

The copyright © of this thesis belongs to its rightful author and/or other copyright owner. Copies can be accessed and downloaded for non-commercial or learning purposes without any charge and permission. The thesis cannot be reproduced or quoted as a whole without the permission from its rightful owner. No alteration or changes in format is allowed without permission from its rightful owner.



**AUTHORIAL SELF-REPRESENTATION IN ENGLISH
RESEARCH ARTICLES WRITTEN BY NATIVE ENGLISH AND
THAI WRITERS**



DARUNEE YOTIMART

UUM
Universiti Utara Malaysia

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
UNIVERSITI UTARA MALAYSIA
2018**



Awang Had Salleh
Graduate School
of Arts And Sciences

Universiti Utara Malaysia

PERAKUAN KERJA TESIS / DISERTASI
(Certification of thesis / dissertation)

Kami, yang bertandatangan, memperakukan bahawa
(We, the undersigned, certify that)

DARUNEE YOTIMART

calon untuk Ijazah
(candidate for the degree of)

PhD

telah mengemukakan tesis / disertasi yang bertajuk:
(has presented his/her thesis / dissertation of the following title):

**"AUTHORIAL SELF-REPRESENTATION IN ENGLISH RESEARCH ARTICLES WRITTEN BY NATIVE
ENGLISH AND THAI WRITERS"**

seperti yang tercatat di muka surat tajuk dan kulit tesis / disertasi.
(as it appears on the title page and front cover of the thesis / dissertation).

Bahawa tesis/disertasi tersebut boleh diterima dari segi bentuk serta kandungan dan meliputi bidang ilmu dengan memuaskan, sebagaimana yang ditunjukkan oleh calon dalam ujian lisan yang diadakan pada : **04 Januari 2018.**

*That the said thesis/dissertation is acceptable in form and content and displays a satisfactory knowledge of the field of study as demonstrated by the candidate through an oral examination held on:
January 04, 2018.*

Pengerusi Viva:
(Chairman for VIVA)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ahmad Affendi Shabdin

Tandatangan
(Signature)

Pemeriksa Luar:
(External Examiner)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ummul Khair Ahmad

Tandatangan
(Signature)

Pemeriksa Dalam:
(Internal Examiner)

Dr. Hariharan N Krishnasamy

Tandatangan
(Signature)

Nama Penyelia/Penyelia-penyelia:
(Name of Supervisor/Supervisors)

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Noor Hashima Abd Aziz

Tandatangan
(Signature)

Tarikh:

(Date) **January 04, 2018**

Permission to Use

In presenting this thesis in fulfilment of the requirements for a postgraduate degree from Universiti Utara Malaysia, I agree that the Universiti Library may make it freely available for inspection. I further agree that permission for the copying of this thesis in any manner, in whole or in part, for scholarly purpose may be granted by my supervisor or, in her absence, by the Dean of Awang Had Salleh Graduate School of Arts and Sciences. It is understood that any copying or publication or use of this thesis or parts thereof for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission. It is also understood that due recognition shall be given to me and to Universiti Utara Malaysia for any scholarly use which may be made of any material from my thesis.

Requests for permission to copy or to make other use of materials in this thesis, in whole or in part, should be addressed to:



Dean of Awang Had Salleh Graduate School of Arts and Sciences
UUM College of Arts and Sciences
Universiti Utara Malaysia
06010 UUM Sintok

Abstrak

Penulis artikel penyelidikan perlu menunjukkan pendirian (cerminan diri) semasa membina hujah mereka. Walau bagaimanapun, penulis bukan penutur jati bahasa Inggeris didapati menghadapi masalah ini. Oleh itu, kajian ini dijalankan dengan objektif berikut, iaitu: (a) mengenal pasti taburan kekerapan ciri linguistik yang menunjukkan pendirian yang digunakan oleh penutur jati bahasa Inggeris dan penulis Thai merentasi beberapa bahagian retorik dalam artikel penyelidikan mereka; (b) menceritakan cara penutur jati bahasa Inggeris dan penulis Thai menunjukkan pendirian mereka dalam artikel penyelidikan merentasi beberapa bahagian retorik, dan (c) meneroka isu dan cabaran yang mungkin dihadapi oleh penutur jati bahasa Inggeris dan penulis Thai daripada segi perwakilan diri dan penerbitan pada peringkat antarabangsa. Data diperoleh daripada korpus 60 artikel penyelidikan (RAs) dalam bidang Applied Linguistics (AL) yang ditulis oleh penutur jati bahasa Inggeris dan penulis Thai, dan menemu bual lapan orang pensyarah universiti dalam bidang AL yang bekerja di Thailand. Data tersebut telah dianalisis menggunakan analisis kekerapan, analisis kata kunci, analisis tekstual dan analisis tematik. Model interaksi Hyland digunakan sebagai panduan analisis. Dapatan kajian menunjukkan bahawa penutur jati bahasa Inggeris secara jelas menunjukkan perwakilan diri manakala penulis Thai secara terselindung menggunakan ciri linguistik pendirian. Kekurangan penggunaan ekspresi dalam menunjukkan perwakilan diri dalam kalangan penulis Thai sebahagian besarnya disebabkan kurang pendedahan kepada amalan retorik dan keperluan penulisan Anglophone serta defisit linguistik. Kajian ini mempunyai implikasi pengajaran apabila satu contoh garis panduan untuk menambah baik pengajaran kursus penulisan dalam bahasa Inggeris peringkat tinggi di Thailand diberikan. Selain itu, usaha ini juga bertujuan meningkatkan kesedaran akan pentingnya ekspresi perwakilan diri apabila menulis RAs untuk penerbitan antarabangsa.

Kata kunci: Perwakilan diri penulis, Artikel penyelidikan, Penulis Inggeris, Penulis Thai, Penerbitan antarabangsa

Abstract

Research article writers need to express their stance (self-representation) in order to build their arguments. However, non-native English writers have been found to be facing this difficulty. Therefore, this study was conducted with the following objectives: (a) to identify the frequency distributions of stance linguistic features used by the native English and Thai writers across different rhetorical sections of research articles; (b) to describe how the native English and Thai writers express their stance in their research articles across different rhetorical sections of research articles; and (c) to discover the issues and challenges that might be faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication. The data were collected from a corpus of 60 research articles (RAs) in Applied Linguistics (AL), written by the native English and Thai writers and from interviewing eight university lecturers in AL working in Thailand. The data were analyzed using frequency analysis, keyword analysis, textual analysis and thematic analysis. Hyland's model of interaction was used as a frame of analysis. The findings show that the native English writers were overt when promoting their authorial self-representation while the Thai writers were covert in the use of stance linguistic features. The lack of self-representational expressions among the Thai writers was largely due to the lack of exposure to the Anglophone rhetorical practices and writing requirements as well as linguistic deficits. This study has pedagogical implication whereby a sample of guidelines for improving the teaching of English writing courses at advanced level in Thailand was developed. Another implication of this study is the effort in raising awareness of the importance of authorial self-representation expressions in writing RAs for international publication.

Keywords: Authorial self-representation, Research articles, Native English writers, Thai writers, International publication

Acknowledgement

The completion of this research would not have been possible without the assistance and support of a number of people. I would like to take this opportunity to thank those people who have greatly contributed from the inception to the final stages of this study. I will mention some who have played a substantial role in making this work come out into light.

First and foremost, I would like to extend my sincere gratitude and appreciation to my supervisor, Associate Professor Dr. Noor Hashima Abd. Aziz, whose knowledge has been a constant source of inspiration for me. This research work could not have been achieved without her constant guidance and support.

I also would like to thank my family, in particular my parents and my husband, who provided continuous encouragement and patience over the period of my study. Special thanks must go to all my close friends at Universiti Utara Malaysia who provided unceasing support from the inception to the completion of my study. Without their support, I could not have overcome many challenges throughout my study.

Last but far from least, I would like to express my gratitude for UUM Postgraduate Scholarship Scheme (PGS) which helps me overcome financial difficulties to achieve this dream.

Table of Contents

Permission to Use.....	iii
Abstrak	iv
Abstract	v
Acknowledgement.....	vi
Table of Contents	vii
List of Tables.....	x
List of Figures	xi
List of Abbreviations.....	xii
CHAPTER ONE INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Background of the Study	1
1.2 The Teaching of English in Thailand	7
1.3 Statement of the Problem.....	10
1.4 Objectives of the Study.....	15
1.5 Research Questions.....	16
1.6 Significance of the Study.....	16
1.7 The Scope of the Study.....	17
1.8 Definition of Terms	17
1.9 Summary.....	21
1.10 Organization of the Thesis.....	22
CHAPTER TWO LITERATURE REVIEW	24
2.1 The Semiotics of Identity and Self-representation in Writing.....	25
2.2 Issues Surrounding Identity in Academic Writing	31
2.3 The Contextual Factors Influencing Expressions of Self-Representation	33
2.3.1 Self-Representation across Different Rhetorical Sections of RAs	34
2.3.2 Self-Representation across Writers' Cultural Backgrounds.....	38
2.3.3 Self-Representation in Thai Writings.....	52
2.4 The Linguistic Realizations of Authorial Stance	57
2.4.1 Hyland's Model of Interaction.....	57
2.4.2 Pho's Model of Authorial Stance.....	58
2.5 Theoretical Framework of the Present Study	62
2.5.1 Contrastive Rhetoric (CR).....	62
2.5.2 Social Constructionist Theory	65

2.5.3 Hyland's Framework of Authorial Stance.....	67
2.6 Summary.....	70
CHAPTER THREE METHODOLOGY	71
3.1 Research Design	71
3.2 Corpus Description	77
3.2.1 Corpus Gathering Method	78
3.2.2 Corpus Collection.....	79
3.3 Corpus Analysis.....	82
3.3.1 Corpus Preparation	83
3.3.2 Keyword Analysis	84
3.3.3 Text Analysis.....	92
3.4 Informants.....	94
3.4.1 Description of Informants	95
3.4.2 Interviews	96
3.4.3 Ethical and Legal Considerations.....	100
3.5 Pilot Study.....	101
3.5.1 Main Findings of Pilot Study	102
3.5.2 Justifications for Further Study	105
3.6 Summary.....	106
CHAPTER FOUR FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION	107
4.1 Introduction.....	107
4.2 Frequency Distribution of Stance Linguistic Features	108
4.2.1 Stance Linguistic Features in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Sections.....	110
4.3 Stance Expression by Native English Writers and Thai Writers	113
4.3.1 First Person Pronouns in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Sections.....	114
4.3.2 Hedges in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Sections	120
4.3.3 Boosters in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Sections	129
4.3.4 Attitude Expressions in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Sections.....	135

4.4 Self-representation Expressions and Challenges for International Publication	139
4.4.1 Linguistics Disadvantage as Barriers to Writing Professionally	140
4.4.2 Influence of Rhetorical Tradition in L2 Writing Internationally.....	145
4.5 Discussion.....	154
4.6 Summary.....	157
CHAPTER FIVE CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND	
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH.....	159
5.1 Introduction.....	159
5.2 Summary of Findings.....	159
5.3 Conclusions of the Study	163
5.4 Implications of the Study	165
5.4.1 Implications for the academic writing instructors	165
5.4.2 Implications for research article writers	167
5.5 Limitations of the Study	168
5.6 Recommendations for Future Research	169
REFERENCES.....	171
Appendix A Linguistic Realization of Authorial Stance	181
Appendix B Interview questions.....	185
Appendix C Samples of Interview Scripts	186
Appendix D Sample Forms of Interview	205
Appendix E List of Bibliographic Information of Articles	210
Appendix F The Keywords List.....	216

List of Tables

Table 3.1	Description of Sub-corpora of Native English Writers.....	80
Table 3.2	Description of Sub-corpora of Thai Writers.....	82
Table 3.3	Summary of Data Collection and Analysis Method.....	94
Table 3.4	Profile of the Informants.....	96
Table 3.5	Frequency of Seven Features of Stance Markers in the Native English and Thai Corpus.....	102
Table 3.6	Frequency of Seven Features of Stance Markers in Various Sections of RAs.....	105
Table 4.1	Frequency of the Four Stance Linguistic Features in the Native English and Thai Corpus.....	109
Table 4.2	Normed Frequency of Stance Linguistic Features in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Section.....	110
Table 4.3	Linguistics Disadvantage as Barriers to Writing Professionally.....	140
Table 4.4	Influence of Rhetorical Tradition in L2 Writing Internationally?.....	145



List of Figures

Figure 1.1: A map of Thailand.....	8
Figure 2.1: Discourse as text, interaction and context.....	29
Figure 2.2: Hyland's model of stance and engagement	58
Figure 3.1: The Keyword List tool screen.....	90
Figure 3.2: Keyword List tool preference menu.....	90
Figure 3.3: Keyword list result.....	91
Figure 3.4: Concordance tool.....	92



List of Abbreviations

AL	Applied Linguistics
CARS	Create A Research Space
CR	Contrastive Rhetoric
EAP	English for Academic Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ESL	English as a Second Language
I-M-R-D/C	Introduction- Method- Result- Discussion/Conclusion Sections of Research Articles
RA	Research Article
SFL	Systemic Functional Linguistics
TCI	Thai-Journal Citation Index Centre



CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

English is globally used in professional and academic domains, particularly in scholarly work and higher education. It is becoming a means to extend knowledge through research articles (RAs) from studies conducted by researchers around the world (Khamkhien, 2014). Since universities worldwide are striving to become internationally visible in order to be placed in global ranking, they put the pressure on the academicians to publish their RAs in English. Hyland (2012) suggests that to be accepted in the global ranking, academicians need to have indexed publications in high impact English-medium journals. This requirement has caused a problem to non-native English writers who feel disadvantaged in the academic publication compared to native English writers. This issue has contributed to a critical study on culture-specific practices in the academic genre, and has caused writers to be aware of the different scholarly culture-specific rhetorical choices to gain acceptance at the international level.

In an attempt to become a successful writer, learning how to express authorial identity in academic writing is important for both native and non-native writers. In academic writing, writers need to take linguistic, rhetorical, social and cultural elements into consideration. According to Hyland (2015), there has been an increase in exploring how people are able to use genre options to construct their own space and express a persona (identity) they feel comfortable with. The concept of identity has been researched in various disciplines in Humanities. Among the issues related to identity,

the nature of identity, specifically the connection between identity and academic genre or how identity can be revealed through writing has received a lot of attention. The meanings conveyed through language include not only contents or subject matters but also interpersonal meanings. According to Ivanic (1998), researchers from various disciplines define the term 'identity' differently, such as 'self', 'person', 'role', 'ethos', 'persona', 'position', 'positioning', 'subject positioning', 'subject', and 'subjectivity'. In general, identity refers to an individual's sense of self. However, Ivanic (1998) explains that an individual's sense of self suggests a rather static, 'singular self' which tends to relinquish the notions of multiplicity, the consideration of context, and change over time. Therefore, Ivanic (1998, 2006) proposes that identity is an on-going, continuous process of creation of identity through any forms of social action. In the same vein, Hall (2000), a social constructionist thinker, state that one should consider identity as a process (identification) rather than an attribute or a series of attributes, and that "focusing on process allows for a consideration of the concrete ways in which people will assume identities, attribute to each other the membership of various categories, or resist such attributions" (as cited in De Fina, 2011, p.267). Similarly, Hyland (2012, 2015) views identity as partly involving identification, that is, identifying ourselves as part of a particular group by addressing ourselves with its discourses, genres and conformity (or proximity). Cameron (2001) also views agreeing, arguing, comparing, negotiating and cooperating as central to identity construction. Therefore, identities can be seen as a social construct or a product of social relation.

The relationship between language and identity or how identity can be revealed through language has drawn tremendous attention from researchers such as Hyland

(2015) and Ivanic (1998). When we interact with different people in different communities, our identities are built through discourse related to situation, relationships, and the role taking while we are interacting with others in everyday life. Among social processes, interaction is considered by many as the most important locus for the production of identities (De Fina, 2011). People acquire most of their knowledge about life and society through many symbols such as language and then share them in interactions with others in order to negotiate and reveal identities. Therefore "if interaction is ubiquitous and central to the enactment and negotiation of identity, so is the language" (De Fina, 2011, p. 267). Likewise, Ivanic (1998) views the relationship between language, learning and identity as an ongoing process of identification. Ivanic (2006) also reinforces the point that language and other semiotic means are the resources a person draws on in order to create their affiliations, and align with others or whom they want to identify. The use of language and other semiotic resources can make other people recognize someone as 'belonging'. Therefore, according to Ivanic's view, language is a means of identification, or a mark of identification.

In terms of identity in relation to writing, Ivanic (1998, p.32) makes one overarching argument, "writing is an act of identity in which people align themselves with socio-culturally shaped possibilities for self-hood, playing their part in reproducing or challenging dominant practices and discourses, and the value, belief, and interests which they embody." In the same vein, Hyland (2012) argues that writing and speaking are acts of identity based on the idea that academic writing is not only the ideational content, but also about self-representation, that is, how we represent ourselves to others in our disciplines. Hyland (2012) explains that "Writing inscribes particular versions

of ourselves at the same time as we present our version of reality using available discourses to both position ourselves to others and talk about the world" (p.17). Ivanic and Camps (2001) also point out that when people write, they draw on the repertoire of voices encountered through their experiences of partaking in genres and discourses and integrate them for the purposes of the writing task. This process is socially interpersonal interplay while the writers themselves encounter with other people, other minds, and other spoken and written texts.

In terms of the connection between identity and academic genre, Hyland (2005b) points out that effective academic writing hinges on the interpersonal intrusion of a writer in the text. Hunston (1994) also highlights that academic research article is not as impersonal and factual as it is generally thought. Many previous research (Kuhi, Tofigh & Babaie, 2013; Lin, 2013; Rahimivand & Kuhi, 2014) show that research article writing is not entirely lack of authorial self-representation or authorial identity. Therefore, knowledge about the strategic use of authorial identity is important to journal article writers, for example, how to highlight their personal contributions to the knowledge field and how to claim solidarity with the target readers in their discipline. To this end, Hyland (2009) suggests that writers must also seek to create a credible representation of themselves and their work by establishing solidarity with readers and evaluating their material in an appropriate way. Hence, to get one's work to be published in English journal articles, it is crucial for scholars to be skilled at conventions of writing in order to achieve credibility in their discourse community (Paltridge, 1993).

Establishing writers' identity is found to be difficult for non-native English writers as mentioned in several studies (Cadman, 1997; Flowerdew, 2001; Fox, 1994; Prince, 2000) which highlight the difficulties faced by non-native writers to bring their voice from their first language setting to the second or foreign language writing context. Ivanic (1998) points out that writers' authorial identity is reflected through several factors which comprise the social and cultural background of the writer, the epistemological and learning tradition he/she is taking part in, as well as the rhetorical and discourse conventions. She discovers that people experience identity problem because of the contradiction between the social contexts which have created their identities in the past and the new social context.

In Asian context, based on the in-depth interviews with 11 journal editors, Flowerdew (2001) reports that the main problem faced by East Asian writers, especially Thai writers, is the deference to authority in their writing. This generated more research into English-medium written discourse to explore the extent to which L2 writers employ the prevailing rhetorical convention to persuade their readers and make the relevant, valid and novel claims.

Hyland (2005a) explains that the field which actively uses the notion of culture to explain differences in written texts and writing practices is Contrastive Rhetoric (CR). In fact, how cultural proclivities have been proven to influence the rhetorical shape of academic writings across cultures were explored in other studies under the enterprise of Contrastive Rhetoric, such as Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993), Hinds (1987, 1990) and Mauranen (1993). The ground breaking research on this area is Crismore et.al (1993, as cited in Connor, 1996) which analyzed persuasive student

writing of Finnish and American college student writers through the use of metadiscoursal strategies, which signal the writer's own presence, built on the Vande Kopple's classification as indicators of metadiscoursal strategies in English. The results of the study showed the differences explained by cultural reasons. Crismore and associates speculate that Finns may use more hedges and be more cautious about expressing their true feeling due to their long history in living under the authority of two influential countries, Sweden and Russia. The higher percentage of certainty markers used by the U.S. students may reflect the view in the United States that certainty of expression is a mark of strength, whereas hedging is a symbol of weakness.

However, Connor (2003) suggests that although contrastive rhetoric has often defined national cultures in the received view, researchers in contrastive rhetoric have not interpreted differences in written communication as a consequence of the first language or the national culture. In other words, the differences in writing were more likely to be attributed to numerous factors including L1 national culture, L1 educational background, disciplinary norms, genre features, and incompatible expectations between readers and writers. Hyland (2005a) points out that cultural factors can form our background understandings and knowledge, and tend to trigger a great effect on the ways we organize what we write, and our communication in different contexts, but clearly any number of actors can influence writing and cultural preference is just one of these. Hyland (2005a) asserts that it is important that we do not ignore research which might help us understand the ways individuals write in a second language. Therefore, it is interesting to explore the contextual factor of culture which influences writers' self-representation or authorial identity in writing.

1.2 The Teaching of English in Thailand

Thailand is a country that has its own language, both spoken and written, in which English is used for intercultural communication (Kachru, 1985). Figure 1.1 shows a map of Thailand. Even though it has several regional dialects, the official language and language of everyday life is Thai. English was introduced into Thai education in the seventeenth century. Since then, it has developed in schools and has been taught both as a subject and a foreign language. It is a required subject in entrance examinations at different educational levels ranging from primary to tertiary levels. Thus, English plays a significant role in Thai education. Many Thai students start learning English in school in grade 1 continuing up to grade 12 and further at the tertiary level. Since Thai people use their first language officially and daily, so students have little time to use English out of class. In class, there is also inadequate time and exposure to the language. Grades 1-3 students study English for only one hour a week; grades 4-6 two hours a week; grades 7-9 three hours a week; and grades 10-12 two hours a week plus extra hours of electives based on their field of study (Arts or Science). English is still a required subject in the high education level. Undergraduate students are required to take 12 credits or 4 subjects of English prior to the completion of the study. The first two subjects are foundation courses. The other two are English for Specific Purposes which are accordingly matched with students' major of the students e.g. English for Information Technology, English for Journalist, etc. The time of teaching can be 3-4 hours a week, ranging from 50-70 minutes depending on the individual university (Darasawang, 2007). Freshman and sophomore students who are not English majors or minors are required to study English for only 3-6 hours a week, and English is optional in their third and fourth years. These limited hours of English

instruction make it difficult for students to improve their competency in English (Sermsoongswad & Tantipongsanuruk, 2013).



Figure 1.1. A map of Thailand

Improving students' English proficiency is an aspiration which is stated in the current Thai Education Act (Office of the National Education Commission, 2003). However, Thai people have been found to be restricted in their linguistic capabilities in English. The results of the National Education Development from 2009 to 2016 showed that Thailand was successful in several aspects, but still needs to improve in some aspects such as the development of personnel in the field of English (Office of the Education Council, 2016). This perception of the low level of English ability in Thailand is also borne out to some extent by EF English Proficiency Index, the world's largest ranking of countries by English skills, where Thailand has been ranked 53rd out of 80 countries in the year 2017 as a country with low proficiency in English skills (EF Education First, 2018, January 11). Wiriyaajittra (2008, cited in Srinon, 2011) has stated that

Thailand is in a critical situation because many of its English language learners have acquired only low levels of linguistic skills. Watkhadarm (2005) points out that the possible reason for linguistic deficits among Thais is that they do not see the need to be good at English as same as colonized countries do, and that it has considered as the language of outsiders.

Although Thai students have difficulty in English writing, the focus now is on speaking and listening skills (Kongpetch, 2006). In terms of the approach in teaching writing, the English teachers who are incompetent in speaking and writing can merely employ the means of reading, grammar and translation without writing or interactive speaking activities. They prefer to use Thai as a medium of instruction. However, little effort is allocated to teach writing skills to school pupils (Glass, 2008). At tertiary level, Dueraman (2015) explains that only students in English major will gain the chance to master English writing in Thailand. However, very few people choose to study English as their major. As a result, there are insufficient graduates in Thailand who are good at English writing.

With respect to the literacy standards of Thai university students, studies (Tuppoom, 2005; Wongsothorn, 2003) indicate that they generally exhibit low levels of skill in writing, especially in argumentative essays. In particular, students have a range of problems and errors associated with the use of tenses, determiners, verb forms, punctuation and so on, which are part of grammatical accuracy. Moreover, Pawapatcharandom (2007) found that for Thai undergraduate students in Thai international university programmes, the most serious problem in English was writing. In the same vein, the study conducted by Iamla-Ong (2013) on language learning

problems at university level also found the Thai students to be having “writing skill problems.” Pawapatcharaudom (2007) classified Thai students writing problems into four main issues: (1) unable to write an essay within limited time; (2) unable to write an academic paper in English; (3) unable to perfectly use grammar rules in writing any papers and; (4) unable to develop a suitable structure for the content.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Establishing writers' identity is found to be difficult for non-native English writers as mentioned in several studies (Cadman, 1997; Flowerdew, 2001; Fox, 1994; Prince, 2000) which highlight that it is complicated for non-native writers to bring their voice from their first language setting to the second or foreign language writing context. For example, Fox (1994), a writing instructor, had interviewed a number of foreign students in the University of Michigan concerning the problems related to academic writing and found that the main problem was bringing their 'voice' from their first language setting to the second language writing situation. Cadman (1997) found similar finding with one Chinese student in relation to the issue of not bringing one's voice from the first language into English language. Prince (2000) also found that one of her Polish students insisted to maintain her personal style of writing, but in the end she gave up in order to follow the accepted convention of thesis writing in English.

Looking at the growing number of scholars whose first language (L1) is not English trying to seek academic recognition at international level through publishing in English-medium journals, Flowerdew (2001) interviewed editors from 12 international journals in English language teaching and found non-native English writers to be less capable than their native English peers in using the hedges and downtoners, the

structure of the introduction/literature review section, the discussion/conclusion sections of the RA, and the lack of authorial identity in their RAs. Based on the interviews with the international journal editors, it was discovered that the absence of authorial identity, that is, the lack of voice or authority in saying authors are part of their discourse community, was the main problem of East Asian writers (Flowerdew, 2001). Flowerdew (2001) further points out that the lack of authorial voice may be a characteristic of the novice writers in general and East Asian writers in particular. Through the interviews with the Asian editors, the lack of authorial voice of East Asian writers, especially Thai writers, was discovered. Flowerdew's research has motivated the researcher who is a Thai to seek an explanation on the issue of establishing identity in academic writing by Thai writers. The researcher intends to look at this issue from an insider's perspective.

The challenge of establishing writer's identity is compounded for L2 writers who are not fully in control of the grammatical nuances of the English's rhetorical and discourse-grammatical maneuverings. Problems are harder when L1 come from another rhetorical tradition that is totally different from English and that their L1 writing style interferes with the L2 (English) writing style. For example, Mauranen (1993) found that Anglo-American writers used more metatext than Finnish writers. In general, her study showed that the native English writers displayed more interest in guiding and orienting readers and in making their presence felt in the text than the Finnish writers when writing in English. She speculates that her results arise from different cultural preferences in the norms of politeness and rhetorical explicitness between Finns and Americans. The Americans give an impression of having a greater sense of audience than the Finns and seek to condition readers' interpretations by

explicitly guiding them. While Finnish rhetorical strategies can be perceived as polite and persuasive in Finnish, when transferred into English they may result in not only unintentionally inefficient rhetoric, but also negative evaluations of the writer.

In addition, one of the most extensive studies of authorial self-representation is Hinkel (2002) who examines the frequencies and uses of 68 linguistic and rhetorical features in timed essays written in English by 1,457 undergraduates from six language groups (Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, Indonesian, and Arabic) and compared them with those by native English speakers. The result shows that self-mentions, boosters, and engagement markers were generally far more frequent in the non-native English speakers' essays, while hedges were less frequent. Hinkel believes that essays written by speakers of Japanese, Korean and Chinese often appear uncertain, possibly because of their writing traditions. He argues that the rhetorical traditions based on Confucian, Taoist, and Buddhist differ from those in the Anglo American writing tradition which is influenced by Aristotelian thought which conveys direct and justifiable manner.

Many studies have been done on linguistic realization of writer's identity in academic genres (research reports, research proposal, undergraduate theses, etc.) in the last two decades (Hyland, 2001b, 2002a, 2002b; Ivanic, 1998; Ivanic & Camp, 2001; Kuhi et al., 2013; Lin, 2013; Pho, 2013). Previous studies focus on the various ways authors express their identity in academic genres in cross-culture, namely, between native English (expert uses) and Chinese (Hyland, 2002a; 2002b; 2012), native English and Japanese (McCrostie, 2008), and native English and Iranian (Kuhi et al., 2013) which, in general, reveal the variation in terms of level of authorial identity across cultures and raise an awareness of how L2 writers, compared to L1 counterparts, bring their

voice into their academic writing in order to form a reliable self-representation and their work and gain control over the appropriate level of authority in a text.

Additionally, Hyland (2002a, 2002b) found the significant underuse of self-mentions by Hong Kong students, contrasting to native English writers who use more self-mentions to make argument and claim. Hyland concludes that the Hong Kong students were reluctant to promote individual self due to the cultural view of self which prescribes that what is presented as fact is inseparable from who says it, and this markedly contrasts with the Western convention that to be associated with what they have written, authors must intrude or indicate their own views (Hyland, 2012). The influence of culture on authorial identity of Chinese writers merits similar study to be carried out on Thai writers. Very few cross-cultural studies have been carried out on the expression of authorial self-representation by native English and Thai academicians and even limited number of studies on the use of authorial self-representation by native English and Thai writers in RAs of Applied Linguistics (AL). Since Jaroongkhongdach et. al (2012) reported that AL academics in Thailand faced a problem in getting their manuscripts published in international journals, AL was the choice of area to study in this study. Therefore, the present study attempts to examine authorial self-representation in RAs in AL written by native English and Thai writers.

Most previous studies have focused on the effect of Thai cultural background, particularly on the structural organizations (moves) in RAs written in Thai or English language such as by Jogthong (2001) and Kanoksilapatham (2007), who mark the differences in structure organization of RAs written in Thai language compared to that in English. These differences were attributed to the typical characteristics of Thai

culture that suppress the adoption of critique because showing perceived disrespect to, or expressing negative comments about, one's elders is not encouraged in the Thai society. Furthermore, other studies (Prasithrathsin, 2014a, 2015; Sukhanindr, 2008) are restricted to the focus of normalization and hedging used by Thai writers in RAs which are part of linguistic realization of authorial self-representation, thereby leaving a room for larger aspect of authorial self-representation in the context of Thai writers to be investigated in the present study. As there have been limited number of studies focusing on the impact of Thai culture on the self-representation of Thai writers compared to native English writers, the present study thus aims to explore the effect of not only Thai cultural background but also native English cultural background on the self-representation of writers writing English RAs. The need to compare Thai writers to native English writers helps shed light on the possible explanation of the lack of authorial self-representation is attributable to their national culture.

In terms of the methodological gap, although a large number of research have used the keyword analysis to compare word frequency across two corpora, such as Gardezi and Nesi (2009) and Hewings, Coffin, and North (2009), a limited number of studies on authorial self-representation have adopted the keyword analysis in comparing word frequency of authorial self-representation between the two corpora. Because it is this keyword list which is likely to be more useful in suggesting lexical items that could warrant further investigation, this study therefore uses the keyword analysis to secondarily support the findings from the frequency counts, meaning that this study not only provides a simple word list as a measure of frequency, but also a keyword list as a measure of saliency. A keyword analysis is employed in many sub-disciplines of AL, ranging from genre analyses in the purpose of generating a typical character of a

genre to critically-oriented studies in the purpose of finding text-specific ideological aspects. A keyword in this analysis is defined as a word that is unusually frequent in a corpus compared to the frequency of the same word in a different corpus (Baker 2006). It helps to guide the researcher to significant lexical differences between texts and to show frequencies in text which is likely to be captured by researcher intuition (Baker, 2006). As a result, using keyword analysis, this study can provide evidence to show how native English and Thai writers from AL demonstrate their self-representation across different rhetorical sections of RA genre (Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion/Conclusion).

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The following research objectives are addressed in this study:

- 1) To identify the frequency distributions of stance linguistic features as used by the native English and Thai writers across different rhetorical sections of research articles.
- 2) To describe how the native English and Thai writers express their stance in their research articles across different rhetorical sections of research articles.
- 3) To discover the issues and challenges that might be faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication.

1.5 Research Questions

The following research questions are addressed in this study:

- 1) What are the frequency distributions of stance linguistic features as used by the native English and Thai writers across different rhetorical sections of research articles?
- 2) How do the native English and Thai writers express their stance in their research articles across different rhetorical sections of research articles?
- 3) What are the issues and challenges faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication?

1.6 Significance of the Study

This study will not only enhance our knowledge of authorial self-representation in academic discourse, specifically in the genre of RAs, but also provide frequently used stance linguistic features as well as how and why they are used by AL writers. The significance of this study, therefore, can be drawn from two ways. First, it would contribute to the body of knowledge on authorial self-representation revealed by Thai writers writing English RAs. Previous native English-Thai contrastive studies of RA have focused on the features of the texts such as prototypical structure of move and hedges (Jogthong, 2001; Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Prasithrathsint, 2015; Sukhanindr, 2008). The findings of the study, therefore, would give a wider explanation of the use of stance linguistic features which reveal authorial self-representation in English RAs.

Second, this study provides pedagogical value to Thai teachers who teach academic writing to be aware of how to express authorship in ways that conforms to the expectations of international discourse community. In other words, it would help teachers to include linguistic realization of authorial self-representation in English RA writing. The practices in expressing self-representation in RA writing accepted by English-medium journals would be a useful guide for novice writers irrespective of whether they are Thai or nonnative English speakers.

1.7 The Scope of the Study

This study focuses on only stance linguistic features of authorial self-representation between native English and Thai writers. In addition, this study focuses on Applied Linguistics (AL) discipline.

1.8 Definition of Terms

Identity

Identity refers to who we are which is not a fixed and stable state but rather a process in which we present ourselves to others in light of all the factors involved in the interaction with others. As a result, identity is socially constructed (Ivanic, 2006). Ivanic (1998, p.11) explained that "the noun 'identity' sometimes seems too abstract for talking about specific people and their representations, so I often use the word 'self' for this purpose." Therefore, in the present research, the term 'identity' and 'self' share the same meaning.

Authorial self-representation

Authorial self-representation is how authors reveal their presence or their identities, which are revealed through linguistics features such as the stance markers (Lin, 2013). In this study, the following terms, that is, authorial voice, authorial identity, authorship, authorial presence, authorial stance, and authorial self-representation are shared meaning.

Stance

The two most frequently used terms to describe an authorial stance are *stance* and *evaluation*. Other terms that have also been used interchangeably in studies related to authorial stance include *voice*, *persona*, *metadiscourse*, *appraisal*, *writer identity*, *authorial voice*, or *authorial presence* (Pho, 2013). In other words, stance represents “the writer’s textual ‘voice,’ or community recognized personality, an attitudinal, writer-oriented function which concerns the ways writers present themselves and convey their judgments, opinions, and commitments” (Hyland, 2011, p. 197). This study uses the meaning of stance by Hyland (2011) which focuses on attitudinal aspect and embraces features which refer to how writers present themselves and convey their judgments, opinions, and commitments.

Research articles

A research article (henceforth RA) refers to be a written text, usually limited to a few thousand words, which reports on some investigations carried out by its author or authors. The RA will usually relate its findings to those of others, and may also examine issues of theory and/or methodology (Swales, 1990). In this study, RAs in Applied Linguistics (henceforth AL) with the four section headings of Introduction,

Methods, Results, and Discussion/Conclusions (I-M-R-D/C) were selected from peer-reviewed journals, so the RAs are considered 'journal articles.'

Rhetoric/Rhetorical

According to Hyland (2005a, p. 63), rhetoric is “the art of persuasion; it concerns arguments on matters about which there can be no formal proof.” A rhetorical pattern or a rhetorical characteristic refers to the discourse structure that organize the discourse (Richards, Platt & Platt, 1992). The scope of the present study focuses on exploring how writers from different cultural backgrounds represent themselves through different rhetorical purposes (or functions) in various sections (or segments) of RAs. In this study, rhetorical purposes are represented in four rhetorical sections of RAs: Introduction, Method, Results, Discussion/Conclusion (I-M-R-D/C).

Move

A 'move' refers to a textual section that conveys a specific communicative function which accounts for communicative purposes of the genre (Swales, 1990). Each move has its own rhetorical function consisting of sub-units of moves referred to as steps.

Move analysis

Move analysis is "a study of how language is used by the writer to form a meaningful unit by identifying its forms and functions in the discourse" (Amnuai, 2012, p. 31). Move and step analysis are important in identifying segment variation within sub-genres (Pillai, 2012).

Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse is defined as “the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community” (Hyland, 2005a, p.37). In fact, metadiscourse contributes to the rational, credible and affective appeals which characterize persuasive discourse.

Native speaker/writer

A native speaker/ writer refers to a person who speaks (write) a language as his/her first language and has not learned it as a foreign language (Hornby, 2010). Therefore, a native writer of English is a person who writes English as their first language. In the present study, first language (L1) is alternatively used to refer to native English speaker/writer, so is second language (L2) as a nonnative English speaker/writer.

Thai speaker/writer

A Thai speaker/ writer refers to a person who speaks (write) a Thai language as his/her first language and has not learned it as a foreign language.

Stance linguistic features

The present study uses the meaning of stance by Hyland (2011) which can be seen as an attitudinal aspect and embrace features which refer to the means writers present themselves and express their judgments, opinions, and commitments. Therefore, in this study stance linguistic features interchangeably refers to stance markers or lexical categories that can reveal the writers’ self-representation. In this study, stance

linguistic features are represented in four types of stance linguistic features: Self-mentions, Hedges, Boosters, and Attitude markers/Attitudinal stance words.

Contrastive Rhetoric (CR)

This study adopts the definition of Contrastive Rhetoric or CR by Hyland (2005a) in that “ CR seeks to build a research base to identify the fact that there are differences between languages in rhetorical preferences and metadiscourse is one of the most researched aspects of this enterprise” (p.115).

Culture

The present study uses the meaning of culture defined by Connor (1996, p.101) as “ a set of patterns and rules shared by a particular community.” Connor (1996) points out that the meaning was seen to be national culture. Therefore, in the present study, culture means national culture as a shared community construct and cultural model. The term culture-specific practice in L1/L2 writing shares the same meaning as cultural backgrounds or rhetorical tradition in L1/L2 writing.

1.9 Summary

Chapter one aims to provide introduction to the topic before approaching the other chapters. The background of the study and its rationale on which this study was founded have been provided. Special attention has been given to the needs of academicians to have indexed publication of high impact English-medium journals. The importance of authorial identity or self-representation in academic writing, especially RAs, has been discussed. The teaching of English in Thailand is presented as part of contextualizing the study. The statement of the problem, research

objectives, questions have been stated. This chapter concludes with the significance and scope of the study, definitions of the key terms and organization of the thesis.

1.10 Organization of the Thesis

The thesis of this research is divided into five major chapters. Chapter one provides the general background which is necessary to understand the rationale of the study. It discusses the challenges faced by non-native English writers in publishing their academic work in English-medium journals. The chapter reviews the identity's definition and its relation to language, writing, and academic writing especially in the research article genre. The key features of the contextual factors on self-representation in academic writing are highlighted. The teaching of English in Thailand is explained as part of the contextualizing the present study. This chapter also presents the statement of the problem, research objectives, and questions. It concludes with the significance and scope of the study, definitions of the key terms.

Chapter two reviews the literature related to the study. It attempts to explain the semiotics of identity and self-representation in writing from different perspectives, drawing on the frameworks of identity construction in discourse and language. It provides, in details, the theoretical and empirical studies that have examined self-representation based on different cultures and across different sections of RAs in different genres. The chapter also reviews the linguistic features which can reveal authorial self-representation. Chapter two concludes with a discussion of theoretical framework surrounding self-representation in academic writing.

Chapter three presents the methodology of the study which includes the research design, the corpus description, the corpus analysis, and informants. It includes information about the results of the pilot study. The chapter presents the main findings of pilot study and justifications for further studies. Chapter three concludes with a summary of the chapter.

Chapter four presents the findings and discussions of the study. The results are provided in line with the research questions number 1, 2, and 3. The findings derived from frequency analyses supported by keyword analysis of each stance marker in RAs written by the native English and Thai writers, text analyses of the extracts from the RAs and the thematic analysis of interviews were explained and discussed. Chapter four concludes with discussion segment of the findings meant for a broader perspective.

Chapter five focuses on the conclusion, implications which include specific recommendations and sample of pedagogical outlines, and recommendations for future research. The summary of findings and the limitations of the study are also included in this chapter.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents the semiotics of identity and self-representation mainly drawn from different scholars who stress the relationship between discourse and identity or how identity can be constructed through language and writing in order to realize the frames used traditionally by scholars to study identity and self-representation in writing. Afterwards, the factors involved in social nature of identity construction which are more likely to influence the self-representation in academic writing will be discussed along with the review of their related literatures. Accordingly with the research aims, among various contextual factors engaged in social nature of identity construction that are likely to have impact on self-representation of academic writers, the related studies that inform our understanding of the influence of the two contextual factors; writers' cultural backgrounds and the rhetorical purposes of different sections of RAs on writers' self-representation in the genre of RAs (or somehow other academic genres) will be reviewed in this chapter. The linguistic realization of authorial stance will be presented. Among the theoretical framework markedly reflecting the ways in which self-representation of speakers/writers reveal through their spoken/written language, Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) and Social Constructionist theories will be reviewed in this chapter. This theoretical framework helps us to understand the interplay of self-representation of writers in writing and interactions with the social context and culture.

2.1 The Semiotics of Identity and Self-representation in Writing

The notion of identity has long been of interest by researchers from various disciplines in humanities. Linguistic research on identity have become the focus, to a greater extent, within sociolinguistics, linguistic anthropology, discourse analysis, and social psychology (Bucholtz & Hall, 2005). De Fina (2011, p.265) states "definitions of identity are surprisingly hard to find and those that exist present a dazzling variety and diversity in terminology and foci." The term "identity" can be interchangeably used in various ways depending on disciplinary convention, such as self, person role, ethos, persona, position, subject position, and subjectivity (Ivanič, 1998).

Founded on Social Constructionist Theory, Ivanic (1998, 2006) argues that instead of defining the word "identity" as people's sense of who they are, she would rather use it to stand for the often multiple, sometimes contradictory identities which can coexist. According to Ivanic (1998, 2006), a person's identity is not existed independently, but is co-occurring with other aspects of social activities: relationships, learning, etc. In particular, identity is constructed in the context of social relations, that is, people's identities are in a continuous process, co-occurring with the ongoing social activity in which they are involving. There are other aspects of identity which are not considered as something belonging within the individual person but between persons and within social relations, for example, "identity" viewed by Hyland (2012) as an emergence of mutual engagement with others in communities of practice.

In similar line of meaning, Paltridge (2006) defines identity by relating it to the discourse. That is to say, an individual may have a number of identities, such as identity as a woman, an identity of a mother, etc. The ways in which people express

their identities are reflected by the way they use language and the way they interact with people. Identities are not natural, but created through the use of discourse as well as continuously constructed when people interact with each other, and "part of having a certain identity is that it is recognized by other people" (Paltridge, 2006, p.39). Lastly, drawing on the insights from numerous fields and theories, Bucholtz and Hall (2005, p.586) propose their own definition of identity: "identity is the social positioning of self and other," and argue that, in line with a wide range of cultural linguistic research, identity is a discursive construct, developing in interaction.

The conclusion of language as a social identity can be drawn from Ivanic's (1998) work which is centered around Social Constructionist theory. Her framework on identity and language recognizes the expression of identity as part of the interpersonal function of language. In the same vein, Fairclough's (1989) social view of language serves as a framework of language in relation to sociocultural context. Ivanic and Fairclough's views of language widen the lens on the issue of language in context. Their views help us realize the relationship between language and identity shaped by social and cultural context, contributing to the claim that writing is not on the whole something self-conveyed, but part of sociocultural context. Their frameworks pave the background of the study of identity in writing which is the focal point in this research. A brief overview of these frameworks is discussed next to help the reader gain insight into the relationship between language and identity.

According to Ivanic (1998), both terms "discourse" and "language" refer to language-in-its-social-context; in other words, discourse is a language analyzed with the consideration of the social context in which it occurs. She points out that our identities

are the product of our lives in different communities as well as the way we interact with different people in those communities. Our identities are built through discourse related to situations, relationships, and the role we take in engaging with others on a routine basis. Her argument is that the noun 'identity' is misleadingly static, whereby she sees the relationship between language, learning and identity as a continuous process of identification.

Ivanic (1998) further supports her argument that social identity is not just a part of interpersonal meaning but consists of a person's set of values, beliefs about reality, and a person's orientation of language use. Ivanic (2006) also explains more on this that a person draws upon language and other semiotic means in order to make their affiliations, and become like others. They are a means of identification. To learn the language and other ways of communicating which characterize that context, one as a newcomer can achieve this by becoming 'part of them' – becoming accepted as a member of that community. And it is by their use of language and other semiotic resources that other people recognize someone as 'belonging.'

Ivanic (1998) suggests four ways in thinking about writer's identity. First, the term *autobiographical self* emphasizes that identity is associated with writers' sense of their origins, where they are coming from, and that this identity they carry with them to writing is itself socially constructed and changeable following their life-experiences. The second meaning of writer identity is *discoursal self* which is constructed through the discourse characteristics of a text, which relates to values, beliefs and power relations in the social context in which they are written. Another meaning of *self as author* relates to the writer's voice or writer's position, opinions and beliefs. The last

meaning of *possibilities for self-hood in the sociocultural and institutional context* is concerned with “social” identity in the sense that they are not only part of particular individuals, but also is constrained by individual acts of writing in which people take on particular discursal identities. In conclusion, the three aspects of identity of an actual writer are altered based on one act of writing. A writer’s *autobiographical self* is changeable over time. A writer may form a quite different discursal self from one text to another, depending partly on autobiographical changes and partly on the different requirements and events when writing. However, the *possibilities for self-hood* changes much more slowly over time. The *autobiographical self* is perhaps similar to what people mean by “my identity” since this is unique to each individual, but it cannot be easily traced in his or her writing. The only obvious aspect of a writer’s identity in the writing is *discursal self*- conceivably unique to that particular piece of writing. However, none of these aspects of identity can be the unique characteristic of an individual writer because they are a recombination of *possibilities of self-hood* available in the wider social context in which they are writing. The first three aspects refer to the identity of actual writers, and the fourth refers to the prototypical possibilities for self-hood underlining the social and institutional contexts of writing.

Ivanic (1998) concludes that an approach to the teaching of writing should pay attention to all four meanings of writer identity and raise learners’ critical awareness of the nature of writer identity so as to help them gain better control over this essential aspect of writing. For example, a discussion of subject positioning would focus on socially available possibilities for *self-hood*, but also include attention to the writer’s sense of who s/he is and where s/he is coming from (*autobiographical self*), of being

positioned as relatively authoritative or lacking in authority, and of *discoursal self* which each individual writer is constructing in his or her writing.

Ivanic (1998) refers to the ways of how written language relates to social context by adapting Fairclough's (1989) diagrammatic framework of a social view of language to indicate how the text is socially produced. The diagram is shown in Figure 2.1.

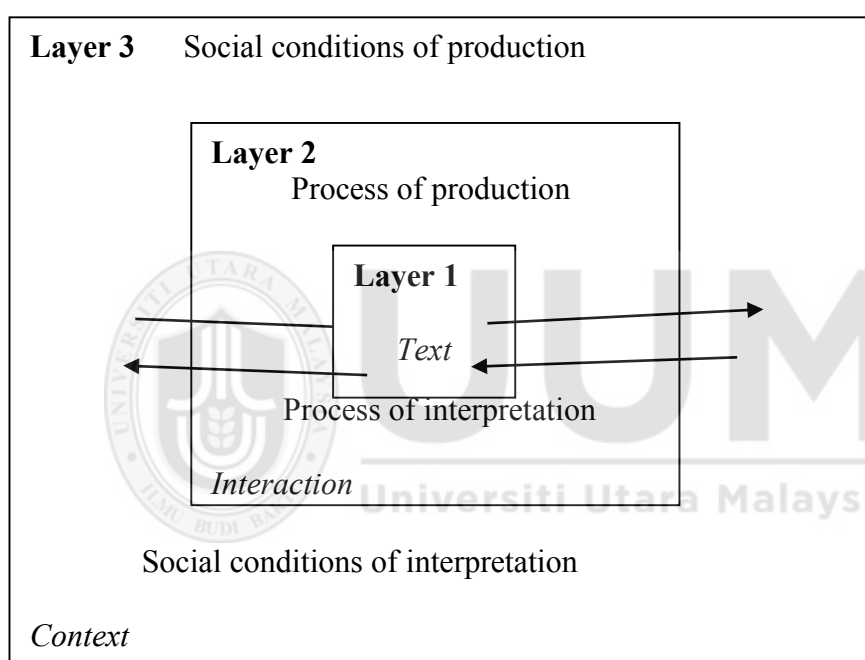


Figure 2.1. Discourse as text, interaction and context (Ivanic, 1998, p.41)

Figure 2.1 illustrates how a text (written or spoken) is inseparable from the production processes and interpretation which produce it. These processes are in turn inseparable from the local, institutional and socio-historical situation in which the participants are positioned. Fairclough (1992, as cited in Ivanic, 1998) says that “text” represents two types of content: “social reality” and “social relations and social identities.” The middle layer represents the processes of production and interpretation of texts. This layer connects the wider social context to the words on the page through the head of

the writer, leading to the particular identities written in the text. The third layer is social context which shapes discourse production, discourse interpretation and the characteristics of the text itself. The diagram relates social construction to social interaction. Fairclough found the construction of identity in the changeable cultural and institutional context. Ivanic (1998) indicates that Fairclough reveals how language is socially constructed and probably the most powerful of all semiotic media for the social construction of reality. As a result, recognizing identity is socially constructed departs individuals from full responsibility for the versions of self-conveyed in the writing which are part of the culture from which they are deriving them (Ivanic and Camps, 2001).

Generally, academic writing has been the object of study for various groups of researchers. As previously discussed, the relationship of Fairclough's social context and how the language or discourse is constructed also map on Ivanic's (1998) view of writing in relation to identity, which serves as the major framework of identity in the present study. Ivanic's overarching argument, "writing is an act of identity in which people align themselves with socio-culturally shaped possibilities for self-hood, playing their part in reproducing or challenging dominant practices and discourses, and the value, belief, and interests which they embody" (1998, p. 32) is in parallel with that of Hyland (2012) who sees writing (and speaking) is an act of identity.

Hyland (2012) sees academic writing not only conveying an ideational content, but also conveying the self-representation due to the fact that a competent academic writer constructs the identity by producing socially-processed dialog to meet the expectations of a new community or readers. That is why academic writing is not thought as an

objective, or impersonal form of writing, rather it is considered as an effort of writers targeting to project some interaction with their readers (Hyland, 2005b). In other words, generating good academic writing needs not only writers' linguistic ability but also their awareness of rhetorical elements accepted by readers. Hence, the notion of discourse communities is particularly relevant to the study of writer identity, as cited in Ivanic (1998, p. 83) that "discourse communities are the social element in the expression of the social construction of identity, that is, a person's identity is constructed by their membership of, their identification with, the values and practices of one or more communities."

In addition, Ivanic and Camps (2001) also argue that the lexical, syntactic, organizational and even the material aspects of writing construct identity, so do the phonetic and prosodic aspects of speech. Therefore, writing always conveys a representation of the self of the writer, as stated by Ivanic & Camps (2001) that "the concept of 'self-representation' is not unique to writing: it is an integral element of all human activity" (p.4). Therefore, for the present study, the analysis of authorial identity in written language is the same as that of authorial self-representation.

2.2 Issues Surrounding Identity in Academic Writing

The requirements and expectations of academic publishing are often problematic for writers when they need to conform to them in order for their work to be accepted. To be better able to imagine how their readers respond to their texts and envision what their language choices say about themselves are necessary for academic writers who, however, are not always clear about the connotation of the language options they have and alternative choices available in their disciplines in expressing themselves. As a

result, many writers just conform to the conventions when writing. Others, however, want to construct a distinctive identity and establish personal 'voice' (Casanave & Vandrick, 2003, as cited in Hyland, 2012).

Regarding what passes acceptable written English, Canagarajah (2002) critiques that contrastive rhetoric stereotypes a linguistic and cultural determinism and the ideology of Anglo-American academia with genre studies. Canagarajah contends that non-native writers can capitalize their own linguistic and cultural experiences to be valuable resources in academic writing. He encourages multilingual writers to be confident in leveraging their own voice to negotiate their identity, role, and subjectivity in academic discourse. He also suggests that while globalization questions the merits of specific cultural influences and stresses that there are wide variations in what passes for acceptable written English, “teachers must keep in mind that no one needs to be held hostage by language and culture: students can be taught to negotiate conflicting rhetorical structures to their advantages” (2002, p. 68).

Hunston (1994) states that the academic research article is not as detached and factual as it is originally perceived. The persuasion conveyed throughout the whole article is the goal of RA: in the Introduction section, the writer persuades the reader that the research conducted is needed and meaningful; in the Methods section, the writer persuades the reader that the research is effective; in the Result section, the writer persuades the reader that the statistical means is suitable and constructive; in the Discussion section, the writer convinces the reader that the results justifiable and fit in other examples of research, resulting in a consistent body of knowledge (Hunston,

1994). Therefore, writers not only offer knowledge but also express their evaluation or self-representation in an article.

The previous discussions indicate that academic writing is not totally absence of authorial self-representation (Hunston, 1994; Hyland, 2012), but it is essential that knowledge about the strategic use of authorial identity is worthwhile for journal article writers, how to highlight their personal contributions to their field and how to construct commonality with readers and their discourse community. Hyland (2009) affirms that writers must also seek to present themselves and their works credibly by building solidarity with readers, evaluating their material and realizing alternative views appropriately. Hence, it is of interest to the present researcher to explore the contextual factors influencing the authorial self-representation and examine writing for publication as an academic social context.

The social aspect under analysis is the interaction of the RA writers with the academic community and their written construction of this relation and their membership in that particular social group or disciplines. These activities interrelate the self-representation which has been taken into account prevalently by previous research on identity. Some contextual factors constraining the self-representation in writing are discussed in the following sections since they interrelate theoretical constructs on self-representation under contrastive rhetoric and social constructionist view paradigm.

2.3 The Contextual Factors Influencing Expressions of Self-Representation

Given the social nature of identity construction, it can be assumed that self-representation may be influenced or even shaped by various contextual factors

involved in the social contexts such as genre conventions, audience backgrounds, culture, and disciplinary conventions (Lin, 2013). Among an array of contextual factors that are likely to have an influence on self-representation of academic writers, the present researcher is interested in two contextual factors, i.e. writers' cultural backgrounds and rhetorical sections of RAs on writers' self-representation in the genre of RAs.

Even though the primary goal of this study is to explore to what extent the factor of cultural backgrounds is likely to have an impact on authorial self-representation, the examination of authorial self-representation between the two cultures in each section of RAs has also been of interest to researchers. From the review of previous research, it's generally known that the sections of RAs serve different purposes and how authorial self-representation can best be revealed in a paper within the large body of similar research is a complicated rhetorical and social process. The next section that will be discussed is the authorial self-representation in relation to rhetorical sections of RAs.

2.3.1 Self-Representation across Different Rhetorical Sections of RAs

Swales's (1990) well-known framework on rhetorical moves in genre analysis proposes that genre is characterized by a set of the communicative purposes (why it is written and its context), and communicative intention in a particular genre is fulfilled by a segment of text called *move*. This framework suggests that structures and content of each section of RAs reflect different rhetorical purposes of these sections. Hyland (2012) extended this point by stating that the kinds of commitments the writers are willing to make and the information they are willing to offer about themselves make

them visible in their texts. The RAs' writers need to know the universal structure of the sections in RAs, as well as the conventional linguistic realizations of those sections' rhetorical purposes (Pho, 2008). As Hunston (1994) states, the writer convinces the reader that the research conducted is needed and meaningful in the introduction, that the research is effective in the methods section, that the statistical means is suitable and constructive in the result section, and that the results are justifiable and fit in research samples in the discussion section.

Rahimivand and Kuhi (2014), analyzing a written text corpus of 30 RAs of AL published in international journals, investigate the use of hedge, evidentials, boosters, self-mentions and attitude markers in each section: Introduction, Result-Discussion, Abstract, and Method. The results of this study demonstrate that writer identity is chiefly constructed in introduction sections of RAs in which social interaction occurs through the use of metalinguistic features. In the finding section, concerning the frequency of metadiscoursal features, hedges or markers of uncertainty stood out as the most dominant type, assuring their decisive role in construction of identity, where the writer needs to weigh between commitment to his/her ideas, respect and statement with the reader. Writers can expect possible resistance to their claims (by providing precise sentences with caution and manner) by means of these features, while concurrently, allowing the reader to read off the writer's stance without the writer appearing too assertive.

Lin (2013), through frequency analysis, found that the only observable difference was that L1 writers in AL employed more hedges and boosters in the Introduction, Result-Discussion, and Conclusion sections than L2 writers. It was worth noting that among

the various sections of RAs in AL, the result-discussion sections have the highest total number of stance markers or stance linguistic features while the method section has the lowest number, which might imply that in comparison to other sections of RAs in AL, the result-discussion sections may be the sections where writers in AL have more space and freedom in projecting their authorship legitimately whereas less self-representation is revealed when writers report research design and methodology. Lin (2013) also found that stance markers: hedges, boosters, and attitude markers were all used with high frequency in the result-discussion and conclusion sections among the four stance markers. It is concluded that the rhetorical purposes of a section of RAs would influence writers' different degree of authorship projection.

In addition, Afros and Schryer (2009) found that distribution of lexicogrammatical and discourse elements varied between two disciplines: language and literary studies as well as between article sections and moves. In the introduction, both disciplines employed evaluative lexis, where significance, wide applicability, interestingness or novelty were highlighted. Yet self-mentions were found only in linguistic field. In the discussion section, citation played crucial role in both. Evaluation of other views formed an integral part, including stressing their own contributions, invoking the justification of existing research in the field, supporting or contradicting the reported investigation. These are revealed by self-mentions in conjunction with explicit evaluative lexis, first person pronoun, comment clauses, coordination, and lexical cohesion. In the conclusion section, the linguists were explicitly more careful than the other to persuade readers that their expectations had been met or exceeded by (1) restating the central theses put forward in the introduction, often supported by boosters and lexical cohesion; (2) by building consensus with the reader by using the inclusive

pronoun *we*; (3) by reminding the reader that the conclusions were supported by the analysis, usually by using a dependent comment clause.

These studies aforementioned raise an awareness that writers express different degrees of self-representation in line with different rhetorical purposes of various sections of RAs. Nevertheless, limited studies are to be found providing detailed discussion on textual analysis of stance linguistic features employed by L1 and L2 across sections of RAs. Therefore, focusing on rhetorical purposes of each section of RAs could catch more nuances of authorial self-representation expression between native and non-native English writers. This has motivated the present study. However, the present study did not attempt to compare authorial self-representation across rhetorical sections of RAs. Instead, it focused on the analysis of authorial self-representation between the native English writers and Thai writers through each section to provide more understanding into how writers' self-representation was revealed in each rhetorical section of RAs.

In terms of the boundary of RA sections, a clear boundary of sections is necessary because different move or section structure can lead to different analyses of linguistics features in moves and sections. In some cases, the headings of sections vary greatly from one article to another, to identify the section is fuzzy work (Pho, 2013). For example, Lin (2013) categorizes the sections of RAs in AL field into Introduction, Method, Results-Discussion (combined R&D), and Conclusion. Perez-Llantada (2007) categorizes the sections of RAs in various fields into Introduction, Body (combined R&D), and Conclusion. Afros and Schryer (2009) based their discussion of variation among RA sections on headings; Abstract, Introduction, Discussion,

Conclusion and Footnote/endnote. Unlike Afros and Schryer (2009) and Lin (2013), Rahimivand and Kuhi (2014) categorize the sections of RAs in AL field into Abstract, Introduction, Method, and Result-Discussion (R&D) to analyze linguistic features of authorial self-representation. These suggest that the section boundary of the previous studies is different from one another.

However, Pho (2013) further discusses that some previous studies include in their corpus only RAs with all four main sections: Introduction, Method, Results and Discussion (generally referred to as the IMRD format), which might not inform the real structure of RAs. For example, Kanoksilapatham (2003) considers the sections with these labels and excludes all the other sections of RAs in her corpus. Pho (2013) also found that the move structure of the combined 'Discussion-Conclusions' section and the independent 'Conclusions' section share a close similarity. Considering the section boundaries, Pho (2013) not only takes the authors' section labels of heading but also the function of the text under the label into considerations by using the four section headings of Introduction, Methods, Results, and Discussion/Conclusions. The present study therefore follows this boundary between sections of RAs as identified by the study of Pho (2013).

2.3.2 Self-Representation across Writers' Cultural Backgrounds

Given that there have been an increasing number of scholars among L2 writers who strive to build international academic reputations through publishing in English-medium journals, it is of great pedagogical value to explore the difficulties they encounter when writing English RAs. The non-native English writers try to establish their research novelty that fits into a community consensus and reveal their authority

in ways that conforms to values of convention in writing for publication. Regarding earlier studies of L2 writers in general, many studies (Cadman, 1997; Flowerdew, 2001; Fox, 1994; Prince, 2000) have revealed that L2 writers who come from different cultural backgrounds always face difficulties in aptly managing their self-representation when writing in English. This problem arises from the L2 writers' uncertainty about who they are expected to be when writing in English because ways of self-representation in English are found to be different from those of other cultures. As a result, L2 writers are found to express themselves differently from L1 writers or expert writers in terms of discoursal practices in academic writing (Blagojević, 2009; Hyland & Milton, 1997; Hyland, 2000, 2002a, 2002b, 2012; Ivanic and Camps, 2001; Lin, 2013; McCrostie, 2008; Petch-Tyson, 1998). The more recent cross-cultural studies in this area have been found to focus on authorial self-representation (Carrió-Pastor, 2014 and Dontcheva-Navratilova, 2016). The findings of these studies reveal that the cultural background of the writer influences the writing.

Carrió-Pastor (2014) conducted a study to determine whether language variation may be identified in cross-cultures when modal verbs of ability and possibility are used by speakers with different cultural backgrounds. The two corpora used in this study consisted of 50 academic papers written in English by Spanish writers and 50 academic papers written in English by native English writers. The results of this study of modal verbs of possibility and ability show that Spanish writers made greater use of *can* to express the possibility. In this sense, Spanish writers of English as a second language tend to convey less imprecision and more assertive when they express themselves in English than their native English counterparts. Carrió-Pastor indicates that the cultural background of the writers shapes the style of writing by explaining

that Spanish writers are more likely to enrich and evolve the English language, which seems not to be a clear-cut explanation in terms of why cultural proclivities have been proven to influence the rhetorical shape of academic writings across cultures.

Dontcheva-Navratilova (2016) explores cross-cultural variation in the use of lexical hedges and boosters in the academic discourse of non-native writers. This study analyzed a specialized corpus of linguistics RAs published in the international journal in AL and the national Czech English-medium journal. The findings of the cross-cultural analysis reveal that the frequency and use of hedging and boosting features tend to reflect differences in the linguacultural and epistemological tradition of the Anglophone and Czech linguistics communities. The more frequent use of hedging and boosting in RAs by Anglophone linguists appears to reflect the large scale and competitive atmosphere of the varied international discourse community, where authorial credibility is heightened by interacting with different voices and evaluations. By contrast, the lower rate of hedges and boosters and the more often use of content oriented hedges in RAs by Czech linguists suggest that the likely symbiosis in the small Czech linguistics community is still vital and seems to shape their rhetorical preferences even when they write English medium texts potentially addressed to an international readership. Since this study did not describe the term *culture* and its scale used in the context, the present researcher assumes that the notion of culture considered by Dontcheva-Navratilova is the immediate discourse community of academic disciplines which is explained by Hyland (2005a) as a small culture (the discipline, age, institution, the profession, etc.) which interacts with its national culture.

Hyland (2005a) points out that the field which actively uses the notion of culture as a received view of culture (i.e., national culture) to explain the differences in written texts and writing practices is known as Contrastive Rhetoric (CR). In fact, how cultural proclivities have been proven to influence the rhetorical shape of academic writings across cultures were explored in other studies under the enterprise of Contrastive Rhetoric, such as by Crismore et.al (1993), Hinds (1990) and Mauranen (1993). Hinds (1990) and Mauranen (1993) make use of the notion of reader responsibility and writer responsibility, linking this responsibility with the culture of the writer. They agree that, in some languages, writers are responsible for effective communication, whereas there are others in which readers are the ones accountable for text comprehension. For example, Hinds (1990) used examples from Japanese, Chinese, Korean and Thai languages to provide evidence that main ideas were delayed, and their organizations are different from inductive writing in English which places specific details and examples and then works towards a generalization. Hinds characterized the pattern of these Asian languages as reader responsibility, the delayed introduction of the writers' main purpose.

Mauranen (1993) found that Anglo-American writers used more metatext (or metadiscourse) than Finnish authors. In general, her study shows that the native English writers displayed more interest in guiding and orienting readers and in making their presence felt in the text than the Finnish authors when writing in English. She speculates that her results arise from different cultural preferences in norms of politeness and rhetorical explicitness between Finns and Americans. The Americans give an impression of having a greater sense of audience than the Finns and seek to condition readers' interpretations by explicitly guiding them. While Finnish rhetorical

strategies can be perceived as polite and persuasive in Finnish, when transferred into English they may result not only in unintentionally inefficient rhetoric, but negative evaluations of the writer.

In addition, one of the most extensive studies on authorial self-representation in writing which claimed that the lack of self-representation expressions in writing was due to the adherence to the national culture is by Hinkel (2002). Hinkel investigated the frequencies and uses of 68 linguistic and rhetorical features in timed essays written in English by 1,457 undergraduates from six language groups (Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Vietnamese, Indonesian, and Arabic) and compared them with those by native English speakers. The results show that self-mentions, boosters, and engagement markers were generally far more frequent in the non-native English speakers' essays, while hedges were less frequent. However, Hinkel found that self-mentions used by L2 writers did not explicitly express authorial self-representation. Hinkel believes that essays written by speakers of Japanese, Korean and Chinese often appear uncertain, possibly because of their writing traditions. Hinkel found that ESL writers in tertiary education rarely used *would*, when compared to native English writers. He argues that the rhetorical traditions based on Confucian, Taoist, and Buddhist differ from those in the Anglo American writing tradition which is shaped by Aristotelian notions of direct and justifiable manner.

However, Connor (2003) suggests that although contrastive rhetoric has often been defined as national cultures in the received view, researchers in contrastive rhetoric have not interpreted differences in writing as resulting from the first language or the national culture. However, such differences in written discourse have been associated

with some factors including L1 national culture, L1 educational background, disciplinary convention, genre type, and different expectations between readers and writers. In similar line of argument, Hyland (2005a) argues that even though cultural factors help establish our background understandings or knowledge, and potentially have an effect on what we write, and our preferences to different communicative contexts, that is, clearly any number of factors can influence writing and cultural preference is just one of these.

With regard to the cultural inconsistency between the notion of voice (authorial self-representation) in L2 writers' backgrounds and that of the English writing context, several case studies in which Chinese students narrated identity conflicts they encountered while trying to accommodate to the English writing context are, for example, Hyland (2002b) who explored how final year Hong Kong undergraduates used and perceived self-reference and also explored the possible explanations for their different communicative practices. The study examined the frequency and role of the first person pronouns *I*, *we*, *me* and *us*, and the determiners *my* and *our* in 64 final year undergraduate reports, drawing on comparisons with the other corpus, which consisted of 240 RAs of experts writers from ten leading journals in each of the eight related disciplines. One supervisor from each field was selected to be interviewed. Interviews with the students and their supervisors in eight fields were also conducted to both represent a broad cross-section of academic practice and to facilitate the access to informants. Reports from biology, mechanical engineering, information systems, business studies, TESL, economics, public administration, and social sciences were collected. The study shows underuse of authorial presence by the students and preferred avoidance of these forms in contexts. In terms of self-mention used by these

students, almost half the occurrences of self -mention used by experts were aimed at making arguments and claims, compared with only a quarter in the students' texts.

Hyland (2002b) points out that expert writers were more willing to make a personal commitment to in authorially powerful manner, thereby leading them to gain both the most risks and potentially the most credit. Finally, Hyland (2002b) concludes that this tentativeness and reluctance among Asian writers in using self-mentions may partially be resulted from culturally and socially constructed view of self that makes assertion problematic whereas Anglo-American academic conventions support a conscious use of authorial identity to achieve the reader's awareness of the author's view or position. Hyland (2012) clarifies that in the Chinese tradition, the Chinese were seeking to pass on what they had received rather than learning to take on a scholarly voice in critiquing others. In Chinese writing tradition, it is assumed that what is presented as fact is inseparable from who said it, and this markedly contrasts with the Western conception that to be associated with what they have written, authors must indicate their own view.

The study by Hyland (2002b) is in line with Hyland and Milton (1997) and Lin (2013), who found that writing as native speakers, L1 writers usually have a better control of asserting themselves using various stance markers with appropriate amount of force because of their more comprehensive understanding of what are culturally accepted norms of self-representation. L2 writers, on the other hand, have been more in the dilemma when it comes to representing themselves in RAs in that their self-representation may be different when writing in English than writing their own languages.

In addition to exploring the cultural challenges that L2 writers face in self-representation based on Chinese cultural background by using text-based interviews and a corpus-based approach (Hyland, 2002a, 2002b), a number of studies have empirically examined L2 authorial self-representation in academic text using corpus to compare native English writers to non-native English writers such as Japanese writers (McCrostie, 2008) and French, Dutch, Swedish, and Finnish English learners (Petch-Tyson, 1998). Echoing the findings of these previous studies, McCrostie (2008) reports that academic essays written by Japanese learners contain far more writer/reader visibility features than the native English writers. Similarly, Petch-Tyson (1998) examines the presence of features revealing writer/reader visibility by computer software, including first and second personal pronouns and references to the situation of writing or reading, in argument essays written by American native English speakers as well as French, Dutch, Swedish, and Finnish English learners. Petch-Tyson (1998) found that the four groups of non-native English speakers use features of writer/reader visibility two to four times the rate of the native speakers. The learners especially overused first and second person pronouns in their writing. However, he clarified that not only did the non-native English writers overuse them far more frequent than the native English writers but also that they normally used them to express what they thought or wanted to say. In contrast, the native English speaking university students infrequently used them with past tense verbs to tell their personal experiences to support the writer's argument. This is consistent with Lin (2013) who studied self-representation of L1 and L2 writers in their RAs and found that, in terms of self-mentions, AL L2 writers were found to use slightly more self-mentions than the L1 writers, and especially the pronoun *we* was used three times more by the L2 writers than L1 writers.

In order to further uncover possible reasons why L2 writers employed *we* more frequent and how it was used, Lin (2013) probed into contextual use through all concordance lines of *we* to discover discourse functions used by the L1 and L2 writers. Contextual analyses of the use of *we* in the L1 and L2 writers' texts further revealed that even though the L2 writers used more *we*, they did not intend to use the self-mention to express a strong authorial involvement. Instead, the use of *we* in the L2 writers' texts is intended to suggest what had been done or hedge a proposition rather than establishing their contribution to a study.

According to findings based on frequency analysis, the studies by McCrostie (2008) and Petch-Tyson (1998), contrary to Hyland (2002a, 2002b), found that non-native Japanese and European students use *I* far more often in their argumentative essays than native English writers. These contradictory findings are noted on the basis of the frequency of authorial self-mention use only. However, exhaustive findings were eventually revealed through the textual analysis in these studies, which highlighted non-native English writers to make use of self-mention in a way that shows a weak degree of authorial identity.

Previous studies (Kuhi et al., 2013; Lin, 2013; Perez-Llantada, 2007) investigate how self-representation is revealed in the text of L1 versus L2 writers through not only the use of self-mentions but also other linguistic features of authorial self-representation. Perez-Llantada (2007) conclusively posits that L1 writers express themselves more clearly through first-person singular pronoun to manifest collegiality towards readers. On the other hand, L2 writers opt for more detached styles through infrequent first person pronoun and a dominant use of anticipatory *it*-pattern. Moreover, L2 writers

opt for probability modals and epistemic modals to weaken the assertive force of their claims, whereas L1 writers show certainty or even openly realize their uncertainty and limitation of the study in order to establish credible claims. The overall findings of Perez-Llantada is consistent with Lin (2013) who found that L1 writers in AL used more hedges, boosters, and attitude markers while L2 writers employed more self-mentions in the way that weakens authority level as reported before.

In her study, Lin (2013) used a corpus-based approach in combination with rhetorical text analysis and interviews to explore how various contextual factors, including disciplinary conventions, writers' cultural backgrounds and different rhetorical purposes may influence writers' self-representation in the genre of RA. Through compiling a corpus of 36 RAs written by L1 and L2 writers from two fields – Applied Linguistics and Electrical Engineering, Lin (2013) found that L1 writers are more willing to assert their authorial presence and show their commitment to arguments made. They have a better control of asserting themselves using various stance markers with appropriate amount of force due to their more understanding of what are culturally accepted ways of self-representation. L2 writers, on the other hand, were more inconsistent when expressing their authorial stance in RAs. They sometimes accidentally sounded conceited with the use of strong boosters to highlight significant findings of their studies, thereby leading to an ineffective way in claims made. On the other hand, their detachment from claims made sometimes is likely to suggest authors' lack of confidence in claims made, and thus weaken credibility of their research.

Furthermore, Kuhi et al. (2013) investigates how Iranian and American writers reveal their self-representation which is realized by means of writers' explicit (first person

self-references) and implicit self (imperative forms and attitude markers) in computer engineering RAs. In the study, 40 published RAs (approximately 345,385 words) written in English by Iranian and American academics were analyzed to determine the distribution of first person pronouns, imperative forms and attitude markers. The result shows that the Iranian writers utilized explicit 'self' more than the American writers did, while American writers employed implicit 'self' more than the Iranian writers. According to Kuhl et al. (2013), Lin (2013) and Perez-Llantada (2007), the in-depth analyses of how self-representation of writers revealed through wider aspects of stance linguistic features of self-representation could yield more insights into the phenomena.

Reflecting on findings as highlighted earlier, the present researcher assumes that different cultural contexts in different countries approach the question of self-representation in different ways. Ramanathan & Atkinson (1999) argue that the Americans have a particular voice or unique of inner self in discourse that is opposite to the Asians who tend to use deferential discourse system. In the same vein, interviews with two AL writers conducted by Lin (2013) revealed that the L1 writer from the field of AL, a doctoral student, in order for him to fulfill expectations of members of the discourse community, was more willing to express authorial stance in his work. The L2 writer from the field of AL, a native speaker of Thai, on the other hand, said that most of the English writing instruction he received focused more on mechanical aspects of writing such as sentence formulation and format. However, he still revealed his effort in projecting authorship in ways that were acceptable for members of the discourse community, particularly while reviewing previous literature. He was very often quite aware of the amount of force brought by stance linguistic features. Therefore, while reviewing other's research, he was cautious about selecting words

that were able to reflect original ideas of authors. Specifically when commenting on the work of others, he would cautiously hedge his personal opinions if he was uncertain in order to protect himself from being challenged by a reader who had different opinions from him. The interview questions in the present study were adapted from Lin (2013) which is similar to the present study in terms of the focused contextual factors in authorial self-representation and genre.

The finding of Flowerdew (2001) indicates that the particular stance of the Hong Kong writers that journal editors are looking for is related to less self-effacement or more taking position. Hence, it is essential for the present study to examine authorial self-representation and focus on a particular cultural context in a particular country, Thailand, to gain more insights into a specific non-native English cultural context.

The rationale behind the selection of Thai cultural context is underlined in the finding of Flowerdew (2001) which reports that the devoid of authorial self-representation expression is part of their discourse community, is a major problem in non-native English RAs. Some journal editors interviewed in the study said the absence of authorial voice may be a characteristic of the novice writer in general, others noted it as a possible trait of East Asian writers such as in Thailand. Through the interview, this point was specified by one of the interviewees who is an Asian editor as stated below:

...in Thailand, when I used to conduct course with them on writing, they're very proficient speakers and writers, but they say this would offend someone in Thailand. So I think one has to be sensitive to the fact that Southeast Asians on the whole-I mean to varying degrees, of course- are conscious that they don't say anything as loudly. I mean they will sort of defer to authority...This is something I am sensitive to.... (Flowerdew, 2001, p.138).

Even though many previous studies on RAs are interested in the various ways authors express their identity in academic genres in cross-culture, namely, between expert writers and Chinese (Hyland, 2002a; 2002b), native English and Japanese (McCrostie, 2008), native English and European (Petch-Tyson, 1998), and native English and Iranian (Kuhi et al., 2013), there have been limited studies exploring the self-representation of the Thai writers in Thai cultural context. In the Thai context, few studies have address the issue of authorial stances in the written context. Contributions towards the study of authorial stances in the Thai context as compared to the native English context can, however, be illustrated by the studies conducted by Prasithrathsint (2015), Sukhanindr (2008), and Yotimart and Noor Hashima (2017).

Comparing the use of hedges in RAs in English Language Teaching (ELT) field written by Thai and native authors, Sukhanindr (2008) found the differences in how Thai and native authors employ hedges in writing RAs, that is, native authors tended to have a greater variety of hedging items and means of expressing hedging than Thai authors. She contends that this is related to academic writing instruction for Thai learners. This research aims to explore hedging expressions used by the Thai and native English authors in a corpora of research articles. These hedging expressions appear in the forms of modal verbs, lexical verbs, adjectives, adverbials, nouns, and It/There introductory phrases. Their frequencies in each research article section, and the characteristics of hedging proposed by Crompton (1997) are also investigated. Twenty research articles were selected from English language teaching and learning journals which were published from 1997 to 2006. Each research article section was distinguished by its communicative purpose following Swales (1990). The search of target items in the corpora was conducted by a computer program named, Concapp

Concordance and Word Profiler Version 4. Then two native English readers were asked to determine whether the sentences of the target items indicated hedging or not.

The findings reveal that the Thai authors tended to use less and limited devices and ways for conveying hedging in English academic writing than the native authors do. Hedging expressions were most frequently employed in the discussion sections of research articles, and were used the least in the method sections. Epistemic modal verbs, lexical verbs, and adverbials were the three most common forms of hedging found.

Similarly, Prasithrathsint (2015) analyzes and compares the style of academic writing in academic articles in humanities among Thai, Pilipino, and native English authors in attempt to show that native-like competence in English is related to differences in the use of hedging. In accordingly with her original perception, Prasithrathsint found that native English authors use hedges most frequently, followed by Pilipino and Thai authors as the second and the least frequency, respectively. This study implies that hedging is likely to be related to the level of competence in English including knowledge of stylistic variation.

To sum up, these two studies (Prasithrathsint, 2015; Sukhanindr, 2008) point to the problem of the underuse of hedges among Thai writers which is attributable to the low level of English competence and academic teaching in Thailand, not national culture. However, the two studies are restricted to the focus of hedging used by Thai writers, compared to native English counterparts, in RAs which is part of linguistic realization of authorial self-representation, leaving a room for larger aspect of authorial self-representation in the context of Thai writers to be investigated in the present study.

Another relevant study on authorial self-representation expressed by Thai writers and native English writers is by Yotimart and Noor Hashima (2017). By analyzing 30 RAs, the study found that the native English writers in AL used more hedges, boosters, epistemic stance words, while the Thai writers used slightly more attitude markers. The difference in the use of self-mentions is marked; with eight times more used by the native English writers than the Thai writers. The textual use further revealed that the native English writers were overt when expressing their authorial identity while the Thai writers' use of stance markers tended to convey rhetorical purposes that weaken degrees of authority. However, this study is limited to only the frequency analysis and textual analysis of stance linguistic features, thereby lacking insiders' perceptions about authorial self-representation expressed and practiced in particular contexts. Therefore, there is a gap in interviewing Thai writers to be explored in the present study.

2.3.3 Self-Representation in Thai Writings

Earlier studies on self-representation were done differently on Thai language. Prasithrathsin (2014b) analyze the characteristics of academic language or academic register in Thai, compared with other registers, namely, media, politics, and law. The data of a corpus of research articles in Thai, 11,000 words, were analyzed in comparison with comparable size of other corpora to provide the identification of academic language recurrent patterns. The study identified hedges as one of the four prominent features of academic language in Thai. The prominent hedging found in the corpus of academic register in Thai consist of nouns indicating possibility, verbs or adverbs indicating probability, as well as adverbs 'suan yai' (mainly) and 'doey toupai' (generally).

With a focus on nominalization, Prasithrathsin (2014a) aims to analyze academic writing in Thai and find out what function nominalization performs in this genre. The data of a number of research articles in Thai, 51,163 words long, compared with that of editorials in Thai, 71,267 words were analyzed. The results reveal that nominalization occurs more frequently in academic papers than in editorials. The study sheds light on the Thai academic writing style through the focus on the function of nominalization performing in academic articles and shows that the content of Thai RAs displays the detachment which means a lack of identity expression, and objectivity which means an information presented without the interference of personal feelings or evaluation.

With regard to earlier studies that Thai larger cultural practices are somewhat different from that English rhetorical style, to my knowledge, some studies (Hinds, 1990; Kanoksilapatham, 2007 and Jogthong, 2001) show how this difference may have had some influence when Thais write in another language. As afore mentioned, Hinds (1990) characterized the writing of Thai as the delayed introduction of the writers' main purpose. This tendency for informational indirectness in Thai writing is further supported by Hongdladarom (2007), who refers to an example from a letter to a newspaper, where the writer presents information irrelevant to the main purpose of the letter, but intended to construct a relationship with the readers. According to Hongdladarom (2007), Thai culture stresses rapport, long-term relationship, consideration for others and avoidance of conflict and confrontation, factors which contribute to a prone towards indirectness, especially in possibly face-threatening acts such as presenting criticism.

Kanoksilapatham (2007) probes into the structural organization (move and step) in RAs written in Thai and English language by analyzing a corpus of biochemistry research articles written in Thai using Swales' genre analysis (2004) to identify moves and their subunits, steps, used in Thai biochemistry research articles as well as to compare the pattern with that in English. The study found 14 distinct moves: 3 in the Introduction section, 4 in the Methods, 3 in the Results, and 4 in the Discussion sections. The differences in structure organization of biochemistry RAs written in Thai language compared with that in English were because of a number of factors such as the close-knit nature of Thai research communities, the expectation of the community members, and the scope of research, and the norms of Thai society shaped by Thai Buddhism and family culture.

Moreover, the study of Jogthong (2001) analyzed the RA introductions written in Thai by Thai academic writers. The analysis is based on 40 Thai RAs taken from Thai journals in educational and medical fields. The topic-prominent aspect of Thai language and the limited use of passive voice in Thai also marked the differences in sentence constructions between Thai and English. It was found that The Thai writers refrained from criticizing and evaluating the works of others. Apart from announcing their present research and outlining purposes of their study, the Thai writers ended their research article introduction by indicating implications of their research without evaluating their own work and the works of others. Jogthong (2001) believes due to Thai culture, the writers feel inconvenient to assert claims of their own work. Thai people are very chary not to promote self in public. The accomplishment and the significance of their work should be left for other people to decide. It is possible that this cultural aspect results in the avoidance of claiming the centrality of research topic

in this study. Jogthong (2001) also found that while the English writers employed a range of verbs in presenting previous research, the Thai writers used only a few reporting verbs.

In similar vein, Jaroongkhongdacha, Todd, Keyuravong, and Hall (2012) explore potential problems of English Language Teaching academics in Thailand in getting their research published in international journals by comparing 100 research articles published by the academics in Thailand with 100 research articles published in international journals. The ratings in seven categories suggest that the articles published by the academics in Thailand are of lower quality, namely, justification, awareness, and coherence. The low quality of many ELT research articles authored by Thais which are unlikely to be accepted for publication in international refereed journals was due to conflicts between national research policies aiming for international publications and academics' motivations in which Thai ELT academics appear interested in conducting practice-oriented research which is unlikely to serve international demands of research in broader theory as well as national cultural values of face-saving. For many people from Anglophone countries, knowledge is noted as something to be tested, whereas for many Asians, including Thais, it is considered as something to be respected, thereby reducing the chance of Thais in criticizing previous literature. For Thais, commenting others' works, especially the works of ones with higher status, can be considered as face threatening and inappropriate.

Similarly, Pupipat (1998) examined the perception of Thai scientists publishing in English regarding their writing processes. He found that Thai scientists have a need to publish internationally rather than locally for promotion. Therefore, writing in English

is important. His findings show that the significant role of face issue and the seniority system in Thai culture which lead to intolerance of rejection or criticism, which are at odds with a collaborative, process-based approach to writing, particularly hinder the ability of the Thai scientists to think critically and write argumentatively, resulting in difficulties in writing discussion section of RAs. Pupipat reports that criticism from reviewers made some Thai writers feel belittled and reluctant to submit their papers to international journals. His study suggests that Thai scientists should write for an international readership, which requires argumentative scientific writing skills.

Based on the previous studies on Thai writing and Thai writers' writing in English with different focus or investigated areas, their findings were largely ascribed to Thai traditional rhetorical tradition rooted in Thai culture. The present research, with the investigated area of linguistic realization of authorial identity, also intends to explain the interplay between contextual of Thai culture and its impact on Thai writers' self-representation in writing English RAs, the area of which in Thai context has not been given great attention by the researchers in the past and this motivated the present study. The present researcher hopes that the finding at least can add to knowledge about the influence of Thai culture on authorial self-representation in Thai writers' RAs in English. Most importantly, while assisting Thai writers in deploying authorial voice appropriately, effectively and credibly, the findings can increase an opportunity for Thai writers in getting their works published in international journals. In the next section, the present researcher will explain about the linguistic realizations of authorial identity and how they are adapted in the present study.

2.4 The Linguistic Realizations of Authorial Stance

This section will briefly explore how linguistic forms and patterns are associated with identities and what linguistic forms point to identity without necessarily referring to it.

The answer will be drawn from the models of Hyland and Pho.

2.4.1 Hyland's Model of Interaction

Hyland's (2005b) study pointed out that writers create authority, integrity and credibility through choices from stance markers. In Hyland's more lexically focused perspective (Hyland, 2005a, 2005b), interactional resources as called "metadiscourse" are captured broadly as functioning either as "stance" or "engagement" devices. Stance and engagement in this framework serve "interactional macrofunctions" (Hyland, 2005b, p. 176). Figure 2.2 shows Hyland's model of stance and engagement.

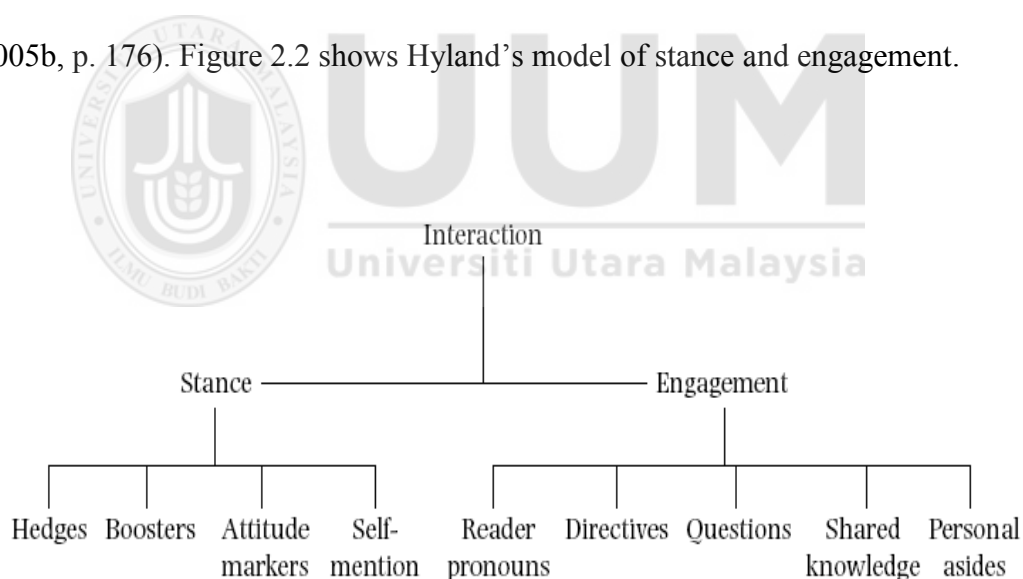


Figure 2.2. Hyland's model of stance and engagement (2005b)

According to Hyland (2005b), stance consists of four elements: 1. Hedges; 2. Boosters; 3. Attitude Markers; and 4. Self- mentions. Hedges refer to "the signal of the writer's reluctance to present propositional (ideational) information categorically" (Hyland, 2012, p. 179). Examples of hedges are *possible*, *might*, and *perhaps*. Boosters, on the

other hand, are words like *clearly*, *obviously* and *demonstrate*, which help writers to show their conviction in what they say and to immerse themselves in the topic and to align themselves with their audience. "They function to stress shared information, group membership, and engagement with readers" (Hyland, 2005b, p. 179). The third is attitude markers which "express writers' appraisal of propositional information, and convey surprise, obligation, agreement, importance and so on" (2012, p.180), and while attitude "is expressed throughout a text by the use of subordination, comparatives, progressive particles, punctuation, text location, and so on, it is most explicitly signaled by attitude verbs (e.g. *agree*, *prefer*), sentence adverbs (*unfortunately*, *hopefully*), and adjectives (*appropriate*, *logical*, *remarkable*)" (2005b, p.180). The last element of the four stance markers is self-mentions which indicate the use of first person pronouns and possessive adjectives to present information (Hyland, 2001b). Hyland's model of stance that reveals authorial identity (2002b; 2005a; 2005b) has been chosen over others (Kuhi et al, 2013; Lin, 2013; Mohammad, Zeinab & Naserib, 2014; Ramhimivand & Kuhi, 2014).

2.4.2 Pho's Model of Authorial Stance

In addition to Hyland's model of stance or features of writer's positioning, Pho (2013) takes stance as *writer-oriented features* of interaction and also refers to the ways academics comment on the possible correctness or trustworthiness of a claim, the extent they want to express their evaluation to it, or the attitude they want to express to a body of knowledge, a proposition, or the reader. Guided by his pilot study (Pho, 2008), Pho (2013) proposed seven linguistic features, with a total of 23 types, indicating authorial stance, as follows:

a) Feature 1: Self-reference words

Type 1: first person pronouns and other self-reference words (e.g. *I, we, my, our, the author(s), the researcher(s)*)

b) Feature 2: Modal auxiliaries and semi-modal verbs

Type 2: obligation/necessity modal verbs (e.g. *must, should, need, have to, ought to*)

Type 3: possibility/ability modal verbs (e.g. *can, could, may, might*)

Type 4: volition/prediction modal verbs (e.g. *will, would, shall, be, going to*)

c) Feature 3: Verb tense and aspect

Type 5: present simple

Type 6: past simple

Type 7: present perfect

Type 8: past perfect

d) Feature 4: Voice

Type 9: agentless passive

Type 10: by-passive

Type 11: active

e) Feature 5: Stance adjectives, adverbs and noun

Type 12: Attitudinal adjectives, adverbs and nouns (e.g. *important, significant, surprisingly, curiously, importance, significance*)

Type 13: Epistemic adjectives, adverbs and nouns (e.g. *likely, possible, probably, generally, possibility, assumption, tendency, need*)

However, as Pho (2013) does not explain the meaning of her stance type ‘epistemic stance words’ in particular, we take the meaning of epistemic stance of Halliday (1994) from which Pho’s stance was developed, that is, ‘epistemic stance’ which relates to probability and usuality.

f) Feature 6: *That*-complement clauses

Type 14: that-complement clauses controlled by adjectives (e.g. *It is clear that...*)

Type 15: that-complement clauses controlled by verbs (e.g. *We argue that...; It should be noted that...*)

Type 16: that-complement clauses controlled by nouns (e.g. *The conclusion that...*)

g) Feature 7: Controlling word types or Reporting verbs

Type 17: nonemotive (e.g. He *said* that...)

Type 18: positive strong (e.g. He *pointed out* that...)

Type 19: positive weak (e.g. He *suggested* that...)

Type 20: negative strong (e.g. He *claimed* that...)

Type 21: negative weak (e.g. He *admitted* that...)

Type 22: ambiguous strong (e.g. He *argued* that...)

Type 23: ambiguous weak (e.g. It *appears* that...)

Most of the previous studies on authorial identity in academic discourse focus on a single feature of authorial stance. For example, Hyland (2001b, 2002a, 2002b) examines the frequency and role of first person pronouns and hedges (Hyland, 1998a) or self-mention (Hyland, 1998b, 2001b, 2002a, 2002b; Ivanic & Camps, 2001; McCrostie, 2008; Mohammad, Zeinab & Naserib, 2014; Petch-Tyson, 1998). Hyland and Tse's studies (2005a, 2005b) examine authorial stance by looking at the 'evaluative *that*-construction' in abstracts from various disciplines. The use of evaluative words and the use of personal pronouns in abstracts of RAs from several fields were studied to observe authorial stance in Stotesbury's (2003a; 2003b) studies.

However, a few studies have been carried out to examine the wider range of authorial stance, namely Lin (2013), Pho (2008, 2013) and Rahimivand and Kuhi (2014). This study, therefore, intended to focus on multiplicity of authorial stance linguistic features to gain insight into the phenomena.

The present researcher employed Hyland's model of stance that reveals authorial identity, consisting of hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self- mentions (2002b; 2005a; 2005b) because this model has been chosen over others by many researchers (Kuhi et al, 2013; Lin, 2013; Mohammad, Zeinab & Naserib, 2014; Ramhimivand & Kuhi, 2014). The present study also added Pho's (2013) attitudinal stance words (e.g. interestingly) to provide more informed findings. Actually, attitude markers and attitudinal stance words are the same type but just different terms used by different scholars (Hyland's and Pho's). Therefore, some words of Hyland's attitude markers are the same as or overlap those of Pho's attitudinal stance. However, attitudinal stance of Pho (2013) had approximately 10 % of linguistics features which overlapped those of attitude markers by Hyland (2005a). That is why the present researcher still adds those 90% of not overlapping to the study. The additional attitudinal stance from Pho (2013) provides more informed finding, for example, *too*, all of which occur only in the native English corpus to indicate the writers' certainty when interpreting the findings thus paving the way to the new process or findings. The final linguistic features in the main study are listed in Appendix A. Based mainly on the model of Hyland's stance, the list of linguistic features are then derived and adapted in the present study as shown in Appendix A.

2.5 Theoretical Framework of the Present Study

This section examines the nature of writers' identity in writing and the theoretical framework surrounding self-representation in academic writing that can be employed to describe it. Two theoretical approaches to the investigation of writers' self-representation in writing in relation to social context are addressed in particular, Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) (e.g. Kaplan, 1966; Connor, 1996, 2002) and Social Constructionist Theory (Ivanic, 1998). Then, Hyland's framework of authorial stance used to frame authorial identity or stance in the present study is delineated. These approaches are described and then discussed with respect to the requirements of the present study.

2.5.1 Contrastive Rhetoric (CR)

Hyland (2005a) explains that the field which actively uses the notion of culture to show the differences in written texts and writing practices is Contrastive Rhetoric (CR). How cultural proclivities have been proven to influence the rhetorical shape of academic writings across cultures were explored in previous studies as reviewed earlier under the enterprise of Contrastive Rhetoric, such as by Crismore et.al (1993), Hinds (1990) and Mauranen (1993).

Since the present study is an investigation of cultural influence on writing, this framework is essential to the present study in that it enables a systematic analysis and discussion of authorial self-representation in relation to cultural influence, involving understanding about the appropriate language use in its context, as part of the cultural knowledge that a person learn when participating in a particular society. The focus of the present study is primarily on the influence of Thai culture. The theory related to

the conception that brings the notion of culture to explain differences in written texts and writing practices in ESL and EFL writing is the Contrastive Rhetorical theory.

The study of Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) in the 1990s is “a means of enhancing the awareness of the background and culture of the native language and its effects on the native language writing produced” (Connor, 1996). CR was developed to improve research in second language acquisition and moves to compare discourse structures across cultures and genres as found in Kaplan’s pioneering study (1966) which proposed diagram of the linear line of argument preferred by native English speakers in contrast to non-native English speakers who follow indirect approach in organizing essay. However, Kaplan’s contrastive rhetoric has been criticized as privileging the writing of native English speakers and lumping Chinese, Thai, and Korean speakers in one Oriental group. Later Kaplan did some modification of his to reflect that cross-cultural differences in writing can be explained by different conventions of writing, which are learned, rather than acquired (Connor, 2002).

Another significant change that has been taken place in contrastive rhetoric was proposed by Connor in 1996 who suggested the new direction of writing across culture in contrastive rhetoric research which found that every type of writing has its own conventions. Connor (2002) found that straightforward writing depends on reader expectation. Therefore, Kaplan’s diagram of the linear line of argument expressed by native English speakers may reflect what such speakers perceive as straightforward, but speakers of other languages do not necessarily construe the features of English argument texts the same way. In conclusion, contrastive rhetoric research provides

empirically testable models of cross-cultural texts and writing behavior (Connor, 2002). Connor (2002) suggests that in spite of taking up national cultures as a received mode, researchers in contrastive rhetoric have not attributed all differences in written communication to the first language or the national culture. Instead, they have tried to explain such differences in writing as relating to some factors including L1 national culture, L1 educational background, disciplinary culture, genre characteristics, and mismatched expectations between readers and writers.

It is important to establish the meaning of the term *culture* before proceeding further. The present study adopted the definition of the term *culture* by Connor (1996) as “a set of patterns and rules shared by a particular community.” Connor (1996) points out that the meaning was seen to be national culture. Therefore, in the present study, culture means national culture as a shared community construct and cultural model. In any study that investigates cultural influence on writing, primary assumption could be that writers use language depending on their cultural background. Connor (1996) suggests that it should be known that culture may also have an impact which is inseparable from linguistic knowledge. The present study focuses on academic writing, and the main concern is thus the manner in which Thai as a first culture may influence writing.

However, Hyland (2005a) considers that while contrastive rhetoric studies may suggest that students from different cultures may have presumptions about writing features which might be different from those operated in English academic setting, they do not necessarily predict the ways student will write in English. He asserts that any number of factors can influence writing and cultural preference is just one of these.

Furthermore, Canagarajah (2002) critiques the linguistic and cultural determinism in contrastive rhetoric and the ideology of Anglo-American academia which underlines genre studies. Canagarajah contends that multilingual writers can at best use their own linguistic and cultural experiences into useful resources in academic writing.

2.5.2 Social Constructionist Theory

De Fina (2011) posits that social constructionist, interactionist paradigm, is a result of twenty years of reflection on identity and language and is a new paradigm emerged from the shift towards anti-essentialism, which recognizes interpersonal communication as a locus of construction and negotiation of identities, and the attention to the linguistic practices of communities and the study of discourse rather than isolated speech fundamentals (on this point, see De Fina, 2011). This shift in perspective is influenced by development within discourse studies and reflections about the post-modern self within social theory, feminist theories of identity, social constructionism (a theory of knowledge in sociology and communication theory), symbolic interactionism, and ethnomethodology (De Fina, 2011).

In short, social constructionist paradigm views identity as something constructed between people. The view makes contribution to the social identity view in that “social construction understands reality, knowledge, thought, facts, texts, selves, and so on as community generated and community maintained linguistic entities ,or more broadly speaking, symbolic entities that define or constitute the communities that generate them” (Ivanic, 1998, p.12). It suggests that people experience identity problem because of the contradiction between the social contexts in which have constructed their identities in the past and the new social context which they are entering. Ivanic

(1998) elaborates on this point that the possibilities for the self are fluctuating, able to be contested by drawing attention to Giddens (1991), one of the theorists of social constructed identities, who observed the identity related to the academic writing of matured students and agreed that the self consists not of a person's life-history, but of the interpretation they are at present shaping their life history. The self in this way is socially constructed both by socially constrained nature of life experience itself, and by the social impact of the interpretation. Ivanic (1998) points out that the way in which writers express authorial identity is affected by several factors consisting of the social and cultural background of the writer, the epistemo logical and literacy tradition he/she is connected with, and the genre and disciplinary conventions.

Social construction of identity can only occur during social interaction in a specific situation according to De Fina's (2011) conclusion that people gain knowledge from life and society and then share it through interactions with others. Sociologists, such as Erving Goffman (1967 and 1981, as cited in De Fina, 2011), emphasize that interaction is the influence of social life where rules of conduct and moral values are apparently situated. Ivanic (1998) uses Goffman's (1959) social interaction theory to underpin the social constructionist view which proposed that people take up complex strategies to manipulate the impression they convey of themselves. Even though Ivanic had confuted Goffman's theory of self-representation concerning social action to some extent, she adopted Goffman's theoretical standpoint (1969, as cited in Ivanic, 1998) in explaining written communication in that self-representation (writer's discoursal choices) is constrained partly by the discourses to which they have had access and partly by what they anticipate will create a good impression in the mind of the readers.

Based on the social constructionist paradigm of identity in relation to a language and written discourse, which is the focus of the present research, the interplay between writing and social context is highlighted. The present research pays attention to the term 'discourse' as a means in explaining the process of how the identity is socially constructed, along with the relationship between language and identity. The present researcher emphasized the importance of taking on a social constructionist view as the interplay of identity and writing, and highlighted some of the characteristics of identity as multiple, historically influenced, and changeable over time. It helps us realize the relationship between language and identity shaped by social context, contributing to the claim that writing is not on the whole something self-conveyed, but part of social context. This aspect reinforces the importance of 'interpersonality' which informs the concept of the ways writers use language to negotiate the self and relationships with others by telling their readers what they see as important, and how they feel about what they write about. The interpersonal features, therefore become the source of identity exploration by many other works which highlight the ways in which interpersonal meanings are conveyed by explaining the resources like *evaluation* (Hunston and Thomson, 1999); *metadiscourse* (Hyland, 2005a, 2005b), etc.. In the present study, metadiscourse by Hyland (2005a) serves as a framework to provide the list of linguistic features conveying authorial identity.

2.5.3 Hyland's Framework of Authorial Stance

Hyland's earlier model of interaction (2005a, 2005b) which owes a great deal to Thompson and Thetela's classification of metadiscourse which regards metadiscourse as the ways writers refer to the text (Hyland, 2005a). According to Hyland (2005a, p.37), model of interaction or metadiscourse is defined as "the cover term for the self-

reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community.” It carries a needed social meaning by conveying the author’s disposition and identity. Within the massive literature on metadiscourse, one basic distinction notably mentioned is between “interactive” and “interactional” functions of language (Hyland, 2005b). Interactive metadiscourse has function to guide the reader through the propositional (ideational) content, for example, by declaring goals, marking shifts in topic, and emphasizing aforementioned material. Interactional strategies, on the other hand, bring the readers’ voices and concerns right into the discourse, corroborating them as part of dialogue.

Based on Hyland's reference to stance (Hyland, 2005b, 2012), stance is " an attitudinal dimension and includes features which refer to the ways writers present themselves and convey their judgments, opinions, and commitments. It is the ways that writers intrude to stamp their personal authority onto their arguments or step back and disguise their involvement" (Hyland, 2005b, p. 176). Pho (2013) states that the two most frequently used terms in studies of authorial stance are *evaluation* and *stance*. Other terms that have also been used in studies related to authorial stance include *voice*, *persona*, *metadiscourse*, *appraisal*, *authorial identity*, *authorial voice*, or *authorial presence*. Pho (2013) indicates that the definition of stance by Hyland is more comprehensive than some other definitions and can be used to refer to authorial identity. Therefore, this study adopts Hyland's definition of stance.

In order to reveal how native and Thai writers of AL project their authority or represent themselves, the present researcher attempts to gather a set of stance markers that are

likely to show the linguistic features or rhetorical strategies that writers adopt to situate their position or stance in the different sections of RAs. Since the present research corresponds to Hyland's and Pho's in terms of the target genre explored and the research method used, stance markers that have been developed by both researchers were adapted in this study.

According to Hyland (2005a, 2008), stance concerns writer-oriented features of interaction, while engagement is reader-oriented interaction. Since reader engagement is beyond the scope of the present study, only four elements (Hedges, Boosters, Attitude Markers, Self-mention) of stance which concerns writer-oriented features are used in the present study based on Hyland's model of stance (2005a). Pho (2013), similar to Hyland's metadiscourse features, realized stance as *writer-oriented features* of interaction. Pho (2013) proposed the model of linguistic features that indicate authorial stance, and analyzed them quantitatively and qualitatively. The study does not merely count the frequency of stance markers, but also considers the context of how they are used. Since Pho's linguistic realization of authorial stance was derived from Hyland's model of metadiscourse and there have been limited number of previous studies found which adopted Pho's (2013) linguistic realizations of authorial stance, attitudinal stance words of Pho (2013) were added to Hyland's (2005a) stance markers to provide more informed findings. The rationale behind the adoption of the stance linguistic features from the two models in the present study is that one of the two models has been adapted in previous studies (Hyland, 2011; Kuhi, et al., 2013; Lin, 2013; Pho, 2008, 2013; Rahimivand & Kuhi, 2014) when examining writers' self-representation in RAs, which are similar to the present study in terms of the target genre and the method of the study.

2.6 Summary

In brief, this chapter has introduced frames used by different scholars in terms of semiotics of identity and self-representation in writing. The previous studies on authorial identity in academic writing that covers the contextual factors that shape how writers reveal their identity in academic writing especially in RA genre were discussed. These studies also enable recommendations for English writing in several ways: for instance, understanding cultural differences in authorial self-representation in writing. After that, the model of linguistic realization of authorial stance used in the present study was described. The theoretical framework used in the present study was discussed. The next chapter discusses the methodology used in the present study.



CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter discusses details in the research design used in the present study. The corpus description is presented, followed by the method of corpus compilation. After that, the frequency analysis and keyword analysis in identifying the stance linguistic features that show authorial self-representation, textual analysis in explaining how those linguistic features reveal in context, as well as thematic analysis in discovering themes and subthemes of the interview data are discussed. The description of informants and interviews is provided. The reliability and validity are also highlighted. This chapter also explains the ethical and legal considerations in the conduct of this study. Finally, the pilot study's findings as well as the justifications for further study are also explained.

3.1 Research Design

A research design is necessary as it operates as a blueprint for the research to obtain answer for the research questions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). In order to obtain answer for the research questions, the present study applied qualitative and quantitative technique in its analysis so that a better understanding of the use of authorial self-representation expressed by the native English and Thai writers could be obtained. As Lin (2013) and Baker (personal communication, August 17, 2017) point out, studies on authorial self-representation should take into account not only the quantitative analysis, but also the qualitative one. Therefore, the aim of this study is not only to conduct quantitative analyses of the stance linguistic features which convey authorial

self-representation but also offer qualitative inquiry of their functions in the context in which they are found.

The intent of qualitative research is to understand a particular situation, event, role, and interaction in the context of the social and cultural situation (Locke, Spirduso, & Silverman, 2000). This study selected qualitative method because qualitative inquiry involves the attempt to interpret word or phrase meanings as they relate to or are expressed by people (Denzin & Lincoln, 2003). This method is commonly used for exploring the opinions of participants about particular issues. It is more suited to answering questions of 'how' or 'why' about social and cultural phenomena in natural settings in terms of experiences, meanings and opinions of informants which the investigator has little or no control (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Previous research on authorial self-representation issues in academic writing employed both quantitative corpus-based methodology and qualitative methodology, that is, by first searching the corpus for a given target item, followed by counting the number of occurrences of target item in the corpus, and then calculating relative frequencies (or normalized frequencies) in order to identify or select a particular type or group of stance linguistic features that are likely to reveal authorial self-representation in academic texts and finally conducting detailed text analysis (Blagojević, 2009; Khamkhien, 2014; Kuhl, Tofigh, & Babaie, 2013; McCrostie, 2008; Rahimivand & Kuhl, 2014). In addition to applying both corpus frequency count and text analysis, some researchers used interviews to investigate to what extent these stance linguistic features reflect authorial self-representation (Hyland, 2001, 2002a, 2002b; Lin, 2013; Perez Llantada, 2007).

Applying corpora to authorial self-representation or identity studies enabled the present researcher to understand issues of identity from viewpoints that might not be able to be captured through qualitative text analysis and interviews because of the regular and recurring patterns of language use observed through frequency counts, concordances, or keyword analyses that can inform the conventionally preferred practices of collectives and individuals (Lin, 2013). Connor states that the use of corpora plays a great role in the study of socio-cultural aspect in academic genres (as cited in Flowerdew, 2012). Similarly, Hyland (2008) states that "the value of a corpus is that it gives us information about the frequency of items and how they are used" (p.4). As a result, results of quantitative analyses of a corpus-based (frequency count) serve as good supplements for qualitative results obtained from text analysis and interviews (Lin, 2013). Pho (2008) also indicates that a frequency analysis would provide the necessary evidence for a researcher to focus on frequently used features under particular communicative purposes. Therefore, the corpus methodology was included in the study.

Although most studies on text analysis use basic descriptive analysis, few of them focus on the use of significance tests of a frequency count. Descriptive analysis does not aim to test for significance. Rather they basically explain the data in some way. The most basic measure is a frequency count, a simple totaling of the number of instances of something that occurs in a corpus (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). What is still uncertain about a calculation of relative frequency is how important such a difference is (Hunston, 2006). One of the emphases in comparing corpora is looking at the similarities and differences between the two corpora or "how similar are two corpora" (Kilgariff, 2001, p. 233). Therefore, Kilgariff (2001) presents a chi-square

as a method for evaluating corpus similarity measures. Notwithstanding, log-likelihood calculations are also often used to rank differences between corpora (Hunston, 2006). As such, to better understand the frequency data observed in corpora, corpus linguists choose statistical measures which permit to test the *significance* of any differences observed. What to measure is subject to a certain amount of “random” fluctuation. Significance tests can be used to measure how likely it is that a particular result is a coincidence, due to chance. The two most common uses of significance tests in corpus linguistics are the calculation of keywords and collocations.

A Keyword in this analysis is defined as “a word that is unusually frequent in a corpus compared to the frequency of the same word in a different corpus” (Baker 2006, p.125). To obtain keywords, the significance test of every word that occurs in a corpus was done by means of comparing its frequency with that of the same word in a reference corpus. This procedure typically involves, then, many thousands of significance tests being calculated. This is all carried out in those tools (e.g., Wordsmith (Scott, 1996) and AntConc (Anthony, 2014)) that support keyword extraction (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). Keywords are therefore “an extremely rapid and useful way of directing researchers to elements in texts that are unusually frequent (or infrequent), helping to remove researcher bias and paving the way for more complex analyses of linguistic phenomena” (Baker, 2004, p.348). The keyword analysis can direct the researcher to significant lexical differences between texts.

Many researchers have used keyword analysis to compare word frequency across two corpora, such as Gardezi and Nesi (2009) and Hewings, Coffin, and North (2009). However, a limited number of studies on authorial self-representation have been found

to adopt keyword analysis in comparing word frequency of each stance linguistic feature of authorial self-representation between two corpora. This study therefore used keyword analysis to be supportive to the findings from the normed frequency counts. The analysis technique of keyword analysis was adapted from Quaglio (2009) who used keyword analysis as a supportive approach to normed frequency in her book reporting on a linguistic study comparing the language of a popular American television situation comedy, *Friends*, to natural conversation. Moreover, to gain support further from a scholar in the field of Corpus Linguistics, the present researcher had discussed about the keyword analysis technique with the key scholar, Professor Dr. Anthony Laurence, a software developer of AntConc corpus software (please see Anthony, 2017a, January 22; 2017b, May 4; 2017c, August 3). This analysis technique, including statistical significance test of keyword analysis considered in the present study will be discussed further in details in the section of the corpus-based analysis.

Notwithstanding, the study applied the quantitative technique for the statistical significance test of similarities and differences to each individual linguistic feature as keyword or significant lexical differences, but not to each type or category (i.e., first person pronouns, hedges, boosters and attitude expression) of stance linguistic features between the two corpora across each section of RAs. Afros and Schryer (2009) point to the fact that evaluation arises from the text and is not encoded in a single lexicogrammar item in which an application of strictly quantitative methodology is less effective, consistent with Burrows (1992) and Sinclair (1991) who advise that statistical tests generally assume that observed data are independent of each other. But linguistic features of texts are not independent variables: they normally occur in clusters. Thus, the statistical side had hardly been used. The present study is, therefore,

based primarily on qualitatively exploring authorial self-representation in RAs by considering the influence of socio-culture under rhetorical purposes. Furthermore, given that “the comparison of a single linguistic feature across corpora is much more straightforward than the comparison of groups of features” (Quaglio, 2009, p. 52), the analysis of similarities and differences in each type or category of stance linguistic features between the two corpora under different rhetorical purposes was based on relative frequency or normed count. Norming is required for comparisons of corpora of different sizes (Quaglio, 2009), which would make interpretations of individual texts much more reliable (Stubbs, 1996). Further in-depth discussion about the merits and limitation in applying the statistical significance test will be made in the section on corpus-based analysis.

The study also applied the qualitative techniques in its analysis so that a better understanding of the use of stance linguistic features in the context could be obtained. Baker (2006) points out that “corpus analysis is useful for telling us what is normal or not normal in a text population-it can tell us where we should dig, but the spadework is still going to be a human endeavor” (p.180). According to Afros and Schryer (2009), the nature of evaluation requires examining lexico-grammatical or discourse units in their context and co-text rather than from individual lexico-grammatical elements. In the same vein, it is the characteristic of human language that the analysis of any stance markers needs to be done in context as any linguistic realization can be interpreted as having either propositional (ideational) or metadiscoursal meaning (Hyland, 2012; Rahimivand & Kuhi, 2014). In addition, it is important to note that the corpus-based analysis points to patterns in language (both frequent and rare) and somewhat decontextualized information which must be

interpreted further to suggest the existence of discourses, through close examination of single texts in their original form (Baker, 2006). As a result, although identity-related studies seem to be more qualitative in nature, results of quantitative analyses of a corpus-based approach (frequency count and keyword analysis) serve as good supplements for qualitative results obtained from text analysis and interviews (Lin, 2013).

Moreover, as Hyland (2008) and Lin (2013) state, the text analysis supplemented with interviews with experienced writers can help discover informants' attitudes about writing and their discursual preferences and practices. To contribute to the understanding of self-representation in a significant way, qualitative one-on-one semi-structured interviews were conducted with native English and Thai writers in order to triangulate results obtained from frequency count, keyword analysis and text analysis with the hope that these insiders' perspective could help supplement the present researcher's subjective interpretation. The present study aims at exploring self-representation in RAs by considering the influence of cultural variation. Baker (personal communication, August 17, 2017) advocates that a good corpus analysis will always try to find explanations for the findings and to do this, a more qualitative approach is needed. Thus, the mixed methods design (Creswell, 2012) is suitable for this study.

3.2 Corpus Description

Corpus studies draw on collections of texts that are usually stored and analyzed electronically. They look at the occurrence and reoccurrence of particular linguistic features to see how and where they occur in the discourse. They may look at words

that typically occur together (collocations) or they may look at language use in general, or they may look at the use of a particular linguistic feature in a particular area, such as spoken and written academic discourse (Paltridge, 2006).

3.2.1 Corpus Gathering Method

The corpus consisted of the set of research articles (RAs) in Applied Linguistics (AL) downloadable from journals. The free text analysis and concordance program, which is known as Antconc 3.4.4, requires that the files should be in text file format. Although some of the papers at the journal websites were in PDF format, the PDF files of the RAs were first converted into text files.

To sum up, the total number of RAs used in the present study was 60 RAs in AL. In previous studies, the number of RAs used as a sample for data analysis varied considerably. Some studies (such as by Kuhi et al., 2013; Lin, 2013; Pho, 2008, 2013; Rahimivand & Kuhi, 2014) analyzed between 30-40 RAs on authorial identity or self-representation. However, a large number was always recommended for future studies. For example, in Lin's (2013) study, 36 RAs were used as a representative sample which produced significant results. Hence, sixty RAs used in the present study should be a suitable representation of the AL RAs from each context (native English and Thai contexts) and they should offer insightful findings. Even though the present researcher could not obtain the Thai corpus from the Scopus-indexed journals due to the scarce number of RAs written by single Thai writers in these journals, the present researcher tried her best to take into consideration the significance of the present research that could contribute to a useful resource and pedagogical value for novice writers regardless of whether they are native or nonnative English speakers. The present

researcher therefore chose relatively well-established journals for both corpora as an attempt at reliable quality of sampling.

3.2.2 Corpus Collection

The data of this study were collected through corpora of RA in AL. In this study, research articles in AL were used to collect data: 60 AL RAs. There were two sub-corpora or two collections of texts: (1) sub-corpora 1: Native English writers and (2) sub-corpora 2: Thai writers.

- **Sub-corpora of Native English Writers**

The international journals chosen for this study were professional English journals listed in Scopus, which are published by Elsevier. This corpus consisted of 30 AL RAs from international journals published during the years 2007-2017. Only articles with section heading format (Introduction-Method-Results-Discussion/Conclusion) were selected for this study. The selected articles were from the world's leading peer-reviewed journals with a very high impact factor (>1.2), based on the journal title list in the Scopus Source June 2015. The four selected journals are as follows: (1) English for Specific Purposes (1.533); (2) TESOL Quarterly (1.331); (3) Language Testing (1.297); and (4) Journal of English for Academic Purposes (1.211). The articles of these journals are related to AL and are selected according to their impact factor presented in the year 2014. Due to a limited number of English RAs with comprise independent section headings (I-M-R-D/C), the native corpus was chosen based on purposive sampling. The '*nativeness*' of writers could not be easily traced. Thus, the writers' affiliation and background were used as a guide. Table 3.1 shows the

description of this sub-corpora of native English writers with corpus size of 206,773 words. A list of the bibliographic information of articles is in Appendix E.

Table 3.1

Description of Sub-corpora of Native English Writers

Articles	Total writers	Total words
N1	2	7835
N2	1	6693
N3	3	7679
N4	1	5951
N5	3	6159
N6	1	6088
N7	1	5303
N8	3	5045
N9	3	8879
N10	1	5930
N11	2	8510
N12	2	5373
N13	4	7901
N14	1	7580
N15	1	6625
N16	1	7918
N17	2	6790
N18	3	7901
N19	2	7091
N20	2	8876
N21	3	8038
N22	2	7327
N23	1	6249
N24	4	6669
N25	7	7311
N26	1	6020
N27	3	6616
N28	1	7304
N29	2	6948
N30	1	4164
Total		206,773

- **Sub-corpora of Thai Writers**

Thai journals are academic journals published by universities in Thailand. The selected Thai journals were peer-reviewed journals, listed in the Group 1 quality (the highest quality group) of Thai-Journal Citation Index Centre (TCI), which can be accessed from the website http://www.kmutt.ac.th/jif/public_html/. This corpus consisted of 30 English RAs in AL written by Thai writers. The *Thainess* can be easily traced by names and affiliation. Thirty RAs with I-M-R-D/C format were chosen from the peer-reviewed journals published during the years 2007-2017 by Thai universities. They are: (1) The New English Teacher; (2) Journal of English Studies Thammasat University; (3) LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network; (4) Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHNU); (5) NIDA Journal of Language and Communication; (6) Silapakorn Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities and Arts; (7) Journal of Liberal Arts (Prince of Songkla University); and (8) Varasan Manusatsungkomasat Ubonratchatani (Journal of Humanities and Social Sciences, Ubonratchatani University). Only the first five journals were exclusively articles written in English, while the last three journals accept articles either in Thai or English in which articles in AL were also included. Due to a limited number of English RAs which comprise independent section headings: I-M-R-D/C in AL, the Thai corpus was chosen based on purposive sampling. Table 3.2 shows the description of this sub-corpora of Thai writers with corpus size of 115,635 words. A list of the bibliographic information of articles is in Appendix E.

Table 3.2

Description of Sub-corpora of Thai Writers

Articles	Total writers	Total words
T1	1	4491
T2	2	6248
T3	1	3083
T4	1	3035
T5	2	2894
T6	1	3266
T7	1	3044
T8	3	3977
T9	1	984
T10	1	2153
T11	1	2645
T12	1	4086
T13	1	1802
T14	2	2747
T15	2	5649
T16	2	4956
T17	1	4772
T18	1	5611
T19	1	4124
T20	2	6316
T21	2	3354
T22	2	3780
T23	2	1980
T24	1	4169
T25	2	3854
T26	2	4351
T27	1	7069
T28	2	4955
T29	2	3516
T30	1	2368
Total		115,635

3.3 Corpus Analysis

The analysis of similarities and differences between the two corpora was based on overall frequency counts. In using the frequency in corpus analysis, Lin (2013) concluded that "frequently occurring words employed by a group of people repeatedly may inform us about the conventionalized ways of presenting authorial presence in a

particular discipline; words with lower frequency, on the other hand, are very likely to imply non-standard use" (p.39).

3.3.1 Corpus Preparation

Prior to the corpus analysis, all abstracts, acknowledgments, footnotes, end notes, reference lists, linguistic examples and titles were unwanted from the analysis to prevent the interference of non-authorial stance features. The corpus was analysed through the following steps. Firstly, all stance markers were imported into Antconc 3.4.4, a concordance programme, to identify elements which convey the authorial stance. Secondly, each of the elements found was analysed manually according to the context in which it occurs in order to make sure it conveys the authorial stance. Finally, the present researcher decided to norm all frequencies to a base of 10,000 words, the same base used by Lin (2013), Perez-Llantada (2007), and Pho (2013). Since the concordance lines of linguistic features use in text generated from the AntConc were manually checked, linguistic features that were difficult to identify because of having several different grammatical functions and could not provide accurate frequency counts (e.g., can, could) were not counted and at times discarded from the list. The final linguistic features are listed in Appendix A.

When comparing corpora of different sizes, the raw frequency of linguistic features must be normed (or normalized) to a common base to achieve accurate comparisons (Quaglio, 2009). To conduct frequency count, the following procedure in using the function in the AntConc 3.4.4 was adapted from Lin (2013). At first, the Word List function in the AntConc 3.4.4 was used to generate word frequency lists of the two corpora. Then the stance markers in Appendix A were imported into the AntConc 3.4.4

in order that the process of filtering out words which were not stance markers could be done through the function named the Word List Range Option. This function produced two final wordlists which consisted of word frequency lists of stance markers of native English and Thai writers. Among words in the two word frequency lists, only words that were able to convey the writers' stance and occurred at high frequency were carefully examined (i.e., the 20 most frequently identified hedges through each rhetorical section were examined through concordance lines and later the rhetorical text analysis). The present researcher adapted the cutoff point, the top 20 frequently used stance linguistic features, based on Lin (2013) which are similar to the present study in terms of the approximate text totaling words of sub-corpora. In this analytical procedure, Keyword analysis would serve as a secondary tool to help sort out some stance markers that were salient or characteristic to distinguish the self-representation of the Thai writers from that of the native English writers for another concordance analysis and later the rhetorical text analysis. Keyword analysis will be discussed in depth in the next section.

3.3.2 Keyword Analysis

To avoid the question of whether overall similarity of frequency may conceal individual differences, corpus tools were used to identify words within the RA discourse that were particularly salient, and to prompt further qualitative investigation and comparison with the discourse analysis framework. Keywords are words that occur noticeably more (or less) frequently (overuse or underuse) in the target corpus when compared to a reference corpus (Pojanapunya & Todd, 2016). Moreover, according to Anthony (2017c), keywords are defined as significantly unusually frequent words in a target corpus compared with a reference corpus. The 'unusually

frequent' is essentially used as a synonym for "important" or "characteristic". Thus, keyword analysis is often used to find important or characteristic words in a target corpus, whereas a simple word list only provides frequency.

The concordance program was used to find which words were 'key,' occurred statistically more often in one wordlist when compared to another reference wordlist. Then all of the words that did occur more often than expected in one corpus when compared to another were put together into another list, called a keyword list. Thus, keywords are useful to remove researcher bias and paving the way for more complex analyses of linguistic phenomena (Baker, 2004). And it is this keyword list which is likely to be more useful in suggesting lexical items that could warrant further investigation.

To sum up, keyword analysis is a helpful tool to help the researcher to find significant lexical differences between two texts and can reveal frequencies in a text which is unlikely to be matched by researcher intuition (Baker, 2006). Keyness calculations are derived from four sources: the frequency of a word in the target corpus, its frequency in the comparative corpus, the total number of words in the target corpus, and the total number of words in the comparative corpus. However, it should be noted that comparisons against different comparative corpora will contribute to different keyword lists, and therefore keywords belong to the particular comparison (Pojanapunya & Todd, 2016).

- **Statistical Significance Test of Keyness**

Several statistical significance tests are used in corpus-based studies depending on the nature of the analysis. For the comparison of raw frequencies of features in different corpora, the chi-square or log-likelihood (LL) scores are often used. According to Pojanapunya and Todd (2016), the issue of choosing the statistics for keyword analysis is “a key methodological concern, but as yet the issues are debatable and no clear best statistical practice has been established” (p. 2).

The keyword analysis was conducted in an attempt to characterize the genre or text under consideration or lead to a detailed analysis of the use of selected specific keywords which is called genre-oriented research. Pojanapunya and Todd (2016) justify that log-likelihood (LL) highlights rather common words which are likely to be used in genre-oriented research. All identified keywords (or words which are key) are considered in the analysis and are often taken as indicating style or lexico-grammatical features and patterns in order to characterize genre or text, (Pojanapunya & Todd, 2016). Since this present study is genre-oriented research, LL primarily seems to be well-suited. To sum up, in the present study, the LL test was used instead of chi-square for two reasons: several comparisons involved very high frequencies and as Oakes (1998, as cited in Quaglio, 2009) points out, the higher the frequency counts, the more likely it is that the chi-square test will show significance. The chi-square appears unreliable when the expected frequency is less than 5, which possibly results in overestimates for any high-frequency words (Dunning, 1993; Rayson and Garside, 2000), meaning that LL is the more reliable statistic (Dunning, 1993) as well as the more commonly used tool (Pojanapunya & Todd, 2016). The second reason is that the LL does not assume a normal distribution, thus, the LL value is used instead (Dunning

1993) which does not suffer the same problems as chi-square does with unbalanced sample sizes. Oakes (1998) points out that in corpus analysis, much of the data is skewed. Words don't just occur as random collections; for example, the presence of an article (e.g. *the* or *a*) is incredibly likely to mean that a noun or adjective will follow it. One way to overcome the issue of skewness is to use log-normal distributions, so the LL test is useful (Baker, 2006).

As different researchers will engage in different types of corpora and different research questions, the common used cutoff points is unlikely and possibly undesirable in any case. After deriving a list of keywords, a researcher may be uncertain about how many words to be examined or how small to specify the p value (Baker, 2004). According to the online group discussion with Anthony (2017a), he stated that AntConc shows all keyness values by default. The ranking is by keyness values, so we can choose the top x words above a particular keyness value which corresponds to a p value of the analyst's choice. The present research's choice was suggested by Anthony (2017a) of using Donning's LL ratio as the statistical measure (Rayson & Garside, 2000) in comparing the frequencies of a given linguistic feature against the total number of words in the two different sized corpora. The high LL value or keyness suggests that a word has a more significant relative frequency difference between the two corpora. A LL of 3.8 or higher is significant at the level of $p < 0.05$ and a LL of 6.6 or higher is significant at $p < 0.01$. The p value (a number between 0 and 1) indicates the amount of confidence that we have that a word is key due to chance alone, i.e. the smaller the p value, the more likely that the word's strong presence in one of the sub-corpora is not due to chance but a result of the author's (conscious or subconscious) choice to use that word repeatedly (Baker, 2006). The present researcher reported the significance

of individual stance linguistic features (e.g. use of *probably* in A and in B) in the next chapter.

Finally, it should be stressed that this study was not primarily based on the statistical significance tests in the interpretation of the results because the present researcher considered the statistical significance of individual stance linguistic features to be supportive to the text analysis of discourse functions of particular linguistic features which could yield interesting or valuable findings. For example, the analysis of boosters in the method section included many stance linguistic features, in which the word, *reliable*, was one of these features. Even though the comparison between the native English corpus and the Thai corpus did not show any statistically significant difference it, *reliable*, was nonetheless included in the text analysis because of its high frequency of occurrences as a contributing feature defining an overall tendency towards this particular type (Boosters) of stance linguistic features in the method section.

- **Procedures of Using Keyword List Tool**

In order to explore to what extent native English and Thai writers are similar to and distinct from each other in using stance markers in the RAs of AL, AntConc 3.4.4 (Anthony, 2014b), a free text analysis and concordance program, was used to generate wordlists, collocations, keywords, clusters, etc. First, the PDF files of the 60 RAs were converted into text files in acceptable format to be imported to the AntConc 3.4.4 after excluding all acknowledgement, appendices, reference lists, linguistic examples and texts in tables. Second, the corpus analysis was done following the research objectives. In order to show how native English and Thai writers represented themselves in the

AL, word frequency analysis was done with sub-corpora, which is a collection of texts extracted from the main corpus for different research objectives. The frequently occurring stance markers used by writers of different cultures in AL can be identified through each sub-corpus. For instance, since one of the objectives of the present study was to explore the native English and Thai writers' self-representation in AL across each section of RAs, two sub-corpora for each of the four sections of RAs— the AL Native English Introduction Section corpus which consisted of 30 RAs' introduction section in AL written by the native English writers and the AL Thai Introduction Section corpus which contained 30 RAs' introduction section in AL written by the Thai writers were developed. Next, how to use the AntConc Keyword list tool will be explained. The following stages in using the function in the AntConc 3.4.4 will be adapted from Anthony (2014a).

In the first stage, the AL Thai Introduction Section corpus (target corpus) was loaded and opened into AntConc. The Keyword List tool helps to find the unusually frequent words when compared to the same words in the reference corpus. The measure of unusualness is often called the keyness strength. Thus, words with significantly different frequency from those in the reference corpus are called 'keywords'. Figure 3.1 displays the Keyword List tool screen.

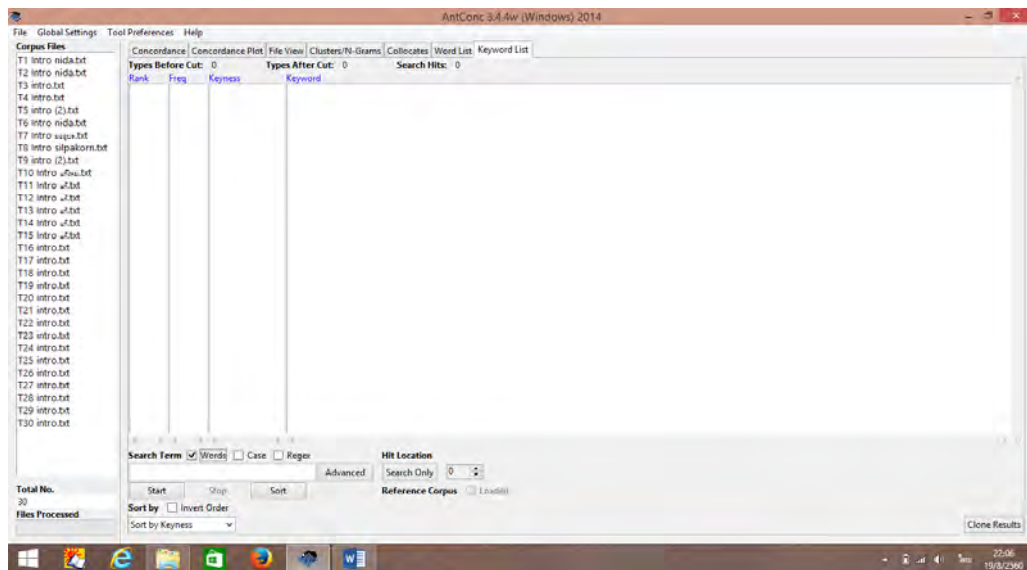


Figure 3.1. The Keyword List tool screen

In the second stage, the reference corpus, the AL Native English Introduction Section corpus, was uploaded in Keyword List tool preference menu. Figure 3.2 displays the Keyword list tool preference menu.

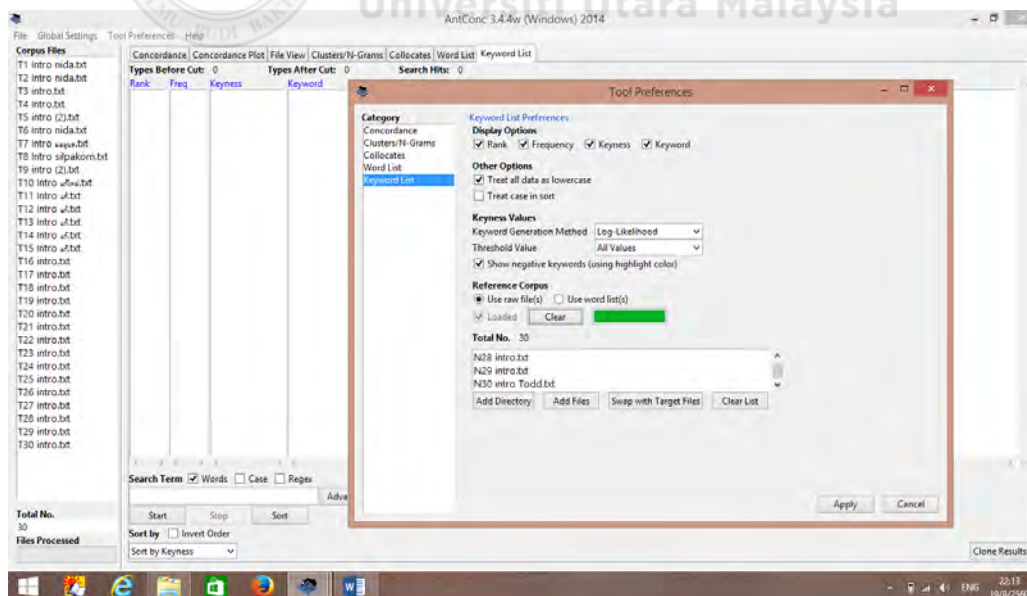


Figure 3.2. Keyword List tool preference menu

At the last stage, the keyword lists were generated, containing the words which were ‘key’ together with their frequencies and Keyness values. Figure 3.3 displays the Keyword list result. The result of a full keyword list was then copied and pasted to *Excel’s Advanced Filter* tool whereby the stance linguistic features in Appendix A were simply filtered.

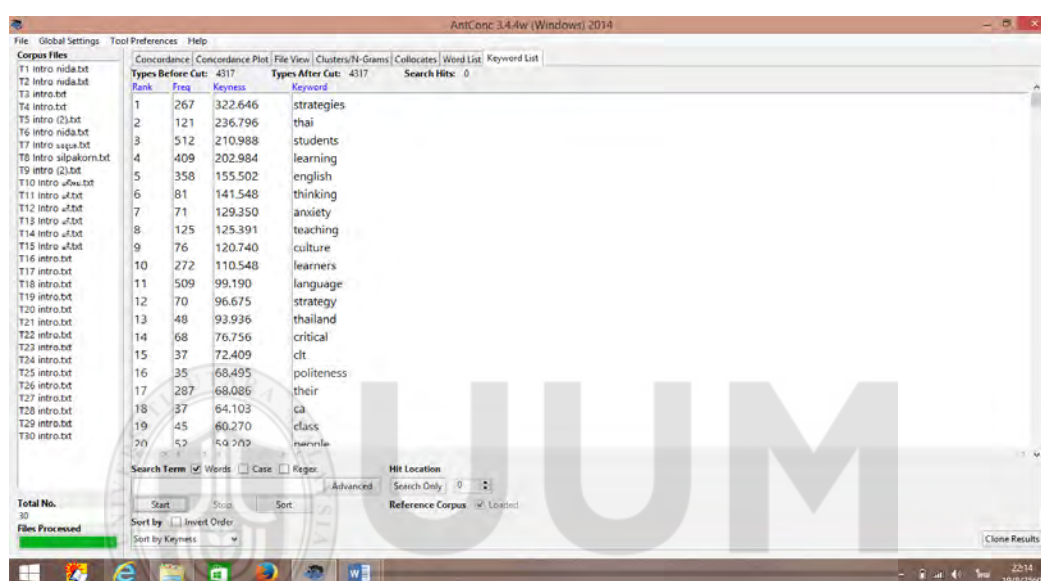


Figure 3.3. Keyword list result

The keyness value of stance linguistic features were then sorted out and then those stance linguistic features that were keywords or likely to distinguish the self-representation of the native English from that of the Thai writers were selected for another concordance analysis as a helping tool for further rhetorical text analysis. The keyword lists are displayed in Appendix F. Figure 3.4 displays concordance analysis tool.

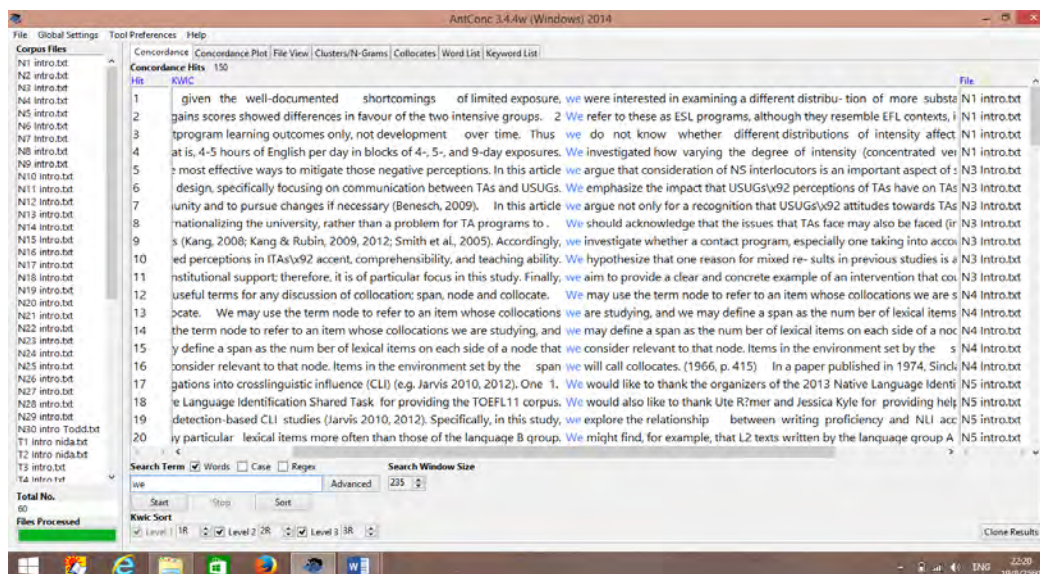


Figure 3.4. Concordance tool

To sum up, after gaining the frequency count of each individual stance linguistic feature through the Word List tool, only words that were able to convey the writers' stance or self-representation and occurred with high frequency, the top 20 frequently used stance linguistic features, were carefully examined in text. However, this study attempted further to identify individual stance linguistic features that were keywords or likely to distinguish the self-representation of the native English from that of the Thai writers. Finally, those identified stance linguistic features were then analyzed in RA text by using the Concordance tool as a helping tool in AntConc for attaining the concordance lines.

3.3.3 Text Analysis

With respect to the text analysis technique, self-representation or identity issues in academic writing has long been studied by means of the text analysis (Hyland, 2001b, 2002a, 2002b; Ivanic & Camp, 2001; Lin, 2013; MaCrostie, 2008; Mohammad, Zeinab & Naserib, 2014; Petch-Tyson, 1998; Pho, 2008; Rahimivand & Kuhi, 2014),

results of which are related to the background of the writers in representing themselves linguistically and rhetorically in writing. It is needed to go beyond reporting the numbers to consider context in order to provide interpretation and explanation for quantitative findings. Baker (personal communication, August 17, 2017) advocates that a good corpus analysis will always try to find explanations for the findings and to do this, a more qualitative approach is needed.

Qualitatively, among the 20 most frequently occurring stance linguistic features through each section of RAs (see Appendix F), the concordance lines of words which potentially distinguished the self-representation of the native English writers from that of the Thai writers based on the high frequency as well as keyword value were analyzed thoroughly one by one to see how they were used by writers in the influences of different cultural backgrounds across sections of RAs in projecting their authorial presence. Text analyses were to identify similar or different degrees of authorial self-representation, and interpret the rhetorical intentions of the native English and Thai writers behind the use of these features. The text analysis was done based on the present researcher's subjective interpretation, so the interview data were used to triangulate the text data in order to assist the present researcher to obtain more objective data sources. Table 3.3 is the summary of data collection techniques and analysis for this study's research questions.

Table 3.3

Summary of Data Collection and Analysis Method

Research Questions	Data Collection	Data Analysis
1) What are the frequency distributions of stance linguistic features as used by the native English and Thai writers across different rhetorical sections of RAs?	Sixty AL RAs were used to collect data: (1) the corpus of 30 RAs written by the native English writers and (2) the corpus of 30 RAs written by the Thai writers.	Corpus-based analysis: Normed frequency count
2) How do the native English and Thai writers express their stance in their RAs across different rhetorical sections of RAs?	Sixty AL RAs were used to collect data: (1) the corpus of 30 RAs written by the native English writers and (2) the corpus of 30 RAs written by the Thai writers.	Text analysis
3) What are the issues and challenges faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication?	One-on-One interview with eight experienced writers in AL: four are native English and four are Thai writers	Thematic analysis

3.4 Informants

The purposive sampling procedure was used to determine the informants. Sullivan (2001) highlights that purposive sampling is based on the present researcher's judgment and prior knowledge that suggest element of the sample to best serve the purposes of the study and to provide the best information. The snowball sampling was primarily used as a form of purposive sampling in the present study. Snowball sampling starts from collecting a few informants from the particular group of people of interest in the study who then encourage other people to participate. Those people then encourage others to participate, and the process continues until a desired sample size is reached (Sullivan, 2001). There are no rules for sample size in qualitative research; more important is the location of information rich cases (Patton, 1990). The

average number of informants can range from six to twelve and often eight as an ideal number (Patton, 1990). Informants are encouraged to participate until the data collected reach the point of saturation.

In the present study, the process of snowball sampling started after having contact with the first informant, whom the present researcher met at a conference held by Chulalongkorn University Language Institution (CULI), Thailand. After meeting with him, the researcher asked him to circulate information about the study to potential informants in his university or other universities. Potentially interested parties were then provided with an email of contacting the researcher or the researcher herself was provided with an email of contacting interested parties. The point of saturation that the researcher reached was eight which seemed to be in alignment with expected numbers in qualitative studies (Patton, 1990).

3.4.1 Description of Informants

The interviewees or informants consisted of experienced writers in AL. To carry out the analysis, eight experienced writers in AL affiliated to different universities in Thailand were interviewed, four are native English and four are Thai writers (see Table 3.4). To ensure the consistency, the informants selected for the study were all permanent staff (either senior lecturers or full professors) and had more than 5 years' experience of publishing internationally in AL to make sure that they were sufficiently immersed in the RA convention. None of the informants' articles was included in the corpus-based analysis.

Table 3.4

Profile of the Informants

	Academic Title	Experience (publishing articles in journals)	English nativeness	Editor of journal in AL	h-index by Scopus
Anthony	Assoc. Prof. Dr.	30 years	NS	✓	7
Bill	Assoc. Prof. Dr.	30 years	NS	✓	5
Cara	Senior Lecturer Dr.	10 years	NS		1
William	Senior Lecturer Dr	6 years	NS		1
Any	Assist. Prof. Dr.	6 years	Thai		2
Buppa	Assoc. Prof. Dr.	10 years	Thai		-
Chaba	Assist. Prof. Dr.	8 years	Thai		1
Wongchai	Senior Lecturer Dr.	8 years	Thai	✓	-

3.4.2 Interviews

In this study, one-on-one semi-structured interviews were conducted with eight informants who have experiences in writing RAs in AL. One-on-one or individual interview can provide significant information in breadth and depth from the individual participant's perspective (Creswell, 2012). One-on-one interview is also the appropriate approach to explore the issues and challenges faced by the native English and Thai writers concerning their self-representation expressions and acceptance for publications at international level.

Even though the informants were requested to bring their RAs as indicated in the interview invitation letter, they were not required to show their RAs along if they felt uncomfortable. Three of them were willing to discuss the use of authorial self-representation in their own RAs. The present researcher adapted the interview protocols of Lin (2013) and Perez-Llantada (2007) who employed an interview tool to

discover the issues and challenges that might be faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and acceptance for publications at international level, which added to the findings obtained from corpus frequency analysis and rhetorical text analysis. In general, the interviews started with informants' background information about their history of international publication, including their perceptions of linguistic disadvantage among native English writers or Thai writers in international publication. Then the interview questions gradually narrowed down to informants' awareness of linguistic and rhetorical practices of authorial self-representation in RAs. The interview questions of the present study are listed in Appendix B.

Using a semi-structured interview that would gather data to answer the questions posed in this study, such as how they project authorial self-representation in their own research articles linguistically and rhetorically by discussing with informants their own discoursal practices and asking them to clarify reasons for their own choices, offered flexibility necessary in collecting rich and in-depth data. The semi-structured one-on-one interview, which took an average of one hour, was audio-taped for higher trustworthiness (Rudestam & Newton, 2007). To minimize the possibility of misinterpretation, the interview was transcribed verbatim.

To enhance the reliability and validity in the interviews, the present researcher takes up the reconception of rigor in qualitative research by Davies and Dodd (2002). The term *rigor*, in a general sense, refers to the reliability and validity of research (Davies & Dodd, 2002). Davies and Dodd (2002) argue for a sense of responsibility, accountability, partiality, and subjectivity within the qualitative research. Rather than

employing a standardized application of rules, both of them believe that good qualitative research can be achieved by careful attention to the research process through reflection and flexible interview by taking subjectivity into consideration. Interviewing is social interaction and a shared communication. There are needs to interact and engage with people during interviews. Accordingly, the interviews in the present research were carried out in personal settings to gain engagement with informants who were free to recount their experiences informally. The informants were chosen through existing social networks in AL discipline by using snowballing techniques. To put them at ease, the question of the interview began with experience sharing and a bit of small talk. Even though they were asked to bring their RAs along, they could show their text at their convenience. The space to share ideas and concepts was offered. In addition, trying to establish whether the present researcher's interpretation makes any sense to the subjects was done to ensure validity and reliability in this study. Thus, the present researcher avoided the incorrect interpretation of information by trying to build a friendly relationship, repeating and summarizing information and then questioning the informant to verify accuracy and affirm that the summaries could reflect their views or experiences.

- **Thematic analysis for interviews**

The thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013) was used to analyze the interviews in the present study. According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is a method used for “identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns (themes) within the data” (p.79). The reason the present researcher chose this method was that “rigorous thematic approach can produce an insightful analysis that answers particular research questions” (Braun & Clarke, 2006, p.97). Following Braun and Clarke (2006),

identifying themes in the interview data in the study was to capture the main idea about the data pertaining to the research question by summarizing the data into themes through a process of coding and representing the data.

The researcher followed Braun and Clarke's (2006) thematic analysis process to analyze interview data. Firstly, she transcribed verbatim the interview data and then read (and re-read) the transcripts and listen to the recordings back and forth to have a comprehensive understanding of the content and to search for meanings or patterns. Initial ideas were noted down. Secondly, once familiar with the data, the researcher started identifying initial codes, which comprise data that appear interesting and meaningful. Coding was done manually by writing notes on the texts to indicate potential patterns and using post-it notes to identify segments of the data. Thirdly, the researcher started to analyse codes, combine or split them to form an overarching theme. The researcher started thinking about the relationship between codes, subthemes, and themes. This phase ended up with a collection of themes, and sub-themes, and all extracts of data that have been coded in relation to them. Fourthly, all these identified themes were reviewed or checked whether they were related to the coded extracts and overall data set and whether there were any missing or additional data within themes that needed to be coded. In the last phase, the themes and potential subthemes within the data were refined and finalized in a concise name to give the reader a sense of what the theme is about.

- **Triangulation**

Hyland (2012) points that corpus analysis informs interpretations which can be supported by triangulation. Triangulation means multiple methods and sources of data,

for example, interviews of subject specialists about their communicative practices in order to “discover how individuals understand writing as a socially situated practice,” (Hyland, 2012, p.60). This study, therefore, employed triangulation in terms of the multiple research tools, that is, one-on-one semi-structured interviews with writers in order to triangulate results obtained from corpus-based methodological tool (i.e., frequency counts and keyword analysis) and textual analysis with the hope that these insiders’ perspectives could help supplement the present researcher’s subjective interpretations. The present researcher believes that results obtained from the combination of corpus analysis, text analysis and interviews in the study are likely to provide a more comprehensive understanding of discourse practice that were employed in the RA to project authorial self-representation.

3.4.3 Ethical and Legal Considerations

Ethics is the way to perceive rigor in our approach to research. An essential part of ethical practice is the acknowledgment and location of the researcher within the research method (Davies & Dodd, 2002). To make visible and open for examination, prior to the interviews the present researcher sought the permission from the informants by sending them the invitation letter as an acknowledgement of the research activity and location, with attachments of the informed consent letter for participation in the research and the permission letter to collect data from UUM College of Arts and Sciences, Malaysia. The informants in this study were on voluntary basis and were asked to sign the informed consent letter. The individual informants decided on their free schedule to be interviewed. They were informed of the purpose and nature of the study and were affirmed that there would be no harms or risks in participating in this study so that confidentiality and anonymity would be strictly used. Thus, pseudonym

was used instead of their names to protect their identity. After receiving the responses from willing informants, the present researcher emailed the letter of request for an appointment, enclosed by the response form and interview questions. All of these forms are included in Appendix E.

To help assess the validity of corpus tool and inform further research questions, the pilot study was carried out. The description of the pilot study and its findings as well as recommendations for the main study will be discussed in the next section.

3.5 Pilot Study

Methodologically, the pilot case can provide information about relevant field questions and about logistics (having the right things at the right place, at the right time) of the inquiry (Yin, 2009). Therefore, to help assess the validity of corpus tool and inform further research questions, the pilot study was done by analyzing 30 English RAs with section heading: I-M-R-D/C in the field of AL. Fifteen RAs were drawn from each of the four international journals: Journal of English for Academic Purposes, Language Testing, English for Specific Purposes, TESOL Quarterly, and the other 15 RAs were taken from each of the five Thai journals: PASAA, Journal of English Studies, LEARN Journal, Silapakorn Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities & Arts, Journal of Liberal Arts (Prince of Songkla University). Due to the limited accessibility to the journal database, the selection of RAs was based on purposive sampling. Pho (2013) used 30 RA introduction section as a sample for her pilot study. Compared to Pho's (2013) study, such a number of samples in the pilot study for this study can adequately represent the authorial visibility of the RAs used in the main study. Most importantly, the main purpose of a great many pilot samples proportionate to those in the main

study was to inform more potentially significant linguistic features that were unusually frequent in one corpus over the other, contributing to the further discussion of these linguistic features in the interviews conducted in the main study which provided more insights into the purpose behind the deployment of these linguistic features among the informants.

3.5.1 Main Findings of Pilot Study

By comparing the use of stance linguistic features between the native English writers and Thai writers in AL as shown in Table 3.5, the result, as a whole, reveals that the native English writers in AL used slightly more hedges, and epistemic stance words, while the Thai writers used slightly more attitude markers as well as attitudinal stance words. For boosters, the native English writers were found to use twice more boosters than the Thai writers. The noticeable difference is displayed in the Table 3.5 which reveals that the pronouns *I-we* were used eight times more by the native English writers than the Thai writers.

Table 3.5

Frequency of Seven Features of Stance Marker in the Native English and Thai Corpus

	Native English Corpus		Thai corpus	
	No of items	Items per 10,000 words	No of items	Items per 10,000 words
Self-mentions	199	18.6	11	1.7
Hedges	1,580	148.2	744	115.3
Boosters	805	75.5	432	30.4
Attitude markers	402	37.7	319	49.3
Attitudinal stance words	2,076	194.7	1,542	238.4
Epistemic stance words	1,104	103.5	537	83
Total	6,166	578.2	3,585	518.1

By examining the top 10 frequently used hedges, the ranking of each of the words was slightly different in both corpora based on frequency. The features *may*, *would*, *might*, *should*, *frequently*, *likely*, *often*, *tend to* and *suggest* were the top 10 frequently used hedges with a small difference in frequency between the two groups of writers.

In addition, the high frequently used hedges that ranked from 10 to 20 were also examined. It was found that some stance linguistic features such as *somewhat*, *perhaps*, appeared only in the native English writers as a downtoner to hedge discourse so that claims made could be more easily acceptable. In contrast, *mostly*, *mainly*, *sometimes* only occurred in the Thai writers' RAs, suggesting that they depended on factual evidence rather than on interpretative fact.

In the context, affective attitude markers such as *surprising(ly)* were used only by the native English writers. Broadly, the use of attitude markers, attitudinal stance words, and epistemic stance words did not much differ between the native English and Thai writers.

In terms of epistemic stance words and boosters, it was found that unusually infrequent words in the Thai writers' texts such as *indeed* were used by the native English writers, while words frequently used by the Thai writers were less frequent in the native English writers' texts, such as *really*. Moreover, when examining the top 10 frequently used boosters, it was found that the native English tended to be more explicit in the use of boosters to propose their evaluation, as marked in the high occurrences of *reliable* which occurred merely in the native English corpus to comment on the

importance of their method. In terms of the self-mentions, the Thai writers tended to use much less self-mentions than the native counterparts.

To conclude, results of the frequency analysis of the seven stance linguistic features and textual analysis showed that the native English writers appeared to be overt when expressing their authorial self-representation in using stance markers while the Thai writers' use of stance linguistic features was projected to achieve rhetorical purposes that weaken authorial self-representation expression.

By comparing the use of stance markers by both the native English writers and Thai writers in AL across rhetorical sections as shown in Table 3.6, the result, as a whole, reveals that the writers in AL used more hedges and boosters in expressing probability and certainty in the introduction and discussion/conclusion sections, which suggest that they tried to balance between tentativeness & assertiveness in the two sections. Boosters seemed to appear less in the method section but more in other sections of RAs. Attitude markers and attitudinal stance words appeared the most in the introduction section. Hedges and epistemic stance words were used the most in the discussion/conclusion sections. As for the use of self-mentions *I-we*, the method section had the highest occurrence.

Table 3.6

Frequency of Seven Features of Stance Markers in Various Sections of RAs

	Introduction	Method	Result	Discussion & Conclusion
Self-mentions	2.2	5.1	2.5	3
Hedges	45.3	25.5	31.2	53.4
Boosters	22.6	6.8	22.9	19.5
Attitude markers	8.6	3.4	3.7	6.8
Attitudinal stance words	76.9	27.1	46.6	61.3
Epistemic stance words	29.8	11.7	20.9	49.6
Total	185.4	79.6	127.8	193.6

3.5.2 Justifications for Further Study

The result of the pilot study informed essential points proposed for the actual study. Firstly, the main study should call for the manual check of every occurrence of each linguistic feature before achieving the final frequency number. To facilitate the manual check, therefore, the present researcher decided to combine epistemic stance of Pho (2013) because around 90 % of the linguistic features overlapped those in hedges and booster by Hyland (2005a). Based on the pilot study, those that did not overlap did not show any difference across corpora. Thus, it is unnecessary to take epistemic stance of Pho (2013) into consideration. However, attitudinal stance of Pho (2013) had approximately 10 % of linguistics features which overlapped those of attitude markers by Hyland (2005a). That is why the present researcher still considered those 90% of not overlapping in the main study. The final linguistic features in the main study are listed in the Appendix A.

Secondly, in an effort to find out whether the incidence of some stance markers appear only or rarely in the native English writers and in Thai writers' RAs are likely ascribed to the vocabulary repertoire, the main study would need the informants to give the first word that they used and why they used it. The sample were such as *surprising(ly)*, *really*, *indeed*, *would*. Moreover, it is possible for the AntCont (3.4.4 version) to compare the frequencies in one wordlist against another in order to determine which words occur statistically more often in wordlist A compared with wordlist B. Therefore, in addition to the normed frequency analysis, the present researcher decided to carry out statistical tests on keyness of each word to help gain more secondary evidence to support the saliency of each stance linguistic feature, which was likely to be more useful in suggesting lexical items that could warrant further text examination.

3.6 Summary

Chapter three describes the methodology which includes the research design, corpus description in terms of corpus gathering method and corpus collection, the corpus analysis consisting of corpus preparation, keyword analysis and text analysis, description of informants and interviews as well as ethical and legal consideration. Then main findings of the pilot study are reported. The chapter ends with the justifications based on the pilot study for further study.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research findings based on this study's research questions as follows: (1) What are the frequency distributions of stance linguistic features as used by the native English and Thai writers across different rhetorical sections of RAs?; (2) How do the native English and Thai writers express their stance in their RAs across different rhetorical sections of RAs?; and (3) What are the issues and challenges faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication? The data of this study were obtained from 60 AL RAs as well as eight one-on-one interviews.

The sixty RAs: (1) the corpus of 30 RAs written by the native English writers and (2) the corpus of 30 RAs written by the Thai writers were quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed to explore the stance linguistic features of authorial self-representation. To triangulate the findings from the corpus-based analysis and textual analysis, eight experienced writers in AL: four are native English and four are Thai writers were interviewed to share their experience in acceptance for international publication. This chapter also presents tables as suggested by Miles, Huberman and Saldaña (2014) in order to help the researcher as well as readers simplify complex data for better understanding of the substance and meaning of the research data.

4.2 Frequency Distribution of Stance Linguistic Features

To address Research Question 1 (What are the frequency distributions of stance linguistic features as used by the native English and Thai writers across different rhetorical sections of RAs?), the data were derived from a total of 60 RAs written by the native English (30 RAs) and Thai writers (30 RAs) by analyzing stance linguistic features from four types: First person pronouns, Hedges, Boosters, and Attitude markers/Attitudinal stance words. The frequency of each of the four stance linguistic features was generated by using the Word List tool in AntConc 3.4.4. The identification and frequency of each of the four stance linguistic features used by the native English and Thai writers are provided across rhetorical sections of RAs (I-M-R-D/C) by using the Word List tool in Antconc 3.4.4. As mentioned in the research design, keyword analysis serves as a secondary tool to help sort out some individual stance markers that are salient to distinguish the self-representation of the native English from that of Thai writers for the concordance analysis and further text analysis.

To achieve the keywords, LL value of the 20 most frequently identified stance linguistic features in the native English corpus and Thai corpus in each section of RAs were examined. The keyness-value (LL values) is calculated by log-likelihood (Rayson & Garside, 2000). The higher the LL or significance value, the more significant is the difference between the two frequency scores. It means that the LL of 3.8 or higher is significant at the level of $p < 0.05$, and the LL of 6.6 or higher is significant at $p < 0.01$. The list of keywords and their LL value was provided in the Appendix F.

First, this section reports the overall findings on the frequency of each of the four stance linguistic features in both the native English corpus and Thai corpus. Table 4.1 and Figure 4.1 display frequency of the four stance linguistic features in the Native English and Thai Corpus.

Table 4.1

Frequency of the Four Stance Linguistic Features in the Native English and Thai Corpus

	Native English Corpus (206,773 words)		Thai corpus (115,635 words)	
	No of items	Items per 10,000 words	No of items	Items per 10,000 words
I-we pronouns	655	31.66	28	2.41
Hedges	3,163	152.95	1,423	123.04
Boosters	935	45.19	475	41.05
Attitude markers and Attitudinal stance words	1,120	54.05	604	52.2
Total	5,873	283.85	2,530	218.7

When comparing the use of stance linguistic features between the native English writers and Thai writers, it is observed that the frequency between the native English corpus (283.85 items per 10,000 word) and the Thai corpus (218.7 items per 10,000 word) is not much different. To be more specific, the corpus data show that the native English writers in AL used more hedges, boosters, attitude markers and attitudinal stance words. The marked difference can be seen in the use of *I-we* pronouns which is approximately thirty times more frequent in the native English corpus than in the Thai corpus. These findings corroborates with Lin (2013) who found that L1 writers in AL

RAs used more hedges, boosters, and attitude markers than L2 as well as Dontcheva-Navratilova (2016) who found the lower rate of hedges and boosters in research articles by L2, Czech writers. Lin (2013) points out that L1 writers used more hedges and boosters than L2 writers could be that L1 writers because of their language proficiency may be more flexible in representing themselves with different rhetorical strategies using more and various types of stance markers. Next, the discussion is on the frequencies of each of the four stance linguistic features in the native English corpus and Thai corpus across rhetorical sections.

4.2.1 Stance Linguistic Features in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Sections

Table 4.2 shows the normed frequency of stance linguistic features in the Native English and Thai Corpus across rhetorical sections.

Table 4.2

Normed Frequency of Stance Linguistic Features in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Section

	I-we pronouns		Hedges		Boosters		Attitude Markers/Attitudinal Stance words	
	NE	Thai	NE	Thai	NE	Thai	NE	Thai
Introduction	7.44	0.95	46.33	40.73	11.65	12.88	16.34	20.23
Method	9.04	0.25	20.65	6.91	5.02	3.02	11.36	5.09
Result	4.69	0	27.75	17.29	14.02	12.53	8.75	6.3
Discussion/ Conclusion	10.49	1.21	58.22	58.11	14.5	12.62	17.6	20.58
frequency per 10,000 words	31.66	2.41	152.95	123.04	45.19	41.05	54.05	52.2

The overall results in Table 4.2 suggest that the native English writers use first person pronouns *I-we* more abundantly. The corpus data reveal that *I-we* pronouns are more frequent in the native English corpus than in the Thai corpus in every RA section. The *I-we* pronouns identified in the native English and Thai corpus account for 31.66 and 2.41 words (per 10,000 words) of the text totaling 206,773 words and 115,635 words, respectively, which reveal a striking difference in the use of first person pronouns between the two corpora. This finding is consistent with Hyland (2002a, 2002b), Kuhl et.al (2013), Perez Llantada (2007) and Yotimart and Noor Hashima's (2017) study. However, the finding contradicts other studies conducted by Lin (2013), Hinkel (2002) and McCrostie (2008) who found L2 writers to be using more self-mentions than the L1 writers. These three studies made the same conclusion in that despite the larger proportions of personal pronouns used by L2 writers, they were not used to express a strong degree of self-representation.

Hedges are those words which reduce the force of claims that the writers make. Table 4.2 shows the overall distribution of hedges in the two corpora across RA sections. Hedges identified in the native English corpus and the Thai corpus account for 152.95 and 123.04 words (per 10,000 words) of the text totaling 206,773 words and 115,635 words, respectively. This finding of overall distribution of hedges is consistent with Dontcheva-Navratilova (2016), Hinkel (2002) and Yotimart and Noor Hashima (2017) who found the lower rate of hedges used by L2 writers as compared to L1 writers. Similarly, Sukhanindr (2008) and Prasithrathsint (2015) also found native English writers tended to have a greater variety of hedging items and means of expressing hedging than Thai writers. Also, Hedges in the native English corpus appear to be more

than the hedges used in the Thai corpus in every section. The corpus data reveal that hedges are similarly frequent in both corpora of the RA discussion/conclusion sections. It is worth noting that these hedges are more frequently used in both the native English and Thai writers' RA introduction section as well as the discussion/conclusion sections but are less frequently used in the Thai writers' RA method section. To sum up, hedges have been found to be used more frequently in the native English corpus than the Thai corpus. This finding is consistent with Lin (2013) who also found that the only observable difference between the L1 and L2 writers was that the L1 writers in AL employed more hedges in the introduction, result-discussion, and conclusion sections than the L2 writers.

Boosters are those devices which make strong and confident claims in the value of statements or claims being made. As shown, boosters identified in the native corpus and the Thai corpus account for 45.19 and 41.05 words (per 10,000 words) of the text totaling 206,773 words and 115,635 words, respectively. The native English writers in AL used more boosters than the Thai writers. The finding contradicts Hinkel (2002) who found that boosters were generally more frequent in L1 writers. Although the corpus data show relatively similar total frequencies shared by both corpora in every section, it is worth noting that these boosters are used slightly higher in the introduction section of RAs written by the Thai writers but found to be slightly more frequent in the method, result, as well as the discussion/conclusion sections written by the native English writers. This finding is consistent with Lin (2013) who found that the only observable difference was that the L1 writers in AL employed more boosters in the result-discussion, and conclusion sections than the L2 writers.

Attitude markers or attitudinal stance words are words through which writers use to express their appraisal of propositional information, convey surprise, obligation, agreement, importance and so on. Overall attitude marker and attitudinal stance words identified account for 54.05 and 52.2 word (per 10,000 words) of the text totaling 206,773 words and 115,635 words, respectively. Although the corpus data show relatively similar total frequencies, these stance markers are used slightly more in the method section and the result section of RAs written by the native English writers but are more frequently used in the introduction section as well as the discussion/conclusion sections of RAs written by the Thai writers. The finding is consistent with Kuhi et.al (2013), Lin's (2013), Perez-Llantada (2007) and Yotimart and Noor Hashima (2017) who found relatively similar total frequencies of attitude markers between L1 and L2 writers, with slightly more used by L2 writers.

4.3 Stance Expression by Native English Writers and Thai Writers

This section reports and discusses the findings, based on the text analysis, for Research Question 2 (How do the native English and Thai writers express their stance in their RAs across different rhetorical sections of RAs?). In this study, a total of 60 RAs were qualitatively examined by using textual analysis. The stance markers in the RAs are likely to unveil the distinct manner of self-representation conveyed by the native English and Thai writers. Based on the 20 most frequently occurring stance linguistic features and their significance identified in Research Question 1 (as in Appendix F), Research Question 2 will provide in-depth explanation of the use of stance linguistic features in RAs across sections. Each example of textual use in RAs will be given with the RA's number and note (N=native English, T=Thai, I=introduction, M=method, R=result, D/C=discussion/conclusion). Since keywords alone do not tell us much

about the discourses in which they appear, the contexts in which the keywords appear provide a wider understanding of what type of discourse they appear in. In the following sections, the keywords in context are discussed.

4.3.1 First Person Pronouns in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Sections

Across sections of RAs, *I-we* pronouns are found to be used explicitly more frequent in the native English corpus than in the Thai corpus in every RA section. In each of the RA sections, both *I* and *we* tend to occur with greater frequency in the native English corpus than they do in the Thai corpus.

Introduction

Based on the frequency count and the keyword analysis in Research Question 1, it can be concluded that the native English writers make greater use of *I-* pronoun in the introduction section compared to the Thai writers ($LL=4.39$, $p<0.05$). Based on the text analysis of RAs, it is found that the majority of the native English writers and only one Thai writer used *I-* pronoun to signpost to readers the purpose of the RAs as in examples (1) and (2). In addition, there is a greater use of this pronoun for metadiscourse purposes in the native English corpus as in examples (3) and (4) which might suggest an explicit authorial self-representation, which contradicts Perez-Llantada (2007) who found that non-native English writers use *I*-pronoun, with higher frequency, in introduction section to explicitly indicate to readers the purpose of the paper.

(1) Using these data, in this article, *I* examine the validity of the tests by analyzing... (N14I)

(2) *I* intend to focus on ESL classrooms in Australia. (T27I)

(3) *I* like to think of them, as both within the sphere of a broad concept of validity... (N14I)

(4) *I* would like to introduce the concept of semantic prosody here in the introductory section. (N4I)

Based on the frequency count and keyword analysis, the native English writers are found to use significantly greater number of *we*-pronoun in the introduction section, with highly significant underuse in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus (LL=82.45, $p<0.01$). When examining the use of *we*-pronoun in the concordance lines of the Thai corpus, it has been found that the majority of the Thai writers (six out of the nine occurrences) use inclusive *we* (include a reader) in order to shorten the distance between the writers and readers and to maintain commonality with readers as in examples (5) and (6):

(5) *We* can say that receptive and productive knowledge is another aspect...(T19I)

(6) As *we* can see, one of the most frequently used types of self-assessment instrument... (T6I)

On the other hand, the native English writers seem to show overt authorial self-representation with the use of *we*, which is consistent with Perez Llantada (2007) who found native English writers to favor a more visible style in using first person pronoun in the introduction section, which establishes a closer proximity between themselves and the expert readers. For example, of all the instances of *we*, the majority of them are exclusive *we* (exclude the reader) used to signpost to readers the stage and purpose of the RAs as in example (7), as well as express their comments in the study as in example (8).

(7) *We* did not include the scale of commitment control in this study due to... (N29I)

(8) *We* were somewhat surprised to find that, although... (N7I)

Method

In the method section, based on the frequency count, only one instance of *I*-pronoun is found in the Thai corpus as in (9) which seemed to be used to make projection. However, the native English writers seem to make much more abundant use of *I*-pronoun, with significant underuse in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus ($LL=4.84$, $p<0.05$). The majority of the native English writers have been found to use *I*-pronoun to signpost readers and specify the procedures involved in the study as in example (10).

(9) Keeping this in mind, *I* assumed that translation was an obvious way to help the students understand the target input. (T24M).

(10) As a final step, *I* completed the coding of the rest of the data segments with consultation from the second researcher. (N14M)

Based on the frequency count, the native English writers seem to make much more abundant use of *we*-pronoun, with significant underuse in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus ($LL=112.87$, $p<0.01$). In the method section, *we*-pronoun serves as a way for the majority of the native English writers to specify the procedures involved in the study as in example (11) and help the Thai writer, with only two occurrences by one Thai writer, to make projection as in example (12). This finding is consistent with Perez Llantada (2007) who found that in the methods/results sections, *we* pronoun was used by both native English and non-native English writers to specify

the experimental and diagnostic procedures involved in the study. However, in this section it is the native English writers who reveal more authorial presence in expressing stance through a more abundant use of *we*-pronoun.

(11) In our research, *we* used criterion-sampling... (N27M)

(12) As for the first research question, *we* predicted that learners in the high proficiency group would use... (T25M)

Result

Based on the frequency count, *I*-pronoun tend to occur at the lowest frequency, with only two stances in the native English corpus as in example (13), however, none appears in the Thai corpus. Therefore, the difference in textual use of this pronoun between the native English and Thai writers could not be found.

(13) *I* will somewhat arbitrarily treat the six criteria equally... (N30R)

However, a marked difference is found in the frequency of *we*-pronoun occurring in the two corpora, with significant underuse in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus ($LL=77.81, p<0.01$). The native English writers make greater use of *we*, which does not occur at all in the Thai corpus. The majority of *we*-pronoun are used by the native English writers to report the findings (e.g., *we* found that..., *we* first report on the main finding...). However, some instances of inclusive *we* are used to signpost a reader as in example (14) and to shorten the distance between the writers and readers and to claim solidarity as in example (15).

(14) *We* turn now to the WM results to test the central hypothesis of this study. (N15R)

(15) In Table 3, *we* can see that the means of the three measures and the facets are close to 0. (N13R)

However, in this section it is the native English writers who reveal more authorial presence through a more abundant use of *we*-pronoun. This finding is consistent with Perez Llantada (2007) who found that in the methods/results section, the native English writers become much more explicit and personal in using first person pronouns, with higher frequency, than their non-native counterparts.

Discussion/Conclusion

Based on the frequency count, the native English writers seem to make more use of *I*-pronoun, with significant underuse in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus (LL=4.6, $p<0.05$). Only one occurrence of this pronoun has been found in the Thai corpus. The contrastive analysis of the discussion/conclusion sections might show that the native English writers are more visible and assertive when interpreting findings and reaching conclusions as in example (16).

(16) In this paper, *I* proposed new ways in which the cognitive complexity of tasks... (N16DC)

The native English writers also use *I*-pronoun to express evaluation, hence becoming more explicit and personal in the discussion of findings than their Thai counterparts as in examples (17) and (18).

(17) *I* argued that in addition to assuming that cognitively... (N16DC)

(18) *I* believe that the methods used to create the word list... (N30DC)

Conversely, the lower use of *I*-pronoun (only one occurrence in the Thai corpus) among the Thai writers is found to present claim more cautiously and to maintain greater distance towards the reader as in example (19).

(19) *I* hope that this study might present the useful information and... (T27DC)

Based on the frequency count, a marked difference is found in the frequency of *we*-pronoun occurred in the two corpora, with significant underuse in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus (LL=139.32, $p<0.01$). Similarly, the textual analysis of *we*-pronoun in this section might suggest cross-cultural preferences. The native English writers seem to conclude their statements with a clear-cut writing style to overtly express their comment as in examples (20) and (21).

(20) *We* have been unable to identify a rational basis for this difference.
(N13DC)

(21) *We* do think that all data need to be coded by two raters, we acknowledge that... (N12D)

However, the Thai writers seem to be less visible. They keep *we* references to a minimum, relying on other authors to support their conclusions as in example (22),

(22) To account for the patterns in the high and low proficiency groups, *we* followed Ayoun and Salaberry (2008) explanation pertaining to distributional bias in the input... (T25DC)

or depersonalize the author's opinion by using *it patterns* as in example (23) and passive voice as in example (24). This is in line with Perez-Llantada (2007) who also posits that L1 writers express themselves more clearly. On the other hand, L2 writers

opt for more detached styles through infrequent first person pronouns and a dominant use of anticipatory *it-pattern*.

(23) As for further study, it is intriguing to investigate what conditions optimize literature circles to enhance...(T7DC)

(24) It was found that, in both groups, regular forms... (T25DC)

However, both corpora show a similar usage of inclusive *we*-pronoun to involve readers when discussing findings as in examples (25), (26), and (27) to seek commonality, a rhetorical technique that seeks ‘to engage readers as cooperative participants’ (Hyland, 2002a). This is in line with Afros and Schryer (2009) who found that in the conclusion section, the linguists were explicitly more careful than the others to persuade readers that their expectations had been met by constructing consensus with the readers by means of the inclusive pronoun *we*.

(25) Based on this validity evidence, *we* can conclude that the WCR appears... (N13DC)

(26) ...*we* can gain more understanding about the interaction between... (T24DC)

(27) Therefore, *we* can say that the relation between the ability in producing speech and lexical knowledge is very complex and still unclear... (T19DC)

4.3.2 Hedges in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Sections

Hooi and Munir (2014) indicate that hedges allow writers to make claims more easily acceptable with precision, caution, and diplomatic deference to the views of the readers. The modal *can* and *could* were not included as a hedging word in the frequency calculation due to its multifunction which could result in imprecise frequency counts of ones which may or may not actually convey authorial self-

representation. However, the actual use of *can* and *could* in the context will be discussed where appropriate. Hedges appear to be more frequently used in the native English corpus than those in the Thai corpus in every section. The corpus data reveal that hedges are similarly frequent in both corpora's RAs discussion/conclusion sections. It is worth noting that these hedges are more frequently used by both the native English and Thai writers' RA introduction section as well as the discussion/conclusion sections. However, the Thai writers used hedges less frequent than the native English writers in the method section.

Introduction

In order to identify cross-cultural differences in the extent to which the native English writers and Thai writers commit themselves to particular propositions, hedges have been interpreted rhetorically. Based on the frequency count, the modal *may* has been found to be the most common hedging word in the introduction section, with significant underuse in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus (LL=12.30, $p<0.01$), with which both the native English and Thai writers conveyed ideas assumed to be probability ('The variance score *may* arise from...', 'Difficulties *may* stem from...'). Following *may*, hedging word *should* has been used frequently in the two corpora, with significant overuse in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus (LL=7.4, $p<0.01$). In the context, there have been no differences in the use of *should* in terms of authorial self-representation. However, it is worth mentioning that the Thai writers make more frequent use of '*anticipatory-it + can*' constructions as in examples (28) and (29), which conveys a more detached authorial stance while subtly drawing the reader's attention towards important information. In contrast, '*anticipatory it + can*' pattern expressing commitment to propositions has been found to be rare in the native English writer corpus. This finding is consistent with Perez

Llantada (2007) who found the overuse of ‘anticipatory *it + can*’ pattern in non-native English writers’ RAs.

(28) *It can* be seen that the teacher allowed... (T23I)

(29) *It can* be concluded that critical thinking skills are... (T17I)

Following *should*, *would* which appears at high frequency in the native English writers’ texts rarely appears in the Thai writers’s texts, at the significant difference (LL=7.55, $p < 0.01$). The underuse of *would* among the Thai writers compared to the native English writers might be ascribed to their unawareness of the multifunction of *would*. In the same vein, Lin (2013) opines that one of the possible explanations of the different choices of hedges could be that the hedges frequently employed by L1 writers might not exist in the L2 writers’ expressive vocabulary repertoire. The native English writers seem to use *would* in various functions such as for hypotheses and conditionals, while the Thai writers are more likely to use it as a past form of *will* to recount what somebody has said. The finding is in line with Hinkel (2002) who found that L2 writers rarely used *would*, compared to native English writers in essay writing. This finding is also similar to Sukhanindr’s (2008) and Prasithrathsint’s (2015) who found native English writers tended to have a greater variety of hedging items and means of expressing hedging than Thai authors. Example (30) from the Thai corpus elucidates this:

(30) From those experiences, they could expect problems they *would* face.
(T22I)

Some hedging words such as *likely*, *possible* and *suggest* appear at higher frequency in the native English corpus than the Thai corpus as a downtoner to hedge discourse. Example (31) shows the native English writers use the hedging word *likely* to soften their claims or conclusion based on previous research findings. Example (32) shows a hedging word co-occurring with a modal to project the claim more cautiously. Similarly, the native English writers also use hedging words co-occurring with modals to make their claim acceptable by the readers as in example (33). These examples suggest that the native English writers make claims more easily acceptable with precision, caution, and diplomatic deference to the views of the readers, which is in line with Rahimivand and Kuhi (2014) who found that writers' identity is mainly constructed in the introduction section of RAs in which social interaction happens through metalinguistic manipulation, such as hedging.

(31) The corpus-driven findings suggest that vocabulary is more *likely* to be learned incidentally in written discourse which focuses on a single topic rather than multiple topics. (N11I)

(32) It may be the case with a low frequency item such as set in that there is only one meaning and therefore, in this situation, it *may be possible* to ascribe a particular prosody to the item as a whole. (N4I)

(33) Although the overall frequency of cohesive devices might not be a reliable indicator of the general quality of the text (Connor, 1984), the under- and over-use of specific cohesive markers by L2 writers *might suggest* that cohesive relations are not as effectively expressed by L2 learners as by L1 writers. (N16I)

The use of the hedging word *argue* merits closer attention because it is found to be significant underuse in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus (LL= 7.15, $p < 0.01$). When examining the use of the verb *argue* in the Thai corpus, only one out of the two occurrences is where the author is the subject. This might suggest that the Thai writers tend not to use *argue* to express their views and even those of others.

This is in line with Joktong (2001), who explains that Thai writers tend to avoid making a claim as an opening strategy in writing a research article. This finding may be attributable to the Thai culture in which too forceful claim is avoided. In contrast, the native English writers tend to use *argue* to present both their own and others' opinions and arguments. The following example illustrates how the hedging word *argue* is used by the native English writer:

(34) In this article, we *argue* that consideration of NS interlocutors is an important aspect. (N3I)

In terms of expressing commitment, the native English writers, on the other hand, seem to show overt authorial self-representation with the use of *assume* as in example (35), but their Thai counterparts opt for modesty and tentativeness as in example (36), which might echo Thai rhetorical traditions.

(35) *We assumed* that learning goals influence students' images of themselves as successful language... (N29I)

(36) *We tend to assume* that sounds that are found in both the speaker's first and new language should... (T26I)

Method

In the method section, the modal *may* has been found to be the most common hedging word, with significant underuse in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus (LL=26.34, $p<0.01$), with which both the native English and Thai writers conveyed ideas assumed to be probability ('Future related studies *may* wish to account for...', 'these students *may* now need to write in...'). Besides, the hedging words *likely* and *relatively* have been found to be used only in the native English corpus in this section to lessen a strong proposition or claim as in examples (37) and (38),

respectively. This could suggest that the native English writers make claims more easily convinced with precision, caution, and diplomatic deference to the views of the readers.

(37) First, it is *likely* that intrarater reliability will always be higher than interrater reliability. (N12M)

(38) One drawback of SLR is that it requires a *relatively* large sample size...(N5M)

Result

In the result section, the modal *should* and hedging word *overall* are the preferred choices of the Thai writers, with highly significant overuse (LL=19.96, 9.25, $p<0.01$, respectively) in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus, while *may*, *appear*, *claim*, *suggest*, are common options for the native English writers. The marked difference in the use of modal *may* is that the pattern *may+ have + past participle* has been found to be frequently appeared in the native English corpus as in example (39), but none has been found in the Thai corpus. This might be ascribed to the lack of grammatical awareness of modals among Thai writers in general.

(39) As a result, they *may not have been* as distracted as those encountering the video format. (N23R)

Even though there is a significant difference in the frequency of *should* and *overall* between the two corpora, suggesting that the Thai writers seem to be more tentative in presenting their findings, there is no marked difference in the use of them in the context. This is also similar to the case of *claim*, which does not indicate the writer as the subject who made the claim. Thus, linguistic traces of authorial self-representation

in the use of *claim* is not found in this section either. However, the hedging word *appear* shows a marked difference in the context, all occurrences of which are found in the native English corpus but none appears in the Thai corpus. In the context, the use of *appear* in reporting the findings could reflect the native English writers' precision, caution, and diplomatic deference to the views of the readers as in example (40).

(40) In summary, there *appear* to be few effects of topic or student status.
(N19R)

Finally, the greater use of *suggest* among the native English writers to hedge the claim made in reporting a finding could suggest that the native English writers made claims more accepted with precision, caution, and diplomatic deference to the views of the readers especially when *suggest* co-occurring with modal as in example (41). However, there is no difference in the use of it in the context between the native English and Thai writers.

(41) A non-significant correlation would indicate no relationship between the measures, while a correlation above $r = .85$ *might suggest* that the two measures are actually measuring the same construct. (N25R)

Likewise, the native English writers seem to show assertiveness in reporting research outcomes through possibility modals co-occurring with first person pronouns as in example (42). In contrast, the Thai writers express possibility without any linguistic traces of the authorial voice, by means of distancing themselves from the propositions when they interpret research findings as in example (43). This Thai trait is in line with Perez-Llantada (2007), Prasithrathsin (2014a) and Yotimart and Noor Hashima (2017), who found objectivity convention when non-native writers present facts.

(42) *We can* conclude that the models in Figure 2 provide an adequate...
(N27R)

(43) *It can* be seen that the greatest number of descriptive reflections were...
(T7R)

Discussion/Conclusion

The Thai writers seem to restrict the scope of their propositions and establish much less visible authorial self-representation through the use of modals such as *should* which have been significantly overused in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus (LL=23.11, $p<0.01$), as in examples (44) and (45). Therefore, it shows an awareness of possible objections on the part of the readers. However, this finding is similar to Lin's (2013) who ascribes the overuse of *should* by L2, found to be rarely used by L1, to the limited L2 writers' expressive vocabulary repertoire.

(44) The focus *should* be on helping the informants create meanings rather than...
(T10DC)

(45) It *should* also be noted that the simple past tense form ranked the highest.
(T25)

However, there is no significant cross-cultural variation in terms of the use of modal *may* in the context, though it is significantly infrequent in the Thai corpus with respect to the native English corpus (LL=6.25, $p<0.05$). Perhaps the most significant cross-cultural variation regarding modals is the use of *would* in the discussion/conclusion sections, being significantly far less common in the Thai writers' texts compared to the native English writers' texts (LL=33.31, $p<0.01$). This might be ascribed to the lack of grammatical awareness of *would* among Thai writers. However, there is no difference in terms of the range of grammar purposes of this modal in the context between the two corpora. Marked difference has been found in the use of *we*-pronoun

or animate subject with this modal as in example (46), which are common in the native corpus, but none has been found in the Thai corpus as in example (47).

(46) *We would* argue that this may be a more relevant aspect of... (N19DC)

(47) The researcher *would* like to suggest a number of reasons for this outcome. (T11DC)

In the context, another marked difference between the two corpora in the discussion/conclusion sections is in the use of passive-active voice of the hedging word *suggest*. The native English writers tend to use *suggest* as an active voice to strengthen their evaluation when assessing results as in examples (48) and (49).

(48) We *suggest* that the Hammurabi text is an Argument Facilitative Source. (N18DC)

(49) Our results *suggest* instead that if content related aspects of performance... (N21DC)

In contrast, the Thai writers appear more modest and detached when expressing judgment by using passive voice as in examples (50) and (51). This could suggest that the Thai writers seem to show their views indirectly, in line with Jogthong (2001) who points out that Thai writers tend to refrain from making a central claim as in writing a RA. This finding supports the argument made by Kaplan (1966) that 'Oriental' writing is indirect. Similarly, Hongdladarom (2007) found that Thai culture stresses rapport, long-term relationship, consideration for others and avoidance of conflict and confrontation, which are the factors that lead to a tendency towards indirectness, particularly in potentially face-threatening acts such as the offering of criticism.

(50) It is *suggested* that a future study be carried out with second year students... (T11DC)

(51) It is *suggested* that L1 should be carefully and pedagogically used to...(T18DC)

4.3.3 Boosters in the Native English and Thai Corpus across Rhetorical Sections

Boosters are used in a text to strengthen the writer's commitment towards propositions. For boosters, although the corpus data show relatively similar frequencies in total between the two corpora in every section, it is worth noting that these boosters score slightly higher in the introduction section of RAs written by the Thai writers. However, the native English writers used slightly more boosters in the method, result, as well as discussion/conclusion sections.

Introduction

In this section, the marked difference can be seen in the significantly infrequent occurring of *reliable* (LL=11.09, $p<0.01$) with one occurrence whereby the comment does not come from the writer as in example (54). On the other hand, other occurrences in the native English corpus are used to provide authorial comment on previous method of other studies as in examples (52) and (53). Jogthong (2001) indicates that Thai authors are uncomfortable to comment on the work of others. Similarly, Jaroongkhongdacha et al. (2012) point out that, for Thais, knowledge is perceived as something to be respected, thus lessening the likelihood that Thais will make critical comments on previous literature.

(52) ...because the lack of *reliable* measures has contributed, in our opinion,... (N12I)

(53) In either case, the reported statistics would not be *reliable*. (N13I)

(54) Bachman and Palmer (1989) using factor analyses found that self-rating instruments of communicative language abilities can be both *reliable* and valid. (T6I)

Even though *demonstrate/demonstrated* tend to occur with significant underuse (LL=7.88, $p<0.01$ and 4.99, $p<0.05$, respectively) in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus, there is no difference in found in the RAs. However, the lower use of *demonstrate/demonstrated* might be attributable to the Thai writers' shortage of vocabulary repertoire.

Moreover, the significant overuse of *believed* in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus (LL=5.33, $p<0.05$) also marks a difference in textual use between the two corpora. The Thai writers appear to be more modest and detached when expressing suggestion by using passive voice with *it-pattern* as in examples (55) and (56). This finding is consistent with Perez Llantada (2007) who found the overuse of passive voice and *it-pattern* among non-native English writers.

(55) With the availability of corpora, it is *believed* that students can construct for themselves... (T11I)

(56) Similarly, it has been traditionally *believed* that one can learn an L2 by immersing himself/herself... (T24I)

In contrast, the native English writers tend to be overt when using *believed* as an active form to strengthen their evaluation when assessing previous studies as in example (57).

(57) We *believed* that this recommendation was (and is) worth careful consideration. (N13I)

Method

In the method section, there is only one significant difference in the frequency of the booster *sure* between the two corpora, with significant overuse in the Thai corpus (LL=6.99, $p<0.01$). However, there is no difference in the textual use of *sure* between the native English and Thai writers. All of those three occurrences seem to show that the Thai writers are not sure of their research methods or doing something, but they are doing something or relying on others in order to make them sure as in examples (58) and (59), reflecting that they make claim more cautiously. This might suggest their awareness of the possible objection to their method from the expert readership.

(58) To be *sure* that all translated items remained intact, three experts specializing in language teaching were asked... (T1M)

(59) The researchers would focus on the contents of the students notes to make *sure* that the translated version did not deviate from... (T16M)

The use of *reliable* as the second most frequently identified booster in this section merits closer attention in the context, though there is no statistically significant difference in the frequency between the two corpora. The native English writers use *reliable* to establish the reliability of their methods justified by previous studies as in examples (60) and (61).

(60) However, type-token ratio on its own is not seen as a strongly *reliable* indicator of fluency (Malvern et al., 2004). Hence the second measure for hesitancy was also used. (N15M)

(61) ...the log frequency of content words was selected because it was found to be a more *reliable* indicator of lexical complexity than the raw frequency of content words (Haberlandt & Graesser, 1985; Just & Carpenter, 1980). (N16M)

The Thai writers use *reliable* to address the reliability of their methods through making a general claim that their method is reliable as in examples (62) and (63). In the

context, however, there have been no differences in the use of *reliable* in terms of authorial self-representation between the native English and Thai writers.

(62) However, the sample size of this study was 333 because a larger sample size would provide more reliable results. (T20M)

(63) The reliability value was .821 implying that the questionnaire is reliable. (T22M)

Result

In the result section, the booster *show* (*shown*, *showed*) is significantly overused by the Thai writer compared to the native English counterpart to report the findings. In consistent with the introduction section, the use of *believed* is significantly more frequent in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus (LL=20.28, $p<0.01$), none of which occurs in the native English corpus. However, only one Thai writers uses the word *believed* in this section who appear detached when reporting the findings or generating a proposition by using passive voice with *it-pattern* as in examples (64) and (65). Therefore, in the context, there have been no differences found in the use of *believed* in terms of authorial self-representation between the native English and Thai writers.

(64) Learning a foreign language *is believed* to be apparently involved with...(T18R)

(65) *It was believed* among most of the participants (58.5%) that if the teacher used... (T18R)

In addition, only one native English writer uses *established* in this section. Therefore, it does not merit close attention to their textual use, though it shows a high frequency in the native corpus. However, the greater use of boosters *particularly*, *indeed* and *reliable* among the native English writers might suggest that they more assertive to

enhance the strength of their findings when reporting the findings as in examples (66), (67), (68) and (69). None of these boosters are used by the Thai writers in this section. This finding is in line with the study by Prasithrathsin (2014a), who found significant features of objectivity and detachment in the Thai academic writing.

(66) This was *particularly* noteworthy during the writing of the narrative. (N1R)

(67) ...shows that the difference between these tasks with regard to concreteness is *indeed* important. (N16R)

(68) We can say with a high degree of confidence that it is a *reliable* model (Whitten and Frank, 2005). (N24R)

(69) What we did find surprising was that the weighted T-unit measure was not more *reliable* than... (N12R)

Discussion/Conclusion

In the discussion/conclusion sections, marked difference in textual use has not been found in the use of *show* and *showed*, though there is a statistically significant difference in the use of these boosters between the two corpora. Almost all of their occurrences would not presumably indicate the active-passive voice distinction or preference between the two types of writers. However, the active-passive voice distinction could be made in the use of *believed*, which is significantly overused by the Thai writers compared to the native writers (LL=6.19, $p<0.05$), as in example (70). This might suggest that the Thai writers are more detached in assessing the finding. This finding is similar to the study by Prasithrathsin (2014a), who found significant features of objectivity and detachment in the Thai academic writing.

(70) Take a pair peer review as an example; it is one activity that helps to decrease students' anxiety in writing papers as well as promote their

collaboration and social interaction. This was *believed* to make them feel more comfortable and forget the feeling of working alone. (T22DC)

In consistent with the result section, there is the significant underuse of boosters *particularly*, *indeed* and *reliable* among the Thai writers compared to the native English writers (LL=10.53, 7.14, and 7.14, $p<0.01$, respectively) in the discussion/conclusion sections. This might suggest that the native English writers are more assertive when discussing the findings as in examples (71), (72), and (73). This finding corroborates with Afros and Schryer (2009) who found that in the conclusion section, the linguists were explicitly more careful than the other to persuade readers that their expectations had been met or exceeded by restating the central theses put forward in the introduction, often strengthened by boosters.

(71) These findings are *particularly* interesting because in the absence of significant interaction between task and native- speaker status... (N16DC)

(72) Our survey instruments seem to have proved capable of yielding useful, *indeed* crucially important, information. (N7DC)

(73) Therefore the oral task used here may not have been a *reliable* measure, and further research establishing standardized fluency and accuracy measures would help to... (N15DC)

Lastly, similar with the introduction section, *demonstrate*, *demonstrated* and *established* tend to occur with significant underuse in the Thai corpus when compared to the native English corpus (LL=6.02, 4.13, and 4.6, $p<0.05$, respectively), but there is no difference of their use in text in the discussion/conclusion section. Again, the underuse of *demonstrate/demonstrated* and *established* might be attributable to the Thai writers' shortage of vocabulary repertoire.

4.3.4 Attitude Expressions in the Native English and Thai Corpus across

Rhetorical Sections

Attitude markers or attitudinal stance words have been reported to be key linguistic features in the textual realization of authorial presence in academic writing (Pho, 2013; Stotesbury, 2003a). Attitude markers are signaled to highlight new findings and convince the expert readership of the value or usefulness of new research. Although corpus data show relatively similar total frequencies, these stance makers of attitude expressions score twice higher in the method section and slightly higher in the result section of RAs written by the native English writers but are slightly more numerous in the introduction section as well as the discussion and conclusion sections of RAs written by the Thai writers.

Introduction

The corpus data in this study reveal that attitudinal markers/attitudinal stance words are slightly more frequent in the Thai writers' introduction section than in the native English writers' introduction section. Qualitatively, some attitude expressions' stance markers have been used by the Thai writers to indicate the writer's certainty of what is said when establishing the research territory as in example (74) or emphasizing the research gap as in examples (75) and (76).

(74) The GSCTC was also *suitable* for teaching writing in a large class since it reduced the number of writing pieces to ... (T23I)

(75) While communication is *essential*, people nonetheless have different points of view toward it. (T30I)

(76) More *importantly*, no research has been found on the association between reading comprehension and... (T3I)

Method

Attitudinal markers/attitudinal stance words in the native English corpus have been found to be twice as many as those in the Thai corpus in this section. However, there is no explicit difference in the textual use between the two corpora even in the use of *correctly* (LL=4.76, $p<0.05$) which is significantly more frequent in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus. The most frequently used word used by the two groups of writers to evaluate research processes in this section is *appropriate* as in example (77).

(77) This was deemed *appropriate* as an ideal schematic structure for the task as... (N21M)

Result

Attitudinal markers/attitudinal stance words are also recurrent in this section of the native English and Thai writers' RAs probably because in this section writers are expected to express their voice in interpreting research outcomes. The highest frequently occurring attitude expression word is *expected*, which does not have the writer as the subject as in example (78). However, some occurrences of *expected* in the native English corpus have the writer as the subject as in examples (79) and (80) to highlight the writers' original perception, thus guiding readers towards an interpretation. This might suggest that the native English writers tend to be overt in expressing their views than the Thai writers.

(78) The interviewees also *expected* that the teacher should facilitate the students by using Thai... (T18R)

(79) We had *expected* a better correlation with weighted EFTs because that measure took into account... (N12R)

(80) ...the statistical power was also lower than *expected*, which suggests that...(N16R)

Another interesting finding in textual use in this section is in the use of *too*, all of which occur only in the native English corpus to indicate the writer's certainty when interpreting the findings as in example (81) thus paving the way to the new process or findings as in example (82). In similar vein, the use of *surprising*, *reliable*, *unclear*, etc., occurs only in the native English corpus to express the writers' comments on the findings as in examples (83), (84), (85), and (86), but none of these attitudinal expressions can be used by the Thai writers in this section. This might suggest that the native English writers tend to be more overt in expressing their views than do the Thai writers.

(81) ...the result of the chi-square test is non-significant, further indicating that the difficulty estimates of the formats are *too* close to be considered different. (N23R)

(82) Furthermore, 186 items, even though fewer than any of the other word lists, is still *too* many items for teachers to deal with. Therefore, a further stage of altering is needed with the goal of identifying the most opaque words in the list. (N30R)

(83) What we did find *surprising* was that the weighted T-unit measure was not more reliable than the error-free unit measures. (N12R)

(84) Finally, it would be *surprising* for the intermediate students in the giver group who had never been exposed to peer review to differ so much in gains from similar students in the receiver group... (N17R)

(85) ...much of the data used in this paper have been taken from the BoE because, as the larger of the two corpora, it is liable to yield more *reliable* results. (N4R)

(86) For the purposes of this study, however, these categories are not especially relevant since it is *unclear* whether the use of words in engineering textbooks from any particular category is more likely to be opaque. (N30R)

Discussion/Conclusion

Though similar frequencies of attitudinal markers/attitudinal stance words have been found between the native English and Thai writers, the native English writers appear to be more assertive when interpreting results in these sections of the RAs. They use attitudinal markers/attitudinal stance words with intensifying adverb such as *very* to strengthen claims, showing that the propositions are based on evidence as in examples (87) and (88), and provide the limitation of previous studies as in example (89). This finding is consistent with Perez Llantada (2007) who found that native English writers tend to be more assertive by using intensifying evaluative lexis to strengthen their evaluation when assessing results.

(87) In addition, *very little* metadata is available for the essays in the TOEFL11 corpus, resulting in potentially confounding... (N5DC)

(88) ...if reports providing evidence as to the thoroughly professional quality of tests are not publicly available, then *little* or no confidence can be had in the meaningfulness, reliability and validity of several of the aviation language tests currently available. *Unfortunately*, at present, this appears to be the case for too many of the tests that we have surveyed... (N7DC)

(89) Given this *limited* range of studies, the present study sought to expand the base by investigating the effect of three different types of feedback on the accuracy performance of three targeted linguistic error categories in new pieces of writing. (N8DC)

On the other hand, the Thai writers are less visible in authorial self-representation or indirect when using attitudinal markers/attitudinal stance words. The Thai writers do not show any strong presence of self-representation when criticizing others' works. This finding supports the argument made by Kaplan (1966) that 'Oriental' writing is indirect. Hongdladarom (2007) also found the indirectness in Thai writing and English writing of Thai writers. Pupipat (1998) also comments that for Thais, criticizing others' works, especially the works of writers of higher status, could be considered as face

threatening, and thus should be avoided. For example, though *acceptable* is significantly frequently used in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus (LL=6.59, $p<0.05$), the native English writers use *acceptable* to express themselves explicitly to validate the sample size as in example (90). In contrast, the Thai writers hide their agency in expressing their proposition as in example (91). In the same line of argument, this different rhetorical purpose is also the same as the case of *appropriate* as in examples (92) and (93), which merits close attention since it is the second most frequently identified attitude markers/ attitudinal stance words in the two corpora.

(90) ...however, we believe this sample volume was *acceptable* for analyzing linguistic accuracy, especially...(N13DC)

(91) This is *acceptable* for class work, but it could cause a problem for the students in the future... (T16DC)

(92) We also agree with Hyland (2009) that the *appropriate* use of source materials with attribution to the author is an important component. (N19DC)

(93) Moreover, the present study has confirmed that collaborative learning is *appropriate* and effective for EFL reading instruction. (T15DC)

4.4 Self-representation Expressions and Challenges for International

Publication

This section addresses Research Question 3 (What are the issues and challenges faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication?). The interviews were used to find the issues and challenges faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication. One-on-one semi-structured interviews were conducted with eight informants who have experiences in writing RAs in AL. The thematic

analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2013) was used to analyze the interviews in the present study. After that, patterns (themes) within the data were identified, analyzed, and are reported in this section. Of all the informants, only three out of eight (Anthony, Anya, and Chaba) were willing to bring along their RAs and discuss their actual use of linguistic realization of authorial stance in their RAs. The following themes emerged from the data.

4.4.1 Linguistics Disadvantage as Barriers to Writing Professionally

Table 4.3 illustrates the first theme and sub-themes in this study.

Table 4.3

Linguistics Disadvantage as Barriers to Writing Professionally

Theme	Sub-theme
Linguistics disadvantage as barriers to writing professionally	Lack of vocab repertoire
	Grammatical problem
	Writing style (not coherent, long-winded)
	Academic teaching

This theme reflected the informants' response concerning the comments made by their reviewers about their RAs. Of all the four native English informants, none of them received any comments on language use. This finding is consistent with the finding of past study by Perez-Llantada (2007), which found that the American scholars did not receive any comment on language during the reviewing process. In this study, the informants were asked whether they felt advantaged of being a native speaker writing RAs in English. All of them admitted having advantage of being a native speaker. However, two of them emphasized that the main advantage was having experience or

exposure to academic research. Both native informants, Anthony and Bill, believed that the Thais lack vocabulary in English language. Anthony said:

Yes, sure (advantaged) but my main advantage is my experiences in research and that is not an issue of being a native speaker. It is much easier for me. The more you read academic writing, the more phrases available to you. It is more about being exposed to academic register... I think that the only major benefit of being a native speaker is being able to..access a much larger.. vocabulary which allows you to make a more nuanced argument. You can say the exact thing you want to say. You can say the thing to make it sound nice. But it isn't the issue of whether the article is accepted or not. It is nice but there are quite a few of native speakers who write a boring or in vain.

Anthony further argued that:

In terms of overall style or organization and things like that, it is much bigger difference between a novice and experienced writers than between the native speakers and non-native speakers. You may have some differences in phrasing and thing like that. Yes because non-native speakers don't have or perhaps have the same repertoire as native speakers. But the bigger is more about whether you are experienced in writing academic English as it is completely new genre or register for most people. So I don't think the issue is about Thai rhetorical tradition.

In the same vein, Bill also argued that:

Yes, of course I do (feel advantaged). But I also learn a lot. It is just a larger than being a native and you can write very well. It is not true at all. And any universities in the UK that they get students coming in to do a BA or MA, there was what we call miscommunication... It depends. I went to French university. I was often told that my French vocabulary is excessive as I speak French all the time and much more than other languages. The problem with vocabulary here is the Thais did not speak English...exposure to English.

On the other hand, for the Thai informants, unlike the native English informants, three out of the four Thai informants admitted that they receive comments on their language use from reviewers or peer reviewers in terms of coherence in writing in English. This finding is similar to Jaroongkhongdach et al. (2012) who found that coherence is probably most problematic for ELT (English language teaching) academics in

Thailand. In terms of improving the research articles, all the four Thai informants admitted that they sometimes seek help from a native English speaker to edit their RAs before submitting them to international journals. For example, Chaba said that “sometimes I need a native English speaker to proofread my work before submission.” In addition, Anya said that in her case, she had her co-author who is a native English speaker checked her English language. However, she received comments that her language was not smooth or uneven. Anya further pointed out the advantage in the writing style of native English writers over Thai writers. She said:

A native English writer is skillful in employing less number of words to express a certain idea compared to a Thai writer whose English language tends to be redundant...we are influenced by our mother tongue...when I read a Thai writer's English paper, I found language pointless...a native speaker knows how to write to avoid showing a red flag (use the language that avoids a conclusive remark that is likely to get an opposition from the community of experts). I just wonder if they study this skill in school.

In addition, Anya mentioned that we could increase our vocabulary repertoire by having more exposure to academic genre. Buppa mentioned that she faced problem using suitable words to express her ideas due to her limited vocabulary repertoire. Similar finding on limited vocabulary repertoire among Thai writers is also found in Research Question 1 which focused on keyword analysis. For example, the Thai writers practiced the underuse of boosters compared to the native English writers.

Another challenge faced by the Thai writers is the grammatical use. For example, Bill and Chaba also expressed their concern about the grammatical inaccuracy as the most challenging issue in publication.

Apart from limited vocabulary repertoire and grammatical problem, Buppa also commented that the Thai writers tend to describe thing repeatedly and long-winded, contrasting the native English writers who are likely to be more concise. She further claimed that she could recognize a RA written by a Thai writer as the sentences are influenced by a direct translation from Thai language into English language. Another challenge faced by Buppa is being discouraged in writing RAs in English as explained in the following excerpt:

We have a problem of wording. However, when I wrote one paragraph, I spent a couple hours but when I sent to my native English supervisor, she sent it back in just an hour and rewrote all of my original sentences. She said she could understand what I wrote but my language is redundant. She wrote 4-5 lines for that paragraph. I felt discouraged sometimes due to such an unproductive time spent on writing.

Even though Wongchai admitted that being a non-native English writer has a disadvantage in using English language, an interesting point raised by Wongchai, a journal editor, is about the advantage of Thai writers. He noticed that the Thai writers are better than the native English writers because they are aware of academic register.

He commented that:

I feel advantaged being a non-native speaker writing a paper because we know the context or real problem of non-native English speaker in using English better than a native speaker does. When we write about the problem in using English among a non-native speaker, a native speaker will be interested in our papers because they want to know the issues in the real context. Even though we are not good at grammar, we can turn to a native English to edit. As a non-native speaker, we have a lot of awareness because when studying, we are taught about a particular pattern of writing. It is the same case as a foreigner who studies Thai language has to learn a lot about the proper use of language and pattern. We use Thai automatically, so we are more likely to lack awareness. This is another disadvantage. Most importantly, I am an editor and I have read many native and non-native English papers. I certainly say that they are not better than us. If we take a formality or register awareness into

consideration, a native speaker is worse than us. They don't aware of formal or informal words which can suggest academic or non-academic level.

Another issue mentioned by Buppa, William and Wongchai is about the academic teaching in Thailand which focuses on the article format, instead of the critical analysis skill. For example, Buppa commented on the paragraph writing by Thai writers which tend to report other finding with no reflection. She pointed out that the lack of critical comment "is a pattern of Thai writing which seems to be influenced by academic teaching." William commented on the problem of focusing on form by Thai reviewers that "what I've found for Thai reviewers, they will check a template and form first, rather not a content, the more idea of concept, what we are talking about. That is what I don't classify as a real academic." Wongchai also pointed out that academic teaching in Thailand overly focused on impersonal style which resulted in the lack of critical discussion in RA writing. This finding is similar to Lin (2013) who found that the L2 writer from Thailand in the field of AL in her study, also criticized the English academic writing courses in Thailand which focused on mechanical aspects of writing such as sentence formulation and format. Apparently, the disadvantages of being a non-native writers in terms of language use still prevail over the advantages, especially linguistic problems such as writing style. This finding is consistent with the finding by Jaroongkhongdach et al. (2012) who mentioned that linguistic disadvantage of non-native English speaking researchers (the vast majority of the writers of the Thai articles) is one of the major barriers to publication. In line with this view, Politzer-Ahles, Holliday, Girolamo, Spsychalska, and Berkson (2016) argue that native English writers may take less effort in publishing and may be biased in favor of native-like English. The lack of self-representation expressions was found to be ascribed to linguistic deficits in Thai writers.

4.4.2 Influence of Rhetorical Tradition in L2 Writing Internationally

Table 4.4 illustrates the second theme and sub-themes in this study.

Table 4.4

Influence of Rhetorical Tradition in L2 Writing Internationally

Theme	Sub-theme
Influence of Rhetorical Tradition in L2 Writing Internationally	Using overt versus covert self-representation
	Variation in authorial self-representation across RA sections • Literature review (rationale and justification) • Problem in writing the introduction section • Problem in writing the discussion/conclusion sections

Another theme emerged from the interview data in relation to the self-representation expressions and challenges for international publication is the question arising as to whether or not there exists influence of rhetorical tradition in L2 writing internationally. This theme captured the informants' stance in using the linguistic realization of authorial self-representation (self-mentions, hedges, boosters, and attitude expressions). The native English informants were at ease to express themselves overtly or assert their position or voice in writing RAs, but the Thai informants avoided expressing themselves overtly due to their worries about getting negative feedbacks. All the four native English informants emphasized that personalization is part of assertion in RA writing. For example, one of the native English informants named Cara pointed out that nowadays it is acceptable to use "I

argue that...” in academia to express themselves. Anthony provided a practical view with regard to how to weigh authorial self-representation, as follows:

It depends on the research. It depends on paradigm we working within (Hx) or it depends on whether I actually become important in the research stage or not. I like this example giving you. I am the interviewer. Being an interviewer means that I am part of the research process, like you are now. So...one aspect of interviewing people is the relationship and etc. And I can argue that I have relationship with my subjects as I work with them for 12 years. That is clearly something that is highly personal but it affects the research. It shows that I have a clear relationship with those subjects which so there are unlikely to be any issues of less likely to be miscommunication in the interview. If you... two or three years ago there are article in Applied Linguistics about interviewing. (H) I can't remember. You have to read as he criticized those interview report or research for not giving enough information about interview process. This is clearly that I am part of the research process. When you see 'I' in my work, it means that is my argument. It is new and no one else has ever made... If I am saying 'it is argued that...', I need to give a citation because I imply a general argument in that way. It is my argument which is new. I don't need to hide 'I'... If you don't use 'I' in a personal introspection article, I could be bloody stupid because it is an article with personal introspection... I mean if they cite themselves 20 times and they don't cite anyone else that is when self-mention is a problem; otherwise, self-mention is not a problem.

However, he argued that the use of “the researcher” rather sounded sloppy to him because it means that we try to detach ourselves from the research.

Similar to Hyland (2012) who points out that the Western conception that to be associated with what they have written, authors must indicate their own view, the native English informant, William, pointed to the problem about the use of self-reflective pronouns among Thai academics which is different from the Western culture that:

As you mentioned the personal pronoun use 'I,' you know once I submitted my article to the Thai reviewers, one of them commented that my work is not objective. I contested them and they have to accept that. As you see my paper, I use a lot of first person pronoun. And I told I am a Western academic that is how we write. I did contest that, and then I kinda be overturned. Then I said

that's ok... I use a lot of 'I argue.' Once I did my Ph.D, I did ask my supervisor if it is ok to write in this way. He said it's ok as it is your work and your voice. Try to make it clear that it's your voice. I tried to be objective at some points that it is clear. The Western...why it is really much more about asserting yourself or putting your own voice into your research or making clear you tribute your research to yourself. If you get to a high level, what I have found you should be writing or making it personal or subjective but it is not about subjective or not to say "I found that" 'I know' but it is about asserting your own voice because you do by yourself. To subjective it means when you don't have appropriate literature review... you don't come with the background... you just said I've been coding because it it a good pro... So can you be more explicit and support that? So it is more like research require more objectivity or scale or knowledge of the background of the literature and the criticism. That doesn't mean you have to avoid using 'I' or 'we.' That is bizarre.

The finding of this sub-theme, using overt versus covert self-representation, is similar to Hyland (2002b), Hyland and Milton (1997) and Lin (2013), who found that writing as native speakers, L1 writers are usually assertive and also have a better control of asserting themselves. L2 writers, on the other hand, have been more in the dilemma when it comes to representing themselves in RAs. However, all the four native English informants mentioned that the use of authorial self-representation relies on the research paradigm, and must be supported by evidence.

On the other hand, interviews with the Thai informants reveal that they are uncertain to use linguistic manifestation of authorial self-representation in their RAs. All the four of them stated that as long as their assertion does not attack others, they would express themselves comfortably. All of them also agreed to not use the first person pronoun 'I,' but preferably used "the author" or "the researcher" because they are concerned about politeness in academic register. They also ascribed this escaping of explicit self-representation to their preference to refrain from face-threatening. For example, Buppa admitted the fact that she is not confident to assure things. She also stated that she usually used "it is assumed that", rather than "I assume that." Similarly, Chaba also

explained that she wouldn't use the word 'argue' in her RAs such as "I argue." This interview finding also supports the findings from the frequency analysis and keyword analysis (Research Question 1) that show the significant underuse of first personal pronouns in all rhetorical sections among the Thai writers compared to the native English counterparts. The findings from the text analysis (Research Question 2) also suggest that the native English writers prefer a more overt and visible style than the Thai writers. On the other hand, the Thai writers prefer the use of covert style for the purpose of politeness which is consistent with the findings by Charoenroop (2014), Jogthong (2001) and Prasithrathsin (2014a). Similarly, Mauranen (1993) and Hinkel (2002) found less authorial visibility and uncertainty in L2' rhetorical strategies to be perceived as polite in Thai writers

In addition, the informant, Wongchai, talked about his experience studying in England and Thailand which have different emphases on authorial self-representation of being overt versus covert.

When I studied in England, it is different as 'I' or 'we' can prevalently be used to indicate our voice and it shows an author as a part of a research community, not a peripheral part. When I came back to Thailand, I still had a problem which style of writing that should be used. However, I will depend on the editor. If they are a native speaker, I will choose writing style of England and if they are Thai scholars (who adhere to the conventional writing style); otherwise, I could meet a conflict...There was one experienced Thai scholars criticized his work (the informant's friend) not academic because he used personal pronoun 'I'.

Wongchai also explained the two reasons for not using 'I' in Thai in Thai academic context, that is, Thai language interference and academic teaching in Thailand.

This conception of not using 'I' or 'we' is influenced by L1 interference. You can notice that in Thai academic writing, we don't use 'Kapajao' (which means 'I') in writing, but we use 'Nganvijai' (the research) instead. Another reason is

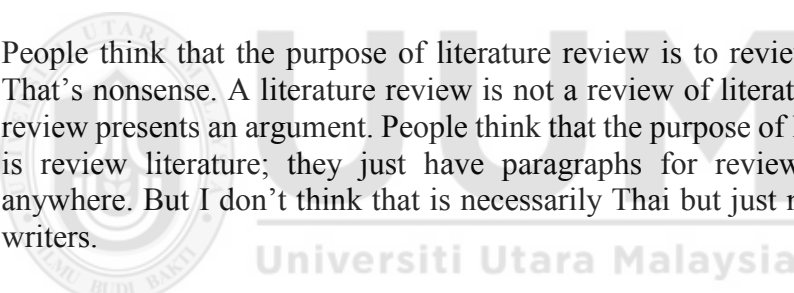
what we have been taught from old Thai teachers that we have to maintain objective and impersonal as much as possibly in academic writing to make it look formal.

He also mentioned that the lack of self-confidence to use attitudinal markers (e.g. surprising) to assert author's position is a consequence of Thai culture which prefers to say "it is an interesting finding", rather than "the finding surprises us." He pointed out that Thai culture is most likely a collectivistic where a confrontation is avoided in order to save face. This point of view is consistent with Charoenroop (2014) who found that the academic rhetoric characteristics of Thai writers appear to be unassertive to defer to authority and distance themselves for the purpose of objectivity resulted from the collectivistic culture which shapes their linguistic style. Anthony also shared the same view by saying that "probably Thais feel they shouldn't say negative thing about other people's works... maybe a face saving issue." Similarly, Jaroongkhongdach et.al (2012) suggest that for many people from Anglophone countries, knowledge is seen as something to be challenged, while for many Asians, including Thais, it is seen as something to be respected. Thus, Thais are more likely to make critical comments on previous literature. In line with these views, another marked difference in textual use in the result section is in the use of *too*, all of which occurred only in the native English corpus to indicate the writer's certainty when interpreting the findings, which might suggest that Thai writers dare not appear to be assertive or overt.

In terms of authorial identity under the rhetorical purposes of each section of RAs (I-M-R-D/C), all of the informants did not pay attention to the method and result sections in their discussion as they said these sections have no problem in terms of how to express authorial self-representation. This finding corroborates with the interview

findings from Perez-Llantada (2007) who found the method and result sections to be easier to write. Therefore, the present researcher will explain the important issue of authorial self-representation expression in the introduction section and the discussion/conclusion sections.

For the introduction section of RA, Anthony raised the issue about the misunderstanding among academic writers in terms of the rhetorical purpose of this particular section, especially the literature review part. He asserted that the purpose of literature review is to justify the research topic and research questions. Reviewing literature is helpful but it is not the purpose. He commented that:



People think that the purpose of literature review is to review the literature. That's nonsense. A literature review is not a review of literature. A literature review presents an argument. People think that the purpose of literature review is review literature; they just have paragraphs for review and don't go anywhere. But I don't think that is necessarily Thai but just novice academic writers.

For the perception among the informants, two of them (Anthony and Bill) agreed that this section is the most challenging to write as they have to produce their own rationale of the study to justify their research topic. In addition, Wongchai discussed about his Thai students' problem of writing this particular section that:

Most Thai writers have a problem with writing the introduction section because they lack knowledge in the research problem. Some of my PhD. students' introduction writings are in vain as they wrote something very superficial and trivial, including a lot of unnecessary background. They are supposed to go right to the point. They should have emphasized on gap filling or weakness by commenting other works, etc. They lack confidence to pinpoint other works' weakness. This kind of introduction has been prevailing in Thai academic community.

The finding in this subtheme, problem in writing the introduction section, is similar to the finding from frequency analysis (Research Question 1). The avoidance of being overt among Thai writers could be found in the corpus based analysis (Research question 1) in that the native English writers made greater use of *I*- pronoun in the introduction section, which was comparatively rare in the Thai corpus with only two instances. Moreover, the significant underuse of hedging word ‘argue’ as well as boosters ‘believe’ and ‘reliable’ in the introduction section of RAs in the Thai corpus suggests that the Thai writers tend to be uncomfortable to comment on the work of others. This finding is consistent with Jogthong (2001) who pointed out that Thai writers are likely to avoid forming forceful claim.

For the discussion/conclusion sections, similar findings are found based on the corpus-based analysis and text analysis in the present study whereby most of the native English informants as well as all the Thai informants point out that this sections require the most expression of authorial self-representaion compared to other sections. For example, Bill agreed that the conclusion section is where the authorial self-representation is mostly found.

Wow it (authorial identity) is mainly in the conclusion, but you got to, as in academic writing, is asserting yourself, but in impersonal way. You can't not say 'I' 'I' 'I'... Because as you know when 'socio' come with interpersonal aspect of language where you should not come as far as possible assert yourself in such a way that you say 'I absolute believe' or 'this certainly shows' or 'this proves that' you should not write like that because you should hedge. You know the principal of hedging and sometimes you know..um.. you do have to look at the umm making a point as what you think. I mean what the conclusion is from this study. Whether to draw from evidence from the text, please not making some sort of pronouncement. What I am saying is from the text.

Both Bill and Wongchai asserted that a proper hedging is highly important for this section. Wongchai stated that “this section requires the intervention of rhetorical language tactics that persuades a reader along with the argument made, e.g., the proper use of hedging. Most of the Thai writers seem to confirm their finding in this section.” He further recalled his experience, as an editor, about Thai writers’ problem in writing too general in representing themselves:

When it comes to the discussion section and limitation of the study, they opt to be neutral or broad in discussing their limitation, for example, ‘the study can’t be generalized because of the low number of subjects.’ ... They avoid speaking about their weakness because they are afraid that they have to save face by not saying thing negatively. This kind of writing leads to a lack of authority and authorial voice.

Buppa had the same opinion as Wongchai when reviewing RAs written by Thais. Buppa found Thai writers to have weaknesses at writing the discussion section. Both Buppa and Chaba said that Thai writers faced problem using of hedging word such as ‘would.’ Buppa explained that “Thai writers know only the surface of how to use modals, like ‘would’ as a past form of ‘will.’ And one might ponder upon writing it is in present tense, how can we use ‘would’ in present time. Students used to ask me like that.”

Chaba also pointed out that she could notice that the lower use of ‘would’ in the texts written by Thais. This view supports the finding from the significant underuse of ‘would’ in the discussion/conclusion sections of RAs in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus in the present study (Research Question 1). Moreover, this finding is consistent with Hinkel (2002) who found that ESL writers in higher education rarely used *would*, compared to native English writers.

Consistent with the interview finding from Lin (2013), the informant, Buppa, also mentioned that “the lack of argumentative writing at the discussion section is caused by the academic teaching in Thailand which does not focus on analytical skill but only on fix form/formula.” The critique that Thais tend to focus on form, rather than content was stated by the informant, William, who found this trait among the Thai reviewers during the review process in a Thai-based journal. This weakness at writing the discussion section is supported by the unassertiveness among the Thai writers’ RAs through the textual analyses, namely, the significant underuse of boosters (e.g., particularly, indeed, and really), the passive form of ‘believe,’ as well as the less visibility in using attitudinal marker/attitudinal stance words with intensifying adverb such as ‘very’ to strengthen claims in this particular section. In similar vein, Prasithrathsin (2014a) also found significant features of unassertiveness in the Thai academic writing. For example, in the discussion/conclusion sections, Thai writers do not show any strong presence of self-representation when criticizing others’ works. Similarly, Pupipat (1998) claimed that the face issue and the seniority system, which are at odds with a collaborative, process-based approach to writing, particularly hinder the ability of the Thai scientists to think critically and write argumentatively, skills which lie at the heart of effective scientific writing. In the same vein, Flowerdew (2001) discovered the lack of authorial voice of East Asian writers, especially Thai writers. The particular skill that these journal editors are looking for is related to less self-effacement or more authorial self-representation.

However, the problem of ineffective writing in this section is generally found among native speakers too. It depends on one’s academic experience in writing for

international publication. The informant, Anthony, as an editor, shared the following experience:

People are always making suggestion for future research where if it has done in one context, we should do in another context. Why? Who care? I mean those suggestions for future research are pointless. They don't say anything important at all. And there are a lot of ideas like that but again there is always an issue of novice writers against experienced writers. I have got several native speakers. They are PhD students. They have the same problem.

In addition, the majority of the informants agreed that the discussion section is where the authorial self-representation appears the most. This finding corresponds to the finding by Lin (2013) who found that the discussion section has the highest total number of stance markers. In general, there is no difference in terms of awareness of rhetorical purposes of RA section between the native English and Thai informants. This finding corroborates with the interview finding by Perez-Llantada (2007) who found that apart from the American scholars, Spanish scholars are acquainted with genre conventions and master the rhetorical rules established by Anglophone publications. Even if the Spanish scholars did not admit any communicative inequality resulting from the dominance of English in academic communication, they affirmed that they use language carefully and seek to emulate native models to make their papers acceptable according to international publication standards.

4.5 Discussion

The researcher finds that there is a need to look at the findings in a broader perspective. Therefore, this section discusses issues in relation to self-representation, specifically about associating Thai culture to Thai writers' lack of self-representation expressions in the RAs. Although past studies have found that Thai writers are reluctant in

expressing their authorial self-representation due to Thai traditional rhetorical tradition, this study does not claim as such. The reason for this is that there is a lack of evidence to link between local published writing guidelines or writing handbooks for Thai writers and Thai culture. Despite the relative uniformity of academic genre, there may be variation in the ways authorial self-representation is used in different writing cultures. The idea that rhetorical patterns may be related to culture remains intuitively attractive for many people. That is why we see such variations as offering explanations for L2 writers' writing practices in English. Drawing from Canagarajah (2002), Hyland (2005a) concludes that while contrastive rhetoric is helpful in providing a social, rather than individual deficit, explanation for L2 writing, we cannot simply read off culture from texts. Therefore, this study suggests that it is important to question, for instances, *How much of the writers' rhetorical deficits can be blamed on the notions of cultural tradition? And how much of it is due to simply writers' own deficient knowledge in the western practices of Anglophone academic practices (of which international journals are based on) and socio-rhetorical and discoursal knowledge of how argumentations is done in English academic writing, and/or perhaps to the inadequacies in current practices of teaching academic English to Thai scholars?*

The present study raises awareness that there are numbers of factors can influence authorial self-representation and cultural preference is just one of those other factors, such as linguistic deficit and journal publication needs. What emerged from the interviews in this study with the informants confirmed that the lack of self-representational expressions was largely due to the lack of experience/exposure to the Anglophone rhetorical practices and writing requirements as well as linguistic deficits

in Thai writers. Some of the issue that can be associated with self-representation are: they might be unaware of the need to exercise and assert authorial voice in professional academic writing, they were not supposed to exercise and assert authorial voice in professional academic writing, they were not quite acquainted enough with the requirements of the Anglophone rhetorical tradition, they didn't have enough linguistic resources in them to be able to do it like the native English speakers. These assumptions can be supported by the Contrastive Rhetoric Theory by Connor (1996) who acknowledged culture to have effect on linguistic knowledge.

Moreover, the RAs of Thai sub-corpora in this study come from local journals that are largely serving local consumptions and local publication needs. Jaroongkhongdach et. al (2012) state that Thai ELT academics appear to be interested in conducting practice-oriented research which address local context and serve publication needs of local journals. Therefore, it is only natural and logical to assume that the Thai writers write in the way they did- that they may be chary about making strong claims in their work to be avoid being negatively judged by their colleagues, and since the target readerships are local, they presumed less writing efforts put into it. Similarly, Dontcheva-Navratilova (2016) found less expression of authorial self-representation in research articles by Czech linguists which was ascribed to the effect of the tendency towards symbiosis in the small Czech linguistics community. Hyland (2005a) explains discourse community as a small culture (e.g., the discipline, age, institution, the profession, etc.) which interacts with national culture. The target readerships can be linked with the concept of Social Constructionist Theory in which self-representation (writer's discursal choices) is constrained partly by the discourses to which they have

had access and partly by what they anticipate will create a good impression in the mind of the target readers.

The findings from the present study offer some advice to struggling Thai writers who want to write and penetrate the international publication arena. The Thai writers need to be aware of the concept of self-representation in writing, including what it is, why it is important for writers to mark personal stance, and especially how ways of self-representation may be different between native English and Thai writers across sections of RAs. Moreover, the findings of the present study would serve as guide for academic writing lecturers at Thai universities in recognizing the rhetorical purposes practiced in the global discourse, and establishing an understanding of authorial self-representation under specific rhetorical purpose of RA sections practiced by native English and Thai writers. Ivanic (1998) stresses that an approach to the teaching of writing should pay attention to meanings of writer identity and raise learners' critical awareness of the nature of writer identity so as to help them gain better control over this essential aspect of writing.

4.6 Summary

Chapter four has presented and discussed the findings for the research questions 1, 2, and 3. The chapter entails analyses on authorial self-representation in the RAs. It includes the identification of each of the four types of stance linguistic features: first person pronouns, hedges, boosters, and attitude expressions in RAs across rhetorical sections. The frequency of their occurrences in RAs was determined, supplemented with the identification of keywords which was discussed in the context. The textual interpretation of stance linguistic features was examined in the context they are

realized. Finally, the chapter ends with the interview findings on the issues and challenges faced by the eight native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication.



CHAPTER FIVE

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

5.1 Introduction

The final chapter of this dissertation begins with a summary of the key findings. This is followed by the conclusions which highlight insights to the body of knowledge. This chapter concludes with the implications to the writing instructors by offering specific recommendations and providing sample of pedagogical outlines and to research article writers. Finally, the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research are also discussed. This study is important in order to understand how the native English and Thai writers demonstrate different degrees of authorial self-representation in various sections of RAs based on quantitative and qualitative analysis.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The purpose of this study was to understand the authorial self-representation of the native English writers and Thai writers based on the writers' cultural backgrounds across rhetorical purposes of RA sections. In this section, the key findings are summarized and presented according to the research questions posed in this study, namely: (1) What are the frequency distributions of stance linguistic features as used by the native English and Thai writers across different rhetorical sections of RAs?; (2) How do the native English and Thai writers express their stance in their RAs across different rhetorical sections of RAs?; and (3) What are the issues and challenges faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication?

The first objective of the study is to identify the frequency distributions of stance linguistic features as used by the native English and Thai writers across different rhetorical sections of RAs. This study has found that the native English writers in AL use more hedges, boosters, and attitude markers/attitudinal stance words, with greater use of *I-we* pronouns than the Thai writers. There is a slight difference in the use of hedges, boosters, and attitude markers/attitudinal stance words. On the other hand, the marked difference is found in the use of *I-we* pronouns which is approximately thirty times more frequent in the native English corpus than in the Thai corpus.

Across sections of RAs, *I-we* pronouns are found to be used explicitly more frequent in the native English corpus than in the Thai corpus in every RA section. In each of the RA sections, both *I* and *we* tend to occur with greater frequency in the native English corpus than they do in the Thai corpus. Hedges appear to be more frequently used in the native English corpus than those in the Thai corpus in every section. The corpus data reveal that hedges are similarly frequent in both corpora's RAs discussion/conclusion sections. It is worth noting that these hedges score higher in both the native English and Thai writers' RA introduction section as well as discussion/conclusion sections but are less numerous in the Thai writers' RA method section. For boosters, although the corpus data show relatively similar frequencies in total between the two corpora in every section, it is worth noting that these boosters score slightly higher in the introduction section of RAs written by the Thai writers but are slightly more numerous in the method, result, as well as discussion/conclusion sections written by the native English writers. Although corpus data show relatively similar total frequencies, these stance makers of attitude expressions score twice higher in the method section and slightly higher in the result section of RAs written by the

native English writers but are slightly more numerous in the introduction section as well as the discussion and conclusion sections of RAs written by the Thai writers. The frequency of occurrences of 20 most frequent stance linguistic features in each type of the stance linguistic features across sections of RAs is determined for another concordance analysis and later the rhetorical text analysis. To identify the keywords or stance linguistic features which are significantly unusually frequent/infrequent in the Thai corpus compared to the native English corpus across different rhetorical sections of RAs within the 20 most frequently occurring stance linguistic features, the significant lexical differences between texts or keywords are extracted, for example, *I*, *we*, *would*, *argue*, etc., for the concordance analysis and later rhetorical text analysis.

The second objective of the study is to describe how the native English and Thai writers express their stance in their RAs across different rhetorical sections of RAs.. In some of the four sections, the analysis of *I-we* pronouns might be taken as different styles when addressing the international readership. The native English writers appear to be overt when expressing their comments with clear-cut style especially when reporting and discussing the findings in the result section and discussion/conclusion sections, respectively, which establishes a closer proximity between themselves and the expert readers. Their Thai counterparts, however, seem to be less visible especially in the discussion/conclusion sections. This style establishes greater distance between themselves and the community of experts –which might signal the politeness styles of formal academic writing in Thailand. However, both the native English and Thai writers show a similar usage of inclusive *we*-pronoun to involve readers when discussing findings in the discussion/conclusion sections.

For example, the textual analysis of hedges seems to reveal specific preferences in the ways the native English and Thai writers commit themselves to particular propositions when assessing and highlighting research processes and outcomes across RA sections. The different linguistic preferences for expressing commitment (i.e., overuse of *argue* in the native English corpus in the introduction section to present both their own and others' opinions and arguments and a marked preference for active voice in the native English writers' discussion of the articles) might hint at different scholarly traditions, that is, the native English writers are more overt when expressing commitment, whereas their Thai counterparts seem to be covert and choose to be modest, which again might reflect Thai rhetorical traditions.

The rhetorical analysis of boosters seems to reveal specific preferences in the ways the native English and Thai writers commit themselves to particular propositions when assessing and highlighting research outcomes across RA sections. The different linguistic preferences for expressing commitment (i.e., overuse of boosters such as *reliable* in the native English corpus in the introduction section to provide authorial comment on previous method of other studies and a marked preference for passive voice in the Thai writers' discussion of the articles) might hint at different scholarly traditions, that is, the native English writers are more overt when expressing commitment, whereas their Thai counterparts tend to be covert, which again might reflect Thai rhetorical traditions.

In terms of attitudinal expressions, although the overall frequency seems to be similar, there are no differences in textual use between the two groups of writers in the introduction and method sections. However, rhetorical intentions in the use of

attitudinal markers/attitudinal stance words appear in the result and discussion/conclusion sections between the native English and Thai writers might suggest cross-cultural preferences. For example, in the result section, the native English writers explicitly manifest evidence about the research outcomes in order to validate new findings. On the other hand, the Thai writers assess findings and identify areas of future research in a more indirect and tentative way in the discussion/conclusion sections. Thai writers do not show any strong presence of self-representation when criticizing others' works in the discussion/conclusion sections. Again, this trait of the Thai writers may be attributable to the cultural issue.

The fourth objective of the study is to discover the issues and challenges that might be faced by the native English and Thai writers in terms of self-representation expressions and international publication. In general, the findings show the disadvantages of being a non-native English speaker in terms of the linguistic aspect are found to outweigh the advantages. Unlike the native informants, the Thai informants are not comfortable to assert themselves overtly due to their concerns about the consequences of getting negative feedbacks. Based on the interviews, the lack of confidence to assert an author's position, in part, was attributed to Thai culture in which a confrontation is avoided in order to save face. In addition, most of the Thai informants agree that the level of authorial identity is best expressed in the discussion section.

5.3 Conclusions of the Study

Writing RA for international publication has been a challenge for academics regardless of them being native or non-native English writers. An authorial self-representation has been reported as being a problem among non-native English writers, especially

Thai writers, compared to their native English counterparts. This problem leads to the purpose of this research which is to investigate the authorial self-representation used by the Thai writers as well as native English writers. Authorial self-representation in RAs has been examined across cultures, but limited to Thai context. This study attempted to fill in the gap in the literature by extending research on authorial self-representation among Thai writers. Therefore, this study offers an insight and understanding of how native English and Thai writers express their stances in RAs. Another motivation for this study is to explore the other issues and challenges in acceptance for publications at international level.

The analysis of authorial self-representation across cultures across rhetorical purposes of sections or generic patterns (I-M-R-D/C) was also investigated. Apart from qualitative analysis of text based analysis and interviews, quantitative corpus-based analysis is also conducted. Complementing the frequency analysis of the stance linguistic features, the empirical evidence of keyword analysis is a useful tool for directing the researcher to significant lexical differences between texts as well as to show a great deal about frequencies in text which is unlikely to be matched by researcher intuition (Baker, 2006). The present researcher can realize the saliency of potential stance linguistic features which could warrant further text based analysis.

Overall, the analysis of how authorial self-representation expressed by the native English and Thai writers suggests the different preferences in the ways they commit themselves to particular propositions. The native English writers are more overt when expressing commitment, but the Thai counterparts tend to be covert. Drawn upon the interview data, Thai rhetorical traditions which promote the politeness styles of formal

academic writing could possibly be attributable to cultural background among Thais (i.e., face saving and less face-threatening). However, the present study questions the often-used claims that cultural tradition made Thai writers deficient when they write in English. The following questions need to be taken into consideration before making such claim. *How much of the writers' rhetorical deficits can be blamed on the notions of cultural tradition? And how much of it is due to simply writers' own deficient knowledge in the western practices of Anglophone academic practices (of which international journals are based on) and socio-rhetorical and discursal knowledge of how argumentations is done in English academic writing, and/or perhaps to the inadequacies in current practices of teaching academic English to Thai scholars?*

5.4 Implications of the Study

Even though distinct self-representation are reportedly preferred by writers of different culture, it is important for the writers to comply with the global practice, especially when the publication is meant for international readership. Therefore, it is important for the writers and writing instructors to be aware of the common rhetorical pattern of authorial self-representation practiced by the global discourse community. The implications of this study can be categorized into two parts: for writing instructors and RA writers.

5.4.1 Implications for the academic writing instructors

This study has an implication to the instructors of academic writing in recognizing the rhetorical purposes practiced in the global discourse, and establishing an understanding of authorial self-representation under specific rhetorical purpose of RA sections practiced by native English and Thai writers. It is the instructor's

responsibility to address this issue by offering students explicit explanation of how to make choices from linguistic realizations of authorial stance in order to present themselves and convey their judgments, opinions and commitments effectively. Academic writing instructors must establish understanding on the authorial self-representation practiced in the global academic discourse. Rather than relying on experience on the proper way, understanding the proper authorial self-representation would enable the instructors to provide more realistic guidance. The description on the general purpose of authorial self-representation under each rhetorical purpose (Introduction-Method-Result-Discussion/Conclusion) is necessary for the instructors to guide the students to assert themselves effectively under rhetorical purposes in their academic writing, particularly for international publication. Moreover, the knowledge on effective authorial self-representation and the list of examples illustrating how authorial self-representation in RAs from the leading journals are achieved can be used by the academic writing instructors as guidelines to develop teaching materials.

The three specific recommendations as sample of pedagogical outlines for instructors of academic writing are offered. Firstly, student writers need to learn that the extent to which they are allowed to assert their authorial presence needs to be in accord with the rhetorical purposes they would like to achieve. For example, do writers project the same amount of authorship when reviewing or commenting on previously published work, when justifying their methodology, and when reporting research findings? These are questions that can be raised for students to think and learn that in the process of shaping one's authorial presence, or having students explore linguistic features used to represent oneself in context on their own with the use of a concordance program.

Secondly, it may be helpful to offer L2 writers a preliminary list of stance markers on the basis of which they are able to explore what are frequently employed stance markers, how these stance markers are used in context, how they are employed to convey different degrees of authorship, or how they are frequently combined with other stance markers to make arguments convincing and acceptable. (Please refer to the Appendix A.)

Thirdly, it would be useful if teachers display a number of sentences conveying various degrees of authorship and have students share how writers' authorship is perceived from readers' perspectives. Finally, as suggested by Hyland (2001b), offering students opportunities to practice experimenting with their writing with different authorial self-representation and receive feedback about their decisions can help them learn to adjust the amount of force they project through linguistic choices.

5.4.2 Implications for research article writers

The implications of this study to the research writers are mainly in establishing on understanding of authorial self-representation of the target publication and providing the writers with some examples on how to realize the authorial self-representation under various rhetorical purposes of RAs, expected by global practice or international journals. RA writers need to understand authorial self-representation under the rhetorical purposes in the RA to put forward research ideas of their own convincingly. This study has shown that there are many strategies of authorial self-representation that can be used to accomplish a rhetorical purpose, which Thai writers have refrained from using. As such, the illustration of linguistic realizations of authorial self-

representation found in this study provides Thai writers with some examples on how to assert themselves under the expected rhetorical purposes of RA sections.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

The present study has certain limitations. First, the limitation is in the specification of the corpus where the research was conducted solely on the Applied Linguistics (AL) RAs of empirical paradigm. Since the authorial self-representation under rhetorical purposes investigated were specifically for AL RAs of empirical paradigm, therefore the findings may not be suitable for generalizing to other disciplines.

Second, this study is limited in size and specification of the corpora. The limited size of the corpus is due to the limited number of RAs in AL written by Thai writers available online with independent section labels of headings: Introduction, Method, Result, and Discussion/Conclusion sections (I-M-R-D/C). Therefore, frequently occurring stance linguistic features observed may not be representative of how all writers of similar backgrounds from AL represent themselves.

Third, this study is limited to exploring linguistic realization of authorial stance at a word-level which is applicable with the frequency analysis function as well as the keyword analysis function in AntConc, which deal with the test of statistical significance of individual stance linguistic features. However, the present study looked beyond the word level of the stance linguistic features such as *it-pattern*.

Fourth, the present study is limited to the analysis of authorial self-representation between the native English writers and Thai writers in each rhetorical section in order

to provide more understanding into how writers' self-representation can be revealed in each rhetorical section of RAs. The study did not aim to compare authorial self-representation across different rhetorical sections of RAs.

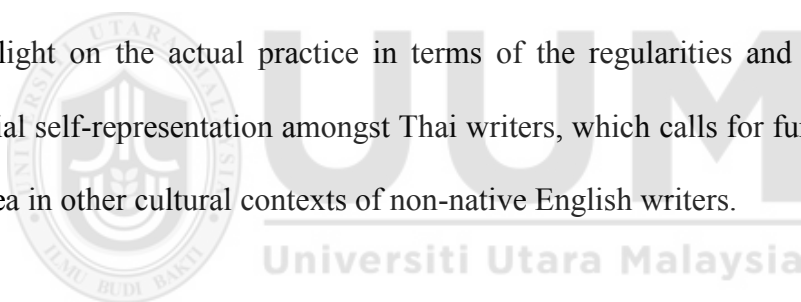
Finally, variation found in authorial self-representation in RAs across cultures in this study can be discounted for one reason, that is, writers might receive language help from English proofreaders or reviewers. It is impractical for this study to trace an original draft. However, even with this limitation, there are still too much to make sense of data. As Conner (1996) suggests, "it is advisable to collaborate with a native speaker of a language other than your own when doing contrastive studies" (p.163), partly because international collaborators can help each other to be sensitive to cultural perceptions at data-interpreting stage of the research. In this study, the present researcher included not only the Thai writers but also the native speakers, two of whom are editors of international journal in AL- related field, as informants in the interviews to avoid stereotyping languages and cultures in this study.

5.6 Recommendations for Future Research

There are many opportunities for research in authorial self-representation in RAs. Drawn from the major findings of this study, some recommendations are presented. Since most of the informants in this present study suggested that having exposure to academic research as another factor which can lead to successful writing for scholarly publication, it is recommended that similar investigation is conducted on RAs of novice writers, compared to those of expert writers. According to Connor (1996), the interrelations between genre knowledge and language proficiency or international writers' acculturation into academic discourse communities are particularly worthy

investigations in the realm of rhetoric studies. Such research would shed more lights on the variation in terms of authorial self-representation in quality writings that could substantially benefit novice writers regardless of native or non-native English writers.

Since all the native English informants in this study suggested that the use of authorial visibility depends on the research paradigm, future research could be carried out to investigate authorial self-representation in other research paradigms or genres such as professional writing (e.g., editorials, business letters). The findings of this study on authorial self-representation and its problems found in RA writing have added to the understanding of rhetorical purposes in RAs written by non-native English writers, compared to their native counterparts in world leading journals. This study therefore sheds light on the actual practice in terms of the regularities and irregularities in authorial self-representation amongst Thai writers, which calls for further research in this area in other cultural contexts of non-native English writers.



REFERENCES

- Anthony, L. (2014a, February 3). *AntConc 3.4.0 Tutorial 10: Keyword List Tool*. [video file]. Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=tMNm5Kb9LLE>
- Anthony, L. (2014b). *AntConc (Version 3.4.4) [Computer Software]*. Tokyo, Japan: Waseda University. Available from <http://www.laurenceanthony.net/>
- Anthony, L. (2017a, January 22). Re: The p value and log likelihood in Keyword [Online discussion group]. Retrieved from <https://groups.google.com/forum/#!topic/antconc/HkFbCkPsmII>
- Anthony, L. (2017b, May 4). Re: Keyness value noshow. [Online discussion group]. Retrieved from <https://groups.google.com/forum/#!topic/antconc/HkFbCkPsmII>
- Anthony, L. (2017c, August 3). Re: Research Questions for Keyword Analysis. [Online discussion group]. Retrieved from <https://groups.google.com/forum/#!topic/antconc/HkFbCkPsmII>
- Afros, E. & Schryer, C. F. (2009). Promotional (meta)discourse in research articles in language and literary studies. *English for Specific Purposes*, 28, 58-68.
- Amnuai, W. (2012). *A comparative study of English applied linguistics research articles between Thai and internationally published journals: Move and formulaic sequence* (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation). Saranaree University of Technology, Thailand.
- Baker, P. (2004). Querying keywords questions of difference, frequency, and sense in keywords analysis. *Journal of English Linguistics*, 32(4), 346-359.
- Baker, P. (2006). *Using corpora in discourse analysis*. New York, NY: Continuum.
- Blagojević, S. (2009). Expressing attitudes in academic research articles written by English and Serbian authors, *Linguistics and Literature*, 7(1), 63 – 73.
- Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2013). *Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners*. London: Sage.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V., 2006. Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, pp.77-101.
- Burrows, J. F. (1992). Computers and the Study of Literature. In: C. S. Butler (Ed.), *Computers and Written Texts* (pp. 167–204). Oxford: Blackwell.

- Cadman, K. (1997). Thesis writing for international students: a question of identity?, *English for Specific Purposes*, 16, 3-14.
- Canagarajah, S. (2002). *Critical Academic Writing and Multilingual Students*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Castelló, M. & Iñesta, A. (2012), Chapter 10 Texts as Artifacts-in-Activity: Developing Authorial Identity and Academic Voice in Writing Academic Research Papers, In M. Castelló and C. Donahue (Eds.), *University Writing: Selves and Texts in Academic Societies, Studies in Writing*, 24 (pp. 179 – 200). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.
- Charoenroop, P. (2014). A cross-cultural pragmatic study: politeness strategies and realizations of the strategies used to perform student- lecturer multiple disagreements by native speakers of Thai and English. *Journal of Educational and Social Research*, 4(1), 147-158.
- Connor, U. (1996). *Contrastive rhetoric: Cross-cultural aspects of second-language writing*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Connor, U. (2003). Changing currents in contrastive rhetoric: Implications for teaching and research. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Exploring the Dynamics of Second Language Writing* (pp.218-241). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Creswell, J.W. (2012). *Educational research: Planning, conducting and evaluating quantitative and qualitative research*. USA: Pearson.
- Davies, D. & Dodd, J. (2002). Qualitative research and question of rigor. *Qualitative Health Research*, 12(2), 279-289.
- Darasawang, P. (2007). English language teaching and education in Thailand: A decade of change. In D. Prescott (Ed.), *English in Southeast Asia: Varieties, Literacies and Literatures* (pp.187-204). London: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.
- De Fina, A. (2011). Discourse and identity. In T. A. Van Dijk (Ed.), *Discourse studies* (pp.263-282). London: Sage.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (2003). *Landscape of qualitative research: Theories and issues*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Denzin, N.K. & Lincoln, Y.S. (2005). Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research. In N.K. Denzin & Y.S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The sage handbook of qualitative research* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- Dueraman, B. (2015). The Crucial Point in Time Where Thai Students Are Introduced English Language Writing, *English Language Teaching*, 8(9), 96-103.
- EF Education First. (2018, January 11). *The world's largest ranking of countries by English skills*, Retrieved from <https://www.ef.com/epi/>
- Fairclough, N. (1989). *Language and power*. London: Longman.
- Flowerdew, L. (2001). Attitudes of journal editors toward nonnative speaker contributions. *TESOL Quarterly*, 35, 121-150.
- Flowerdew, L. (2012). *Corpora and language education*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Fox, H. (1994). *Listening to the world; Cultural issues in academic writing*. Urbana: National Council of Teachers of English.
- Gardezi, S. A. & Nesi, H. (2009). Variation in the writing of economics students in Britain and Pakistan: The case of conjunctive ties. In M. Charles, D. Pecorari & S. Hunston (Eds.), *Academic Writing: At the interface of corpus and discourse* (pp.236-250). New York, NY: Continuum.
- Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and self-identity: Self and society in the late modern age*. Cambridge: Polity Press.
- Glass, T. E. (2008). *The nature of English writing done by graduates of a university in Thailand* (Unpublished Doctoral dissertation). Purdue University, Indiana, U.S.
- Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). *An introduction to Functional Grammar* (2nd ed.), London: Edward Arnold.
- Hewings, A., Coffin, C. & North, S. (2009). E-conferencing: Corpus and discourse insights. In M. Charles, D. Pecorari & S. Hunston (Eds.), *Academic Writing: At the interface of corpus and discourse* (pp. 129-151). New York, NY: Continuum.
- Hinds, J. (1987). Reader versus writer responsibility: a new typology. In U. Connor and R.B. Kaplan (Eds.), *Writing Across Languages: Analysis of L2 Text. Reading*, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Hinds, J. (1990) Inductive, Deductive and Quasi-inductive: Expository writing in Japanese, Korean, Chinese, and Thai Coherence, *Proceedings of Writing: Research and Pedagogical Perspectives* (pp. 87-110), Virginia.

- Hongladarom, K. (2007) "Don't blame me for criticizing you ...": A study of Metapramatic comments in Thai, In W. Bublitz, and A. Hubler (Eds.), *Metapragmatics in Use* (pp. 29-46). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Hinkel, E. (2002). *Second Language Writers' Texts*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Hooi, C. M. & Munir, S. (2014). An analysis of hedging devices in complaint business Letters. *GEMA Online® Journal of Language Studies*. 14(3), 123-142.
- Hunston, S. (1994). Evaluation and organization in a sample of written academic discourse. In M. Coulthard (Ed.), *Advances in Written Text Analysis* (pp. 191-218). London: Routledge.
- Hunston, S. (2006). *Corpus Linguistics*. London: Elsevier.
- Hunston, S. & Thompson, G. (Eds.). (1999). *Evaluation in Text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hornby, A.S. (Ed.). (2010). *Oxford advanced learner's dictionary*. Oxford University Press.
- Hyland, K (1998a). *Hedging in Scientific Research Articles*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Hyland, K. (1998b). Persuasion and context: the pragmatics of academic metadiscourse. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 30, 437-55.
- Hyland, K. (1998c). Boosting, hedging and the negotiation of academic knowledge. *TEXT*, 18 (3), 349-382
- Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary Discourses: Social Interactions in Academic Writing*. London: Longman.
- Hyland, K. (2001a). Bringing in the Reader: Addressee Features in Academic Writing, *Written Communication*, 18(4): 549-74.
- Hyland, K. (2001b). Humble servants of the discipline? Self-mention in research articles, *English for Specific Purposes*, 20, 207-226.
- Hyland, K. (2002a). Options of identity in academic writing. *ELT Journal*, 56(4), 351-358
- Hyland, K. (2002b). Authority and invisibility: authorial identity in academic writing. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34, 1091-1112.

- Hyland, K. (2003) 'Self-citation and Self-reference: Credibility and Promotion in Academic Publication', *Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 54(3): 251–9.
- Hyland, K. (2005a). *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing*. London: Continuum
- Hyland, K. (2005b). Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse. *Discourse Studies*, 7(2), 173-192.
- Hyland, K., & Bondi, M. (Eds.). (2006). *Academic discourse across disciplines*. New York, NY: Peter Lang AG.
- Hyland, K. (2006). *English for academic purposes: An advanced resource book*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Hyland, K. (2008). Persuasion, interaction and the construction of knowledge: representing self and others in research writing, *IJES*, 8(2), 1-23
- Hyland, K. (2011). Disciplines and discourses: social interactions in the construction of knowledge. In Starke-Meyerring, D. (Eds. et al). *Writing in the knowledge society* (pp. 193-214). West Lafayette, IN: Parlour Press.
- Hyland, K. (2012). *Disciplinary identities: Individuality and community in academic discourse*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2015). Genre, Discipline and identity. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 20, 1-27.
- Hyland, K. (2016). Academic publishing and the myth of linguistic injustice. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 31, 58–69.
- Hyland, K. & Tse, P. (2005a). Evaluative *That* Constructions: Signalling Stance in Research Abstracts, *Functions of Language*, 12(1), 39–63.
- Hyland, K. & Tse, P. (2005b). Hooking the Reader: A Corpus Study of Evaluative *That* in Abstracts, *English for Specific Purposes*, 24(2), 123–39.
- Iamla-ong, H. (2013). Language learning problems and language learning strategies of MFU students. *MFU Connexion*, 2(1), 58-91.
- Ivanic, R. (1998). *Writing and identity: The discoursal construction of identity in academic writing*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Ivanic, R., & Camps, D. (2001). I am how I sound: Voice as self-representation in L2 writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 10, 3-33.

- Jaroongkhongdach, W, Todd, R.W., Keyuravong, S., & Hall, D. (2012). Differences in quality between Thai and international research articles in ELT. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11, 194–209.
- Jogthong, C. (2001). *Research Article Introductions in Thai: Genre Analysis of Academic Writing* (Doctoral dissertation). West Virginia University, U.S.
- Kamkhien, A. (2014). Linguistic features of evaluative stance: Finding from research article discussions. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4(1), 54-69
- Kanoksilapatham, B. (2005). Rhetorical structure of biochemistry research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24, 269-292.
- Kanoksilapatham, B. (2007). Writing scientific research articles in Thai and English: similarities and difficulties. *Silpakorn University International Journal*, 7, 172-203.
- Kaplan, R. B. (1966). Cultural thought patterns in intercultural education. *Language Learning*, 16, 1-20.
- Kilgarriff, A. (2001). Comparing corpora. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 6(1), 97-133.
- Kachru, B. B. (1985). Standards, codification and sociolinguistic realism: the 51 English language in the outer circle, In R.Quirkand and H.Widdowson (Eds.), *English in the world: Teaching and Learning the Language and Literatures* (pp.11-30), Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Kongpetch, S (2006). Using a genre based approach to teach writing to Thai students: a case study, *Prospect*, 21(2), 3-33.
- Kuhi, D., & Behnam, B. (2011). Generic variations and metadiscourse use in the writing of applied linguists: A comparative study and preliminary framework. *Written Communication*, 28(1), 1-45. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0741088310387259>
- Kuhi, D., Tofigh, M. & Babaie, R. (2013). Writers' self-representation in academic writing: the case of computer engineering research articles by English versus Iranian writers, *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 2(3), 35-48.
- Lin, M. H. (2013). *A corpus-based approach to identity construction of L1 AND L2 writers in academic discourse: An investigation of writers' self-representation in research articles in two disciplines* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Purdue, U.S.
- Locke, L. F., Spirduso, W. W., & Silverman, S. J. (2000). *Proposals that work: A guide for planning dissertations and grant proposals* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

- MaCrostie, J. (2008). Writer visibility in EFL learner academic writing: A corpus-based study, *ICAME Journal*, 32, 97-114.
- Maurabebm A. (1993). Contrastive ESP rhetoric: metatext in Finnish-English Economics texts, *English for Specific Purposes*, 12, 3-22.
- McEnery, T. & Hardie, A. (2012). *Corpus Linguistics: Method, theory and practice*. Cambridge University Press.
- Miles, M.B., Huberman, M.A., & Saldaiia (2014). *Qualitative data analysis*. California, USA: Sage Publications.
- Mohammad, A., Zeinab, F., & Naserib, S. (2014). Rhethorical moves in applied linguistics articles and their corresponding Iranian Writer Identity. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, 2(3), 35-48.
- Paltridge, B. (1993). Writing up research: A systemic functional perspective. *System*, 21(2), 175-192. Retrieved from [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(93\)90040-N](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(93)90040-N)
- Paltridge, B. (2006). *Discourse analysis: An introduction*. New York, NY: Continuum.
- Patton, M.Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Pawapatcharaudom, R. 2007. *An investigation of Thai students' English language problems and their learning strategies in the International Program at Mahidol University* (Masters' thesis). King Mongkut's Institute of Technology, Bangkok, Thailand.
- Pérez-Llantada, C. (2007). Native and non-native English scholars publishing research. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 4 (2): 217–238.
- Petch-Tyson, Stephanie. 1998. Writer/reader visibility in EFL written discourse. In S. Granger (Ed.), *Learner English on computer* (107–118). New York, NY: Longman.
- Pillai, A.D. (2012). *Discourse analysis of research papers & the acculturation experiences of novice writers in a university foundation program*. (Doctoral dissertation). National Institute of Education, Nanyang Technological University, Singapore.
- Pho,P.D.(2008). Research article abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology: a study of linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance. *Discourse Studies*, 10(2), 231-250.

- Pho, P. D. (2013). *Authorial stance in research articles*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Pojanapunya, P. & Todd, R. W. (2016). Log-likelihood and odds ratio: Keynes statistics for different purposes of keyword analysis, *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory*.
- Politzer-Ahles, S., Holliday, J., Girolamo, T., Sychalska, M. & Berkson, K.H. (2016). Is Linguistic injustice a myth? A response to Hyland (2016), *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 34, 3–8.
- Prasithrathsin, A. (2014a). Nominalization as a marker of detachment and objectivity in Thai academic writing, *MANUSYA: Journal of Humanities*, Special Issue 20, 1-10.
- Prasithrathsin, A. (2014b). The two faces of academic writing: Explicitness and hedging in Thai academic writing. Language and Power, Academic Conference, In A Prasithrathsint (ed.). Bangkok: Chulalongkorn University Printing House.
- Prasithrathsin, A. (2015). Linguistic markers and stylistic attributes of hedging in English academic papers written by native and non-native speakers of English, *MANUSYA: Journal of Humanities Regular*, 18(1), 1-22
- Prince, A. (2000). *Writing through cultures: The thesis writing experiences of five postgraduate research students from non-english speaking backgrounds and cultures* (Master's thesis). Department of Linguistics and Applied Linguistics, University of Melbourne, Australia.
- Pupipat, A. (1998). *Scientific writing and publishing in English in Thailand: The perceptions of Thai scientists and editors* (Unpublished Doctorial dissertation). Teachers College, Columbia University, U.S.
- Office of the Education Council (2016), The National Scheme of Education B.E. 2560-2579 (2017-2036), Retrieved from <http://www.onec.go.th/en.php/home/category/CAT0001145>
- Office of the National Education Commission (2003). *National Education Act B.E. 2542 (1999) and Amendments (Second National Education Act B.E. 2545 (2002))*, Pimdeekarnpim, Bangkok.
- Quaglio, P. (2009). *Television Dialogue: The Sitcom Friends Vs. Natural Conversation*. New York, NY: John Benjamins Publishing.
- Rahimivand, M. & Kuhi, D. (2014). An exploration of discorsal construction of identity in academic writing, International Conference on Current Trends in ELT, *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98, 1492-1501.

- Ramanathan, V., & Atkinson, D. (1999). Individualism, academic writing, and ESL writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8, 45–75.
- Rayson, P. (undated). *Log-likelihood calculator*. Retrieved from ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html (accessed 20 January 2017).
- Rayson, P. & Garside, R. (2000). Comparing corpora using frequency profiling. *Proceeding of the Workshop on Comparing Corpora*. Annual meeting of the ACL, Volume 9 (pp.1-6). Morristown, NJ: Association for Computational Linguistics.
- Richards, J. C., Platt, J. & Platt, H. (1992). *Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics* London, U.K.: Longman Group.
- Rudestam, K. E., & Newton, R. R. (2007). *Surviving your dissertation*. USA: Sage.
- Scott, M. (1996). *Wordsmith tools*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sermsongsawad, U. & Tantipongsanuruk, C. (2013). English language education in Thailand, In S. Sharbawi and T.W. Bigalke (Eds.), *English for ASEAN Integration: Policies and Practices in the Region* (pp.46-50), Brunei: Universiti Brunei Darusalam.
- Sinclair, J. (1991). *Corpus, concordance, collocation: Describing English language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Srinon, U. (2011). *A Longitudinal Study of Developments in the Academic Writing of Thai University Students in the Context of a Genre Based Pedagogy* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Adelaide, Australia.
- Stotesbury, H. (2003a). Evaluation in research article abstracts in the narrative and hard sciences, *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2(4): 327–41.
- Stotesbury, H. (2003b). ‘Who is speaking in research article abstracts? I/we, impersonal agents or previous authors in citations?’, *AFinLAn vuosikirja*, 61, 259–74.
- Stubbs, M. (1996). *Text and corpus analysis: Computer-assisted studies of language and cultures*. Cambridge: Blackwell.
- Sullivan, T.J. (2001). *Methods of social research*. Northern Michigan University, USA: Harcourt College Publishers.
- Swales, J. M. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press.

- Sukhanindr, M. (2008). *Hedging in research articles about English language teaching written by Thai and native speakers of English* (Master's thesis). Department of Foreign Language, Kasetsart University, Thailand.
- Tuppoom, J. (2005). *The effects of noticing linguistic features and discourse on Thai EFL learners' revision of academic essays* (Doctoral dissertation). Suranaree University of Technology. Thailand.
- Wongsothorn, A. (2003,). Levels of English skills of Thai students. *E-journal for Researching Teachers*, 1(2).
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th ed.). New York: Thousand.
- Yotimart, D. & Noor Hashima, A.A. (2017). Authorial identity and linguistic features of native English and Thai writers in research articles. *Pertanika Journal of Social Sciences and Humanities*, 25(3), 1319-1334.



Appendix A

Linguistic Realization of Authorial Stance

Hyland (2005a, 2005b) has presented a metadiscourse model to illustrate the interaction between writers and readers. He maintains that the purpose of writing is not only producing some texts or explaining an external reality, but also constructing and negotiating social relations with the readers. According to this model, the interaction in academic writing mainly involves two major elements of stance (writer-oriented function) and engagement (reader-oriented function) as follows;

1. Stance (Hyland, 2005a)

Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-mentions
almost	actually	admittedly	I
apparent	apparently	amazed	we
apparently	apparent	amazing	
appear	always	amazingly	
appeared	believe	appropriate	
appears	believed	appropriately	
approximately	believes	astonished	
around	certainly	astonishing	
argue	clearly	astonishingly	
argued	conclusively	correctly	
argues	confirm	curious	
assume	convincingly	curiously	
assumed	decidedly	desirable	
broadly	definitely	desirably	
basically	demonstrate	disappointing	
claim	demonstrated	disappointingly	
claimed	demonstrates	dramatic	
claims	doubtless	dramatically	
doubt	essential	essential	
doubtful	establish	essentially	
essentially	established	expected	
estimate	evident	expectedly	
estimated	evidently	fortunate	
fairly	exactly	fortunately	
frequently	incontestable	hopeful	
generally	incontestably	hopefully	
guess	incontrovertible	importantly	
hypothetically	incontrovertibly	inappropriate	

indicate	indeed	inappropriately
indicated	indisputable	interesting
indicates	indisputably	interestingly
imply	impossible	prefer
largely	impossibly	preferable
likely	never	preferably
mainly	necessarily	preferred
may	obvious	remarkable
maybe	obviously	remarkably
might	particularly	shocked
mostly	realize	shocking
normally	realized	shockingly
overall	realizes	striking
often	reliable	strikingly
perhaps	reliably	surprised
plausible	really	surprising
plausibly	show	surprisingly
postulate	showed	unbelievable
postulated	shown	unbelievably
postulates	shows	understandable
presumable	sure	understandably
presumably	surely	unexpected
probable	truly	unexpectedly
probably	undoubtedly	unfortunate
possible	undeniable	unfortunately
possibly	undeniably	unusual
quite	undisputedly	unusually
questionable	undoubtedly	usual
rather		
relatively		
rarely		
roughly		
seems		
seem		
seemingly		
seldom		
slight		
slightly		
should		
sometimes		
somewhat		
suggest		
suggested		
suggests		
suppose		
supposed		
supposes		
suspect		
suspects		
tend		

tended
 tends
 theoretically
 typical
 typically
 uncertain
 uncertainly
 unclear
 unclearly
 unlikely
 unsure
 usually
 virtually
 would
 wouldn't

2. Linguistic Realization of Authorial Stance (Pho, 2013)

Pho (2013) provides a list of those linguistic features that help the authors indicate their 'stance' in their writing. Only word-level stance markers are combined to the present study's model as in the following list.

2.1 List of attitudinal stance in the corpus

abnormal	extremely	key
acceptable	fair	knowledgeable
accessible	fine	limited
accurate	flexible	little
adequate	fruitful	ready
advantageous	glad	realize
advisable	great	reliable
ambiguous	heavy	restricted
ambivalent	helpful	rightly
ample	imperfect	succinct
applicable	importantly	sufficient
arguable	impractical	suitable
arguably	imprecise	superficial
attributable	impressive	supportive
aware	inaccurate	thorough
awkward	inadequate	thoughtful
beneficial	inappropriate	too
boring	inattentive	unanswered
brief	inauthentic	unavoidable
briefly	incomprehensible	unclear
careful	inconclusive	uncomfortable

cautious	inconsistent	uncommon
challenging	incredible	unconstructive
comparable	indispensable	unconvincing
compatible	influential	unreliable
compelling	infrequent	
complicated	insufficient	
comprehensive	interesting	
conclusive	interestingly	
confident	ironically	
conflicting	irrefutable	
conservative		
considerable		
contradictory		
conveniently		
curiously		
cynical		
detrimental		

2.2 List of epistemic stance in the corpus

about	generally	probable
according to	hardly	probably
actual	hypotheses	rarely
actually	hypothesis	real
always	impossible	really
apparent	in fact	relative
apparently	in general	roughly
approximately	likely	seldom
assumption	maybe	single
assumptions	mere	slight
at times	never	sole
certain	normally	sometimes
certainly	obvious	somewhat
claim	obviously	suggestion
claims	of course	suggestions
definite	often	sure
definitely	only	surely
doubt	overall	theories
doubtful	perhaps	theory
evident	possibilities	true
exact	possibility	truth
exploratory	possible	unlikely
fact	possibly	unsure
facts	potential	usually
frequently	presumably	

Appendix B

Interview Questions

1. What is the main reason for publishing your article? How was the reception? What were the feedbacks from referees?
2. What are the rhetorical convention for writing RAs, particularly in Applied Linguistics?
3. Which sections of a research article are more difficult to write?
4. Do you feel disadvantaged of being non-native writers while writing in English, particularly for international publication?
5. Do you feel comfortable in revealing your identity (self-representation) when writing research articles?
6. If you have, could you give me a few examples of how you project authorial identity (authorial self-representation) in your own research articles linguistically and rhetorically? (Discuss with participants about their own discoursal practices and ask them to clarify reasons for their own choices (or linguistic features such as *surprising(ly)*, *really*, *indeed*, *would*, *argue*, etc. in specific contexts)
7. Among the different sections of RAs, do you try to project or represent yourself at different degrees of certainty/ tentativeness in different sections or RAs, and why?
8. Since this is a semi-structured open-ended interview, informants are welcome to raise their relevant issues.

Appendix C

Samples of Interview Scripts

Interview with Anthony

- RESEARCHER: Could you briefly introduce yourself? hahaha
- INFORMANT: Well, I am ... I am working at ... Urr what else you want me to say...
- RESEARCHER: How long have you been working here?
- INFORMANT: Here 25 years and 27 years in Thailand
- RESEARCHER: So you can speak Thai like Thais. So you have a family here?
- INFORMANT: My wife died.
- RESEARCHER: She is Thai?
- INFORMANT: Yes, but I have dog. It means you can't leave. If you have a family, you can leave. But when you have dog, you can't leave.
- RESEARCHER: I have a family too, but I have no kids. Luckily I am. So what is the main reason for publishing your research article? How was the reception at that time?
- INFORMANT: Which one do you want me to tell?
- RESEARCHER: Anyone that you can remember? Maybe the recent one.
- INFORMANT: Let's me look at the recent one. It has just been accepted two months ago. It is online, but it is not in the journal yet. I sent English for Specific Purposes. I will find it for you.
- RESEARCHER: So the reception. Oh Dr. I have second revision. I am very afraid I can't get accepted at the end. I sent to Pertanika journal in Malaysia. Have you ever experienced that, two-time revisions.
- INFORMANT: Yes, I published in Applied Linguistics which is three or four stages of revision. That one you get about fifteen pages of reviewers' comments. It is ridiculous and different from anything else.
- RESEARCHER: Oh I have never tried and don't want to try hahaha. So how long since the first sending until publishing?

- INFORMANT: You mean publishing online or publishing in paper version because it is a big difference. It can take two or three years from online to be published in paper. It depends on journals. Sometimes something is very very poorly rerun. It should be published in January 2017 which is unavailable yet. Maybe you should interview Punjaporn after this because we co-wrote an article a couple years ago which we sent to International Journal of Corpus Linguistics and it took fifteen months to get reviewers' comments and it is a rejection, but we sent to another journal and has been accepted and published. You know how journals work. All the papers will go to editors. There they decide if it is worth sending to reviewers. If you got sent to reviewers, then it is reasonable articles anyways. If you get reviewed back, it's very rare that you get a review to publish without any changes, even get minor changes is very rare. Some of the changes are annoying. Some of the changes are pointless.
- RESEARCHER: Yes, sometimes I think I already explain but why the reviewers did not understand.
- INFORMANT: Even you understand it, it doesn't mean others understand. You need to change it.
- RESEARCHER: Today I just saw the second revision from only one reviewer, what about the other two?
- INFORMANT: It's a problem of editor using reviewers because it is just for good will. I reviewed a lot of journals. I don't get anything forward normally. If you review for Elsevier journal, you get free access to Scopus. In that position, they do not want to impose on reviewers, so first of all they will start whether it is worth sending the article to the reviewers and in some journals, they might only sent 10 or 20 percent to reviewers, even all the rest are rejected from the editors anyways. Then once the reviewers look at them, you might get acceptance rate with major changes of 20-30 percent. Quite a few journals these days that have five percent acceptance for major journals.

RESEARCHER: In terms of the feedback from your reviewers, is there nothing to do with language, right? Like, you are too assertive.

INFORMANT: I never see things like that. And I've never done the comment to others in the thing like that either. I always made a comment on the language to be improved or checked by native speakers.

RESEARCHER: So what is the normal comments you usually get?

INFORMANT: A typical article probably has to make four or five very big changes, like extra paragraphs and a few minor changes. For the article here, one of the reviewers might accept and others might want changes.

RESEARCHER: So how many times for revision.

INFORMANT: only one as one of the reviewers accepted without revision which is very rare. But nowadays it is very unusual that anyone would accept an article without revision. One of my reviewers said it is accepted that is and no changes have been made. The other one has four or five minor changes, so two reviewers for this one.

RESEARCHER: So no comments are about language.

INFORMANT: No, I don't. I remember that one comment on my language is well-written even I don't like the idea and methodology.

RESEARCHER: Second question, what do you think about Thai rhetorical tradition in academic writing?

INFORMANT: I don't understand this question. What do you mean by this?

RESEARCHER: Based on your experience, what is typical Thai writers' way of writing?

INFORMANT: Umm there are misconceptions. I don't know whether they are Thai. I think there are more about novice academic writers, rather than being Thai writers. People think that the purpose of literature review is to review the literature. That is nonsense. A literature review is not a review of literature. A literature review presents a knowledge and argument. People think that the purpose of literature review is review literature; they just have paragraphs for review and don't go anywhere. But I don't think that is necessarily Thai but just novice academic writers. In

terms of overall style or organization, it is much bigger difference between a novice and experienced writers than between the native speakers and non-native speakers. You may have some differences in phrasing and thing like that because non-native speakers don't have or perhaps have the same repertoire as native speakers but the bigger is more about whether you are experienced in writing academic English as it is completely a new genre or register for most people. So I don't think the issue is Thai rhetorical tradition.

RESEARCHER: Ok, the issue is about the novice and the experience. So it mean the novice just report and report without critical analysis?

INFORMANT: There is nothing about critical analysis. It is making an argument justify your research. You can write literature review without referring to any literature if you want to. The purpose of literature review is to justify your research topic your research questions. Reviewing literature can help but it is not a main purpose. The other thing in common that people come up with is boring discussion. People are always making suggestion for future research where if it has done in one context, we should do in another context. Why? Who care? I mean those suggestions for future research are pointless. They don't say anything important at all. And there are a lot of ideas like that but again there is always an issue of novice writers against experienced writers. I have got several native speakers. They are Ph.D. students. They have the same problem.

RESEARCHER: So there is nothing to do with Thai writers.

INFORMANT: Yes, I think it do with exposure to academic writing.

RESEARCHER: But I think it might be difference in terms of vocabulary repertoire as we have limited vocabulary and cannot come up with like native which is more concise.

INFORMANT: so you are getting question five

RESEARCHER: Yes, I do agree that. I think that the only main benefit of being a native speaker is being able to a much larger vocabulary which allows you to make a more nuanced argument. You can say the

exact thing you want. You can say the thing to make it sound nice. But it isn't the issue of whether the article is accepted or not. It is nice but there are quite a few of native speakers who write a boring or in vain.

RESEARCHER: I can differentiate between Thai and native English article as I can see from the vocabulary like 'nuance,' which is not Thai writers can come up with.

INFORMANT: But quite a few native speakers can't either. It depends on how your vocabulary correlate with how much you read. The more you read, the greater vocabulary. It is a general rule. The problem is they don't read.

A So the more they read, the more they can be like native speakers.

INFORMANT: Thai people have a strong reputation of not being a reader.

RESEARCHER: What is the rhetorical convention of AL?

INFORMANT: What do you mean by rhetorical convention? You mean generic structure. Generic is an adjective of genre. It is a genre's structure. Rhetorical convention is normally used in something more specific.

RESEARCHER: Yes, could you give me an example?

INFORMANT: Urrr citation convention is different between the engineering and arts. Arts uses a surname date system and engineer use superscript number system. That would be a different rhetorical convention between engineer and arts for publishing research articles.

RESEARCHER: Based on your idea, what is the section which is difficult to write?

INFORMANT: It depends. If I have done a piece of research where the methodology is highly technical and complicated, it can be a serious challenge writing it in one or two thousand words. I have got so much to explain what I am doing in the methodology. In other cases, the methodology is by far the easiest because it follows fairly tradition or format. There are some articles where it has problem in introduction because I

have only one reference I can find and I sort things in 30 years ago because I am looking back. Then you gonna feel this is a problem when publishing because people expect something up to date but there aren't something up to date because no one works in this area in 30 years. A result section is rarely difficult. Discussion and Conclusion the main problem is the thinking, not the writing. Actually coming up with the useful point to make at the discussion section can be what I should say.. I think it is interesting but I have no idea what to say about this.

RESEARCHER: Some journals have a separate conclusion and discussion section.

INFORMANT: Most traditional approach is the section of the article is conclusion and discussion. This is why you get IMRD structure. Conclusions, a lot of articles don't have a conclusion and yeah I don't like writing conclusion because it is boring. You don't say something new; otherwise, we have to make it interesting.

RESEARCHER: I think about the implication of the study

INFORMANT: That is in the discussion. I think conclusion is the summary paragraph at the end, which you don't need. Sometimes you don't feel you are writing it because it gonna be boring.

RESEARCHER: Yeah sometimes I just wonder what I gonna write in conclusion as I already talk a lot everything in the discussion and result.

INFORMANT: Yeah that is why I don't bother with a conclusion because you feel you are just repetitive.

RESEARCHER: But because of the format of the journal, right?

INFORMANT: yeah so that is not a very good journal. Any journals which impose the format is a bad journal. I shouldn't say that but because you can't impose a format as it depends on a research paradigm. It depends on perspectives and it depends on many things. You need to be open.

RESEARCHER: so question five is already, right/

INFORMANT: yes I talked about number 5.

RESEARCHER: so you feel advantaged of being a native speaker in terms of vocabulary repertoire?

INFORMANT: yes, sure but my main advantage is my experience in research and that is not an issue of being a native speaker. It is much easier for me. The more you read academic writing, the more phrases available to you. It is more about being exposed to academic register.

RESEARCHER: For the number six, revealing identity for my research is about expressing yourself or use linguistics features that express yourself such as 'surprisingly' or first person pronoun or put yourself openly like 'I argue that..' 'I reasonably assume that..' Based on my experience when I read research article written by Thais whether in Thai or English, they are not assertive like that.

INFORMANT: It is nothing to do with Thai. It is general conception of scientific writing. It goes back to the idea in science who do the research does not matter, it is the research that matters. So you should gain the same result irrespective of who does the research. Therefore, you should hide the researcher's identity. This is the traditional view in science. Even that only became the dominant view in ...period. If you look back to original research article in the 18 to early 19 century, they were very personal and like letter. It is very rarely in the first half of this century that you get this idea as a science is an impersonal activity where a researcher doesn't matter. In a field like Applied Linguistics which has a fairly big sociological science, clearly their argument against that people don't believe it. People argue about this even in science about whether you should be passive to hide the identity. So this is nothing to do with Thai. It is again about the traditional novice outsider view of what academic writing is and the experienced view.

RESEARCHER: We were taught from our lecturers that we have to hide our identity as academic writing book said academic writing has to be objective.

INFORMANT: Which book said that?

RESEARCHER: hahaha I have one.

INFORMANT: Something I was writing about six months ago. I want to make this point. And that you shouldn't use 'I' in academic writing. I want to make this point as a part of my argument in the article, so I looked and searched for public articles which say this. The only thing I could find is a citation in another article. I couldn't find a thing originally said this. It is a citation of citation. A second citation is an only thing I could refer to. So it is one of these myths that exists. You can't find evidence but everyone believes it. But it is not Thai. It is about traditional outsiders' views of writing.

RESEARCHER: So in your article, if so I don't want to focus on whether you agree to 'I' or 'the researcher.' But can you dare to judge other works that they are not reliable and you have evidence?

INFORMANT: Yes, and it has nothing to do with Thai or culture. It depends on the integration of academic environment. Most Thai journals rely on Thai academic reviewing. Thai can review and reviewing is ultimate judgment of academic writing. Reviewing is always subjective.

RESEARCHER: How do you project yourself in previous research?

INFORMANT: It depends on the research. It depends on paradigm we working within or it depends on whether I actually become important in the research stage or not. I like this example giving to you. I am the interviewer. Being an interview means that I am part of the research process. One aspect of interviewing people is the relationship and etc. And I can argue that I have relationship with my subjects as I work with them for 12 years. That is clearly something that is highly personal but it effects the research. So there are unlikely to be any issue of less likely to be miscommunicated. Two or three years ago there are article in Applied Linguistics about interviewing. I can't remember. You have to read as he criticized those that did not give enough information about interview process. This is clearly that I am part of the research process. When you see 'I' in my work, it means that is my argument. It is new and no one ever made.

- RESEARCHER: so what about 'It is argued that...'?
INFORMANT: If I am saying 'it is argued that...', I need to give a citation because I imply a general argument in that way. "I have created. I believe that..." these are the thing that I did. I attempted I start or this things are my argument. I am actually likely to use 'I' in methodology section. I do quite a lot of emailing writing with Ken Hyland this week. If you want to see one article of mine, you should go to the library at fifth floor. Say you like to look at KPL4. It is in the folder of my articles. I think you will find that 'I' is probably used 500 times in that article. It is a personal introspection article. If you don't use 'I', I could be bloody stupid because it is an article with personal introspection. It depends on paradigm and approach and thing like that. And a Thai co-author has no problem in using 'I' as long as we can see the purpose. Ken Hyland made a couple of this point as well. He made this point in his article published last year. The name of the article 'Academic Publishing and the Myth of Linguistic Injustice.'" I will tell you the summary. "The difficulties that academic writing for publication applied as much the native speaker as a non-native speaker." This is his main argument. I have my own database. If you want, yeah.
- RESEARCHER: Thank you so much. Ok all your response is clear. But one thing I like to ask about the linguistic features, based on my own corpus analysis that is unusually frequent in native corpus than Thai corpus, such as 'would'?
- INFORMANT: Did you use 'log-likelihood'? Did you do a keyword analysis? You used AntConc?
- RESEARCHER: Yeah, I just normalize the frequency.
- INFORMANT: In the AntConc, you open your Thai corpus as your source corpus and in the Keyword section of AntConc, you set up an international corpus and you do a keyword analysis using log-likelihood. And that is far than to say that there are a lot of occurrence of it. You can talk to Panyaporn about this. This is her area specialism. She is a keyword analysis specialist. He

- will help you. She works for me. She must help you. We also have free program to do against general corpus. It is easy to use.
- RESEARCHER: Based on your experience, do you ever notice the problem of using particular hedging among your students?
- INFORMANT: I have not noticed that. I would correct multiple hedging in the same sentence or it is actually equal balance between correcting too much hedging and correcting there aren't hedging. Sometimes students write 'perhaps might be that.. .' which is too much. It is quite even between them. I don't notice. Oh just remember. When I have done thing with Chula PhD student where they have to give a presentation of their idea for the external people to comment on. One thing I noticed very clearly is they did not use any hedging. Everything is straight. But I haven't noticed here.
- RESEARCHER: so what about in terms of attitudinal markers use among them?
- INFORMANT: Probably Thais feel they shouldn't say negative thing about other works... maybe a face issue.
- RESEARCHER: what about self-mentions?
- INFORMANT: I've never noticed it. When people want to look at research writing with self-promotion, it becomes a problem. Are they promoting themselves? Are they promoting their works? I mean if they cite themselves 20 times and they don't cite anyone else, that is when self-mention is a problem; otherwise, self-mention is not a problem.
- RESEARCHER: So it is not a big deal for you as a reviewer, right? I mean whether to use 'I' or 'the researcher'?
- INFORMANT: No, I mean 'the researcher' sound very awkward. Trying to distance yourself is very awkward. But it is very rare that thing happens. You shouldn't be more worried about native or non-native?
- RESEARCHER: But my research comes in a half way hahaha. I can't not change topic.
- INFORMANT: No, I mean if your finding show original conception was wrong, you have to reinterpret it to a new conception. That is more

interesting than showing your original conception. Because when anytime you do research, you set up your research to fit your beliefs unconsciously. Your belief is Thais have traditional academic writing. If you find out your original belief is wrong, that is much more interesting that you actually show you found some interesting new rather than confirming what you believed. But when you compare, it is not a comparing like with like. It is not comparing a well-published person with a well-published person with different nationalities. Normally it is a comparing novice authors with experienced authors. Where you can get the international corpus, you go to the major international journals which have people who have lots of experiences. The comparison is false because your one variable is the difference of nationality. There are some Thais who work in international well-known university. You can call them international authors. You should compare Thai master students' writing with master students' writing at British university. So what people compare is normally like a Thai published articles and international published article which is nothing about Thailand.

RESEARCHER:

Thank you so much. I will discuss with my supervisor about this issue.

Interview with Buppa

(Before starting the interview, the researcher and Buppa had a long conversation about her private life and her children's education.)

RESEARCHER: O.K. Let me simply introduce the word 'identity' or 'self-representation' in writing context, which can be revealed through linguistic features like...personal pronouns. For example, to use 'I' or 'we' in RAs to show your identity can express or convey your authorial self-representation.

INFORMANT: As in academic writing we was taught that we should not show subjectivity and personal feeling in our work, even "I", except that when expressing opinions, we might use 'in my opinion.' This is my personal conception, not other's. Academia is about rationalized means. What we study, found whether consistent with other studies depends on fact. For my personal style, I don't express feelings when writing research articles because it is about information, fact and rationale.

RESEARCHER: We will begin with first question. What is the main reason of publishing your research articles?

INFORMANT: Most of the time, we have done so because of academic promotion requirement. We also want to disseminate our work for the purpose of application in real context. In general, people always said that "Keun Hing"(on the altar), we feel our works has no value. At least, we can disseminate our work via presentation, poster.

RESEARCHER: Which journal do you publish your work?

INFORMANT: It is TCI journal. It is very difficult for our work to get accepted in Scopus. What we write is not profound enough to reach that international level. We are in humanity field, so mostly our sample size cannot be generalized or referred by international sample size. Unlike science field, if we study blood cell, we can generalize to all people in the world.

RESEARCHER: Yes, according to the seminar whereby the speaker was from Scopus said that she needed the research that can make

contribution globally, rather than specific area. What about the feedback of your acceptance from TCI journals?

INFORMANT: As my first experience as a notice, I got a problem with format. I did not study format deeply. They criticized my works in trivial details which I wondered why. I am old so I don't know how to use 'MS word' properly; however, I studied and typed by myself because I am motivated to do it. It is a part of my work at this position.

RESEARCHER: What is your field?

INFORMANT: I emphasize on education, teaching and curriculum in English.

RESEARCHER: Do you have any feedback in terms of language from referees?

INFORMANT: Recently, nothing wrong with grammar, but the language is ambiguous that needs more clarification. There is a problem with citing outdated references; needing latest five years or ten years at least. It is sometimes difficult.

RESEARCHER: Is your work downloadable via internet?

INFORMANT: I have no idea where they publicized my work. I just sent to journals or went to the conference.

RESEARCHER: You already talked about the academic writing style, however, do you have any idea about the rhetorical convention of Thai academic writing?

INFORMANT: It is like when we read, we can clearly notice it belongs to Thai writers because the language or sentence is written from direct translation. They are likely to explain repetitively and long-winded, unlike native writing which tends to be concise. Moreover, the paragraph or ideas lacks connection or connection ties. This is our weakness which gains highly comments.

RESEARCHER: It seems that each paragraph is just a report of other finding with no reflection.

INFORMANT: That is a pattern of Thai writing which seems to be influenced by academic teaching. However, I was taught to add critical and reflective ideas after reporting what others have been studied.

- INFORMANT: We did not see the significance of why they talked about the others' work. Thai people are weak at writing discussion. They just summarize without relating their results with previous studies they review. They lack critical comments. That is why I have to warn myself not to do that.
- RESEARCHER: What about rhetorical convention in Applied Linguistics and how about the order of IMRD(C)? Another interviewee said that a literature research article has different sectional pattern from empirical one. What do you think?
- INFORMANT: I haven't known much into that. I wrote according to a journal guideline. For example, if it is an Abstract, how can I write the purpose of study, and other subsections; otherwise, it depends on language style (how to make it well-organized) which needs more attention.
- RESEARCHER: Is a persuasion attributed to Applied Linguistics? I mean to make our writing credible or attractive to the readers.
- INFORMANT: I give importance to the reference, rather than using language to look impressive or attractive. I mean I found this...in my study which support other studies or vice versa. If you think it is applicable to your suit, then you is freedom of choice to a reader whether they want to apply my findings.
- RESEARCHER: Which is the most difficult section of RAs to write?
- INFORMANT: I think Introduction is the most difficult. It is a beginning of everything. It is always difficult at the starting point. This is the case of proposal writing too. If you can well establish our rationale of study, things subsequently will be easier. The writing about rationale of study is time-consuming and difficult. The other sections contain their own procedure. For example, discussion depends on the results. This is my personal belief.
- RESEARCHER: Yes, I agree as we must read many literature and discuss or relate them and put into critical writing.
- INFORMANT: I heard many people said that the most difficult section is Abstract.

RESEARCHER: Yes, but there is a specific pattern. Yes, but there is a specific pattern at hand to conform for Abstract.

RESEARCHER: Do you feel disadvantage being a non-native speaker?

INFORMANT: What country?

RESEARCHER: Native English speaker

INFORMANT: I think yes. But not disadvantage in terms of grammar. I mean the accuracy of the grammar. But we have a problem with phraseology. However, when you wrote one paragraph, I spent a couple hours but when I sent to my native English supervisor, she sent it back in just an hour and rewrote all of my writing. She said she can understand what I wrote but my language is redundant. She wrote only 4-5 lines for that paragraph. Sometimes I felt discouraged due to such unproductive time spent on writing.

RESEARCHER: Yes, we have disadvantages.

INFORMANT: We rarely use English language.

RESEARCHER: Do you think that we are disadvantage in vocabulary repertoire. Native speakers can better use concise vocab.

INFORMANT: I agree. I sometimes can't figure out the most suitable word.

RESEARCHER: For the next question, are you feel comfortable in expressing your identity in research articles, e.g. using attitudinal adjectives.

INFORMANT: Yes, if it carries neutral way of expressing identity, for example, 'interested.'

RESEARCHER: Do you dare to write that the research method of a previous study is not reliable?

INFORMANT: I feel considerate to say that it is Thai style. Even when I assess other research papers, I never ever let them down. I sometimes see a totally unacceptable writing style. I feel I love to be merciful and I can let them to have a chance to improve their works. However, that leads to overloaded work upon my shoulders. If they correct their work successfully, I get merits from helping others.

RESEARCHER: I would like to ask you talk about examples of linguistic features which have been used by your research articles. How do you use them or do you dare to use them, for example, the case of personal pronoun 'I'.

INFORMANT: In general, 'the researcher' has been used. I also use adjectives, such as 'interest' extremely and very surprise too in case that I feel it very strongly important and I want the reader to know it.

RESEARCHER: It must be personal feelings into it, right?

INFORMANT: Yes, 'really' with adjective, for example, really surprise is more noticeable.

RESEARCHER: In my pilot study, native speaker is likely to use adverb in argument making (i.e. it is reasonably argued that..), contrast to Thai writers who is likely to omit adverb (i.e. it is assumed that...)

INFORMANT: Yes, it is right.

RESEARCHER: We dare not use 'adjective' and 'adverb' to help emphasize the statement.

INFORMANT: I think we don't have expansive vocabulary repertoire. I don't know exactly to what extent the particular adverb or verb can be used, for example, 'very'. Rather, we keep our writing neutral first, avoiding strong proposition.

RESEARCHER: Do you dare to use 'I argue that...' to argue other works.

INFORMANT: I am likely to use 'agree.'

RESEARCHER: If you disagree with previous work, do you dare to express disagreement?

INFORMANT: For me, I never used that. I mostly use 'agree' because the findings implement our specific study and have similar result. Mostly, I don't use 'argue'; otherwise, I use 'tend to be or tendency.'

RESEARCHER: Thai people have indirect approach to do that. They feel considerate to be straightforward.

INFORMANT: Yes, we call 'unconfident.' I am not confident to assure things.

RESEARCHER: According to my pilot study, I rarely see people frequently use 'would' compare with native speakers. It is three times more

than Thai writers' corpus. It is drawn from the 30 research articles corpora. (15 native corpus is RAs indexed by Scopus). I assume that it may be attributed to the lack of knowledge in the grammatical use of 'would' among Thais, especially *would+ have+ past participle*. I don't know.

INFORMANT: Yes, I agree. We know only the surface of how to use some modal, like 'would' as a past form of 'will.' And one might ponder upon writing it is in present tense, how can we use 'would' in present time. Students used to ask me like that. But when we turn to read research articles, we can notice that the use of 'would' is more likely to be 'a suggestion', and 'will' is used for 'a determination', rather than something which will probably occur in the future. I know that 'will' like 'I will go to school tomorrow' means this person will probably go. That is what our students know. However, when a native speaker said 'Oh, I will', it certainly mean he promises to do it for sure. Thus, I am not sure whether my students know how to use this particular modal accurately or not. Some students then choose not to use it, refraining from making a mistake.

RESEARCHER: Therefore, if you want to surmise something?

INFORMANT: You mean 'suggestion'? I would rather use 'should'.

INFORMANT: If you want to suggest something probable?

B 'It is possible, it is possibility...'

RESEARCHER: Even 'may' and 'might', I can differentiate.

INFORMANT: Actually, 'might' suggests more polite way and academic, rather than may be. I also found 'would' more than 'will and may' which are frequently used in speaking language.

INFORMANT: Yes, I think so. When I run corpus analysis, I didn't see any difference. I feel that why I rarely see native speakers use 'will' in writing prose.

RESEARCHER: If you want to indicate the level of certainty, how do you use these adverbs 'indeed, really, actually'?

INFORMANT: I use 'really' more than 'actually' in writing.

RESEARCHER: What about 'it' pattern. Do you feel that Thai writers use a hiding agency by using 'it is said that.. .?'

INFORMANT: Yes

RESEARCHER: Do you agree?

INFORMANT: Yes, I agree. In Thai writing, we rarely use 'I' as we were taught not to use it. I should use 'the author or writer' instead.

RESEARCHER: Otherwise, passive voice!

INFORMANT: Umm, unnecessary passive voice is found. What about your previous study? Active or Passive voice?

RESEARCHER: They sometimes suggest that if we make a comparison, there is no adverb to tell 'it is reasonably argued that...?'

INFORMANT: Thais are prone to question that if it can be used or not, they don't use it anyway which might be better.

RESEARCHER: Yes, based on previous literature comparing native English and Asian writers. Those suggest that it make much more like native English. But they should not be use superfluously.

INFORMANT: What about your findings from your study?

RESEARCHER: So far I just found the infrequent use of 'would'. I found 'I' and 'we' are rarely used by Thais. This is a case of 'argue' too.

INFORMANT: We have to check the characteristic of a research article

RESEARCHER: Yes

INFORMANT: It is like to what extent that what they study can be put an author's expression?

RESEARCHER: Yes, there was a lecturer in CMU who dare not attend my interview because he said his research nature is ethnography which emphasizes narrative method. As such, there are a lot of personal feelings.

INFORMANT: Some research articles have their own styles. If it is qualitative method, there is 'direct' and 'indirect' speech combination.

RESEARCHER: In each section of research articles, which section has much more expressing identity or feelings?

INFORMANT: In discussion section, we have to express ourselves. We have to show the significance of our study. We can persuade others to agree with us.

RESEARCHER: Apart from the research questions, have you ever noticed the combination of separation of discussion and conclusion or not?

INFORMANT: It depends on the format given. The journal will tell whether to separate or vice versa.

RESEARCHER: In conclusion, there is little self-representation, right?

INFORMANT: Umm but at present many formats require 'application', rather than 'discussion.' Conclusion section for me at times includes suggestion and application.

RESEARCHER: The last question, do you have any suggestion?

INFORMANT: I published my works in a lot of journals. I read many works of others so that my eyes are not good.



Appendix D

Sample Forms for Interview



School of Education
and Modern Languages
Pusat Pengajian Pendidikan dan Bahasa Modern
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Darunee Yotimart
239/15 Pailorm, Huaikew Road, Chiang Mai University,
50000, Chiang Mai, Thailand.
Tel (TH) : +66998437067
daruneevo@hotmail.com

Ref.No: Inv.05

September 30th, 2016

Assoc. Prof. Dr.

Invitation For Research Interview : Authorial Self-representation in English Research Articles in Applied Linguistics Written by Native English and Thai Writers

Attachment : invitation letter from the university, a response form

Dear Sir,

My name is Darunee Yotimart. I am a Ph.D student in Applied Linguistics at the School of Education and Modern Languages, Universiti Utara Malaysia. I am currently doing research on "Authorial Self-representation in English Research Articles Written by Native English and Thai Writers in Applied Linguistics". As the lack of self-representation or authorial identity is a problem found among non-native English writers and a credible representation of writers can provide more opportunities in getting their research articles published in international journals successfully, this research intends to add to the body of knowledge on authorial self-representation in research articles.

As an expert in Applied Linguistics, I would like to invite you to become one of my participants to better understand about your perspective towards self-representation and reasons of your motivation in using your own discursual practices to represent yourself in your research articles. It will be highly appreciated to show your research articles along during the interview. The interview will be conducted in July, 2016, yet the date is to be confirmed later according to your schedule. Kindly complete and return the response form via post or email latest by **November 5, 2016**.

Considering your tight schedule, I would like to notify that the semi-structured interview will take no longer than 60 minutes. Thus, your cooperation and commitment on this research will contribute to the body of knowledge on language studies and this is highly appreciated. Any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Darunee Yotimart



Ref.No : Inv.05

**Response form for participating in research activities : Authorial Self-
representation in English Research Articles in Applied Linguistics Written by Native
English and Thai Writers
Researcher : Darunee Yotimart**

I
addressed.....
.....

- ☐ willing to be a participant of the semi-structured interview of the research
above. Please contact me directly (or my representative)
Tel.....email.....to arrange an
appointment.
- ☐ cannot be a participant because
and I would like to suggest.....to be interviewed.

.....
(.....)
Date

.....
Please return this form latest by November 5, 2015.via post (an envelope and postage
are provided) or email: daruneeyo@hotmail.com
Thank you for your kind attention and participation



School of Education and Modern Languages

**Informed Consent for Participation in Research Activities: Authorial Self-
representation in English Research Articles in Applied Linguistics Written by Native
English and Thai Writers**

Dear Assoc. Prof. Dr.

I would like to thank you for giving me the opportunity to meet you today. My name is Darunee Yotimart and I would like to talk to you about your experiences and perspective as an expert in Applied Linguistics who experienced in publishing a research article in Applied Linguistics. The interview should take about 60 minutes or less. I will be taping the session because I do not want to miss any of your comments. Even though you are asked to bring your research article along, you can show its content at your convenience. All responses will be confidential. This means that your interview responses will only be used for this study only and I will ensure that any information included in the report does not identify you as the interviewee. Remember, you do not have to talk about anything you do not want to and you may end the interview at any time. After I finish writing up the information from you, I will send it to you for proving.

.....

(Ms.Darunee Yotimart)

Date / /

Interviewer

.....

(Assoc. Prof. Dr.

Date / /

Interviewee

.....

) (

Date / /

Witness



School of Education
and Modern Languages
Pusat Pengajian Pendidikan dan Bahasa Modern
Universiti Utara Malaysia

Ref.No: Inv.05

October 3th, 2016

Assoc. Prof. Dr.

Request for An Appointment for Research Interview: Authorial Self-representation in English Research Articles Written by Native English and Thai Writers in Applied Linguistics

Attachment : Response form for appointment and Sample research questions

Dear Sir,

I truly appreciate your attention and willingness to participate in semi-structured interview for my study on “Authorial Self-representation in English Research Articles in Applied Linguistics Written by Native English and Thai Writers.

1. According to this research aims to explore your perspective towards authorial identity or authorial self-representation in research article genre, you will find herewith the interview questions. Kindly read them before our meeting on July,2016.
2. I will interview you with open-end questions on **November 15th, 2016, 16.00 pm**. However, date, time, and venue can be changed according to your convenience.
3. It is highly appreciated if you can show your research article along with the interview.
4. Kindly complete and return the response form via post or email within **November 10th, 2016**.

Any further information, please do not hesitate to contact me.
Thank you in advance for your kind cooperation.

Yours sincerely,

Darunee Yotimart



Ref.No. Ivi 05 Ap.05

Response form for appointment for research activities :
Authorial Self-representation in English Research Articles in Applied
Linguistics Written by Native English and Thai Writers
Researcher : Darunee Yotimart

I.....
addressed.....
.....

☐ Can meet up for interview on December 15th, 2016, 14.00 pm at
Assumption University

☐ Would like to meet up for the interview on
(date).....(time).....
(venue).....

If you have any queries, please contact me

Tel.....email.....

(signature).....

()

Date

Please return this form latest by November 10th, 2016
via post (an envelope and postage are provided)
or email : daruneeyo@hotmail.com

Appendix E

List of Bibliographic Information of Articles

Native English writers

- N1 : Collins, L. & White, J. (2011). An Intensive look at intensity and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(1), 106-128.
- N2 : Ockey, G.J. (2014). The potential of the L2 group oral to elicit discourse with a mutual contingency pattern and afford equal speaking rights in an ESP context. *English for Specific Purpose*, 3, 17-29.
- N3 : Staples, S., Kang, O. & Wittner, E. (2014). Considering interlocutors in university discourse communities. *English for Specific Purpose*, 5, 54-65.
- N4 : Walker, C. (2011). How a corpus-based study of the factors which influence collocation can help in the teaching of business English. *English for Specific Purpose*, 7, 101-112.
- N5 : Kyle, K., Crossey, S.A. & Kim, Y.J. (2015). Native language identification and writing proficiency. *International Journal of Learner Corpus Research*, 2, 187-209.
- N6 : Brooks, L. (2009). Interacting in pairs in a test of oral proficiency. *Language Testing*, 26(3), 341-366.
- N7 : Alderson, J.C. (2010). A survey of aviation of English tests. *Language Testing*, 27(1), 51-72.
- N8 : Bitchener, J., Young, S. & Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL student writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 14, 191-205.
- N9 : Crossley, S.A., Kyle, K. & McNamara, D.S. (2016). The development and use of cohesive devices in L2 writing and their relations to judgments of essay quality. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 32, 1-16.
- N10 : Reigel, D. (2008). Positive feedback in pair work and its association with ESL course level promotion. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(1), 79-95.
- N11 : Rodgers, M.P.H. & Webb, S. (2011). Narrow Viewing: the vocabulary in related television programs. *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(4), 689-713.

- N12 : Polio, C. & Shea, M.C. (2014). An investigation into current measures of linguistic accuracy in second language writing research. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18.
- N13 : Evans, N.W., Hartshorn, J.H., Cox, T.L. & Martin de Jel, T. (2014). Measuring written linguistic accuracy with weighted clause ratios. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 24, 33-50.
- N14 : Winke, P. (2011). Evaluating the validity of a high-stakes ESL tests: Why teachers' perceptions matter *TESOL Quarterly*, 45(4). 628-653.
- N15 : Wright, C. (2013). An investigation of working memory effects on oral grammatical accuracy and fluency in producing questions in English. *TESOL Quarterly*, 47(2), 352-370.
- N16 : Kormos, J. (2011). Task Complexity and linguistic and discourse features of narrative writing performance. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 20, 148-161.
- N17 : Lundstrom, K. & Baker, W. (2009). To give is better than to receive: the benefits of peer review to the reviewer's own writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 18, 30-43.
- N18 : Miller, R.T., Mitchell, T.D. & Pessoa, S. (2016). Impact of source texts and prompts on students genre uptake. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 31, 11-24.
- N19 : Weigle, S.C. & Parker, K. (2012). Source text borrowing in an integrated reading/writing assessment. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 21, 118-133.
- N20 : Carroll, P.E. & Bailey, A.L. (2016). A descriptive study of English language proficiency assessment classifications for English-language learners and native English speakers in fifth grade. *Language Testing*, 33(1), 23-52.
- N21 : Frost, K., Elder, C. & Wigglesworth, G. (2012). Investigating the validity of an integrated listening-speaking task. *Language Testing*, 29(3), 345-369.
- N22 : Kyle, K. & Crossley, S.A. (2015). Automatically assessing lexical sophistication: indices, tools, findings, and application. *TESOL Quarterly*, 49(4), 757-785.
- N23 : Batty, A.O. (2014). A Comparison of video and audio-mediated listening tests

- with many-facet Rasch modeling and differential distractor functioning. *Language Testing*, (online published version), 1-18.
- N24 : Crossley, S.A., Salsbury, T., McNamara, D.S. & Jarvis, S. (2010). Predicting lexical proficiency in language learner texts using computational indices. *Language Testing*, 28(4), 561-580.
- N25 : Goodwin, A.P., Huggin, C., Carlo, M...& August, D. (2012). Development and validation of Extract the Base: An English derivational morphology test for third through fifth grade monolingual students and Spanish-speaking English language learners *Language Testing*, 29(2), 265-289.
- N26 : Harding, L. (2011). Accent, listening assessment and the potential for a shared-L1 advantage. *Language Testing*, 29(2), 163-180.
- N27 : Kormos, J., Kiddle, T. & Scizer, K. (2011). Systems of goals, attitudes, and self-related beliefs in second-language- learning motivation. *Applied Linguistics*, 32(5), 495-561.
- N28 : Bax, S. (2013). The cognitive processing of candidates during reading tests. *Language Testing*, 30(4), 441-465.
- N29 : Kormos, J. & Csizer, K. (2014). The Interaction of motivation, self-regulatory strategies, and autonomous learning behavior in different learner groups. *TESOL Quarterly*, 48(2), 275-298.
- N30 : Todd, R. W. (2017). An opaque engineering word list: Which words should a teacher focus on? *English for Specific Purposes*, 45, 31-39.

Thai writers

- T1 : Santikarn, B. (2014). A case study of undergraduate students in a private university. *Nida Journal of Language and Communication*, 19(21), 56-72.
- T2 : Samransamruajkit, J. & Getkham, K. (2015). Factor analysis of polite refusal strategies in multicultural corporations. *Nida Journal of Language and Communication*, 20(25), 3-10.
- T3 : Dorkchandra, D. (2013). The effects of question generating strategy instruction on EFL. *Journal of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkha University*, 5(2), 3-14.
- T4 : Anuyahong, B. (2011). A case of first-year information of technology

- students of Thai-Nichi Institute of Technology. *Journal of English Studies Thammasart University*, 7(6), 2-18.
- T5 : Laoungphol, J. & Chatupote, M. (2013). Developing ability to translate homonyms and homographs via training in part of speech identification and dictionary use. *Journal of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkha University*, 5(2), 2-17.
- T6 : Sapsirin, S. (2014). Self-assessment of business English writing ability of Thai university. *Nida Journal of Language and Communication*, 19(22), 77-91.
- T7 : Monyanont, P. (2016). A Perspective on the co-operative leaning approach. *วารสารมนุษยศาสตร์และสังคมศาสตร์*, 7(1), 128-145.
- T8 : Phonhan, P., Phusawisot, P. & Praphan, P. (2014). The effects of theme-based instruction for reducing Thai undergraduate students' descriptive writing apprehension. *Silpakorn University Journal of Social Science, Humanities, and Arts*, 16(2), 73-92.
- T9 : Bhodhirangsiyakorn, C. (2010). Speech acts as performative utterances in hotel dining business advertisements in the Bangkok Post. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHNU)*, 7(2), 1-8.
- T10 : Watanasin, P. (2012). Teachers' perceptions and implementations of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT): A Case Study. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHNU)*, 9(1), 1-10.
- T11 : Sarawit, W. (2008). The effect of corpus analysis on improving student control of 'Protect' and 'Prevent'. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHNU)*, 5(1), 1-13.
- T12 : Srisanthronthai, J. (2014). The use of language learning of strategies by Chinese TFL university students. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHNU)*, 11(3), 1-23.
- T13 : Yutdhana, S. (2007). Online reading strategies used by graduate students. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHNU)*, 4(3), 1-15.
- T14 : Songkhro, J. & Aksornjarung, P. (2014). The relationship between pragmatic knowledge and English proficiency (TOEIC) of Thai EFL learners. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHNU)*, 11(3), 1-10.
- T15 : Walakanon, S. & Suppasetseree, S. (2015). A design of Wiki-based

- collaborative reading lessons to improve Thai EFL university students' reading comprehension skills. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHUN)*, 12(3), 1-21.
- T16 : Boonkhaos, K. & Thepsiri, K. (2011). How collaborative is collaborative group work? A case study of Thai undergraduate university students' group task. *The New English Teacher*, 8(1), 1-19.
- T17 : Anurit, T. (2014). Interdisciplinary learning to promote critical thinking skills in Thai EFL students. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHUN)*, 11(1), 1-22.
- T18 : Thongwichit, N. (2013). L1 use with university students in Thailand: A facilitating tool or a language barrier in learning English? *Silpakorn University Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities, and Arts*, 13(2), 179-206.
- T19 : Saengpakdeejit, R. (2014). Strategies for dealing with vocabulary learning problems by Thai university students. *Silpakorn University Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities, and Arts*, 14(1), 147-167.
- T20 : Changpueng, P. & Pattanapichet, F. (2015). An analysis of English in the workplace. *Silpakorn University Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities, and Arts*, 15(3), 151-176.
- T21 : Nirattisai, S. & Chiramanee, T. (2014). The contribution of vocabulary learning strategies to university students' vocabulary size. *Silpakorn University Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities and Arts*, 14(2), 45-66.
- T22 : Chanprasert, C. & Wichadee, S. (2015). Exploring language learning anxiety and anxiety reducing strategies of the First-year students taking a foreign language course. *Silpakorn University Journal of Social Sciences, Humanities, and Arts*, 15(1), 131-156.
- T23 : Syananondh, K. & Padgate, W. (2010). Using group self-correction in combination with teacher correction to enhance Thai EFL students' academic writing skills. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHNU)*, 7(Special Issue), 1-21.
- T24 : Padgate, W. (2010). Input enhancement and the acquisition of English prepositions of Thai undergraduate students. *Journal of Humanities Naresuan University (JHNU)*, 7(3), 1-16.

- T25 : Sripthrom, S. & Ratithamkul, T. (2014). Lexical aspect and the use of simple past tense by Thai learning of English. *Manusya Journal of Humanities Regular*, 17(1), 64-75.
- T26 : Wadsorn, N. & Panichkul, S. (2014). 'River' or 'Liver'? Exploring the intelligibility of Thai's (Mis) pronunciation of English 'r' and 'l'. *Language Education and Acquisition Research Network (LEARN) Journal*, 7(2), 51-66.
- T27 : Wanich, W. (2014). The relationship between the CLT approach and Thai EFL students' attitudes and motivation learning speaking. *Language Education and Acquisition Research Network (LEARN) Journal*, 7(1), 106-124.
- T28 : Nilmanee, M. & Soontornwipast, K. (2014). Exploring factors influencing the teaching of culture and its challenges. *Language Education and Acquisition Research Network (LEARN) Journal*, 7(2), 1-18.
- T29 : Tungsujarittam, N. & Intrasai, J. (2014). Quality evaluation of the English proficiency test for automotive specification certificate students at Nakornsawan Technical College. *Language Education and Acquisition Research Network (LEARN) Journal*, 7(2), 19-35.
- T30 : Rimkeratikul, S. (2015). Communication apprehension in L1 and L2 of engineering students in unique programme in Thailand. *Language Education and Acquisition Research Network (LEARN) Journal*, 8(1), 43-52.

Appendix F

The Keywords List

It should be noted that keyness values are only calculated for words in the target corpus (in AntConc), which is the Thai corpus. If the frequency in the target corpus is zero, a value will not be generated. Keywords are unusually frequent words in the target corpus compared to a reference corpus. If the frequency is zero, the word does not exist there, thus it cannot be a "keyword" in any normal sense. Of course, it could be unusually 'infrequent' (i.e. a negative keyword). However, then, a value of zero, doesn't offer any indication of how "infrequent" it is. Therefore, AntConc doesn't try to guess (Anthony, 2017b).

1. First Person Pronouns in the Native English and Thai Corpus through Rhetorical Sections

Table 1 displays the normed frequency and LL value of first person pronouns through rhetorical sections.

Table 1

Normed Frequency and LL Value of First Person Pronouns through Rhetorical Sections

	First person pronouns	Total	Native	Normed	Thai	normed	LL value
I							
	we	150	141	6.82	9	0.78	**-.82.45
	I	15	13	0.63	2	0.17	*-4.39
M							
	we	176	174	8.42	2	0.17	**-.112.87
	I	14	13	0.63	1	0.09	*-4.84
R							
	we	95	95	4.59	0	0	**-.77.81
	I	2	2	0.1	0	0	-
D/C							
	we	221	208	10.06	13	1.12	**-.139.32
	I	10	9	0.44	1	0.09	*-4.6

* $p < 0.05$ =critical value of 3.8 or higher

** $p < 0.01$ =critical value of 6.6 or higher

+ indicates overuse in the Thai corpus relative to the native English corpus

– indicates underuse in the Thai corpus relative to the native English corpus

I=introduction section, M = method section, R=result section,

D/C=Discussion/Conclusion sections

2. Hedges in the Native English and Thai Corpus through Rhetorical Sections

Table 2 illustrates the twenty most frequently identified hedges in each section and shows significance of individual linguistic features of hedges as well as their frequency and normed frequency in the two corpora.

Table 2

The Twenty Most Frequently Identified Hedges and LL Value through Rhetorical Sections

		Hedges	Total	Native	normed	Thai	Normed	LL value
I	1	May	229	168	8.12	61	5.28	** -12.30
	2	should	91	44	2.13	47	4.06	** +7.40
	3	would	88	67	3.24	21	1.82	** -7.55
	4	might	75	49	2.37	26	2.25	-0.27
	5	often	73	53	2.56	20	1.73	-3.38
	6	likely	54	46	2.22	8	0.69	** -13.72
	7	possible	46	35	1.69	11	0.95	-3.91
	8	rather	43	23	1.11	20	1.73	+1.42
	9	generally	42	19	0.92	23	1.99	* +5.08
	10	overall	42	34	1.64	8	0.69	** -6.81
	11	frequently	39	21	1.02	18	1.56	+1.19
	12	suggested	30	15	0.73	15	1.3	+1.90
	13	indicated	27	16	0.77	11	0.95	+0.11
	14	tend	27	17	0.82	10	0.86	-0.00
	15	suggest	26	23	1.11	3	0.26	** -8.95
	16	indicate	24	19	0.92	5	0.43	-3.13
	17	suggests	21	17	0.82	4	0.35	-3.40
	18	typically	20	18	0.87	2	0.17	** -7.88
	19	usually	20	9	0.44	11	0.95	+ 2.48
	20	argue	19	17	0.82	2	0.17	** -7.15
M	1	would	78	57	2.76	21	1.82	-0.68
	2	may	46	45	2.18	1	0.09	** -26.34
	3	possible	34	29	1.4	5	0.43	* -4.93
	4	overall	33	29	1.4	4	0.35	** -6.62
	5	should	32	25	1.21	7	0.61	-1.38
	6	approximately	24	19	0.92	5	0.43	-1.29
	7	rather	21	19	0.92	2	0.17	* -5.65
	8	often	16	15	0.73	1	0.09	* -6.06
	9	frequently	14	9	0.44	5	0.43	+0.13
	10	indicate	14	14	0.68	0	0	-
	11	might	13	11	0.53	2	0.17	-1.72
	12	likely	12	12	0.58	0	0	-
	13	relatively	12	12	0.58	0	0	-
	14	indicated	10	7	0.34	3	0.26	-0.00
	15	mostly	10	8	0.39	2	0.17	-0.63
	16	typically	10	10	0.48	0	0	-
	17	generally	9	8	0.39	1	0.09	-2.03

Table 2 *continued*

	18	normally	8	6	0.29	2	0.17	-0.14
	19	suggest	7	7	0.34	0	0	-
	20	quite	6	4	0.19	2	0.17	+0.01
R	1	overall	70	35	1.69	35	3.03	**+9.25
	2	may	48	42	2.03	6	0.52	**+10.25
	3	would	47	31	1.5	16	1.38	+0.05
	4	indicates	44	34	1.64	10	0.86	-2.00
	5	frequently	40	26	1.26	14	1.21	+0.12
	6	indicate	31	24	1.16	7	0.61	-1.45
	7	rather	27	22	1.06	5	0.43	-2.62
	8	tended	27	20	0.97	7	0.61	-0.53
	9	should	25	6	0.29	19	1.64	**+19.96
	10	indicated	23	15	0.73	8	0.69	+0.05
	11	possible	23	18	0.87	5	0.43	-1.28
	12	claimed	21	18	0.87	3	0.26	-3.63
	13	suggest	19	17	0.82	2	0.17	*-5.03
	14	appears	18	18	0.87	0	0	-
	15	slightly	17	13	0.63	4	0.35	-0.64
	16	likely	16	11	0.53	5	0.43	-0.01
	17	claim	14	14	0.68	0	0	-
	18	generally	14	11	0.53	3	0.26	-0.82
	19	might	13	9	0.44	4	0.35	-0.01
	20	suggests	13	13	0.63	0	0	-
D/C	1	may	347	232	11.22	115	9.95	*-6.25
	2	should	225	99	4.79	126	10.9	**+23.11
	3	would	168	137	6.63	31	2.68	**+33.31
	4	might	145	95	4.59	50	4.32	-1.71
	5	possible	79	52	2.51	27	2.33	-0.58
	6	likely	67	44	2.13	23	1.99	-0.82
	7	suggest	66	54	2.61	12	1.04	**+13.68
	8	overall	58	36	1.74	22	1.9	-0.13
	9	rather	51	33	1.6	18	1.56	-0.26
	10	indicate	45	35	1.69	10	0.86	*-5.08
	11	suggests	41	36	1.74	5	0.43	**+15.05
	12	often	38	27	1.31	11	0.95	-1.784
	13	seem	32	24	1.16	8	0.69	-2.86
	14	seems	32	22	1.06	10	0.86	-1.12

Table 2 *continued*

15							
	generally	26	18	0.87	8	0.69	-0.73
16	suggested	26	6	0.29	20	1.73	**+16.49
17	tend	24	10	0.48	14	1.21	+3.16
18	indicated	22	11	0.53	11	0.95	+0.844
19	perhaps	21	19	0.92	2	0.17	** -10.027

* $p < 0.05$ =critical value of 3.8 or higher

** $p < 0.01$ =critical value of 6.6 or higher

+ indicates overuse in the Thai corpus relative to the native English corpus

– indicates underuse in the Thai corpus relative to the native English corpus

I=introduction section, M = method section, R=result section,

D/C=Discussion/Conclusion sections

3. Boosters in the Native English and Thai Corpus through Rhetorical Sections

Table 3 illustrates the twenty most frequently identified boosters in each section and shows significance of individual linguistic features of boosters as well as their frequency and normed frequency in the two corpora.

Table 3

The Twenty Most Frequently Identified Boosters and LL Value through Rhetorical Sections

		Boosters	Total	Native	normed	Thai	normed	LL value
I	1	showed	43	21	1.21	22	1.9	+3.26
	2	particularly	41	31	1.5	10	0.86	-3.24
	3	shown	30	25	1.21	5	0.43	*-6.32
	4	show	28	15	0.73	13	1.12	+0.91
	5	always	22	9	0.44	13	1.12	+4.15
	6	demonstrate	20	18	0.87	2	0.17	** -7.88
	7	demonstrated	20	17	0.82	3	0.26	*-4.99
	8	clearly	19	12	0.58	7	0.61	-0.005
	9	reliable	19	18	0.87	1	0.09	** -11.09
	10	believed	13	4	0.19	9	0.78	*+5.33
	11	essential	13	1	0.05	12	1.04	***+17.37
	12	established	9	8	0.39	1	0.09	-3.22
	13	shows	9	6	0.29	3	0.26	-0.07
	14	believe	8	3	0.15	5	0.43	+2.02
	15	actually	7	6	0.29	1	0.09	-1.87
	16	certainly	7	4	0.19	3	0.26	+0.08
	17	establish	7	6	0.29	1	0.09	-1.87
	18	necessarily	7	7	0.34	0	0	-
	19	never	7	2	0.1	5	0.43	+3.29
	20	realize	7	1	0.05	6	0.52	**+6.94
M	1	shown	15	11	0.53	4	0.35	-0.14
	2	reliable	14	12	0.58	2	0.17	-2.14
	3	established	13	10	0.48	3	0.26	-0.42
	4	showed	11	8	0.39	3	0.26	-0.08
	5	demonstrate	8	7	0.34	1	0.09	-1.53
	6	demonstrated	8	7	0.34	1	0.09	-1.53
	7	establish	8	5	0.24	3	0.26	+0.14
	8	show	8	7	0.34	1	0.09	-1.53
	9	shows	8	3	0.15	5	0.43	+3.30
	10	particularly	7	6	0.29	1	0.09	-1.07
	11	believed	5	2	0.1	3	0.26	+1.75
	12	always	4	3	0.15	1	0.09	-0.07
	13	exactly	4	4	0.19	0	0	-
	14	necessarily	4	4	0.19	0	0	-
	15	actually	3	2	0.1	1	0.09	-0.00
	16	sure	3	0	0	3	0.26	**+6.99
	17	clearly	2	2	0.1	0	0	-
	18	evident	2	2	0.1	0	0	-

Table 3 *continued*

	19	indeed	2	1	0.05	1	0.09	+0.30
	20	apparently	1	1	0.05	0	0	-
R	1	shows	87	48	2.32	39	3.37	*+5.81
	2	showed	68	48	2.32	20	1.73	-0.28
	3	shown	54	27	1.31	27	2.33	**+7.13
	4	established	48	47	2.27	1	0.09	** -29.35
	5	show	40	26	1.26	14	1.21	+0.12
	6	demonstrated	25	22	1.06	3	0.26	** -5.64
	7	clearly	11	5	0.24	6	0.52	+2.28
	8	never	10	5	0.24	5	0.43	+1.32
	9	particularly	10	10	0.48	0	0	-
	10	believed	9	0	0	9	0.78	**+20.28
	11	demonstrate	9	7	0.34	2	0.17	-0.45
	12	indeed	7	7	0.34	0	0	-
	13	always	5	2	0.1	3	0.26	+1.59
	14	evident	5	1	0.05	4	0.35	*+4.79
	15	impossible	5	4	0.19	1	0.09	-0.38
	16	reliable	5	5	0.24	0	0	-
	17	apparently	4	3	0.15	1	0.09	-0.10
	18	confirm	4	4	0.19	0	0	-
	19	demonstrates	4	3	0.15	1	0.09	-0.10
	20	actually	3	3	0.15	0	0	-
D/C	1	show	53	39	1.89	14	1.21	*-4.48
	2	showed	51	23	1.11	28	2.42	*+4.41
	3	demonstrated	40	30	1.45	10	0.86	*-4.13
	4	shown	35	24	1.16	11	0.95	-1.18
	5	particularly	30	26	1.26	4	0.35	** -10.53
	6	demonstrate	22	20	0.97	2	0.17	*-6.02
	7	established	19	18	0.87	1	0.09	*-4.6
	8	clearly	18	10	0.48	8	0.69	+0.12
	9	shows	15	6	0.29	9	0.78	+2.35
	10	actually	13	6	0.29	7	0.61	+1.58
	11	indeed	13	12	0.58	1	0.09	** -7.14
	12	reliable	13	12	0.58	1	0.09	** -7.14
	13	necessarily	11	9	0.44	2	0.17	-2.48
	14	always	10	5	0.24	5	0.43	+0.38
	15	demonstrates	9	8	0.39	1	0.09	-3.79
	16	essential	9	5	0.24	4	0.35	+0.06
	17	evident	9	5	0.24	4	0.35	+0.06

Table 3 *continued*

18	believe	8	6	0.29	2	0.17	-0.82
19	certainly	8	7	0.34	1	0.09	-3.01
20	believed	7	1	0.05	6	0.52	*+6.19

* $p < 0.05$ =critical value of 3.8 or higher

** $p < 0.01$ =critical value of 6.6 or higher

+ indicates overuse in the Thai corpus relative to the native English corpus

– indicates underuse in the Thai corpus relative to the native English corpus

I=introduction section, M = method section, R=result section,

D/C=Discussion/Conclusion sections

4. Attitude Expressions in the Native English and Thai Corpus through

Rhetorical Sections

Table 4 illustrates the twenty most frequently identified attitude markers and attitudinal stance words in each section and shows significance of individual linguistic features of attitude expressions as well as their frequency and normed frequency in the two corpora.

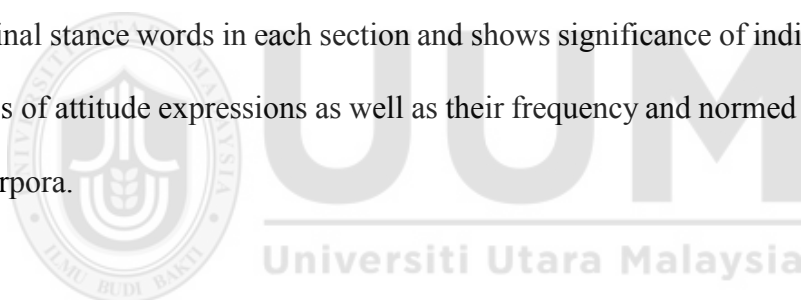


Table 4

The Twenty Most Frequently Identified Attitude Markers and Attitudinal Stance Words and LL Value through Rhetorical Sections

		Atti. Markers/ Atti.Stance	Total	Native	normed	Thai	normed	LL value
I	1	limited	51	38	1.84	13	1.12	-3.36
	2	appropriate	48	26	1.26	22	1.9	+1.35
	3	little	26	18	0.87	8	0.69	-0.53
	4	key	23	9	0.44	14	1.21	*+5.09
	5	expected	21	13	0.63	8	0.69	+0.002
	6	accurate	19	18	0.87	1	0.09	** -11.09
	7	reliable	19	18	0.87	1	0.09	** -11.09
	8	great	15	3	0.15	12	1.04	** +11.3
	9	essential	13	1	0.05	12	1.04	** +17.37
	10	too	12	8	0.39	4	0.35	-0.09
	11	suitable	11	3	0.15	8	0.69	*+5.59
	12	adequate	10	7	0.34	3	0.26	-0.25
	13	correctly	10	3	0.15	7	0.61	*+4.31
	14	importantly	10	3	0.15	7	0.61	*+4.31
	15	sufficient	10	8	0.39	2	0.17	-1.44
	16	aware	9	4	0.19	5	0.43	+1.19
	17	comprehensive	9	6	0.29	3	0.26	-0.07
	18	interesting	9	3	0.15	6	0.52	+3.11
	19	beneficial	8	3	0.15	5	0.43	+2.02
	20	considerable	8	4	0.19	4	0.35	+0.50
M	1	appropriate	32	19	0.92	13	1.12	+1.26
	2	key	28	22	1.06	6	0.52	+2.33
	3	expected	16	13	0.63	3	0.26	-1.26
	4	reliable	14	12	0.58	2	0.17	-2.14
	5	acceptable	12	5	0.24	7	0.61	-3.74
	6	correctly	9	3	0.15	6	0.52	*+4.76
	7	suitable	8	3	0.15	5	0.43	+3.30
	8	accurate	6	4	0.19	2	0.17	+0.01
	9	limited	6	5	0.24	1	0.09	-0.66
	10	comprehensive	5	5	0.24	0	0	-
	11	sufficient	5	4	0.19	1	0.09	-0.31
	12	too	5	3	0.15	2	0.17	+0.17
	13	brief	4	4	0.19	0	0	-
	14	careful	4	3	0.15	1	0.09	-0.07
	15	accessible	3	3	0.15	0	0	-
	16	appropriately	3	2	0.1	1	0.09	+0.006
	17	comparable	3	3	0.15	0	0	-
	18	desirable	3	2	0.1	1	0.09	+0.006
	19	great	3	3	0.15	0	0	-
	20	inappropriate	3	2	0.1	1	0.09	+0.006

Table 4 *continued*

R	1	expected	25	21	1.02	4	0.35	-3.48
	2	key	24	22	1.06	2	0.17	** -7.97
	3	appropriate	21	12	0.58	9	0.78	+1
	4	acceptable	12	6	0.29	6	0.52	+1.58
	5	little	11	9	0.44	2	0.17	-1.12
	6	correctly	8	7	0.34	1	0.09	-1.70
	7	preferred	8	1	0.05	7	0.61	**+10.53
	8	too	8	8	0.39	0	0	-
	9	interesting	6	3	0.15	3	0.26	+0.79
	10	limited	6	4	0.19	2	0.17	+0.002
	11	adequate	5	5	0.24	0	0	-
	12	reliable	5	5	0.24	0	0	-
	13	restricted	5	5	0.24	0	0	-
	14	surprising	5	5	0.24	0	0	-
	15	unclear	5	5	0.24	0	0	-
	16	inaccurate	4	4	0.19	0	0	-
	17	interestingly	4	0	0	4	0.35	**+9.01
	18	unexpectedly	4	4	0.19	0	0	-
	19	appropriately	3	3	0.15	0	0	-
	20	considerable	3	3	0.15	0	0	-
D/C	1	aware	36	17	0.82	19	1.64	+2.27
	2	appropriate	32	21	1.02	11	0.95	-0.16
	3	expected	31	22	1.06	9	0.78	-1.37
	4	limited	30	20	0.97	10	0.86	-0.61
	5	key	29	24	1.16	5	0.43	** -7.18
	6	interesting	27	12	0.58	15	1.3	+2.55
	7	too	27	20	0.97	7	0.61	-2.03
	8	little	14	12	0.58	2	0.17	* -3.82
	9	sufficient	14	7	0.34	7	0.61	+0.96
	10	reliable	13	12	0.58	1	0.09	** -7.14
	11	suitable	13	7	0.34	6	0.52	+0.18
	12	accurate	12	8	0.39	4	0.35	-0.24
	13	appropriately	11	4	0.19	7	0.61	+3.60
	14	surprising	11	8	0.39	3	0.26	-0.81
	15	acceptable	10	2	0.1	8	0.69	*+6.59
	16	beneficial	10	6	0.29	4	0.35	-0
	17	importantly	10	7	0.34	3	0.26	-0.45
	18	inappropriate	10	9	0.44	1	0.09	* -4.6
	19	adequate	9	8	0.39	1	0.09	-3.79
	20	essential	9	5	0.24	4	0.35	+0.06

* $p < 0.05$ =critical value of 3.8 or higher** $p < 0.01$ =critical value of 6.6 or higher

+ indicates overuse in the Thai corpus relative to the native English corpus

- indicates underuse in the Thai corpus relative to the native English corpus

I=introduction section, M = method section, R=result section,

D/C=Discussion/Conclusion sections