

GENRE ANALYSIS OF THESIS AND DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS
IN LINGUISTICS WRITTEN BY STUDENTS IN THAILAND AND
STUDENTS IN ENGLAND

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A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy Program in English as an International Language
(Interdisciplinary Program)
Graduate School
Chulalongkorn University
Academic Year 2011
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บทคัดย่อและแฟ้มข้อมูลฉบับเต็มของวิทยานิพนธ์ตั้งแต่ปีการศึกษา 2554 ที่ให้บริการในคลังปัญญาจุฬาฯ (CUIR)
เป็นแฟ้มข้อมูลของนิสิตเจ้าของวิทยานิพนธ์ที่ส่งผ่านทางบัณฑิตวิทยาลัย

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ปริจเฉทวิเคราะห์ของบทคัดย่อวิทยานิพนธ์ชั้นปริญญาโทและวิทยานิพนธ์ชั้นปริญญาเอกสาขา
ภาษาศาสตร์ซึ่งเขียนโดยนักศึกษาในประเทศไทยและนักศึกษาในประเทศอังกฤษ

นางสาวญาณัชพิมพ์ ภาสรวรเวทย์

วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต
สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ (สหสาขาวิชา)
บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย
ปีการศึกษา 2554
ลิขสิทธิ์ของจุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

ณัชชพิมพ์ ภาสกรเวทย์ : ปริเฉทวิเคราะห์ของบทคัดย่อวิทยานิพนธ์ชั้นปริญญาโท
และวิทยานิพนธ์ชั้นปริญญาเอกสาขาภาษาศาสตร์ซึ่งเขียนโดยนักศึกษาในประเทศไทย
และนักศึกษาในประเทศอังกฤษ. (GENRE ANALYSIS OF THESIS AND
DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS IN LINGUISTICS WRITTEN BY
STUDENTS IN THAILAND AND STUDENTS IN ENGLAND)
อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก : อ.ดร. รักสงบ วิจิตรโสภณ, 153 หน้า.

งานวิจัยนี้วิเคราะห์โครงสร้างของบทคัดย่อวิทยานิพนธ์ระดับปริญญาโทและวิทยานิพนธ์ระดับ
ปริญญาเอกสาขาภาษาศาสตร์ซึ่งเขียนโดยนักศึกษาในประเทศไทยและนักศึกษาในประเทศอังกฤษ ข้อมูลที่
ใช้ในงานวิจัยชิ้นนี้ประกอบด้วยบทคัดย่อจำนวน 35 บทจากมหาวิทยาลัยต่างๆในประเทศไทย และอีก 35 บทจาก
มหาวิทยาลัยในประเทศอังกฤษ ผู้วิจัยใช้อรรถภาควิเคราะห์ (Move Analysis) ตามแนวทางของ Swales (1990,
2004) เป็นทฤษฎีต้นแบบ ผู้วิจัยวิเคราะห์ข้อมูลใน 5 แง่มุม ได้แก่ ความถี่ในการเกิดอรรถภาค การเรียงตัว
ของอรรถภาค การเกิดซ้ำของอรรถภาค การซ้อนทับของอรรถภาค (Move Embedding) และความจำเพาะและ
ความมีนัยยะทั่วไป ผลการวิจัยชี้ให้เห็นว่าอรรถภาคหลักที่ใช้โดยนักศึกษาในประเทศไทยและประเทศ
อังกฤษค่อนข้างคล้ายคลึงกัน ในขณะที่การใช้ขั้น (Steps) ค่อนข้างแตกต่างกัน ความแตกต่างที่สำคัญ
ได้แก่แนวโน้มของนักศึกษาไทยที่จะละการใช้อรรถภาคที่ 1 ประการที่สองคือนักศึกษาไทยมีแนวโน้มที่จะ
เขียนบทคัดย่อโดยใช้การเรียงตัวตามแบบแผนในขณะที่ไม่พบแนวโน้มดังกล่าวในบทคัดย่อของนักศึกษา
ในประเทศอังกฤษ ประการสุดท้ายคือบทคัดย่อของนักศึกษาไทยดูเหมือนจะให้ความสำคัญกับอรรถภาคที่ 4
และอรรถภาคที่ 3 ในขณะที่บทคัดย่อของนักศึกษอังกฤษให้ความสำคัญกับอรรถภาคที่ 4 และอรรถภาคที่ 2
ผลที่ได้จากงานวิจัยนี้เป็นประโยชน์ต่อการศึกษาสาขาวิชานานาภาษาอังกฤษโลก และการสอน
ภาษาอังกฤษ โดยเฉพาะภาษาอังกฤษเพื่อวัตถุประสงค์เฉพาะ ผลการศึกษาที่ได้จากงานวิจัยนี้จะสามารถ
ก่อให้เกิดความเข้าใจ ไม่เพียงแต่ในแง่ความแตกต่างทางด้านการเขียนระหว่างชุมชนวาทกรรมทั้งสอง แต่
จะนำไปสู่ความเข้าใจลักษณะเฉพาะของแต่ละกลุ่มภาษา และลักษณะสากลของภาษาด้วยเช่นกัน

สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ...ลายมือชื่อนิสิต

ปีการศึกษา 2554.....ลายมือชื่อ อ.ที่ปรึกษาวิทยานิพนธ์หลัก.....

#518 77618 20 : MAJOR ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE
KEYWORDS : GENRE ANALYSIS/ ABSTRACTS/ CULTURAL VARIATION

YANATCHAPIM PASAVORAVATE: GENRE ANALYSIS OF THESIS
AND DISSERTATION ABSTRACTS IN LINGUISTICS WRITTEN BY
STUDENTS IN THAILAND AND STUDENTS IN ENGLAND. ADVISOR :
RAKSANGOB WIJITSOPON, Ph.D., 153 pp.

This study analyzes the structural organization of thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England.

The data employed in this study consists of 35 abstracts from different universities in Thailand and 35 abstracts from different universities in England. Swales' move analysis is used as a framework for the analysis. The data is examined in 5 aspects: the frequency of moves and steps, the sequence of moves, the repetition of moves, move embedding, and the generality and specificity of moves.

The results show that the moves employed by students in Thailand and in England are quite similar while the steps used are quite different. The major disparity is the tendency for Thai students to omit 'Move 1: Background.' Secondly, Thai students tend to follow the conventional sequence of moves while English students do not. The repetition of moves and move embedding are found to be particular characteristic of the English abstracts. Finally, Thai abstracts seem to place emphasis on 'Move 4: Results' and 'Move 3: Methodology' whereas the English ones place more emphasis on 'Move 4: Results' and 'Move 2: Presenting the Research.'

The findings from this study can be beneficial to both the field of linguistic study, World Englishes, as well as the ELT (English Language Teaching), particularly the ESP (English for Specific Purposes). Hopefully, the results from this study can contribute to some understanding, not only of the differences in writing between the two discourse communities in examination, but also of the particulars and the universals of language as well.

Field of Study : English as an International Language

Student's Signature

Academic Year : 2011

Advisor's Signature

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost I am greatly indebted to Ajarn Dr. Raksangob Wijitsopon, my thesis advisor. Certainly without her, this work would not have been finished. She has been very patient with me and also very understanding. More important than that, she did not only assist me on academic aspects, but also a lot of time when I was about to give up, she gave me support and help me find my will to go on.

I also wish to extend my gratitude to Asst. Prof. Dr. Nattama Pongpairoj, Asst. Prof. Dr. Namtip Pingkarawat, Ajarn Dr. Preena Kangkun, and Asst. Prof. Dr. Ora-ong Chakorn. They have proved to be the best kind of committee a person can have. They gave me a lot of valuable and constructive comments. When they found some limitations or shortcomings, it is the solutions to the problems that they tried to find for me. With their help and support, my thesis is completed. They remind me of the true meaning of committee, which for me refers to people who help make the impossible possible.

My sincere gratitude is extended to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Pachee Yuvachit, Asst. Prof. Dr. Carina Chotirawee, and Ajarn Simon J. P. Wright. Without them, I won't be able to either stand at this point nor be who I am today. They have taught me a lot of things and have given me moral and spiritual support throughout. The faith they have in me pushes me to the top and helps me believe in myself.

Finally, I would like to express my deep gratitude to my family; my beloved parents, my dear husband, and also my precious brother. They have been there for me for all my life and supported me for whatever I choose. Everything I have today, I owe it to them. Therefore, whatever good I have received or will receive, I dedicate them all to my family.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

In recent years, abstracts and abstract writing have gained attention from many scholars. Swales (1990), for example, thought of abstracts as '*independent discourse*' (p.179). Bhatia (1993) also said that it is '*a recognizable genre*' (p. 77). What these scholars seem to agree with each other is that the genre of abstract has distinct characteristics and thus is worth paying attention to.

As research and studies are growing in number these days, the significance of abstracts becomes stronger. First of all, as millions of dissertations, research and journal articles are published each year, scholars are experiencing information bombardment. It is impossible for a person to read all. They have to scan to see which work suits their needs. This can be done by looking at the titles for a start. Most of the time, however, titles are not enough. Readers then have to move on to read an abstract in order to see what the work is really about. Thus, it is the abstract that is the gateway to judge whether the work is to be read further or not.

Secondly, if the work is to be read, an abstract can still be of help. It can serve as a preliminary guideline telling what is to be followed in the full text. By reading it, readers have an overall understanding of what the work is about and thus comprehend it more easily. After finishing the whole text, an abstract can also act as a reminder of things one has read.

Moreover, looking at an abstract can reflect whether the writer acknowledges and follows conventions unique to each discourse community or not. Since each community has its own conventions and restrictions in terms of the discourse used, which is also true in the case of abstract writing, following certain conventions when writing an abstract then can show whether one belongs to certain discourse community or not. Being a member of a discourse community is considered important not only because it can help the writers catch the readers' attention, but also because it can give the writers the professional creditability needed in order to address the topic as an insider (Hyland 2000). In fact, Bhatia (2007) even claimed that this recurrent use of discursal patterns by writers does not only give them solidarity with the members of their discourse communities, but also it is '*their most powerful weapon to keep the outsiders at a safe distance*' (p. 118). This issue is especially important when it comes to thesis and dissertation abstracts. This is because dissertations, along with their abstracts, are usually one of the first few works that students publish. They are thus the works that launch them into the academic life in their discipline.

Because of the significance of an abstract as stated above, research has been conducted on the topic. Most of the studies focus on abstracts in science and medical discipline (Salager-Meyer 1990, 1994; Cross and Oppenheim 2005; Kanoksilapatham 2005, 2009). However, the findings from one discipline cannot be said to be true in another discipline. This is because the genre of abstracts can vary as a result of the disciplinary difference. A lot of works have been done to confirm this point (Hyland 2000; Samraj 2002; Giannoni 2005; Kanoksilapatham 2005). When it comes to abstracts in the field of linguistics, not many studies have been done. Among them are Santos (1996); Melander, Swales and Fredrickson (1997); and Pho (2008). Because of this scarcity, study on abstracts in linguistics field then is still needed. Moreover, as linguistics is a study of language, it is quite interesting to see how, in practice, these students of language use language. Another important reason why abstracts in the field of linguistics deserve to be studied is that according to Melander, Swales and Fredrickson (1997), it is abstracts in the field of linguistics that exemplify variation caused by cultural differences the most.

Furthermore, as today English has become an international language, it is not surprising that its importance has increased in every area, including the academic field. In order for a research article to be recognized worldwide, both its abstract and full text article have to be written in English. When it comes to dissertation abstracts, the significance of English is also great. In Thailand, though dissertations can be written in Thai, their abstracts must be written both in Thai and in English.

What is interesting here is that these English versions of abstracts written by Thai students are regarded as the writing of L2 learners. Here is where culture plays an important role. Many studies have shown that culture is one of the important factors affecting discourse and genre (Clyne 1981; Taylor and Chen 1991; Bhatia 1993; Kaplan 1996; Ahmed 1997; Scollon and Scollon 2001; Upton and Connor 2001; Giannoni 2005). When it comes to the genre of abstracts, however, the literature on the effect of culture is still quite limited. Among them are Bonn and Swales (2007); Martin (2003); Melander, Swales and Fredrickson (1997); and Yakhontova (2006). Because of the eminent effect of culture and the scantiness of the studies on the topic, it is interesting to see how cultural difference exerts its influence on the writing of abstracts by students in Thailand.

Another point to be noticed here is that all of the studies mentioned are on research article abstracts (RA abstracts). When it comes to thesis and dissertation abstracts, the research is still very limited. In fact, to the best of my knowledge, the only work conducted on thesis and dissertation abstracts is Prabripoo (2009) which investigates the organization of Ph.D. abstracts in science from Faculty of Science, Mahidol University.

Seeing these gaps, this study proposes to do a genre-based comparative study of thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England. The study employs move analysis proposed by Swales (1990) as its framework. The analysis is done in 5 dimensions: the frequency of moves and steps, the sequence of moves, the repetition of moves, move embedding, and the generality and specificity of moves.

The study attempts to address two points. Firstly, it seeks to find the move structures that characterize abstracts written by students in Thailand and students in England. Secondly, the study attempts to compare and contrast the move structures of abstracts written by students in the two groups to see the impact of culture on their writing.

1.2 Research Questions

1. What are the move structures that characterize thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England?
2. What are the similarities and differences between the move structures employed in thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

1. To investigate the move structures employed in thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England.
2. To compare and contrast the move structures employed in thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England.

1.4 Statement of Hypotheses

The statement of hypotheses is as follows:

- Thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England are similar in terms of the types of '*moves*' employed. The '*steps*' used in each move, however, are different.
- Thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England are different in terms of the frequency of moves and steps, the sequence of moves, the repetitions of moves, move embedding and the generality and specificity of moves.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The scope of the study is defined by many factors. Firstly, this study aims at analyzing thesis and dissertation abstracts only. By the term '*thesis and dissertation abstracts*,' I refer to abstracts written for Master Degree thesis and Ph. D. dissertation. Since each kind of abstracts, be it thesis and dissertation abstracts, research article abstracts, conference abstracts, is different (Kaplan 1994), the findings from this study can shed lights on the area of thesis and dissertation abstracts only.

Secondly, in terms of disciplines, the study focuses on thesis and dissertation abstracts in the field of linguistics only. Since disciplinary difference is one of the factors affecting abstracts' discourse and structure, abstracts from different disciplines can have different characteristics. The findings from this study, consequently, can be applied only to abstracts in the linguistic field.

Thirdly, in the dimension of culture, this study proposes to compare abstracts that are different in terms of the culture of their discourse communities. The focus is on thesis and dissertation abstracts written by students in Thailand and students in England. The results then can be applied to these two specific discourse communities only. The findings can be, moreover, an illustration of non-native speaker's version of Thai English.

1.6 Limitations of the Study

Although the study is cautiously designed, still there are some limitations in the study:

- 1) One of the criticisms upon this study might be the size of the two corpora used. This study relies on two corpora of 35 abstracts each. The total number of abstracts involves in the study then is 70. However, according to Baker (2006) and Leech (1992), size is not necessarily a major thing to consider especially if a corpus is a specialized one. The most important thing is that it is big enough to yield significant results. In this case the pilot study, which was conducted on 50 abstracts, also shows that significant results can be obtained from this set of data.
- 2) The second limitation of this study is the nationalities of the writers of the abstracts used as data in the two corpora. In this study, there are two corpora: the Thai corpus and the English corpus. Firstly, as for the Thai corpus, it can be said that all the writers of the abstracts are Thai. This can be done by checking the names of the writers. Abstracts of which writers' names are not Thai were excluded from the corpus. Since all the writers of the abstracts in the Thai corpus are Thai, it can be said that these abstracts represent Thai English.

As for the abstracts in the English corpus, however, the matter is more complicated. The corpus is intended to be the representative of the English language written by English people. This poses some problems because the universities in England are quite international in terms of the nationalities of their students. To solve this issue, the researcher chose to use the same method as in the Thai corpus, that is, to check the first names and family names of the abstracts' writers to see whether they are Anglo-Saxon names or not. The name screening process was done by a university lecturer who is a native speaker of English. Because of this fact, he could identify whether the names belong to the Anglo-Saxon tradition or not. Certainly, by using this method, some of the writers who are of English nationalities but with the names showing their family traits which belong to other countries were excluded from the corpus. It is true that these people cannot be said to be less English or that their language is not native English. However, to avoid any controversy, only writers of Anglo-Saxon names were included in the corpus. The researcher is aware of the fact that employing this name screening method has certain limitations as stated above. However, it is the most practical method to date. In addition, the reliability of the method is partly guaranteed by the fact that it is used in previous research such as Yakhontova (2006) and Bonn and Swales (2007) as well.

1.7 Definitions of Terms

- *Genre analysis*: the term 'genre analysis' used in this study refers to the tradition of the ESP (English for Specific Purposes) school as represented by Swales (1990, 2004) and Bhatia (1993) only. The details about this can be found in section 2.3.1.1 of Chapter 2.
- *Move*: a segment that performs particular communicative functions in any given text.
- *Step or Strategy*: an element in each move that performs functions in order to achieve the communicative goal of the move it belongs to.
- *Frequency of moves*: the number of times a move happens in a corpus.
- *Sequence of moves*: the order that moves occur.
- *Repetition of moves*: the repetition of the use of moves.
- *A conventional move*: a move with the frequency of occurrence of at least 60% in the entire corpus
- *An optional move*: a move with the frequency of occurrence of less than 60% in the entire corpus
- *CARS Model*: the acronym stands for Creating a Research Space Model. This is a pioneer model to be used for move analysis originated by Swales

(1990). Originally it is used in order to analyze research article introductions.

- *Thesis and dissertation abstracts*: in this present study, these terms refer to Master Degree theses and Doctoral Degree dissertations.
- *L1*: first language
- *L2*: second language
- *RA Abstract*: research article abstract
- *ESP*: English for Specific Purposes
- *Discourse Community*: a community of professionals who employ particular uniform discourse. In each discourse community, there are certain restrictions and conventions for the members to follow. According to Swales (1990) and Duszak (1997), discourse communities are founded on shared discursal patterns and expectations.
- *Linguistics*: in this study, the term ‘linguistics’ is used in a broad sense. According to Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English, linguistics is ‘*the study of language in general and of particular languages, their structure, grammar, and history*’ (p. 1018). In this study then, ‘linguistics’ encompasses both pure linguistics and applied linguistics.

1.8 Significance of the Study

This study is conducted with the hope of providing contributions to the field of linguistics, World Englishes, as well as English Language Teaching (ELT).

Firstly, for the field of linguistics, the findings from this research can provide a valuable description of the move structures employed in thesis and dissertation abstracts in the field of linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England. These findings thus can add to the literature in the field of discourse analysis and genre analysis.

Secondly, since this study is a comparison between thesis and dissertation abstracts written by students in Thailand and students in England, it can contribute to the field of World Englishes. Findings from this study can yield the characteristics of the variety of Thai English with respect to the specific genre of abstracts in the field of linguistics. Moreover, it can point out some similarities and differences between Thai English and British English.

Finally, the findings from this study can benefit the field of English Language Teaching (ELT), especially the ESP (English for Specific Purposes). The reason is because in language teaching and learning of ESP, the most important thing is for learners to achieve ability to use the language in the context that they are a part of (Bhatia 1997). The result from the analysis of a genre can assist in this point because it offers explanations about the way members of each discourse community employ

and manipulate generic convention and disciplinary culture in order to achieve their intention. Genre analysis, therefore, has become a major force in teaching and learning of a language especially in a specialist discipline (Bhatia 1997). It is believed that the results of move analysis, for example, can be taught to novice writers of particular genre (Bhatia 1993; Upton and Connor 2001).

As for the findings from this present study, they can provide pedagogical implications for the teaching and learning of abstract writing, specifically to non-native speakers of English like Thai students. Usually, when English is transferred from L1 context to L2 context, what goes along with it is the cultural aspect of the L1 language. Most learners of English, however, tend to operate within their own native socio-cultural context. This is why many a time the communication across cultural boundary is not successful. Yet, this does not mean that Thai students should copy and follow the convention and practice of students in England or other native speakers of English. That is not at all the intention behind second language learning and teaching. Rather, the goal is for the L2 learners to be able to transfer the socio-cultural context of their L1 to their L2 writing without being dictated. According to Bhatia (1997b), this can be done by understanding the nativized norm and then creating a norm for international use on that model instead of creating a totally different one. The best way is to make learners aware of the cross-cultural variation and at the same time try to elevate their ability to '*negotiate, accommodate and accept plurality of norms*' (p. 318).

It is in this respect that the findings from this present study can be of help. At an initial stage, it can be used by teachers of English to exemplify the similarities and differences of abstract writing in the two discourse communities. This is, as Bhatia suggested, to make L2 learners become aware of the cross-cultural variation. From this, students can recognize the organizational and rhetorical structures as well as the linguistic features of the writing in each community. As a result, if they are successful in '*negotiating*' and '*accommodating*' the norms, these students can achieve the proper writing style of abstracts for their own L2 academic communities without neglecting the norms of the L1.

In the following chapter, background information about the genre of abstracts, the theories and frameworks used in order to analyze the data in this study, as well as previous literature on the topic are presented in order to build up the fundamental background needed to facilitate the reading of this work.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

2.1 Overview

In this chapter, key points and literature related to this study are reviewed. There are three major topics: abstracts, genre analysis, and the effect of culture on discourse and genre.

Because the subject of this study concerns thesis and dissertation abstracts, the first part of this chapter provides information about the genre of abstracts. Basic concepts about abstracts such as definition and general features are provided. The chapter then proceeds to talk about significance of abstracts and identify the various types. Subsequently, literature done on abstracts is reviewed.

The second part provides the concept of genre analysis which is the approach employed in this research. This comprises three major traditions of genre analysis: the ESP school, the New Rhetoric Studies, and the Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), followed by the idea of genre analysis according to Swales and Bhatia. The next section is about genre variation: disciplinary variation and cultural variation. The last part presents the strengths and limitations of genre analysis.

The final part of this chapter is devoted to the discussion of the effect of culture on discourse and genre. Firstly, the effect of culture on discourse is examined. Later in the section, the effect of culture on genre, both the genre of abstracts and others, is illustrated. The cultural frameworks used in this study are also illustrated at the end of this chapter.

2.2 Abstracts

In this section, preliminary information about the genre of abstracts and some literature relevant to the topic are discussed.

2.2.1 Definitions and General Features of Abstracts

The American National Standards Institute (ANSI) gives this definition of an abstract as quoted in Bhatia (1993) as follows:

An abstract is an abbreviated, accurate representation of the contents of a document, preferably prepared by its author(s) for publication with it. (p. 78)

(ANSI, 1979)

Bhatia (1993) himself offers a similar definition that an abstract is:

A description of factual summary of the much longer report, and is meant to give the reader an exact and concise knowledge of the full article. (p. 78)

Based on the definitions aforementioned, it can be seen that an abstract is basically a piece of writing that illustrates the content of the full text it represents with a summarizing nature.

In terms of the general features of an abstract, first and foremost is that it is a representation of a full text providing content that is similar to that of its full version. Moreover, as the definitions at the opening of this chapter illustrate, the nature of abstract is on summary or what Hyland (2000) refers to as '*selective representation*' (p. 64). It summarizes and reports only the essential parts of the full text it represents. Because an abstract is significantly shorter than its full text, it becomes the concise and condensed nature of the text. What follows thus is the complexity of the syntax which occurs as a result of an attempt to report all information in a limited space. The use of jargons and acronyms is also common in an abstract. Swales (1990) points out that the essence of an abstract is that of '*distillation*' (p. 179). It is because of this quality of '*distillation*' that the genre stands out from others.

In many cases, it also reflects the organizational and rhetorical structure used in the original text. Swales (1990) claims, for example, that an abstract imitates the IMRD structure (Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion) of a research article, with only a couple of sentences for each section. In the work of Salager-Mayer (1990), it is also suggested that an abstract should employ the structure and the moves used in its full text.

The purpose of an abstract is also unique. It is persuasive in intent. This is because it is normally the first part of any writing that is going to be examined. It is a piece of writing written with the aim to persuade readers to be interested in the full text it represents and continue reading it. It can be said that the function of an abstract is to sell the product which is the original text it represents in this case.

2.2.2 Significance of Abstracts

Even though an abstract mirrors the full text, it is still recognized as a separate genre and has importance of its own. This fact is agreed upon by many scholars. Swales (1990), for example, considers it an '*independent discourse*' (p. 179). Bhatia (1993) also says that it is '*a recognizable genre*' (p. 77). This results from the fact that it has its own distinct characteristics.

Apart from being an established genre in its own right, an abstract is worth being examined because it has other importance. Studies show that the significance of an abstract is gradually increasing. Hyland (2000), for example, compared 30 articles and found that more articles written in 1997 have abstracts than articles written in 1980. Also, the length of abstracts of articles written in 1997 is greater than those written in 1980. This manifests that as time passes, academia has begun to give more importance to abstracts and devote more space to them. The importance of abstracts can also be seen from the increasing number of journals that published only abstracts which become useful sources of information for scholars as pointed out by Santos (1996) and Melander, Swales and Fredrickson (1997). *Linguistics and Language Behavior Abstracts* (LLBA) can be cited as one of the examples of this type of publication.

As research is at present growing in number, the significance of the abstract becomes greater. Millions of theses and dissertations, research and journal articles are published each year. Scholars are thus bombarded by information which Swales and Feak (2009) refer to as '*information explosion*' (p. 1). It is impossible for anyone to read them all and therefore one must scan a text to see which work suits their needs. This can be done by perusing the titles for a start. Most of the time, however, the title is not adequate as an indicator. Readers then have to move on to an abstract and find out what the work is really about. So it is the abstract that is the gateway to judge whether the work should be read any further or not. Nevertheless, if the reader decides to read the work, the abstract can still be of help. It can serve as a preliminary guideline to what is to be followed in the full text. By reading it, readers have an idea of what the work is about and this can facilitate their reading of the full text. After finishing the entire text, the abstract can also act as a reminder of things one has read.

Moreover, an abstract can serve as an indication as to whether one belongs to a member of certain discourse community or not. Discourse community is a group of people sharing the same ideology and practice. Normally there are conditions for being a member. Employing ritualized discourse is one of those requirements. According to Hyland (2000), writers '*must recognize and replicate the field's organizational structures, beliefs and authorized institutional practices*' in order that both they and their works are accepted in the field (p. 64). This is to ensure that members in the community share the same meaning and speak the same language. Looking at the writing of an abstract thus can be one way to prove whether the writer belongs to the same discourse community or not. If it is so, it lends credibility to the work. The writer is then proved to be a member of the community and thus deserves to be heard.

2.2.3 Types of Abstracts

There are many types of abstracts. Firstly, according to Hartley (2002), it can be divided into two types: structured abstracts and unstructured abstracts. A structured abstract is one that is divided into many sections with solid sub-headings like 'Background,' 'Method,' 'Results' and 'Conclusion.' According to Hartley (2002), this type of abstract has become increasingly popular in medical research journals. An unstructured abstract, on the other hand, is an abstract that is not divided into sections. The format thus is not fixed. The rhetorical structure incorporated in this kind of abstract can then vary, for example, in terms of the existence of move, move sequencing, move embedding, or even the sub-moves. Note that the data used in this study includes only unstructured abstracts. This is due to the fact that for structured abstracts, all sections have already been labeled and put in order. There is no need to analyze the move structure of this type of abstract.

According to Swales and Feak (2009), using another parameter, abstracts can be divided into three categories: indicative abstracts, informative abstracts and indicative-informative abstracts. The indicative abstract is the abstract that states the content of the full text in general, not in detail, and does not include the discussion and conclusion part. The informative abstract, on the other hand, states everything possible about the full text in detail including the discussion and conclusion. It can be said to be the most complete and thorough type of abstract. The indicative-informative abstract falls in the middle of the continuum. It falls in between the first two types. The indicative-informative abstracts have all the features of an abstract including discussion and conclusion. In this respect it is similar to the informative abstract. The difference is that the indicative-informative abstracts only state the information in general, and not in detail. In this respect it thus resembles the indicative abstracts.

Apart from these two categorizations, abstracts can also be separated into many kinds: journal article abstracts, thesis and dissertation abstracts, conference abstracts or abstracts responding to '*call for paper*,' for instance. Each type of abstract has a distinct purpose and thus different characteristics (Kaplan 1994).

The type of abstract that is of interest in this study is the abstract written for theses and dissertations. The reason for this is because thesis and dissertation abstracts are an interesting genre, especially for non-native speakers of English. Every student wishing to obtain a Master's or Doctoral Degree must complete a thesis or dissertation, an abstract being an obligatory part of it. Whether the dissertation is going to be read or not depends largely on the quality and readability of the abstracts. Like journal article abstracts then, thesis and dissertation abstracts are the first gateway through the work. More importantly, today in many countries, even though English is not the first or second language, it is still required that the abstracts of

thesis and dissertation are written in English. So although some people cannot read or understand the full text of thesis or dissertation, they can get a glimpse of it from the abstracts. Then it can be decided later whether the work is relevant or worth being explored or not. Thus, it is the abstracts that play a crucial role in making the work known to the outside community at the international level.

2.2.4 Studies on Abstracts

This section reviews literature and studies on abstracts. In order to facilitate the reading, studies on abstracts are divided into sub-sections: studies on research article abstracts, and studies on thesis and dissertation abstracts.

2.2.4.1 Studies on Research Article Abstracts

Most of the studies on abstracts concentrate on research article abstracts. The majority of these are studies on research article abstracts in science. Research article abstracts in other fields, including linguistics which is the focal point of this present study, gain less attention from scholars. And since abstracts in each field have their own individual characteristics, it is more suitable to separate them into different sub-sections as follows:

2.2.4.1.1 Studies on Research Article Abstracts in Science

Early studies on research article abstracts and a considerable number of later works have been done in the scientific field. The importance of abstracts in the field of science is immense. According to Cross and Oppenheim (2005), abstract is ‘*a standard gateway*’ to research of the scientific community (p. 429).

Cross and Oppenheim (2005), for example, examine 12 abstracts from the field of protozoology. They analyze the move structure as well as the thematic structure. For the move structure, they found that the data in the corpus follow the five-move pattern: ‘Relation to Other Research,’ ‘Purpose,’ ‘Methodology,’ ‘Results’ and ‘Discussion.’ Moreover, it is ‘Methodology’ and ‘Results’ moves that are obligatory as they are present in all abstracts. Regarding the thematic structure, abstracts thematise grammatical subjects by referring to the discourse and the real world domain. As a result, authors succeed in situating their research in an objective and detached world of scientific discourse.

Kanoksilapatham (2009b) also investigates the nature of research article abstracts in scientific field. In her study, she examines 60 abstracts in civil engineering. The analysis yields similar result to Cross and Oppenheim (2005) that there are five moves in the abstracts: ‘Background,’ ‘Purpose,’ ‘Methodology,’ ‘Result’ and ‘Discussion.’ The moves that are found most are ‘Methodology’ and ‘Result.’ This finding then also confirms the result in the above study.

Kanoksilapatham (2009a) also examined the organizational structure of research article abstracts in science. Here she investigates research article abstracts from four disciplines: biochemistry, microbiology, civil engineering and software engineering. The result again validates the findings in the two previous studies: these abstracts follow a five-move structure: ‘Background Information,’ ‘Purposive Statement,’ ‘Methodological Description,’ ‘Result Announcement and Discussion,’ ‘Conclusion and Implication.’ It is found that ‘Result’ and ‘Discussion’ tend to occur together. Also they are the most common moves in all the abstracts.

From the above studies, it can be seen that abstracts from the same field seem to share similar patterns and characteristics. For example, in all three works mentioned, abstracts in the scientific field seem to comply with a five-move pattern. Moreover, it seems that the methodology and result parts are the ones that are highlighted in abstracts from this field.

However, when it comes to other fields like social science or linguistics, these findings might not be totally applicable. This is partly because of the effect of disciplinary differences. The result, however, is that though quite a number of research have been done on abstracts in the scientific and medical fields, these findings cannot be applied to abstracts in other disciplines including the discipline of linguistics which is the focus of this study. Studies on research article abstracts in the field of linguistics then are illustrated separately in the following section.

2.2.4.1.2 Studies on Research Article Abstracts in Linguistics

Among the studies on research article abstracts in linguistics is the work by Santos (1996). In this study, he investigates the textual patterns and linguistic features of 94 research article abstracts from three leading journals: 37 abstracts from *Language Learning*, 31 abstracts from *Applied Linguistics* and 26 abstracts from *the TESOL Quarterly*. The result is that the abstracts are structured on the basis of five-move pattern: ‘Situating the Research,’ ‘Presenting the Research,’ ‘Describing the Methodology,’ ‘Summarizing the Results’ and ‘Discussing the Research.’ In his study, however, moves that are considered obligatory are ‘Presenting the Research’ and ‘Describing the Methodology’ because they occur in every abstract in the corpus.

Another work that focuses on abstracts in linguistics is Pho (2008). Here the author examined 30 research article abstracts from three journals in the field of linguistics and educational technology published between 2005 and 2006. The textual organization and authorial stances are the focus of the study. Pho uses the move structure of Santos (1996) as his framework. The finding here is in line with that of Santos (1996): the abstracts from *Language Journal* and *TESOL Quarterly* which are linguistics abstracts follow the five-move pattern: ‘Situating the Research,’ ‘Presenting the Research,’ ‘Describing the Methodology,’ ‘Summarizing the Results’

and ‘Discussing the Research.’ However, the abstracts from *Computer & Education* which are scientific abstracts only contain 3 or 4 moves. This finding thus can confirm the disciplinary differences between the field of linguistics and science. In terms of move frequency, ‘Presenting the Research,’ ‘Describing the Methodology,’ and ‘Summarizing the Results’ are found to be the most frequently used moves in his corpus. This is in line with Santos (1996) as well.

2.2.4.2. Studies on Thesis and Dissertation Abstracts

All of the works on abstracts mentioned above are done on research article abstracts only. When it comes to thesis and dissertation abstracts, the only work found is Prabripoo (2009).

Prabripoo (2009) examines the organization of thirty Ph. D. abstracts in Science written by students from Faculty of Science, Mahidol University, dated 2006-2007. Prabripoo analyzed the abstracts using Taddio et.al. (1994)’s framework. According to this framework, there are eight moves: ‘Purpose,’ ‘Research Design,’ ‘Setting,’ ‘Subjects,’ ‘Intervention,’ ‘Measurement of Variables,’ ‘Results,’ and ‘Conclusion,’ with other 33 sub-moves. The result is that abstracts in the corpus fit into the framework of Taddio 8 moves. However, when it comes to the sub-moves, there is certain discrepancy because some sub-moves are not used at all. However, the major focus of this work is only to see the frequency of occurrence of each move, and to consider whether or not it fits the framework proposed by Taddio. It does not analyze other aspects of move organization. Thus the work is only quantitative in nature, without qualitative explanation. Moreover, it can be seen that this work employs Taddio’s framework which is created especially for abstracts in scientific field. This framework cannot accommodate abstracts in other fields because it was specially designed for the moves and steps particular to the abstracts from the scientific field. Thus the results from this work are only applicable for scientific abstracts.

From the above information, it can be seen that for abstracts in the linguistics field, as well as thesis and dissertation abstracts, more works are still needed.

Seeing this gap, this study seeks to do a genre analysis of thesis and dissertation abstracts in the field of linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England. Since genre analysis is the approach selected to be used in this research, the following section is devoted to the concept of genre analysis.

2.3 Genre Analysis

This part provides preparatory information regarding genre analysis. It will describe the concepts of genre analysis in different schools. Genre analysis employed in this research, however, is that of the ESP school (English for Specific Purposes)

proposed by Swales (1990, 2004) and Bhatia (1993). Thus the focus shall be genre analysis in this tradition. Swales' genre analysis and Bhatia's genre analysis are discussed first. The next section is genre variation across disciplines and across culture. Following this information are the drawbacks and limitations of genre analysis.

Within the last 15 years, the concept of genre analysis has become very popular. Studies along this line have been done in many fields, especially those concerned with L1 and L2 teaching and learning. Candlin (1993), as quoted in Bhatia (1993), has this to say when he remarks about the rapid growth of genre analysis '*What is it about the term and the area of study it represents that attracts such attention?...Clearly, a concept that has found its time*' (p. ix). However, when it comes to a very simple question as to define genre analysis, the task is not that straightforward or easy to be done. One of the reasons is because of the existence of many traditions of genre analysis. The concept varies according to different schools of thought. Although genre analysis adopted in this research is that of the ESP school, it is important to firstly understand the concept of genre analysis in all traditions. The next section then is about different schools of genre theory.

2.3.1 Traditions of Genre Analysis

Genre analysis can roughly be divided into three traditions where the concept has been most fully developed. The first one is the ESP school. The second one is North American New Rhetoric Studies or what Bhatia (2004) called the American School of Genre Studies. The last one is Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) or in Bhatia (2004)'s term the Sydney School of Systemic Functional Approach to Genre. Each of these schools' basic ideas is discussed in the following section.

2.3.1.1 The ESP School

The concept of genre study in the ESP school originates from the seminal work of Swales (1981, 1990, 2004) and would later be developed by an important figure like Bhatia. The basic idea along this line is that genres are '*communicative events*' that can be characterized by their '*communicative purposes*' and by different patterns of structure, style, content and intended audience (Bhatia 1993). The ESP approach sees genre as a tool for analyzing and also teaching language for non-native speakers both in the academic area (following Swales) and professional setting (following Bhatia).

The concern of the tradition is both form and social function. When analyzing texts, the ESP approach pays attention to giving details about formal characteristics of a genre. Less attention, however, is paid to specialized functions of texts and their social contexts.

In fact, the analysis of genre can be done at many levels as will be discussed later in section 2.3.3.3. Nevertheless, following Swales (1981, 1990)'s tradition, many researchers focus their studies on the rhetorical organization of texts or what is called *'move analysis.'* Some have been done on research articles (Swales 1981, 1990), Master of Science dissertations (Hopkins and Dudley-Evans 1988), medical abstracts (Salager-Meyer 1990) or business letters (Bhatia 1993). Genre analysis by this school, however, can be done at the level of linguistic features like verb tenses, hedges or voices as well. Works following this path are Salager-Meyer (1994); Swales (1990); and Tarone, Dwyer, Gillette, and Icke (1981).

The implications of genre analysis in this tradition are aimed towards English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Professional Communication (EPC). Genre-based application can help non-native speakers of English to be familiar with the convention of organization and linguistic features used in their disciplines and professional settings. The emphasis is on the teaching of genre structure and features to non-native speakers of English.

2.3.1.2 New Rhetoric Studies

The basic idea of the New Rhetoric School was first introduced in the work of Miller (1984) *'Genre as Social Action.'* While the ESP approach focuses its attention on the textual organization and features of each genre, the New Rhetoric School is more concerned with the situational contexts in which the genre occurs and with the social purposes, or as it is called *'action'* in this tradition, that these genres accomplish within the situation. This is like what Miller (1984) said that *'a rhetorical sound definition of genre must be centered not on the substance or the form of discourse but on the action it is used to accomplish'* (p. 151). Moreover, while the ESP school focuses on applications for non-native speakers of English, the New Rhetoric School is concerned with L1 teaching in terms of rhetoric, composition and professional writing.

Because the New Rhetoric School emphasizes the importance of function and context of genre, they do not look at linguistic features in the analysis. It is in fact ethnographic methods that have been employed in order to describe the contexts and actions surrounding the genre such as veterinary medical record in Schryer (1993), scientific research in Bazerman (1988) or bank offices in Smart (1992).

As for the implication of the genre theory in this tradition, it is less concerned with the teaching of the texts in each genre than with the attempt to make university students and novice professionals understand the *'action'* or social functions, and contexts of the genre.

2.3.1.3. Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)

Genre analysis in this tradition revolves around the theory of language called the Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). This theory is formulated by Michael Halliday, founder of the Linguistics Department of the University of Sydney, who has since become a major influence on language theory and education in Australia (Hyon 1996). According to this theory, the concern is on the relationship between language and its function in the society. The form of language is shaped by features of social contexts that surround it. Halliday and Hasan (1989) called these features '*field*' (the activity going on), '*tenor*' (the relationship between participants), and '*mode*' (the channel of communication).

From the above information, it can be seen that the focus of SFL theory is more on register than genre. However, students of Halliday have developed genre theory within this tradition. The major figure is Jim Martin. According to Martin, Christie, and Rothery (1987), as quoted in Hyon (1996), genre is '*staged, goal-oriented social processes, structural forms that cultures use in certain contexts to achieve various purposes*' (p. 697). Unlike the first two traditions that focus on academic and professional settings, the focus of the Australian school is on primary and secondary school genres and nonprofessional workplace texts. The Australian school, like the ESP approach, gives interest to linguistic features that are characteristic of each genre. It is this attention paid on form that distinguishes the Australian school from the New Rhetoric Studies. However, compared with the ESP approach, the Australian school is different because of the fact that it analyzes textual features by employing Hallidayan schemes of linguistic analysis associated with '*field*,' '*tenor*,' and '*mode*.'

As for the application of genre analysis of the Australian SFL School, it is centered on children and adolescents in primary and secondary schools. Recently, the application has extended to adult migrant English education and workplace training programs (Hyon 1996). Genre-based instruction has been developed as an educational experiment in schools in Sydney. Researchers examine the writing that primary and secondary school children have to do and develop approaches in order to facilitate that. This attempt was originated from the project that was founded by many researchers in the late 1980s called the Literacy and Education Research Network (LERN). The goal is to develop instructional approach that can help students to succeed in school genres. And since then genre-based applications have been developed continuously.

The approach that is most suitable and is adopted by this present study is the ESP school as proposed by Swales and Bhatia. There are two reasons why this tradition is adopted. The first reason is because of '*the context*' of the theory. Genre analysis in the ESP tradition is originally created for ESP (English for Specific

Purposes). Under the umbrella of ESP are EAP (English for Academic Purposes) and EPC (English for Professional Communication). Since this research is being conducted on abstract writing which is considered as one type of academic discourse, it is considered in the boundary of EAP as well. Using this ESP approach to genre analysis with the analysis of abstract writing thus is only natural. Moreover, genre analysis developed by Swales (1990, 2004) was originated with the context of English for non-native speakers in mind. Since this research seeks to compare and contrast the textual pattern of abstracts written by students in Thailand and students in England, the context is also English written by non-native speakers. The framework thus serves the purpose right.

The second reason why the ESP approach is selected is because of its multi-faceted nature. The ESP approach focuses both on the macro and micro structure and both the function and the form of the texts. By analyzing the move structure of the texts, it is the communicative functions that are examined. By exploring the linguistic features, the attention is paid to the form. So it is both the function and the form that are being looked upon. For the New Rhetoric Studies and the Australian SFL School, however, the focus is more on the social aspect of the language. This is because they pay more attention to the relationship between language and the social setting.

Because of the reasons stated above, the ESP approach is selected as a framework for this study. The next section is devoted to a detailed illustration of the concept of genre and genre analysis according to this tradition. As the prominent figures in this tradition are Swales and Bhatia, their concepts and ideas are described in the following section.

2.3.2 Swales' Genre Analysis

Before we move on to genre analysis, it is important to understand what exactly the concept of genre means in the ESP genre analysis tradition. This notion is clarified by Swales (1990).

2.3.2.1. Swales' Definition of Genre

According to Swales, the concept of genre is defined as follows:

A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. (Swales 1990: 59)

However, as Swales , genre is a fuzzy concept. He then tries to make the concept more tangible by proposing that genre requires 5 characteristics:

1. *A genre is a class of communicative event.* For communicative event, language plays an important role, and it is also true in the case of genre. Communicative events can vary from a very common one to the rare type. And finally, communicative events, and also genre, as being a part of it, deals with the discourse, its participants and also its role and the context.
2. Since a genre is a means to accomplish a communicative goal, Swales considered that *'the principle criteria feature that turns a collection of communicative events into a genre is some shared set of communicative purposes'* (p. 46). It is these communicative purposes that govern and distinguish the genre structure and lexico-grammatical features of each genre.
3. *Exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypicality.* According to this assumption, some features are to be regarded as prototypical of one genre rather than another genre.
4. *The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning and form.* This means that after being aware of the communicative purposes, there will be a rationale behind a genre. And it is this rationale that governs the framework and the content of the genre.
5. A discourse community's nomenclature for genres is an important source of insight. This means that once a genre is given a name, it has become an established one. And from its name, most people realize what to expect from that certain genre.

2.3.2.2 Swales' Concept of Genre Analysis

According to Swales (1990), the main focus of genre analysis is to analyze 'moves' and 'steps' of a genre by dividing the units of discourse in the texts according to their communicative purposes. This tradition of doing genre analysis by investigating the moves of the texts was originated from Swales (1981), *'Aspects of Article Introductions.'* Bhatia sees this work as the most significant contribution to the field of genre analysis in this tradition. Swales subsequently developed a more complete work in Swales (1990). To understand genre analysis in this tradition then, it is important to first understand the concept of 'move'.

2.3.2.2.1 The Concept of Moves

According to Swales (1990), a move is '*a segment of texts that performs a specific communicative purpose*' (p. 148). Usually a text consists of many moves. Each move has its own communicative function that contributes to the purpose of the whole text. The moves that are frequently and indispensable are called '*conventional moves*.' The ones that can be discarded are called '*optional moves*.' In each move, there can be many '*steps*' or '*strategies*.' These '*steps*' are used in order to achieve the communicative purpose of the move they belong to.

2.3.2.2.2 Swales' Framework of Move Analysis

Swales (1981) analyzes the introduction section of 48 research articles written in English from three different disciplines: 16 from physics, electronics and chemical engineering, 16 from biology/ medical field, and 16 from social sciences.

From the analysis, it is found that there are four moves in research article introductions across disciplines:

- Move 1: Establishing the Field
- Move 2: Summarizing Previous Research
- Move 3: Preparing for the Present Research
- Move 4: Introducing the Present Research

Later, researchers complained of not being able to distinguish between the first and the second move. Swales (1990) thus combined them together and proposed what is called the CARS model (Creating a Research Space Model).

Table 2.1: Swales' CARS Model for Research Article Introductions

Move 1: Establishing a territory	Step 1: Claiming centrality and/ or Step 2: Making topic generalization (s) and/ or Step 3: Reviewing items of previous research
Move 2: Establishing a niche	Step 1A: Counter-claiming or Step 1B: Indicating a gap or Step 1C: Question-raising or Step 1D: Continuing a tradition

Move 3: Occupying the niche	Step 1A: Outlining purposes or Step 1B: Announcing present research Step 2: Announcing principle findings Step 3: Indicating RA structure
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(Swales, 1990:141)

The CARS model is regarded as one of the most influential tools for analyzing text structure. However, it is not without criticism. The basic criticism upon the model is made by Crookes (1984) as mentioned in Bunton (2002). Crookes argues that the moves do not occur once in a sequence. Rather they occur in a cycle. Also some of the moves, for example Move 2 and 3, or sometimes even Move 1, are often absent in many research introductions. Because of these counter claims upon the model and Swales' intention to make the model truly represent the structure of the texts, he revised the CARS model in 2004 and made some changes. In the revised version, he points out two new aspects of the moves. The first one is that the nature of moves is cyclical. For example, the literature review might not occur only in Move 1 but can occur repeatedly in various moves. The second aspect he points out is that the frequency of moves is important. If the moves occur in almost every sample, then it can be said to be obligatory move while if it occurs rarely, it can be said to be an optional one.

Table 2.2: Swales' Revised CARS Model for RA Introductions (Move 1 and 2)

<u>Move 1:</u> Establishing a territory via <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Topic generalizations of increasing specificity 	Possible recycling of increasing specific topics
<u>Move 2:</u> Establishing a niche via <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 1A: Indicating a gap or • Step 1B: Adding to what is known • Step (optional): Presenting positive justification 	

(Swales, 2004: 230)

So both the CARS model and its revised version, though having some limitations, serve as touchstones in the analysis of the textual pattern.

2.3.3 Bhatia's Genre Analysis

Following the tradition of ESP genre analysis, another influential scholar is Bhatia. While Swales focuses more on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and non-native speakers of English, Bhatia's works seem to target English for Professional Communication (EPC), especially English in professional settings. If it is

true to say that Swales is the pioneer of genre analysis in this tradition, it is also true to claim that Bhatia is the one who expands and clarifies many aspects of the field. In this section, some concepts of Bhatia's genre analysis are discussed: definition and characteristics of genre analysis, the focus of genre analysis, the steps proposed by Bhatia for doing genre analysis, and some challenges faced by genre analysts.

2.3.3.1 Bhatia's Definition and Characteristics of Genre Analysis

For Bhatia, the study of discourse has been developed constantly and it is moving towards what Bhatia (2004) calls '*the quest for thicker description of language use*' (p. 22). This is certainly the emergence of genre analysis. In the same work, he describes genre analysis as '*the study of situated linguistic behavior in institutionalized academic or professional settings*' (p. 22). So for him, genre is rooted within the institution it belongs to. In Bhatia (2004), he proposes 6 characteristics that serve as the common ground of genre analysis:

1. Genres are communicative events that are characterized by their communicative purposes. These communicative purposes are identified and comprehended by the members of academic or professional community they belong to.
2. Genres are very much restricted and conventionalized. This means in terms of the intention of the writer, the shape it takes and also lexicogrammatical features that can be employed in order to convey the thoughts.
3. Expert members of each academic or professional community will have greater knowledge and understanding about the genres than novice members or outsiders. Thus these expert members can exploit the resources more fully.
4. Although genre is seen as a conventionalized construct, expert members of the community can exploit the resource and communicate not only organizational intention but also what Bhatia called '*private intention*' as well. This is done within the '*socially recognized communicative purposes*' (p. 23).
5. Genres are said to be '*the reflection*' of the culture of the disciplinary and organization (p. 23). So they focus on the social actions deeply rooted in each institution's practice.
6. All disciplinary and professional genres have their own integrity.

From the above characteristics, there is one thing to be careful regarding the concept of genre: the tension of genre. On the one hand, genre seems to be static in

nature. This is because genre is associated with recurring rhetorical contributions and shared set of communicative purposes. Because of this, each genre has its own allowable contributions and constraints both in terms of rhetorical patterns and linguistic features. From this point of view the writers have to follow certain convention and restriction of each genre. However, the concept of genre is in fact a little more complicated than that. Although it has rules and regulations for members to follow, it also has high a tendency towards innovation and change. These can, however, be accomplished, not by the novice but expert members of the community. Having great knowledge and control over genre, these members exploit this advantage to ensure novelty and modification of the genre. They thus can convey what Bhatia calls '*private intention*' within the convention that governed it. In this regard then genre is a very dynamic entity. This then can be called the tension of genre: being both static and dynamic, having controlled convention and at the same time having the tendency towards innovation and change.

2.3.3.2 The Focus of Genre Analysis

According to Bhatia (1997), genre analysis has become popular in the teaching of languages to learners of specific disciplines. By doing this, the focus of genre analysis in Bhatia's account of genre is on 4 aspects:

1. *Knowledge of the code*: Knowledge of a code or expertise in the language is a must for anyone who wishes to communicate within any disciplines or professional settings. However, the knowledge only is not sufficient for one to achieve the goal of the genre in question.
2. *Genre knowledge*: In order to be a member of a discourse community, one must be acquainted with both the communicative goals and the communicative purposes employed to reach those goals. Expert members of a genre tend to possess mastery of this genre knowledge both in terms of procedural knowledge (the knowledge of tools, methods and interpretative framework used in the discipline), and social knowledge (familiarity with the rhetorical and conceptual context).
3. *Sensitivity to cognitive structures*: Expert members of the community need to have control over how to achieve communicative goals of the disciplinary in respond to socio-cognitive demands. They have to be sensitive to the content of the genre and also the shape it takes when there are changes in social practice.
4. *Genre ownership*: What Bhatia calls '*good professionals*' usually own their own genres. They know how to '*interpret*,' '*use*' and '*exploit*' them. They follow the conventions but at the same time take liberty to manipulate the genre to express their private intention.

2.3.3.3 Levels of Linguistic Analysis

Because of the momentous work of Swales (1981, 1990) that paves the way for the study of genre analysis, many have followed his steps in doing genre analysis by focusing on the analysis of moves and steps. However, in reality genre analysis has many dimensions, apart from move analysis. Bhatia (1993) summarized that there are three levels of linguistic analysis that can be performed.

The first level is to do ‘*an analysis of lexico-grammatical features.*’ This is usually carried out by studying the text quantitatively, looking for the language that is mainly used. Usually it is done by exploring large-scale corpus data of representative samples of the genre in question. An example of work in this tradition is that of Barber (1962) as quoted in Bhatia (1993). In this work, Barber makes it a task to investigate some measurable characteristics of modern scientific prose. He revealed some of the statistics in the employment of various tenses in the corpus as follows:

Table 2.3: Use of Tenses in Scientific English

	Active	Passive
Present Simple	64%	25%
Present Progressive	0.6%	0%
Present Perfect	1.7%	1.4%
Past Simple	1.2%	1.2%
Future Simple	3.7%	0.7%
Imperative	1.3%	

(Bhatia, 1993: 25)

The usefulness of this kind of study is that the figures derived from the study can be used to confirm or disapprove of statements made about texts in each genre, instead of using one’s own intuition. However, the analysis is done only on the surface level and it fails to explain how the communicative purpose is accomplished in each genre.

The second level of the analysis is called by Bhatia as ‘*an analysis of text-patterning or textualization.*’ This analysis emphasizes the strategy and tactic used in each conventional language use, and explores how members of each discourse community assign values to the genre. This kind of study takes us a step further from an analysis of lexico-grammatical features by answering why members of each discipline write the way they do. So this level of analysis moves from the surface description to a deeper explanation. The example of work done in this respect is the analysis of chemistry textbooks by Swales (1974) as mentioned in Bhatia (1993). Here Swales examined the function of the past participle in pre- and post-modifying

NP position. Moreover, he offers reasons why these writers of chemistry textbooks choose to write the way they do.

The third level of genre analysis is called ‘*structural interpretation of the text genre.*’ This type of analysis emphasizes the cognitive aspect of the organization of language. Members of each discipline seem to have their own restricted and patterned way of communicating, and this analysis of structural interpretation reveals the way that members of each community prefer. This analysis is in fact the so called ‘*move analysis.*’ The classic example would be the examination of research article introductions by Swales (1981, 1990) as mentioned earlier.

In this research, the analysis of abstracts is going to be done according to the third dimension. Firstly, the macro structure of textual organization is going to be examined using the move analysis. There is also an attempt to find the explanations why these abstracts are written the way they are. This present study, thus, hopefully yields insight both in terms of surface description and deeper explanation of the language use and language organization of the genre in question.

2.3.4 Strengths and Limitations of Genre Analysis

Genre analysis, like other approaches, has both strengths and limitations. The first advantage of genre analysis is that it is an analysis that includes both form and function. For the surface analysis, researchers can do lexico-grammatical analysis. For deeper analysis, researchers can do analysis of textualization or structural patterns of the texts. This makes genre analysis succeed in giving both description and explanation about the discourse in question. It does not only describe how discourse is being written but also tries to find out the answer in order to explain why scholars write the way they do. The communicative goals of the discourse community are clarified. Because of this fact, genre analysis has become, in Bhatia (1993)’s opinion, the most powerful system of analysis.

Yet, the limitations of genre analysis are also mentioned. Because genre analysis focuses on generalization and shared features of texts, Bhatia (1993) is concerned that it might encourage ‘*prescription*’ rather than ‘*creativity*’ in application (p. 40). This is, however, not a serious issue. In order to be creative, it is important for a person to first clearly understand its convention. To be able to be creative in genre creation, one also has to be able to know allowable contribution and restrictions of the genre first. This can be accomplished by genre analysis which gives basic knowledge about the patterns and linguistic features of discourse. With this knowledge, these members of the community can apply and adapt what they have learned to generate creativity and innovation. If employed wisely, genre analysis can also lead to creativity, and not only prescription.

Another concern being voiced around the concept of genre analysis is that it is a very subjective approach. This is because when analyzing genre of texts, researchers need to rely very much on their own judgment and intuition. This is especially true when talking about the nature of move demarcation (Paltridge 1994, Kanoksilapatham 2003, 2005). There are no explicit rules in determining move boundaries. This subjectivity of the approach leads to the question of its reliability and validity. To solve this issue, it is suggested that there should be inter-coder reliability involved. This means that the analysis of moves should not be done by only one researcher, but also by other experts in the field as well. This cross check between the researcher and other experts can thus make the analysis more reliable. The inter-coder reliability then should be conducted. Another thing that can be done is that, instead of using genre analysis as a sole approach, researchers need to employ several approaches together. Triangulation then can be of use in this area.

2.3.5 Genre Variation

Up until now, genre has been discussed as if it were a static entity. In fact there is another aspect of genre that needs to be considered, that is, genre variation. Genre can vary according to two main factors: variation across discipline and variation across culture. The sections below will be devoted to a discussion of each variation in detail.

2.3.5.1 Variation across Discipline

In the past, the study of genre did not pay much attention to the discrepancy caused by the differences in disciplines. As Bhatia (2004) said, people used to study genre as the study of '*situated linguistic behavior in institutionalized, academic or professional settings*' where disciplinary distinction does not play an important role (p. 22).

Hyland (2006) suggests that one of the reasons why people did not seem to realize the differences caused by the disciplinary conflict is in fact because of the nature of the study of genre itself. The study of genre seems to lead us to over-emphasize the similarities and resemblances among texts in question and see them as a group belonging to certain genre. The genre theory seems to be geared towards making generalization rather than distinction. Because of this tendency, one might be oblivious to the differences and discrepancies that occur.

Later works, however, start to be aware of and pay greater attention to this particular aspect. As Bhatia (2004) avers, it is now time for genre theory to pay attention to disciplinary differences. Following this suggestion, this study also attempts to pay attention not only to similarities between the data in the two corpora used, but also to the differences as well. However, before attempting to understand the variation across disciplines; it is important to first be acquainted with the overlapping concepts between register, discipline and genre.

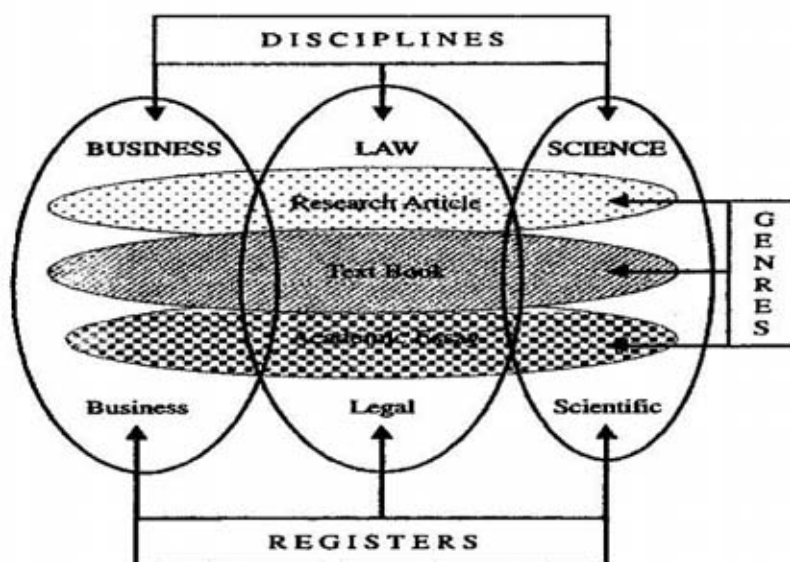
2.3.5.1.1 Register, Discipline and Genre

The three concepts of register, discipline and genre are used to describe discourse and they are somehow overlapping with each other.

In the early stage of the development of the theory of genre analysis, the concepts of 'genre' and 'register' are sometimes mixed up with genre sometimes described as register. In fact, the two concepts are not the same, nor can they be used interchangeably. In a nutshell, register is, according to Hallidayean tradition, the study of three contextual factors: field of discourse, mode of discourse and tenor of discourse.

Tied closely to register is the concept of discipline. Discipline is the dominant characteristic of the subject matter. Discipline seems to focus more on the content of the texts and usually it is the field of discourse that is being paid attention to while register pays attention to all three aspects as being said earlier. As Bhatia (2004) mentions, discipline has to do with the content whereas register is something to do with the language associated with it.

Genre, on the other hand, cuts across discipline. For example, the genre of research article, text book or academic essay seems to have some shared features both in terms of organizational structure and linguistic features though they belong to different disciplines. The relationship between register, discipline and genre can be illustrated by the figure below:



(Bhatia 2004: 31)

Figure 2.1: Registers, genres and disciplines in academic discourse

The above figure shows the general relationship between the three concepts. But if probed into more deeply, the interaction between discipline and genre seems to be

more complicated than that. According to Bhatia (2002), various types of interaction between discipline and genre can be found. Firstly, as a basic notion we may find genre that overlaps with various disciplines resulting in the tendency to make generalizations that texts of the same genre seem to be the same even when they are of different disciplines. However, there is also a case where there is a genre that is specifically associated with certain discipline. And this is what is called disciplinary difference in genre study.

2.3.5.1.2 Studies on Disciplinary Differences

Texts, though belonging to the same genre, seem to exemplify variation because of such disciplinary differences. A number of recent studies illustrate this point. Cross and Oppenheim (2005), for example, maintain that scientific discourse, for instance, has its own characteristics. It is more than a style of writing that is used to exemplify *'fact'* and *'incontrovertible truth.'* The key features of it can be described by things like grammatical metaphors, the use of grammar in order to position science away from the influence of human, the preference of passive voice and abstract nouns derived from verbs, strong temporal and causal perception and lexical density.

Kanoksilapatham (2009b) agreed that abstracts seem to vary to certain extent according to their disciplinary differences. Again in Kanoksilapatham (2009a) she clearly identified that many genre-based studies of abstracts showed that discipline and language variation go together.

One of the influential works that confirms this disciplinary difference is the one by Hyland (2000). In this study, Hyland examines generic patterns and formal quality of over 800 abstracts from various fields of study to determine how writers claim their membership and credibility. Here he looks for similarities and differences across the fields. The abstracts are divided into five moves: 'Introduction,' 'Purpose,' 'Method,' 'Product' and 'Conclusion.'

This move structure reflects the difference among disciplines. While physicists and engineers prefer the Purpose-Method-Product structure (60%) the humanities and social science writers prefer Introduction-Purpose-Product structure. The reason for this discrepancy is due to the fact that writers in science give importance to the Method part while writers in humanities and soft science perceive the importance of the 'Introduction' move that helps situate their research. In the field of science, there are limited numbers of problems with many people trying to work on them. Therefore, it is not necessary for the writers in these fields to situate their research or talk about background and identify the problem. They then start their abstracts with 'Purpose' or sometimes apply the 'Method' move right away. The writers in the humanities and social science, on the other hand, do not have fixed set of problems.

They thus have to situate their research and problems and convince the reader that it is significant enough. The move opening the abstract then is the 'Introduction' one. From this study of Hyland, it can be seen that abstracts contain discrepancy across disciplinary and the finding of one discipline cannot be generalized to others.

Apart from Hyland (2000), another study that confirms disciplinary differences is Samraj (2002a) who examines twenty abstracts from two disciplines: Conservation Biology and Wildlife Behaviour. These two disciplines are quite closely related. Yet, the study reveals that the structures of their abstracts are dissimilar. He divides the abstracts into five moves: 'Situating-the-Research,' 'Purpose,' 'Methods,' 'Results' and 'Conclusions.'

The results of the study demonstrate that abstracts from both disciplines have the same types of moves. However, on average Conservation Biology abstracts contain more moves than Wildlife Behaviour abstracts: 4.1 moves versus 3.5 moves, respectively. For 'Situating-the-Research' move, it is found in most abstracts of Conservation Biology, 90% of all the abstracts. In Wildlife Behavior, however, it is found only less than half of all abstracts. So it is clear that this move is more important in Conservation Biology than in Wildlife Behavior. Moreover, in Conservation Biology, the research tends to be linked with problematized real world or problematized research world while in Wildlife Behavior, the attempt to relate the research to the real world problems is not found. The next move, the 'Purpose' move, reveals also the difference across the two disciplines. In Conservation Biology abstracts, the move is proved to be crucial as all 20 abstracts contain this move. This tendency, however, does not occur in Wildlife Behaviour abstracts. For the 'Conclusions' move, the two disciplines show the same number of abstracts containing this move. However, closer examination illustrates that the nature of the presentation is different in the two disciplines. In Conservation Biology, this moves presents recommendation for the problems. In Wildlife Behaviour, recommendation concerning the real world or research world does not appear. Usually it is implications of the results. From this study, it seems apparent that even in the two closely related disciplines, disparities still occur because of disciplinary differences.

Not only generic moves but also linguistic features can be evidence of the dissimilarity between the two fields. In terms of tense choice, the most frequently used tense in both is the past tense. Yet, patterns of tense choice associated with each move can only be found in Wildlife Behaviour abstracts. In Conservation Biology, there is variation in terms of tense choice that characterizes each move. Another feature examined in this study is the use of first-person pronouns. In Conservation Biology, 21 % of the sentences contain first-person pronouns. The effect is that there is greater authorial presence in the abstracts. In Wildlife Behaviour, the outcome is different. The abstracts from this field do not use first-person pronouns.

Moreover, it is not only difference in disciplines that can cause difference in discourse, even in the same discipline, different branches can cause a difference in discourse too. Cross and Oppenheim (2005), for instance, claim that even in the scope of science itself, the language used varies according to different branches in the same discipline.

The findings from Kanoksilapatham (2009a), which investigates abstracts from four different branches of science (biochemistry, microbiology, civil engineering and software engineering), seem to confirm this point. Although she can find shared generic moves across four branches of science, still the result shows disciplinary differences because there is diversity in the move sequence of the abstracts which might occur because of the differences in the branches of the science.

This variation caused by difference in branches is reaffirmed again in Kanoksilapatham (2005). Here she examines rhetorical structure of 60 research articles in the field of biochemistry. What is found is that the branch of biochemistry has its own distinct move characteristic that differentiates it from other branches in the science field. In the 'Methods' section, for example, biochemistry research articles exemplify unique characteristics. In this discipline, the experimental procedures are well-established and familiar to members of the discourse community. Still these experimental procedures are adjusted somehow in order to accommodate the features and purposes of scientific study. Next, in the 'Results' section of biochemistry research articles, the feature that is distinct from other disciplines is that it contains Move 9 (Justifying Procedures or Methodology) and Move 11 (Stating Comments on the Results). And in the Discussion section, the special characteristic of research articles in biochemistry is that both Move 12 (Contextualizing the Study) and Move 13 (Consolidating Results) are conventional. These two moves are emphasized because the scholars try to situate their research in the interest of their community and thus their work can be scrutinized by the members.

As these studies show, texts of the same genre still vary because of the difference in disciplines and even branches. Findings from different disciplines thus cannot be applied to another though they are of the same genre.

2.3.5.2 Variation across culture

Apart from variation across discipline, culture is another factor that affects genre. This research also seeks to investigate genre variation that occurs because of the difference in culture. Textual organization and linguistic features of abstracts written by students in Thailand and students in England are analyzed to explore the issue. However, since the issue of culture and discourse is quite immense and needs quite a lot of discussion, the author sees it fit that this issue has its own section. The

detail of the topic of the effect of culture on discourse and genre then is to be discussed in the following section.

2.4 The Effect of Culture on Discourse and Genre

Apart from disciplinary difference, culture is another factor that can cause variation in genre. In order to comprehend this more fully, this section will give preliminary ideas about the relationship between culture and discourse in general, and then move on to the relationship between culture and genre analysis.

2.4.1 Culture and Discourse

Before delving into the subject, it is necessary to first define what is meant by the word '*culture*' in this context. The suitable definition of '*culture*' for this study is in fact the widely accepted description of it as referred to by Connor (1996) as '*a set of rules and patterns shared by a given community*' (p. 101).

It is already a widely known fact that culture has a consequential effect on language and discourse. This is because a language user acts not only as a user of a language, but also as a 'member' of social categories. As a result, these complicated mixtures of their social and cultural 'roles' and 'identities' inevitably affects their discourse (Van Dijk 1997). In order to be a competent communicator of a language then, mere grammatical knowledge is not enough. Knowledge about the culture must be incorporated.

This is true both in the paradigm of spoken and written language. Attention to the influence of culture on a language up until recently, however, is centered on spoken discourse. It is only during these last three decades that scholars have begun to invest their interest on the relationship between culture and written discourse.

There are, in fact, several reasons that illustrate why culture has such an impact upon writing. Firstly, since culture affects language as a whole, written discourse cannot be of exception. Secondly, it is the emergence of the new view that sees writing as a cultural activity beginning in the 1980s. Thirdly, the prime indicator of the influence of culture on written discourse can be seen by the rise of the field of study called 'contrastive rhetoric,' initiated by the widely-known work of Kaplan (1966). The tenet of contrastive rhetoric is that writing is a cultural activity and consequently each language has a unique linguistic and rhetorical convention of its own. Usually the convention of the writer's L1 is transferred to their L2 writing. From the above examples, the effect of culture on writing is thus secured. If the field is narrowed down to academic discourse, within the scope of '*contrastive academic rhetoric*', the result is not very different. Recent investigations into academic writing reveal that the most notable difference of text characteristics is caused by culture-bound disparity. Interestingly, it is the writing in humanities that shows more

prominent variation (Duszak 1997). According to Duszak (1997), it is in these fields that 'communication styles respond most strongly to language- and culture-bound discursal preferences and constraints (p. 11). The reason seems to be evident in the field of science where the tendency is more towards objective and formulaic languages. Thus, the result is that the language used in that field seems to exemplify more unity than in humanities. Another reason for the writing in the field of humanities to reflect the effect of cultural differences more than that in other fields is explained in Yakhontova (2006) who claims that the field of linguistics, like other fields belonging to humanities, is more subjective than scientific study. This, in turns, results in the field of humanities being more susceptible to differences in national contexts. As a result, the textual patterns in this field might show greater variation caused by cultural differences.

Moreover, as in today's academic world, people of different cultural backgrounds try to communicate with each other beyond the boundaries of nation. It is widely accepted that it is English then that is used as a lingua franca. Although scholars employ the same language that is English, they still carry their own cultural characteristics with them. This point is confirmed by Bhatia (1993), who views that this discrepancy in language caused by cultural background of the writers also persists when people of different cultural backgrounds communicate in a new language. Findings from a large number of works have confirmed this point. Only some of these works will be cited as examples here.

Firstly, it seems fitting to commence with Kaplan (1966) which is the initial work in the field of contrastive rhetoric. Kaplan (1966) investigated the impact of culture on written discourse. He studied the paragraph structure of essays written by ESL students and found that there are five different structures of written discourse according to different cultural background of the writers. Westerners tend to write in linear order. Semitics writers write with a series of parallel coordinate clauses. Essays written in oriental language seem to be indirect and written in a circular manner. Texts in Romance languages usually employ digressiveness as well as the Russians.

Another work that explores cultural difference is Clyne (1981). Here he studies the difference in the organization of texts written by English and German. It is found that English writing has some characteristics that German writing does not possess: clear purpose of writing, high degree of relevance, flow of paragraphs and avoidance of repetition. According to Clyne, this difference is a result of dissimilarity in culture. For English speaking people, it is assumed that it is the responsibility of the writer of a text to make the text comprehensible. As a result, texts in English tend to be clear and easy to follow compared with German texts. On the other hand, German puts a high premium on knowledge and the quality of a text is judged by the knowledge it generates. It is the nature of German writing to be indirect and difficult

to understand. Academics and students tend to express their knowledge by using jargons and digressing from the central theme.

Scollon and Scollon (2001) provide a study of the effect of culture on pattern of topic introduction in discourse. Asians and Westerners prefer different patterns. According to Scollon and Scollon, there are two major patterns of topic introduction: deductive and inductive. In deductive pattern, which is preferred by the Westerners, participants can introduce their topic from the beginning. Participants who employ inductive pattern, on the other hand, tend to delay the topic introduction until later. This is the pattern that is preferred by Asians.

Even from this limited number of works, it can be seen that discourse is affected by culture. Culture is a major influence that shapes the discourse both spoken and written genre.

2.4.2 Culture and Genre

When analyzing written discourse, one approach that has become the center of attention recently is genre analysis. In the area of genre analysis, however, studies on the effect of culture are still very scant. Bhatia, among others, admits that variation that occurs within certain genres as a result of cross-cultural and intercultural factors has been overlooked and has received limited attention from scholars. This is, considered by Bhatia (1993), '*less than satisfactory*' (p. 37). According to Bhatia, the reason is due to the fact that genre analysis has focused primarily on the established genre such as research writing. Within this genre, the trend is toward conformity. Writers of research, though coming from different cultural background, all seek publication. And in order for their works to be published, they have to observe and respect the conventions.

This shortage of research in the direction stated above, however, does not, in any ways, mean that the effect of culture on genre analysis does not exist or is not of significance. On the other hand, it alarmingly suggests that more research from now on should be done in this path. '*A lot more input,*' as underscored by Bhatia (1993), is still needed (p. 38). It is time for genre analysts to become more sensitive to the socio-cultural force and raise awareness on cross-cultural issue on genres.

In fact, the existence of the relationship between culture and the writing in each genre is undeniable from the start. Even from its definition, according to Bhatia (1993), genre is, after all, defined as '*a socio-cultural dependent communicative event*' (P. 39). Culture then is deemed as an inherent part of the concept of genre. Moreover, the situation today where English has been used globally and has become an international language in many areas, including academia, does nothing less than accentuates and confirms the importance of cross-cultural issue in genre study. Kachru describes the situation of English in today's setting as follows:

...the spread of English has resulted in a multiplicity of semiotic systems, several nonshared linguistic conventions, and numerous underlying cultural traditions. ...And, any speaker of English (native or non-native) has access to only a subset within the patterns and conventions of cultures which English now encompasses. ...English has now become a medium of cross-cultural expression and, one hopes, of intercultural understanding, too. (Kachru 1988 as quoted in Bhatia 1997: 314)

Since English is now the medium in the international level of the academic world, writing in many genres is done in English. This includes certainly both writing of English as L1 and L2. And as confirmed by many studies in the area of contrastive rhetoric, it is believed that, in most cases, both linguistic and rhetorical characteristics from the writer's L1 are transferred to his/her writing in L2. It is in this respect that the diversity in cultural background can cause variation in the writing of each genre.

In most situations, however, local culture constraints, most of the time, do not affect the essential structure of move pattern. Rather it has impact on certain realization of moves and the strategies that writers use in order to accomplish their goals. However, it is still important for genre analysts to be aware of the variation caused by cross-cultural constraints in order to observe the linguistic realization of the texts.

The following section reviews some of the literature on the effect of culture on genre. It begins with studies illustrating the impact of culture on other genres apart from abstracts and moves on to studies investigating the impact of culture on the genre of abstracts itself.

2.4.2.1 Studies on the Effect of Culture on Other Genres

Starting from the genre closely related to abstracts, which is the genre of research articles, quite a number of studies have been done on it in relation to the effect: Spanish research articles by Lopez (1982), Arabic research articles by Najjar (1990), Malay research articles by Ahmad (1997), Chinese and Anglo-American research articles by Taylor and Chen (1991), German and English research articles by Gnutzmann and Oldenburg (1991), Polish and English research articles by Duszak (1994), etc. The findings from these works confirm the effect of cultural variation on the genre of research article. Some of these works are to be discussed here.

Taylor and Chen (1991), for example, studied 31 papers: 10 written in Chinese by Chinese writers, 10 written in English by Chinese writers, and another 11 written in English by native English-speakers. The difference can be found in the review of the literature part. Chinese writers, both when they write in Chinese and in English, tend to write a short portion of this section or sometimes omit it altogether. Native

English speakers' writing is vice versa. Taylor and Chen explain that this is because in Chinese culture, disputation is avoided. Chinese writers see it as not appropriate to criticize works of others. Here it can be seen that the culture affects genre when writing.

Another work is Ahmad (1997), which examines 20 scientific and technical research articles written in Malay. The major difference between Malay and English writing can be found in 'Reviewing Items of Previous Research Move' and 'Establishing a Niche Move.' Like the result from Taylor and Chen (1991), in the Reviewing move, Malay writers only describe or summarize the works done by others and sometimes they even discard the move. This is because of the same reason Taylor and Chen give. It is not proper in their culture to criticize other people's work openly. Moreover, in 'Establishing a niche' move, Malay writers do not state their purpose and the structure of the articles clearly. This is because in their culture, there is a high degree of ambiguity tolerance between writers and readers. This is unlike English writers that tend to state clearly the purpose and the structure of the texts. The degree of ambiguity tolerance in their culture is lower than that in Malay.

2.4.2.2 Studies on the Effect of Culture on the Genre of Abstracts

When it comes to the genre of abstract, the result is quite similar. Culture tends to play a role in the writing of abstracts. Many, however, might question this. This doubt stems partly from the nature of abstract that seems to have patterns of its own. Because of this pattern-based character, it is assumed that abstracts written by writers of different cultural background should not exemplify much variation. Although this doubtfulness is not at all unreasonable, the reality is the contrary. Abstract writing, despite its uniform patterns, is affected by cross-cultural variation.

In fact, the question of cultural effect on abstract is not different from the attitude scholars used to have of other academic genres in the past. Formerly, academic writing was thought of as devoid of '*human characteristics*' in order to achieve the goal of objectivity and truth (Duszak 1997: 12). More recently, however, there is a call for the study of academic writing with a '*more human*' attitude (Ventola 1997: 158). Cross-cultural academic discourse, for example, makes it clear that the study of academic discourse cannot be insightful without taking into account the influence of culture. Abstract writing too cannot be viewed as lacking '*human characteristics*.' Certain personal traits of writers including culture do play a role. Even though the essential characteristics of the genre tend to lean towards the universal side of the continuum, various disparities in organizational and rhetorical patterns are affected by culture and cannot be dismissed.

2.4.2.2.1 Studies on the Effect of Culture on the Genre of Research Article Abstracts and Conference Abstracts

A few studies have been done and confirm the role culture plays on abstract writing. These works focus on research article abstracts and conference abstracts, not thesis and dissertation abstract. Being closely related to the genre of thesis and dissertation abstracts, the results from these studies can be used as a preliminary finding to be compared and contrasted with the findings obtained from the study of the effect of culture on thesis and dissertation abstract as well. As a result, they are worth being mentioned here. Among these works are Melander, Swales and Fredrickson (1997) and Martin (2003), Bonn and Swales (2007), and Yakhontova (2006).

Firstly, in Melander, Swales and Fredrickson (1997), research article abstracts written by Swedes and English writers are compared. The abstracts in the corpus can be divided into three groups: abstracts written by Swedes in Swedish, abstracts written by Swedes in English, and abstracts written by Americans in English. These abstracts are from three different disciplines: biology, medicine and linguistics. Although the authors did not provide an explanation why, it is found that the field in which the effect of culture on organizational and rhetorical structure is most marked is linguistics. Hence, the result about abstracts from this field is discussed here.

The first discrepancy among the three groups of abstracts is in terms of move variation. The Swedish abstracts exemplify obvious intragroup variation both in forms and contents. The pattern of moves used does not follow the established convention. The abstracts written by Swedes in English tend to be more uniform. The focus is on 'Method Move' and 'Result Move.' It is worth noticing here that this group of abstracts provides very little space to Introduction Move. The pattern of moves therefore tends towards 'Method-Result.' The American abstracts, however, contain all the four fundamental moves of abstract writing: 'Introduction-Method-Result-Conclusion.'

The second difference is that while the Swedish abstracts and the English abstracts written by Swedes do not give emphasis to the 'Introduction Move' at all, the American abstracts can be distinguished by the great effort put on the opening sentence of the 'Introduction Move.'

The third distinction is that the Swedish abstracts and the English abstracts written by Swedes rarely make citation or reference to previous research. It can be seen here that the Swedish abstracts and abstracts in English written by Swedes do not attempt to place their works in the context of previous research. In contrast, the American abstracts put a lot of effort to establish a relationship between their research and other previous literature.

The final variation lies upon the metatextual reference to the full text the abstracts accompany. The Swedish abstracts and English abstracts written by the Swedes employ frequent metatextual reference to the full text they accompany. Moreover, the interesting thing is that, contrary to general expectation, these abstracts tend to use the definite article in these references instead of demonstrative pronouns. This phenomenon of metatextual reference does not occur, however, in the American abstracts. The implication here is that Swedish writers seem to make a distinction between the abstract and the paper. The abstracts for these texts have a rather detached status. On the other hand, the American writers view their abstracts as an integral part to their papers.

The second study that investigates the effect of culture on abstract writing is Martin (2003). In this study he examines 160 abstracts in experimental social sciences written in English and in Spanish. The significant findings that reveal the variation within the genre of abstracts caused by cultural background are as follows.

The first difference is in terms of move completion. In this regard, English abstracts can be said to be more complete since 61.5% of the abstracts contain all the four moves. In the Spanish corpus, however, only 25% of the abstracts include all the four moves. The Spanish abstracts consequently are less complete.

The second dissimilarity occurs in the 'Introduction Move.' There are three sub-moves in this main move: S1-Establishing a Territory, S2-Establishing a Niche, S3- Occupying the Niche. It is Sub-move 2 - Establishing a Niche - used in order to justify the work that is used differently here. While 41.77% of the English abstracts utilize this move, it is realized in only 15% of the Spanish abstracts. Martin gave an explanation for this phenomenon that it is caused by the dissimilarity in the discourse culture of the two groups of writers. The Spanish community of the scholars is, according to him, small and the level of competition is quite low. The result is that the writers do not have to make much effort to justify their work in this research community. In the case of English abstracts, nonetheless, the community is wider and it is also more competitive. Writers, as a result, need to justify their work in order to attract the attention from the readers and gain acceptance from their community.

The third disparity takes place in the occurrence of the 'Result Move.' This move is employed 86.25% in the English abstracts whereas in the Spanish abstracts it occurs in only 41.25%. In addition, this move in the English abstracts is characterized by the use of the past simple tense and passive voice. In the Spanish abstracts, on the other hand, the use of present simple tense and active voice is predominant. Moreover, the English abstracts tend to report the result tentatively by employing hedging devices. This practice, however, is not found in the Spanish abstracts.

The final difference lies in the ‘Conclusion Move.’ Again, in this move, the English abstracts utilize a significant number of hedging devices, amounting to 63.3%. The hedges employed in the Spanish abstracts, however, total only 17.2%.

The rationale behind the use of hedges, according to Martin, is linked to the community discourse culture. The English abstracts have a wider audience and as a result the writers prefer generalizing their knowledge with hedges in order to avoid argument and to protect themselves against criticism. The Spanish scholastic community is, in comparison, smaller and less competitive. Consequently, the need to avoid face threatening is lower. This results in the lesser use of hedging devices in the Spanish abstracts. Moreover, Martin suggested that the non-hedge style is already institutionalized by the Spanish academics. These Spanish writers, therefore, follow the established convention of their community.

The final note here is that the comparison of the two studies presented above also yield another difference in abstract writing according to each culture. While the Swedish writers do not give importance to the ‘Introduction Move,’ the Spanish writers, in this respect, are more similar to Anglo-American writers since they give a lot of importance to the ‘Introduction Move.’ This can be proved by the fact that the ‘Introduction Move’ is the most frequently used and the longest move both in Spanish abstracts and English abstracts as mentioned in Martin (2003).

Another study that explores the effect of cultural differences on abstract writing is Bonn and Swales (2007). In this work, the writers compare 30 abstracts written in French from the French journal, *Bulletin de la Societe de Linguistique de Paris*, with 30 abstracts written in English from the English journal, *Journal of Linguistics*.

It is found that, in general, abstracts from both languages comply to quite the same pattern, ‘*a theory: proposing, applying, creating, comparing, developing, criticizing, or expanding a theory*’ (p. 96). So in terms of the organizational structure, they are quite similar. The major difference found from this study, however, is in the way the research ‘*is situated*’ (p. 97). The English abstracts, according to Bonne and Swales (2007), ‘*take considerable pains*’ to situate their works in the context of the research world. This is done both by giving justification for their works as well as creating a link to previous research. The practice, on the other hand, is not found as much in the French abstracts. The explanation for this difference is given by Bonn and Swales (2007) as related to the fact that the French academic community is smaller in size and lower in the degree of pressure. As a result, they do not have to try as hard as the English to situate and justify their works. This claim is in line with that of Hyland (2000) and Yakhontova (2002).

Another dissimilarity highlighted in this study is the difference in the writing style of the abstracts from the two sets. Following Santos (1996) categorization, Bonn and Swales (2007) claimed that the French abstracts are more ‘purposive’ in nature, giving importance to telling the purpose of the research, while the English abstracts are more ‘descriptive’ in nature, placing more weight on describing the features of the works. So as can be seen, the work of Bonn and Swales (2007) exemplifies clearly some of the aspects of writing that are different in abstract writing of the French and the English. Also, these dissimilarities are claimed to be more or less related to the different cultural background of the writers.

The last work which involves the effect of culture on abstract writing to be mentioned here is that of Yakhontova (2006). In this work, however, it is not the genre of research abstracts that is examined. Rather it is conference abstracts, a genre closely related. Here Yakhontova examines 100 conference abstracts in the field of applied mathematics. Fifty of these were written by English speakers and the other fifty were written by speakers of two Slavic languages, namely Ukrainian and Russian.

From this comparative study, it is found that the first difference lies on the ‘Highlighting the Outcome’ move. This move abounds in Slavic abstracts and it often contains thorough information. In the English abstracts, on the other hand, far fewer abstracts have this move and usually when this move is employed, only a couple of sentences are used. So from this, it can be seen that more weight is given to reporting results in the Slavic abstracts than in the English abstracts. The English abstracts, on the other hand, are found to place a lot more weight on the preface of their works, or as Swales (1996) called the ‘*scene-setting*’ part (p. 49). The findings here thus confirms the findings from other studies on abstract writing that English abstract usually pays a great deal more attention to the introduction part of abstracts than in the writing of other languages.

Another finding here is that Slavic abstracts prefer the use of meta-discourse with passive voice forms while English abstracts prefer the use of both active metadiscursive constructions with animate or inanimate subjects and passive forms. This results in the Slavic abstracts sounding more objective and factual while the English abstracts sounding more assertive. Moreover, the assertiveness of the English abstracts is even highlighted by the accompanying use of the first person pronoun ‘I.’ Here the degree of individuality is elevated in the English abstracts.

Yakhontova (2006) in the end gives an account for these differences as being caused by the difference in degree of the ‘*promotionalism*’ as well as the difference in the size and pressure of the two discourse communities (p. 164). However, according to Yakhontova (2006), the factor that is more important and contributes more to the disparity in the writing of the two sets of data is what she terms ‘*the inheritance of*

academic writing conventions' (p. 164). It is claimed that in a relatively small academic community, certain conventions are stabilized and then through the process of intertextuality, imitation, as well as instruction, it becomes an inherent part of the writing conventions of that particular discourse community. As for her, this is also true in the case of the writing style of the Slavic abstracts.

Even from the limited works above, it can be seen that culture does play a role in shaping the writing of abstracts. Each culture seems to exemplify and reflect the writing conventions uniquely belonging to their own culture. As for the genre of thesis and dissertation abstracts, the impact of culture is not an exception. The next section provides some literature on the topic.

2.4.2.2 Studies on the Effect of Culture on the Genre of Thesis and Dissertation Abstracts

Although the studies mentioned above are done on research article and conference abstracts, the result is not at all different when it comes to thesis and dissertation abstracts. In fact, the effect of culture on thesis and dissertation abstracts might be even greater than that in research article abstracts. There are two reasons to justify this claim.

Firstly, research article abstracts are written with the writers' intention that their works are accepted and published. Since their goal is to seek publication, normally these writers tend to conform to the international code of conducts for abstract writing for international academic journals. Duszak (1997) also confirms this when she describes that in these circumstances it is natural for writer to produce texts with certain degree of conformity. Even though they yield to the established norms and conventions, the two studies mentioned above show that research article abstracts still reflect the traits of the writers' cultural background. When it comes to the case of thesis and dissertation abstracts, however, the objective of the writers is not publication. The tendency to observe the norms and conventions then can be weakened. The result is that it is possible that the cultural traits of the writers' L1, in this case, will exert themselves more apparently.

The second reason is that the writers write their abstracts in English as an L2 speaker. Swales and Feak (2009) mentioned a study of Sarah Van Bonn and John that have recently investigated paired English and French research article abstracts published in France. In order for the paper to be published, it is required by the journals that an English abstract must be attached to the French paper along with the French abstract. What these two researchers have found is that the French version and the English version of 24 out of 30 abstracts are very similar. In other words, it can be said that the original language is simply translated to the target language. In the case of thesis and dissertation writing, the situation is not very different. In Thailand, for

instance, graduate students are required to attach the English version of their abstracts upon completion of their thesis and dissertation. And as suggested by the finding of Sarah Van Bonn and John, the writing of English abstracts in most cases involves the process of translation. And because of this translation procedure, there is little doubt that the transfer of L1 to L2 will happen. The cultural characteristic of the writers' L1 then can be easily transferred to their L2 writing. In this regard thesis and dissertation abstracts have a higher tendency, therefore, to demonstrate cultural variation.

However, to the best of my knowledge, there have not yet been any studies on the effect of culture on thesis and dissertation abstracts. The findings from previous research to illustrate the issue vividly then are not available.

The only work mentioning cross-cultural issue regarding thesis and dissertation abstracts is Swales and Feak (2009). Firstly, they direct attention to abstracts in Russia and other Ex-Soviet Union countries. In these countries, graduate students have to submit what is called '*aemope epam*' (autoreferat). This is a document that provides a general description of the paper. In sum, it is an abstract as we know. Here the special features of Russian abstracts are mentioned. Firstly, the Russian abstracts have a special section that specifies the dissertation structure chapter by chapter, including main formulas, figures and tables. Another special section is the detailed list of author's publication on the topic of dissertation. Certainly, the information in these two parts is considered redundant and even not relevant by the standard judgment of abstract writing. However, these two sections are valuable because they reveal the cultural style of writing of the Russian. The study from the field of contrastive rhetoric has confirmed that the writing style of the Russian is unique. In the work of Kaplan (1966), the Russian language is said to exemplify a high degree of digressiveness. Nichols (1988) claimed that the Russian text, unlike English text, is not a communication from the writer to the reader. Rather, it is a statement of general truth. It is not the job of the writer to facilitate the comprehension of the readers. Moreover, the Russian text is characterized by its lengthiness. Because of this writing culture, it is not at all surprising that an abstract in Russian tradition is lengthy and contains overloaded information. It can, in fact, be considered as a form of digressiveness which commonly occurs in this writing culture. Another interesting issue here is whether, when writing an abstract in English, Russian writers transfer the cultural characteristics of their L1 to the target language.

Another issue concerning difference in culture that affects the writing of abstracts mentioned by Swales and Feak (2009) is not in the level of organizational pattern, but in the level of linguistic realization. They call attention to the metatextual reference the writers of each culture use when refer to their main paper accompanying the abstracts. In English writing style, '*this paper*' and '*this article*' are the common form. Spanish speakers, however, according to Reinhart (2007) (as quoted in Swales

and Feak, 2009), prefer '*trabajo*' which is translated as '*work*' in English. Arabic speakers, on the other hand, choose to employ the term '*baHth*' translated as '*research*' in English. According to Swales and Feak (2009), the direct translation of these two words, which are '*work*' and '*research*' are rarely used in English abstracts.

2.4.3 Cultural Frameworks

Since culture is one of the factors affecting genre, some cultural frameworks that are used to explain certain practices found in the results of this study are illustrated here. The major frameworks involved in this study are the works of Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), Hall (1981), and Hinds (1987, 1990).

2.4.3.1 The Study of Hofstede and Hofstede (2005): Individualism versus Collectivism

One of the most influential large-scale studies on the effect of culture would be that of Hofstede and Hofstede (2005). They investigated patterns of culture in seventy one countries around the world. In order to do this, a survey was given to over 100,000 employees of IBM subsidiaries in 71 countries. These employees were asked to complete the questionnaires inquiring about five dimensions of their own culture, namely individualism versus collectivism, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity, and long-term and short-term orientation to time. The findings from this research reflect the fact that it is the differences in these five dimensions that create and govern different patterns of culture.

In this study, Thailand and Britain are among the countries surveyed. The result shows that these two countries are at the opposite end of the continuum in all aspects. Thailand is characterized by low individualism, high level of uncertainty avoidance, high power distance, low masculinity, and long-term orientation to time. Britain, on the other hand, is characterized by high individualism, low level of uncertainty avoidance, low power distance, high masculinity, and short-term orientation to time. From this it can be seen that apparently Thailand and Britain have different cultural values. This dissimilarity in the value could certainly affect the writing of Thai students and English students as will be seen later in this study. However, since the dimension that is related to this present study most is individualism versus collectivism, this aspect is described in detail as follows:

Different degree of individualism has been found to be one of the major causes of dissimilarity in social behavior in many countries (Thawewong 2006). The dimension of individualism versus collectivism actually refers to people's perception of themselves in relation to others. For culture with high degree of individualism, people see themselves as an individual, independent from others in the society. According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), these people tend to view themselves as 'I', apart from others. Also they value their own interest and privacy. For cultures

with high degree of collectivism, however, people see themselves as a part of a group. They believe that they belong to certain group instead of being an individual entity. They tend to see themselves as ‘we’ not ‘I.’ As a result, in this kind of culture, people tend to value mutual interest, conformity, cooperation, and interdependence.

The result from Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) shows that in the dimension of individualism versus collectivism, the score of Thailand is 20, ranking at number 56-61, whereas the score of Britain is up to 89, ranking at number 3 in the chart. (The table showing the full Individualism Index Value (IDV) can be seen in Appendix A of this study). This means that the two countries are very different in terms of individualism versus collectivism. While Thailand is considered a collectivist society, Britain is considered an individualist one. Moreover, since the difference in the score of the two countries is quite marked, Thailand is among the countries with lowest scores in individualism while Britain ranks at the third, it can be assumed that this difference in value reflects itself in cultural activities including writing. The disparity in this panel then can be used to explain some writing patterns found in this study later.

2.4.3.2 The Study of Hall (1981): High Context Culture (HC) versus Low Context Culture (LC)

Another framework used to describe differences in cultural communication is that of Hall (1981). He categorized culture in terms of the role of context in communication and then divided culture into two types: High Context Culture (HC) and Low Context Culture (LC).

High context culture refers to culture in which people have quite close and long relationship with each other. Because of this, they do not have to rely on explicit texts. Rather, a lot of information is conveyed covertly or through other mediums. It can be said then that people in high context culture rely on the context a lot to get the message. In this type of culture, directness can be considered rude as well as offensive. Moreover, people in high context culture seem to think of themselves as part of a group. Harmony then is sought after while confrontation is avoided. This is why people in high context culture pay a lot more attention to personal relationship than people in low context culture.

This is in contrast with low context culture. Low context culture refers to culture in which the relationship of people is short-termed or with specific purposes. In this kind of society, people prefer directness. It is more preferable if information is delivered explicitly, without having to rely much on the context. Explicitness and directness are sought after. Moreover, in low context culture, people tend to see themselves as an individual and not as a part of a group. That is why they do not pay as much attention to personal relationships as people in high context culture.

Following Hall (1981), high context culture and low context culture can be mapped out according to countries or regions. As a result, a scale is developed and countries from different regions are placed on the two ends of the continuum. From this, Asian, French, Spanish and Greeks are categorized as high context culture, while most other Europeans and Americans are categorized as low context culture. From this it can be seen that Thai culture belongs to the high context culture in which indirectness is preferred while directness can be considered offensive. British culture, on the other hand, belongs to low context culture in which directness is preferred and welcomed. This difference in terms of high and low context culture can also play a part and yield some explanations concerning the style of writing in the data used in this study later.

2.4.3.3 The Study of Hinds (1987, 1990): Writer Responsibility versus Reader Responsibility, and Quasi-Inductive Writing

Apart from the first two cultural frameworks, the work of Hinds (1987, 1990) can also contribute to the understanding of the writing of L2 learners of English. Hinds is widely known for his comparative research on writing, especially the ones focusing on English writing of Japanese and other oriental writers.

In Hinds (1987), he proposes a new typology accounting for the differences in the organizational patterns of the writing of native and non-native speakers of English based on what is termed speaker and/or writer responsibility as opposed to listener and/or reader responsibility. This typology of language is based partly on the idea of coherence found in texts. According to this study, Japanese writing is considered the culture of reader responsibility. Japanese texts demand more from the readers to try to comprehend the texts. It is not strange for the texts to be devoid of cohesive devices and the readers are asked to make an attempt to understand the texts by themselves. This is not considered a low quality of texts in any way. For the Western writing culture, however, it belongs to the culture of writer responsibility. This means that readers expect and require the writers to provide them coherence in the texts in order to facilitate the reading. It is the responsibility on the part of the writers to make the texts coherent and flow smoothly. The implication of this study, according to Hinds, can be applicable not only to the writing of Japanese but also to other oriental writing as well.

Apart from Hinds (1987), Hinds (1990) also proposed another interesting typology of language concerning the writing styles in different culture. In the past, he said that it was assumed that there are only two different styles of writing: inductive writing and deductive writing. Inductive writing is characterized as '*having the thesis statement in the final position whereas deductive writing has the thesis statement in the initial position*' (p. 90). This is the typology that English-speaking writers and readers are familiar with. If they do not find the thesis statement at the beginning of

the text, usually they will assume that it is present at the end instead. However, Hinds (1990)'s argument is that for the writing of many oriental writers including Japanese, Chinese, Thai, and Korean, the pattern is not like that. These oriental writing styles are neither inductive nor deductive. Rather, they are what Hinds (1990) terms 'quasi-inductive.' Usually the thesis statement is not stated directly either at the beginning or the end of the text. Rather it is buried within the text itself. The thesis statement is usually presented later. Or, in other words, it involves the '*delayed introduction of purpose*' in Hinds' terms (p. 90).

These two typologies of language proposed by Hinds (1987) and Hinds (1990) can again be beneficial to this present study in explaining and accounting for certain differences in the writing style of Thai abstracts and English abstracts in the study.

As can be seen, this chapter has presented some theoretical background and frameworks used in this present study, as well as literature related to the topic. From the previous works in the field, it is quite apparent that the analysis of written texts using move analysis can certainly reveal certain aspects in the writing styles of writers. Moreover, as shown by findings from previous studies presented above, cultural background of writers can affect the writing as well. Therefore, it is interesting to see how this will exert itself in the comparative study of the abstract writing by students in Thailand and students in England. After being filled in with some background and related literature, it is time to proceed to the method of doing the research. In the following chapter then, the methodology and research design of this study is illustrated in detail.

CHAPTER III

Methodology

3.1 Overview

This chapter discusses the corpora as well as the methodology used in the study. The chapter begins with the section about population and samples of the study. Next, it proceeds to data collection. In this section, the descriptions of corpora, criteria for data gathering, and the size of the corpora are described. The following section is about data analysis. Finally, the last section presents the research instruments used in this study, namely the statistical analysis used for the inter-coder reliability.

3.2 Population and Samples

3.2.1 Population

Population is thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England.

3.2.2 Samples

Samples used in this study can be divided into 2 groups: the Thai abstract group and the English abstract group. Each group consists of 35 abstracts from various universities.

3.3 Data Collection

Samples as mentioned above are used as the data for the analysis in this study. The samples are divided into two main corpora, from now on called ‘The Thai Corpus’ and ‘The English Corpus.’

3.3.1 Descriptions of the Corpora

- A. *The Thai Corpus*: The data in this corpus represents thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand. It comprises 35 abstracts from 2 different universities in Thailand. The details are as follows:

- 13 thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics from the MA and Ph.D. programs in English as an International Language, Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University
- 1 thesis and dissertation abstract in linguistics from the MA program in English, Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University
- 21 thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics from the MA program in Applied Linguistics, Graduate Studies, Mahidol University

Note here that the data from the Thai corpus comes from only two universities. This is because of the limited number of universities in Thailand offering Master's Degree and Ph. D. in linguistics as an international program. Even though a number of universities in Thailand offer a degree in linguistic studies, only these two universities have the courses taught in English as an international program. And since one of the criteria for data selection is that the data in the Thai corpus must come from an international program only, the data then can be obtained only from these two limited universities.

B. *The English Corpus*: the data in this corpus represents thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in England. It comprises 35 abstracts from 5 different universities in England. The details are as follows:

- 15 thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics from University of York
- 14 thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics from University of Essex
- 2 thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics from Lancaster University
- 3 thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics from Aston University
- 1 thesis and dissertation abstract in linguistics from University of Exeter

The number of abstracts from each university in the English corpus is various. More abstracts were derived from University of York and University of Essex than from other universities. The reason for this is the limitation in terms of the nationalities of the writers. One of the criteria for data selection is for the abstracts in the English corpus to be written by English students. In order to do this, the researcher used the name screening method and discarded the names that are not of Anglo-Saxon root. Because of this, even though each university provides many abstracts in linguistics, only some of them can be used as data in the corpus. That is why the number of abstracts from each university is different.

The detailed descriptions of the data in the Thai corpus and the English corpus can be found in Appendix B and Appendix C of this study, respectively.

3.3.2 Criteria for Data Selection

In order for the data to be representative and balanced, certain criteria are set concerning the data used in this study. This section describes the criteria for data selection.

3.3.2.1 The Nationality of the Writers

In order for the data in the Thai corpus to be representative of the writing of Thai students, and for the data in the English Corpus to be representative of the writing of English students, the researcher used the name screening method to verify the nationalities of these writers.

For the writers of the abstracts in the Thai corpus, the researcher scanned through the name list and discarded all the names and last names that are not Thai.

For the writers of the abstracts in the English corpus, the same method was used. Here the researcher asked a university professor who is also a native speaker of English to scan the name list and rule out all the names and last names that are not of Anglo-Saxon root. However, the matter is more complicated than in the case of the Thai corpus. This complication stems from the border line used to define being English. It is undeniable that some people with names that are not Anglo-Saxon can in fact be English both in their nationality and language use. However, since there is no practical way to verify this, the researcher had to rule out all these people and keep only the names that are Anglo-Saxon in order for the corpus to be truly representative of English students.

Using the name screening method to determine the nationalities of the writers might contain some risks as stated above. But it has proved to be an effective and practical way as it is adopted in previous studies such as Yakhontova (2006) and Bonn and Swales (2007).

3.3.2.2 The International Program

For the data in the Thai corpus, the researcher decided to include only thesis and dissertation abstracts from international programs. The reason is because for regular master and Ph.D. programs taught in Thai, the students write their theses and dissertations as well as abstracts in Thai. The only requirement is for these students to attach an English version of their abstracts with the full texts. Because of this fact, it is highly possible that these students write their abstracts in Thai first and then translate them into English. Since the writing of these abstracts is likely to involve the

translation process, the results might not truly reflect the English writing style of these Thai students. Rather, they tend to exemplify many traits of Thai rhetoric transferred into the English version which is caused by the process of translation.

In order to avoid the translation effect, the researcher decided to choose the data for the Thai Corpus from international programs only. In these programs, all the teaching is done in English. The students are also required to write both their theses and dissertations, as well as their abstracts in English. Because of this fact, there is less possibility that the process of translation is going to interfere with the writing. The data then can reflect the English writing style of Thai students more accurately.

For all the three programs of whose data is used in this research, only the Master of Arts in English, Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University, is not an international program. However, this program is taught in English in all subjects and it requires its students to produce both their theses and abstracts in English. As a result, this program fits the criteria to be included in the corpus as well.

3.3.2.3 The Length of the Abstracts

The third issue concerns the length of the abstracts. According to Swales (1990), the length of data can affect the move structure of a text. The abstracts used in this study thus were chosen to be of comparable length. They are of approximately 150-350 words. In order to be able to investigate the structural pattern of abstracts, the full texts of these abstracts are used.

3.3.2.4 Publication Date

Finally, since the period in which the abstracts are written can also be another factor affecting the discourse of the abstracts, the data used in this study are limited to abstracts written during 1990 - 2009.

3.4 Data Analysis

The data analysis used in this study is move analysis, following the framework of Swales (1990, 2004). It is an analysis of the generic structures and organizational patterns. In order to do the move analysis of the thesis and dissertation abstracts in the corpora, there are three steps involved:

Step 1: Moves and Steps Identification

The first step is to identify the moves and steps involved in the genre of abstracts. Following Hyland (2000), the data was read through many times in order to 'get the feel' of the overall organization of the genre (p. 66). Then each move and step was marked. Although there are no exact rules concerning the demarcation of moves

and steps, the identification of textual boundaries in this study follows the analytical framework of Swales (1990, 2004): identifying the textual boundaries according to both the content and linguistic criteria.

After identifying all the moves and steps, the coding protocol was developed. According to Tisapramotkul (2007), this coding protocol serves three main purposes: 1) to provide operational criteria for identifying the moves and steps 2) to provide control for coding variation, and 3) to be used for the inter-coder reliability between the researcher and the coder. The coding protocol developed for this study can be found in Appendix D of this study. As for the examples of a full scale coding of abstracts, they can be found in Appendix E of this study.

Step 2: Inter-Coder Reliability Assessment

One of the criticisms against the use of move analysis is that it is a subjective method, especially regarding the identification of moves and steps. The solution for this is to have another coder apart from the researcher him/herself and then conduct an inter-coder reliability assessment. This is done in order to make sure that different individuals can have the same results when demarcating the textual boundaries of the texts.

In order to do this, the first thing to be done is to select a coder. According to Bhatia (1993), the coder must possess three characteristics: 1) be a competent expert member of the discourse community in which the genre belongs to 2) have a feel for the specialist language, and 3) can explain clearly what expert members of the discourse community do to exploit language in order to achieve the communicative goals. The coder who was selected for the task in this study is a university professor who is very experienced in teaching English. Moreover, the coder is a native speaker of English, with British nationality. Because of these qualifications, the coder proves to be eligible for the task. Moreover, the fact that the coder is British can complement the researcher as well. Being a native speaker of English, the coder is able to comprehend the texts fully and can even point out some aspects of the language that might be overlooked by the researcher. Moreover, the coder can contribute to this study by clarifying or giving explanations for certain practices done by English writers of the abstracts in the English corpus.

After the selection of the coder, there was a training for the coding system. The training took approximately one and a half hour. Firstly, the researcher explained the task and its purpose, along with the general concepts and instructions about genre analysis and move analysis to the coder. Next, the researcher went through moves and steps in the coding system and illustrated them via example texts from the corpora. Then the coder was asked to analyze two randomly selected texts from the corpus. After that the researcher discussed the findings with the coder. There was a slight

disagreement on some points which was sorted out after the discussion. After the training session, the coder was asked to individually code 20% of the texts randomly selected from each corpus: 7 texts from the Thai corpus, and 7 texts from the English corpus. The duration for the assignment was one month.

Finally, the analysis of the inter-coder reliability was calculated using agreement rate and Cohen's kappa (Detailed description can be found in section 3.5 of this chapter).

Step 3: Comparison of Move Analysis of the Two Corpora

In this stage, the results of move analysis in the two corpora were compared. This was done in 5 aspects:

The first aspect of the analysis deals with the frequency of moves and steps. This was done in order to see which move is more frequently used in each corpus. Moreover, the frequency of moves is used to determine whether certain move is conventional or optional. The cut-off frequency used to distinguish between a conventional move and an optional move is 60%, following the practice of Kanoksilapatham (2005). This means that if a move occurs more than 60% of the time in the entire corpus, it is considered a conventional move while if it occurs less than 60% of the time in the entire corpus, it is considered an optional move.

The second aspect concerns the sequence of moves. Here the texts in the corpora were analyzed to see whether they follow a conventional move pattern, that is proceeding from Move 1 to Move 5, or not. Moreover, the sequence of moves in each corpus was identified in order to establish the move structure distinct to each corpus.

The third aspect involves the repetition of moves. The data was examined to see which corpus has more move repetition, and which move is repeated most often in each corpus. Moreover, the cyclical patterns were also identified in order to see the pattern of move repetition.

The next aspect that was examined is move embedding. This refers to a phenomenon when more than one move occur within the same sentence boundary. The analysis was done in order to see which corpus has more move embedding. The pattern of move embedding was also examined. This is important because when a move is embedded, it might reflect that this move is considered of less importance than other moves.

The last aspect investigated was the generality and specificity of moves. This part was done in order to see the content of each move. Some moves are illustrated in detail while others are discussed only on the surface level. This analysis thus can

show us which move gets more attention from the writers and can also reveal its significance in each discourse community.

3.5 Research Instrument

This section discusses the research instrument used in the research, which is the inter-coder reliability assessment.

For the inter-coder reliability assessment, this study chose to use the agreement rate and Cohen's kappa as instruments. Firstly, the agreement rate was selected because it is widely used in calculating the inter-coder reliability. The percentage of the agreement rate can be calculated by taking all the units that the researcher and the coder agree with each other multiplied by 100. Then it will be divided by the total number of units coded.

The agreement rate, however, does not take into account the agreement occurring by chance. To tackle this limitation, Cohen's kappa was used to confirm the inter-coder reliability. Cohen's kappa is used to measure the agreement between two coders who classify the same sets of items (Detailed description on how to calculate kappa value can be found in Orwin 1994). The kappa value can range between the lower limit of 0.00 and the upper limit of 1.00. If the two coders are in total agreement with each other, the value is 1. On the contrary, if the two coders are in total disagreement, the value is 0. The interpretation of kappa value according to Fleiss, as cited in Orwin (1994), is: $k < 0.40$ = poor, $0.40 < k < 0.59$ = fair, $0.60 < k < 0.74$ = good, $k > 0.75$ = excellent.

The results of the inter-code reliability assessment are as follows. Firstly, the agreement rate is 94.25 per cent. This means that the two coders are in good agreement with each other. Secondly, as for the result of Cohen's kappa, the Kappa coefficient is 0.923. This again signifies that the two coders agree with each other on most points. The P-value, or the significant level of the result, is 0.000. This again confirms that the reliability level is significant. In summary, these figures indicate that the identification of moves by the two coders is reliable.

In summary, this chapter has presented the methodology employed in the study. It encompasses the data collection, the framework used and how the data was analyzed, as well as the details about the inter-coder reliability assessment.

In the following chapters then, the study proceeds to discuss the findings. The report of the findings obtained from this study is divided into two separate chapters: Chapter 4 and Chapter 5. Firstly, Chapter 4 presents the moves and steps found from the data in the two particular corpora used in this study. The coding protocol of these moves and steps are shown, along with their communicative purposes and examples

from the data. In this respect, it can be said that the results presented in Chapter 4 are actually the answer to the research question number 1: What are the move structures that characterize thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England?

After the moves and steps found are illustrated in Chapter 4, Chapter 5 presents the comparison of the move structures found from the data in the two corpora. This chapter reports on all the five dimensions of the move structures being examined, namely the frequency of moves and steps, the sequence of moves, the repetition of moves, move embedding, and the generality and specificity of moves. In this respect, it can be said that the results presented in this chapter are the answer to the research question number 2: What are the similarities and differences between the move structures employed in thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England?

CHAPTER IV

Results (1):

Moves and Steps Found in Thesis and Dissertation Abstracts in Linguistics Written by Students in Thailand and Students in England

This chapter presents the first part of the findings from the study. It encompasses the coding protocol of the moves and the steps found particularly from this set of data. The communicative purposes of each move and step, as well as examples for each move and step are incorporated here. As stated in the previous chapter, the findings presented in this chapter are the answer to research question number 1: what are the move structures that characterize thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England?

Using the analytical framework of Swales (1990, 2004) and Bhatia (1993) the researcher did a move analysis of 70 abstracts in the two corpora: The Thai Corpus and The English Corpus.

According to previous research done on move analysis of abstracts mentioned in Chapter 2, some works found a four-move pattern (Swales 1990; Nwogu 1990; Bhatia 1993; Martin 2003; Samraj 2002; Samraj 2005), while others found a five-move pattern (Santos 1996; Hyland 2000; Pho 2008; Kanoksilapatham 2009a; Kanoksilapatham 2009b). The names of the moves involved are also different in each study. The classic structure for abstracts would be the IMRD structure of Swales: 'Introduction,' 'Method,' 'Result,' and 'Discussion.' This is used in many works such as Swales 1990; Nwogu 1990; and Bhatia 1993. Still, other works employed their own move structure. Hyland (2000), for example, used 'Introduction' – 'Purpose' – 'Method' – 'Product' – 'Conclusion.' Santos (1006) and Pho (2008) which examine abstracts in linguistic field used another: 'Situating the Research' – 'Presenting the Research' – 'Describing the Methodology' – 'Summarizing the Results' – 'Discussing the Research.'

As for abstracts in this study, it is found that the data fits the five-move pattern. The moves are named according to their major communicative functions in order to be easy to understand and recognize. However, the steps involved in each move are distinct of the data in these corpora. As a result, the researcher established the moves and steps unique to this set of data. The details are as follows:

The five moves are:

- Move 1: Background
- Move 2: The Presentation of the Research
- Move 3: Methodology
- Move 4: Results
- Move 5: Discussion

In practice, when each move is realized, different steps or strategies can be employed to achieve the communicative goals of the move. The steps or strategies of each move found from the data in the two corpora are shown in the following table.

Table 4.1: Coding Protocol for Abstracts in the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus

Moves	Steps
Move 1: Background	Step 1: Stating the Importance of the Field or the Importance of the Topic
	Step 2: Giving Background Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 2A: Giving Background Information about the Field or the Topic • Step 2B: Defining/Commenting on Terminology or Theory Employed
	Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research
	Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need
Move 2: The Presentation of the Research	Step 1: Indicating Purpose
	Step 2: Indicating Main Features
	Step 3: Giving or Anticipating Solution <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis • Step 3B: Making Claims
	Step 4: Outlining Thesis/Dissertation Structure
Move 3: Methodology	Step 1: Describing Materials
	Step 2: Describing Research Procedures <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 2A: Describing Research Instruments • Step 2B: Describing Tasks and Procedures
	Step 3: Describing Data Analysis
	Step 4: Giving Statistical Information

Moves	Steps
Move 4: Results	Step 1: Reporting Results
	Step 2: Commenting on Results
	Step 3: Evaluating Results <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 3A: Discussing Results with Hypothesis • Step 3B: Comparing Results with Previous Literature • Step 3C: Confirming/Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making New Claims
Move 5: Discussion	Step 1: Giving Recommendation or Suggestion
	Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implication of the Study

Since moves are categorized according to their communicative goals, the communicative purposes of each move are described in detail in the following section. Along with these are the steps used in each move to accomplish these goals. Examples of these steps are provided as well. Note here that for each step, two examples are provided, one from the Thai corpus and the other from the English corpus. However, only one example is provided for the steps that exist only in the Thai corpus or in the English corpus.

4.1 Move 1: Background

This move has two main functions. The first one is to establish the context and orientation for the research. This move gives the readers background knowledge about the topic in question. At the same time, another important function of this move is to attract readers' attention. Since this move usually appears at the beginning of an abstract, it is the first gateway to capture the interest of its readers and invite them to read on. It can be said then that the function of the Background Move is promotional.

Move 1 can be realized in four different steps:

- Step 1: Stating the Importance of the Field or the Importance of the Topic
- Step 2: Giving Background Information
 - Step 2A: Giving Background Information about the Field or the Topic
 - Step 2B: Defining/Commenting on Terminology or Theory Employed
- Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research
- Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need

Step 1: Stating the Importance of the Field or the Importance of the Research

Step 1 usually states the importance of the field in which the research belongs to. Sometimes the writer seeks not to address the importance of the field of the research, but to cite the importance of the research itself. The function of this step thus is directly promotional, aiming at promoting the importance of the study. Examples of Step 1 are as follows:

- (1) *Autonomous learning or the aspect of learning where learners are supposed to take major control over their own learning is now playing an important role in language education. This is because classroom-based learning alone, as claimed by educators (Boud, 1998; Horwitz, 1987), is not sufficient for learners to master the language they are studying. (Thai 18)*
- (2) *An expression of the principles governing the distribution and referential dependencies of reflexives, pronouns, and referential-expressions, the binding theory has proved a highly successful and influential outcome of the generative programme. (English 1)*

Step 2: Giving Background Information

Step 2 gives background information about the field or about the topic of thesis or dissertation. This step is realized in order to prepare readers for the information about the research that will follow. Moreover, this step is employed in order to facilitate the reading and make the topic of discussion become easier to understand. In this case, this step is employed quite often when the topic of the thesis or dissertation is very technical or when the topic is assumed not to be known well among the majority of readers. This step can be realized in two ways:

Step 2A: Giving Background Information about the Field or the Topic

Firstly, in ‘Step 2A: Giving Background Information about the Field or the Topic,’ general background information about the field or the topic is explained. Examples of Step 2A are as follows:

- (3) *Based on the concepts of world Englishes and nativisation, distinctive characteristics of Thai English can be explained as transfers from Thai language, culture, and communication norms. (Thai 4)*

- (4) *Cynewulf knew that for mankind, the name of the Redeemer is inexpressible and unfathomable. A name – for Cynewulf – expresses the quality of that which is named. In the case of God, that quality transcends our understanding and the true name therefore cannot be known. However, the Christian God can be comprehended through his manifestations in this world and thus potentially bears all names. Designations for God in Old English poetry inhabit a position at the meeting point of Christian theological thought and Old English poetic diction. (English 2)*

Step 2B: Defining/Commenting on Terminology or Theory Employed

In Step ‘2B: Defining/Commenting on Terminology or Theory Employed,’ terminology and theory used and mentioned in the work are defined, explained or even commented on. An example of Step 2B is as follows. Since this step is realized only in the English corpus, only one example is presented here.

- (5) *Aspect, the linguistic means of encoding the ‘internal temporal constituency’ of an event or situation, is described as a system of binary opposition (Comrie, 1976:3). (English 12)*

Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research

In this step, writers cite literature or previous research related to the topic to give the readers background knowledge about the field of study by letting them know what the previous findings on the topic are. From this, writers can proceed to make their own claim supporting or challenging the previous findings. Moreover, this step helps promote the research as well because having a lot of literature on the topic proves that the topic is of importance. Examples of Step 3 are as follows:

- (6) *Previous research has shown that good learners use many and various LLS in order to succeed in their study and their work, while poor learners use fewer strategies. Earlier studies also indicate that different learning outcomes can be affected by using different learning strategies. (Thai 20)*
- (7) *In previous adult literature, data have been presented that support the view of sentence processing as highly incremental, proceeding on a word-by-word basis with extra-linguistic information immediately affecting the syntactic representation. (English 7)*

Step 4: Indicating the Gap

Step 4 indicates the gap in the field of study. This can be done in many ways. For example, it can demonstrate that the topic in question, though having been researched widely, is still a controversial issue, or it can demonstrate that the research in the area is still scarce. By indicating a gap, the writer points out that the research is required and it is important to fill that gap. Thus this step, in a way, helps promote the importance of the research. Examples of Step 4 are as follows:

- (8) *However, those studies were conducted among the general student population; none have been conducted with disabled students, so the present research aims to fill this gap. (Thai 20)*
- (9) *Previous analyses of the three main types of English Absolute not only fail to account fully for the subject Case-licensing facts, but, in overlooking the syntactic significance of aspectual properties of the predicates, miss the opportunity of providing a unified account of all three. (English 9)*

4.2 Move 2: The Presentation of the Research

The function of this move is to present the research to the readers. Information about the research in particular is described in this move. In other words, this move tells the readers what the research is about. Various kinds of information about the research can be given in this move.

Move 2 can be realized in four different steps:

- Step 1: Indicating Purpose
- Step 2: Indicating Main Features
- Step 3: Giving or Anticipating Solution
 - Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis
 - Step 3B: Making Claims
- Step 4: Outlining Thesis/Dissertation Structure

Step 1: Indicating Purpose

This step indicates the main purpose of the research. It shows the intention behind the work. Like Santos (1996) said, this step is purposive in nature. Examples of Step 1 are as follows:

- (10) *The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of implementing classroom tasks in a comparative case study concerning the practice of informing and not informing learners of the objectives of the task. (Thai 11)*

- (11) *A further aim of this thesis was to investigate children's ability to comprehend relative clause constructions. (English 7)*

Step 2: Indicating Main Features

This step indicates the main features of the research. It is descriptive in nature. The description can vary from the basic information like what the research is about to the frameworks used in the study. Examples of Step 2 are as follows:

- (12) *This research investigates English intonation in Thai students speaking Pattani Malay as their mother tongue. (Thai 1)*
- (13) *This thesis investigates the interface between the phonetic and the interactional organization of naturally-occurring British and American English conversation. (English 3)*

One thing to keep in mind here is that 'indicating purpose' as in 'Step 1: Indicating Purpose' is not the same as justification for the work. The writers do not actually tell readers 'why' this research is done. Rather, it is a description of the details of the work. In this respect, the content of 'Step 1: Indicating Purpose' is not very different from that of 'Step 2: Indicating Main Features.' However, it is the way writers present it, that is with phrases indicating purpose such as '*the purpose of this study is to...*,' which separates the two steps from each other. In short, it is not the content that distinguishes these two steps. Rather, it is the style of writing that does so.

Step 3: Giving or Anticipating Solution

In this step, writers give solutions or anticipate outcomes of their studies. This can be done in two different ways:

Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis

The first way is to employ 'Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis.' By using this step, the writers tell the readers the hypothesis they have for their studies. An example of Step 3A is as follows. Since this step is realized only in the English corpus, only one example is presented here.

- (14) *One hypothesis is that new science is actually enacted in research articles by a process of reformulating concepts within the text. (English 35)*

Step 3B: Making Claims

Another way writers could do is to use ‘Step 3B: Making Claims.’ With this step, writers propose or make their own claims about the topic in question. These claims can be in line or contrast with previous studies or existing theories. An example of Step 3B is as follows. Since this step is realized only in the English corpus, only one example is presented here.

- (15) *I claim these two threads should be tied together, in that phases should be defined in terms of such quantificational layers.*
(English 15)

Step 4: Outlining Thesis/Dissertation Structure

With this step, writers give readers an outline of the structures of their theses or dissertations. This can be the overall structure of the entire work chapter by chapter, the structure of each chapter including its contents and goals, or the outline of studies or case studies in the work. It is noticeable that when this step is used, it partly intervenes, if not destroys, the structure of other moves and steps. This is because all the information which actually belongs to other moves and steps is clustered in this single step, using chapter structure or overall thesis/dissertation structure as the main determiners. An example of Step 4 is as follows. Since this step is realized only in the English corpus, only one example is presented here.

- (16) *The reasons that prompted this hypothesis are outlined in the Introduction. Chapter Two argues more fully the theoretical foundations. The methodology chosen to test the hypothesis is described in Chapter Three, Four, and Five. Chapter Six, Seven, and Eight present the results. Chapter Nine interprets them and attempts a conclusion.* (English 38)

4.3 Move 3: Methodology

After giving the context of the study and telling the readers what the research is really about, then the next section is usually ‘Move 3 Methodology.’ This move answers the question how the research is done. The main function of the move is to provide detailed descriptions about the design of the research in terms of data, subjects, instruments, procedures, and others according to the type of research. This move can be realized in four different steps:

- Step 1: Describing Materials
- Step 2: Describing Research Procedures
 - Step 2A: Describing Research Instruments
 - Step 2B: Describing Tasks and Procedures
- Step 3: Describing Data Analysis
- Step 4: Giving Statistical Information

Step 1: Describing Materials

This step usually describes materials used in the study. This can range from data to subjects, participants or even data collection. Various information about this is given. For example, when the data used in the research is described, the information about it such as the number of the data or the source of the data is usually given. Or when the subjects or participants in the research are described, the information about these subjects or participants like their age, nationality, or other specific characteristics is usually given. Moreover, data collection, or the way by which writers get the data, can also be mentioned in this step. Examples of Step 1 are as follows:

- (17) *The data were collected from 30 students majoring in English from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Prince of Songkhla University, Pattani Campus, by reading various English passages. The two sample groups were selected according to their relative English exposure score. (Thai 1)*
- (18) *The core data that is used in the investigation consists of sentences containing the English temporal connectives 'until' and 'before,' which provide compelling evidence for the existence of such a relationship. (English 6)*

Step 2: Describing Research Procedures

This step gives details about the research instruments used in the study. It can be done in two ways:

Step 2A: Describing Research Instruments

Firstly, writers can describe research instruments employed in their study as in Step 2A. An example of Step 2A is as follows. Since this step is realized only in the Thai corpus, only one example is presented here.

- (19) *The instruments used were the Strategy Inventory Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 and the Life Skill Test. (Thai 1)*

Step 2B: Describing Tasks and Procedures

Another possibility is that details about the tasks that subjects or participants have to do in the research, or the procedures of the research can be discussed as in ‘Step 2B: Describing Tasks and Procedures.’ Examples of Step 2B are as follows:

- (20) *At the commencement of the study, all subjects were pre-tested by using the Test of English Tenses Usage (TETU) developed by the researcher. After they completed 9 CALL lessons in 3 weeks, the posttest was conducted. (Thai 6)*
- (21) *Comprehension tasks were used to assess the interpretation of active and passive sentences and to test their knowledge of pronouns and reflexives. Elicitation tasks were used for the evaluation of past tense, plurals and comparative adjectives. (English 22)*

Step 3: Describing Data Analysis

This step illustrates how the data is analyzed. This can include the instruments used for data analysis, or the framework, approach, or theory used for the analysis. Examples of Step 3 are as follows:

- (22) *The analysis is done in two levels: quantitative analysis and qualitative analysis. In the first step, frequencies of occurrence of all types of noun modifiers and sentence constructions in Thai English corpus and British English corpus are compared using chi square statistics. (Thai 4)*
- (23) *Features and syllabification are discussed as the interpretation respectively of paradigmatic and syntagmatic aspects of phonological phenomena. Trees provide an analytical representation of both restrictions and alternations in both paradigmatic and syntagmatic aspects. Alternations are analysed into removal and replacement, or loss, and by domain, on paradigmatic trees, and restrictions by sequences of syntagmatic trees which analyse the structure of domains separately from above and below. (English 33)*

Step 4: Giving Statistical Information

This step gives details about the statistics used in the research. Mostly, this involves the reliability and validity of the research. An example of Step 4 is as follows. Since this step is realized only in the Thai corpus, only one example is presented here.

- (24) *The K-R 20 of the pre-test and post-test was 0.85, and the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the questionnaires was 0.87. Data were analyzed by mean, standard deviation, and t test. (Thai 11)*

4.4 Move 4: Results

The main function of this move is to give information about the findings of the research. It is the part that answers the question about what is found from the research. The information given can be the objective report of the findings. Still, many a time this move encapsulates the writer's subjective comments on the results as well.

In some other studies, however, the 'Result' move encompasses only the objective report of the findings while the comments on the findings are categorized as belonging to 'Move 5: Discussion.' Yet, the boundaries between the Result section and the Discussion section are still a debatable issue (Ruiying and Allison 2003). Thus, there is still no definite answer of which section the comments on the results should belong to. It depends on each researcher's judgment. In this research, the researcher decided to put the comments on results within 'Move 4: Results.' This is because when reporting the results, the findings are usually discussed and commented on. Sometimes, writers alternate between the two steps in order to make the results coherent. Thus, it is not suitable to put the report of the results in one section while its comments are put in another section.

This move can be realized in three main steps:

- Step 1: Reporting Results
- Step 2: Commenting on Results
- Step 3: Evaluating Results
 - Step 3A: Discussing Results with Hypothesis
 - Step 3B: Comparing Results with Previous Literature
 - Step 3C: Confirming/Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making new Claims

Step 1: Reporting Results

This step reports the main findings of the research. Usually, it is the objective information derived from the analysis. Examples of Step 1 are as follows:

- (25) *The findings show that intelligibility levels of Singaporean English speakers toward Thai English speakers are higher than those of Thai English speakers toward Singaporean English*

speakers, which are 57 percent and 44.25 percent in average, respectively. (Thai 8)

- (26) *The results from the individuals with Williams syndrome indicate that they perform well on the tasks of complex syntax and on regular morphology but they perform at lower levels of accuracy in irregular morphology, producing high numbers of overregularisation errors. (English 22)*

Step 2: Commenting on Results

This step is where writers give their subjective and interpretive judgment on the results. This can be done in many ways. It encompasses subjective interpretation of the writers on the results as well as the writer's attempt to account for the results. Examples of 'Step 2: Commenting on Results' are as follows:

- (27) *The findings suggest that the cause of the deviation in terms of tune might come from the understanding of the meanings of all the tunes as related to the texts, the overgeneralization process, the length of the sentences, and the tone assignment rules in Thai. (Thai 1)*
- (28) *It demonstrates that clicks --- previously regarded as having only paralinguistic function in English --- do in fact have an orderly, sequential distribution which can be mapped onto the interactional structure of talk. Moreover, clicks are shown to have different functions according to their embedded contexts of production. (English 3)*

In the first two examples above, the writers comment on the results by giving subjective interpretation of them.

- (29) *To explain these results, I argue that these L2 learners are less able than native speakers to combine and employ a mixture of phrase-structural and lexical/thematic information on-line, and that in the face of certain cases of structural ambiguity and structural complexity they delay parsing decisions when processing these English sentences in real time. (English 26)*

In the final example, the writer tries to explain the cause of the results of his/her study. In other words, s/he tries to give readers an explanation why the results are like that.

Step 3: Evaluating Results

This step is where writers evaluate the results of their studies. This can be done in many ways:

Step 3A: Discussing Results with Hypothesis

This step reports the results and discusses them in accordance with the hypothesis that the writers set for the research. This can be a confirmation or rejection of the hypothesis set up earlier by the writers. An example of Step 3A is as follows. Since this step is realized only in the Thai corpus, only one example is presented here.

- (30) *The findings from the statistic quantitative analyses and the interviews supported the hypothesis that the temporal context, the context of participants, and the types of discourse were the governing factors in the translators' choices of linguistic forms. (Thai 2)*

Step 3B: Comparing Results with Previous Literature

This step reports the results in conjunction with previous literature on the topic. Writers usually compare the findings from his or her research with the literature related to their topics. This also includes confirming or challenging existing theory or claims made by previous research. Examples of Step 3B are as follows:

- (31) *Interestingly, abstracts from scientists were mainly focused on the study's results (25.8%), background information (21.8%), and drawing conclusions (15.8%), which differ from the linguistic field studied by Santos. (Thai 14)*
- (32) *Consistent with the findings of Hamburger & Crain (1982) it was shown that children are sensitive to the pragmatic conditions associated with these structures. (English 7)*

Step 3C: Confirming/Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making New Claims

In this step, writers either confirm, reject, or challenge existing theory or claims relevant to their studies, using the findings from their works as justification. It is also possible, however, for some writers to propose their own new claims, new frameworks, or even new theories on the topic based on the findings from their studies. Examples of Step 3C are as follows:

- (33) *This information provides evidence showing nativisation of English in Thai context. Therefore, the existence of Thai English as a variety of world Englishes, to some extent, can be claimed since Thai English can express its unique identity, while at the same time, still maintain intelligibility in international communication. (Thai 4)*
- (34) *An alternative system of representation is proposed in which: (1) the formal system of representing relative scope is kept as independent as possible of the grammatical and semantic theories chosen, and (2) a theory of availability based upon sentences' function-argument structure rather than free variables is adopted, allowing an efficient procedure for deciding whether meanings are available. (English 11)*
- (35) *This result is surprising and somewhat problematic for both minimal trees and full transfer/full access, given that positive evidence appears to be available in the input, and both theories predict target acquisition under such circumstances. (English 19)*

4.5 Move 5: Discussion

In this move, writers usually extend the results of their research into a wider scope. The research is brought back to the research world and sometimes connections are made between the research and the real world beyond it. This move can be realized in two different steps:

- Step 1: Giving Recommendation or Suggestion
- Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implication of the Study

Step 1: Giving Recommendation or Suggestion

This step provides recommendation or suggestion for the issue in question. Also, it can be employed to give readers recommendation or suggestion about the possibility of further research in the field. Examples of Step 1 are as follows:

- (36) *The findings suggest that EFL teacher educators should incorporate collaborative teaching into teacher training programs in order to enhance student teachers' self-evaluation, problem-solving skills, concerns for others, and open-mindedness. (Thai 15)*
- (37) *Recommendations are made for conducting further introspective studies of listening comprehension. (English 32)*

Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implication of the Study

This step provides the contribution or implication of the study. This is an attempt from the side of the writers to relate the findings from their studies to the research world and beyond. It shows that their studies are of practical value and can certainly be of use in real life. Examples of Step 2 are as follows:

- (38) *The findings of this research in terms of the structure of abstracts in scientific journals may facilitate the process of disseminating scientific discoveries and advancements for both native and non-native science writers. English academic writing teachers along with postgraduate EFL/ESL students and other interested parties would find this study valuable for their academic careers. (Thai 14)*
- (39) *Taken as a whole, this thesis contributes to a better understanding of the relationship between the phonetic design of talk and its interactional function; it also demonstrates methodology which can be used to more fully understand participants' linguistic competences, as displayed and deployed in talk-in-interaction. (English 5)*

In conclusion, from the analysis of the two corpora of abstracts written by students in Thailand and students in England, it is found that these abstracts have a five-move pattern. However, though the abstracts from both corpora fit this pattern, an in-depth analysis reveals that the employment of the moves is different in terms of the frequency of moves and steps, the sequence of moves, the repetition of moves, move embedding, and the generality and specificity of moves. These issues are discussed in detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER V

Results (2):

A Comparison of Move Structures of Thesis and Dissertation Abstracts in Linguistics Written by Students in Thailand and Students in England

5.1 Overview

The in-depth analysis of the move structures of thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England reveals certain differences in the writing culture of the two discourse communities. In order to investigate this point, this study employs the framework of move analysis proposed by Swales (1990, 2004). The analysis of moves can be done in many aspects. Most works examine the frequency of moves and steps (Santos 1996; Martin 2003; Yakhontova 2006; Bonne and Swales 2007). Other works analyze other aspects such as the repetition of moves (Swales, 1990, 2004), move embedding (Santos 1996; Martin 2003) or the length and degree of generality and specificity of moves (Yakhontova 2006; Tisapramotkul 2007).

In order to obtain a full description of abstracts in the corpora, however, this research analyzes move structures in all 5 directions: the frequency of moves and steps, the sequence of moves, the repetition of moves, move embedding and the generality and specificity of moves. The findings from this analysis are the answer to research question number two of this study: what are the similarities and differences between the move structures employed in thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England? The details of the findings are as follows.

5.2 The Frequency of Moves and Steps

This section compares the frequency of moves and steps used in abstracts written by students in Thailand and students in England. It analyzes in terms of the presence and the absence of moves and steps, as well as the frequency of which they occur.

Analyzing the frequency of moves is important because it can reveal what part of abstracts is considered crucial in each discourse community. This can shed light on the backbone notion that governs the writing of this genre in each discourse culture. Apart from the analysis of the frequency of moves, analyzing steps used in each move also gives a detailed description of the strategies employed by writers to achieve their communicative goals. In other words, while the analysis of the frequency of moves shows us which part is considered indispensable in each discourse community, the

analysis of steps shows us the technique these writers use to convey their ideas and accomplish the communicative purposes of a particular move.

5.2.1 The Frequency of Moves

Firstly, this section begins with the analysis of the frequency of moves used in the corpora. Following the practice of Swales (1990), moves are classified into two categories: conventional and optional. Conventional moves are moves used in most abstracts while optional moves are moves used only in certain abstracts. Following the practice of Kanoksilapatham (2005), the cut-off frequency point used in this research is 60%. This means that if a move occurs more than 60% of the time, it is considered a conventional move. On the other hand, if a move occurs less than 60% of the time, it is considered to be an optional move. Moreover, another type of move has been added in this research: the obligatory move. If a move is considered an obligatory move, it occurs 100% of the time in the corpus; that is, it occurs in every abstract in the corpus. The results are as follows:

Table 5.1: A Comparison of the Frequency of Occurrence of Moves in Abstracts Written by Students in Thailand and Students in England

Move	Thai Corpus		English Corpus	
	Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage	Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage
Move 1: Background	8	22.85	22	62.85
Move 2: The Presentation of the Research	35	100	35	100
Move 3: Methodology	35	100	27	77.14
Move 4: Results	35	100	29	82.85
Move 5: Discussion	10	28.57	15	42.85

As can be seen from table 5.1, the frequency of the occurrence of moves in the Thai and English corpus are dissimilar.

Firstly, in the Thai corpus, it is found that ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research,’ ‘Move 3: Methodology’ and ‘Move 4: Results’ are categorized as conventional moves because they occur more than 60% of the time in the entire corpus, with a frequency of 100% in all three moves. Moreover, they are obligatory moves as well because they occur in every abstract in the corpus with a frequency of occurrence of 100%. According to this finding it is clear that these three moves are an inherent part of the abstracts written by Thai students.

In the English corpus, the result is fairly similar. ‘Move 1: Background,’ ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research,’ ‘Move 3: Methodology,’ and ‘Move 4: Results’ are conventional moves because they occur more than 60% of the time in the entire corpus, with a frequency of 62.85%, 100%, 77.14%, and 82.85%, respectively. However, the difference between the Thai corpus and the English corpus is that among these four moves, only ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is considered an obligatory move which occurs in every abstract in the corpus. In short, in the English corpus, these four moves are considered important but only ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is an inherent part of an abstract. As for ‘Move 1: Background,’ ‘Move 3: Methodology’ and ‘Move 4: Results,’ they are considered vital but not indispensable.

Moreover, the interesting thing here is that in the Thai corpus, ‘Move 1: Background’ and ‘Move 5: Discussion’ are categorized as optional moves because they occur less than 60% of the time in the entire corpus, with a frequency of occurrence of 22.85% and 28.57%, respectively. The result is different in the English corpus where only ‘Move 5: Discussion’ is considered an optional move as it occurs less than 60% of the time in the entire corpus, with a frequency of occurrence of 42.85%. As for ‘Move 1: Background’ in the English corpus, it is considered a conventional move as it occurs more than 60% of the time in the entire corpus, with a frequency of occurrence of 62.85%.

From the above analysis, one major disparity between the data in the two corpora can be seen; that is, ‘Move 1: Background’ is considered an optional move in the Thai corpus while in the English corpus, it is a conventional move. This brings us to the first difference in the writing of Thai students and English students – lack of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus. This is in contrast with the writing of Anglo-American writers in which a lot of effort is usually put into ‘Move 1: Background.’ In fact, the tendency to avoid or omit ‘Move 1: Background’ has been found in the majority of writing of non-native speakers of English – in Malay by Ahmad (1997), in French by Bonn and Swales (2007), in Spanish by Burgess (2002), in Swedish by Fredrickson and Swales (1994) and in Chinese by Taylor and Chen (1991). The phenomenon, then, is fairly universal and there are certain explanations that might account for this.

First of all, the absence of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus may reveal a difference in the perception of the importance and value that writers attach to the move. Because the space for an abstract is usually limited, writers tend to cut out those parts that they think are not really important. This includes ‘Move 1: Background’ in the case of abstracts written by Thai students. Most of the abstracts used as data in this study start with ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research,’ with phrases indicating the purpose of the study or the features of the study. This shows

that, in the Thai corpus, the weight given to ‘Move 1: Background’ is less than other moves. So in a situation where there is a space constraint such as in an abstract, it is ‘Move 1: Background’ that is excluded.

Moreover, this is done in relation to the promotional quality of abstracts as well. Since one of the most crucial functions of an abstract is to catch the reader’s attention, going straight to the point in order to hook the reader is a priority. As a result, instead of starting with ‘Move 1: Background,’ some abstracts in the Thai corpus resort to starting with ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ and telling the reader directly and right away what the work is about. It is possible then that this fear of losing the attention of reader is one of the causes of the lower frequency of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus.

Secondly, moving into a more complicated sphere, there is also a sociological explanation for this. The justification for the lack of ‘Move 1: Background’ here can be said to be the result of the size and pressure of the discourse community or what Bonn and Swales (2007) refer to as ‘*size and professional maturity of target discourse communities*’ (p. 105). In the Anglo-American discourse community the bigger size and higher pressure means students have to struggle to situate their work in the research world in order to be admitted into the community. Because of this, English students have to try hard to justify their research and prove that their works are of value. This attempt to promote and justify the research is reflected through the use of ‘Move 1: Background.’ That is why this move occurs a lot more often in the English corpus.

In the case of the Thai corpus, the situation is dissimilar. It is undeniable that the size of the discourse community of Thai linguists is considerably smaller than that of Anglo-American’s. As a result, the pressure and degree of competitiveness within the circle of Thai linguists may be said to be lower as well. Because of this fact, less emphasis is put on ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus than in the English corpus. This has certainly resulted in the apparently lower number of occurrences of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus. Previous literature which has compared the abstract writing and introduction section of research articles written by L2 students and native speakers of English has confirmed this point as well (Ahmad 1997; Bonn and Swales 2007; Burgess 2002; Fredrickson and Swales 1994; Melander, Swales and Fredrickson 1997; and Taylor and Chen 1991).

Note here that in future the circumstances may change in the case of Thailand. This can be seen from the fact that today most theses and dissertations in Thailand are required to be accompanied by abstracts written both in Thai and in English regardless the language of the full text. This requirement of an English abstract shows that the Thai academic society is gearing up for the international level and as we enter

the world of international research, the degree of competitiveness is very likely to soar.

Finally, the last explanation for the lack of 'Move 1: Background' in the Thai corpus may stem from the factor of the projected audience. In the first place, one of the basic communicative goals of 'Move 1: Background' is to provide preliminary information about the topic. The fact that this move rarely occurs in the Thai corpus might stem from the assumption that the intended readers are assumed to have sufficient basic knowledge about the topic. If there is such an assumption, it is probable that the intended readers will be people in the same circle with the same kind of interests and background knowledge. The circle of projected readers these writers have in mind can thus be said to be relatively smaller and more specific.

The above point of a smaller circle of projected readers leads us to the next related point. The basic idea is that if it is believed that a work is to be read by a wider size and range of audience then it is possible that more effort will be put into situating the research and justifying the importance of it. As for abstracts in the Thai corpus, the intended audience may be the thesis advisor and particular groups of readers in Thailand who are interested in the topic of research so the scope of prospective readers will be quite limited. As a result, the attempt to situate the research may be less.

The situation is different in the case of the English abstracts. Because the discourse community of linguists in England is bigger than that in Thailand it is possible that the prospective readers of abstracts and theses will be wider as well. Moreover, unlike in Thailand, the abstracts, and sometimes also the theses, of English students are uploaded on to online databases and disseminated and, as a result of this process, their works are intended to be read by a wider range of readers. These works are then disseminated not only at the national level but also at the international level via these online databases. Although this practice also exists in the case of Thai theses it is not as common. Bearing this in mind, it is not surprising that a greater attempt is made for English abstracts to situate their works in the research world and compete for attention from readers. A study by Bonn and Swales (2007) illustrates this point of the size of the projected audience or what they refer to as the factor of '*audience design*' (p. 105). In that study, they found that, Jean-Louis Vidalenc, one of the authors of the data used in their corpus, admitted that he decided to review and rewrite his abstract in order to attract a wider readership, the Anglophone audience. The implication here is that when there is the possibility of a wider audience, there is also the possibility of a higher and more overt attempt to situate the abstracts, as well as the works themselves, in that wider context.

In conclusion, it can be seen that, on the surface, the frequency of the occurrence of moves in the two corpora is quite similar. However, a closer

investigation reveals certain differences between the data in the two corpora, especially the tendency to omit ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus, that can be attributed to cultural factors. In the next section, the frequency of steps used in each move is investigated in order to give a clearer picture of the move structures.

5.2.2 The Frequency of Steps

Apart from the frequency of moves, the frequency of steps is analyzed as well. This can give us an insight into the strategies by which the communicative goals of each move are accomplished. The analysis reveals that writers in each corpus use different steps to achieve the goal of each move. Details about steps employed in each move and selected major disparity found are described in the following section.

5.2.2.1 The Frequency of Steps Employed in ‘Move 1: Background’

There are 4 different steps in ‘Move 1: Background,’ namely:

- Step 1: Stating the Importance of the Field or the Importance of the Topic
- Step 2: Giving Background Information
 - Step 2A: Giving Background Information about the Field or the Topic
 - Step 2B: Defining/Commenting on Terminology or Theory Employed
- Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research
- Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need

When ‘Move 1: Background’ is realized in the Thai corpus and the English corpus, the frequency of occurrence is as shown in the following table.

Table 5.2: A Comparison of the Frequency of Occurrence of Steps Employed in ‘Move 1: Background’

Steps		Thai Corpus		English Corpus	
		Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage	Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage
Step 1: Stating the Importance of the Field or the Importance of the Topic		5	14.28	6	17.14
Step 2: Giving Background Information	Step 2A: Giving Background Information about the Field or the Topic	2	5.71	10	28.57
	Step 2B: Defining/ Commenting on Terminology or the Theory Employed	1	2.85	1	2.85
Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research		1	2.85	5	14.28
Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need		4	11.42	14	40

Since the communicative function of ‘Move 1: Background’ is twofold – giving justification for the research and creating a link between the research and other previous studies in the field – these steps are used in order to achieve these communicative goals. By employing ‘Step 1: Stating the Importance of the Field or the Importance of the Topic,’ or ‘Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need,’ it can be said that the abstracts reflect the writer’s attempt to achieve the first communicative goal, that is, to give justification for the research. On the other hand, when ‘Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research’ is employed, the abstracts are aiming at achieving the second communicative goal of ‘Move 1: Background,’ that is, to create a link between the research and other previous studies in the field. With this in mind, we proceed to the analysis of the steps used in this move.

In the Thai corpus, when ‘Move 1: Background’ is realized, writers tend to employ ‘Step 1: Stating the Importance of the Field or the Importance of the Topic,’ or ‘Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need,’ with a frequency of occurrence of 14.28% and 11.42%, respectively. For ‘Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or

Previous Research,' however, it is only used once in the entire corpus, with a frequency of occurrence of merely 2.85%.

In the English corpus, the steps that are used by the majority of writers are 'Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need' and 'Step 2A: Giving Background Information about the Field or the Topic,' with a frequency of occurrence of 40% and 28.57%, respectively. Note here the higher frequency of 'Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need.' When it comes to 'Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research,' the frequency of occurrence is also higher than that in the Thai corpus, with a percentage of 14.28.

An interesting point arising from the above results is in terms of the discrepancy in the frequency of occurrence of 'Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research' and 'Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem, or Need.' These two steps rarely occur in the Thai corpus with a frequency of occurrence of only 2.85 and 11.42 per cent, respectively. In the English corpus, on the other hand, the frequency of occurrence of these two steps is quite high, amounting to 14.28 and 40 per cent, respectively.

The interpretation here is that when 'Move 1: Background' is realized, Thai students tend to avoid criticizing the works of others or pointing out shortcomings in the field. However, when 'Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research' and 'Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need' are realized, most of the time they have to include some criticism or evaluation of the works of others. For this reason, the tendency to employ these two moves in the Thai corpus is quite low compared with that of the English corpus.

This can be explained in the light of the cultural framework of Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) (cf. Chapter 2 section 2.4.3.1). According to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), Thailand is considered to be a country with a collectivist culture whereas England, falling at the other end of the continuum, is a country with an individualistic culture. Since Thailand belongs to a collectivist society, Thai people tend to see themselves as part of a group so they try to maintain harmony with the group as well as to avoid any confrontation that might occur. This fact, then, can be a reason why abstracts from the Thai corpus tend not to criticize works of others or report shortcomings in their field of study directly. English people, however, belonging to the other end of the spectrum, see themselves as independent of the group. For an individualistic society like this, speaking one's own mind is considered a preferred quality in a person. Also, harmony is not often sought after while confrontation is not always avoided. This, then, is a possible explanation why 'Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research' is used more frequently in the English corpus and for the fact that they are often critical of other people's works more often.

This is also true for the use of ‘Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need,’ in which the shortcomings of research in the field is often stated directly.

Apart from the framework of Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), there are other studies on cultural differences which point out that harmony is something Thai people cherish. One such example would be the study by Hall (1981) (cf. Chapter 2 section 2.4.3.2). He categorizes intercultural communication into two planes: high-context (HC) culture and low-context (LC) culture. The point that concerns us here is that in a high-context (HC) culture like Thailand, one of the important goals is to promote and also sustain harmony within a group. Again the notion of harmony plays an important role in Thai culture and this confirms the assertion that direct criticism is usually avoided in abstracts in the Thai corpus as stated above.

The second explanation here is that related to what is called the academic discourse community factor. When Hirano (2009) compared the writing of English and Brazilian Portuguese, it was found that Brazilian Portuguese writers do not try to establish a gap. His explanation for this is that in a relatively small and closed community, there is a tendency for its members to try to maintain good relationships with others in their circle. This is what he terms ‘*solidarity with the local research community.*’ This is also true for the discourse community of Thai linguists which is quite small and close-knit. It is possible that Thai students try to maintain solidarity within their research community and as a result do not feel comfortable criticizing works of other people in their circle. A study of research article introduction in Thai by Jogthong (2001), as quoted in Hirano (2009), also mentions this tendency of Thais to avoid criticizing others openly. In the case of Thais, the boundary for this solidarity they try to maintain seems to have expanded to encapsulate not only members from their immediate academic community but also established members in the field outside their own community. In other words, it is not only dispute within the close-knitted discourse community of Thais that is to be avoided but also any clash of ideas and confrontation that might occur when challenging other existing ideas proposed by other figures in the field at the international level as well.

In this respect, Thai students are fairly similar to other non-native speakers of English, particularly oriental students, who do not feel comfortable criticizing the works of others or pointing out gaps in the research community. This point is confirmed by the works of Taylor and Chen (1991); Ahmad (1997); and Melander, Swales and Fredrickson (1997). In these works, it is found that, like Thais, Chinese, Malay and Swedish writers have a tendency to avoid dispute caused by criticizing the works of others. This results in the low frequency of occurrence of the literature review part in these writers’ works or even the complete omission of the section.

In summary then, the major difference found in the steps used in ‘Move 1: Background’ is the tendency to avoid using ‘Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or

Previous Research’ and ‘Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need.’ The explanation for this can be both sociological as well as discourse community factor.

5.2.2.2 The Frequency of Steps Employed in ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’

There are 4 different steps in ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research,’ namely:

- Step 1: Indicating Purpose
- Step 2: Indicating Main Features
- Step 3: Giving or Anticipating Solution
 - Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis
 - Step 3B: Making Claims
- Step 4: Outlining Thesis/Dissertation Structure

When ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is realized in the Thai corpus and the English corpus, the frequency of occurrence is as shown in the following table.

Table 5.3: A Comparison of the Frequency of Occurrence of Steps Employed in ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’

Steps		Thai Corpus		English Corpus	
		Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage	Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage
Step 1: Indicating Purpose		23	65.71	8	22.85
Step 2: Indicating Main Features		17	48.57	33	94.28
Step 3: Giving or Anticipating Solution	Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis	0	0	3	8.57
	Step 3B: Making Claims	0	0	6	17.14
Step 4: Outlining Thesis/ Dissertation Structure		1	2.85	5	14.28

In the table two major differences can be underscored. The first dissimilarity found between the data in the Thai corpus and the English corpus is the frequency of occurrence of ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose’ and ‘Step 2: Indicating Main Features.’ In the Thai corpus, when ‘Move 2: Presenting the Research’ is realized, the main step that is used is ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose,’ which occurs in 23 out of 35 abstracts, amounting to 65.71%. The second most used step is ‘Step 2: Indicating Main

Features,’ which occurs in 17 out of 35 abstracts, accounting for 48.57%. The trend is, however, reversed in the English corpus where the main step used is ‘Step 2: Indicating Main Features,’ occurring in 33 out of 35 abstracts, accounting for 94.28%. The second most used step is ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose,’ occurring in only 8 out of 35 abstracts, accounting for 22.85%.

Following the comparison of Santos (1996), ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose’ and ‘Step 2: Indicating Main Features’ can be said to be *‘purposive’* and *‘descriptive’* in nature (p. 488). While the first pays attention to underscoring the purpose of the research, the second emphasizes giving descriptive details of what the research is all about. However, one thing to be clarified here is that a purposive statement is different from a statement saying *‘why’* this research has been done. It is not a justification for the research, rather, it is a plain statement indicating the purpose of the research with formulaic expressions like *‘the purpose of this thesis is to explore...’* or *‘this thesis attempts to investigate...’* Examples of this realization of ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose’ are as follows:

- (40) *The purpose of this study were to 1) analyze the negotiation features for meaning and form in synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) and 2) study the opinions of students after using SCMC in practicing English. (Thai 13)*
- (41) *The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between Mattayom 6 (Year 12) EFL students’ performance in English on teacher-made tests (GPA), and the Ordinary National-Educational Testing (O-NET). (Thai 16)*

In this respect, the finding here is in line with that found in Bonne and Swales (2007). In that work, it was found that journal abstracts written by the French also rely heavily on *‘purposive’* statement while English ones rely heavily on *‘descriptive’* statement.

Since, in fact, the contents of ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose’ and ‘Step 2: Indicating Main Features’ are actually the same and the real difference lies in the way this information is presented, it can be said that it is the difference in the writing styles of each discourse community that directs the way in which ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is presented in each abstract.

The second major difference found concerns the use of ‘Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis’ and ‘Step 3B: Making Claims.’ In the Thai corpus, these two steps are not used at all in the entire corpus. In the English corpus, on the other hand, ‘Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis’ is employed in 3 out of 35 abstracts, totaling 8.57% while ‘Step 3B: Making Claims’ is employed in 6 out of 35 abstracts, totaling 17.14%. Thus, it is the absence of these two steps in the Thai corpus that stands out.

The explanation can again be interpreted in terms of the difference in the cultural background of writers. Using the cultural difference paradigm of Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), the level of individualism and collectivism in the two societies, once again, plays a part here. As a collectivist society, Thais try to avoid confrontation and maintain in-group harmony. Moreover, since Thais belongs to a high context culture, according to Hall (1981), directness can be considered to be a rude as well as an offensive act and because of this, it is considered not only inappropriate to pronounce their own stance directly but also an act which seems to display a lack of humility. Moreover, stating one's own stance towards an issue, especially a controversial one, is considered a threat to face and leads to the possibility of confrontation. It is not common, therefore, in the practice of Thais to do such a thing as stating their own claims directly. In the English academic community, which belongs to the individualist type, on the other hand, the matter is different. They do not avoid confrontation and, indeed, disagreement and criticism are often welcomed. In belonging to a low context culture, according to Hall's (1981) typology, explicitness and directness are usually considered to be a preferable act in this community. As a result, the use of 'Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis' and 'Step 3B: Making Claims' are present more often in the English corpus. Moreover, in the data in this corpus, when these two steps are realized, they are usually accompanied by the use of the first person pronoun 'I.' This use of the first person pronoun shows even more clearly that, for the English community, individuality is preferred.

The second explanation for this could be seen as related to the promotional quality of the English abstracts. As mentioned before, the degree of competitiveness in the English discourse community is greater than that in the Thai. As a result, these English writers have to compete with each other to attract the reader's attention. One way of doing this is to find something that can be said to be original and novel in the field. They need, therefore, to make their own new claims about certain topics instead of following in the footsteps of others. This is partly why these two steps which are used to depict the writer's stance and claims are employed more often in the English corpus than in the Thai corpus.

In short, the major differences found from the frequency of occurrence of the steps used in 'Move 2: The Presentation of the Research' are: the tendency to use '*purposive*' statements in the Thai corpus and '*descriptive*' statements in the English corpus which shows a difference in terms of the writing styles of the two groups. The second disparity is the absence of 'Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis' and 'Step 3B: Making Claims' which might stem from the different cultural values governing the writing in each academic community.

5.2.2.3 The Frequency of Steps Employed in ‘Move 3: Methodology’

There are 4 different steps in ‘Move 3: Methodology,’ namely:

- Step 1: Describing Materials
- Step 2: Describing Research Procedures
 - Step 2A: Describing Research Instruments
 - Step 2B: Describing Tasks and Procedures
- Step 3: Describing Data Analysis
- Step 4: Giving Statistical Information

When ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is realized in the Thai corpus and the English corpus, the frequency of occurrence is as shown in the following table.

Table 5.4: A Comparison of the Frequency of Occurrence of Steps Employed in ‘Move 3: Methodology’

Moves/ Steps		Thai Corpus		English Corpus	
		Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage	Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage
Step 1: Describing Materials		35	100	14	40
Step 2: Describing Research Procedures	Step 2A: Describing Research Instruments	9	25.71	1	2.85
	Step 2B: Describing Tasks and Procedures	15	42.85	8	22.85
Step 3: Describing Data Analysis		16	45.71	19	54.28
Step 4: Giving Statistical Information		12	34.28	0	0

In the table it can be seen that in the Thai corpus, when ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is realized, ‘Step 1: Describing Materials’ is used most often. In fact, this step occurs in every abstract in this corpus with a frequency of occurrence of 100%. This means that for abstracts in the Thai corpus, great emphasis is placed on describing the material used in their studies. This material ranges from a description of data or a description of subjects or participants to a description of data collection and criteria. Examples are as follows:

- (42) *The data was collected from English writing assignments of thirty students at two different proficiency levels. (Thai 12)*

The data for analysis is from two purpose-specific corpora of Thai and American acknowledgements, each containing 150 pieces of data. (Thai 14)

It is noticeable, however, that in the English corpus, the result is remarkably different. In the English one, ‘Step 1: Describing Materials’ occurs in only 14 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting only to 40%. The difference in the frequency of occurrence of ‘Step 1: Describing Materials’ is obvious. An example of ‘Step 1: Describing Materials’ from the English corpus is as follows:

- (43) *It examines both quantitative and qualitative data gathered from two elicited interpretation tasks administered [to one group of native speakers of English and to two groups of advanced speakers of English as an L2, one group speakers of Germanic languages other than English, the other speakers of either Spanish or Greek.] (English 23)*

In the Thai corpus, the second step that is used most often is ‘Step 2: Describing Research Procedures.’ In the Thai corpus, ‘Step 2: Describing Research Procedures’ occurs in 24 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting to 68.57%. Examples of ‘Step 2: Describing Research Procedures’ are as follows:

- (44) *Two research instruments, a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview, were employed. (Thai 17)*
- (45) *At the commencement of the study, all subjects were pre-tested by using the Test of English Tenses Usage (TETU) developed by the researcher. After they completed 9 CALL lessons in 3 weeks, the posttest was conducted. (Thai 8)*

In the English corpus, on the other hand, this step occurs less frequently, in only 9 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting only to 25.71%.

The third most frequently used step in the Thai corpus is ‘Step 3: Describing Data Analysis.’ This step occurs in 16 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, with a frequency of occurrence of 45.71%. Interestingly, in the English corpus, ‘Step 3: Describing Data Analysis’ is the step that is used most frequently. It occurs in 19 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, with a frequency of occurrence of 54.28%. Examples of ‘Step 3: Describing Data Analysis’ are as follows:

- (46) *The framework proposed in this study is used to identify the move structures within the organizational contexts where English is used among non-native speakers in intercultural communication. (Thai 10)*
- (47) *The phatic function is tested against the role of the German language as a creator and symbol of national identity, with particular attention being paid to concepts of the 'purity' of the language. (English 34)*

From the figures above, the obvious tendency is that the abstracts in the Thai corpus tend to put much emphasis on detailed descriptions of research design, namely material such as data and subjects and research procedures such as research instruments and tasks. The abstracts in the English corpus, on the other hand, lay more emphasis on the data analysis part. In other words, the English abstracts care more about giving information about how the analysis is going to be done. A lot of effort is put into describing the framework or theories employed in the studies. In other words, while the Thai abstracts pay attention to the design, the English abstracts pay more attention to the analysis. Again, the findings here can be said to indicate a discrepancy in the perception of what is important in the two discourse communities. For the Thais, with the high frequency of occurrence of 'Step 1: Describing Materials' and 'Step 2: Describing Research Procedures,' the weight is given to how to derive the data. For the English, on the other hand, with the high frequency of occurrence of 'Step 3: Describing Data Analysis,' the weight is given to what is to be done with the data.

Another observation is that the type of research may be one of the factors contributing to the difference in the frequency of occurrence of these steps in the two corpora. For the Thai corpus, most of the studies are action research and because of this, there is more information on the description of data, subjects and research procedure to present. In the English corpus, on the other hand, even though there is a lot of action research it is also obvious that more research, compared with that in the Thai corpus, is theory-oriented or theory-proving. The aim of these studies is to validate or refute an existing theory, or propose a new one. In this kind of study, as Bonn and Swales (2007) pointed out, theories are used as a way of '*problem solving*' (p. 97). Because of the nature of this research, these works do not have to say much about data, subjects or research procedures for the crucial thing to do is to clarify the theory involved. As a result, in the English corpus, 'Step 3: Describing Data Analysis' is more frequent.

Another interesting finding from the analysis is that, in the Thai corpus, 'Step 4: Giving Statistical Information' is used quite often. It occurs in 12 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting to 34.28%. When this step is used it mostly

involves information about reliability or validity assessment. In the English corpus, however, this step is not used at all. From this stark difference, it can be seen that statistical information is seen as quite important in the Thai corpus. This could be viewed as an attempt to verify and guarantee to both the immediate advisors and committee, as well as to the readers, that the works are reliable. This does not mean that the abstracts in the English corpus do not try to prove their validity and reliability it simply shows that they have a different way of doing it. For the English abstracts it seems that the works are shown to be reliable through the use of data analysis. It is how the data is analyzed that justifies the value of these works.

5.2.2.4 The Frequency of Steps Employed in ‘Move 4: Results’

There are 3 different steps in ‘Move 4: Results,’ namely:

- Step 1: Reporting Results
- Step 2: Commenting on Results
 - Step 2A: Interpreting Results
 - Step 2B: Accounting for Results
- Step 3: Evaluating Results
 - Step 3A: Discussing Results with Hypothesis
 - Step 3B: Comparing Results with Previous Literature
 - Step 3C: Confirming/Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making New Claims

When ‘Move 4: Results’ is realized in the Thai corpus and the English corpus, the frequency of occurrence is as shown in the following table.

Table 5.5: A Comparison of the Frequency of Occurrence of Steps Employed in ‘Move 4: Results’

Moves/ Steps		Thai Corpus		English Corpus	
		Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage	Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage
Step 1: Reporting Results		34	97.14	13	37.14
Step 2: Commenting on Results		9	25.71	21	60
Step 3: Evaluating Results	Step 3A: Discussing Results with Hypothesis	2	5.71	0	0
	Step 3B: Comparing Results with Previous Literature	2	5.71	5	14.28
	Step 3C: Confirming/ Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making New Claims	2	5.71	9	25.71

The first disparity between the Thai corpus and the English corpus is that while Thai abstracts tend to report results objectively, English abstracts tend to report results with some subjective opinions. To illustrate this point, firstly, it can be seen that in the Thai corpus, when ‘Move 4: Results’ is realized, the majority of abstracts employ ‘Step 1: Reporting Results.’ This step occurs in 34 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, representing a hefty 97.14%. When this step is used it means that the findings from the studies are reported objectively, without any comment or interpretation. As for ‘Step 2: Commenting on Results,’ where writers report findings of their studies along with some interpretation and subjective opinion, this occurs in only 9 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting to only 25.71%. The frequency here suggests that the abstracts from the Thai corpus prefer reporting their findings objectively. An example of ‘Step 1: Reporting Results’ in the Thai corpus is as follows:

- (48) *The findings show that intelligibility levels of Singaporean English speakers toward Thai English speakers are higher than those of Thai English speakers toward Singaporean English speakers, which are 57 percent and 44.25 percent, on average, respectively. (Thai 8)*

It is obvious, however, that the trend is reversed in the English corpus. Here the step that is used most when ‘Move 4: Results’ is realized is ‘Step 2: Commenting on Results.’ This step occurs in 21 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting to 60%. On the other hand, in the English corpus, ‘Step 1: Reporting Results’ occurs in only 13 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting to 37.14%. Again, this means that abstracts from the English corpus, unlike those from the Thai corpus, have a tendency to report results subjectively with some interpretation included. An example of ‘Step 2: Commenting on Results’ in the English corpus is as follows:

(49) *It demonstrates that clicks --- previously regarded as having only paralinguistic function in English --- do in fact have an orderly, sequential distribution which can be mapped on to the interactional structure of talk. Moreover, clicks are shown to have different functions according to their embedded contexts of production. (English 3)*

Another piece of evidence which confirms the preference of the Thai abstracts to report results objectively, while in the English corpus the pattern is vice versa, can be seen from the frequency of occurrence of ‘Step 3: Evaluating Results.’ ‘Step 3: Evaluating Results’ can be realized in three different sub-steps, namely, ‘Step 3A: Discussing Results with Hypothesis,’ ‘Step 3B: Comparing Results with Previous Literature,’ and ‘Step 3C: Confirming/ Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making New Claims.’ In the Thai corpus, ‘Step 3: Evaluating Results’ occurs in 6 out of 35 abstracts, amounting to 17.14%. In the English corpus, however, ‘Step 3: Evaluating Results’ occurs in 14 out of 35 abstracts, amounting to 40%. These figures show that it is more common and more frequent for the English abstracts to evaluate their findings with other works, either previous literature or other existing theories or claims. This practice is, however, not very common among abstracts from the Thai corpus as it occurs less often. Since an evaluation of one’s work against others can be seen as one form of subjective interpretation of the findings, the frequency of the occurrence of ‘Step 3: Evaluating Results’ here can be said to be another confirmation of the preference of Thai abstracts for objective reports as well as the preference of English abstracts for subjective reports.

English students’ preference for subjective reporting of their findings is in line with what was found by Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988). In their work, it was found that, in the discussion sections of articles and dissertations, Anglo-American writers put a lot of emphasis on interpretation as opposed to reporting results. Moreover, the discussion section seemed to be *‘judged less on the actual results presented than on the way the writer relates them to previous work in the field’* (p. 119). This finding also confirms the findings from Bazerman (1984) as quoted in Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988). In this study, Bazerman investigated the

diachronic change of journal articles on spectroscopy in the Physical Review over a period of time. It was found that journal articles written between 1893 and 1930 did not put much emphasis on commenting on results. However, from 1930 onwards, the nature of journal articles changed and a lot more weight was given to the results and discussion sections with an attempt to give critical comments. In short, it can be said that Anglo-American abstracts written from 1930 onwards have a tendency towards reporting the results of the study with a subjective interpretation of writers.

The final point to be mentioned here is the frequency of occurrence of ‘Step 3C: Confirming/ Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making New Claims.’ This step is where writers confirm or reject the theory related to their work or, sometimes, even make a new claim or propose a new theory or framework about the topic under discussion. A great deal of the time when this step is used writers challenge existing theories or claims made by ‘big names’ in their field. As can be predicted, this step is realized more in the English corpus. It occurs in 9 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus with a frequency of occurrence of 25.71%. In the Thai corpus, however, this step occurs in only 2 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus with a frequency of occurrence of 5.71%. Moreover, a closer investigation reveals that in these two abstracts from the Thai corpus in which Step 3C is realized, writers simply make a claim about their works without challenging or rejecting or even referring to any other previous literature or existing theory. An example of this is as follows:

(50) *This information provides evidence showing nativisation of English in Thai context. Therefore, the existence of Thai English as a variety of world Englishes, to some extent, can be claimed since Thai English can express its unique identity, while at the same time, still maintain intelligibility in international communication. (Thai 5)*

In this first example, the main objective is to argue that the existence of Thai English can be verified. However, this is done without challenging any other works. Moreover, there is also the use of a hedging device here when the phrase ‘to some extent’ is used. This reflects the attempt to soften and tone down the claim as well as to leave room for the counter-argument.

Another example is as follows:

(51) *This study provided a basic template of the structure of scientific abstract when considering the move ordering pattern. (Thai 20)*

Here the abstract tries to argue that the findings can be viewed as a new template for analyzing the move structure of scientific abstracts. Again, a new claim or a new framework is being proposed without attacking or criticizing any other

existing ones. From these two examples it can be seen that in Thai writing, even when this step is realized, there is an attempt on the side of the writers to tone down the claim as well as an attempt to avoid criticizing or challenging other existing works.

In the English corpus, on the other hand, when ‘Step 3C: Confirming/Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making New Claims’ is realized, the matter is totally different. Examples of this step from the English corpus are as follows:

- (52) *I claim that extrinsic phonetic interpretation provides for a felicitous account of phonetic variation and phonological abstraction. I argue that the prosodic and melodic branches of phonology should be conflated in a single hierarchical structure, leaving no equivalent to the skeletal tier or a segmental string. I propose a new abstract and non-segmental phonological analysis of liquids in English and show how it can account for a number of instances of variation in the language. (English 8)*

In this example, many claims are made from the findings. The striking feature here is the repetitive use of the first person pronoun ‘I’ with it being used up to three times within this very short excerpt. While Thai abstracts try to tone down their claims, this example shows that abstracts in the English corpus do not. In contrast, they even try to promote a degree of originality and individuality with the use of the first person pronoun.

Another example is as follows:

- (53) *The content of this thesis makes a contribution to knowledge on three levels. Firstly by revisiting the literature on predictive approaches to prosodic structure it is shown that there are several questionable assumptions about the relatedness of grammatical structure and prosodic structure . . . A ground clearing experiment shows conclusively that these assumptions are misplaced. (English 14)*

In this example, the contribution of the work is stated. Along with that, the writer criticizes and rejects the findings from previous works as shown in the underlined sentences. Also, the shortcomings of those works are pointed out explicitly, especially when the section ends with the word ‘*misplaced.*’ The challenge and criticism made by the writer here is, thus, highly prominent.

The last example is as follows:

(54) *This work challenges the traditional held view and/ or assumption that variation is constrained solely by linguistic, social or stylistic constraints and makes the theoretically important finding that not only can variation act as an interactional resource but that only certain variables can carry this functional load. (English 16)*

Here again the writer openly challenges the existing view about the topic under discussion. After rejecting the previous assumption, she also promotes her own work by stating that it can fill the gap here.

This finding is in agreement with what Santos (1996) mentioned in his work when he found that research article abstracts in English need ‘*a strong challenge statement in order to justify the research*’ itself (p. 487). A certain degree of challenge or contradiction then can be seen as a requisite part in the abstracts from the English corpus.

5.2.2.5 The Frequency of Steps Employed in ‘Move 5: Discussion’

There are 3 different steps in ‘Move 5: Discussion,’ namely:

- Step 1: Giving Recommendations or Suggestions
- Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implications of the Study

When ‘Move 5: Discussion’ is realized in the Thai corpus and the English corpus, the frequency of occurrence is as shown in the following table.

Table 5.6: A Comparison of the Frequency of Occurrence of Steps Employed in ‘Move 5: Discussion’

Moves/ Steps	Thai Corpus		English Corpus	
	Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage	Frequency of Occurrence (N=35)	Percentage
Step 1: Giving Recommendations or Suggestions	9	25.71	2	5.71
Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implications of the Study	3	8.57	13	37.14

In the table it can be seen that when ‘Move 5: Discussion’ is realized, abstracts from the Thai corpus and the English corpus tend to use different steps.

First of all, in the Thai corpus, when ‘Move 5: Discussion’ is used, it is ‘Step 1: Giving Recommendations or Suggestions’ that is employed most often with a frequency of occurrence of 25.71 per cent, whereas ‘Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implications of the Study’ is used less often with a frequency of occurrence of only 8.57 per cent.

The results from the English corpus, however, are the opposite. In the English corpus, when ‘Move 5: Discussion’ is realized, the step that is employed most often is ‘Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implications of the Study,’ with a frequency of occurrence of up to 37.14 per cent. On the other hand, ‘Step 1: Giving Recommendations or Suggestions,’ which is used most frequently in the Thai corpus, is employed a lot less often in the English corpus with a frequency of occurrence of a mere 5.71 percent.

It can be interpreted here that while the Thai abstracts prefer the use of ‘Step 1: Giving Recommendations or Suggestions’ over ‘Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implications of the Study,’ the preference of the English abstracts is the reverse.

From the data above, it can be assumed that the Thai abstracts place more emphasis on giving recommendations and suggestions. By so doing, it is the continuation of research that is emphasized. This is because when recommendations and suggestions are offered, the objective is for others to carry on doing the research in that particular field and thus expand the knowledge on the topic. From this, then, it can be inferred that for Thais, when theses and dissertations are written, there is the expectation for the research to be carried on or expanded.

In the English corpus, on the other hand, with the prevalence of ‘Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implications of the Study,’ it can be seen that the focus of ‘Move 5: Discussion’ is different from that in the Thai corpus. In this corpus, an attempt to state the contribution and the implications of the study can be seen as an effort to link the findings of the studies to the real world beyond. This practice is used to prove that the studies are of practical value and can be used in real life. Thus, it is the practicality of the research that is highlighted in this case. Apart from the linkage between the research and the real world, the predominant use of ‘Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implications of the Study’ can also be seen as a promotional act. Because of the size and pressure of the discourse community, the academic community of the English speaking people being bigger and experiencing higher pressure, the English writers have to struggle harder than the Thais to capture the attention of busy readers. Using ‘Step 2: Stating the Contribution and Implications of the Study’ could be one of the techniques to prove that their works are of value and are thus worth the attention of readers.

From the analysis of the frequency of moves as well as the frequency of steps above, it is quite clear that the practice of abstract writing in the two corpora is pretty dissimilar. The results also reveal a number of reasons behind these practices. In order to complete the picture of the writing style of abstracts from each corpus, however, other aspects need to be analyzed as well. The next section will thus proceed to the analysis of the sequence of moves that can, again, exemplify the different characteristics of abstract writing in the two corpora.

5.3 The Sequence of Moves

This section examines the sequence of moves used in the two corpora. In other words, it looks at the order of moves to see which one comes in which order. This is done in order to see whether the abstracts in the two corpora follow the conventional order of move sequence M1-M2-M3-M4-M5 or not. If not, what is the sequence of the moves employed in each corpus? The results are as follows:

5.3.1 The Sequence of Moves in the Thai Corpus

Table 5.7: The Sequence of Moves in the Thai Corpus

Pattern	Sequence of Moves	Frequency (N=35)	Percentage
1.	Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4	16	45.71
2.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4	3	8.57
3.	Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 5	7	20
4.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4 Move 5 →	2	5.71
5.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 3 → Move 4	1	2.85
6.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 3 → Move 4 Move 5 →	2	5.71
7.	Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 2	1	2.85
8.	Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 3 Move 4 →	2	5.71
9.	Move 2 → Move 4	1	2.85

It can be seen that the sequence of moves in the Thai corpus is very uniform and follows the traditional move sequence of abstracts. First of all, from the data in the Thai corpus, there are 9 different patterns for 35 abstracts in the corpus. The pattern that is used most is pattern 1 (Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4). It occurs in 16 abstracts, amounting to 45.71%. The second most used pattern is pattern 3 (Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 5) which occurs in 7 abstracts, amounting to 20%.

In fact, patterns 1, 2, 3 and 4 can be said to be the patterns that follow the traditional sequence of moves employed in abstract writing. The central part of these patterns is Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4. When there is Move 1 or Move 5 involved, the pattern is straightforward: Move 1 at the beginning and Move 5 at the end. As a result, when counting all together patterns 1, 2, 3 and 4, the number of abstracts that use the patterns in this group is 28 abstracts, amounting to a hefty 80 per cent. In other words, 80 per cent of the abstracts in the Thai corpus follow the conventional sequence of moves for abstract writing.

As for patterns 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 which do not follow the traditional sequence of moves, they are used in only 7 abstracts, amounting to a mere 20 per cent. Within these five patterns, they can be grouped up into three categories. The first one is pattern 5 (Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 3 → Move 4) and pattern 6 (Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 5). What distinguishes these two patterns from the traditional sequence is the fact that the writers of these two abstracts decided to start their abstracts with ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ and then followed it with ‘Move 1: Background,’ instead of the traditional ‘Move 1: Background’ followed by ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research.’ The reason might represent their attempt to catch the readers’ attention by telling them at the beginning of the abstracts what these works are about.

As for pattern 7 (Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 2) and pattern 8 (Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 3 → Move 4), they do not follow the conventional sequence because there is a repetition of move here. In pattern 7, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is repeated again at the end while in pattern 8, it is ‘Move 3: Methodology’ that is repeated again after ‘Move 4: Results.’ The phenomenon of move repetition will be discussed further in the following section of this chapter.

Pattern 9 is an exception because here the writer employs only two moves: ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ and then ‘Move 4: Results.’

From the above examination, it can be said that the abstracts written by Thai students tend to comply quite strictly with the conventional sequence of moves. The explanation for this conformity can be what Yakhontova (2006) refers to as ‘*the inheritance of academic writing conventions*’ (p. 164). According to Yakhontova (2006), in a relatively closed discourse community there is the tendency for the established writing conventions to be stabilized and even ‘*crystallized*’ (p. 164). This process of crystallization is done through inter-textuality and imitation as well as by direct and indirect instruction. As a result, in the Thai discourse community, which is of the closed type, students also conform to the prescribed conventions of abstract writing with or without realizing it. This might be because they have read the works of others including their seniors in the field. Moreover, it is highly possible that students look at the successful works of established people in their field as a model. The fact that most theses and dissertations are proofread by their advisors who are

considered expert members of each discourse community many times before their completion also plays a part in shaping the works to fit the existing conventions of each academic community. Consequently, through the inter-textual and imitational process, the outcome of their work is in line with others. This very existence of the imitational inheritance is confirmed in other works such as that of Martin (2003) and Day (1988). As for the factor of formal instruction, the influence may be less strong. This is because, in reality, there are not many courses in postgraduate study that explicitly teach students how to write an abstract.

In summary, it can be said that the vast majority of abstracts in the Thai corpus follow the conventional sequence of move pattern for abstract writing; that is, Move 1, Move 2, Move 3, Move 4 and Move 5, respectively. The patterns are highly uniform. In the English corpus, however, the findings are quite the opposite. This is presented in the following section.

5.3.2 The Sequence of Moves in the English Corpus

Table 5.8: The Sequence of Moves in the English Corpus

Pattern	Sequence of Moves	Frequency (N=35)	Percentage
1.	Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4	3	8.57
2.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4	3	8.57
3.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 5	1	2.85
4.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 4 → Move 5	1	2.85
5.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 4	1	2.85
6.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 3 → Move 5 → Move 4	1	2.85
7.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 4	1	2.85
8.	Move 1 → Move 4 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 2 → Move 4	1	2.85
9.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 4 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 5 → Move 3 → Move 4	1	2.85
10.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 3 → Move 2 → Move 4	1	2.85
11.	Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 5 → Move 3	1	2.85
12.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 4 → Move 5	1	2.85
13.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 4 → Move 5	1	2.85
14.	Move 2 → Move 4 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 5	1	2.85

15.	Move 2 → Move 4 → Move 2 → Move 4 → Move 5	1	2.85
16.	Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 2 → Move 5	1	2.85
17.	Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 5 → Move 3	1	2.85
18.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 4 → Move 2 → Move 4	2	5.72
19.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 5	1	2.85
20.	Move 2 → Move 5 → Move 1 → Move 3 → Move 4 → Move 5	1	2.85
21.	Move 2 → Move 4 → Move 5 → Move 4	1	2.85
22.	Move 2 → Move 3	1	2.85
23.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 5	1	2.85
24.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 3 → Move 4	1	2.85
25.	Move 2 → Move 4	1	2.85
26.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 4	1	2.85
27.	Move 2 → Move 1 → Move 2	1	2.85
28.	Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 2	1	2.85
29.	Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4	1	2.85
30.	Move 2	1	2.85

In the table it can be seen that the sequence of moves in the data in the English corpus cannot be said to be uniform at all. Moreover, it does not follow the conventional move sequence of abstracts. First of all, from the data, there are as many as 30 different patterns for the 35 abstracts in the corpus. The patterns are so varied that it can be said that there is no uniform pattern at all. The patterns that are used most are pattern 1 (Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4) and pattern 2 (Move 1 → Move 2 → Move 3 → Move 4), which occur in 3 abstracts each, totaling 6 abstracts in the corpus.

In fact, patterns 1, 2 and 3 can be said to be the patterns that follow the traditional sequence of moves employed in abstract writing. The first two patterns are found in 3 abstracts while pattern 3 is found in only one abstract. Added together, the frequency of occurrence of these three patterns equals 7 out of 35 abstracts in the entire corpus, amounting only to 20 per cent. This means that only 20 per cent of the abstracts in the English corpus follow the conventional sequence of moves. The number is relatively low when compared with the overwhelming 80 per cent in the Thai corpus.

One of the causes of this variety of move sequence in the English corpus is the repetition of moves. Most of the abstracts in the English corpus tend to recycle the moves. Since writers recycle the moves as they wish, the result is that there is no unified pattern in this corpus. Detailed description on the topic of the repetition of moves is discussed in section 5.4 of this chapter.

The second explanation for this occurrence might stem from competence in the English language. In the Thai corpus, the authors are non-native speakers of English. Therefore, the confidence in their English competence might be lower. Feeling less secure, following the traditional pattern of abstract writing indicated in many guidebooks seems to be a solution. The sequence of moves used then conforms to the norm and is fairly unified. The authors of abstracts in the English corpus, on the other hand, being native speakers of English, are more comfortable with the use of English as a medium. The language then can be manipulated more easily. The prescribed rules on abstract writing do not get much attention and intuition can override the existing conventions.

From the analysis in terms of the sequence of moves it can be seen that the sequential order of moves employed in the abstracts from the Thai corpus and the English corpus is not the same. While the abstracts from the Thai corpus tend to conform to the conventional sequence of abstract writing, proceeding from Move 1 to Move 5, the abstracts from the English corpus do not. The cause of this discrepancy can be attributed to the inheritance of discourse culture on the one hand and the difference in the writing style of the abstracts from the two corpora, with a tendency for the abstracts from the English corpus to employ move repetition. The next section, will discuss the nature of move repetition in the two corpora.

5.4 The Repetition of Moves

This section deals with the repetition of moves in the Thai and English corpora. This point is examined in order to see the nature of the writing style in the two corpora: whether the abstracts are written in an orderly and systematic manner, that is, proceeding from Move 1 to Move 5; or whether the abstracts do not observe the order of the move structure and whether or not some moves are recycled in the course of writing. Firstly, this section details the number of abstracts that have move repetition in each corpus. Then an examination is made in order to find the move that is repeated most often. Finally, the pattern of the repetition is revealed.

Table 5.9: The Number of Abstracts that Contain Move Repetition in the Thai and English Corpus

Corpus	Number of Abstracts that Contain Move Repetition (N=35)	Percentage
Thai	3	8.57
English	20	57.14

From the table it can be seen that, in the Thai corpus, move repetition occurs in only 3 out of 35 abstracts, amounting to a tiny 8.57 per cent, whereas in the English corpus move repetition occurs in 20 out of 35 abstracts, amounting to a massive 57.14 per cent. Detailed analysis of the repetition of moves in the Thai corpus and the English corpus are given in the following sections;

5.4.1 The Repetition of Moves in the Thai Corpus

In the Thai corpus, move repetition occurs in only three abstracts. When move repetition happens, two out of the three abstracts repeat ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ The pattern is straightforward. They employ ‘Move 3: Methodology’ to tell the readers about the first method used in the study and then proceed to ‘Move 4: Results’ to tell the readers the findings achieved from that method. After that, they use ‘Move 3: Methodology’ again to talk about another method used in their study and then proceed to ‘Move 4: Results’ to inform the readers of other findings derived from the second method used. An example is as follows:

(55) *The adjacency parameter was first applied [Move 3: Methodology]. . . Regarding the adjacency condition, the native group placed adverbs quite equally between the clause-initial and the clause-medial positions. On the other hand, the learner groups put [much] more adverbs clause-initially [Move 4: Results]. . . In addition to the adjacency parameter, the lexical parameter was adapted [Move 3: Methodology] . . . It was found that the natives placed adverbs in the majority of the 37 semantic classes in more positions than the advanced learners, whose range of positions of adjunction was broader than that of the intermediate learners... [Move 4: Results] (Thai 7)*

Here ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is utilized firstly to introduce the first parameter used, that is the adjacency parameter. Then ‘Move 4: Results’ is used in order to report the findings from this parameter. After that, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is employed again

to talk about a different parameter used, that is the lexical parameter. Finally, ‘Move 4: Results’ is again applied to report the findings found from using the lexical parameter.

In another Thai abstract in which move repetition takes place, it is ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ that is repeated. Here the writer makes use of ‘Step 4: Outlining Thesis/ Dissertation Structure’ at the end of the abstract to present the structure of his work to the readers. The abstract ends with ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research,’ ‘Step 4: Outlining Thesis/ Dissertation Structure’ as follows:

(56) *Findings of the study which provides insights into the improvement of graduate student writing skills as well as the pedagogical implications and further study are presented.*
(Thai 34)

So in this case, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is recycled once again at the end of the abstract because it is the outlining of the research which falls naturally at the end of the abstract and that explains why in this particular case, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is repeated.

5.4.2 The Repetition of Moves in the English Corpus

In the English corpus, move repetition happens in 20 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting to 57.14 per cent. When move repetition occurs, the move that is recycled most is ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research.’ There are 14 instances of the repetition of Move 2. The second move that is repeated most often is ‘Move 4: Results.’ There are 8 instances of the repetition of Move 4. The other move that is recycled quite often in this corpus is ‘Move 1: Background.’ There are 5 instances of the repetition of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the corpus.

Since the repetition of moves occurs a lot in the English corpus, it seems that this phenomenon is particular to the writing of English abstracts. There are certain explanations for this. Firstly, it can be explained in the light of Hinds (1987)’s typology. This paradigmatic distinction between reader versus writer responsibility was originated by Hinds (1987). In that work he proposed a new typology of language which was based on ‘speaker and/or writer responsibility’ on the one hand, and ‘listener and/or reader responsibility’ on the other. He found that, for Japanese writing, the responsibility is placed on ‘listener and/or reader’ to comprehend the texts. The preferred form of rhetorical texts for the West, however, places greater responsibility on ‘speaker and/or writer.’ Readers expect coherence and readability from the texts which writers have an obligation to provide. The findings from Clyne (1981) also support this point. In his study, comparing the writing of English and German, he found that English writing can indeed be categorized as a writer

responsibility writing culture, as opposed to German writing, which is a reader responsibility writing culture.

In other words, in the writer responsibility culture, it is the duty of the writers to facilitate the text in order that readers can easily comprehend it. In the reader-responsibility culture, the case is the reverse. Writers do not have to facilitate the reading of their texts. It is, in fact, the responsibility of the reader to try to understand the text regardless of its difficulty or its degree of indirectness. Since English culture belongs to the writer-responsibility type, writers of these abstracts in the English corpus try to ease the reading of their works for their readers. To do this, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is repeated again and again through the course of writing in order to tell the readers what exactly their works are all about. The function of ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is here then to clarify the facts of their works. If readers can see what these works are actually about, then understanding can follow easily enough. An example of this repetition of ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is as follows, with ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ being underlined:

(57) *This study focuses predominantly on the analysis of three linguistic variables, ((NG)) which incorporate the two components (ING) and (NG), happ Y and (TH). (Move 2) The results of this analysis indicate that although there are important similarities between the results, there are also significant differences. The analysis highlights the fact that the variation exhibited by members of this speech community cannot be divorced from the social, historical and demographic factors that it is constrained by. (Move 4)*

A central component of this research is an investigation into the mechanism of dialect contact. An important concern is the adoption of innovations from outside as well as the loss or maintenance of existing forms. This study further investigates the extent to which dialect contact processes can be described as typical, universal or ongoing and the extent to which they are locally specific and changing.(Move 2) The analysis reveals that an investigation into such dialect contact processes should be guided by the specificity of the locality in which they are enacted. (Move 4) (English 20)

In the example above, the writer alternates between ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research,’ the underlined parts, and ‘Move 4: Results.’ The repetition of ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ here facilitates the reading and also keeps reminding readers of what the research is about.

As for the repetitiveness of ‘Move 4: Results,’ it can be seen as a part of a promotional scheme on the part of the writers. In order to exalt the merits of the work, the findings from the works are reported again and again. This is done in order to show how much information is to be gained from the research. Moreover, since various steps in ‘Move 4: Results’ are utilized in order to achieve this advertizing goal, it is only natural that this move is repeated throughout the abstracts, though with alternating steps.

This finding is quite interesting because it contrasts with what was found by Kaplan (1966). According to his study, Western writing can be categorized as following a linear order while oriental writing tends to be indirect and circular. But the findings from this study are a reverse of that. It seems that English abstracts do not have a tendency to follow the rules of abstract writing. The result is that the abstracts from the English corpus tend to be more circular in manner as they involve a lot of move repetitions and the moves are cyclical in nature. As for the Thai abstracts in this study, they tend to follow the prescribed rules for abstract writing. Consequently, they appear to have more direct sequence and linear order.

So from the above analysis, it can be concluded here that move repetition occurs very rarely in the Thai corpus whereas in the English corpus it occurs more frequently. It can, in fact, be said to be an embedded feature of abstract writing in the English corpus. The repetition of moves, which happens a lot in the English corpus, can be said to be the result of the fact that English writing tradition is categorized as a culture of writer-responsibility while Thai writing is categorized as that of reader-responsibility. The effect of culture on writing, then, exerts itself again here in the respect of move repetition.

5.5 Move Embedding

Next, this section examines the occurrence of move embedding or the phenomenon when more than one move occurs within the same sentence boundary. Note here that when move embedding occurs, it means that there is more than one move in a sentence. It is necessary then to decide which move in that sentence is the main move and which is the embedded move. This certainly varies from case to case.

This issue of move embedding can also reveal the writing style of the writer. It is interesting because if one move is embedded in other moves, this might mean that not so much weight is put on that move so it does not have its own space. Firstly, the frequency of move embedding can be seen in the following table.

Table 5.10: The Frequency of Occurrence of Move Embedding in the Thai and English Corpus

Corpus	Frequency of Occurrence of Move Embedding (N=35)	Percentage
Thai	9	25.71
English	17	48.57

In the table it can be seen that move embedding happens a lot less in the Thai corpus than in the English corpus. In the Thai corpus move embedding occurs only in 9 out of 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting to 25.71 per cent, whereas in the English corpus, move embedding occurs in up to 17 out of the 35 abstracts in the corpus, amounting to almost half or 48.57 per cent. Thus it can be said that the use of move embedding is a preferred technique for English students but not for Thais.

As for the patterns of move embedding, they are quite similar in the two corpora. The move that is embedded in other moves most frequently is 'Move 3: Methodology.' First of all, there are 9 instances of move embedding. In all of these instances, the move that is embedded in other moves is 'Move 3: Methodology.' In other words, in the Thai corpus, the only move that is embedded in others is 'Move 3: Methodology.' In the English corpus, out of a total of 21 instances of move embedding, there are 16 instances of 'Move 3: Methodology' embedded in other moves.

Mostly, the formula is 'Move 3: Methodology' embedded in 'Move 2: The Presentation of the Research.' When this is done, usually 'Move 3: Methodology' is embedded in the first sentence of the abstract. This move embedding, in other words, usually occurs at the beginning of the abstract. Moreover, when this happens, usually the information in 'Move 3: Methodology' presented in the first sentence is about the data, subject or participants and it is usually 'Step 1: Describing Materials' which is referred to. Examples are as follows:

(58) *The purpose of this study was to investigate the needs, problems, and wants in using English in the specialized studies for (Move 2) the bilingual students studying at Winit Secondary School, Thailand. (Move 3 embedded) (Thai 19)*

(59) *The main focus of this thesis is the effect of conversational constraints on linguistic variation. The analysis involves an examination of the patterns of variant distribution for the*

variables (t) and (l) in (Move 2) the speech of one individual from the South East of England in a wide range of roles and situations and with varying audiences. (Move 3 embedded) (English 16)

The practice of embedding ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ in the first sentence at the beginning of the abstract could be seen as an endeavor to direct the attention of readers to the work. In order to achieve this, the abstract starts with ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ telling readers what the work is about, while at the same time, the information is made comprehensive by the presentation of the data and subject in ‘Move 3: Methodology.’

The next pattern of move embedding is when move embedding occurs; the other move in which ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in is ‘Move 4: Results.’ Here there is an alternation between ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ The Methodology Move that is recurrent here is actually where the readers are informed how the findings presented in ‘Move 4: Results’ have been achieved. So, the explanation for move embedding in this respect is the attempt to make the text flow smoothly from one aspect to the other. Also, it is an attempt to make the text easy to comprehend and follow. In Santos (2006)’s term, they try to make their works become a ‘*cohesive text*’ (p. 497). Examples of this pattern of move embedding, which can only be found in the English corpus, are as presented below. The underlined phrases are the embedded ‘Move 3: Methodology,’ while the rest of the texts are ‘Move 4: Results.’

(60) *An analysis of BH’s reading errors and a RSVP reading experiment are provided with evidence to suggest that BH’s reading and spelling problems stemmed from a common buffer used in both reading and writing. (English 4)*

(61) *Moreover, using online eye-tracking methodologies, children were shown not only to be sensitive to this information, but also that they, like adults, can integrate information from the visual context incrementally. (English 7)*

A final note here is that, as can be seen from the analysis, the move that is embedded in other moves most often in both the Thai corpus and the English corpus is ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ On the surface, it might seem as though this move is not considered important in either corpora since it is embedded in other moves instead of having its own independent space. The fact is, however, not like that. A further investigation reveals that in the Thai corpus, although ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in other moves, later it is realized again as an independent move with considerable space of its own. As a result, in the Thai corpus, ‘Move 3: Methodology’

is considered an important feature. The case is different in the English corpus, however. In this corpus, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in other moves and, often, this move is never again mentioned in the abstracts. This means that in the English corpus not much emphasis is given to ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ Sometimes, it is only used as a transition to other moves or else, it is not mentioned at all in the entire abstract. The example below shows an instance from the English corpus where ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in another move and is used only as a transition to other moves. The underlined phrases are the embedded ‘Move 3: Methodology,’ while the rest of the text is ‘Move 4: Results.’

(62) *Moreover, using online eye-tracking methodologies, children were shown not only to be sensitive to this information, but also that they, like adults, can integrate information from the visual context incrementally. (English 7)*

In this example, the underlined phrase represents ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ In this abstract, this is the only instance of ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in the abstract. This move is referred to only once in this short phrase embedded within ‘Move 4: Results.’ ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is not referred to again in the entire abstract. Note here that the use of this embedded ‘Move 3: Methodology’ here is only to complement the information in the main move which is ‘Move 4: Results’ and make the text flow smoothly. In this respect then, it can be said that ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in itself does not gain much attention from the writer. It is only used as a transition to other moves and makes the text complete.

Interestingly, this result for the move embedding of ‘Move 3: Methodology’ corresponds with the result for the frequency of moves as mentioned before. To illustrate, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ has a high frequency of occurrence in the Thai corpus, amounting to 100 per cent. Also, from the analysis of move embedding, ‘Move 3: Methodology,’ though embedded in others, still has a space of its own later. This means that the weight given to this move in the Thai corpus is immense. In the English corpus, on the other hand, the frequency of occurrence of ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is lower, amounting to 77.14 per cent. Also, the findings from the analysis of move embedding shows that ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in other moves and never again in the abstracts gains its own space as an independent move. This shows that the weight given to this move is significantly lower in the English corpus.

To sum up, it can be said that embedding occurs a lot more often in the English corpus than in the Thai corpus. When move embedding happens, the move that tends to be embedded is ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ The pattern is for ‘Move 3: Methodology’ to be embedded within ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research,’ especially at the beginning of abstracts, or for ‘Move 3: Methodology’ to be

embedded in ‘Move 4: Results.’ Again, move embedding can be seen as a characteristic quite unique to the English corpus. It is, thus, another aspect that points to differences in the writing of abstracts by Thai students and English students.

5.6 The Generality and Specificity of Moves

In this final section, the degree of generality and specificity of each move in the two corpora is examined. This is done by investigating the length of each move. If a move occupies a considerable length in an abstract it usually means that this move carries a lot of information. In most cases, this means that the information in that move is more in-depth as well. By investigating this, it can be seen which move is considered important in each discourse culture and which move is not.

5.6.1 The Generality and Specificity of Moves in the Thai Corpus

In the Thai corpus, the moves that tend to have a greater length and carry in depth information are ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology.’

In terms of length, the move that occupies most of the space in the abstracts is ‘Move 4: Results.’ ‘Move 4: Results’ in 29 out of 35 abstracts, amounting to a hefty 85.85 per cent, occupies half or more than half of the entire space in the abstracts. The results of the research are usually described in detail. Most of the space, however, is dedicated to reporting objective results as opposed to interpreting them. A shorter part is dedicated to the author’s comment on the topic. An example of an abstract in which ‘Move 4: Results’ occupies most of the space is shown below where ‘Move 4: Results’ is underlined:

(63) *The study investigates the inter-language of Thai university students through their usage of complements. The data was collected from English writing assignments of thirty students at two different proficiency levels. The results show that there is no difference in the developmental sequences of complements in students who study English as the second language and the native English children. The data shows that ‘to’ infinitive complements precede ‘ing’ complements and ‘wh’ infinitive complements, respectively. Moreover, ‘that’ complements appear before ‘wh’ complements. Many language strategies are found to be used by the subjects, namely, strategy of second language learning, language transfer, overgeneralization, transfer of training, hypercorrection, strategy of second language communication, and avoidance. (Thai 12)*

In this example, the entire abstract consists of 112 words and ‘Move 4: Results’ consists of 82 words of this. The space given to ‘Move 4: Results’ in this abstract

amounts to a massive 73.21 per cent of the entire space. It can be seen then that a considerable amount of space is dedicated to this move.

Apart from ‘Move 4: Results,’ ‘Move 3: Methodology’ also occupies a considerable length in the abstracts from the Thai corpus. In fact, in 6 out of 35 abstracts, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is the one that occupies most of the space. This number amounts to 17.14 per cent. Moreover, even when ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is not the one that occupies the most space, it still monopolizes a significant proportion of the abstracts. Usually, a whole paragraph is dedicated to describing the information of this move and it is usually thorough, ranging from data, subjects, instruments and tasks to data analysis. This finding is in contrast with Martin (2003), who found that most of the abstracts in his corpus contain a very short section on ‘Move 3: Methodology’; usually only one sentence. An example of an abstract in which ‘Move 3: Methodology’ occupies most of the space is as follows. ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is represented by the underlined sentences:

- (64) *The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of implementing classroom tasks in a comparative case study concerning the practice of informing and not informing learners of the objectives of the task. An experimental study was conducted to collect quantitative and qualitative data from Mathayom Suksa One learners at a secondary school in Lopburi, Thailand. Two hundred subjects were divided into two treatment groups, the experimental group (n=100) and the control group (n=100), and the groups were given two different treatments: a) the experimental group was informed of the objectives of the task; and b) the control group was not informed of the objectives of the task. Subjects in both groups took a pre-test and a post-test to assess their progress in English. During the study, classes were observed to see if and how the teacher informed learners of the objectives of the task. Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were then conducted to collect data about the learners’ attitudes toward implementing the tasks. The K-R 20 of the pre-test and post-test was 0.85, and the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient of the questionnaires was 0.87. Data was analyzed by mean, standard deviation and t test.*

The results of this research were as follows. First of all, both groups improved significantly on their post-tests, as compared to their pre-tests. Secondly, the improvement in the post-test scores of the experimental group (M=2.46, SD=3.05) was

higher than the improvement in the post-test scores of the control group ($M=2.06$, $SD=3.05$). Lastly, the experimental group had a more positive attitude toward implementing classroom tasks, although they faced many problems when they were trying to complete their tasks. (Thai 15)

In this example, the underlined part is ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ The entire abstract consists of 275 words and ‘Move 3: Methodology’ consists of up to 162 words of this. The space given to ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in this abstract amounts to a massive 58.90 per cent of the entire space. In fact, almost the entire first paragraph is occupied by ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ It can be seen, then, that a considerable amount of space is given to this move.

Also, it should be noted that, in the Thai corpus, sometimes ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded within ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ at the beginning of the abstract. In spite of the fact that ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in other moves, it still later in the course of writing gains its own independent space as a stand-alone move. Indeed, out of the total of 9 instances in which ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in other moves, there is only one instance where ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is not repeated as a full separate move. In the other 8 instances, ‘Move 3: Methodology,’ though partly embedded, still has its own space, later, as a full paragraph.

From this it can be concluded that, in the Thai corpus, the emphasis is on ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ This fact can be seen more clearly when it is viewed in conjunction with the findings from the analysis of the frequency of occurrence of moves. To illustrate, the frequency of occurrence of these two moves is very high in the Thai corpus, amounting to 100 per cent for both moves. This means that these two moves are considered to be inherent parts. Moreover, it has been found here that these two moves occupy a considerable length in many abstracts in the Thai corpus. This again confirms the importance given to ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in the Thai corpus.

5.6.2 The Generality and Specificity of Moves in the English Corpus

In the English corpus the finding is a little different. Here the moves that are usually of great length are ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research.’

In terms of length, the move that occupies most of the space in the abstracts is ‘Move 4: Results.’ ‘Move 4: Results’ in 15 out of 35 abstracts, amounting to 42.85 per cent, occupies half or more than half of the entire space in the abstracts. The results of the research are usually described in detail. Unlike the Thai corpus, however, most of the space is dedicated not to reporting objective results but rather to

giving comments or evaluating results. An example is as follows. ‘Move 4: Results’ is represented by the underlined sentences.

- (65) *This thesis reports psycholinguistic experiments investigating adult second language (L2) sentence processing, an area of research which has received little attention to date. The question addresses whether or not advanced adult L2 learners of English process sentences in their L2 like native English speakers.*

Firstly, I present evidence of the processing strategies that Greek L2 learners of English apply to the resolution of relative clause (RC) attachment ambiguities in English such as ‘The dean saw the assistant of the professor who was reading a book.’ English native speakers prefer NP2 as the host for the RC whereas Greek native speakers prefer NP1 attachment in such sentences in Greek, and their processing decisions are influenced by both structural parsing principles and non-structural factors such as the type of preposition linking the host NP complex. My results show that Greek L2 learners of English process these sentences differently from native speakers of both English and Greek. Next, I present evidence of the processing of long-distance wh- dependencies like ‘The manager who the secretary claimed that the new employee has pleased will raise company salaries’ by Japanese and Greek L2 learners of English. The results show that the learners delay the integration of the fronted wh- element and its subcategoriser in comparison to native speakers. Furthermore, the filler-subcategoriser integration process is affected by the learners’ level of proficiency, not their L1 background; that is, the higher the level of proficiency in English, the earlier this process begins. To explain these results, I argue that these L2 learners are less able than native English speakers to combine and employ a mixture of phrase-structural and lexical/ thematic information on-line, and that in the face of certain cases of structural ambiguity and structural complexity they delay parsing decisions when processing these English sentences in real time. (English 26)

In this example, the underlined part is ‘Move 4: Results.’ The entire abstract consists of 301 words and ‘Move 4: Results’ consists of up to 256 words of this. The space given to ‘Move 4: Results’ in this abstract amounts to a massive 85.04 per cent

of the entire space. It can be seen then that a considerable amount of space is given to this move.

Apart from ‘Move 4: Results,’ it is ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ that also occupies considerable length in the abstracts in the English corpus. In fact, in 11 out of 35 abstracts from the entire corpus ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is the one that occupies most of the space. This number amounts to 31.42 per cent. The interesting thing here is that although in a number of abstracts in the English corpus, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ occupies a considerable amount of space in the abstracts, this does not happen in the Thai corpus. In fact, in the Thai corpus, there are no instances where ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ occupies the most space in an abstract. An example is as follows. ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ is represented by the underlined sentences.

- (66) *This thesis builds on work on the syntactic expression of event structure by considering the telicity of expressions such as ‘John ran into the house’ as arising from a functional feature [telic] in the prepositional phrase (PP). It presents an analysis of the syntax of PP that accounts for the unique distribution of ‘in’ and ‘on’ in directional contexts when compared both with that of ‘into’ and ‘onto’ and with that of genuinely ambiguous prepositions such as ‘under’ and ‘behind.’ It shows how observed cross-linguistic differences in patterns for expressing telicity can be shown to arise from whether or not a language allows the feature [telic] to be linked to the extended projection of P. It considers the possibility for successful acquisition of the English pattern for expressing telicity by those whose first language (L1) does not have telic prepositions, based on claims that acquisition of syntactic features by post-childhood second language (L2) learners may be difficult if those features are not instantiated in the same way in the L1. It examines both quantitative and qualitative data gathered from two elicited interpretation tasks administered to one group of native speakers of English and to two groups of advanced speakers of English as an L2, one group speakers of Germanic languages other than English, the other speakers of either Spanish or Greek. The data show, firstly, that native speaker interpretations of these prepositions are consistent with the analysis of PP presented and, secondly, that acquisition of a native-like understanding of the meanings of these prepositions and of the differences between ‘in’ vs. ‘into’ and ‘on’ vs. ‘onto’*

may be difficult for those whose L1 does not link the feature [telic] to PP. (English 23)

In this example, the underlined part is ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research.’ The entire abstract consists of 281 words and ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ consists of up to 170 words of this. The space given to ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ in this abstract amounts to 60.49 per cent of the entire space. It can be seen then that a considerable amount of space is given to this move.

Another intriguing fact here is that while ‘Move 3: Methodology’ takes up a lot of space in the abstracts from the Thai corpus, the trend is reversed in the English corpus. Out of a total of 27 abstracts that contain ‘Move 3: Methodology,’ there are only 6 instances when ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is the one that occupies most of the space in the abstracts. The rest of the abstracts, however, contain a relatively short methodology part. In some cases, moreover, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is only embedded in other moves without being developed again later as an independent move. To sum up then, it can be concluded that in the English corpus, the importance of ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is not stressed as much as in the Thai corpus.

An explanation for the tendency of the English abstracts to highlight ‘Move 4: Results’ while downplaying the use of ‘Move 3: Methodology’ can be accounted for by the paradigm shift in the writing of abstracts by English writers. In recent years, the emphasis of English abstracts seems to have shifted from the methodology part to the part reporting the findings of the works. This change was reported in Bazerman (1984) as quoted in Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988). In this work, he came across a diachronic change in the pattern of research article abstracts. Prior to 1930, a lot of emphasis was placed upon methods and equipment. After 1930, however, there is a marked shift in which significance has been attached to the result section. Note that these results are not reported objectively. Rather some interpretation on the part of the writers is required. In Bazerman’s words, it is a shift from ‘*unevaluated reporting to lengthy and explicit writer comment*’ (p. 119).

In summary, the analysis of the degree of generality and specificity of moves here yields major findings as follows: the moves that occupy a considerable length are ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in the Thai corpus, and ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ in the English corpus. Moreover, it is noteworthy here that in the Thai corpus, though ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in other moves, later in the abstracts it usually has its own space as a separate move. This is not the case in the English corpus. Here, when ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in other moves, it does not usually gain any space as an independent move later in the abstracts. Also, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in the English corpus is often short and concise. This shows that while Thai students

highlight the importance of 'Move 3: Methodology,' English students do not comply with this tendency.

All the five aspects of analysis above, namely the frequency of moves and steps, the sequence of moves, the repetition of moves, move embedding and the generality and specificity of moves, show that the writing of abstracts in the two corpora is more different than similar. Much of the time this discrepancy can be accounted for by the factor of cultural difference. In this chapter the findings from the study are presented as a separate entity following each aspect of the examination. In the next chapter, however, the overall picture of the nature of abstract writing in the two corpora is presented, along with some implications and recommendations for further study in the field.

CHAPTER VI

Conclusion and Implications

6.1 Introduction

This chapter, firstly, presents an overview of the findings from the research. This is done in order to answer the research questions proposed at the beginning of the study. Moreover, the findings are to be evaluated here to see whether they confirm or reject the hypotheses stated earlier in section 1.4 of Chapter 1.

Next, the chapter proceeds with the implications and contribution of the study. It can be said that this work contributes to three different fields of study, namely, linguistics, World Englishes and ELT (English Language Teaching), particularly ESP (English for Specific Purposes).

The final section of this chapter provides some recommendations and suggestions for future research in the area.

6.2 Findings Overview

This study attempts to examine move structures used in the writing of thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England.

The research questions are as follows:

1. What are the move structures that characterize thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England?
2. What are the similarities and differences between the move structures employed in thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England?

The first research question is answered by the moves and steps found from this particular set of data. It was found that thesis and dissertation abstracts in linguistics written by both students in Thailand and students in England have a five-move pattern with 17 different steps. The details of this can be seen from the coding protocol and descriptions provided in Chapter 4 of this study. However, in order to give a clearer picture, the table illustrating the coding protocol is reproduced here.

Table 6.1: Moves and Steps Found in the Abstracts in the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus

Moves	Steps
Move 1: Background	Step 1: Stating the Importance of the Field or the Importance of the Topic
	Step 2: Giving Background Information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 2A: Giving Background Information about the Field or the Topic • Step 2B: Defining/Commenting on Terminology or Theory Employed
	Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research
	Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need
Move 2: The Presentation of the Research	Step 1: Indicating Purpose
	Step 2: Indicating Main Features
	Step 3: Giving or Anticipating Solution <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis • Step 3B: Making Claims
	Step 4: Outlining Thesis/Dissertation Structure
Move 3: Methodology	Step 1: Describing Materials
	Step 2: Describing Research Procedures <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 2A: Describing Research Instruments • Step 2B: Describing Tasks and Procedures
	Step 3: Describing Data Analysis
	Step 4: Giving Statistical Information
Move 4: Results	Step 1: Reporting Results
	Step 2: Commenting on Results
	Step 3: Evaluating Results <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Step 3A: Discussing Results with Hypothesis • Step 3B: Comparing Results with Previous Literature • Step 3C: Confirming/Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making new Claims
Move 5: Discussion	Step 1: Giving Recommendation or Suggestion
	Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implication of the Study

As for the second research question, in order to answer it, the analysis of move structure has been done in five different aspects, namely the frequency of moves and steps, the sequence of moves, the repetition of moves, move embedding and the generality and specificity of moves. The results from all these analyses reveal certain similarities and differences found in the abstracts in the two corpora. This is discussed below.

6.2.1 The Overall Picture of the Similarities and Differences of the Move Structures of the Abstracts from the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus

In order to provide an overall picture of the similarities and differences of the move structure employed in the abstracts from the Thai and the English corpora, the findings can be explained on two levels: the macro level and the micro level.

1. The Macro Level: At the macro level, two different aspects of move structures are involved, namely:

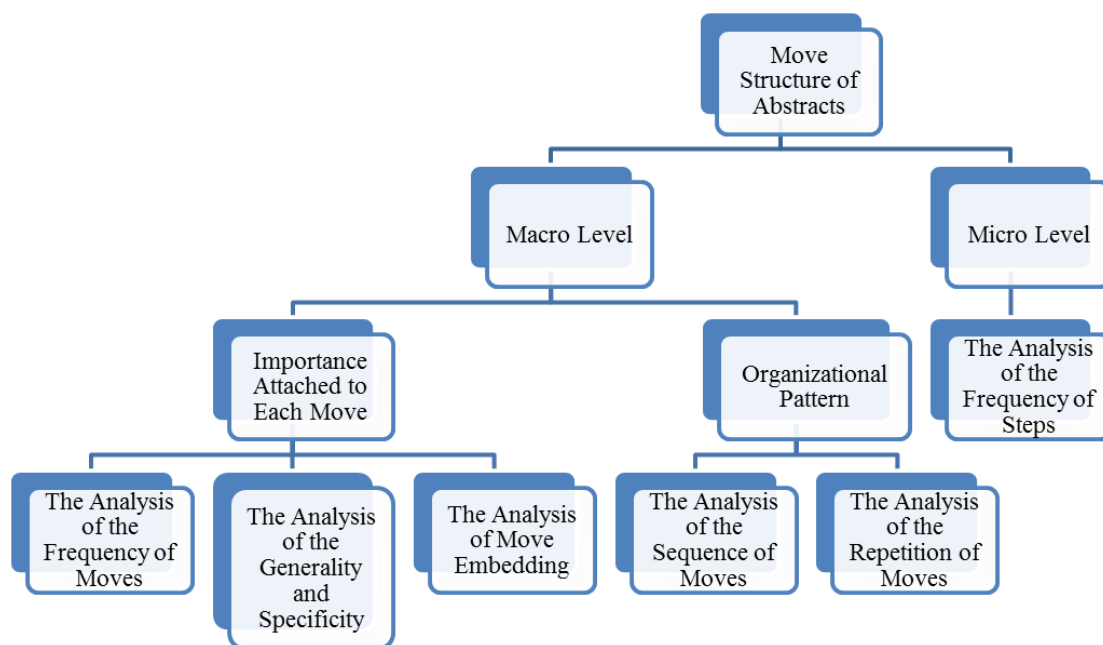
1.1 The Importance Attached to Each Move: This point can be explained by the findings incorporated from 3 analyses: the frequency of moves, the generality and specificity of moves and move embedding.

1.2 The Organizational Patterns of Abstracts: This point can be explained by the findings incorporated from 2 analyses: the sequence of move and the repetition of moves.

2. The Micro Level: The micro level involves the steps or strategies employed to accomplish each move. This can be explained by the findings from the analysis of the frequency of steps.

In order to give a clearer idea of how to achieve this overall picture, a chart is presented below.

Chart 6.1: An Overall Picture of the Similarities and Differences of the Move Structures of the Abstracts from the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus



Note here that for the macro level, there might be some overlapping aspects between the analysis of the importance attached to each move and the analysis of the organizational patterns. It is true that the analysis of move embedding can, in a way, unfold the organizational patterns as well. And at the same time, the analysis of the repetition of moves can also reveal about the importance attached to each move. However, since the effect of these two analyses; the analysis of move embedding on the organizational patterns and the analysis of the repetition of moves on the importance attached to each move, is not very prominent, compared with other analyses, it might be better if they are treated as separate entities. Also, it is more useful to make a clear cut boundary between the aspect about the importance attached to each move and the aspect about the organizational patterns. This is, certainly, in order for the overall picture of the move structure of the abstracts to be seen more clearly and easily.

The details of the macro level and the micro level of the abstracts from the Thai and the English corpora are discussed in the following sections. Note here that only major findings are discussed in detail. Charts are provided alongside this information in order to facilitate reading and give a clearer picture. The details and exact figures, however, can be found in Chapter 5.

6.2.1.1 The Macro Level

As stated above, the macro level of the abstracts from the Thai and the English corpora can be divided into two main aspects, namely, the importance attached to each move and the organizational patterns of the abstracts. The first aspect shows which move is considered important in each corpus while the latter aspect shows how these moves are organized. Each aspect is discussed in detail in the following sections.

6.2.1.1.1 The Importance Attached to Each Move

From the analyses concerning the importance or weight attached to each move in the abstracts, the conclusion is as follows. Firstly, it has been found that the moves that are considered crucial in the Thai corpus are ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ and ‘Move 4: Results.’ Moreover, among these three, it is ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology’ that gain more weight as they occupy a greater space in the majority of the abstracts in this corpus. In other words, it can be said that the abstracts from the Thai corpus tend to emphasize these two moves. In addition, there is a tendency for the abstracts in the Thai corpus to omit ‘Move 1: Background.’

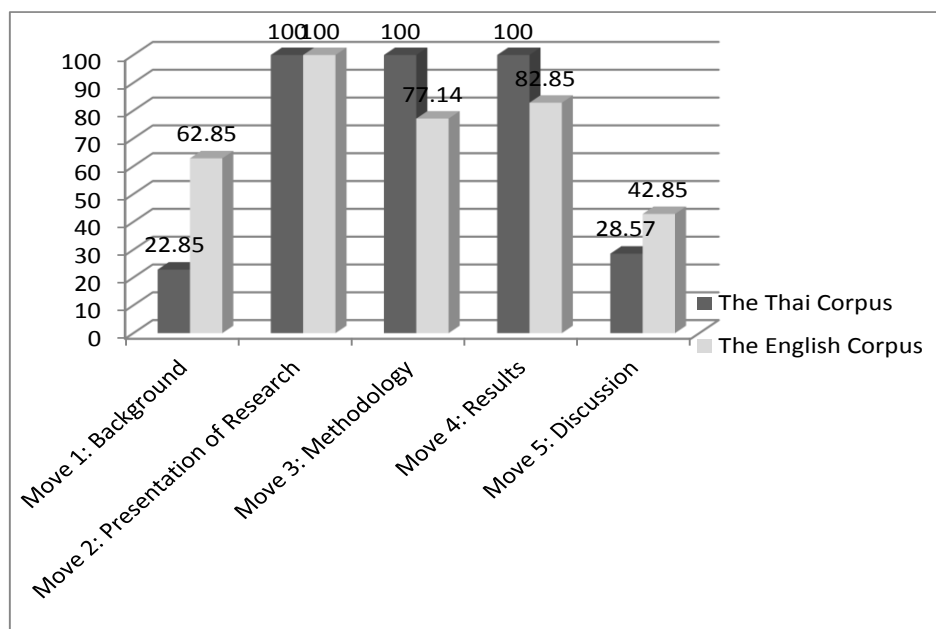
For the abstracts in the English corpus, it has been found that the moves that are considered important are ‘Move 1: Background’, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ and ‘Move 4: Results.’ Among these four moves, however, it is ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ that gain more attention as they occupy greater length in the majority of the abstracts in the corpus. Unlike the Thai corpus, there is a tendency for the abstracts in the English corpus to exalt the use of ‘Move 1: Background’ whilst downplaying the use of ‘Move 3: Methodology.’

The concluding statements about the macro level of the abstracts from the two corpora above are gained from the analysis of the frequency of moves viewed in conjunction with the analysis of the generality and specificity of moves, as well as the analysis of move embedding. The details are as follows.

A. The Frequency of Moves

First of all, the importance attached to each move in the abstracts in the Thai and English corpora can be seen from the frequency of occurrence of moves. The frequency of occurrence of moves in the two corpora is illustrated in the following chart.

Chart 6.2: A Comparison of the Frequency of Occurrence of Moves in the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus



From the chart it can be concluded that for the Thai corpus, the emphasis is on ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ and ‘Move 4: Results.’ In other words, for the Thai corpus, the moves that are considered conventional are ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ and ‘Move 4: Results,’ with the frequency of occurrence of 100 per cent in each move. The moves that are considered optional are ‘Move 1: Background’ and ‘Move 5: Discussion.’

However, it can be seen that, for the English corpus, the emphasis is on ‘Move 1: Background’, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ and ‘Move 4: Results.’ To illustrate, for the English corpus the moves that are considered conventional are ‘Move 1: Background’, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ and ‘Move 4: Results.’ Note here, however, that in the English corpus, only ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ occurs in every abstract in the corpus with the frequency of occurrence of 100 per cent. The move that is considered optional is ‘Move 5: Discussion.’

From the figures above it can be said that the move structures employed in the two corpora have something in common. In other words, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ and ‘Move 4: Results’ are considered important and necessary in both corpora, while ‘Move 5: Discussion’ is considered optional in both corpora.

The only apparent difference here is the frequency of occurrence of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the two corpora. ‘Move 1: Background’ is regarded as an optional move in the Thai corpus, while it is regarded as a conventional move in the English corpus. In other words, this move is considered optional in the Thai corpus but vital in the English corpus. The difference in the frequency of occurrence of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the two corpora then indicates the major disparity in the writing of abstracts in the two corpora, that is, the tendency to avoid ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus.

The analysis of the frequency of moves yields the findings illustrated above. However, when analyzed in conjunction with the issue of the generality and specificity of moves and move embedding, certain differences regarding the importance attached to each move can be seen and the picture of the abstracts from the two corpora can be viewed more clearly and accurately.

B. The Generality and Specificity of Moves and Move Embedding

First of all, in the Thai corpus, when analyzed in terms of the generality and specificity of moves, the findings reveal that the moves that occupy most of the space in the abstracts from the Thai corpus are, firstly, ‘Move 4: Results’ and, secondly, ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ This means that these two moves are considered important in the Thai corpus. As a result, most of the space in these abstracts is given to them. Since the length of these two moves is great, it is also true that the content of these two moves is more thorough and detailed as well. The information given in ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology’ can thus be said to be greater both in terms of depth and breadth, compared with other moves. This analysis of the generality and specificity of moves confirms the findings from the analysis of the frequency of moves presented above which states that both ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology’ are considered conventional as well as obligatory in the Thai corpus. In short, it can be said then that ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology’ are considered vital in the Thai corpus.

Moreover, when the abstracts in the Thai corpus are analyzed in terms of move embedding, the findings also underscore the importance of ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in this corpus. To illustrate, move embedding occurs in only 9 out of 35 abstracts in the Thai corpus. In these 9 abstracts where move embedding occurs, however, the only move that is embedded in other moves is ‘Move 3: Methodology’. In fact, there is an underlying notion that, when a move is embedded within other moves, it might suggest that the embedded move is not considered very important in that context. However, this is not the case for ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in the Thai corpus. The reason for this is because, from the analysis, it has been found that even though ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded in other moves, it is usually realized again later as an independent move, occupying a considerable amount of space within

the abstracts. Consequently, though embedded, the importance of ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in the Thai corpus is still secured.

Next, let us proceed to the analysis of the frequency of occurrence of moves in the English corpus in conjunction with the analysis in terms of the generality and specificity of moves and move embedding.

When analyzed in terms of the generality and specificity of moves the findings reveal that the moves that occupy most of the space in the abstracts from the English corpus are, firstly, ‘Move 4: Results’ and, secondly, ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ as opposed to ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in the Thai corpus. This means that these two moves are considered important in the English corpus and, as a result, most of the space in these abstracts is given to them.

This analysis of the generality and specificity of moves confirms the findings from the analysis of the frequency of moves presented above which states that both ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ are considered conventional in the English corpus. In short, it can be said then that ‘Move 4: Results’ and ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ are considered crucial in the English corpus.

Moreover, when the abstracts from the English corpus are analyzed in terms of move embedding, a more insightful finding can be reached. To illustrate, move embedding occurs a lot more often in the English corpus than in the Thai corpus. When move embedding occurs, the move that is embedded in other moves most often is, again, ‘Move 3: Methodology.’ The difference, however, is that, in the English corpus, when ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is embedded within other moves, most of the time it is never realized again in the abstracts as a separate move. The underlying message here is that, unlike in the Thai corpus, ‘Move 3: Methodology’ is not considered very important in the English corpus. This can be seen from the fact that even though it is present in most of the abstracts, it is realized not as an independent move but only as an embedded move, not occupying much of the space in the abstracts.

From all the findings mentioned, a conclusion can be made as follows. Firstly, when it comes to abstract writing, Thai abstracts do not generally lay much emphasis on situating their works in the context of the research world, as can be seen from the low frequency of occurrence of ‘Move 1: Background.’ Instead, they tend to highlight the methodology and result parts. The methodology used is usually described thoroughly, taking up a considerable amount of space. Apart from that, the results or findings from the studies are also displayed with greater length than other sections. However, the findings presented are usually factual and objective in tone, with

relatively less critical interpretation compared with those in the abstracts from the English corpus.

As for the English abstracts, they have a tendency to put a lot of attempt on situating their works in the already existing research world, as well as to prove that their works are of value through the use of ‘Move 1: Background.’ Apart from that, English abstracts also see the results and the findings as crucial as these sections are usually lengthy and full of descriptive information. However, the findings are, most of the time, presented along with some critical comments and interpretations from the writers. Lastly, the English abstracts do not seem to stress upon the methodology part as the methodology is generally presented only as an embedded part in other moves, containing only limited information. Evidently, this is a practice that is in contrast with that of the Thai abstracts.

6.2.1.1.2 The Organizational Patterns of the Abstracts from the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus

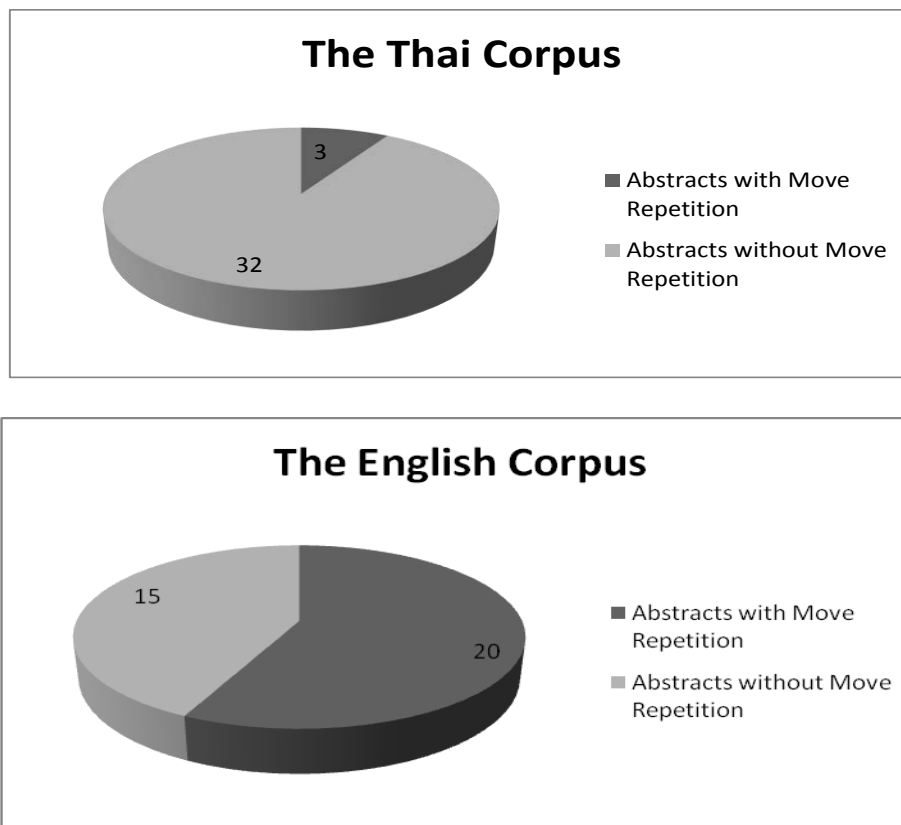
From the above sections we can see which moves are considered important in each corpus. In this section, the organizational patterns of the abstracts from the two corpora are illustrated. This can be seen in the light of the analysis of the sequence of moves and the repetition of moves. The findings from this can shed light on the nature of abstract writing as well as the writing style used in the two corpora. The details are as follows.

Firstly, the findings from the analysis of the sequence of moves reveals that most of the abstracts from the Thai corpus follow the conventional sequence of moves for abstract writing and the pattern is quite uniform. From the findings it can be said that there is a tendency for the abstracts in the Thai corpus to conform to the prescribed organizational patterns and, thus, yield certain degree of uniformity.

With the abstracts from the English corpus, however, the results are different. The majority of the abstracts from the English corpus do not follow the conventional sequence of moves for abstract writing. The patterns also vary and are not uniform. From the findings it can be said that, unlike the abstracts in the Thai corpus, most of the abstracts from the English corpus do not follow the traditional move sequence for abstract writing. Moreover, the organizational patterns of the abstracts in this corpus cannot be said to be uniform since there is a wide variety of patterns. (cf. section 5.3.2 chapter 5).

To give a clearer picture, the analysis of the sequence of moves should be seen in conjunction with the analysis of the repetition of moves. The charts below show the results from the analysis of the repetition of moves.

Chart 6.3: A Comparison of the Number of Abstracts Containing Move Repetition in the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus



From the charts above it can be seen that move repetition occurs a lot less frequently in the Thai corpus than in the English corpus. From this, it can be said that the repetition of moves is a feature peculiar to the abstracts from the English corpus. From this analysis of the repetition of moves the writing style of each discourse community can be seen.

The writing of the abstracts from the Thai corpus does not involve much move repetition. This means that the texts flow from one move to the other systematically. The moves that have already been used are not usually repeated. The abstract writing of the Thai corpus, then, can be said to be more linear in nature than the abstracts from the English corpus. This, considered together with the results from the analysis of the sequence of moves, shows that the abstracts from the Thai corpus follow the rules more strictly and are designed in a more orderly fashion than the abstracts from the English corpus.

On the other hand, concerning the repetition of moves, the abstracts from the English corpus tend to repeat certain moves and when some moves are recycled, the order of move is disrupted. From this it can be said that, in terms of the organization of moves, the abstracts in the English corpus have a tendency to be more cyclical in

nature. This, viewed together with the analysis of the sequence of moves, shows that the organizational patterns of abstract writing in the English corpus do not tend to follow the rules prescribed for abstract writing. Consequently, the abstracts from the English corpus are less orderly and methodical. This, in turn, results in the patterns of moves in the English abstracts being more varied and not uniform.

From the analyses presented so far it can be seen that, at the macro level, the abstracts from the two corpora are not only different in terms of the importance and weight attached to each move as mentioned in section 6.2.1.1.1, but also they are different in terms of the organizational patterns governing the writing as stated in section 6.2.1.1.2 as well. Next, in the following section, the micro structure or the differences in the strategies employed in the abstracts from the two corpora are discussed.

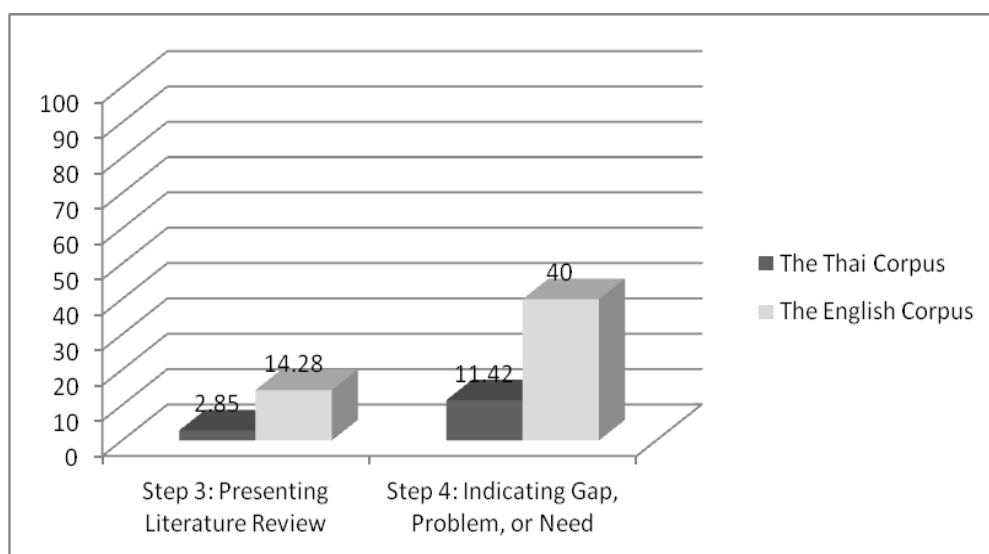
6.2.1.2 The Micro Level

Apart from the differences in the macro level of the move organization reported above, with regard to the realization of each move, abstracts from the two corpora are also different in terms of the steps or strategies employed to accomplish the communicative goals of each move. This constitutes the micro structure of the abstracts in question. Details of the major differences in the choice of steps or strategies used in each move are described in the following section.

A. ‘Move 1: Background’

First of all, in ‘Move 1: Background’ the disparity can be seen from the frequency of occurrence of ‘Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research’ and ‘Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need.’ The chart below shows the comparison of the use of these two steps in the two corpora.

Chart 6.4: A Comparison of the Percentage of the Frequency of Occurrence of ‘Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research’ and ‘Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need’ in the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus



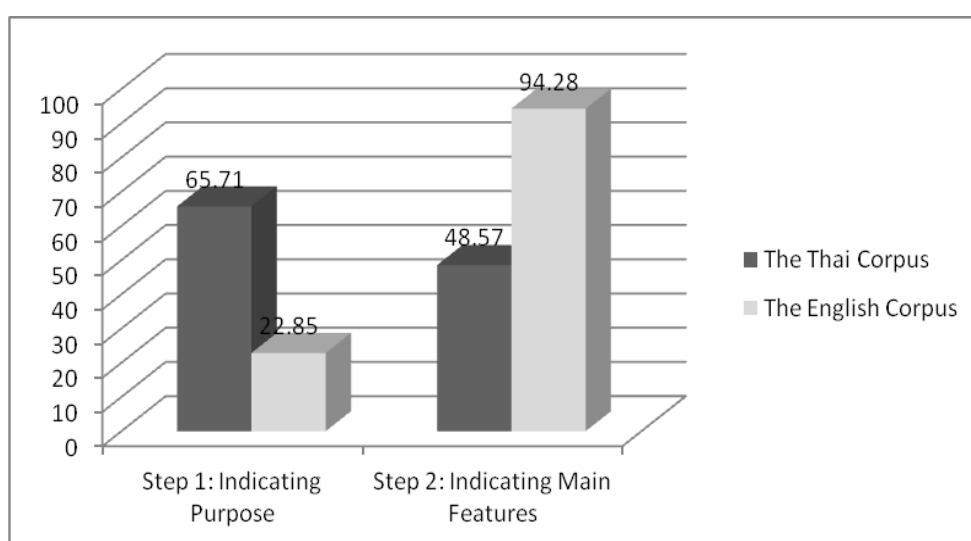
In the chart above it can be seen that ‘Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research’ and ‘Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need’ happen a lot less frequently in the Thai corpus than in the English corpus.

Most of the time, Thais do not feel comfortable criticizing the works of others openly. This disparity can be explained by the difference in the cultural background of the writers. Since realizing ‘Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research’ and ‘Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need’ involves criticizing other people’s works in some way as well as pointing out shortcomings in the field, this practice is not employed very often by Thais.

B. ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’

Next, in ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’, the disparity between the abstracts in the Thai corpus and the English corpus declares itself in the high frequency of occurrence of ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose’ in the Thai corpus, as opposed to that of ‘Step 2: Indicating Main Features’ in the English corpus. The chart below shows the figures on the occurrence of these steps in the two corpora.

Chart 6.5: A Comparison of the Percentage of the Frequency of Occurrence of ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose’ and ‘Step 2: Indicating Main Features’ in the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus

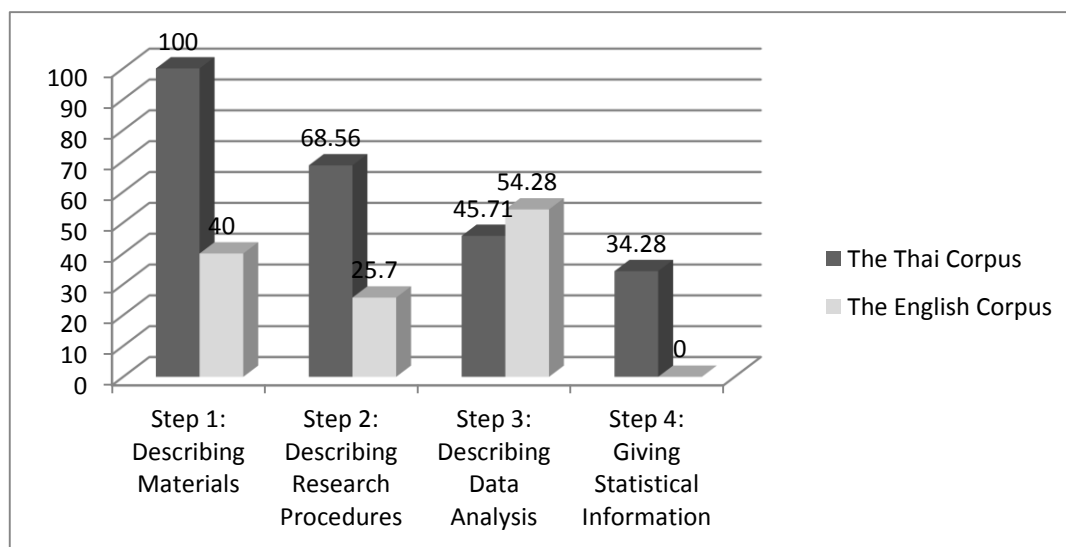


In the chart above, it can be seen that the abstracts from the Thai corpus prefer the use of ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose’ over ‘Step 2: Indicating Main Features.’ This trend is reversed in the English corpus where ‘Step 2: Indicating Main Features’ is used a lot more often than ‘Step 1: Indicating Purpose.’ Since, from the examination, the content provided in these two steps is actually more or less the same, it can be inferred that the difference in the frequency of the occurrence of these two steps stems from the difference in the writing styles prevalent in the two discourse communities. Whilst Thais prefer the use of purposive statements, the English prefer the use of descriptive statements.

C. 'Move 3: Methodology'

In Move 3: Methodology' certain differences can be found as well. The chart below illustrates this point.

Chart 6.6: A Comparison of the Percentage of the Frequency of Occurrence of the Steps Employed in 'Move 3: Methodology' in the Abstracts from the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus



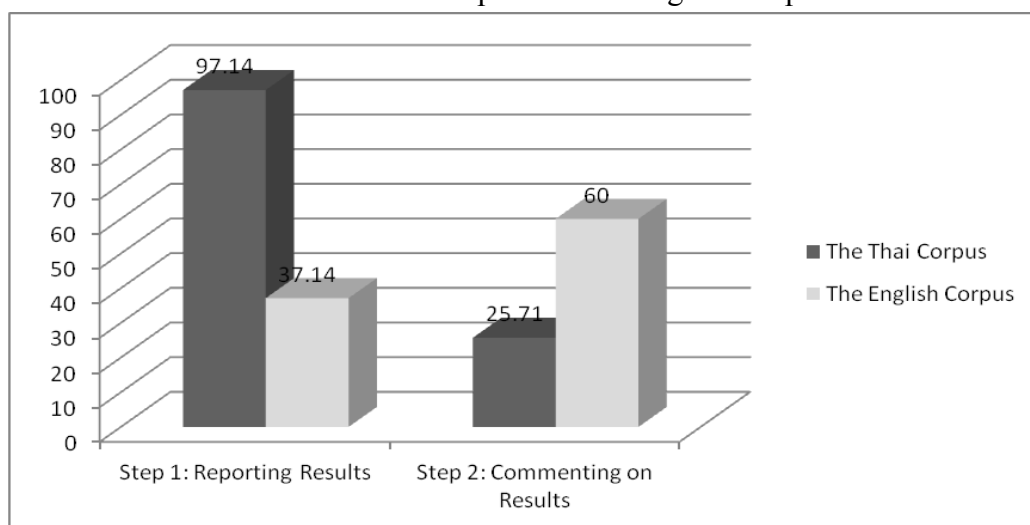
From the chart above it can be seen that while the abstracts from the Thai corpus highlight the research design, with much emphasis placed on 'Step 1: Describing Materials' and 'Step 2: Describing Research Procedures,' the abstracts from the English corpus pay more attention to data analysis, with the realization of 'Step 3: Describing Data Analysis.'

To illustrate, firstly, in the Thai corpus, the use of 'Step 1: Describing Materials' and 'Step 2: Describing Research Procedures' is quite high. This is even more apparent when compared with the relatively low frequency of occurrence of these two steps in the English corpus. From this, it can be said that the abstracts from the Thai corpus give a lot of weight to describing the design of the research. As for the abstracts in the English corpus, however, the step that is used most often in 'Move 3: Methodology' is 'Step 3: Data Analysis.' This step in the Thai corpus, however, is used less than the other two steps already mentioned. From these figures then, it is fair to say that the abstracts from the English corpus, unlike those from the Thai corpus, have a tendency to highlight data analysis, concerning theories and frameworks used.

D. ‘Move 4: Results’

Next, let us proceed to the strategies used in ‘Move 4: Results’. The disparity in the realization of this move can be found in the frequency of occurrence of ‘Step 1: Reporting Results’ and ‘Step 2: Commenting on Results’. The figures are shown in the chart below.

Chart 6.7: A Comparison of the Percentage of the Frequency of Occurrence of the Steps Employed in ‘Move 4: Results’ in the Abstracts from the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus

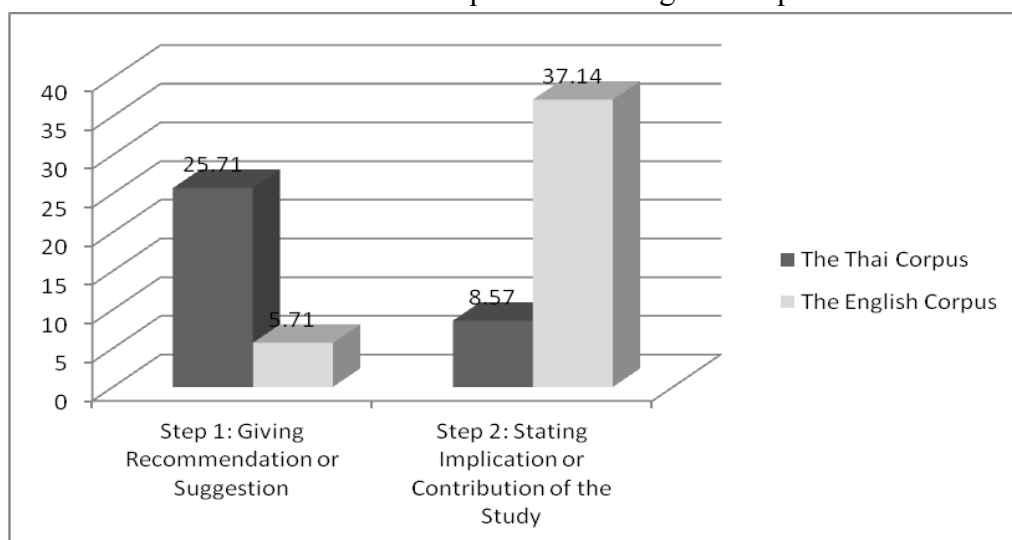


In the chart above, it can be seen that while the abstracts from the Thai corpus prefer the use of ‘Step 1: Reporting Results’, the abstracts from the English corpus prefer the use of ‘Step 2: Commenting on Results’. The difference between these two steps lies in the fact that when ‘Step 1: Reporting Results’ is used, findings from studies are reported objectively without the writer’s interpretation. On the other hand, when ‘Step 2: Commenting on the Results’ is used, it involves interpretive comments from the writer. From the figures above then, it can be concluded that while the majority of abstracts from the Thai corpus rely on reporting results objectively, most of the abstracts from the English corpus choose to report their findings subjectively with some critical comments from the writers.

E. 'Move 5: Discussion'

Finally, let us take a look at the steps and strategies used in 'Move 5: Discussion' in the two corpora. The details are shown in the chart below.

Chart 6.8: A Comparison of the Percentage of the Frequency of Occurrence of the Steps Employed in 'Move 5: Discussion' in the Abstracts from the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus



From the chart above it can be seen that while the abstracts from the Thai corpus prefer the use of 'Step 1: Giving Recommendation or Suggestion', the abstracts from the English corpus, on the other hand, prefer the use of 'Step 2: Stating the Implication or Contribution of the Study'. This fact shows that the focus of the abstracts from the Thai corpus is to give recommendations so that the research can be carried on by others who are interested in these fields of study. On the other hand, with the higher frequency in the occurrence of 'Step 2: Stating the Implication or Contribution of the Study' in the abstracts from the English corpus, it can be seen that the focus of the abstracts from the English corpus is to make a link between the research and the real world beyond, as well as to prove the practical use of these works.

From the above findings, a statement of conclusion about the steps or strategies used can be derived as follows. For 'Move 1: Background,' Thai abstracts have a tendency to avoid presenting literature review on the topic as well as pointing out the gaps or problems in the field because the practice involves criticizing the works of others. This tendency, however, is not found in the abstracts from the English corpus. For 'Move 2: The Presentation of the Research,' the majority of Thai abstracts employ 'Step 1: Indicating Purpose' while the majority of English abstracts resort to the use of 'Step 2: Indicating Main Features.' In other words, Thai abstracts

are purposive in nature whereas English abstracts are descriptive in nature. For ‘Move 3: Methodology,’ it can be seen that the abstracts from the Thai corpus tend to stress the importance of research design while the abstracts from the English corpus tend to highlight the data analysis section. As for ‘Move 4: Results,’ the difference is also evident as most of the Thai abstracts utilize ‘Step 1: Reporting Results.’ This means that they present their findings in a factual and objective style. Most of the English abstracts, on the other hand, have an inclination towards the use of ‘Step 2: Commenting on Results.’ This means that they present their findings along with some critical comments and interpretations. Finally, in ‘Move 5: Discussion,’ most of the Thai abstracts rely on the use of ‘Step 1: Giving Recommendation or Suggestion’ while most of the English abstracts choose to employ ‘Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implication of the Study.’ While Thai abstracts try to relate their findings to the already existing body of knowledge as well as to continue the research in the field, English abstracts tend to use the space in ‘Move 5: Discussion’ to prove the value of their works by stating the contribution and implication of their studies.

To sum up, it can be seen that the abstracts from the Thai corpus and the English corpus are more different than similar. These dissimilarities can be seen not only in the macro structure of the organization of the moves but also in the micro structure such as the steps and strategies used to accomplish each move. The following section describes the factors influencing the disparities found in the abstracts from the two corpora.

6.3 An Explanation and Interpretation of the Differences Found from the Analysis of the Abstracts in the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus

This section attempts to sum up and give explanations and interpretations that might account for the disparities found between the abstracts from the Thai corpus and the English corpus. Since this study is a contrastive analysis of abstracts written by Thai and English students, it is obvious that one major variable here is the different cultural background of the writers. In other words, broadly speaking, it can be said that the discrepancies found in the textual and organizational patterns of the abstracts in the two corpora to result from cultural differences. Accounting for these cultural-bound disparities is no easy task since usually what happens in texts results not from a single factor but rather from the interplay of several.

Yakhontova (2006), however, tried to classify these factors influencing the differences in writing styles roughly into four categories, namely ‘*academic discourse community factors*’, ‘*influences of socio-historical and socio-political circumstances*’, ‘*influences of national intellectual styles*’ and ‘*the possible correlation between language structures and grammatical norms*’ (p. 154). As for the discrepancies arising in this study it seems that it is factors relating to the academic discourse

community and the influences of national intellectual styles that are the main causes. The details are described below.

Firstly, let us start with the academic discourse community factors. These refer to the disparity caused by some specific features of the discourse communities in question. This can include many things from size, pressure and the degree of competitiveness to the degree of closeness among members of the communities. This view has been taken in works such as Ahmad (1997); Melander, Swales and Fredrickson (1997); as well as Salager-Meyer, Ariza, and Zambrano (2003). As for the present study, the factors of the academic discourse community seem to affect the writing of abstracts from the two corpora in many ways.

To illustrate, the academic discourse community of Thai linguists is apparently smaller in size, lower in pressure and lower in the degree of competitiveness compared with that of the English. The results of these differences are multi-faceted. To begin with, the smaller size and lower pressure can account for the relatively sparse frequency of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus. This move is used a lot in the English corpus, as was stated earlier in this study, with a lot of emphasis being given to it. In the Thai corpus, however, this move occurs a lot less frequently. The explanation for this is that, in the Thai corpus, with its smaller size and lower pressure and competitiveness, writers do not have to try as hard to situate their works in the research sphere. The result is certainly a lower frequency in the occurrence of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus. On the other hand, since the English academic discourse community is bigger in size and higher in pressure, it is natural for the writers to try harder to justify and situate their studies in the existing research community, as well as to prove to the readers that their works are of value. This results in the more frequent use of ‘Move 1: Background’ in the English corpus.

Secondly, these academic discourse community factors can also illuminate why the abstracts in the English corpus have the tendency to highlight ‘Move 4: Results’ while downplaying the use of ‘Move 3: Methodology’. One explanation could be that since the English discourse community is bigger and more competitive, writers have to struggle to promote their works and compete with each other. Highlighting ‘Move 4: Results’ with some interpretative statements while downplaying ‘Move 3: Methodology’ can thus be seen as one of the promotional schemes. In order to compete for the attention of readers, it is necessary for the English abstracts to make their works original and fresh. This can certainly be done, not by describing thoroughly the methodology used but by giving interesting and new comments and interpretations on the topic. The result, as predicted, is the elevated use of ‘Move 4: Results’ and the meager employment of ‘Move 3: Methodology.’

The second factor that seems to have an influence on the writing of abstracts from the two corpora in this study stems from what Yakhontova (2006) referred to as

'the national intellectual style' (p. 54). This term refers to the writing tradition and convention peculiar to each nation. It is, in other words, the marked cultural system of communication among the intellects of each culture. Works that adopt the notion along these lines are, for example, those of Kaplan (1966), Clyne (1981) and Duszak (1997). Also, in this present study, the influence of national intellectual style between Thai and English is also immense.

Firstly, in the macro level, the national intellectual style affects the writing of abstracts in the Thai corpus and the English corpus in terms of the sequence of moves, the repetition of moves and move embedding. To begin with, regarding the sequence of moves, the abstracts from the Thai corpus tend to follow the conventional sequence of moves for abstract writing, proceeding from Move 1 to Move 5, while the majority of the abstracts from the English corpus do not seem to observe this constraint. One of the explanations accounting for this is the difference in the national intellectual style of the two discourse communities. In the Thai circle, there seems to be what Yakhontova (2006) refers to as *'the inheritance of academic writing conventions'* passing down from generation to generation (p. 164). Because of this inheritance then, certain conventions seem to be fixed in the Thai community. This exerts itself in the way Thai abstracts are written, that is, following the existing conventions and proceeding from Move 1 to Move 5.

Moreover, in terms of the repetition of moves and move embedding, we can also see the influence of the national intellectual style. Both the practice of the repetition of moves and move embedding are present more frequently in the abstracts from the English corpus than in the abstracts from the Thai corpus. In fact, it can be said that these two phenomena occur quite rarely in the abstracts from the Thai corpus. So, in a way, the cyclical nature of moves and move embedding can be seen as a part of the writing style of the English academic discourse community and not of the Thai. Consequently, from what is found in this present study, it can be said that when it comes to abstract writing, the repetition of moves and move embedding can be seen as an example of one of the national intellectual styles preferred by the English writers. The result of this, when viewed in conjunction with the findings about the sequence of moves, is that while the abstracts from the Thai corpus seem to be more linear and systematic, the abstracts from the English corpus seem to be more cyclical and less conformed.

Apart from the macro structure of the organization of the moves, national intellectual style seems to play a role in the different choice of steps and strategies used in the abstracts from the two corpora as well. Firstly, because of this discrepancy in the intellectual writing style, Thai abstracts have a tendency to realize 'Move 2: The Presentation of the Research' with 'Step 1: Indicating Purpose', while English abstracts have a tendency to use 'Step 2: Indicating Main Features'. In other words, it

can be said that while the writing style of the Thai abstracts is purposive in nature, that of the English abstracts is descriptive. Secondly, it can also be viewed as the influence of the discrepancy in the writing style that accounts for the difference in the realization of ‘Move 3: Methodology’ in the abstracts from the two corpora. To illustrate, while the Thai abstracts tend to stress the importance of research design, with a greater use of ‘Step 1: Describing Materials’ and ‘Step 2: Describing Research Procedures’, the English abstracts tend to underline the importance of data analysis, with a greater use of ‘Step 3: Describing Data Analysis’.

Finally, apart from the two factors mentioned above, namely, the academic discourse community factors, and the influence of national intellectual style, as proposed by Yakhontova (2006), I incorporated another dimension which can account for the cultural-bound disparity between the abstract writing from the two corpora in this study; that is, the difference in terms of the ‘*socio-cultural traits*.’

By this term, I am describing differences caused by the disparity in terms of the cultural background that governs the writing, with or without the awareness of the writers. These cultural traits, as confirmed by the findings in this study, have various effects on the writing of abstracts in the two corpora.

The discrepancy in cultural traits in this study can be understood in light of the cultural framework of Hofstede and Hofstede (2005) and Hall (1981) as illustrated earlier in Chapter 2 and Chapter 5. In short, according to Hofstede and Hofstede (2005), Thailand is considered a collectivist society, where people tend to see themselves as belonging to a group. As a result, harmony is maintained while confrontation is avoided. English culture, on the other hand, can be seen as an individualist culture; people see themselves as individuals, independent from the group. Harmony, then, is not the goal and confrontation, dispute and challenge are more accepted. As for the typology of Hall (1981), the Thai community is considered a high context culture. Most of the information can be derived from the context. Directness and explicitness are not considered favorable acts and sometimes can be thought of as being offensive. As for English, however, it is regarded as a low context culture. Information can be gained directly from texts and not context. In this kind of culture, directness and explicitness are welcomed. Because of these differences in the cultural traits of the Thai and English discourse communities, certain disparities in abstract writing can be found.

First of all, there is a tendency for the Thai abstracts to avoid criticizing others openly. Because of the cultural background stated above, Thais do not feel comfortable challenging or criticizing the works of others. This results in the lower frequency of occurrence of ‘Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research’ and ‘Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need’ in ‘Move 1: Background’ in the Thai corpus, compared with the English corpus, as well as the

lack of ‘Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis’ and ‘Step 3B: Making Claims’ in ‘Move 2: The Presentation of the Research’ in the Thai corpus. The lower frequency in the occurrence of ‘Step 3C: Confirming/Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making New Claims’ in ‘Move 4: Results’ in the Thai corpus, compared with that in the English corpus, can be seen as stemming from this factor as well. The explanation is that, when being realized, these steps involve stating one’s own stance directly or challenging and even rejecting existing theories or claims. Because of this, it is not surprising that Thai abstracts, influenced by the cultural traits stated above, have a tendency to avoid using these steps.

From the above analysis it can be seen that, the disparities between abstract writing in the Thai corpus and the English corpus found in this study can be accounted for by three different factors: academic discourse community factors, the influence of national intellectual style and socio-cultural traits.

6.4 Implications of the Study

The implications of this study are three-fold. Firstly, it will contribute to the field of linguistic study. Next, since it is a study of the writing of abstracts by Thai and English students, it will contribute to the field of World Englishes. Finally, the findings here will also be of use to the field of ELT (English Language Teaching), particularly for ESP (English for Specific Purposes).

Firstly, in the field of linguistic study, the findings from this research provide a valuable description of the move structures employed in thesis and dissertation abstracts in the field of linguistics written by students in Thailand and students in England which is still under-investigated. These findings, thus, will add to the literature in the field of discourse analysis and genre analysis.

Secondly, since this study is a comparison between thesis and dissertation abstracts written by students in Thailand and students in England, it contributes to the field of world Englishes. Findings from this study can yield the characteristics of the variety of Thai English in respect to the specific genre of abstracts in the linguistic field. Moreover, it points out some similarities and differences between Thai English and British English. Certain traits in the writing of both Thai and English students can also be seen and described as examples of the effect of differences caused by culture.

Finally, the findings in this study can benefit the field of English language teaching, especially ESP (English for Specific Purposes). The results from this study may be used by instructors of English as a guideline to teach students to write academic texts in English, especially the writing of thesis and dissertation abstracts. However, since today we are in the age of world Englishes, the trend of teaching and learning English is now towards mutual intelligence and not native-like language ability. As a result, one important thing to be noted here is that this does not, in any

way, mean that Thai students or other L2 students of English should copy or imitate the writing of English or other native speakers of English. Rather the description of language found in this study can be an example for Thai students to understand the norms as well as the differences between their own writing and English students' writing. From this they will be able to understand both the norms of native speaker writing as well as their own conventions. After that, the goal is for Thai students to be able to negotiate both form and function in order to achieve their own communicative goal or what Bhatia (1997) calls private intention, and at the same time be accepted as a part of international circle of linguists.

By achieving the goal mentioned above, abstract writing which has been proved to be a difficult task for many writers, according to Lores (2004), for example, might become more efficient and easier to handle. And since the importance of abstracts is growing as can be seen by their status as a '*top*' genre which can provide '*the greatest approbation and reward*' for the writers (Swales 2004), being able to write an abstract that combines L1 conventions without neglecting the target language's expectations would be very beneficial for its writer.

6.5 Recommendations for Further Study

The area of move analysis and abstract writing is still a highly intriguing and challenging one that still leaves a lot of room for research to be done. Here are some recommendations for future research along these lines.

1. Further research could be done on the lexico-grammatical structures of abstracts. This can be undertaken as a comparative study of the contrastive texts of multi-ethnic writers. Since this present study only examined the organization of moves, it would be very beneficial if there were some research done on the lexico-grammatical structures used in abstracts from different discourse communities so that the results can complement what has already been done in this study. The choice of lexico-grammatical structure is of importance because, even though the same communicative goals of each move are achieved, different writers may choose to rely on dissimilar techniques to accomplish them.

2. In terms of disciplinary differences, further research can be done on comparing the move structure of abstracts written by Thai students in the field of linguistics with that in other fields, especially science and medical fields. This is in order to see whether or not disciplinary differences affect the writing of abstracts by Thai students. This issue is interesting because, in general, genre variation is said to be caused by two factors, namely, disciplinary differences and cultural differences. Since this present study has already examined the effect of culture on the genre of abstracts, it would be beneficial to see the effect of disciplinary differences on genre

variation as well. In addition, it is also interesting to see which variable among these two exerts more influence on abstract writing.

3. Since this present study treats the Master's Degree and the Doctoral Degree as one category, it might be interesting to do further research in which these two levels of education are separated and treated as different groups of data. Further research can thus be done comparing the writing of Master's Degree thesis abstracts with the writing of Doctoral Degree thesis abstracts by Thai students or students of other nationalities to see whether the difference in degree affects move structure or not. If there are indeed some disparities, it would be interesting to try to find the reasons accounting for them. The variable here is not the nationality of the writer or the discipline to which he/she belongs. Rather, it is the difference in the level of academic degree.

4. Further study can be done comparing the writing of abstracts by students, either Thai or other nationalities, with the guidelines for writing abstracts provided in research writing manuals available on the market. This is in order to see whether students follow the advice provided in the manuals or not. Moreover, it will be useful to see whether writing abstracts following this advice helps to make the text effective or not.

6.6 Final Notes

Lastly, to end this study, the final note is that, from all of the analyses presented in this research, it can be concluded that abstracts written by Thai students and English students are different both in terms of their organizational structure and the steps and strategies used. The variable here seems to be the disparity in the cultural background of the writers. However, the results of this study also reveal that these cultural constraints do not seem to greatly affect the essential move structures. The impact is rather on the realization of each move as well as the steps and strategies writers choose to employ to accomplish the communicative purposes.

The findings from this study show more differences than similarities in the two groups of texts. This, however, seems to be advantageous because it can then fill the gap pointed out by Hyland (2006) that the study of the genre seems to overlook the differences and over-emphasize the similarities.

Ultimately, this kind of comparative study is very beneficial both for the instructors and learners of English. This is because it can yield a better understanding both of cultural particulars as well as linguistic universals, as reflected by Connor (1996). The importance of the study of contrasted texts such as this can be summed up in Maries-Paule Pery Woodley's words as quoted in Connor (1996):

Contrasting and comparing are basic to any form of anthropological investigation, and this includes, of course, linguistic investigation. It is the contrastive light which shows a particular practice as specific to a group; conversely, it is the contrastive approach which allows the identification of universals. Not only is a contrastive stance a superlative way of gaining precise descriptive knowledge about individual languages and cultures, it is invaluable in the quest for a general understanding of language-based communication, as it forces the researcher to relativize particular ways of doing things with language; it is the best antidote to “ethno/linguocentricity.” (p. 6)

This study then, following the suggestion made by Bhatia (1993), tries to be sensitive to the socio-cultural forces governing the writing of abstracts. Hopefully, it will raise awareness of the cross-cultural issues in the study of genre. In the end, it is expected to be able to answer part of the question, both about the particulars and universals of the languages under examination, as stated in the quotation above.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

The Table of Individualism Index Value (IDV)

<u>Country/ Region</u>	<u>Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>	<u>Country/ Region</u>	<u>Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
United States	91	1	Russia	39	39-40
Australia	90	2	Arab countries	38	39-40
Great Britain	89	3	Brazil	38	41
Canada total	80	4-6	Turkey	37	42
Hungary	80	4-6	Uruguay	36	43
Netherlands	80	4-6	Greece	35	44
New Zealand	79	7	Croatia	33	45
Belgium Flemish	78	8	Philippines	32	46-48
Italy	76	9	Bulgaria	30	46-48
Denmark	74	10	Mexico	30	46-48
Canada Quebec	73	11	Romania	30	49-51
Belgium Walloon	72	12	East Africa	27	49-51
France	71	13-14	Portugal	27	49-51
Sweden	71	13-14	Slovania	27	52
Ireland	70	15	Malaysia	26	53-54
Norway	69	16-17	Hong Kong	25	53-54
Switzerland German	69	16-17	Serbia	25	55
Germany	67	18	Chile	23	56-61
South Africa	65	19	Bangladesh	20	56-61
Switzerland French	64	20	China	20	56-61
Finland	63	21	Singapore	20	56-61
Estonia	60	22-24	Thailand	20	56-61
Luxemburg	60	22-24	Vietnam	20	56-61
Poland	60	22-24	West Africa	20	56-61
Malta	59	25	Salvador	19	62
Czech Republic	58	26	Korea (South)	18	63
Austria	55	27	Taiwan	17	64
Israel	54	28	Peru	16	65-66
Slovakia	52	29	Trinidad	16	65-66
Spain	51	30	Costa Rica	15	67

<u>Country/ Region</u>	<u>Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>	<u>Country/ Region</u>	<u>Score</u>	<u>Rank</u>
India	48	31	Indonesia	14	68-69
Suriname	47	32	Pakistan	14	68-69
Argentina	46	33-35	Colombia	13	70
Japan	46	33-35	Venezuela	12	71
Morocco	46	33-35	Panama	11	72
Iran	41	36	Ecuador	8	73
Jamaica	39	37-38	Guatemala	6	74

(Adapted from Hofstede and Hofstede (2005))

Appendix B

Abstracts in the Thai Corpus

No.	Abstract Title	University
1.	An Interlanguage study of English intonation in Thai students speaking Pattani Malay as their mother tongue.	CU
2.	The transfer of expressive meaning in the translation of English intensifiers into Thai.	CU
3.	Translation of humor in English TV situation comedies into Thai.	CU
4.	A study of English relative clauses in the interlanguage of Thai EFL learners.	CU
5.	A comparative analysis of English feature articles in magazines published in Thailand and Britain: Linguistic aspects.	CU
6.	A genre-based study of English recruitment advertisements in Thai and British daily newspaper.	CU
7.	The syntactic variation of English adverbs in the interlanguage of Thai learners.	CU
8.	The effects of error treatments and students' language abilities on the usage of English tenses through the use of computer-assisted language learning.	CU
9.	A study of the translation of Thai serial verb constructions with directional verbs and their semantic and syntactic equivalence in English.	CU
10.	Genre analysis of English business e-mail correspondences in internal communication between Thais and Germans in profit and non-profit organizations.	CU
11.	Intelligibility of English speech between Singaporean and Thai English speakers.	CU
12.	An analysis of interlanguage of complement usages in Thai university students.	CU
13.	An analysis of features of negotiation for meaning and form in synchronous computer-mediated communication of Khon Kaen University students.	CU
14.	Characteristic features in English acknowledgements written by Thai graduates: Indicators for Thai English.	CU
15.	The effectiveness of implementing classroom tasks: A comparative case study of the effect of informing or not informing mathayom suksa one learners of the objectives of the task.	MU

No.	Abstract Title	University
16.	The relationship between EFL high school learners' scores on teacher-made tests and the ordinary National-Educational Testing (O-NET).	MU
17.	Factors affecting learner use of a self-access center.	MU
18.	A study of the organization of Ph. D. thesis abstracts of science students at the Faculty of Science, Mahidol University.	MU
19.	A study of the needs, problems, and wants of students studying in the bilingual program at Winit Secondary School.	MU
20.	Genre analysis of scientific abstracts: A comparative study of <i>Science</i> and <i>Nature</i> journals.	MU
21.	Student teachers' reflective thinking: An exploration on collaborative teaching of experienced and inexperienced EFL student teachers.	MU
22.	Relationship between language learning strategies and the psychomotor domain of life skills among first-year students at Mahidol University.	MU
23.	The communicative language teaching (CLT) conceptualization and CLT practice of Thai EFL school teachers in Bangkok.	MU
24.	Readiness for autonomous language learning: Thai university learners' beliefs about EFL learning and use of learning strategies.	MU
25.	Relationship between language learning strategies and the cognitive domain of life skills among first-year students at Mahidol University.	MU
26.	Factors related to research productivity of English as a foreign language teachers of public universities in Northern Thailand.	MU
27.	An investigation of language learning strategies employed by mattayom three students: The impact of language and content.	MU
28.	A case study of language learning strategies of visually impaired students at the Thailand Association of the Blind.	MU
29.	University teachers and learners revealing their perceived characteristics of an effective university EFL teacher.	MU
30.	The relationship between language learning strategies and affective domain among first-year students at Mahidol University.	MU
31.	Oral English communication strategies employed by first-year medical students, Mahidol University, in the 2004 academic year.	MU

No.	Abstract Title	University
32.	A relationship between beliefs of EFL university teachers in a Thai university context and their instructional behaviors: A crucial issue.	MU
33.	A survey of language learning strategies used by first year students at Mahidol University: The impact of field of study.	MU
34.	A structural move analysis of MA thesis discussion sections in applied linguistics.	MU
35.	An investigation on reading strategies employed by high and low English ability science and arts mattayom suksa six students at Assumption College Thonburi.	MU

NOTE

CU = Chulalongkorn University

MU = Mahidol University

Appendix C

Abstracts in the English Corpus

No.	Abstract Title	University
1.	The derivation of anaphoric relations.	York
2.	Naming the divine: Designations for the Christian god in old English poetry.	York
3.	Studies of the phonetics-interaction interface: Clicks and interactional structures in English conversation.	York
4.	The graphemic output buffer: A single case study.	York
5.	The phonetic design of turn endings, beginning, and continuations in conversation.	York
6.	Aspect and polarity.	York
7.	Integration between language and visual context: A re-investigation of children's interpretation of relative clauses.	York
8.	Structured variation in British English liquids: The role of resonance.	York
9.	Tenseless clauses: AspP and the case-licensing of subjects.	York
10.	A grammatical approach to non-speech audio communication.	York
11.	An efficient treatment of quantification in underspecified semantic representations.	York
12.	Aspects of English: An examination of aspect within past temporal reference in Northern British English.	York
13.	Synchrony and diachrony in the evolution of English: Evidence from Scotland.	York
14.	The prediction of prosodic structure from written text: Revisited, reformulated, re-evaluated.	York
15.	Phase structure, phrase structure, and quantification.	York
16.	“Right, do interactional functions other than turn finality constrain phonological variation? Well, that rather depends.” An investigation of the interactional constraints of turn finality and the discourse particles right and well on language variation.	Essex
17.	The demise of Cockneys? Language change in London's „traditional' East End.	Essex
18.	Dialect acquisition and ethnic boundary maintenance: Barbadians in Ipswich.	Essex
19.	The acquisition of prepositional constructions and their associated case-marking properties in the L2 German of L1 English speakers.	Essex

No.	Abstract Title	University
20.	Mobility-induced dialect contact: A sociolinguistic investigation of speech variation in Wilmslow, Cheshire.	Essex
21.	The acquisition of the English determiner phrase by Japanese and Spanish learners of English.	Essex
22.	Morphology and syntax in children with neurodevelopmental disorders: A study of Down's syndrome and Williams syndrome.	Essex
23.	Second language acquisition of prepositions: Functional and substantive features.	Essex
24.	Derivational phonology and optimality phonology: Formal comparison and synthesis.	Essex
25.	Regular and irregular verb inflection in the French mental lexicon: A dual-mechanism perspective.	Essex
26.	Second language sentence processing: The processing of relative clause attachment ambiguities and long-distance wh-dependencies by adult L2 learners of English.	Essex
27.	Individual differences in word recognition in relation to the Paap and Noel (1991) dual task paradigm.	Essex
28.	LFG-DOT: A hybrid architecture for robust MT	Essex
29.	The mental representation of Italian morphology: Evidence for the dual-mechanism model.	Essex
30.	The testing of second language listening comprehension. (Volume I and II)	Lancaster
31.	The tree theoretical phonology of contemporary Finnish	Lancaster
32.	Getting along with others: An examination of the ethnomethodological roots of preference organization and its relationship to complimenting.	Aston
33.	Scientific innovation and the phraseology of rhetoric: Posture, reformulation and collocation in cancer research articles.	Aston
34.	Solidarity and power in Germany: Language as political action. A contribution to the socio-cultural history of German language.	Aston
35.	The importance of functional indexing to the communicative design of a learner's English-Japanese dictionary.	Exeter

NOTE

York = University of York
 Essex = University of Essex
 Aston = Aston University

Exeter = University of Exeter
 Lancaster = Lancaster University

Appendix D

Coding Protocol for Abstract in the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus

Move 1: Background

- Step 1: Stating the Importance of the Field or the Importance of the Topic
- Step 2: Giving Background Information
 - Step 2A: Giving Background Information about the Field or the Topic
 - Step 2B: Defining/Commenting on Terminology or Theory Employed
- Step 3: Presenting Literature Review or Previous Research
- Step 4: Indicating the Gap, Problem or Need

Move 2: The Presentation of the Research

- Step 1: Indicating Purpose
- Step 2: Indicating Main Features
- Step 3: Giving or Anticipating Solution
 - Step 3A: Raising Hypothesis
 - Step 3B: Making Claims
- Step 4: Outlining Thesis/Dissertation Structure

Move 3: Methodology

- Step 1: Describing Materials
- Step 2: Describing Research Procedures
 - Step 2A: Describing Research Instruments
 - Step 2B: Describing Tasks and Procedures
- Step 3: Describing Data Analysis
- Step 4: Giving Statistical Information

Move 4: Results

- Step 1: Reporting Results
- Step 2: Commenting on Results
- Step 3: Evaluating Results
 - Step 3A: Discussing Results with Hypothesis
 - Step 3B: Comparing Results with Previous Literature
 - Step 3C: Confirming/Rejecting Existing Theory or Claims, or Making new Claims

Move 5: Discussion

- Step 1: Giving Recommendation or Suggestion
- Step 2: Stating Contribution or Implication of the Study

Appendix E

Examples of Moves and Steps Analysis of the Abstracts from the Thai Corpus and the English Corpus

Example 1: Move and Step Analysis of an Abstract from the Thai Corpus (Thai 2)

The Transfer of Expressive Meaning in the Translation of English Intensifiers into Thai

This research explores how the three English intensifiers *very*, *so*, and *really* are translated into Thai through the use of parallel corpus. (Move 2 Step 2)// It aims to study the linguistic realizations used in the translations, the translation strategies, and lastly, how the contextual factors play the role in the translation. (Move 2 Step 1)// A parallel corpus was constructed consisting of 12 English fictions and the Thai translations. In the selection of these fictions, stratified sampling method was used with an aim to test whether the context within the story, i. e. the temporal context (dated vs. contemporary), the participants (upper vs. lower classes), and the types of discourse (narration vs. dialogue), play a role in the translators' choice of linguistic forms. (Move 3 Step 1)// Interviews were also carried out with three professional translators to compare to the quantitative study of the relationship between forms and contexts. (Move 3 Step 2B)//

It is found that three linguistic processes were used in translating the intensifiers: the lexical processes which include intensifiers, metaphorical expressions, and deictics; the morpho-syntactic-phonological processes which comprise formal and semantic repetition, negative constructions, and combinatory structures; and lastly the phonological processes in the final particles. The translation strategy most opted for was sense-oriented translation. (Move 4 Step 1)// The findings from the statistic quantitative analyses and the interviews supported the hypothesis that the temporal context, the context of participants, and the types of discourse were the governing factors in the translators' choices of linguistic forms. (Move 4 Step 3A)//

Example 2: Move and Step Analysis of an Abstract from the English Corpus (English 1)

The Derivation of Anaphoric Relations

This thesis develops an analysis of the binding theory within the Minimalist approach to the architecture of the language faculty. (Move 2 Step 2)// As an expression of the principles governing the distribution and referential dependencies of reflexives, pronouns, and referential-expressions, the binding theory has proved a highly successful and influential outcome of the generative programme. (Move 1 Step 1)// However, given the central Minimalist conjecture that the computational system is strictly derivational (non-representational), the binding theory has become one of the most problematic modules of the grammar, relying crucially on syntactically active constraints defined over representations of sentences. (Move 1 Step 4)//

I aim to capture a range of crosslinguistic empirical facts previously attributed to Conditions A and B of the binding theory, armed only with purely derivational concepts and a generalized derivational domain: the ‚phrase.‘ (Move 2 Step 1)// It is argued that binding relations are essentially determined in the computational component of the grammar, and substantial evidence is provided against viewing the binding conditions as interpretive instructions applying at LF. (Move 1 Step 3)// I argue that the binding conditions’ effects can instead be determined by the core operations Agree and Merge, with previously stipulated constraints on binding, including c-command and locality, falling out naturally from this analysis. Moreover, the strategy of reducing the local binding conditions to more general mechanisms leads to an elimination of the binding theory as a component of Universal Grammar. (Move 2 Step 3B)//

Independently motivated modifications to the canonical implementation of the Minimalist model are shown to furnish the approach with sufficient flexibility to account for some long-problematic empirical phenomena. This includes a complete treatment of ‚picture-noun’ reflexivisation in English and an account of the syntactic environments giving rise to non-complementarity between anaphors and pronouns. (Move 4 Step 2)// Finally, proposals are made for extending the approach to accommodate structured crosslinguistic variation in binding domains and orientation phenomena, with particular focus on Dutch, Norwegian, and Icelandic pronominal systems. (Move 5 Step 1)//

BIOGRAPHY

Miss Yanatchapim Pasavoravate is a native of Bangkok. She obtained her Bachelor's Degree (first degree honor) in Spanish from Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University in 2003. After that, she completed her Master's Degree in English, majoring in English Literature, from Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University. She has experience working as a teacher of English to children, teenagers and adults. She has also been working as a special lecturer at Department of English, Faculty of Arts, Chulalongkorn University before completing her Ph. D. in English as an International Language in academic year 2011. Her areas of interest include English literature, discourse analysis, genre analysis, contrastive analysis, and intercultural communication.