 1 (announcing present research descriptively/purposively) was used by more than 90% of the writers in both groups. The other six steps all suggested lower frequency. which, step 5 (announcing principle outcomes) and step 7 (outlining the structure of the paper) did not exist in the L2 corpus.

The researcher observed that the five cases, even without step 1 in the L2 corpus, still started with the “research question” under Move 3, just after the author successfully filled the gap under Move 2. This style showed abruptness since the authors did not give their readers a general idea of what the study was going to do. But this can be explained by the fact that readers in the target discourse community share the share schema with the authors, making it easy to deduce the main purpose of the article. Meanwhile, in the L1 corpus, the researcher found authors who did not use step 1 but showed different steps in Move 3. Again, it seemed as if a tacit agreement was already made between the writer and the reader. Although step 1 was claimed to be an obligatory element of Move 3, the researcher had to argue that there can be certain variations across disciplines.

As regards the usage of step 2 (presenting research questions of hypothesis), it was surprising to find out that the English L2 group had more occurrences than L1 group. According to Sheldon (2011), the more this strategy is used, the more explicit the text is said to be. Thus, this result really caught the researcher's attention to reflect on the high use of Move 1 step 3 (reviewing previous literature), Move 2 step 1A (indicating a gap) by L2 writers and this time, Move 3 step 2, all of which were supposed to be underused by Chinese writers (Taylor & Chen, 1990; Loi & Evans, 2010). It seemed that, in this decade, and perhaps due to the external influences, Chinese writers are showing more homogeneity rather than heterogeneity in terms of the genre structure.

On the other hand, the less use of step 3, 4, 6 and even the lack of step 5 and 7 by Chinese writers may indicate that they were not fully mature than English writers in adopting these strategies or informing the readers of the definition, methodology, possible outcomes and structure of the study. This insufficiency may also be caused by the limited size of L2 texts.

Below are the examples of steps realized in both corpora:

Step 1- announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively

(AL15) With the above considerations in mind, our overall goal in this paper is to examine L2 teachers' beliefs…

Step 2-presenting RQs or hypotheses

(CJAL02) Our specific research questions were: 1. How many words do top university undergraduates know before and after the college English course?

Step 3-definitional clarifications

(AL07) Registers are varieties of language which are 'typically associated with a particular situational configuration of field, tenor and mode', (Halliday and Hasan 1985: 38–9).

Step 4-summarizing methods
(CJAL06) Secondary school students have been chosen as the subjects of the study…

Step 5-announcing principle outcomes
(TQ19) These data highlight the liminal manner in which cultural frames are employed…

Step 6-stating the value of the present research
(CJAL42) this research has an underlying pedagogical motivation as it also attempts to help Chinese EAP academics write effective English acknowledgements…

Step 7-outlining the structure of the paper
(TQ15) The narrative of our journey is organized as follows. We first discuss… Second, we briefly describe the setting and methods of the needs analysis. Third, we examine…

Regarding the metadiscouse use in different texts, frequency analysis was employed to show the distribution of each of metadiscourse categories in the L1 and L2 corpus and to examine how the different contexts may influence the strategic use of metadiscourse features in the field of Applied Linguistics. The table below illustrated the frequency of use of interactive and interactional metadiscourse from the introduction section of L1 and L2 RAs.

Table 6
Frequency of metadiscourse features in the L1 and L2 corpus

	L1 Corpus		L2 Corpus	
	Raw number	Per 10,000 words	Raw number	Per 10,000 words
Interactive metadiscourse				
Transitions	488	124.7	260	135.2
Frame markers	135	34.5	100	52
Endophoric markers	142	36.3	60	31.2
Evidentials	1120	286.2	358	186.2
Code glosses	320	81.8	171	88.9
Total	2205	563.5	949	493.5
Interactional metadicsourse				
Hedges	446	114	187	97.3
Boosters	203	51.9	109	56.7
Attitude Markers	113	28.9	55	28.6
Self-mention	198	50.6	50	26
Engagement markers	302	77.17	108	56.17
Total	1262	322.57	509	264.77
Overall total	3467	886.07	1458	758.27

Note: the frequencies of each category was presented in those texts normalized to 10,000 words

Table 6 showed how metadiscourse features were overall more commonly presented in the English L1 corpus than in the English RAs by Chinese. Both the two groups made more use of the interactive than the interactional metadiscourse in their RA introductions. However, the English L1 corpus displayed a statistically significant higher inclusion of both interactive and interactional metadiscourse features than the L2 corpus. This might imply that a stronger interaction between the writer and the reader was established in the texts written by English L1 writers than in the texts by Chinese writers within this discipline. The results of each category was discussed comparatively in the following section.

Interactive Metadiscourse

As can be seen in Table 6, transitions, together with frame markers were the only two interactive metadiscouse categories found to be less frequent in the L1 corpus than in the L2 corpus (124.7 vs

135.2 words per 10,000 words; 34.5 vs 52 words per 10,000 words). In other words, Chinese writers used of these strategies more than English writers to help readers interpret pragmatic connections and schematic structure of RA introduction.

But interestingly, the distribution of each subcategory of transitions (additive, contrastive and consequential) and frame markers (sequence, label, predict and shift arguments) was found to be similar in the two corpora. Both groups showed their preference to use additive transitions, contrastive the second and consequential, however, was the least preferred. It seemed that the Applied Linguistics RA introduction more commonly reflected a progressive style which favored the building of argumentation based on addition. Regarding the use of frame markers, "announce goals" was the most frequently used subcategory in both corpora, followed by "sequencing", "shift topic" and "label stages". This may be due to the fact that research articles are generally much shorter than other genres (i.e. master thesis, PhD dissertation). The three subcategories of frame markers were among the least commonly used in this genre. The examples of transitions and frame markers were shown below:

Transitions:
(AL02) There is, however, a major problem with the notion of difficulty in this absolutist…
(CJAL04) Also, a number of studies, for example, Bialystock (1978) and Ellis (1999) have failed to find…

Frame markers:
(AL09) I will first look briefly at the nature of these acts and then go on to discuss the study.

(CJAL19) This study aims to consider individuals' views of themselves as English learners…

Comparing the distribution of evidential metadiscourse in the two corpora which constituted the most frequently employed category of all the interactive devices, English L1 texts presented a saliently higher frequency than L2 texts (286.2 vs 186.2 words per 10, 000 words), meaning English writers cited much more than Chinese writers did. Hyland (2005, p.56) argued that "Citation is central to the social context of persuasion…it helps provide justification for arguments and demonstrate the novelty of the writer's position…" Therefore, English writers seemed to establish a sounder contextualization and justification of the research in the disciplinary field. The explanation of the different degree of citations could be that L1 and L2 texts significantly differed in length. It could be inferred that the longer the RA introduction, the more elaborate discussion of the literature review would be.

Evidentials:
(TQ35) According to Thomas (1991) and Blote (1995), praise is positive reinforcement...
(CJAL24) Differences between learners' and teachers' beliefs "can lead to students undervaluing an activity assigned by the teacher" (Richards &Lockhart, 2000).

Code glosses, which ranked the third most frequent interactive category (followed by evidentials and transitions), helped readers to recover the writer's intended meaning via the information exemplified and reformulated. Code glosses were used to a similar degree in the two corpora (81.8 vs 88.9 words per 10,000 words). Table 6 suggested that there was also no major difference in the use of endophoric markers between the English L1 texts and L2 texts (36.3 vs 31.2 words per 10,000 words). Accordingly, Chinese writers seemed to guide their readers toward a particular point to the same extent as their English peers.

Examples of Code Glosses and Endophoric Markers are shown below.

Code glosses:
(CJAL45) Articles such as *a/an*, *the*, and the *zero* article (i.e., any instance in which a noun does not require an article) are among the most commonly used words in the English language.

Endophoric markers:
(AL01) These interactional processes are illustrated in Examples (1a) and (1b) below.

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Interactional Metadiscourse

As can be seen in Table 6, hedges were most heavily used in the two corpora (114 vs 97.3 words per 10,000 words), though a slightly higher frequency was shown in English L1 texts than in the L2 texts. Both English writers and Chinese writers expressed their strong preference to employ hedges to present an opinion rather than a fact in the research paper, and therefore opened that position to negotiation (Hyland, 2005, p.52). Moreover, the use of hedges could help writers to save their face or avoid threatening the face of others, because a certain claim or counterclaim to the academic community might be a threat to both the writers and readers' negative and positive face (Milagros del Saz Rubio, 2011).

Indeed, the dominance of hedges among the categories of interactional metadiscouse suggested the writers' highly sophisticated use of this strategy to mitigate the social relationship between the writer and the readers. And, it was quite predictable that Chinese writers favored this strategy over others under the interactional category largely due to their conventions of politeness as deeply influenced by the Confucian Thought.

Hedges:
(AL12) At the same time, however, the definition and operationalization of the notion of metalinguistic knowledge has varied somewhat across studies.
(CJAL12) These perceptions and attitudes in turn might affect what teachers do…

The use of boosters in English L1 texts showed no statistical difference from the L2 texts by Chinese (51.9 vs 56.7 words per 10,000 words). The higher use of hedges in both corpora could predict to some extent a lower use of boosters that showed writers authorial certainty, commitment and assertiveness when conveying message through the text. The result suggested that both English and Chinese writers made their claims in a less assertive tone but showed more a tentative stance. The interaction between hedges and boosters somehow revealed the writer's inclination to present themselves more or less explicitly in their writing (Hyland, 1998), therefore, in this study, both writers tended to express less explicitly by linguistically suppressing a clear authorial presence.

Boosters:
(TQ03) English is certainly a language which allows heavy syllables…

(CJAL23) This problem can be clearly illustrated by the pre-test in this current research (See Table 1 and Table 3).

Looking at Table 6, the use of attitude markers in the two corpora was presented in a similar degree (28.9 vs 28.6 words per 10,000 words). In the L1 corpus, attitude markers were the least commonly used category not only under the interactional dimension but also among the other categories of the interactive dimension. In the L2 corpus, attitude markers were the second least preferred devices (next to self mention) by Chinese writers compared to the overall use of metadiscourse. The result therefore might indicate that the L1 and L2 texts did not involve much of the writers' affective attitude toward preposition.

Attitude markers:
(AL09) Surprisingly little, however, has been written about the many small acts of elaboration…
(CJAL42) Therefore, it would be interesting to examine academic acknowledgments written by…

In this study, it was worth mentioning one salient difference of the use of self-mention as interactional metadiscourse between English L1 texts and L2 texts. As noted from Table 6, English writers significantly used much higher self-mention, nearly twice as much as Chinese writers (50.6 vs 26 words per 10,000 words). Through this interactional feature, English writers seemed to show a strong sense of personal or social identity in the research article; the use of metadiscourse markers makes it possible for the writers to announce their contribution to the academic community as a persona or their more initiative and creative role to compete against peers internationally.

Around 80% of the RA introductions used first person pronouns *I* and *we*, which reached 19.42 words and 18.14 words per 10,000 words respectively in the L1 corpus; however, these two items only reached 3.12 words and 10.4 words per 10,000 in the L2 corpus. Obviously, from this result, Chinese writers showed reluctance to use self- mention devices due to their lower frequency in the RA introduction section. There were only six cases of first person pronoun *I* in the four RAs, out of fifty in the L2 corpus. The fact that they shunned the use of first person pronoun could show that Chinese writers preferred to hide their authority in order to avoid criticisms. This also showed their humility – a trait that seemed to be opposite from the culture of people in Anglophone countries.

Self-mention:
(AL14) It is not our aim to investigate the problems posed by metaphor for non-native speaking students…

(CJAL13) In this paper, I intend to explore the possible differences in the use of English adverbial conjuncts...

Lastly, the distribution of engagement markers in the corpora showed a significantly higher number of engagement markers per 10,000 words was found in the L1 corpus than in the L2 corpus (77.17 vs 56.17 words). English writers frequently used imperatives (i.e. *see*) and negation *do* to guide readers to a particular interpretation and to highlight the presence of their readers in the text. Chinese writers however, preferred to raise questions to attract their readers' attention showing an interaction with their readers as the examples below:

Engagement markers:
(TQ13) Thus, learning to read the Chinese script does not provide any explicit experience of individual phonemes.

(CJAL34) What is the difficulty order in the acquisition of English modal verbs for L2 learners with regard to root and epistemic modality?

The noteworthy findings from the identification of rhetorical

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structure were the significant differences in terms of use of Move 1 step 2-topic generalization (38 over 24), Move 2 step 1A-indicating a gap (40 over 35), and step 2-present positive justification (20 over 12) between the L1 and L2 corpus. Chinese writers seemed to make less effort on generalizing topics, pay less attention on criticizing previous studies and express their ideas less elaborately.

In addition, the researchers looked into the use of metadiscoursal features between the two contexts. The dramatically difference in the use of evidential (L1 texts 286.2 words vs L2 texts 186.2 words per 10,000 words) and self-mention categories (L1 texts 50.6 vs L2 texts 26 words per 10,000 words) led the researcher to easily differentiate L2 texts written by Chinese from L1 texts by English writers, for example, the Chinese writers put less emphasis on their role as authors and the role of readers as active participants in the negotiation of new scientific knowledge. These mentioned rhetoric and linguistic variations between the L2 texts and L1 texts showed a certain trend toward either implicitness or explicitness and were probably attributed to some socio-cultural factors-Confucian Thought in China versus Aristotelian Philosophy in western countries and collectivism versus individualism.

Unlike English writers, Chinese writers did not provide sufficient supporting details such as statement of phenomena, definition of items and/or positive comments from the previous studies. These strategies seemed to involve rational thinking, a trait not much valued in the Chinese culture. Chinese people who are strongly shaped by Confucian thought tend to be social-, family-, group-, long-term oriented with an indirect communication style and virtuous behaviors (Lu, et al., 2003). To a certain extent, Chinese people show more preference in maintaining a harmonious relationship with others. In contrast, Aristotelian Philosophy has guided westerns to the beliefs of truth, tangible fact, and problem solving, with a direct style toward realist (Chuang, 2007).

In the academic discourse, these socio-cultural practices were likely to find expressions in the elaborated (or unelaborated) reasoning discourse. But from the data analyzed previously, the researcher found that, the difference between English writers and Chinese writers was not salient enough. As far as can ascertain, the globalization, diversity, and technology are influencing and changing the Chinese society gradually. The western ideas have increasing influence in Asian countries (Czander & Lee, 2001). Against this background, the researcher believes that the academic paper written in two different cultures suggested more homogeneity rather than heterogeneity but of course Chinese traditional culture values are retained at a certain level, which could be manifested through their writing preference in terms of rhetorical structure.

Chinese writers' less use of critical remarks on others' studies might be considered as conventions of politeness in the society. Confucianism teaches us to respect each other especially respect the authority as the highest duty. In order to avoid offending others, or exactly, the members from the same academic community, Chinese writers preferred to adopt *Zhong Yong Zhi Dao* (the Doctrine of the Mean) – one important Confucian principle to be neither aggressive nor coward but in the middle of these two extremes. The adoption of *Zhong Yong Zhi Dao* reflecting in their writing suggested that Chinese writers intended to criticize or give negative evaluation on past studies but they preferred not go any further than necessary.

As can be seen from Table 6, among the 35 cases of L2 corpus, the average length was 2.86 sentences with 76 words while 3.75 sentences with 89 words are in the L1 corpus. This could indicate that Chinese writers put less emphasis on criticizing or commenting on previous studies than English writers. Conversely, western philosophy encourages overt questioning and argumentation in the process of searching for knowledge. For westerners, truth and freedom are more important than "saving face". In relation to academic writing, English writers had constructed a more explicit critical stance to highlight the shortcomings of earlier works than Chinese.

Again, although the actual occurrence of this step was lower in the L2 texts than in the L1 texts, it can be argued that the impact of globalization has increased intercultural and interlingual contacts (Hyland, 2005, p.113), and in order to keep up with advances in their area of expertise, 70% of the Chinese writers realized the importance of Move 2 as a bridge step between Move 1 and Move 3.

The lack of first and second person pronoun in L2 introductions could be explained by Chinese socio-cultural traditions. In the Chinese society, the indirect communication style or high

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context communication is commonly accepted. People typically view group harmony as more important than personal feelings (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, as cited in Hsu, 2011, p.12). As Hofstede's (1984) model suggested "I" is the center of people in individualistic cultures and "we" is the center of people in collectivistic cultures (as cited in Hsu, 2011, p.12). In the context of collectivism in China, this practice is manifested by Chinese preference of the use of "we" over "I" in the public discourse specifically.

It would seem, therefore, that the Chinese writers were influenced by a set of common ethics, among which humility was the most important. Neither do we boast nor do claim credit for the work we already done. Reflected in the academic discourse, Chinese, to a large extent, showed a weaker sense of personal or social identity and avoided announcing their contribution to the academic community. The absence of explicit author reference was a means by which Chinese writers situated their authorial identity in the research article genre. They probably would rather be considered as a team player than as an individual contributor.

Meanwhile, the Chinese writers paid less attention to address their readers into the texts as participants most probably due to the reader-responsible traditions in Asian countries China in particular. According to Hinds (1987), within reader-responsible cultures, the burden is on readers for extracting meaning from the text. Readers are obliged to sort and evaluate the loosely connected hints on his own, without the writer's assistance (Noor, 2001).

These values in the Chinese cultures contrasted sharply with that of western. Westerners are more open-minded and emphasize personal/social identity to be exist as an individual which is reflected from their high frequent use of self-mention devices. Western culture is believed to be writer-responsible, that the writer plays an important role in guiding readers through a text.

Conclusions

Results of moves/steps identification suggest that each move and its constituent steps were used more frequently in the English L1 texts than L2 texts. To be more specific, the use of topic generalization (Move 1 step 2), indicating a gap (Move 2 step 1A) and presenting positive justification (Move 2 step 2) became the major varieties of L2

English in this genre, while summarizing methods (Move 3 step 4) and announcing principle outcomes (Move 3 step 5) were also less commonly used by Chinese writers compared to their more sophisticated English counterparts. In addition, the researcher noticed that English L1 texts generally had more definitional terms with citations right after "centrality claim" sentences and those parts were identified as an expansion of "claiming centrality" because they functioned more as additional information on the topic than the review of previous studies(Move 1 step 3). Thus, Swales' (1990) assertion about the obligation of "reviewing previous research" was actually questionable in the current study and some disciplinary variation was thus suggested. In the field of Applied Linguistics, most samples in the corpora conformed to the ILrMRD structure, and therefore allowed the absence of this particular step in the introduction section, but a remedy in the consecutive section was present in the "Literature Review".

In terms of metadiscourse devices, both groups made more use of interactive than of interactional metadiscourse in their RA introductions, however was determined by the sharply highest use of evidentials as interactive device in the two corpora. Yet, the English L1 texts and L2 texts, are largely different in the use of evidentials, self-mention, as well as engagement markers. Chinese writers did not provide a more elaborate discussion of the literature review presumably due to the shorter length of the L2 text. Additionally, they also did not individualize their contribution in the field nor mark the presence of their readers through the texts that might be largely influenced by Chinese cultures.

The two different cultures – Chinese and western were discussed according to possible variations. The Confucian thought and China's collectivism tendency, which fully appreciate the importance of group harmony and a set of common ethics, probably influenced the way Chinese writers constructed the RA introduction and engaged with the readers to a large extent. Likewise, the Aristotelian Philosophy dominated in western countries and its tendency toward individualism may affect natives' writing practices. To be more specific, the less common adoption of topic generalization step and presenting positive justification step in the L2 corpus was most probably due to Chinese' weakness in scientific rationality.

Besides, Chinese writers' less use of critical remarks on previous studies could be attributed to their conventions of politeness – the Doctrine of the Mean that discourages overt questioning or argumentation. Lastly, Chinese indirect communication style and its reader-responsible tradition might explain the absence of explicit author reference and less emphasis on readers' role as active participants in the negotiation of the meaning.

Noting the findings from the study, the following implications to the teaching of writing can be drawn:

1. language teachers should be aware of the variation between English L1 text and L2 text authored by Chinese cross-culturally and to avoid regarding L2 English as deviant. Their pedagogical decisions are supposed to be grounded on an understanding of the preferred rhetoric strategies in both cultures to guide Chinese writers to construct research articles, that are, more acceptable and comprehensible to the target readers.
2. Chinese writers are suggested to consolidate the centrality of the topic with a more elaborate and explicit information. Also, they should take courage to objectively evaluate the related literature instead of avoiding the negative comments about their peers. A harmonious environment is undoubtedly very important in the Chinese discourse community, but to establish an environment that encourages individuals to express their ideas openly without hesitation is of great significance.
3. Language teachers may help raise the rhetoric consciousness of Chinese writers, not only to sensitize them in terms of conventional rhetoric but also to equip them in engaging their audiences appropriately. Relevant EAP materials concerning the instruction of academic writing should be devised to give Chinese writers more exposure to different metadiscourse features, especially self-mention and engagement marker.

While this study dwelt on analyzing the Moves (Steps) and metadiscourse of selected RA introductions in two different contexts, much remains to be done to extend the results that have been achieved so far. Further research could probably add one more group

– Chinese L1 group to fully identify Chinese RA introductions in terms of genre structure.

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Ying, Zhu has earned her Master's Degree in English Language Education from De La Salle University Manila in the year 2013. She has presented a paper in international GLOCALL conference. Her research interests include second language education and discourse analysis, etc.

Paulina M. Gocheo, Ph.D. is an associate professor and the chair of the Department of English and Applied Linguistics in De la Salle University Manila, Philippines. She has presented her papers in Asia and in the USA. Her research interests include discourse analysis and contrastive rhetoric.