

**INTERACTIVE METADISCOURSE IN FINDINGS SECTION
AND DISCUSSION SECTION OF INTERNATIONAL
JOURNAL ARTICLES**



*Building
Future
Leaders*

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Degree of Sarjana Pendidikan***

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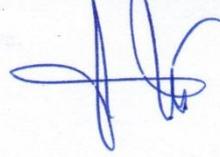
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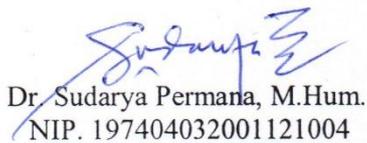
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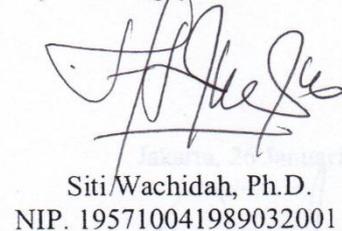
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ABSTRACT

Nabilah Filzah Nur Wijaya, 2016. Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section of International Journal Articles. A Thesis. Jakarta: English Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Jakarta. January 2017.

The study was aimed to investigate the use and functions of interactive metadiscourse in Findings and Discussion sections of international journals articles. This study is a qualitative research, which employed descriptive analysis as the design. Content analysis was applied as a method in analyzing the use of interactive metadiscourse markers proposed by Hyland (2005) in 10 journal articles from The Journal of AsiaTEFL. The journals articles that were being investigated were chosen based on the topic related to pedagogy of English teaching. After analyzed the data, 624 occurrences of interactive metadiscourse were found. All five markers of interactive metadiscourse; Transitions, Frame Markers, Endhoporic Markers, Evidentials, and Code Glosses, are used in ten journal articles that were being analyzed. All five markers of interactive metadiscourse have its' function to organize a text, but each of them functionally works to construct the readers' need. Result of this study indicates that writers of the journal articles aware of their readers' existence. Therefore their journals articles are written in a communicative way to help the readers get through the text easily.

Keywords: Metadiscourse; Hyland Classifications of Interactive Metadiscourse; Findings; Discussion; Journal Articles.

ABSTRAK

Nabilah Filzah Nur Wijaya, 2016. Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section of International Journal Articles. A Thesis. Jakarta: Jurusan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris, Fakultas Bahasa dan Seni, Universitas Negeri Jakarta. Januari 2017.

Penelitian ini dilakukan untuk menginvestigasi penggunaan dan fungsi dari *interactive metadiscourse* pada bagian temuan dan pembahasan di dalam jurnal artikel internasional. Penelitian ini merupakan penelitian kualitatif, yang menggunakan desain deskriptif analisis. Konten analisis digunakan dalam penelitian ini sebagai metode untuk menganalisis kegunaan dari interactive metadiscourse yang dikemukakan oleh Hyland (2005) didalam 10 jurnal artikel dari *The Journal of AsiaTEFL*. Jurnal artikel yang di investigasi dipilih berdasarkan topik yang terkait dengan pengajaran Bahasa Inggris. Setelah data dianalisa, ditemukan 624 penggunaan dari interactive metadiscourse. Kelima penanda daripada interactive metadiscourse; Transitions, Frame Markers, Endhopic Markers, Evidentials, dan Code Glosses, digunakan di semua jurnal artikel yang dianalisis. Kelima penanda mempunyai fungsinya masing-masing, namun secara fungsional berperan dalam membangun kebutuhan pembaca. Hasil dari penelitian ini mengindikasikan bahwa penulis dari jurnal-jurnal artikel tersebut memperhatikan keberadaan pembacanya. Karena itu, jurnal-jurnal artikel mereka ditulis secara komunikatif untuk mempermudah para pembacanya.

Kata Kunci: Metadiscourse; Hyland Classifications of Interactive Metadiscourse; Findings; Discussion; Journal Articles.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents background of the study, research questions, purpose of the study, scope, and how the study will be beneficial for others.

1.1 Background Of The Study

English as global language has now made the use of English in academic writing widely spread in universities all over the world. This has made English become the language of choice for many international journals articles (Genc and Bada, 2010). As cited in Flowerdew (2013), this great expansion of the use of English has taken place in four main areas; (1) First, in english-speaking countries where students overseas come to study, such as United States, Great Britain, Canada, (2) in post colonial territories where the use of English whether or not it remains a national language has been maintained in academic context, such as South Africa, Zimbabwe, Singapore, (3) in the countries of the former Uni Soviet which are seeking to distance themselves from Russia and through English trying to connect with wider international academic community, (4) last, in countries where English has no official status, such as China, Japan, and Latin America.

Indonesia has made in to the forth area seeing many states or private universities use English as the language of choice in their skripsi (what the

Indonesian call the “graduation paper”/”final research”), even English has no official status academically in the country.

In writing skripsi, journal articles take an important role as sources or references. Students acquire their knowledge by reading throughout several journal articles before writing their own skripsi. Therefore, as cited from Hartley (2008), journal articles as one of academic writing should be impersonal and unnecessary complicated but easy to follow. In other words, an easy to follow journal article facilitates the readers to acquire their knowledge easier in order to write their own skripsi. In order to make an easy to follow journal article, writer or researcher should consider the existence of the audience.

The idea of audience in writing a text is a difficult task of a writer or a researcher, but it makes a clear sense to construct a communicative text in order to make journal articles that are easy to follow. Metadiscourse is a device that refers to an interesting approach to conceptualizing interactions between text producers and their texts and between text producers and users (audience). As Hyland (2005) states, language is always a consequence of interaction, of the differences between people which are expressed verbally, and metadiscourse options are the ways we articulate and construct these interactions. Ever since Metadiscourse was constructed in 1959 by Haris, some model have been constructed (e.g. Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore et al. (1993), Hyland (2005), etc.) Metadiscourse itself has become a self-reflective

linguistic material to help writers produce text that evolve a writer not only on their own content of text but also to their readers.

Hyland (2005) divided Metadiscourse into two categories; interactional and interactive. Interactional Metadiscourse focuses on how the writer involves the reader into the arguments. Interpersonal Metadiscourse goal is to make his or her views explicit and to involve readers by allowing them to respond to the unfolding text. While Interactive Metadiscourse focuses on how the writer helps to guide the reader through the text. Interactive Metadiscourse goal is to shape and constrain a text to meet the needs of particular readers, setting out arguments so that they will recover the writer's preferred interpretations and goals of the text. Based on the explanation, interactive metadiscourse becomes the focus for this study, to investigate how the writers of journal articles make an easy to follow journal for the readers by guiding them through the text.

Several researchers have investigated the use of both interactional and interactive metadiscourse in journal articles using Hyland's (2005) framework. The use of Hyland's framework is valued to be the provided the probably most comprehensive framework for the study of metadiscourse (Abdi, 2011). The current study also set the model to devised the analysis and support the significance study in consideration on its' clear distribution of the markers, simple to use, and easily comprehended.

Examples of studies applying Hyland's (2005) framework are first Hyland and Tse in 2004 that studied the use of metadiscourse in 240 L2 postgraduate dissertations and found a lack of explanatory skill due to theoretical inflexibility and empirical confusion. They offered a reassessment of metadiscourse to build a better way of understanding in which acts of communication and maintain social groups of the writers. Meanwhile Zahra, Roya, and Shahla (2015) examined the use of metadiscourse in 30 master theses of English Translation, English Teaching, and English Literature of three different universities in Iran—that is in the same area as Indonesia in the matter of English status in the country. Zahra et al. (2015) analyzed the theses using Hyland (2005) framework and found the use of interactional markers is higher than interactive markers.

In Indonesia many recent studies also investigated the use of metadiscourse in skripsi. The researcher found at least two recent studies of metadiscourse concentrated in different parts of skripsi at English Department of State University of Jakarta conducted in 2016 using Hyland's (2005) model. Putro (2016) studied the use of engagement markers as one of interpersonal metadiscourse markers in 18 Findings and Discussion sections of English Department's skripsi and found that the students used four from five engagement markers. Most engagement marker occurred was *Appeal to Shared Knowledge* (60.10%), while *Personal Asides* (7.58%) was the least marker used. Herlita (2016) investigated the occurrence of all five markers underlined interpersonal metadiscourse. The study revealed *Hedges* (51.1%)

as most used marker in six students' skripsi in English Department from 2014 while *Attitude Markers* (1.1%) as the least used marker. Both writers with the study, proved that students of English Department have considered their audience in their writing of Findings and Discussion sections by make his or her views explicit and involve the readers to the text as the goal of interpersonal metadiscourse. Seeing none of the studies focus on interactive metadiscourse and its function as help to guide the reader through the text, researcher intended to conduct this study.

However, seeing the facts that students of English Department of State University of Jakarta are English foreign speakers, it would thus be of interest to learn how better-English-users write their journal articles. Putro (2016) said in his study, "The engagement markers found in Findings and discussion sections of English Department students' skripsi may differ from the ones used by native writer since the data sources are English foreign writers whose language can be influenced by their native language or local languages where they come from." Therefore, further investigation on international journal articles is needed as a comparison and as a reflection to write future journal article that will be easy to follow.

In journal articles, Findings section and Discussion section are important parts, as it is where the research questions are answered. In Findings section, results of the study should first simply state the findings, without bias or interpretation. Discussion section then uses the statistical results to make conclusions regarding the research question then interpret the data based on

the findings. Based on its' important role in a study, and at once completing the previous studies (Herlita, 2016 & Putro, 2016), Findings section and Discussion section was chosen as the data source of this study.

Focus on the interactive metadiscourse markers framework constructed by Hyland (2005); transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, and code glosses, the researcher intended to know how the writers of international journal articles help the readers to get through the text, especially in Findings section and Discussion section of the study. By conducting this study, the researcher hopes to reveal functions of interactive metadiscourse markers and how they are applied in international journal articles, especially in Findings section and Discussion section as it is where the research questions are answered. The study also hoped to provide an in-depth understanding on how to accommodate their readers a guidance to read through the text, in order to make an easy-to-follow journal articles.

1.2 Research Questions

Based on the background of the study, the researcher formulates the questions as follows:

- 1.1 What are types of interactive metadiscourse used in Findings section and Discussion section of international journal articles?
- 1.2 What is the function of each marker of interactive metadiscourse used in Findings section and Discussion section of international journal articles?

1.3 Purpose Of The Study

Based on the research questions, this study aimed to investigate types of interactive metadiscourse markers and the function of each marker in Findings section and Discussion section of international journal articles.

1.4 Scope of the Study

The researcher focused the study only on interactive metadiscourse constructed by Hyland (2005) in Findings section and Discussion section of The Journals of Asia TEFL. Any other theories or frameworks of interactive metadiscourse constructed by other researchers aren't included in the study. The study also focused only on journal articles encrypted from Asia TEFL's website. Asia TEFL is a journal articles publisher concerned with the teaching and learning in English especially in Asia. This made great consideration that Asia TEFL published journal articles from the same area as Indonesia, such as Japan, China, Korea and Thailand. These countries are also categorized in the fourth area, where English has no official status in daily conversation, national language, or academic community but is a language of choice in writing academic writing especially journal articles.

1.5 Significance of the Study

This research is hoped to help student who is writing academic paper especially skripsi to have in-depth understanding on how to accommodate their readers a guidance to read through the text. The choice of authors (writers of published journal articles) of the journal articles that are being studied also hoped to be useful to student who is writing academic paper to write in more-native ways in accommodating their readers. The researcher also chose journal articles that related to pedagogy in English teaching as special thought to provide her fellow students of State University of Jakarta especially English Department students who write academic paper, will find this study helpful to help them write related topics that accommodate their readers a guidance to read through the text.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter presents further explanations of metadiscourse, Hyland's (2005) model of metadiscourse along with, function of each interactive metadiscourse marker. Brief explanation of journal articles, Findings section, Discussion section, and also prediction of markers that will likely to occur in both sections. The chapter ends with theoretical review of the chapter in order to clarify what is being studied by the research in order to answer the research questions.

2.1 Metadiscourse

Metadiscourse was first introduced by Zellig Harris in 1959 to offer a way of understanding language in use, representing a writer's or speaker's attempts to guide a receiver's perception of a text. Harris viewed the term as a “set of instructions which generates the sentence of a language” (Harris, 1954). However, Metadiscourse is difficult construct to pin down and this is evident in the literature with imprecision characterizing much of the discussion, therefore, Metadiscourse is called and defined variously (Hyland, 2005).

Researchers named Metadiscourse in different ways (Markkanen, Steffensen, & Crismore, 1993). Keller (1979) called the term as “Gambits”, meanwhile Schiffrin (1980) use the term “Metatalk” to

describe his theory in spoken discourse. In written text, metadiscourse is called as “Metatext” by Enkvist (1978) who also called the term as “The modalities of text”. Lautamatti (1978) refers metadiscourse as “non-topical material” which have no relevance to discourse development but on how to understand the text as a whole, and Meyer (1975) as “signaling”.

Vande Kopple in 1985 defined metadiscourse as “the linguistic material which does not add propositional information but which signals the presence of an author”. Vande (1997) also stated that people use metadiscourse to help their readers connect, organize, interpret, evaluate and develop attitudes towards the propositional content. Similarly, Crismore (1983) referred metadiscourse as “the author’s intrusion into the discourse, either explicitly or non-explicitly, to *direct* rather than inform, *showing* readers how to understand what is said and meant in the primary discourse and how to ‘take’ the author”. As Hyland (2005) said, metadiscourse is the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular community. Simplified the definitions, metadiscourse is a widely-used term that shows how the writer take the existence of audience in a discourse by writing a mindful and communicative text.

The use of metadiscourse in several kinds of texts has been studied by some researchers as well (Hyland, 2005). The importance of metadiscourse in casual conversation was investigated by Schiffrin (1980),

Crismore (1989) in school textbooks, in oral narratives by Norrick (2001), while Crismore and Farnsworth (1990) investigated the use of the term in science popularizations. Following behind, Hyland investigated undergraduate textbooks (2000) and postgraduate dissertations (2004). More and more studies that investigate the use of metadiscourse in different text keep being continued as it takes an important role in building writer-reader relationship in a text.

Based on the previous studies, Hyland and Tse (2004) proposed the three key principles of metadiscourse; these are:

- 1) *Metadiscourse is distinct from propositional aspects of discourse*, means that metadiscourse draw a line between propositional material, or the “communicative content” of discourse, and on the one hand, material which organizes this content and conveys the writer’s beliefs and attitude to it on the other.
- 2) *Metadiscourse refers to aspects of the text that embody writer-reader interactions*. By this principle, Hyland and Tse suggest that all metadiscourse is interpersonal that it takes account of the reader's knowledge, textual experiences and processing needs and that it provides writers with an armory of rhetorical appeals to achieve this. They also added that necessary interaction is needed for successful communication.
- 3) *Metadiscourse refers only to relations which are internal to the discourse*. An internal relation connects events in the account and is

solely communicative, while an external relation refers to those situations themselves.

The term then has been developed at least since Vande Kopple constructed a model of metadiscourse in 1985, several important theoretical contributions keep being appeared after that, such as Crismore et al. in 1993 and the earliest model is Hyland's in 2005. The constructed models keep being developed because not analyst of metadiscourse has the same understanding about the term therefore the constructed models keep being developed. As Hyland (2005) said, metadiscourse has always been something of a fuzzy term, often characterized as simply 'discourse about discourse' or 'talk about talk', definitions which highlight its role of looking inward to refer to aspects of the text itself.

Functional analysis recognizes that a comprehensive and pragmatically grounded description of any text must involve the use of language in relation to its surrounding co-text and the purpose of the writer in creating a text as a whole (Hyland, 2005). To take metadiscourse in functional approaches most writers construct a model to fulfill Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) theory of language for insights and theoretical support. The tripartite conception of metafunction based on SFL has been described in Halliday's *Introduction to Functional Grammar* (1994) and Halliday and Matthiessen's *Construing Experience Through Meaning* (1999), these are: (1) *the ideational function* (the use of language to represent experience and ideas), (2) *the interpersonal function*

(the use of language to encode interaction), and (3) *the textual function* (the use of language to organize the text itself).

The first model of metadiscourse was constructed by Vande Kopple in 1985 fulfilled Halliday's textual and interpersonal functions of language. Therefore in his model, Vande divided metadiscourse into two major categories of textual and interpersonal markers, followed by seven sub-classes. This model gives a big impact because it was the first systematic attempt to introduce taxonomy of metadiscourse and that it triggered many practical studies, and gave rise to new taxonomies (Khajavy, Asadpour, & Yousefi, 2012). However, the sub-classes of the model were seen unclear and functionally overlap (Hyland, *Metadiscourse: Exploring Interaction in Writing*, 2005).

Vande Kopple's model was revised by Crismore et al. in 1993. Unfortunately, the confusion also remains regarding to the model. Hyland (2005) also showing his disagreeing on the model saying Markkanen, Steffensen, & Crismore seem to be suggesting that items can only perform metafunctional roles if they are the product of choice rather than syntactic necessity.

2.2 Hyland's (2005) Models of Metadiscourse

Referring to the previous models of metadiscourse, Hyland argues by constructed his model (Table 2.1) of metadiscourse. Employing Thompson and Thetela's (1995) distinction between interactive and interactional resources to acknowledge the organizational and evaluative features of interaction, the model takes a wider focus by including both stance and engagement features. Hyland said that his model is based on a functional approach which regards metadiscourse as the ways writers refer to the text, the writer or the reader. It also acknowledges the contextual specificity of metadiscourse.

Table 2.1 Hyland's (2005) model of metadiscourse

Category	Functions	Example
<u>Interactive</u>	Help to guide the reader through the text	Resources
Transitions	express relations between main clauses	in addition; but; thus; and
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages	finally; to conclude; my purpose is
Endophoric markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	noted above; see Fig; in section 2
Evidentials	refer to information from other texts	according to X; Z states
Code glosses	elaborate propositional meanings	namely; e.g.; such as; in other words
<u>Interactional</u>	Involve the reader in the text	Resources
Hedges	withhold commitment and open dialogue	might; perhaps; possible; about
Boosters	emphasize certainty or close dialogue	in fact; definitely; it is clear that
Attitude markers	express writer's attitude to proposition	unfortunately; I agree; surprisingly
Self mentions	explicit reference to author (s)	I; we; my; me; our
Engagement markers	explicit build relationship with reader	consider; note; you can see that

This model recognizes that metadiscourse comprises of the two dimensions of interaction. Here is how Hyland (2005) explains both of the dimensions:

1. The interactive dimension

This concerns with the writer's awareness of a participating audience and the ways he or she seeks to accommodate its probable knowledge, interests, rhetorical expectations and processing abilities. The writer's goal in using interactive metadiscourse is to shape and constrain a text to meet the needs of particular readers, setting out arguments so that they will recover the writer's preferred interpretations and goals of the text. The use of resources in this category therefore addresses ways of organizing discourse, rather than experience, and reveals the extent to which the text is constructed with the readers' needs in mind.

2. The interactional dimension

This concerns with the ways writers conduct interaction by intruding and commenting on their message. The writer's goal in using interactional metadiscourse is to make his or her views explicit and to involve readers by allowing them to respond to the unfolding text. This is the writer's expression of a textual 'voice', or community-recognized personality, and includes the ways he or she conveys judgments and overtly aligns him- or herself with readers. Metadiscourse here is essentially evaluative and engaging,

expressing solidarity, anticipating objections and responding to an imagined dialogue with others. It reveals the extent to which the writer works to jointly construct the text with readers.

As stated before, Hyland (2005, p.54) claimed that his constructed model was based on functional approach which regarded metadiscourse as “the ways writers refer to the text, or the writer to the readers”. Choices of interactive devices that stated in the model address readers' expectations that an argument will conform to conventional text patterns and predictable directions, enabling them to process the text by encoding relationships and ordering material in ways that they will find appropriate and convincing. While the interactional devices focus more directly on the participants of the interaction, with the writer adopting an acceptable persona and a tenor consistent with the norms of the community.

Considering the contribution of this model in many previous studies (e.g. Hyland and Tse (2004), Zahra, Roya, and Shahla (2015), Putro (2016), and Herlita (2016)), this study also applied metadiscourse model of Hyland (2005) as the main device of the study in consideration that the model provides a clear distribution of the markers, simple to use, and easily comprehended. Some researchers also said that the model aspires to overcome the controversies surrounding the notion of metadiscourse (Khajavy, Asadpour, & Yousefi, 2012) and provided the probably most comprehensive framework for the study of metadiscourse (Abdi, 2011). More explanations regarding interactive metadiscourse

markers that are going to be analyzed will be described in the next sub-point.

2.3 Interactive Metadiscourse

Referring to the previous discussion, interactive metadiscourse concerns on writer's awareness of the audience participation and on how the writer provides the needs of the knowledge, interests, rhetorical expectations, and processing abilities. The purposes of the markers are to organizing the discourse and construct the readers' need. There are five markers under interactive metadiscourse according to Hyland (2005), more specific explanation of the markers will be discussed in the following points.

- Transitions

Transitions have function to express relations between main clauses. This marker is divided into three categories that are applied to signal additive, contrastive, and causative relations between the areas of the discourse.

- Addition is used to add elements to an arguments, introduced by phrases such as; *and, furthermore, moreover, by the way* etc.
- Comparison is used to marks an arguments as either similar (introduced by phrases such as; *similarly, likewise, equally, in the same way, correspondingly* etc.) or different (introduced by

phrases such as; *in contrast, however, but, on the contrary, on the other hand* etc.)

- Consequence is used to explain the relations, either to tell the readers that a conclusion is being drawn or justified (*thus, therefore, consequently, in conclusion, as such*, etc.) or that an argument is being disapproved (*admittedly, nevertheless, anyway, in any case, of course*).
- Frame markers are used to sequence parts of the text or to order an argument. The markers signal text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure by providing framing information about elements of the discourse. Frame markers often act explicitly as an additive relations (*first, then, 1/2, a/b, at the same time, next*), or as a label of text stages (*to summarize, in sum, by way of introduction*). They also announce discourse goals (*I argue here, my purpose is, the paper proposes, I hope to persuade, there are several reasons why*) or indicate topic shifts (*well, right, OK, now, let us return to*).
- Endophoric markers are used to show expressions which refer to other parts of the text introduced by phrases such as; *see Figure 2, refer to the next section, as noted above*. The markers role is to facilitate comprehension and supporting arguments by referring to earlier material or anticipating of what is come in the next discussion. By guiding readers through the discussion, they help steer them to preferred interpretation or reading of the discourse.

- Evidentials are used to guide the reader’s interpretation and establish an authorial command of the subject by distinguish who is responsible for a position (statement) and may contribute to a persuasive goal of the writer. Markers of Evidential involve hearsay or attribution to reliable source; in academic writing it refers to a community-based literature and provides important support for the arguments. It is introduced in phrases such as; *according to X, Z states*.
- Code Glosses is applied to provide additional information what has been said by rephrasing, explaining, or elaborating. The purpose is to ensure the reader is able to see what the writer is intended to say in the text. The markers are introduced by phrases such as; *this is called, in other words, that is, this can be defined as*, etc. Some markers are also used to give examples by using some phrases; *for example, such as, e.g.*, etc. As the alternative, *parentheses ((, [, {})* are usually used.

Based on the explanations above, a table of summary can made in order to see the classifications and the functions of each marker clearer. Table 2.2 contains each marker’s function along with word or phrases used to organize the discourse and construct the readers’ need.

Transitions express relations between main clauses	Addition adds elements to an argument		and, furthermore, moreover, by the way
	Comparison	marks an argument as similar (from the previous statement)	similarly, likewise, equally, in the same way, correspondingly
		marks an argument as different (from the previous statement)	in contrast, however, but, on the contrary, on the other hand, meanwhile
	Consequence	tell readers that a	thus, therefore, consequently, in

		conclusion is being drawn or justified	conclusion, overall, as such
		tell readers an argument is being countered	admittedly, nevertheless, anyway, in any case, of course
Frame Markers sequence parts of the text or to internally order an argument	explicit additive relations		first, then, numbering (1.,2.,3.), listing (a,b,c / using bullets), at the same time, next
	labels text stages		to summarize, in sum, by way of introduction
	announce discourse goals		I argue here, my purpose is the paper proposes, I hope to persuade, there are several reasons why
	indicate topic shifts		well, right, OK, now, let us return to, as for
Endophoric show expressions which refer to other parts of the text			In/see Figure/Table, refer to the next section, as noted above, this part, this chapter, previous section has, as can be seen in
Evidentials distinguish who is responsible for a position			to cite x, to quote x, year or name, according to, x stated
Code Glosses supply additional information	rephrasing, explaining or elaborating what has been said		this is called, in other words, that is, this can be defined as, i.e.
	giving examples		e.g., for example, such as

Table 2.2 Interactive Metadiscourse markers' functions and examples of words and phrases.

2.4 Academic Writing

Academic writing is an essential part of university course. University students around the world are demanded to write scientific-based writing in order to state their argument with academic writing. According to Nasiri (2013), academic writing is normally based on empirical research, which is reported to the scientific discourse community objectively, but with certain conventions.

Usually, two kinds of academic writing are assigned in university; report paper or research paper (Winkler & McCuen-Metherell, 2008).

Report papers summarize and report findings on a particular subject, judgment or evaluation about the findings and relate them with logical sequence. While a research paper is a proposition or point of view that you are willing to argue against or defend.

2.4.1 Journal Articles

Journals articles or as known as research paper are one of academic writing in university. It is defined as a technical document that describes a significant experimental, theoretical or observational extension of current knowledge, or advances in the practical application of known principles (O'Conner & Wordford, 1976). Journals articles tend to be more formal and systematic compared to the other academic writing, it describes a set structure of a research. Research is defined as a systematic and objective analysis and recording of controlled observations that may lead to the development of generalizations, principles, or theories, resulting in prediction and possibly ultimate control of events (Best & Kahn, 1995).

Most journals articles are prepared according to a format called IMRAD (Nair & Nair, 2014). The term represents the first letters of the words; Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results, And, Discussion, which also represent each chapter or section in a

journals article. Nair and Nair (2014) stated that the term become the choice of international journal articles since American National Standards Institute (ANSI) adopting the term as the standard in 1972 for writing or reporting a research article.

In Indonesia, “skripsi” is a term that is used as final research paper for post-graduate requirement. The use of English in skripsi has widely-spread in Indonesia seeing some universities required English as the main language in the skripsi—or in some instances only in the Abstract.

2.4.2 Findings Section

Findings section and discussion section are important parts of a journal article, as it is where the research questions are answered. In short articles or reports of single empirical studies, the results and discussion are often combined (Darley, Zanna, & Roediger III, 2003). But, if the study needs to integrate several different kinds of results or discuss several general matters, then a separate discussion section needs to be prepared (Bem, 2003). Thus, in most of studies, the findings are first being presented and interpreted separately in discussion section. Findings or results section of the study should first simply state the findings, without bias or interpretation, meanwhile discussion section uses the

statistical results to make conclusions regarding the research question then interpret the data based on the findings (Branson, 2004). However, whether it is being combined or separated, the characteristic of what the section consist of remain the same.

Result or findings section is organized based on what is being questioned in the study. This section of the study usually presented in past tense form and use tables, graphs, or other illustrations (Hengl & Gould, 2002). If the data is in statistical form, tables and figures may be used as tools to show the findings. In this case, writers should ensure that tables and figures presented are labeled or numbered separately. Meanwhile, if the data is presented in words, citing the evidences will be used to explain the findings.

In presenting the result of the study, Bem (2003) described few major steps to follow in findings section; (a) describe any overall procedures you used to convert your raw observations into analyzable data, (b) tell about the statistical analysis itself (If the method of analysis is new or likely to be unfamiliar to readers of the journal, a full explanation of it need to be provided) and (c) if the results section is complicated or divided into several parts, you may wish to provide an overview of the section, such as: "The results are presented in three parts...". Bem (2013) also suggests that if the data (e.g. reliabilities, judges, observers, participant

dropout problems) fit better in the method section, some of these other matters might better be postponed until the discussion section when you are considering alternative explanations of your results.

2.4.3 Discussion Section

Discussion section is the place for interpreting findings of a study. As noted earlier, findings or results section of the study should first simply state the findings, without bias or interpretation, meanwhile discussion section uses the statistical results to make conclusions regarding the research question then interpret the data based on the findings (Branson, 2004). In other words, whether or not the hypothesis is statistically confirmed by the results is written clearly in this section. If the methods section of the study has listed procedure or structure in order, findings section and discussion section should follow the same sequence.

The discussion section focuses more on the data interpretation. Researcher of a study will explain how the findings answer the research question along with how the findings will affect the previous or next studies on the particular or related topic. Discussion section usually written in simple present tense form (or past tense if it is related to the result) and allow scientific speculation of the researcher to be included (if necessary) (Hengl

& Gould, 2002). Hess (2004) stated, the elements of discussion section should include:

1. Major findings of the study
2. Explanation of the meaning and importance of the findings
3. Relation of the findings to the similar studies
4. Consideration of alternative explanations of the findings
5. Statement of the clinical relevance of the findings
6. Acknowledgement of the study's limitations
7. Suggestions for further research

2.4 Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section

As stated before, interactive metadiscourse has five markers; Transitions, Frame Markers, Endhoporic Markers, Evidentials, and Code Glosses that is used to organize the discourse and construct the readers' need. This section will discuss what markers will likely occur in findings section and discussion section of journal articles, predicted from the function of each marker and the function of each section.

As mentioned above, findings section usually presented in past tense form and use tables, graphs, or other illustrations. (Hengl & Gould, 2002). Endhoporic markers will likely occur in this section, since the section must consist of tables and figures. The function of endhoporic markers as tool to referring the other parts of text will be used using phrases "In/see Figure/Table".

Meanwhile, Discussion section is where the statistical results to make conclusions regarding the research question then interpret the data based on the findings (Branson, 2004). Most markers of interactive metadiscourse will be used in this section, such as transitions that one of the functions is to draw a conclusion can be used to explain the meaning and importance of the findings (Hess, 2004). Relating the findings of the study to the previous study is also part of discussion section, thus, evidentials (to cite x, to quote x, year or name) will also likely to occur in the section.

In some cases, it is often found combined section of findings and discussion sections in journal articles. However, whether it is being combined or separated, the characteristic of what the section consist of remain the same. But it will likely to happen that endhoporic marker will be used mostly in this case, because a writer can't expect the readers to remember what is being presented in the findings even it is only distanced a paragraph.

2.6 Theoretical Framework

This study is conducted to investigate interactive metadiscourse used in Finding and Discussion section of international journals articles using Hyland (2005) constructed model. Based on the discussion towards this chapter, Metadiscourse is the cover term for the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) to express a viewpoint and engage with readers as members of a particular

community. Five interactive metadiscourse markers that set goal to help reader get through the text became the focus of this study. First, *Transitions* that has function to express relations between main clauses is underlined by three categories that each of it also has its own function; (a) addition (adds elements to an argument), (b) comparison (marks an argument as similar or different) and, (c) consequence (tell readers that a conclusion is being drawn or countered). Second, *Frame markers* that has function to sequence parts of the text or to internally order an argument often act as explicit additive relations, label text stages announce discourse goals, or indicate topic shifts. Third, *Endophoric markers* has function to show expressions which refer to other parts of the text. Fourth, *Evidentials* that has function to distinguish who is responsible for a position. And the last, *Code glosses* that has function to supply additional information by rephrasing, explaining or elaborating what has been said or giving examples.

The occurrence of the five markers will be investigated in Findings section and Discussion section of international journals articles. Findings section and Discussion section are part of journals articles where the study should first simply state the results, without bias or interpretation and then with the statistical results make conclusions regarding the research question then interpret the data based on the findings (Branson, 2004).

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents method applied in the study, how the data is collected, and analyzed in order to answer the research questions.

3.1 Research Design

This research is a qualitative designed study applying descriptive analysis approach. Descriptive analysis design seeks kind of phenomenon appear in a study and what aspects does it have (Elliott & Timulak, 2015). Elliott (2009) also said that qualitative design is being featured to emphasize the understanding of the phenomena in the researcher's right (rather than from some outside perspective). Thus, the researcher applied this design and approach to this research as a tool to seek interactive metadiscourse and the aspects of it in international journal articles.

In order to answer the research questions the study applied content analysis method to investigate interactive metadiscourse used in Findings section and Discussion section in international journal articles. As cited by (Krippendorff, 2004), content analysis is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use. The researcher also refers to (Ary, Jacobs, & Sorensen, 2010) statement that wrote content analysis usually begins with

a question that the researcher believes can best be answered by studying documents. Journals articles are documents that were being analyzed in this study.

3.2 Time & Place of Study

This research was conducted from October 2016 to Januari 2017. The study took place in English Department of State University of Jakarta.

3.3 Data and Data Source

The data for this research is interactive metadiscourse markers come in word or phrases in Findings section and Discussion section in international journals articles. The data source is 10 journals articles from three journals of The Journal of Asia TEFL that published from February to August 2016. The selected 10 journals articles are related to pedagogy in English teaching to support the significance of the study. The Journal of Asia TEFL was chosen based on its reliability as journal articles source since 2003. Stated in the website's information; Asia TEFL is a refereed publication devoted to research articles, reports, and book reviews concerned with the teaching and learning of English, especially in Asian contexts. Based on this devoted reference, Asia TEFL is one of journal

articles that are used as source to acquire their knowledge in writing their own journal articles.

3.4 Instrument

The researcher provided table analysis as the instrument to investigate interactive metadiscourse used in Findings section and Discussion section in international journals articles. Two tables were presented in the study; the first was used to collect and categorize the data, and the second was used to compile the number of occurrences based on each interactive metadiscourse markers and its' functions.

3.5 Data Collection Procedure

The data of the study was collected by the following procedure:

1. Selecting the data source from Asia TEFL website: <http://journal.asiatefl.org>. Asia TEFL was chosen with consideration to its reliability as journals publisher concerns with the teaching and learning in English especially in Asia contexts. The Journals of Asia TEFL Volume 13, No. 1-3, February-August 2016 was chosen since it is the most recent published journal articles from the Asia TEFL.

2. Choosing 10 research journals randomly from The Journals of Asia TEFL. Pedagogy in English teaching is the topic that is chosen for selected journals to support the significance of the study.
3. Selecting sections of the journal articles that were going to be analyzed. In order to make the research effective, Findings section and Discussion section of the journals were chosen, with a consideration that the section has most parts that deal with researcher's original writing and as it is where the research questions are answered in the study.
4. Collecting Interactive Metadiscourse markers that occurred in the Findings section and Discussion section of the ten selected journals.

3.6 Data Analysis Procedure

The data of the study was analyzed by following the procedure:

1. Identifying interactive metadiscourse markers that occur in Findings section and Discussion section in 10 Asia TEFL journal articles.
2. Categorizing interactive metadiscourse markers that occur in Findings section and Discussion section based on Hyland's (2005) theory; transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidential, or code glosses, and also based on each marker's functions into Table 3.1

Table 3.1 is used to analyze types of interactive metadiscourse that occurred in Findings section and Discussion section of international

journal articles in order to answer Research Question 1.1. There are two types of tables for Table 3.1. Type 1 will be used for journal articles that separated their Findings section and Discussion section, and Type 2 will be used for journal articles that combined the sections. However, both of the types of Table 3.1 have the same function to show excerpts that contain interactive metadiscourse markers from each journal articles and category they belong to in the matter of the function of each marker.

Title of the Journal Article:														
No.	Excerption	T					FM				EM	EV	CG	
		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	F1	F2	F3	F4			C1	C2
Findings Section														
1.														
Total														
Discussion Section														
1.														
Total														
Total Occurrence														

Table 3.1 (type 1) Table of Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section

Title of the Journal Article:														
No.	Excerption	T					FM				EM	EV	CG	
		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	F1	F2	F3	F4			C1	C2
1.														
Total														
Total Occurrence														

Table 3.1 (type 2) Table of Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section

T1: adds elements

T2: marks as similar

T3: marks as different

T4: conclusion is being justified

T5: conclusion is being countered

F1: explicit additive relations

F2: labels text stages

F3: announce discourse goals

F4: indicate topic shifts

EM: refer to other parts

EV: distinguish who is responsible
C1: explaining what has been said

C2: giving examples

3. Counting the amount of interactive discourse markers that occurred in Findings section and Discussion section and presenting it in Table 3.2.

No.	Title of the Journal Article	T					FM				EM	EV	CG		Total	
		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	F1	F2	F3	F4			C1	C2		
1.																
	Total per function															
	Total per marker															
	Total Occurrence															

Table 3.2 Table of Interactive Metadiscourse Total Occurrence

T1: adds elements

T2: marks as similar

T3: marks as different

T4: conclusion is being justified

T5: conclusion is being countered

F1: explicit additive relations

F2: labels text stages

F3: announce discourse goals

F4: indicate topic shifts

EM: refer to other parts

EV: distinguish who is responsible

C1: explaining what has been said

C2: giving examples

Table 3.2 is used to present the total amount of interactive metadiscourse markers as well as the distribution of each function that occurred in Findings section and Discussion section of the ten journal articles. Table 3.2 shows the number of interactive metadiscourse markers occurrence from each marker and each function of each journal article from Table 3.1. The number of occurrences in each journal will help to answer Research Question 2.2 related to the function of interactive metadiscourse markers in Findings section and Discussion section of international journal articles.

4. Interpreting the data based on the findings in order to conduct the conclusion of the study.
5. Concluding the result of the study to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents findings and discussion of interactive metadiscourse in international journals articles. The finding will be presented to answer the research questions of the study stated in chapter I, and further discussion of the result will be presented in the discussion section.

4.1 Data Description

Data of this study is interactive metadiscourse markers that come in word or phrases based on Hyland's (2005) theory; Transitions, Frame Markers, Endhopic Markers, Evidentials, and Code Glosses. The data was found in ten Findings section and Discussion sections in ten journals articles. The ten journals articles were selected from Journal of Asia TEFL Volume 13, No. 1-3 which published from February to August 2016.

4.2 Findings

This study was aimed to investigate types of interactive metadiscourse markers and the function of each marker in Findings section and Discussion section of international journal articles. After analyzed the data, in this section, the finding of the study will be presented firstly without any interpretation. In order to

answer the research question in chapter I, the analyzed data is presented in table 3.2 which consists of total occurrence of markers and functions of interactive metadiscourse in Findings section and Discussion section of international journal articles.

No.	Title of Journal Articles	T					FM				EM	EV	CG		Total
		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	F1	F2	F3	F4			C1	C2	
1.	Journal #1	Findings Section													
		4	-	5	8	-	2	-	5	2	35	-	12	-	73
		Discussion Section													
		4	-	7	9	-	-	-	1	6	6	17	-	50	
2.	Journal #2	9	-	10	11	-	-	3	1	-	13	18	-	2	67
3.	Journal #3	5	-	10	11	-	6	-	1	-	15	11	11	7	77
4.	Journal #4	3	1	8	4	-	3	1	-	-	14	9	4	11	58
5.	Journal #5	6	3	3	8	-	4	1	1	-	2	19	7	-	54
6.	Journal #6	1	1	5	6	-	2	2	1	-	5	8	1	4	36
7.	Journal #7	Findings Section													
		2	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	14	4	1	-	23
		Discussion Section													
		4	-	4	1	-	3	-	-	-	4	5	2	2	25
8.	Journal #8	1	1	6	4	-	1	2	1	2	17	3	3	5	46
9.	Journal #9	7	2	3	2	-	1	1	3	-	24	12	-	4	59
10.	Journal #10	4	-	2	6	-	-	-	-	-	18	10	10	6	56
Total per function		50	8	63	70	-	23	11	13	5	167	105	68	41	624
Total per marker		191					52				167	105	109		624
Total occurrence		624													

Table 3.2 Table of Interactive Metadiscourse Total Occurrence

T1: adds elements

T2: marks as similar

T3: marks as different

T4: conclusion is being justified

T5: conclusion is being countered

F1: explicit additive relations

F2: labels text stages

F3: announce discourse goals

F4: indicate topic shifts

EM: refer to other parts

EV: distinguish who is responsible

C1: explaining what has been said

C2: giving examples

Hyland (2005) proposed five categories of interactive metadiscourse, those are: Transitions; Frame Markers, Endhooporic Markers, Evidentials, and Code Glosses. After analyzing ten Findings section and Discussion section in ten journal articles, 624 occurrences of the five interactive metadiscourse markers proposed are found. The distributions of the markers in each journal can be seen in Table 3.2 above.

The data listed in Table 3.2 has answered research question 1.1 regarding to types of interactive metadiscourse used in Findings section and Discussion section of international journal articles. All five markers of interactive metadiscourse (i.e. Transitions, Frame Markers, Endhoporic Markers, Evidentials, and Code Glosses) are used in ten journal articles that were being analyzed. However, not all functions of the five markers are applied. The second function of *consequence* (i.e. to tell readers that a conclusion is being countered) as the third category of *Transitions* has no occurrence in all journal articles that were being analyzed.

The analyzed data of the study has shown that some predictions listed in the previous chapter (see Chapter II, p. 25) are proven. Mentioned previously in the chapter, endhoporic markers will occur in Findings section and Discussion section of journal articles, more surprisingly as the second highest occurrences number, 167 of 624 total occurrences. Transitions also said to be used in Finding section and Discussion section, this is proven by the highest occurrences of the total Findings, 191 of 624 occurrences. Evidentials that has function to distinguish who is responsible for a position also occurred 105 times. The prediction however

was based on the researcher's understanding of elaborated knowledge between interactive metadiscourse markers and Findings section and Discussion section. The findings of the study remain as the scientific result.

However, the second research question (2.2) regarding to function of the interactive metadiscourse markers still remains unanswered. Further discussion to answer the second research question, that needs a descriptive analysis, will be discussed in the next section along with some other findings such as; the role of each function of interactive metadiscourse markers, the difference between interactive metadiscourse markers used in combined and separated Findings section and Discussion section, and surprisingly, some words that weren't listed in Hyland's (2005) theory but indicates same function as the constructed framework.

4.3 Discussion

In this section, data of the study will be interpreted based on the Findings in order to answer the research questions and at once, stating some unexpected findings of the study. Data interpretation will provide supporting examples from the analyzed data and in the end will be related to a previous study constructed by Hyland and Tse in 2004. The section starts with the findings of interactive metadiscourse markers used in the Findings section and Discussion section of ten selected international journal articles along with function of each marker.

Transitions

The first marker of interactive metadiscourse is Transitions that has function to express relation between clauses in a discourse. Transitions has three other functions as the expression to show relation between the clauses in Findings section and Discussion section of journal articles, there are Addition, Comparison and Consequence. Addition has function to add elements in an argument, in Table 3.2 the function labeled as T1. Addition is introduced by using words and phrases such as; *and, furthermore, moreover, by the way, etc.*

- (1) “*Moreover*, they seemed to express more modesty regarding their proficiency levels than other participants.”(Journal #2, no.36)
- (2) “*Furthermore*, as previously noted, the L2SCA regards a complex noun phrase with multiple layers of post-modification as a single case of "complex nominal".”(Journal #3, no.14)
- (3) “*In addition* to his flexible attitude toward teaching, he delivered his thoughts (intradialogues) in a way that showed respect for his peers.”(Journal #4, no.18)
- (4) “*Additionally*, the absence of a significant difference between the repeated and unrepeated conditions suggests that a repetition effect did not occur.” (Journal #10, no.43)

In example (1), we can see that the writer tried to signify their reader that he added more argument in his Finding and Discussion section by using word “*Moreover*” at the beginning of the sentence. The same thing also happened in example (2), by rephrasing what has been said before as the additional argument, the writer used word “*Furthermore*” in the beginning of the sentence. Example (3) and (4) show two of used word and phrases that aren’t listed in the Hyland’s (2005) theory, but have the same function stated by Hyland. “*In addition*” and “*Additionally*” in more explicit ways showed that arguments are being added to the Findings and Discussion section of the journal articles.

The second function is Comparison which is functioned to marks arguments as either similar (T2) or different (T3) from the previous ones. To mark the argument as similar, words or phrases such as *similarly*, *likewise*, *equally*, *in the same way*, *correspondingly*, *etc*, are used. Meanwhile to mark the argument as different, words or phrases such as *in contrast*, *however*, *but*, *on the contrary*, *on the other hand*, *etc*, are used.

- (5) "Similarly, when she received several pieces of concrete advice from other teachers as to how she might offer more effective feedback to her students after tasks."(Journal #4, no.39)
- (6) "Likewise, a small number of the respondents, ranging between 1 % and 7 %, stated that they never used reading strategies (see items 12-14, 17-21 and 23-27)."(Journal #9, no.31)
- (7) "In a similar way, observation of a sample of the participants' classes would have provided another valuable layer of data through which to gain a better understanding of the teachers and their contexts, but this was outside of the scope of this study."(Journal #6, no.35)
- (8) "However, within the high group, vowel ratio of an epenthetic vowel (.088) was significantly shorter than that of a lexical vowel (.349)."(Journal #1, no.42)
- (9) "Unlike the quantitative findings of the pretest and posttest reading test comparison, some of the participants reported in their self-assessments that their reading competencies had somewhat improved after the program from the experience of reading the book, *Twilight*."(Journal #2, no.33)
- (10) "Conversely, it can be argued that a four-week study abroad program is too short to improve reading skills, improvement."(Journal #2, no.16)
- (11) "In sharp contrast, the CNP-constructed subjects in (b) are highly effective in bringing the given information to bear upon its related elements as discerned by the author."(Journal #3, no.69)

Using word "Similarly" and "Likewise", as can be seen in Example (5) and (6), the writers of the journal article #6 and #9 marked the arguments stated as similar (or implicitly have the same meaning) to the previous statement. Did not stated in Hyland's (2005) framework, but has the same function to marks an argument as similar, phrases "In a similar way" is used as can be seen in Example

(7). On the other hand, to tell the otherwise that an argument is different from the previous statement, words “However” that was proposed by Hyland was occurred in the Findings section of the first journal article (see Example (8)). In the analysis process of the data, “Unlike”, “Conversely”, and “In sharp contrast” were found and work functionally the same to mark argument as different (see Example (9), (10), and (11)).

T4 and T5 in Table 3.2 indicate the third function underlining the first marker, Transitions. Consequence has functions to tell the readers that conclusion is being justified or countered. A justified conclusion can be recognized by words or phrases such as; *thus, therefore, consequently, in conclusion, as such, etc*, while a countered conclusion can be recognized by the following words or phrases; *admittedly, nevertheless, anyway, in any case, of course, etc*.

- (12) “As such, for the proposed paths to bear fruit in a certain teacher education context, all components need to be given due weight, or the paths cease to exist.”(Journal #5, no.54)
- (13) “Therefore, the challenge in qualitatively interpreting the difference is obvious in that it would be difficult to imagine what a mean difference of one word per clause signifies in the actual writing process and how it could shed meaningful light on teaching academic writing.”(Journal #3, no.13)
- (14) “In fact, Texts F and G both show that the ER writing facilitated the students’ motivation and willingness to write for language learning purposes and develop learner autonomy, thus implicitly emphasizing its importance in the language learning classroom.”(Journal #8, no.37)
- (15) “Overall, the results of the MANOVA test found a statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores ($p < .0005$, observed power = 1.000).”(Journal #2, no.5)
- (16) “It is notable that the high group’s vowel ratio of an epenthetic vowel was significantly shorter than the low and native English groups’.”(Journal #1, no.49)

Hyland's constructed framework of the last function of Transitions that is consequence, occurrence can be seen in Example (12), (13), and (14). Using "As such", "Therefore", and "Thus", readers can tell that the writer is trying to justify the discussion in the Findings and Discussion section. A slight difference can be seen from all the examples from the beginning of the section and Example (14). The marker used was put in the middle of the sentence, and "Thus" was used to conclude the main clause. Example (14) supports the main function of Transitions that is express relation between the clauses, that the sub clause concluded the main clause. Example (15) and (16) used word and phrases that weren't included in the Hyland's (2005) framework, but function the same to tell the readers that a conclusion was being justified. The writer of Journal #1 chose the word "Overall", meanwhile the writer of Journal #2 chose "It is notable that".

From the result of the study it can be seen that T5, that has function to tell the readers that a conclusion is being countered, has no occurrence in Findings section and Discussion section of all ten journal articles. It might be caused by parts of journal articles that were being analyzed are Findings section and Discussion section, which consist of mostly tables and charts and required the researcher to relate all parts of the study. This function might be occurred in other parts of journal articles. For example, Literature Review section, where arguments from previous studies are being compiled to construct the theoretical framework.

Frame Markers

The second marker of interactive metadiscourse is Frame Markers, which has function to sequence parts of the text or to order an argument. Hyland (2005) stated that, the marker often act explicitly as an additive relations (F1), by using; *first, then, 1/2, a/b, at the same time, next*, as a label of text stages (F2), by using; *to summarize, in sum, by way of introduction*, also to announce discourse goals (F3), by using; *I argue here, my purpose is, the paper proposes, I hope to persuade, there are several reasons why*, or to indicate topic shifts (F4), by using; *well, right, OK, now, let us return to*.

- (17) “The selection of these nouns as the head words from which complex noun phrases expand arises from the following two considerations: 1) they have relatively similar frequencies in the two corpora when postmodified by an of-preposition phrase (see Table 3); and 2) all three nouns are included in Gardner and Davies’ (2013) Academic Vocabulary List.”(Journal #3, no.18)
- (18) “First, when observing their peers’ videotaped lessons, the teachers engaged in internal processes to make sense of their peers’ practices within the context of their own knowledge, experience, and beliefs. We refer to this process as an intradialogue.”(Journal #4, no.2)
- (19) “Finally, it can be concluded, based on the average response (3.14), that most of the reading strategies were sometimes used by the ESL teachers rather than frequently or always.”(Journal #9, no.33)

The first function of Frame Markers can be used by using numbering method that is something we usually see on daily basis, but apparently this is a tool to help readers to get through the text easily (see Example (17)). “First” (Example (18)) and “Finally” (Example (19)) are also basic materials in teaching English for primary school (usually taught in introducing procedure text or recount text), but is very helpful to make the readers understand parts of journal articles.

- (20) “*More specifically*, three sub-topics regarding ER writing emerged from the 13 reflections: ER writing (a) in general (Figure 1; 7 positive and 2 negative); (b) writing topics (Figure 2; 2 positive and 2 negative); and (c) ER usefulness in language learning (Figure 3; positive 23).”(Journal #8, no.12)
- (21) “*We first summarize* them and then explain each feature in detail in the following subsections.”(Journal #4, no.1)

The second function of Frame Markers as label text stages can be seen in Example (20) and Example (21). Although both of examples do not apply any of provided words and phrases of Hyland’s (2005) framework, “More specifically” and “We first summarize” work functionally the same.

The use of words of phrases to announce goals of the discourse as the third function of Frame Markers, can be seen in Example (20) and (21). Both of the examples were taken from the beginning Findings section and Discussion section of the journal articles. It can be assumed that the writers of both journal articles (Journal #8 & Journal #1) intended to remind the readers the focus of the study as they open the sections, before they present the result of the study and determine whether the goals are being accomplished or not.

- (22) “*Our initial focus here is to* show the students’ general attitudes toward ER and introduce the thematic topics which emerged from their reflections before we deliver the quantitative overview of the students’ choices for their attitudes toward ER writing, and then discuss students’ specific uses of evaluative means in close text analysis.”(Journal #8, no.1)
- (23) “*The present study set out to* investigate whether Korean L2 learners of English exhibit differences in producing epenthetic vowels and lexical vowels in word-final position.”(Journal #1, no.1)

The fourth function of Frame Markers was occurred the least. As can be seen below, Example (24) shows how the word “Next” is used to indicate that the topic is being shifted. This might be caused Hyland’s provided words and phrases

for this function were not suitable for journal articles discourse since the language seems to be too informal and requires two way communications between the writers and readers.

- (24) “*Next*, we examine how these students constructed their negative attitudinal stances toward the activity with a focus on the explicit (strong) and the implicit (weak) complaints”(Journal #8, no.39)

Endhoporic Markers

Endhoporic Markers (EM) have only one function, that is to show expressions which refer to other parts of the text. *See Figure 2, refer to the next section, as noted above, etc*, can be used to indicate the function of the markers.

- (25) “*Table 3 below displays* the findings in percentages, with raw numbers in parentheses.”(Journal #1, no.10)
- (26) “*Figure 3 below presents* the results of the hypothesized model before the intervention.”(Journal #7, no.6)
- (27) “*Excerpt 1-2 illustrates* the same pair’s data after the intervention (week 15).”(Journal #7, no.16)
- (28) “More details about the sub-categories of each topic are summarized *in Appendix B.*”(Journal #8, no.2)
- (29) “Some other reading strategies such as scanning the text for a specific piece of information and distinguishing between important and unimportant supporting details were also frequently used by 39.3 % and 38.1 % of the ESL teachers respectively (*see items 6 and 8*).”(Journal #9, no.4)

Examples stated above shows how a writer referring to the other part of a text in various ways; refer to the presented table (Example (25)), figures (Example (26)), excerpts (Example (27)), appendix of a study (Example (28)), and data items (Example (29)), and stated what can the readers found by take a look to the referred parts.

As Hengl & Gould (2002) said, Findings section usually presented in past tense form and use tables, graphs, or other illustrations. Thus, endhoporic markers is very useful in the section especially in journal articles that separate the Findings section and Discussion section. A writer in this case, cannot expect their readers to remember what was being presented or what has been said before after read through a particular part. Moreover, stating the same thing several times might drive boredom and confusion. This is how Endhoporic Markers is useful for writing journal articles, especially in Findings section and Discussion section. It can be seen from the occurrence number of the result of the study (Table 3.2). The endhoporic markers alone occurred 167 times, compared to the Transitions that has five functions underlining it.

Evidentials

Citing and referencing is part of writing a journal article. In interactive metadiscourse, this is a function of Evidentials (EV), to guide the reader's interpretation and establish an authorial command of the subject by distinguish who is responsible for a position (statement) and may contribute to a persuasive goal of the writer.

- (30) "All answers were added into an Excel document and coded in line with the guidelines for thematic analysis (*Gillham, 2005*)."(Journal #6, no.21)
- (31) "This could help her make sense of what might have happened during her lesson, or what *Mason (2002)* called the —discipline of noticing."(Journal #4, no.26)

(32) “Their formulations demonstrate that these students know the importance of affective dimensions when developing good writing habits (*cf. Day & Bamford, 1998; Jacobs & Farrell, 2012*).” (Journal #8, no.31)

Two different ways of citing another writer’s statement can be seen in both of the examples. In Example (30), the researcher firstly wrote the statement and then put the name and year at the end of sentence in brackets. While in Example (31), name of the writer is written first, then year written in brackets, and then the statement at the end of sentence. Unlike the other two examples, Example (32) use abbreviation “cf.” that stands for Cited From. The writer stated others writers’ statement in a purpose to strengthen his arguments. Relation of the findings to the similar studies as one of the elements in Discussion section (Hess, 2004) can also be fulfilled by using Evidentials markers.

Code Glosses

As stated in chapter II in this study, Code Glosses function is to provide additional information what has been said by rephrasing, explaining, or elaborating (C1). Additional information can be provided too by giving examples (C2) to emphasize the readers’ understanding of what the writers are trying to state. C1 can be indicated by words or phrases such as; *this is called, in other words, that is, this can be defined as, etc.* Meanwhile C2 can be indicated by words or phrases such as; *for example, such as, e.g., etc.* As the alternative, parentheses ((),[],{ }) are usually used.

(33) “As mentioned above, we purposely avoided giving the participants an observation checklist in order to ensure the genuine nature of the

interactions; *in other words*, we wanted to make sure that we would not influence the teachers' interaction."(Journal #4, no.7)

- (34) "This has important implications for examining noun phrase complexity. A text composed of more extended noun phrases (*i.e. those with multiple post-modifiers*) may end up having a similar, or even smaller, number of —complex nominals|| than one composed of noun phrase with much fewer post-modifiers, based on the calculation of the L2SCA."(Journal #3, no.15)
- (35) "These findings support those of many previous studies that reported positive linguistic outcomes from study abroad programs regardless of the programs' durations (*e.g., Brecht, Davidson, & Ginsburg, 1993; Freed, 1995; Freed, Dewey, & Segalowitz, 2004; Juan-Garau & Perez-Vidal, 2007; Kinginger, 2008, 2009; Sasaki, 2004, 2007*)."(Journal #2, no.18)
- (36) "The ESL teachers ignored a number of the reading strategies, *namely*; testing the students' previous knowledge about the current topic and reading the questions first before reading the passage for answering inferential comprehension questions."(Journal #9, no.51)

Example (33) supplied additional information to the text by rephrasing what has been said, the writer chose "In other words". Meanwhile in Example (34), abbreviation "i.e." that means "That is" shows that the writer supplied the additional information by explaining what has been said with few words inside the parentheses "()". Parentheses in Code Glosses can help readers to focus on the additional information and give better understanding on what the writer is trying to say. Supplying additional information by giving examples can be seen in Example (35) and (36). Example (35) slightly looks like the Evidentials, but at the beginning, "e.g" that is functioned to give examples is inserted. The writer here wanted to state the previous studies by mentioning the year and the author of the studies. But the studies here are used as examples rather than to responsible or support the statement the writer stated.

To summarize, all five markers of interactive metadiscourse have its' function to organize a text, but each of them functionally works to construct the

readers' need. The function of the five markers in Findings section and Discussion section has been described in details up to this point and Research Question 1.2 has been answered. Each example stated in this chapter, also shows how the writers of Asia TEFL construct a communicative text in order to make journal articles that are easy to follow.

Most interactive metadiscourse used as shown by Table 3.2, is Transitions. 191 occurrences of the marker might be caused by five functions underlining it, even though the fifth function has no occurrence. Data source of this study (Finding and Discussion sections) also supported the number of Transitions occurrences. Finding and Discussions section of a study must have clear and strong arguments. What can be added, which part is similar or different, and which argument is being justified or being disapproved should be seen clearly. Thus, Transitions can be used in order to guide the readers better. This finding somehow proved Hyland and Tse (2004) study that theorized that Transitions is most occurred in soft fields, such as applied linguistic, public admin, or business studies. This study was analyzed journal articles that related to pedagogy of English teaching which is in language and education fields.

Journal articles that were being analyzed also have different patterns, those are; two of the journal articles (Journal #1 and Journal #7) separate their Findings sections and Discussion sections and the rest eight combine the Findings and Discussion section. However, the findings show that the interactive metadiscourse occurrences throughout the ten journal articles do not have much difference. This shows that Findings section and Discussion section, whether it is combined or

separated, follow the same sequence and characteristic of what the sections consist of remain the same.

Throughout this discussion some new words that weren't listed in Hyland's (2005) theory, but occurred and functionally work the same as the markers' functions, were also found (see previously Example (5), (6), (10), (11), etc). The researcher here assumed that, new words and phrases keep being developed since the language is being developed too.

Overall, this result of the study indicates that writers of The Journal of AsiaTEFL are aware of their readers' existence. Therefore their journals articles are written in a communicative way to help the readers get through the text easily. Interactive metadiscourse is one of tools to help organize a text, with five markers and functions that underline it, the term construct a text to meet the readers' need.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter presents conclusion of the whole study included suggestions from the researcher regarding the Findings of the study and future research.

5.1 Conclusion

The use of English as the language of choice for writing skripsi has made Indonesia in to the forth area of Flowerdew's (2013) classification of the great expansion of the use of English. The forth area are explained as countries where English has no official status but is being studied and is used for academics purpose. In writing skripsi, students acquire their knowledge by reading throughout several journals articles before writing their own research. Thus make journal articles take an important role as source or references. Therefore, as cited from (Hartley, 2008), journals articles as one of academic writing should be impersonal and unnecessary complicated but easy to follow. However, the idea of audience in writing a text is a difficult task of a writer or researcher of a study in order to make a journal article that will be beneficial for others.

Metadiscourse was constructed in 1959 by Haris as a device that refers to an interesting approach to conceptualizing interactions between text producers and their texts and between text producers and users (audience). Hyland (2005) then, divided Metadiscourse into two categories; interactional and interactive.

Interactive Metadiscourse focus on how the writer helps to guide the reader get through the text. Interactive Metadiscourse goal is to shape and constrain a text to meet the needs of particular readers, setting out arguments so that they will recover the writer's preferred interpretations and goals of the text. Therefore, in order to learn how the writers of journal articles make an easy to follow journal, interactive metadiscourse became the focus this study.

Interactive Metadiscourse is underlined by five markers, these are: Transition markers (addition, comparison, consequence), Frame markers, Endophoric markers, Evidentials, and Code glosses. The use of it was then being investigated in Finding and Discussion sections of ten journal articles. Findings section and Discussion section were chosen in consideration that it is an important part of a journal article, as it is where the research questions are answered and that the section has most parts that deal with researcher's original writing.

This study was guided with two research questions; (1) What are types of interactive metadiscourse used in Finding section and Discussion section of international journal articles?, and (2) What is the function of each marker of interactive metadiscourse used in Finding section and Discussion section of international journal articles?

Journal articles that were being investigated were taken from AsiaTEFL as a common used source of finding journal articles related to Teaching English as Foreign Language. Ten journals articles related to pedagogy in English teaching were taken and being studied in order to investigate the use interactive

metadiscourse markers and the function of each marker in Findings section and Discussion section.

After analyzed the data, 624 occurrences of interactive metadiscourse were found. All five markers of interactive metadiscourse (i.e. Transitions, Frame Markers, Endhoporic Markers, Evidentials, and Code Glosses) are used in ten journal articles that were being analyzed. All five markers of interactive metadiscourse have its' function to organize a text, but each of them functionally works to construct the readers' need.

Result of this study indicates that writers of The Journal of AsiaTEFL are aware of their readers' existence. Therefore their journals articles are written in a communicative way to help the readers get through the text easily.

5.2 Suggestion

Based on the findings that showed how interactive metadiscourse is used in Findings and Discussion sections of international journals articles, the researcher hoped to help student who is writing academic paper especially skripsi to have in-depth understanding on how to accommodate their readers a guidance to read through the text.

Overall, the term metadiscourse is a big term that is very helpful to write an effective academic text, therefore many studies have investigated the use of it in various form of text. The development of metadiscourse is also grown larger, that

demands future studies to explore its further use. Thus, it is a very reasonable choice to leave the end of this paper by suggesting related topic and at once, acknowledging flaws of this study:

1. This study focused on only interactive metadiscourse. Next studies can explore on interactional metadiscourse or focusing on the use of one of the metadsicourse markers.
2. This study only focused on classifications of metadiscourse proposed by Hyland in 2005. Next studies can be conducted on the other writers classifications, or might compare the effectiveness between the classifications.
3. This study investigated only 10 journal articles. Future studies can be conducted to investigate metadiscourse in larger number of journal articles.
4. The data of this study was taken from The Journal of Asia TEFL, which only publish journal articles from Asia. Next studies might choose journals articles which are written by native speakers of English, to reflect the use of native English.
5. The focus of this study is only on Findings sectionand Discussion section of journal articles. Future related studies can explore how metadiscourse is used in other sections of journal articles.
6. This study only investigated the use of interactive metadiscourse in written document (journal articles). Future studies might be conducted to

investigate interactive metadiscourse in others written text, or even in spoken text (speeches).

7. Future study also might aim to apply metadiscourse in writing skill subject, in order to learn how to make a communicative text and how to organize a text that is easy to follow.

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APPENDICES

	produced by 20 Korean learners at two different proficiency levels showed the following patterns regarding realization types.												
10	Table 3 below displays the findings in percentages, with raw numbers in parentheses.								√				
11	Of the 200 tokens produced by the low group learners, Type 4 (/ʃ/ as [ʃ]) was the most frequent one, followed by Type 3 (/ʃi/ as [ʃ]) and Type 1 (/ʃi/ as [ʃi]). Type 2 (/ʃ/ as [ʃi]) was attested in 30 tokens.					√							
12	Of the 200 tokens produced by the high group learners, Type 4 was the most					√							

	frequently found than Type 2 with vowel epenthesis.												
17	In the analysis, subjects' group (low vs. high vs. native) and realization type (Type 1 vs. 2 vs. 3 vs. 4) were independent variables.									√			
18	Figure 1 illustrates the interaction effect of subjects' group realization type with friction ratio.									√			
19	Since vowel epenthesis or deletion was not attested with the native English group's pronunciation, only Type 1 and 4 were represented for the native English group in Figure 1.											√	
20	To see if significant differences existed							√					

	among realization types within the low group, an analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed with friction ratio as a dependent variable and realization type as an independent variable.												
21	<p>According to a post-hoc analysis of LSD, there was no significant difference of friction ratio between Type 1 (/fi/ [fi]) at .437 and Type 2 (/f/ [fi]) at .430 (p = .718) while the difference between Type 3 (/fi/ [f]) at .652 and Type 4 (/f/ [f]) at .617 was significant (p < .05).</p>									√			
22	<p>ANOVA revealed significant differences</p>									√			

	in friction ratio among realization types within the high group ($F(3, 196) = 200.917, p < .05$).												
23	<p>A post-hoc analysis of LSD revealed a significant difference between Type 1 (.389) and Type 2 (.521) and between Type 3 (.662) and Type 4 (.620) ($p < .05$).</p>									√			
24	<p>Thus, the high group learners distinguished Type 1 and Type 2 by producing longer friction duration for Type 2 than for Type 1 while the low group learners did not make a significant distinction between the two.</p>				√								
25	<p>As for Type 3 and Type 4, both</p>									√			

	groups made a distinction by producing longer friction duration for Type 3 than for Type 4.												
26	Within the native English group, as can be seen from Figure 1, Type 4 exhibited higher friction ratio than Type 1.									√			
27	ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of realization type with friction ratio ($F(1, 78) = 294.623, p < .05$).									√			
28	Thus, native English speakers exhibited longer friction ratio when pronouncing tokens with word-final /f/ (.554) than the ones with word-final /fi/ (.314).				√								
29	According to a series									√			

	examined whether friction ratio of Korean learners' Type 2 with an epenthetic vowel was different from that of the native's Type 1 with a lexical vowel.												
33	According to ANOVA , there were significant differences (F (2, 71) = 37.781, p < .05).									√			
34	A post-hoc analysis of LSD revealed significant differences for low vs. high, high vs. native and low vs. native (p < .05).									√			
35	Thus , friction ratio of Type 2 with an epenthetic vowel was significantly longer within the high group at .521 than within the low group at .430, both of which were				√								

	significantly longer than that of Type 1 within the native English group at .314.												
36	To see if there were significant differences of friction ratio between the low and high groups? Type 3 produced with vowel deletion and the native English group's Type 4 (/ʃ/ – [ʃ]), ANOVA was conducted and significant differences were found among the three groups (F (2, 119) = 21.042, p < .05).								√				
37	According to a post-hoc analysis of LSD, there were significant differences for low vs. native and high vs. native (p <								√				

	lexical vowel (.302) and that of an epenthetic vowel (.331) were not significantly different within the low group.												
42	However, within the high group, vowel ratio of an epenthetic vowel (.088) was significantly shorter than that of a lexical vowel (.349).			√									
43	To see if there were significant differences among the three groups regarding vowel ratio of Type 1, ANOVA was run.						√						
44	According to the analysis, significant differences were found (F (2, 155) = 18.946, p < .05).								√				
45	A post-hoc analysis of LSD revealed significant								√				

	differences for low vs. high, high vs. native and low vs. native ($p < .05$)												
46	In addition, ANOVA showed that significant differences existed between the low and high groups' vowel ratio of Type 2 with an epenthetic vowel and the native English group's vowel ratio of Type 1 with a lexical vowel ($F(2, 17) = 32.954, p < .05$).	√											
47	In addition, ANOVA showed that significant differences existed between the low and high groups' vowel ratio of Type 2 with an epenthetic vowel and the native English group's								√				

	vowel ratio of Type 1 with a lexical vowel (F (2, 17) = 32.954, p < .05).												
48	According to a post-hoc analysis of LSD , there were significant differences for low vs. high, high vs. native and low vs. native (p < .05).									√			
49	It is notable that the high group's vowel ratio of an epenthetic vowel was significantly shorter than the low and native English groups'.				√								
50	Figure 3 illustrates the interaction effect of subjects' group * realization type with F1. Since Type 3 and Type 4 were not produced with a word-									√			

	final vowel, they were not shown in Figure 3.												
51	<p>A series of t-tests revealed no significant difference of F1 between Type 1 and Type 2 within the low group ($p = .989$) while a significant difference was exhibited within the high group ($t = -7.414$, $p < .05$).</p>									√			
52	<p>Thus, F1 values of epenthetic and lexical vowels were not significantly different within the low group.</p>			√									
53	<p>On the other hand, within the high group, F1 of epenthetic vowels was significantly higher than that of lexical vowels.</p>			√									
54	<p>According to ANOVA, within Type</p>									√			

	1, there were no significant differences of F1 among the three groups.												
55	F1 of epenthetic vowels (i.e. Type 2) within the low and high groups...											√	
56	...and that of lexical vowels (i.e., Type 1) within the native English group were significantly different according to ANOVA ($F(2, 71) = 26.432, p < .05$).											√	
57	...and that of lexical vowels (i.e., Type 1) within the native English group were significantly different according to ANOVA ($F(2, 71) = 26.432, p < .05$).									√			
58	A post-hoc analysis of LSD showed significant									√			

	Type 1 within the native English group.												
68	In order to examine whether word frequency influenced the accuracy of production, word frequencies of the target words were collected from the BNC/COCA database.							√					
69	Table 4 below displays the word frequencies of the target words. The accuracy for each production was then correlated with the frequencies.								√				
70	In the production data, Type 1 and 4 were accurate pronunciation and thus given a score of 1.								√				
71	The results revealed a significant correlation								√				

	F2 for the target words with epenthetic vowels.												
14	<p>Although the high group learners' pronunciation deviates from that of native speakers in that they showed some inaccurate realization of the target forms /ʃ/ as [ʃi], epenthetic vowels were discriminated from lexical vowels with respect to the acoustic properties such as friction and vowel ratio and F1 and F2 values.</p>			√									
15	<p>The results show that the high group learners were employing production strategies to discriminate the contrast, yet still deviating from native</p>								√				

	/ʃi/...												
41	...and /ʃ/ (i.e., Type 4 with [ʃ] from the target form /ʃ/), both low and high groups showed longer friction ratio for Type 3 than for Type 4.												√
42	That is, of the two types of target words with word-final [ʃ], vowel deleted forms exhibited longer friction ratio within both low and high groups.												√
43	Both Korean learner groups' Type 3 (i.e., with [ʃ] produced from the target form /ʃi/) also showed significantly longer friction ratio than the native group's Type 4.												√
44	Thus, in				√								

.	some tokens, both Korean learner groups tried to discriminate the contrast of /ʃ/ vs. /ʃi/ in terms of different friction ratio, not in terms of the presence or absence of the vowel /i/ as a native English speaker did.																
45	That is, within the high group, higher accuracies were observed in production for the target words with higher word frequencies.														√		
46	However, for low group learners, the target words with higher word frequencies did not yield higher accuracies.		√														
47	The present study showed a result similar to Vais et al.												√				

	(2015) which reported that frequency played a role in L2 production for talented speakers, but not for less talented speakers.												
48	According to Exemplar Theory (Pierrehumbert, 2001), linguistic stimuli are stored as highly detailed episodes with acoustic and contextual information which are employed in speech production and perception.										√		
49	Thus, the results from the present study support the theory which predicts that the high group is more likely to be influenced by word frequency in production than the low				√								

	group.													
50	Thus, the results from the present study support the theory which predicts that the high group is more likely to be influenced by word frequency in production than the low group.										√			
Total : 50		4	-	7	9	-	-	-	-	1	6	6	1/7	-
Total Occurrence: 123		27					10				41	6	39	

Table 3.1.2 Table of Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section of Journal Article #2

Title of the Journal Article: The Influence of a Study Abroad Teacher Training Program on the Language Development of Korean Teachers of English (Choe, 2016)															
N o.	Excerptio n	Transitions					Frame Markers				Endhop oric Markers (EM)	Evident ials (EV)	Code Gloss es		
		T 1	T 2	T 3	T 4	T 5	F 1	F 2	F 3	F 4			C 1	C 2	
1.	To obtain data on listening, grammar, and reading, the participants completed an online test before and after										√				

	(1,41) 115.778, p < .005.												
8.	However, there was no statistically significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores on reading (F (1,41) .005, p = .947).			√									
9.	Figures 1 and 2 show the differences between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the five proficiency outcomes, with error bars on top indicating reliability results for each test.								√				
10	Figure 1 displays the means of the three proficiency outcomes scored on a 100-point scale: listening, grammar, and reading.								√				
11	In Figure								√				

2.	the means are displayed for the proficiency outcomes scored on nine-point scales, for speaking and writing.												
12.	The mean pretest and posttest reading scores were not statistically different (Figure 1),...								√				
13.	... although the mean listening, grammar, speaking, and writing differences between the pretest and...			√									
14.	...posttest scores were statistically significant in the MANOVA test results.								√				
15.	Perhaps the participants in this study abroad program were more engaged in the local									√			

	community to improve their oral communication proficiency than in reading books or articles (Freed, 1995; Kinginger, 2008; Stewart, 2010).												
16	In addition, the study abroad program director reported that the participants' reading proficiency levels were already high, leaving little room for improvement.	√											
17	"Their reading proficiency was so high, almost at the ceiling of the measure. So, it was hard to improve more." (Study abroad									√			

	with the local people.												
26	Therefore, some of the participants' posttest scores were lower than their pretest scores.			√									
27	Many of them had never been to an English-speaking country, and only a few had experienced an English-speaking country for longer than two weeks.	√											
28	This finding suggests that the English language the participants had studied and taught before they went abroad was different from the English used on location in the US.								√				
29	"Pronunciation became the									√			

<p>major issue for many teachers including me. I found native speakers' pitch more exaggerated. I feel like I became more familiar with the native speaker's speech music [rhythm] over the program.”</p> <p>(Participant B, written notes in self-assessment questionnaire, 4th week of the program).</p>																
<p>30</p> <p>“I became more aware of the specific patterns of errors, especially related to the pronunciation. This overseas training program helped me to correct myself</p>												√				

<p>rather [than] being frustrated when native speakers couldn't pick up what I said." (Participant B, written notes in self-assessment questionnaire, 4th week of the program).</p>																
<p>31 . "I am able to adjust my speech to suit my audience, whether I am talking to university professors, close friends, employees, or others ... [and] ... still not that comfortable, but now I feel like I can handle casual conversation with anyone." (Participant B, written</p>												√				

	<p>participant wrote, “The strategy of skimming worked really well when I [was] reading Twilight.”</p> <p>(Participant F, in-depth interview, 4th week of the program).</p>																
35	<p>Thus, many of the participants reported that they were neither “yes” nor “no,” but were somewhere between them, as “somewhat” or “sometimes.”</p>			√													
36	<p>Moreover, they seemed to express more modesty regarding their proficiency levels than other participants.</p>	√															
37	Even			√													

<p>37 . though only a few rated themselves as less able after than before in terms of their English proficiency , it was an important finding of this study because it confirms the findings of previous studies that a study abroad experience could differ from what the participants expected.</p>																
<p>38 . Overall, the participants believed that they were slightly better speakers, listeners, and readers after their short-term study abroad program.</p>			√													
<p>39 . This finding is supported by the fact that the</p>										√						

	majority of the participants had the explicit goal of improving their speaking skills, and they worked hard to speak more fluently and accurately by changing their pronunciation and intonation.												
40	Thus, their desires to improve seemed to have motivated them to work hard and,...			√									
41	...therefore, they self-assessed that they had improved.			√									
42	Similar to many previous studies (Allen & Herron, 2003; Cubillos et al., 2007; Ginsburg & Miller,									√			

	<p>2000; Kinginger, 2008), the participants in this study assessed themselves as having improved their listening skills more than their other skills.</p>												
43	<p>However, they quickly discovered that this was not as true as they had thought because they encountered many communication failures.</p>			√									
44	<p>Moreover, the mistakes were often simple ones that violated basic grammar rules, such as singular and plural or tenses.</p>	√											
45	<p>“...It really made me sad because I thought I was quite</p>									√			

	good at speaking; but, in reality, the local people can't understand me. I feel like I am a dumb and linguistically challenged person” (Participant Z, in-depth interview, 4th week of the program).															
46 .	Furthermore, after they said something to local people, the participants believed that their American interlocutors pretended to understand what they were talking about to not be impolite or rude to them.	√														
47 .	Moreover, Korean does not use as much stress as	√														

	study abroad program, although it was only four weeks long.												
55	They also became increasingly aware of linguistic differences between English and Korean.	√											
56	These findings seem to support some previous studies that found increased self-monitoring as an outcome of study abroad programs (e.g., DeKeyser, 2010).												√
57	In sum , more than one-half of the participants assessed themselves as slightly better at listening, speaking, and reading, as demonstrat						√						

	ed by the fact that they checked a few more of the 88 items on the self-assessment surveys as “yes” after than before the program.												
58	However, some of the participants reported that they were not sure of the extent of their improved proficiency . They believed that they had become “more often” or “sometimes” able to do something with their English skills, but “not always.”			√									
59	Over the course of the program, some of the participants “felt dissonance in their									√			

8.	Information on statistical significance of the differences is presented in Table 2 .											√					
9.	With significance level set at $p < .01$, statistics from the t-test show that a significant difference existed between the two corpora for all of the three measures.											√					
10.	Values of Cohen's d ranged from -0.562 to -0.772 , indicating a moderate to high practical significance (Cohen, 1988).												√				
11.	The results suggest a much lower degree of overall noun phrase complexity in MA dissertations than in published research articles, and testify to the ability of												√				

.	the challenge in qualitatively interpreting the difference is obvious in that it would be difficult to imagine what a mean difference of one word per clause signifies in the actual writing process and how it could shed meaningful light on teaching academic writing.																
14	<p>Furthermore, as previously noted, the L2SCA regards a complex noun phrase with multiple layers of post-modification as a single case of “complex nominal”.</p>	√															
15	<p>This has important implications for examining noun phrase complexity. A text</p>														√		

<p>composed of more extended noun phrases (i.e. those with multiple post-modifiers) may end up having a similar, or even smaller, number of “complex nominals” than one composed of noun phrase with much fewer post-modifiers, based on the calculation of the L2SCA.</p>															
<p>16 . However, the two texts deserve different interpretations of noun phrase complexity. ..</p>			√												
<p>17 with the one featuring more extended nominals being more cognitively demanding, and hence, more complex (Cummins, 1984).</p>												√			

18	<p>The selection of these nouns as the head words from which complex noun phrases expand arises from the following two considerations: 1) they have relatively similar frequencies in the two corpora when postmodified by an of-preposition phrase (see Table 3); and 2) all three nouns are included in Gardner and Davies' (2013) Academic Vocabulary List.</p>						√										
19	<p>1) they have relatively similar frequencies in the two corpora when postmodified by an of-preposition phrase (see Table 3);...</p>										√						
20	<p>...and 2) all</p>												√				

.	<p>three nouns are included in Gardner and Davies' (2013) Academic Vocabulary List.</p>																
21.	<p>In addition, selecting more than one head noun allows for a wider representation of complex noun phrases since nouns could differ in determining the complexity of postmodification due to their inherent semantic properties.</p>	√															
22.	<p>For example, the postmodification of effect and relationship would be potentially complex...</p>															√	
23.	<p>...because these two nouns semantically entail a postmodifying complex, i.e. effect</p>														√		

	of...on... and relationship between ... and																
24	The reason for limiting the first postmodifier to an of-phrase is that in English preposition phrases are the most frequent postmodifier type and of is the most frequent preposition (Biber et al., 1999).												√				
25	Two criteria were used as measures of complexity of postmodification: 1) length of postmodification; and 2) depth of postmodification.					√											
26	First, the mean lengths of postmodification for CNPs with each head noun across the two corpora were calculated and a t-test					√											

	was run to test statistical significance of the length difference between the two corpora.												
27	Statistics for the mean lengths and significance tests (together with the effect size Cohen's d) are listed in Table 4 .									√			
28	As can be seen , there was a significant difference between the two corpora in the length of post-modification for CNPs with each head noun, with the magnitudes at which length differences reached significance ranging from 1.12 to 1.51 words.									√			
29	This result is consistent with the previous finding that the two corpora are significantly									√			

	post-modification												
33	...such as Iris's and Yumin's understanding of plagiarism (2 words, PRC)												√
34	Thus, to go beyond the comparison of post-modification length, it would be necessary to know the proportion of longer instances of post-modification as a complementary interpretation of the significant length differences of post-modification between the two corpora.				√								
35	For pure comparison's purpose, an arbitrary cut-off point of 8 words was set up to determine post-modification greater than 8 words as "longer",							√					

	revealing insight.													
44	<p>Therefore, a general picture of post-modification depth across the two corpora can be outlined from a close examination of the distribution of post-modifiers at Levels 2, 3, and 4.</p>			√										
45	<p>It can be seen that for CNPs headed by each of the three nouns, the PRC saw a higher proportion of CNPs with multiple post-modifiers at all three levels (2, 3, and 4) as compared with the MDC, except for CNPs headed by analysis at Level 3 and 4, which exhibited an equal or almost equal proportion across the</p>									√				

<p>pieces [2in the massive database [3built by the “Experiencing English Writing” research group3]2]1].</p>																
<p>52 . This finding is consistent with the results for overall noun phrase complexity as measured by MLC, CN/C, and CN/T. With respect to depth of multiple post-modification , two observations need to be noted: 1) even in the expert corpus multiple post-modification mostly stopped at the second level, i.e. most (around 50%) of the CNPs in the PRC had only two consecutive post-modifiers; and 2) the</p>					√											

<p>student writers trailed the expert writers mainly at Levels 2 and 3, with post-modification from Level 4 onward being a relatively insignificant presence.</p>															
<p>53 . These findings have important implications for EAP pedagogy, indicating that, despite a crucial feature of advanced literacy, multiple post-modification should not be over-emphasized as having extreme complexity and that instructional attention needs to be focused on raising students' awareness of elaborating information within three levels of</p>										√					

	post-modification , and especially within the first two.												
54 .	To answer the third research question, this section provides textual evidence of quantitative results of overall noun phrase complexity and post-modification complexity.									√			
55 .	The contrasts in clause length and noun phrase density as well as the kind of preciseness and efficiency in packing up information between student and published writing can be illustrated by the following extracts taken from the introduction part of an MA thesis and a									√			

	Even without calculation, such a distinction in the density of CNPs and the length of post-modification between the two extracts can easily be perceived from the visual impact of the highlighted text (CNPs are highlighted in bold with post-modification underlined).												
59	Moreover, (b) features more instances of multiple post-modification than (a) (5 vs. 2). It is also striking to note that 4 of the 8 CNPs in the PRC extract occupy the syntactic slot of grammatical subject...	√											
60	...while only 1 does so in the MDC extract,									√			

	<p>bear in mind that an important aspect of syntactic maturity concerns the author's ability to vary sentence length by mixing longer and shorter sentences as recommended by many technical writing guides, with shorter sentences usually functioning to grab readers' attention,...</p>																
76	<p>...such as the topic sentence in the following extract from the PRC: There are two key issues that raise further discussion.</p>																√
77	<p>Therefore, the important message for EAP writing instruction is that despite the fact that noun</p>			√													

phrases with complex postmodification permeate in published academic writing, they definitely do not characterize every single sentence in the unfolding of the text, subject to the requirement of rhetorical function and stylistic diversity.													
Total : 77	5	-	1 0	1 1	-	6	-	1	-	15	11	1 1	7
Total Occurrence : 77	26					7				15	11	18	

Table 3.1.4 Table of Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section of Journal Article #4

Title of the Journal Article: Dialogic Competence of Primary School English Teachers in Online Peer Coaching: A Case Study in South Korea (Butler & Yeum, 2016)														
No.	Excerpt	Transitions					Frame Markers				Endhoporic Markers (EM)	Evidentials (EV)	Code Glosses	
		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	F1	F2	F3	F4			C1	C2
1.	We first summarize them and then explain each feature in detail in the following subsections.							√						

<p>2. First, when observing their peers' videotaped lessons, the teachers engaged in internal processes to make sense of their peers' practices within the context of their own knowledge, experience, and beliefs. We refer to this process as an intradialogue.</p>						√										
<p>3. Instead, the teachers verbalized their intradialogues while simultaneously modifying them.</p>			√													
<p>4. To clarify, we define intradialogues and interdialogues as follows:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Intradialogue: the process of interpreting.. • Interdialogue: the 						√										

	process of verbalizing..												
5.	<p>Lastly, as with the process of giving feedback, the process of receiving feedback included sets of negotiation and adaptation through interaction with others and one's self during which the teachers engaged in both intradialogues and interdialogues.</p>					√							
6.	<p>Figure 2 presents a way of conceptualizing the whole dialogic process in order to better understand the components of dialogic competence that underlie it, which we explain in more detail below.</p>								√				
7.	As								√				

<p>mentioned above, we purposely avoided giving the participants an observation checklist in order to ensure the genuine nature of the interactions;..</p>																
<p>8. ...in other words, we wanted to make sure that we would not influence the teachers' interaction.</p>														√		
<p>9. For example, Helen, who had expressed concern about her own vocabulary-teaching practice and abilities during her initial interview, repeatedly commented on other teachers' vocabulary teaching, whereas no other teachers commented on</p>															√	

	she needed to point out other teachers' problems to them as much as possible in order to help them.												
28	Her use of language was often very direct and judgmental; she often used the phrase "you should do XX," as can be seen in Excerpt 1 above.									√			
29	In Excerpt 7, Helen commented that, in Anthony's lesson: the teacher talked too much. It means that the class was teacher-centered, which was not done in a communicative way among students.									√			
30	Her observation of Anthony's third lesson was still full of									√			

	that Nora needed better strategies for getting her students' attention after tasks and offered her a strategy.												
38 .	Nora's response to the observer, however , did not leave any room for negotiation.			√									
39 .	Similarly , when she received several pieces of concrete advice from other teachers as to how she might offer more effective feedback to her students after tasks.			√									
40 .	Dialogic competence is a set of abilities that teachers need to possess in order to conduct peer coaching effectively (i.e., enhance reflection).											√	
41	We found								√				

.	that dialogic competence consists of a series of dialogic attitudes and actions (see Figure 3).																
42	In other words, development of one's dialogic competence occurred along a monological–dialogical continuum.															√	
43	As described above, Nora started with a selective and defensive attitude, but she became more reflective and dialogical as the program progressed.										√						
44	Admittedly, we cannot systematically “measure” the degree to which each teacher developed his or her dialogic competence; however, our data indicated that all the		√														

	between criticalness and politeness was highly context dependent.												
53 .	Thus how to become “critical friends”...			√									
54(Shortland, 2010) in dialogues in a virtual space seemed to pose a challenge to the study participants.										√		
55 .	Furthermore , it appeared to be an extra challenge for the participants to exchange critical comments in English, their second language.	√											
56 .	As mentioned , we made the decision to use English as the sole medium of communication for this project to adhere to the current Korean policy suggestion that all TPD									√			

	for English teachers should be conducted in English.													
57	Previous research has indicated that non-native speakers of English (NNSs) tend to use more direct expressions when giving advice as compared with native speakers (NSs) and that NNSs are often unaware of the potential impact on negative politeness when giving advice (Hinkel, 1994).											√		
58	For example, Helen's frequent use of "you should do XX" might not have been an accurate reflection of her real intentions.												√	
Total: 58		3	1	8	4	-	3	1	-	-	14	9	4	1 1
Total Occurrence : 58		16				4				14	9	15		

	learners and learners as teachers in the dialogical search for knowledge and development of critical thinking.												
18	The teacher's role has an ethical part, committed to aiding students in their journey from what Freire calls "ingenuous curiosity" to "epistemological curiosity" (p. 19), which is rigorous, precise, and critical.									√			
19	As such , both the critical examination of self and society, as well as the critical action upon the existing norms, need to be values worth persevering in the foundations of any teacher education				√								

	program which strives for critical teacher development .												
20	The narrow view of the dominant teacher training paradigm, though suitable both for novice teachers and beginning level EFL/ESL learning/teaching, does not pave the way for fulfilling the promises of the European view of teacher development , i.e., self-development and self-growth.												√
21	As a solution, the current study set out to delineate a tentative set of opportunities for critical language teacher education through juxtaposing							√					

<p>teachers, therefore, are no longer passive recipients of knowledge (desocialized principle) and actively make inquiries into problems posed about daily experience, society, and academic materials (research-oriented principle)</p>																
<p>26 Informed by Shor's (1993) teaching principles, the present researchers have offered three sets of opportunities.</p>												√				
<p>27 It is hoped that such exchanges of ideas ultimately pave the way for the circle members' reflectivity and criticality, as Freire (1998) argues: To live in</p>												√				

	circle members try to address the issues in their own classrooms.																
33 .	<p>This is because, as Freire (1998) further holds, the ideological nature of education entails "decision-making that is aware and conscientious" (p. 79) since in truth, critical awareness, or, to use Freirean terminology, conscientization "is one of the roads we have to follow if we are to deepen our awareness of our world, of facts, of events, of the demands of human consciousness to develop our capacity for epistemological curiosity" (p. 35) whose</p>												√				

	2005, p. 68)													
45	<p>Furthermore, as Richards and Farrell contend, it may be used as a record of incidents, problems, and insights that have occurred during lessons; it may also be an account of a class that the teacher would like to review later, or it may be a source of information to be shared with others.</p>	√												
46	<p>Furthermore, as Richards and Farrell contend, it may be used as a record of incidents, problems, and insights that have occurred during lessons; it may also be an account of a class that the teacher would like to review later, or it</p>										√			

	professional and critical development over due time.												
50	Set three employs two procedures for language teachers' diaries: 1. Language teachers' diaries of peers' practices... 2. Language teacher's diaries of self-appraisal...					√							
51	In fact, without such a record, the teacher often has no substantial recollection of what has happened during a lesson and cannot use the experience of successful, and sometimes unsuccessful , teaching as a source for further learning (Richards & Farrell, 2005) .										√		
52	The proposed sets of									√			

	opportunities for critical language teacher education can be schematically represented in Figure 1 as follows.													
53	All three components or sets of opportunities and their respective sub-components, along with due activities, do their best to actualize the ten teaching principles in practicing critical pedagogy mentioned by Shor (1993) .											√		
54	As such , for the proposed paths to bear fruit in a certain teacher education context, all components need to be given due weight, or the paths cease to exist.				√									
Total : 54		6	3	3	8	-	4	1	1	-	2	19	7	-
Total Occurrence : 54		20				6				2	19	7		

	questions.												
3.	This question enquired into the extent to which these teachers (who by virtue of being members of the TBLSIG could be assumed to be interested in the method) actually implement TBLT in classes (Table 2).									√			
4.	There may also be discrepancies between what teachers believe TBLT to be and how they are actually teaching it (see “Teacher Beliefs about TBLT” below).									√			
5.	This section of the questionnaire aimed to investigate teacher beliefs about TBLT in general as								√				

<p>well as about criticisms towards TBLT such as those outlined in the literature review above.</p>																
<p>6. A series of statements were created that reflected a) current thinking about the core features of tasks and TBLT (for example, those outlined in Ellis, (2003); and b) statements reflecting some of the common criticisms of TBLT.</p>					√											
<p>7. A series of statements were created that reflected a) current thinking about the core features of tasks and TBLT (for example, those outlined in Ellis,</p>																√

.	influence of the Willis (1996) framework on the thinking of these teachers is also evident, in that 85% of teachers agree that TBLT should include the three stages of that model.																	
12	Less agreement is reached, however , regarding the place of focus on form in TBLT.			√														
13	For example , despite agreement among scholars regarding the importance of...																√	
14	...focus on form in TBLT (Ellis, 2003; Long, 1985; Skehan, 1998; Willis, 1996), only 40% of respondents agreed with the												√					

<p>statement that TBLT approaches should always include a focus on form.</p>																
<p>15 . This may in part be due to the fact that communicative methods in Japan have often been juxtaposed with the previously popular grammar-translation method in Japan, (usually through a unchallenged, non-critical view of the former as “progressive” versus the latter as being “traditional” or “old”), and therefore the focus for many teachers may tend towards the more “communicative” side of the TBLT lesson.</p>				√												

<p>16</p> <p>Assessment in TBLT classrooms has become a popular area of research for language assessment specialists (Mislevy, Steinberg & Almond, 2002), often looking at how to adequately design tasks that properly evaluate performance.</p>													√			
<p>17</p> <p>In a country such as Japan, where much weight is placed on school and university entrance exams, this is a key issue to be addressed if TBLT is to be successfully implemented.</p>																√
<p>18</p> <p>It might be assumed here that successes with TBLT classes have informed such positive</p>			√													

<p>beliefs among teachers, but it is impossible to say without further investigation in the form of interviews or classroom observation.</p>																
<p>19 Some did however note that extra support might be necessary in this area (discussed below). With such a large and varied group of both native-English speaking and native-Japanese speaking experienced teachers from different teaching contexts strongly showing support for the usefulness and effectiveness of TBLT, these</p>			√													

	findings go some way to dispelling the argument regarding the unsuitability of TBLT for students in Japan.												
20	However, and importantly for this study, nearly 80% of teachers agreed that TBLT approaches imported from abroad need some adaptation, and it is to these potential adaptations that we now turn.			√									
21	All answers were added into an Excel document and coded in line with the guidelines for thematic analysis (Gilham, 2005).									√			
22	From this, four main themes were identified: a) issues related to					√							

	task design; b) the need to actively involve students; c) the need for teachers to make decisions about classes contingent on individual students; and d) problems related to the greater educational situation in Japan.												
23	A general overview of each of these themes is laid out in Table 5.								√				
24	Paralleling advice from Wicking (2009) , the importance of scaffolding tasks was also mentioned by many respondents.									√			
25	Finally , two teachers felt that TBLT should be used as part of a more general approach, implementin							√					

<p>31 .</p> <p>As opposed to the first three themes, which include elements that any teacher can practically implement, this last theme concerns a matter quite outside the hands of most language teachers.</p>				√												
<p>32 .</p> <p>While many teachers would agree that a focus on communicative goals, rather than discrete-item heavy tests, would be an ideal, a TBLT approach can arguably work well for exam preparation, so this should perhaps not be such an issue anyway, and there are many examples of teachers successfully</p>												√				

<p>provided another valuable layer of data through which to gain a better understanding of the teachers and their contexts, but this was outside of the scope of this study.</p>																
<p>36 . As an initial investigation, however, this paper does highlight areas worthy of future study, such as the possible divergence between TBLT principles as explained in the literature and those held by practicing teachers in Japan, or the need for more in-depth research into how teachers are practically implementing TBLT in classrooms in Japan and Asia.</p>			√													

Total : 36	1	1	5	6	-	2	2	1	-	5	8	1	4
Total Occurrence : 36	13					5				5	8	5	

Table 3.1.7 Table of Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section of Journal Article #7

Title of the Journal Article: Examining a Metacognitive Instruction Model (Kobayashi, 2016)														
No.	Excerpt	Transitions					Frame Markers				Endhoporic Markers (EM)	Evidentials (EV)	Code Glosses	
		T 1	T 2	T 3	T 4	T 5	F 1	F 2	F 3	F 4			C 1	C 2
Findings Section														
1.	Table 6 below shows a summary of descriptive statistics for the SRL in the OC questionnaire and the OC scores.											√		
2.	As can be seen in Table 6, after the intervention, metacognition, self-efficacy, interaction strategies, and OC all increased.											√		
3.	These results show that overall the students became more self-regulated											√		

	learners.													
4.	Table 7 below shows a summary of the evaluation of measurement model fit of the hypothesized model.									√				
5.	The results of the model evaluation show that although two out of seven structural model fit indexes (GFI and AGFI) did not meet the acceptable fit thresholds, the other fit indexes (CFI, RMSEA, TLI, IFI, and NFI) did, suggesting that the hypothesized model was meaningful and appropriate and that it had a good overall fit with the empirical data.									√				
6.	Figure 3 below presents the results of the hypothesized model before the intervention.									√				
7.	Figure 4 below shows the results of									√				

	the hypothesized model after the intervention.													
8.	Results indicated that after the intervention the path from strategy use to OC scores was significant, although the causal relationship was not strong.									√				
9.	Furthermore, these two causal relationships (a) between metacognition and strategy use (.59 → .66) and (b) between metacognition and self-efficacy (.45 → .78) were also strengthened.	√												
10.	Furthermore, these two causal relationships (a) between metacognition and strategy use (.59 → .66) and (b) between metacognition and self-efficacy (.45 → .78) were also strengthened.						√							
11	For the next						√							

	their learning.												
14	Moreover , it has been shown that the metacognition higher-order model,...	√											
15	... that is , the metacognitive instruction model, is valid, which means that there is a correlation between self-efficacy and strategic behavior.											√	
16	This supports a previous finding that self-efficacy influences strategic behavior (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001).											√	
17	Last , by analyzing the interview data,...					√							
18	... Kobayashi (2014) found that the participants' metacognitive knowledge was enhanced after the intervention.											√	
19	From students' opinions, she (2014) also found that:...											√	
20	(a) students are motivated to try to use strategies and					√							

.	(Dörnyei, 2001).													
Total : 25		4	-	4	1	-	3	-	-	-	4	5	2	2
Total Occurrence : 48		11					5				18	9	5	

Table 3.1.8 Table of Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section of Journal Article #8

Title of the Journal Article: Students' Attitudes Toward Undertaking Writing Activities on Extensive Reading (Ro & Park, 2016)														
N o.	Excerpt	Transitions					Frame Markers				Endhop oric Markers (EM)	Evidenti als (EV)	Code Gloss es	
		T 1	T 2	T 3	T 4	T 5	F 1	F 2	F 3	F 4			C 1	C 2
1.	Our initial focus here is to show the students' general attitudes toward ER and introduce the thematic topics which emerged from their reflections before we deliver the quantitative overview of the students' choices for their attitudes toward ER writing,								√					

	learning (Figure 3; positive 23).													
13	More specifically , three sub-topics regarding ER writing emerged from the 13 reflections: ER writing (a) in general (Figure 1; 7 positive and 2 negative); (b) writing topics (Figure 2; 2 positive and 2 negative); and (c) ER usefulness in language learning (Figure 3; positive 23).						√							
14	More specifically , three sub-topics regarding ER writing emerged from the 13 reflections: ER writing (a) in general (Figure 1; 7 positive and 2 negative); (b) writing									√				

	topics (Figure 2; 2 positive and 2 negative); and (c) ER usefulness in language learning (Figure 3; positive 23).												
15	More specifically, three sub-topics regarding ER writing emerged from the 13 reflections: ER writing (a) in general (Figure 1; 7 positive and 2 negative); (b) writing topics (Figure 2; 2 positive and 2 negative); and (c) ER usefulness in language learning (Figure 3; positive 23).									√			
16	More specifically, three sub-topics regarding ER writing emerged from the 13 reflections:									√			

	ER writing (a) in general (Figure 1; 7 positive and 2 negative); (b) writing topics (Figure 2; 2 positive and 2 negative); and (c) ER usefulness in language learning (Figure 3; positive 23).																
17	Specifically, the students appreciated the activity for its usefulness in writing practice and language learning (see the qualitative section below for more information).										√						
18	In other words, being in the moment and doing the activity for its usefulness was the apparent focus for															√	

	these students.													
19	However, a few students...			√										
20	...did express their negative feelings toward the activity and its writing topics via (negative) Affect (Figure 1)...									√				
21	...or Appreciation (Figure 2).									√				
22	Most of the students used positive Appreciation to praise it for its usefulness, as indicated in Figure 3.									√				
23	To illustrate, Excerpt 1 represents how the students used Appreciation in evaluating the activity.									√				
24	For example, ...													√
25	... Excerpt 2 below									√				

<p>29</p> <p>On the one hand, S7 implicitly evaluates the use of the activity by starting her reflection by describing what is required in doing ER (writing about story and speaking about events) and the need for her to engage in doing just that (so I have to concentrate on my reading), before explicitly and positively assessing the activity (... make my writing and speaking skill better).</p>			√													
<p>30</p> <p>Both S8 and S12, on the other hand, used Affect to express their positive</p>			√													

	feelings toward the activity in addition to their use of positive Appreciation: They both expressed the view that the activity was not a burden.												
31	Their formulations demonstrate that these students know the importance of affective dimensions when developing good writing habits (cf. Day & Bamford, 1998; Jacobs & Farrell, 2012).										√		
32	The next attitude category was Judgment, which was used by the students to implicitly evaluate the ER writing.								√				
33	The instances in									√			

	Excerpt 3 include Judgment ...												
34	... in terms of positive self- efficacy (Text F; I can do ER and 10- min writing constantly) ...												√
35	...and positive engagemen t (Text G; I started to write an English daily journal).												√
36	In fact, Texts F and G both show that the ER writing facilitated the students' motivation and willingness to write for language learning purposes and develop learner autonomy,...												√
37	... thus implicitly emphasizin g its importance				√								

	in the language learning classroom.												
38	In short, we were able to see these students' attitudinal positions in their discursive practice of praising when evaluating the ER writing activity.			√									
39	Next, we examine how these students constructed their negative attitudinal stances toward the activity with a focus on the explicit (strong) and the implicit (weak) complaints.							√					
40	The use of the attitude category in the discursive practice of complaining in this study was straightforward:								√				

	Students used explicit negative Affect when complaining about the activity in general (Excerpt 4) ...												
41	...and implicit negative Appreciation when suggesting that the teacher come up with other forms or topics for the activity, thus complaining...			√									
42	...in a more subtle manner (Excerpt 5) .								√				
43	Similarly , S14 also suggested a possible improvement in the writing topics (Text K)...		√										
44	...by taking an epistemic stance (cf. Heritage, 2012a; 2012b) as an									√			

activity, particularly for its usefulness in developing target language skills.														
Total: 46	1	1	6	4	-	1	2	1	2	17	3	3	5	
Total Occurrence : 46	12					6				17	3	8		

Table 3.1.9 Table of Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section of Journal Article #9

Title of the Journal Article: Identifying Reading Strategies to Teach Literal, Reorganisation and Inferential Comprehension Questions to ESL Students (Javed, Eng, Mohamed, & Ismail, 2016)														
No.	Excerption	Transitions					Frame Markers				Endhoporic Markers (EM)	Evidentials (EV)	Code Glosses	
		T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	F1	F2	F3	F4			C1	C2
1.	The results of the current study revealed to what extent the ESL teachers used reading strategies to teach literal, reorganisat ion and inferential comprehension questions.													
2.	Table 2 illustrates										√			

	the results of the respondents regarding using reading strategies to teach literal comprehension questions in pursuance of research question 1.												
3.	The data presented in Table 2 indicate that skimming the text to find out the main ideas or concepts was the most widely used reading strategy.									√			
4.	Some other reading strategies such as scanning the text for a specific piece of information and distinguishing between important and unimportant supporting details									√			

	and skimming pages to find supporting details and main ideas, looking for important words, and previewing the text to enhance ESL students' literal comprehension capabilities .												
15	Moreover, the results of the study...	√											
16	...are in line with Prado and Plourde (2011) who declared that there was a significant increase in the ESL students' reading comprehension after ESL teachers employed various reading strategies.										√		
17	The findings show that some of the reading									√			

<p>strategies such as reading the questions first before reading the passage, reading the signpost questions, and locating answers of the signpost questions through explicit information from the text for teaching literal comprehension questions were not used optimally by the ESL teachers for teaching literal comprehension questions.</p>																
<p>18 . These findings are not consistent with Nuttall (2005), Weyers and McMillan (2011), Merkuri and Boboli (2012),</p>												√				

	<p>Saraswathi (2004), and Kirton (2012) who found in their studies that such types of reading strategies support ESL teachers in their teaching of literal comprehension questions.</p>												
19	<p>The second objective of the study was to identify reading strategies used by ESL teachers for teaching reorganisation comprehension questions.</p>							√					
20	<p>This section shows to what extent the ESL teachers used reading strategies to teach reorganisation comprehension</p>								√				

<p>(2014) revealed in their studies that two reading strategies, namely skimming and scanning, helped ESL teachers to enhance ESL students' reading comprehension abilities.</p>																
<p>30 . Based on the findings of the study, more than 46 % of the respondents assumed that summarising the text to identify supporting details never helped them (item 16) and 40 % of the ESL teachers were of the view that consolidating the information from more than a single source also</p>										√						

	did not support them to teach reorganisation comprehension questions (item 28).												
31	Likewise, a small number of the respondents, ranging between 1% and 7%,...		√										
32	...stated that they never used reading strategies (see items 12-14, 17-21 and 23-27).								√				
33	Finally, ...					√							
34	...it can be concluded, based on the average response (3.14), that most of the reading strategies were sometimes used by the ESL teachers rather than frequently or always.				√								
35	This finding is inconsistent									√			

<p>t with Nuttall (2005), Othman and Jaidi (2012), and Chik (2011) who concluded in their studies that different reading strategies, particularly reading the signpost questions, skimming the text to find out the cause and effect relation, and consolidating the information from more than a single source should be employed as these reading strategies are beneficial not only for ESL teachers, but also for ESL students to enhance their reading abilities.</p>																		
36	Research							√										

<p>question three was formulated to identify reading strategies used by the ESL teachers for teaching inferential comprehension questions such as making inferences and drawing conclusions.</p>																
<p>37. This section indicates to what extent the ESL teachers use reading strategies to teach inferential comprehension questions.</p>										√						
<p>38. The results are presented in Table 4.</p>										√						
<p>39. Table 4 shows that 52.4 % of the ESL teachers frequently asked the students to make</p>										√						

	<p>inferences about the text (item 45) since it are an effective reading strategy. 48.8 % respondent s believed in frequently relating the text to personal experience s (item 41), which they felt was more helpful as compared to other reading strategies.</p>												
40	<p>In addition, only 2.4 % of the ESL teachers tested the students' previous knowledge about the current topic (item 31).</p>	√											
41	<p>Table 4 also indicates that there were some reading strategies, which the ESL teachers rarely or</p>								√				

<p>sometimes used rather than frequently. 40.5 % of the ESL teachers rarely tested their students' previous knowledge about the current topic (item 31) and made assumptions (item 38).</p>																
<p>42 . Moreover, 9.5 % of the respondents sometimes made assumptions (item 38), whereas 34.5 % of the respondents asked their students to draw conclusions from the text (item 46). 35.7 % of the ESL teachers sometimes utilised their prior knowledge to infer details from the key</p>	√															

	concepts (item 36).												
43	The data presented in Table 4 also indicate that asking the students to make inferences about the text was the most widely used reading strategy...									√			
44	...by the ESL teachers for teaching inferential comprehension questions (see item 45).									√			
45	The findings reveal that the ESL teachers frequently used various reading strategies for teaching inferential comprehension questions.									√			
46	The results show that making assumption									√			

<p>ignored a number of the reading strategies, namely; testing the students' previous knowledge about the current topic and reading the questions first before reading the passage for answering inferential comprehension questions.</p>																
<p>52 . This finding is inconsistent with Darling-Hammond, Amrein-Beardsley, Haertel, and Rothstein (2012), Liu, Chen, and Chang (2010) and Nuttall (2005) who revealed that ESL teachers found such types of reading strategies useful to answer inferential comprehension</p>												√				

	sion questions.												
55	Based on the data presented in Tables 2, 3 and 4,...									√			
56	... it can be concluded that the ESL teachers indeed used reading comprehension strategies to enhance their students' literal, reorganisat ion and inferential comprehension.				√								
57	A comparison is made in Figure 1 based on the mean scores of the reading strategies used by the ESL teachers for teaching literal, reorganisat ion and inferential comprehension questions.									√			
58	Figure 1									√			

<p>. indicates that the mean scores for teaching literal, reorganisation and inferential comprehension were 3.61, 3.14, and 2.98, respectively.</p>														
<p>59 . These scores reveal that the ESL teachers used more reading comprehension strategies to teach how to answer literal comprehension questions as compared to reorganisation and inferential comprehension questions.</p>														
<p>Total: 59</p>	7	2	3	2	-	1	1	3	-	24	12	-	4	
<p>Total Occurrence : 59</p>	14					5				24	12	4		

Table 3.1.10 Table of Interactive Metadiscourse in Findings Section and Discussion Section of Journal Article #10

<p>the significant difference in duration ratios between the repeated and unrepeated conditions, and the absence of a significant difference in duration values between Test 1 (ten minutes) and Test 2 (one week) indicate that the practice effect obtained ten minutes after the repetition-based study phase remained unchanged for one week.</p>																
<p>5. That is, the repetitive effect lasted one week in this particular phonological aspect.</p>														√		
<p>6. Table 4 and Figure 2 show descriptive statistics for the duration ratio of final schwa in Tests 1 and 2 (ten minutes and one week</p>										√						

	after the study phase, respectively).												
7.	Therefore, there was an improvement in pronunciation immediately after practice.	√											
8.	These results show that, again, word familiarity did not seem to influence the repetition effect on the improvement of final schwa.								√				
9.	That is, the repetition effect did not last one week for the final schwa.											√	
10.	The results of this study indicate that no difference in the repetition effect was found between the five and ten repetition conditions either in the initial or final schwa sound; the participants required at least five spoken repetitions of								√				

.	be assumed that the initial schwa (weak–strong stress) is more weakly represented in participants’ mental representations.																
17.	According to formal theories of learning (e.g., Rescorla & Wagner, 1972), increased learning practice has a significant impact on less familiar linguistic material.																√
18.	Several earlier studies on structural priming have supported this theory (e.g., Hartsuiker & Westenberg, 2000; Luka & Barsalou, 2005; Luka & Choi, 2012; Ritter, Keller, & Moore, 2011; Scheepers, 2003).																√

	the native norm.												
37	Thus, immediate repetition (five or ten times) with auditory words did not contribute to pronunciation improvement in terms of vowel quality for initial schwa.			√									
38	Table 6 displays descriptive statistics for the F1 values of final schwa for Test 1 (ten minutes) and Test 2 (one week later).								√				
39	Figure 4 illustrates the values in graph form.								√				
40	These findings reveal that no improvement in the F1 value of the final schwa occurred in Tests 1 and 2, indicating that immediate repetition (five or ten times) with auditory words did not								√				

	facilitate improvement in final schwa pronunciation.												
41	Table 7 displays descriptive statistics for the F2 values of initial schwa for Test 1 (ten minutes) and Test 2 (one week).									√			
42	Figure 5 illustrates the values in graph form.									√			
43	Additionally , the absence of a significant difference between the repeated and unrepeated conditions suggests that a repetition effect did not occur.	√											
44	Taken together , these findings indicate that the F2 value of the initial schwa did not improve through repetition.				√								
45	Table 8 shows descriptive statistics for the F2 values									√			

	have already stored in their lexicon.												
52	This study indicates that the mere repetition of auditory words is only minimally effective in improving schwa quality, suggesting that participants were unable to sufficiently encode the phonetic information available in the auditory input and to restructure the preexisting phonological representation.										√		
53	However,...			√									
54	...as argued by Flemming and Jonson (2007) , the final schwa is intrinsically more similar in quality to a full vowel than the initial schwa.											√	
55	Therefore , it can be assumed that even the				√								

	Japanese participants, whose language does not have a central vowel, were able to easily articulate it.													
56	Tomita et al. (2010) who investigated the pronunciation of schwa by Japanese learners with sufficient English ability has reported that one learner produced a target-like schwa in terms of F1 but not in terms of F2, while another participant exhibited the opposite pattern.											√		
	Total : 56	4	-	2	6	-	-	-	-	-	18	10	10	6
	Total Occurrence : 56	12					-					18	10	16

Table 3.2 Table of Interactive Metadiscourse Total Occurrences

N o.	Title of Journal Articles	Transitions					Frame Markers				Endho poric Marke rs (EM)	Eviden tials (EV)	Code Gloss es		To tal
		T 1	T 2	T 3	T 4	T 5	F 1	F 2	F 3	F 4			C 1	C 2	
1.	Korean Learners'Pr oduction of English	Findings Section													
		4	-	5	8	-	2	-	5	2	35	-	12	-	73
		Discussion Section													

	Sound Contrast: Focusing on Word-Final /ʃ/ and /ʃ i/ (Lim & Seo, 2016)	4	-	7	9	-	-	-	-	1	6	6	1 7	-	50
2.	The Influence of a Study Abroad Teacher Training Program on the Language Development of Korean Teachers of English (Choe, 2016)	9	-	1 0	1 1	-	-	3	1	-	13	18	-	2	67
3.	Noun Phrase Complexity in EFL Academic Writing: A Corpus-Based Study of Postgraduate Academic Writing (Liu & Li, 2016)	5	-	1 0	1 1	-	6	-	1	-	15	11	1 1	7	77
4.	Dialogic Competence of Primary School English Teachers in Online Peer Coaching: A Case Study in South Korea (Butler & Yeum, 2016)	3	1	8	4	-	3	1	-	-	14	9	4	1 1	58
5.	Enhancing Critical	6	3	3	8	-	4	1	1	-	2	19	7	-	54

	Language Teacher Development Through Creating Reflective Opportunities (Ahmadian & Maftoon, 2016)														
6.	Teachers' Beliefs About Task-Based Language Teaching in Japan (Harris, 2016)	1	1	5	6	-	2	2	1	-	5	8	1	4	36
7.	Examining a Metacognitive Instruction Model (Kobayashi, 2016)	Findings Section													
		2	-	-	-	-	1	1	-	-	14	4	1	-	23
		Discussion Section													
		4	-	4	1	-	3	-	-	-	4	5	2	2	25
8.	Students' Attitudes Toward Undertaking Writing Activities on Extensive Reading (Ro & Park, 2016)	1	1	6	4	-	1	2	1	2	17	3	3	5	46
9.	Identifying Reading Strategies to Teach Literal, Reorganization and Inferential Comprehension Questions to ESL Students (Javed, Eng,	7	2	3	2	-	1	1	3	-	24	12	-	4	59

	Mohamed, & Ismail, 2016)														
10.	Using Auditory Word Repetition to Improve L2 Pronunciation of English Schwa by Japanese Learners: From the Perspective of Phonological Processing (Sugiura, 2016)	4	-	2	6	-	-	-	-	-	18	10	10	6	56
	Total occurrence per function	50	8	63	70	-	23	11	13	5	167	105	68	41	624
	Total occurrence per marker	191				52				167	105	109		624	
	Total occurrence	624													

Biodata Penulis

Nabilah Filzah Nur Wijaya lahir di Jakarta tanggal 26 Desember 1994. Anak dari Hadi Wijaya dan Edith Irene Sahanaja ini mulai menempuh pendidikan di Universitas Negeri Jakarta pada September 2012. Sebelumnya, penulis telah menempuh pendidikan di SMA Angkasa 2 Halim Perdana Kusuma, SMP Negeri 157 Jakarta Timur, dan MIN 15 Bintaro. Penulis menyelesaikan pendidikan S1 di jurusan Bahasa dan Sastra Inggris, Program Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris pada Januari 2017.



Penulis sekarang tinggal di Jl. Setia 2a no.60B, Pondok Gede dan mengisi waktunya bekerja sebagai barista dan menulis. Penulis dapat dihubungi melalui nomor telfon 081281009723 atau email 126205nabilahf@gmail.com.