
HETEROGLOSSIC ENGAGEMENT IN UNDERGRADUATE ESSAYS

by

SOTIRIA VOGLI

A thesis submitted to the University of Birmingham for the
degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of English Language and Linguistics
School of English, Drama and Creative Studies
College of Arts and Law
University of Birmingham

September 2024

UNIVERSITY OF
BIRMINGHAM

University of Birmingham Research Archive

e-theses repository

This unpublished thesis/dissertation is copyright of the author and/or third parties. The intellectual property rights of the author or third parties in respect of this work are as defined by The Copyright Designs and Patents Act 1988 or as modified by any successor legislation.

Any use made of information contained in this thesis/dissertation must be in accordance with that legislation and must be properly acknowledged. Further distribution or reproduction in any format is prohibited without the permission of the copyright holder.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES	VII
LIST OF TABLES	IX
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS	X
ABSTRACT	XI
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	XIII
1 INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 Academic writing and the undergraduate essay	1
1.2 The aim of the thesis	5
1.3 Research questions	5
1.4 Research design	6
1.5 The organisation of the thesis	7
2 DIALOGISM, SFL AND INTERPERSONAL MEANINGS	9
2.1 Introduction	9
2.2 Dialogism	9
2.3 SFL-Halliday	11
2.4 Genre	12
2.4.1 The essay genre	14
2.5 Disciplines	18
2.5.1 Classifications of disciplines	23
2.6 Interpersonal meanings in academic writing	25
2.7 Appraisal	26
2.8 Exploring the Engagement framework	28
2.9 Monoglossic Engagement	29
2.9.1 Heteroglossic Engagement	30
2.9.2 Expand-Contract	33
2.9.3 Contract: Disclaim	34
2.9.4 Deny	34
2.9.5 Counter	36
2.9.6 Contract: Proclaim	39

2.9.6.1	Concur.....	40
2.9.6.1.1	Rhetorical questions.....	42
2.9.6.2	Pronounce.....	43
2.9.6.3	Endorse.....	45
2.9.7	Expand: Attribute.....	46
2.9.7.1	Acknowledge.....	46
2.9.7.2	Distance.....	48
2.9.8	Expand: Entertain.....	49
2.10	Summary of the chapter.....	52
3	LITERATURE REVIEW	53
3.1	Introduction.....	53
3.2	Lexicogrammatical approaches to evaluation.....	53
3.2.1	Stance.....	54
3.2.2	Metadiscourse.....	58
3.2.3	Evaluation.....	63
3.3	Links to Appraisal.....	68
3.4	Research on Appraisal.....	71
3.5	Studies on Engagement.....	75
3.5.1	Studies on high and low-graded essays.....	76
3.5.2	Studies on writers' first language.....	80
3.5.3	Studies on level and disciplines.....	80
3.6	Establishing the gap.....	82
4	METHODOLOGY	86
4.1	Introduction.....	86
4.2	Methodological approaches in studying evaluative language.....	87
4.3	Challenges in the annotation process.....	91
4.4	The corpus.....	98
4.5	Assessing reliability, validity, and replicability.....	105
4.5.1	Intercoder agreement.....	107
4.6	The Annotation manual.....	108
4.7	The 'Gold standard' sample.....	109

4.7.1	The interrater agreement test.....	113
4.8	The ‘Gold Standard Sample’ annotation.....	114
4.8.1	The UAM CorpusTool.....	115
4.9	The corpus study.....	119
4.10	Summary of the chapter.....	120
5	ENGAGEMENT IN UNDERGRADUATE ESSAYS	121
5.1	Introduction	121
5.2	Heteroglossic Engagement	122
5.2.1	Deny	126
5.2.1.1	Rhetorical pairs of Deny.....	128
5.2.1.2	Deny in individual papers	132
5.2.2	Counter	134
5.2.2.1	Types and distribution of Counter features.....	135
5.2.2.1.1	Position of contrastive markers.....	137
5.2.2.1.2	Contrastive pairs.....	141
5.2.2.2	Counter in individual essays	146
5.2.3	Proclaim.....	147
5.2.3.1	Concur.....	150
5.2.3.1.1	Concur in individual essays.....	155
5.2.3.2	Pronounce.....	157
5.2.3.2.1	Pronounce in individual essays.....	161
5.2.3.3	Endorse	164
5.2.3.3.1	Endorse in individual essays	169
5.2.4	Entertain	170
5.2.4.1	Entertain in individual papers.....	176
5.2.5	Attribute	177
5.2.5.1	Attribute features frequencies	178
5.2.5.2	Attribute in individual papers	181
5.2.5.3	Citations.....	183
5.3	Summary of the chapter.....	187
6	REFINEMENT OF THE ENGAGEMENT FRAMEWORK.....	190

6.1	Introduction	190
6.2	The need for refining the framework	190
6.3	Functions of Deny	191
6.4	Functions of Counter	201
6.5	Functions of Concur	207
6.6	Functions of Attribute	209
6.7	Functions of Entertain	213
6.7.1	Negotiation.....	214
6.7.2	Impartiality.....	215
6.7.3	Verification	216
6.7.4	Responsibility.....	216
6.7.5	Postulation (<i>If</i> -clauses)	217
6.7.6	Questions (expository questions).....	222
6.8	The New Engagement framework.....	230
6.9	Summary of the chapter.....	231
7	ENGAGEMENT ACROSS GENRE, LEVEL AND DISCIPLINE	232
7.1	Introduction	232
7.2	Essay subgenres in AH123	233
7.3	Genre and level.....	237
7.4	Genre and discipline	239
7.5	Engagement across genres	246
7.6	Engagement across levels	255
7.6.1	Analysis of level-specific variations.....	262
7.6.1.1	Deny.....	262
7.6.1.2	Counter	263
7.6.1.3	Attribute.....	264
7.6.1.4	Entertain	267
7.6.2	Proclaim.....	274
7.7	Engagement across disciplines.....	279
7.8	Summary of the chapter.....	302
8	THE CORPUS STUDY	304
8.1	Introduction	304

8.2	The Scope of the study	304
8.3	The BAWE-123 subcorpus.....	306
8.4	Stage 1-Findings in BAWE-AH123.....	306
8.5	Stage 2-Focus on level and discipline.....	312
8.5.1	Level	312
8.5.2	Disciplines.....	314
8.6	Summary of the chapter.....	318
9	DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	319
9.1	Introduction	319
9.2	Major findings.....	319
9.3	Challenges and limitations	324
9.4	Implications and applications	326
9.5	Contributions and future research.....	332
	REFERENCES	335
	APPENDICES	351
	APPENDIX A-THE AH123 CORPUS METADATA	352
	APPENDIX B- THE 'GOLD' STANDARD SAMPLE	355
	APPENDIX C-ANNOTATION MANUAL	361
	APPENDIX D- AH123 ANNOTATION FINDINGS	369
	APPENDIX E- AH123 FINDINGS ACROSS LEVELS AND DISCIPLINES ..	398
	APPENDIX F-THE CORPUS STUDY.....	402

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1 Disciplines: the two domains

Figure 2.2 The disciplinary community system

Figure 2.3 The Appraisal framework

Figure 2.4 The Engagement framework

Figure 4.1 The research process step-by-step

Figure 4.2 Text genres in AH in the BAWE corpus

Figure 4.3 Selection of BAWE-AH123 corpus

Figure 4.4 Multiple layers in UAM Corpus Tool

Figure 4.5 Engagement, discipline and level schemes

Figure 4.6 The AH123 corpus in the UAM Corpus Tool

Figure 4.7 Annotation window

Figure 5.1 Contract vs Expand frequencies in AH123

Figure 5.2 The seven subsystems of Engagement in AH123

Figure 5.3 Occurrences of Deny (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Figure 5.4 The most frequent Counter features in AH123

Figure 5.5 Occurrences of Counter (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Figure 5.6 The Proclaim subsystem in AH123

Figure 5.7 The most common Concur features in AH123

Figure 5.8 Occurrences of Concur (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Figure 5.9 The most frequent Pronounce features in AH123

Figure 5.10 Occurrences of Pronounce (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Figure 5.11 The most frequent Endorse features in AH123

Figure 5.12 Occurrences of Endorse (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Figure 5.13 The most common lexicogrammar categories of Entertain in AH123

Figure 5.14 Occurrences of Entertain (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Figure 5.15 The most common Attribute features in AH123

Figure 5.16 Occurrences of Attribute (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Figure 5.17 Integral and non-integral citations per essay in AH123

Figure 5.18 Occurrences of citations (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Figure 6.1 Functions of Deny

Figure 6.2 Functions of Counter

Figure 6.3 Functions of Concur

Figure 6.4 Functions of Attribute

Figure 6.5 Functions of Endorse

Figure 6.6 Functions of Entertain

Figure 6.7 Proposed expanded Entertain framework

Figure 6.8 Proposed expanded framework for heteroglossic Engagement

Figure 7.1 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Engagement per essay in AH123

Figure 7.2 Distribution of essay genres across levels in AH123

Figure 7.3 Distribution of essay genres across disciplines in AH123

- Figure 7.4** Engagement across essay genres (frequency ptw) in AH123
Figure 7.5 Engagement across levels (frequency ptw) in AH123
Figure 7.6 Contract vs Expand (frequency ptw) across levels and genres
Figure 7.7 Frequencies (ptw) of Proclaim across levels
Figure 7.8 Deny functions across levels
Figure 7.9 Counter functions across levels
Figure 7.10 Attribute functions across levels
Figure 7.11 Examples of Attribution in Year 1 and Year 3
Figure 7.12 Entertain functions across levels
Figure 7.13 Question functions across levels
Figure 7.14 Postulation functions across levels
Figure 7.15 Proclaim subsystems across levels
Figure 7.16 Concur functions across levels
Figure 7.17 Frequencies (ptw) of Engagement in the disciplines
Figure 7.18 Deny functions in the disciplines
Figure 7.19 Counter functions in the disciplines
Figure 7.20 Concur functions in the disciplines
Figure 7.21 Entertain functions in the disciplines
Figure 7.22 Postulation functions in the disciplines
Figure 7.23 Question functions in the disciplines
- Figure 8.1** Frequencies of the four main systems in the two studies
Figure 8.2 Frequencies of the main subsystems of Engagement in the two studies
Figure 8.3 Sample onconcordance lines of Attribute markers in BAWE-AH123
Figure 8.4 Frequencies of Engagement resources in the two studies
Figure 8.5 Frequencies of Engagement in the two studies across level
Figure 8.6 Frequencies of Engagement in the two studies across disciplines

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 History genres (Coffin, 2004:10)

Table 2.2 Essay genre families and genres in the literature

Table 2.3 Proclaim options

Table 4.1 Selecting the subcorpora

Table 4.2 The distribution of disciplines and levels in words in AH123

Table 4.3 The disciplines and their corresponding word counts across the three levels of study in AH123

Table 4.4 Interrater agreement test

Table 5.1 Frequencies of Engagement features in AH123

Table 5.2 Raw and normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Deny in AH123

Table 5.3 Raw frequencies of sentence initial Counter resources in AH123

Table 5.4 Contrastive pairs in AH123

Table 5.5 Conceding Concurrence pairs in AH123

Table 5.6 Lexicogrammatical categories of Entertain

Table 5.7 Frequencies of the Attribute subsystems

Table 6.1 Uses of Negation in AH123

Table 6.2 Functions of Counter in AH123

Table 7.1 Essay genres in AH123

Table 7.2 Raw and normalised frequencies of Engagement features across genres

Table 7.3 Engagement across essay subgenres - Key findings

Table 7.4 The ten most common Attribute markers across levels

Table 7.5 The ten most common Entertain markers across levels

Table 7.6 The most frequent Proclaim markers across levels

Table 7.7 Engagement across levels - Key findings

Table 7.8 The most frequent markers of Proclaim across disciplines

Table 7.9 The most frequent Attribute markers across disciplines

Table 7.10 Raw frequencies of self-mention across disciplines and levels

Table 7.11 Interpersonal locutions of / in the disciplines

Table 7.12 Engagement across disciplines -Key findings

Table 8.1 Search items in BAWE-AH123

Table 9.1 Closing down the dialogic space to alternative views

Table 9.2 Opening up the dialogic space to alternative views

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AH Arts and Humanities Disciplinary Group

AN1 First Annotator

AN2 Second Annotator

BASE British Academic Spoken English corpus

BAWE British Academic Written English corpus

CQL Corpus Query Language

EAP English for Academic Purposes

EFL English as a Foreign Language

ESL English as a Second Language

ESP English for Specific Purposes

ESRC Economic and Social Research Council

IRR Inter-Rater Reliability

L1 First Language

L2 Second or Additional Language

LOCNESS Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays

MICASE Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English

MICUSP Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers

RA Research Article

RF Relative Frequency (per 1000 words)

SFL Systemic Functional Linguistics

SWECCL Spoken and Written Corpus of Chinese Learners

PTW Per 1000 words

ABSTRACT

The main focus of this thesis is to explore how university student writers engage with external voices while simultaneously projecting an authorial voice. This is achieved through a thorough investigation of dialogic positioning using the Engagement framework within Appraisal theory (Martin and White, 2005). Previous research adopting this framework has predominantly focused on the Research Article and the comparison of high- and low-scoring essays of non-native English writers, within one or two disciplines, leaving a gap in understanding how these resources are deployed across different academic levels and disciplines. The current study addresses this gap by identifying patterns and variations in the use of Engagement resources in essays written by English L1 writers across the three undergraduate levels in the Arts and Humanities (AH), drawing from the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus.

The methodology combines discourse analysis and corpus linguistics, employing both form-to-function and function-to-form approaches. A sample of 42 essays was initially annotated using UAM Corpus tool to identify Engagement features across the systems and subsystems of the framework. The initial analysis led to the refinement of the framework, which was then systematically applied to assess variations across genre, academic level, and discipline within the corpus. Finally, a corpus study was carried out to validate and triangulate these findings against the broader AH dataset within the BAWE corpus.

The initial data analysis reveals that undergraduate writers employ a wide range of heteroglossic Engagement resources in their essays, but they tend to dialogically

contract or close down the dialogic space rather than expand it to include external voices and alternative propositions. The application of the refined framework to explore genre, level and discipline variations in the corpus revealed variations across the different essay subgenres, higher use of resources in the final year dataset and notable disciplinary differences. The corpus study confirmed consistent patterns in the use of Engagement features and provided robust validation for the annotation findings across a larger set of essays.

This study has significant implications for the theorisation and application of Engagement, as it contributes to the growing body of research on student writing from a Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) perspective. From a methodological perspective, it further tests the interpersonal system of Engagement and provides suggestions for refinements to its application in academic discourse. The findings also offer practical applications for English for Academic Purposes (EAP) programmes and provide a foundation for future research in several areas.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This has been a solitary journey, but it would not have reached its end destination without the encouragement and support of many people. First and foremost I want to express my deepest gratitude to my two supervisors at the University of Birmingham, Dr Paul Thompson and Dr Matteo Fuoli. An enormous thank you is due to both of you for your continuous guidance, support, encouragement, but mostly patience over this long journey. Thank you for always being there when I needed you! Your timely and insightful feedback and guidance have been an inspiration and have kept me going at times of doubt.

I would like to thank my fellow PhD candidates and colleagues for our inspiring discussions, the much-needed 'counselling sessions' and therapeutic laughter during our encounters. Special thanks are due to Jared for agreeing to assist me with the manual annotations. Lastly, I would also like to express my appreciation to my family for their support throughout this journey and for their infinite tolerance and understanding during times I could not be there for them.

CHAPTER 1

1 INTRODUCTION

1.1 ACADEMIC WRITING AND THE UNDERGRADUATE ESSAY

One of the challenges students encounter when transitioning to university is adapting to new writing approaches. Unlike school writing, which often encourages the writer's personal opinion (Andrews, 1995; Wingate, 2012), university writing generally aims "to demonstrate the acquisition of required skills and accepted knowledge" (Gardner & Nesi, 2013:29), and it is characterised by balancing the authoritative voice with the inclusion of multiple perspectives (Coffin & Hewings, 2004; Miller, Mitchell, & Pessoa, 2014). These unfamiliar writing conventions and expectations are tailored to the specific demands of their respective disciplines.

Although academic writing comes in different forms, one of the most common types of writing (Wu, 2006:330) and the most common form of assessment for students in the disciplines of Arts and Humanities and Social Sciences is the academic essay (Coffin et al., 2005; Wingate, 2012; Lee & Deakin, 2016). An essay typically requires the development of concrete arguments, the analysis and synthesis of various sources, and the expression of a thoughtful opinion reached after consideration of many conflicting viewpoints (Andrews, 1995). As Groom (2000:19) argues "a successful argumentative text is one which always positions the writer as its dominant voice: other voices must be allowed to speak, but they must ultimately be subordinated by, and

thus subordinate to, the textual subjectivity of the writer herself or himself.” Researchers in academic writing and EAP generally agree that integrating and evaluating external voices, as well as projecting an authorial voice in essays, are common challenges students face when entering university (Coffin et al., 2005; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Hirvela, 2013; Pessoa et al., 2014). Similarly, in my experience as an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) tutor in both international and UK settings, some of the common questions often raised by my students include: “*How do I incorporate other authors' views in my essay? How can I express agreement or disagreement with an author I cite? How can I project my voice in my essay?*”

These challenges are deeply connected to the concepts of engagement, ‘voice,’ and stance in academic writing. ‘Voice’ in writing is an elusive concept and one that has been defined in various ways. The literature reveals that definitions of voice in academic writing started with a focus on the individual writer (Elbow, 1994), moved to seeing voice as socially constructed (e.g., Ivanič, & Camps, 2001), went on to acknowledge the role of the reader and the discourse communities (e.g., Hyland, 2005, 2012), and culminated with the view that voice is ‘dialogic’ (e.g., Sperling & Appleman, 2011). This concept is central to Bakhtin’s (1981) theory of dialogism, which highlights the interaction between different voices within discourse and distinguishes between monoglossia (single voice), and heteroglossia (multiple voices).

Building on Bakhtin’s ideas of dialogism and heteroglossia, the appraisal framework (Martin & White, 2005) offers a comprehensive approach to understanding how language expresses evaluation and engagement in discourse. The framework is

deeply intertwined with the interpersonal metafunction proposed by Michael Halliday within Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), which emphasises how language negotiates social meanings and relationships. It offers a detailed analysis of linguistic resources through three main subsystems: Attitude, Engagement, and Graduation.

The Engagement system is particularly relevant in the current context, as it examines how writers position themselves and others in relation to content and audience. The approach explores how writers and speakers acknowledge and engage with alternative positions, enhancing the depth of their discourse (Martin & White, 2005: 37). This involves interacting with alternative viewpoints via dialogic contraction, which restricts other voices, or dialogic expansion, which allows for multiple perspectives. Influenced by Bakhtin, Martin and White also differentiate between monoglossic and heteroglossic positions within a dialogic context. Borrowing from the terminology of Bakhtin and Martin and White, I use the terms 'authorial voice, and 'dialogic voice' in this thesis to refer to the writer's overt subjective position and personal view within the text. By 'other/alternative/external voices,' I refer to the propositions, arguments, or viewpoints from sources or other authors that the writer engages with, by citing, acknowledging, aligning with or challenging within the essay.

The theoretical insights briefly introduced above provide the foundation for understanding how to navigate the complexities of university writing. To help students with the challenges noted previously, I often create targeted activities that clearly illustrate the distinction between monoglossic and heteroglossic writing styles. For illustration purposes, I present below two-made up paragraphs of limited length on the topic of reading comprehension (1.1& 1.2).

1.1 Context is a necessary component of understanding, but it does not substitute decoding skills. Eye movements do not need to decode every word as they can use context to anticipate them. This implies that readers can skip over words. Research suggests that this is not the case. In order for the eyes to gain information they must be at rest and fixated on specific areas of the text.

1.2 **According to** *Goodman (1967)*, readers use context to predict the words they are reading. **His theory suggests** that reading is a 'guessing game' where decoding each word is not always necessary. This, **in fact**, means that readers can anticipate and even skip over some words. **However, unlike** Goodman's **suggestion**, while context is essential for comprehension, it cannot fully substitute for decoding skills. **Indeed, research** on eye-movements in reading (*Perfetti 1999*) **indicates** that **this is not the case**. **Perfetti argues** that for the eyes to effectively gain information, they must be at rest and fixate on specific areas of the text.

Based on Bakhtin's conceptualisation of discourse, paragraph 1.1 is highly monoglossic. The writer presents a number of claims as their own, as they are undeniable facts and undebatable truths. In contrast, version 1.2 is highly heteroglossic (albeit slightly exaggerated for illustrative purposes). Here, the writer engages with alternative voices (e.g., Goodman, Perfetti) (in italics), and uses reporting verbs such as 'argues' and 'suggests' to acknowledge them, thus opening up the dialogic space for alternative views. Authorial voice is projected with such phrases as 'in fact' and 'indeed' or contrastive markers like 'however' (highlighted in bold), all of which serve to close down the dialogic space and assert the author's voice, thereby contracting the space for alternative points of view. All the resources employed in the second paragraph align with the Engagement framework and demonstrate how the writer integrates various perspectives while maintaining their authoritative voice in the text.

Activities like the above help students understand what tutors mean by engaging discourse and authorial voice in academic writing. They are also helpful in guiding students to realise the significance of integrating multiple perspectives and articulating their own viewpoints effectively.

1.2 THE AIM OF THE THESIS

Building on the insights from Bakhtin's theories of dialogism and the Engagement framework, the primary aim of this study is to investigate how English L1 undergraduate students engage with and position themselves in relation to other voices in the literature and the readers in their academic essays in the Arts and Humanities disciplines in British universities. I use the British Academic Written English (hereafter BAWE) (Heuboeck, Holmes, & Nesi, 2010) corpus as my source of data, to empirically study authentic student writing and investigate variations in linguistic formulations in novice and more advanced writers across different disciplines. I have chosen to focus on the Arts and Humanities disciplinary group because it has the greatest representation of essays among the disciplines in the chosen corpus (Heuboeck, Holmes, & Nesi, 2010; Nesi & Gardner, 2012).

1.3 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The study addresses the following research questions:

1. How do undergraduate essay writers enter into a dialogue with the other voices in the text?

- a. What Engagement resources are most frequently employed by English L1 student writers in the undergraduate essay in the Arts and Humanities disciplinary group in the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus?
 - b. What rhetorical functions does each Engagement resource perform within the sentence or clause?
 - c. Which other Engagement resources does each locution coexist with in the text?
2. How do the Engagement resources employed in the essays vary across the three levels of undergraduate study?
 3. How do the Engagement resources employed in the essays vary across the different Arts and Humanities disciplines?

1.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

To address these questions, the study employs both a form-to-function and a function-to-form approach. It begins by identifying Engagement forms through manual annotation of a small sample of undergraduate essays in the Arts and Humanities. The study then proceeds to analyse how these linguistic features function rhetorically within the text, focusing on their communicative purposes or rhetorical functions, that is, whether they are used to Contract or Expand the dialogic space, whether they are employed to Entertain the reader or to Concur with the proposed view, and so on. Subsequently, the Engagement features identified in the annotation study are applied

to analyse a larger corpus of essays within the BAWE corpus. This allows for the observation of differences across undergraduate levels and disciplines, providing broader insights into engagement practices in academic writing. This corpus study helps contextualise the findings within the larger body of academic writing in the Arts and Humanities and provides insights into disciplinary conventions and practices within academic writing. Triangulating findings from both approaches verifies the observations, strengthens the credibility of the interpretations, and enhances the reliability and robustness of the study's conclusions.

Drawing on insights from previous research applying the Engagement framework, my investigation seeks to contribute to the existing literature by expanding our understanding of how Engagement resources operate across various disciplines and levels among undergraduate students. The thesis also makes a significant theoretical contribution by refining and modifying the Engagement framework, aiming at enhancing its effectiveness and applicability in academic discourse.

1.5 THE ORGANISATION OF THE THESIS

The thesis is organised as follows. Chapter 2 provides an overview of the theoretical background of the thesis. The areas of dialogism, SFL, genre, and disciplinary writing and their importance and complementarity in academic writing are discussed, leading to the introduction and exploration of the Engagement framework used to analyse the texts. Chapter 3 starts with a review of the literature on interpersonal meanings in

academic writing across the various influential strands and then focuses on studies that have applied the Engagement framework, establishing the gaps in the literature this thesis sets out to fill. Chapter 4 presents the methodology and research design of the thesis, describes the annotation process, and discusses the challenges and limitations. Chapter 5 is the first of the three findings chapters and focuses on the presentation and analysis of the annotation findings of the entire AH123 corpus. This analysis leads to the modification of the Engagement framework, which is introduced and explained in chapter 6. Applying the refined version of the framework, Chapter 7 presents and analyses level and disciplinary variations in the corpus. Chapter 8 extends the analysis to investigate and compare those findings to a larger sample of essays in the BAWE-AH123 corpus across disciplines and levels of study. Finally, chapter 9 summarises, discusses, and concludes the thesis. The relevance, contribution, implications, and limitations of the study are also discussed in this section.

2 DIALOGISM, SFL AND INTERPERSONAL MEANINGS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I discuss the conceptual theories underpinning the study. I will start by discussing dialogism and SFL, which lead to the Engagement subsystem from the appraisal theory. I will also consider aspects of genre and disciplinary writing pertinent to this thesis. A literature review of relevant and influential studies follows the theoretical framework.

2.2 DIALOGISM

At the heart of academic writing lies an interplay of voices, a combination of our own voice as well as other voices. These other voices could still be our own, our experiences, our knowledge, but not only. They are often external, actual views and voices of others, preferably expert ones, which we have read, and which we have made our own, we have adopted or paraphrased, quoted, or even copied into our own writing. This multiplicity of voices is explained well by Bakhtin's (1981) concepts of dialogism and polyphony, key terms in his thought and writing. Bakhtin argued that language is not static but interactive, as it constantly evolves through dialogue and interaction between speakers. This idea challenges traditional structuralist and formalist approaches to language and literature, which often treat texts as closed systems.

For Bakhtin, all discourse has an internal "dialogic quality" (Bakhtin, 1981:269), and all utterances are 'dialogic' as they occur against a "background of other concrete utterances on the same theme, a background made up of contradictory opinions, points of view, and value judgments" (Bakhtin 1981: 281). Dialogism is also referred to as 'double-voiced' or 'multi-voiced', acknowledging the multiplicity of perspectives and voices. A dialogical work constantly engages with and is informed by other works and voices and seeks to alter or inform it. Everything is said in response to other statements and in anticipation of future statements. According to Bakhtin, this language-use style is typical of everyday language use.

In 'The Dialogical Imagination' (1981), Bakhtin extended his analysis of dialogism through the concept of heteroglossia. He argued that language is not uniform but is characterised by a diversity of voices, styles, and viewpoints. This multiplicity of voices reflects the diversity of social groups and their perspectives. Different social, cultural, and historical contexts give rise to different discourses and languages, and these various voices intersect and interact in communication. Working on literary discourse and the works of Dostoyevsky, Bakhtin coined the term 'polyphony' to describe this simultaneous presence of multiple independent and interacting voices or perspectives within a text, resembling the interplay of voices in a musical composition (Holquist, 2003). He believed that literary works, especially the novel, should embrace this multiplicity of voices rather than attempting to impose a single authoritative voice. While polyphony highlights the coexistence of various perspectives, voices, or interpretations in discourse, heteroglossia emphasises the broader socio-cultural context in which these voices emerge and interact.

Overall, Bakhtin's concept of dialogism challenges notions of language as a closed system or a one-way communication process. Instead, Bakhtin portrays language as a dynamic and interactive phenomenon shaped by ongoing dialogue and exchange. His concepts of 'dialogism,' 'polyphony' and 'heteroglossia' are relevant to academic writing, as they emphasise the value of integrating various viewpoints and voices and the interaction of these voices with the author within specific social contexts. The dialogic nature of language, as proposed by Bakhtin, is reflected in the lexicogrammar and discourse, which reveal the interplay of voices, perspectives, and meanings within the linguistic choices and structures of texts proposed by SFL.

2.3 SFL-HALLIDAY

Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) is a theory of language that views language as a system of choices for meaning making in different contexts and provides the theoretical foundation for understanding how language functions in social contexts. It is a theory of language as social semiotic, which suggests that language is not just a system of grammatical rules and signs but also a semiotic system for making meaning. This means that the semiotic system represents the full meaning potential available to the speakers or writers (Halliday, 1961). In a sociolinguistic context, this semantic system is of primary importance. For Halliday, there are three functional components or metafunctions of the semantic system, the 'ideational', 'interpersonal' and 'textual' which are present in every social context and language use (Halliday, 2003). The 'ideational' metafunction concerns how language represents and constructs our

experience of the world. It focuses on the content or message conveyed by language, including information about actions, events, states, participants, and the relationships between them. The 'textual' metafunction involves how language organises and structures discourse to create coherent and cohesive texts. It focuses on the organisation of language at the level of discourse, including how sentences are connected, how information is ordered and packaged, and how discourse markers are used to signal relationships between parts of a text. It is concerned with the creation of the coherence and cohesion of text, ensuring that language is comprehensible and meaningful within its context of use. The 'interpersonal' metafunction, finally, focuses on the role of language in constructing social relationships, expressing attitudes, and negotiating meaning in interaction. Within the interpersonal metafunction, language is seen as a tool for performing social actions, such as making requests, expressing emotions, and negotiating agreements. This metafunction is concerned with how speakers and writers position themselves in relation to others, how they express their identities and roles, and how they negotiate power and solidarity in discourse (Halliday, 2003).

2.4 GENRE

Over the past thirty years, genre has been an invaluable approach for examining language use. It has enabled us to view texts as stable units for social action that support the coordination of the efforts of organisations and groups. Nevertheless, throughout its development, the concept of genre has remained problematic and confusing (Wingate & Tribble, 2012).

Functional approaches to genre see genres as socially situated communicative events with specific purposes and functions rather than just text types or categories. An early definition of genre is given by Halliday and Hasan, who define it as “language doing the job appropriate to that class of social happenings” (1985: 108). From an English for Specific Purposes (ESP) perspective, and building on Halliday and Hasan, Swales (1990) attempted a more detailed clarification of the term by bringing together the concepts of discourse community, communicative purpose, and genre and sees genre as a category of communicative events that share some form of communicative purpose (Swales 1990: 58). Thus, in ESP, a genre is seen as a tool for communication within the social context of a discourse community, and if we understand the roles of its structure and lexicogrammar, we can also comprehend its communicative goals (Fakhruddin & Hassan, 2015).

From an SFL perspective, Martin regards genre as “the system of staged goal-oriented social processes through which social subjects in a given culture live their lives” (Martin 1997: 13). This means that genres are not isolated entities but interconnected components of a larger system of communication. Each genre represents a staged series of communicative actions performed by “social subjects,” that is, individuals or groups, in order to achieve specific goals or outcomes within a certain culture. Genres are not limited to specific times or contexts but exist in various aspects of social life, influencing people’s interpretation of their experiences within a culture.

Genres can be distinguished by differences in purpose, intended audience, the role of the writer, and the context in which they are produced. These differences should also

shape the ways the texts develop and are represented in the lexicogrammar used within them (Nesi & Gardner, 2012:24-25). Although SFL genre theory may not fully account for individual writing situations, its framework does provide a systematic approach to understanding how lexicogrammar is used in different genres and a clarification of the relationship between genre conventions and assignment expectations (Gardner & Nesi, 2013:27). In that respect, it meets this project's needs for defining and analysing the essays in our corpus.

2.4.1 THE ESSAY GENRE

One of the most common types of university writing is the essay (Coffin et al., 2005; Wingate, 2012; Lee & Deakin, 2016). The term, however, has been difficult to define (Johns, 2008), as it has different meanings and it is "used very loosely" in higher education (Nesi & Gardner, 2012:5). It belongs to those genres that "are typically hidden, 'out of sight' or 'occluded'" (Swales, 1996: 46). The term is often used to refer to a variety of writing styles that are discipline-specific which differ greatly in their registers, structures, and modes of argumentation (Johns, 2008). There is also uncertainty over its requirements (Wingate, 2012:146); it rarely occurs outside the academy (Gardner & Nesi, 2013:45), and it is hardly ever read by anyone other than instructors for assessment or occasionally peers for learning purposes (Loudermilk, 2007).

The context of genre research can be useful for considering what an essay is. Seeing writing as a social act and the essay as a genre involves, among other things, the

ability to write in a community. This includes rhetorical choices, types of argument, referencing and other conventions that are expected in writing for a specific discipline. If we see the essay as an act of social practice, then the genre and the disciplinary community are constituted and simultaneously reproduced.

Nevertheless, researchers from different perspectives agree that an essay is not a unified genre, but it is realised across different essay genres depending on how arguments are developed and supported, their stages and their social and communicative purposes (Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Goulart, Biber & Reppen, 2022). Notably, Nesi and Gardner (2012:35) have classified the university essay as a genre family, based on issues of function, stages and purpose. They suggest that the social purpose of an essay is "to demonstrate/develop the ability to construct a coherent argument and employ critical thinking skills," comprising stages and networks (ibid, p. 38). They analysed 2858 assignments in the BAWE (British Academic Written English) corpus written by undergraduate and taught postgraduate university students at English universities for assessment purposes. They found 13 major assignment types, university genre families, or classes of genres "whose members *share* central functions or social purposes and key stages" (ibid, p.26, italics in the original). They "grouped the genre families according to the broader social and educational purposes they serve as part of a university education" (ibid, p. 35), and they classified them as *case study*, *essay*, *problem question*, *research report*, *exercise*, *literature survey*, and *proposal*.

By looking at the stages of argumentation and building on the work of Coffin (2004) and Martin (1992), Nesi & Gardner (2012:98) identified six genres within the Essay

genre family, namely, *discussions, expositions, factorials, challenges, comparisons, and commentaries* (Heuboeck, Holmes & Nesi, 2010:44). Coffin (2004) worked on secondary school history discourse in Australia and investigated the social purposes and stages of history genre family. She identified three genre families: *recording genres, explanatory genres* and *arguing genres* and nine individual genres within them (Table 2.1).

Table 2.1 History Genres (Coffin, 2004:10)		
Genre Family	Genres	Social Purpose
Recording genres	Autobiographical account	To retell the events of your own life
	Biographical account	To retell the events of a person's life
	Historical recount	To retell events in the past
	Historical account	To account for the reasons events happened in a particular sequence
Explanatory genres	Factorial explanation	To explain the reasons or factors that contribute to a particular outcome
	Consequential explanation	To explain the effects or consequences of a situation
Arguing genres	Exposition	To put forward a point of view or argument
	Discussion	To argue the case for two or more points of view about an issue
	Challenge	To argue against a view

Coffin's *Explanatory* and *Arguing* genre families in history discourse closely correspond to Nesi and Gardner's essay genres. As Gardner and Nesi (2013:41)

confirm, “essay prompts are likely to elicit *discussion, exposition* and *challenge* genres.”

From a pragmatics perspective, Goulart, Biber, and Reppen (2022) developed a framework for the communicative purposes of student writing after studying third year texts in the BAWE corpus. They define communicative purpose as “[t]he primary goal and intention of anyone involved in an act of communication on a given occasion” (Chandler & Munday, 2016:311). Their goal was to analyse the communicative characteristics of each individual text, and to ‘characterise’ them communicatively rather than to ‘classify’ them into genre categories (Goulart, Biber & Reppen, 2022: 5). They identified the nine following communicative purposes: *to argue, to compare, to describe a tangible object, to explain/analyse, to give personal advice, to narrate a personal event, to give a procedural recount, to narrate, and to propose/express possibility* (Table 2.2). Of these, only four correspond to the essay genre: *to explain, to argue, to propose, and to compare*, with the first two being the most common.

Table 2.2 Essay Genre Families and Genres in the Literature		
Coffin (2002, 2004, 2006) (secondary student writing)	Nesi & Gardner (2012) (BAWE corpus)	Goulart, Biber & Reppen (2022) (BAWE corpus-third year)
History Genres	Essay genres	Communicative purposes of essays
<i>Explanatory genres</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Factorial • Consequential <i>Arguing genres</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposition • Discussion • Challenge 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Exposition • Discussion • Challenge • Factorial • Consequential • Commentary 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • To Explain • To Argue • To Propose • To Compare

It is obvious that while we tend to consider the essay to belong to a predefined genre, there are variations that should be taken into account when we analyse the scripts in the current project.

2.5 DISCIPLINES

Genres embody the conventions of communities. In fact, genre and community determine each other's domain, and they both influence and are influenced by one another. When considered as a whole, they offer a descriptive and explanatory framework for understanding how meanings are socially constructed, taking into account external factors that influence goals, establish connections, and ultimately shape writing (Hyland, 2005: 138). Work on undergraduate writing indicates that disciplinarity is a feature even in novice genres (Lillis, 1997; Lea and Street, 1998;

Drury, 2001). But what exactly do we mean by disciplinary community and discipline in academia? What do we mean by 'disciplinary writing,' and why is it so important for both scholars and students?

Defining a discipline within academia is not an easy task. Scholars have described disciplines as discourse communities (Swales, 1990), cultural communities, 'tribe's (Becher & Trowler, 2001), or communities of practice, (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Hyland, 2009) and although there is a consensus that each discipline has its own norms, values, language, and ways of constructing knowledge, definitions vary and have caused debates.

I understand disciplines as lying within two broad domains: the institutional and the academic (Figure 2.1). The two are complementary, and often, if not always, what constitutes an academic discipline is determined by decisions taken on an institutional level.

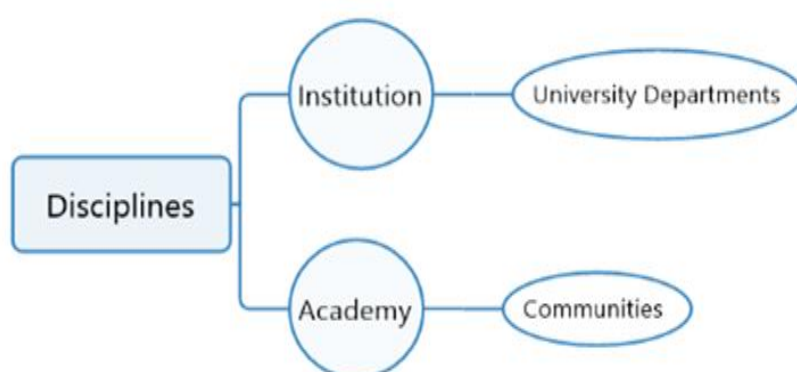


Figure 2.1 Disciplines: the two domains

I am viewing an institutional organisation here as a system of rules and officialdom influenced by administrative decisions related to organisational, marketing, financial and political matters taking place at a departmental or institutional level. As such, it needs to be approached by looking at theories of government, politics, power and institution, and issues of globalisation and marketisation of the university. In this respect, it is beyond the scope of this work, and I will not elaborate on it. Instead, I will focus the following discussion on the academic discipline and the attempts to define it.

Early approaches to disciplines saw them as 'scientific communities' and identified them according to whether they had clearly established epistemological paradigms. Kuhn (1997), for example, defined scientific communities as groups of scientists working in a particular scientific field, sharing similar professional and educational backgrounds and scientific goals, through which professional communication is facilitated. However, he further argued that the epistemological and sociological dimensions of disciplines need to be considered.

One of the early and influential studies by Becher (1994) (later updated by Becher and Trowler, 2001) sees disciplines as plural entities and describes them as 'tribes' which inhabit different territories and whose members share distinctive characteristics and norms. For Becher, disciplines are both epistemological and cultural phenomena represented by groups of people who have their own sets of values, beliefs, and codes of conduct. They also have an organisational structure, an international community, professional organisations, and specialist journals.

In fact, the problem with these approaches is three-fold (Swales, 2016). First, they ignore the human factor in these 'tribes.' They do not cater to the individual diversity of the members, the role they play within these communities, as well as the interaction between the members. Second, they assume that disciplines are homogenous entities with set beliefs and values and stringent rules and characteristics. This, in effect, overlooks the fact that not only some disciplines often have blurred boundaries, but they, at times, overlap with each other, which is an important feature of interdisciplinarity. Finally, although they acknowledge the importance of institutional structure, professionalism, and publications, they tend to overlook the importance of discourse and how this is formulated and developed in these communities.

Attempts to expand the definition of disciplines beyond membership and set beliefs have seen disciplines as discourse communities. Swales first approached Nystrad's (1982) concept of discourse communities in 1987. Drawing from the concept of 'speech community,' he stated that discourse communities share the following six main characteristics: (1) a common interest (goal), (2) intercommunication between members (forum), (3) information exchange and feedback, (4) genre-specific discursal expectations, (5) specialised language (terminology) and (6) expertise. Later, Swales (2016:5-7) talked about two types of discourse community: 'a Place Discourse Community (PDC)', which is "a group of people who regularly work together, have developed a set of genres for regulation of the roles that each has to play within the community, and has a set of traditions and a sense of its own history". The other type, a 'Focus Discourse Community (FDC),' is a group of people with a common focus of interest, such as a disciplinary community or a professional association. In other

words, each discourse community has its own goals, genres, writing conventions and formats for referencing and citing sources, and expectations for writing style. Swales envisaged a 'discourse community' as one that exists only through people's engagement in the community's conventions. Bazerman (1994:128) notes that "most definitions of discourse community get ragged around the edges rapidly," and it has not been easy to agree on exactly what the term means. Although this comment was made 30 years ago, it still stands. The notion of discourse communities has been criticised for referring to "a determinate, static, autonomous arenas of shared and agreed upon values and conventions" (Hamp-Lyons, 2002:7). On the same lines, Hyland (2004a: 11) suggests that discourse communities should be seen as systems in which multiple beliefs and practices overlap and intersect.

Thus, disciplinary or discourse communities can be seen as involving not only theories of knowledge construction but also the people involved in them and their rhetorical and discursal practices. However, definitions that consider issues of individual and group diversity, the blurred boundaries of disciplines (interdisciplinarity), and draw on genre rhetorical practices in both the ideational and the interpersonal function of the language seem more inclusive. Disciplines, then, can be defined as human institutions where actions and understandings are influenced by the personal and interpersonal, as well as the institutional and socio-cultural. If we try to combine all these different definitions of disciplines, we can see them anew, as presented in Figure 2.2.

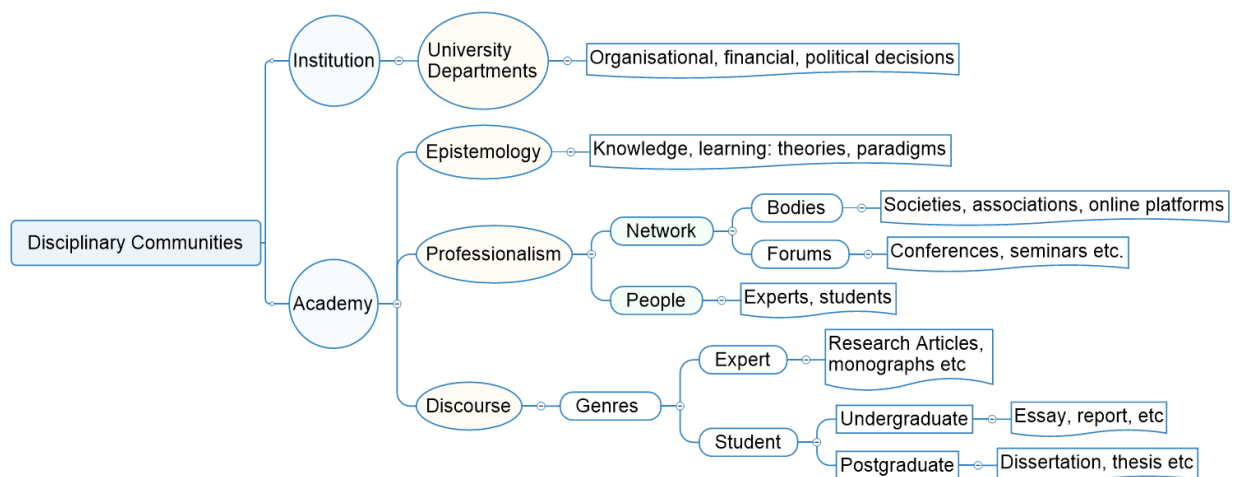


Figure 2.2 The Disciplinary community system

2.5.1 CLASSIFICATIONS OF DISCIPLINES

The most well-known division between ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ disciplines was traditionally based on knowledge construction, distinguishing between the ‘hard’ knowledge of the sciences and engineering and the soft knowledge of the social sciences and humanities (Hyland, 2004a). However, for classification purposes, individual disciplines do not belong to neat and straightforward categories (Becher, 1994) and “there is no standard way of slicing up the academic world” (Nesi et al., 2005:5). As Nesi et al., (2005:4) argue “[i]deally academic disciplines, being ever-evolving and permeable, are best regarded as bundles of feature-values, i.e. objects with many attributes, among which similarity judgements can be made, but which do not fit tidily into any tree-structured taxonomic hierarchy”.

For the classification of disciplines in the BAWE corpus, after examining the labels used in other corpora, Nesi et al. (2005) followed the division of disciplines into four high-level groupings as used in the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) and the British Academic Spoken English (BASE) corpora. Nesi, (2011:219) clarifies that in the BAWE, “[d]iscipline’ is not synonymous with ‘Department’ because some assignments in the same field came from more than one university, and departments with slightly different names have been conflated”. They tried to make sure that their corpus contained a balanced sample from all the main disciplinary groupings in British universities, which would allow for future comparison of the corpora. Their final classification in the BAWE corpus includes four disciplinary groups: Arts and Humanities, Life Sciences, Physical Sciences, and Social Sciences, which encompass a total of twenty-eight disciplines (Alsop & Nesi, 2009; Nesi & Gardner, 2012). Each grouping included both ‘core’ and ‘peripheral’ disciplines. Under the Arts and Humanities disciplinary group, which is relevant to this study, they included six ‘core’ disciplines: applied linguistics/applied English language studies (later referred to as linguistics), classics, comparative American studies (henceforth CAS), English studies, history, philosophy and one ‘peripheral’, archaeology (Alsop & Nesi, 2009). All these seven disciplines will be considered and analysed in this project. Having explored the different definitions of disciplines and the classifications guiding this thesis I now turn to discuss how these conventions shape interpersonal meanings.

2.6 INTERPERSONAL MEANINGS IN ACADEMIC WRITING

The dynamic, interactive, and socially situated nature of language use and communication is highlighted in the interconnected concepts of dialogic positioning, interpersonal meanings, evaluation, and stance. In student writing, the ways student writers present arguments, integrate sources, intrude interpersonally in the text, present their position, show their stance and voice, and engage dialogically with external voices are some of the areas that have attracted researchers' interest through the analysis of diverse linguistic resources.

The areas of *stance*, *authorial voice* and *evaluation* in tertiary student writing have been approached from different perspectives under various labels, each one carrying its own methodology. Such linguistic resources have been described as *stance* (Biber & Finegan, 1989), *metadiscourse* (Hyland, 2005), *evaluation* (Hunston & Thompson, 2000), and *appraisal* (White, 2003; Martin & White, 2005; White, 2020). The foundations of these current conceptions can be traced back to Ochs and Schieffelin's (1989) study on *affect* and the studies on *modality* (Palmer, 1986), *hedging* (Lakoff, 1973), *evidentiality* (Chafe and Nichols (1986), *averral* and *attribution* (e.g., Tadros, 1993), *metadiscourse* (Crismore, 1990). Although these studies mainly focus on one dimension of evaluation, they have laid the grounds for later work on evaluation, stance and engagement in oral and written discourse. Some of these works will be reviewed in the next chapter as they form the bulk of the literature on interpersonal meanings in academic writing. However, this thesis draws on the Engagement framework under the appraisal theory, which is now explored below.

2.7 APPRAISAL

A systematic and fully developed approach to evaluation (Bednarek, 2006; Millar & Hunston, 2015) is the appraisal framework, developed and elaborated by Martin, White and their colleagues in the late 1990s, and evolved from the Hallidayan model of language and the SFL school. The framework attempts to extend the SFL model of interpersonal meanings and provide “more delicate descriptions of the choices available to speakers/writers as they convey positive and negative assessments and negotiate those assessments with actual or potential respondents” (White, 2008:2). In the evaluation scale it extends beyond the distinction of good or bad, which is seen as the simplest and most basic one, to include more refined values. Inspired by Bakhtin’s (1981) view that all verbal communication is dialogic, the appraisal model suggests that attitudinal language can do more than simply express the speaker/author’s own point of view (White, 2008). It is concerned with “how writers/speakers approve and disapprove, enthuse and abhor, applaud and criticise, and with how they position their readers/listeners to do likewise” (Martin & White, 2005: 1).

The framework takes into account the writers’ “personal, evaluative involvement in the text ... as they adopt stances either towards phenomena or propositions” (White, 2015:1). It is divided into three broad systems: Attitude, Engagement, and Graduation, which in turn are further subdivided. Attitude can be explicit (*inscribed*) or implicit (*invoked*), positive or negative, and is expressed with Affect (emotions and feelings, e.g., *happy, surprised*), Judgement (judgement of character and human behaviour, e.g., *a generous/deceptive person*) and Appreciation (evaluation of things, e.g., *an*

interesting/ monotonous movie). Engagement distinguishes between monoglossic (single voice) and heteroglossic (many voices) utterances. The latter deals with the sourcing of alternative voices in discourse and the writer’s positioning in relation to these through, for instance, quoting, acknowledging, countering, or denying them. Since this is the framework used in this thesis, a detailed presentation is given in the next section. Graduation, finally, is concerned with adjusting the strength of an evaluation by “grading phenomena whereby feelings are amplified, and categories blurred” (Martin & White, 2005:35). It includes resources for intensification (*force*, e.g. *a few/many*, *slightly/very*) and for adjusting boundaries (*focus*, e.g., *real/sort of*). Figure 2.3 presents the appraisal framework proposed by Martin and White (2005).

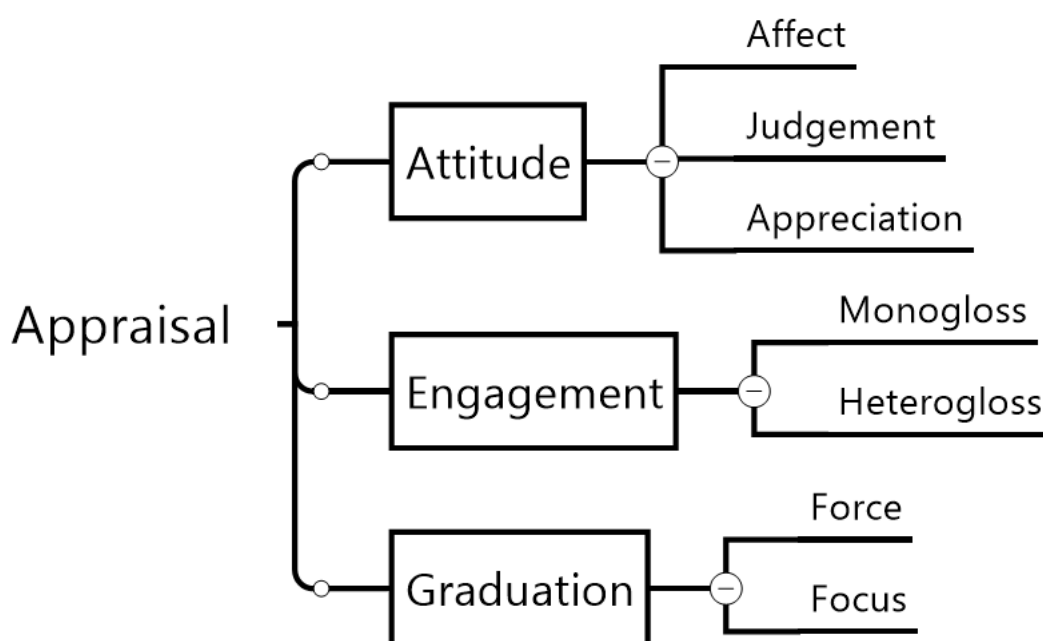


Figure 2.3 The appraisal framework (adapted from Martin & White, 2005)

Since the inception of the Appraisal theory, the Attitude and Graduation systems have undergone many modifications and developments. Some of these include Macken-Horarik's (2003) study of Attitude in secondary school narrative, which drew attention to the writer/reader relation and the prosodic nature of appraisal and Hood's (2004) work on Attitude in undergraduate academic writing and the notion of intensification via degrees of 'vigour' in the Graduation system (Hood, 2004:230). Ngo and Unsworth (2015) also refined the Attitude system following their research on spoken discourse by English and Vietnamese postgraduate students. The remaining of this chapter will elaborate on the Engagement framework.

2.8 EXPLORING THE ENGAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

The Engagement system is concerned with dialogistic positioning and is interested in the degree to which writers acknowledge other speakers and how they engage with them. It seeks to highlight ways that writers "present themselves as standing with, as standing against, as undecided, or as neutral with respect to these other speakers and their value positions" (Martin & White, 2005:93). Under the heading of Engagement are all those locutions which provide the means for the authorial voice to engage with other voices and position itself with respect to alternative positions in a specific communicative situation (Martin and White, 2005: 94).

Similarly to the other systems of Appraisal, the Engagement framework has undergone many modifications and refinements by its originators and other scholars (e.g., Hood,

2004; Fryer, 2019; White, 2020). The framework has also been extended to analyse various discourse genres and contexts, including academic writing, political discourse, and everyday conversations. In this thesis, however, I base my discussion and analysis on the framework as presented by Martin and White (2005) in their book *The Language of Evaluation: Appraisal in English*, with some reference to the appraisal website developed by White (2020).

As already mentioned, Engagement brings together meanings which have been treated in the literature under headings such as *modality*, *evidentiality*, *hedging* and so on (Martin & White, 2005:94). Under the Engagement system, Bakhtin's notion of dialogicity in academic language applies on two levels (White, 2020). The first concerns the meanings of monogloss and heterogloss, and the second relates to dialogistic contraction and expansion semantics. Both perspectives are discussed in turn below.

2.9 MONOGLOSSIC ENGAGEMENT

An utterance is considered 'monoglossic' or 'single-voiced' when no overt reference is made to other voices or viewpoints in the discourse. Bakhtin (1981: 427 & 342) calls such monoglossic bare assertions "undialogised" utterances "authoritative" and "internally persuasive discourse", and White (2003:265) names them "dialogic disengagement[s]" They are usually associated with 'consensual knowledge' or 'facts' and 'unproblematic' or 'taken for granted' propositions, which are generally known,

shared and accepted by the readers and bear no risk or doubt in the particular communicative context (White, 2003:263; Martin & White, 2005:100). Utterances such as *The banks have been greedy*,¹ for example, (from Martin & White, 2005:100), assume that the reader already agrees and is aligned with the writer's view that the banks are greedy. It is somehow common knowledge, a view that needs no further justification and is represented as but one view among a range of possible others. Some of the factors affecting this choice, according to Martin and White (2005:100), include "the communicative purpose of the text (for example, whether it argues, explains, narrates, recounts, or records), the proposition's role with respect to these communicative objectives, and the nature of the proposition itself". Although the current project explores exclusively heteroglossic Engagement resources, it is anticipated that the analysis will reveal that certain essays (e.g., historical recounts or literary accounts) may be of a highly monoglossic nature. It is also likely that the level and the discipline of particular texts may also affect the dialogicity of the discourse.

2.9.1 HETEROGLOSSIC ENGAGEMENT

In contrast to monoglossic bare assertions, heteroglossic utterances acknowledge and engage with dialogic alternatives. Propositions are presented as open for discussion, and the textual voice enters a dialogue with alternative positions and the putative reader. Heteroglossia is based on the Bakhtinian perspective that all verbal communication is 'dialogic' (Bakhtin, 1981; Martin & White, 2005:92). Martin and White label heteroglossic all locutions that function "to recognise that the text's

¹ All the examples in this chapter are from Martin & White, 2005, and White 2000.

communicative backdrop is a diverse one” (Martin & White, 2005:99). It portrays the interpersonal style and rhetorical strategies of the authors in terms of how they construct a text against the heteroglossic background of other voices and alternative points of view, and how they interact with them in this environment (Martin & White, 2005:93).

Dialogism, as developed by Bakhtin, emphasises the interactive and dynamic nature of language, highlighting the presence of multiple voices or viewpoints within discourse. It suggests that meaning emerges through the interaction and negotiation of diverse perspectives. For Bondi (2018: 138), dialogicity occurs on two levels: The first relates to “the internal dialogue between the writer and the reader” and the second to the “external dialogue between participants in the discourse community, including other internal and external voices”.

White (1998) uses the terms intra-vocalisation and extra-vocalisation to describe these two levels of dialogicity. Intra-vocalising refers to the integration of heteroglossic diversity directly into the text as part of the author's own voice. This means that the author references, acknowledges, or responds to heteroglossic voices or social positions alternative to their own within their own utterance, typically implying alternative voices without explicit reference. For example, *Many scholars argue that climate change is a pressing issue*. This aligns with the Contract dimension of the Engagement framework, where the text restricts or manages heteroglossic diversity by incorporating alternative perspectives within the author's voice. Extra-vocalising, on the other hand, involves explicitly referencing external voices or sources within the text.

This means that the author attributes certain statements or ideas to external sources, distinguishing them from their own voice or perspective. For example, *According to Smith (2020), climate change is a pressing issue*. This corresponds to the Expand dimension, where the integration of multiple voices within the discourse is encouraged, and the text actively engages with heteroglossic diversity by referencing external voices or perspectives. This corresponds to the Attribute subsystem of the framework.

However, although the rhetorical significance of the sourcing of the information is recognised, for Martin and White, the Engagement framework is more concerned with “the way in which the text builds for itself an audience and presents itself as engaging in various ways with this audience” (Martin & White, 2005:135). In this respect, the negotiation of alignment/disalignment concerning the perceived relationship between the speaker/writer and the intended audience is of great importance. These terms refer to the negotiation of agreement or disagreement between the author and the audience within a text. For Martin and White (2005:102), “[a]lignment with the reader is not presupposed. In fact, the reader might hold a completely divergent position directly disaligned with the writer, which may require further argumentation, justification, and clarification from the part of the writer in order to ‘win the reader over’”. White (2003) and Martin and White (2005) refer to this (dis)alignment as intersubjective stance or dialogistic positioning. Ultimately, the negotiation of alignment and disalignment in the relationship between the writer and the reader is a strategic process which aims at both communicating the intended message effectively and engaging the audience in a meaningful way. The complete system of Engagement, as presented by Martin and

White (2005), is shown in Figure 2.4, and its systems and subsystems are explained below.

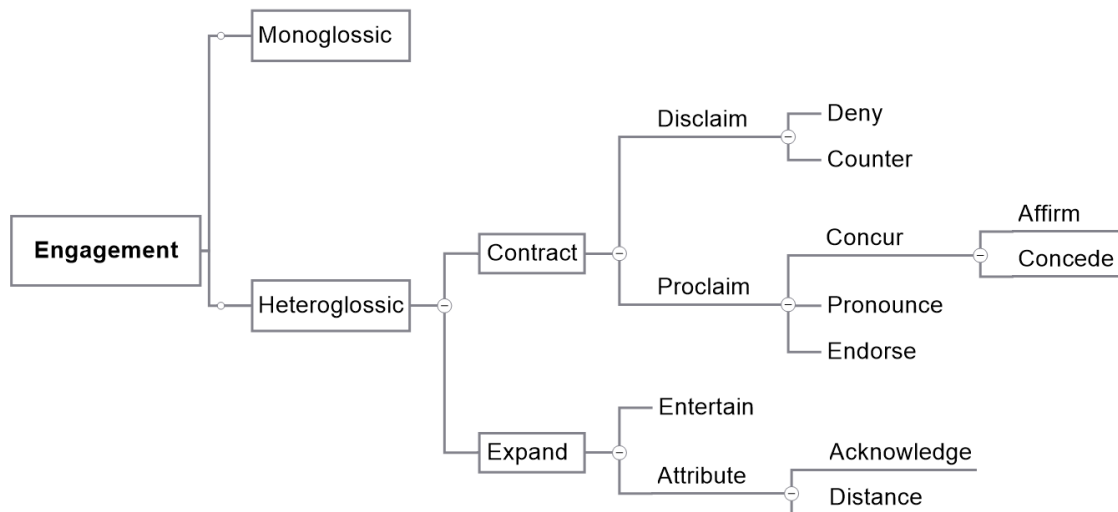


Figure 2.4 The Engagement framework (adapted from Martin & White, 2005:134)

2.9.2 EXPAND-CONTRACT

Central to heteroglossic Engagement is the distinction between dialogistic contraction and expansion. Through the contraction or expansion of the dialogic space, the writers have the choice to assume or not responsibility, raise or lower commitment to propositions, exert authority or negotiate their viewpoints, and establish their authorial persona. With dialogic expansion, writers make allowances for dialogically alternative positions and voices by opening up the dialogic space for such alternative viewpoints (Martin & White, 2005:102). Writers use Expand moves to indicate that the idea is only one possible version of reality. There are two subsystems under the Expand system:

Entertain and Attribute. With dialogic contraction, in contrast, writers “close down the space for dialogic alternatives” by excluding, challenging, fending off or restricting the scope of alternative viewpoints in the certain dialogue (Martin & White, 2005:102). The contractive meanings fall under two categories: Disclaim and Proclaim. These are further subdivided into Disclaim: Deny and Disclaim: Counter, whereas the Proclaim subsystem includes the Concur, Pronounce and Endorse categories.

2.9.3 CONTRACT: DISCLAIM

With Disclaim, some dialogic alternative is “directly rejected or supplanted or is represented as unsustainable” (Martin & White 2005:118). This is the domain of negation and concession/counter-expectation and is further subdivided into Deny and Counter options.

2.9.4 DENY

The Disclaim: Deny feature directly ‘denies’ or rejects a dialogically contrary position. It is contractive because although the alternative position is recognised, it does not apply. With denial, the writer cites, references, or implies a specific contrary position, acknowledges it, engages with it, and then rejects it, leaving little dialogistic space for negotiation for the alternative (Martin & White 2005:118).

Lexicogrammatically, Deny is typically realised with the resources of negation, e.g., *no*, *not*, *none*, *nothing*, *never* and similar wordings. In example 2.1, the denial is dialogic

in that the writer assumes that there is a widely held belief that “there IS something wrong with meat, bread and potatoes.” (Martin & White, 2005:118).

2.1 There is **nothing** wrong with meat, bread and potatoes...

According to Martin and White (2005:118-120), Deny plays varying roles with regard to alignment and intersubjective positioning. In the first of the two examples they give (2.2), the denial is used to indicate disalignment with some third party, and it is directed away from the current writer-reader relationship, (ibid, p. 119). Here, with the expression ‘*this is not the case*,’ the textual voice disaligns itself with the position of Paul Keetch while at the same time aligning the reader with its own viewpoint, which opposes Keetch.

2.2 Sir, Your report [...] recorded comments by Paul Keetch MP, who claimed that the Ministry of Defence was ‘sowing confusion’ among troops by making this programme voluntary and that by doing so, it was abdicating leadership. May I repeat my assurances that this is **not** the case [...].

In other cases, the denial is addressed against the presumed readers and the beliefs that at least some of them may hold. In 2.3., for instance, the writer assumes that it is a generally held belief that natural gas is poisonous and has a distinct smell, just like coal gas, and employs negation to dismiss this view.

2.3 The gas we use today, natural gas, contains more than 90 per cent methane and was known long before the discovery of coal gas. Natural gas burns with

twice the heat of coal gas is **not** poisonous, and has **no** odour. [Martin & White, 2005:119]

Martin and White refer to this type of denial as 'corrective denial' because it presents the writer "as having greater expertise in some area" and as "acting to correct some misunderstanding or misconception" on the part of the readers without, however, being confrontational (ibid: 120). The term 'corrective denial' originates from Pagano's (2002) work, whereby the writers first correct the idea denied and then present their own view. This type of Deny is discussed further in sections 5.2 and 7.6.1.

2.9.5 COUNTER

The second subtype of Disclaim is labelled Counter or counter-expectation in earlier versions of the framework (White, 2020). Counter formulations signal dialogic Engagement with alternative voices and are used to express disagreement with preceding propositions and to put forward an alternative point of view. They replace, supplant, or counter an expected or actual claim or proposition (White 2003, Martin & White 2005), as in 2.4.

2.4 Even though we are getting divorced, Bruce and I are still best friends.

The proposition that Bruce and the writer are getting divorced is countered or supplanted by the confirmation that they remain friends, which would not be the normal

expectation arising from their divorce. In many cases, Counter formulations, like denials, “invoke a contrary position which is then said not to hold,” as in 2.5.

2.5 Even though he had taken all his medication, his leg didn't look any better.

Here, the denying proposition that *his leg didn't look any better* directly counters the expectation which arises from the preceding proposition (*he had taken all his medication*) that his leg should have been better because of the medication.

In many cases, Counter formulations often co-occur with denials to form a ‘rhetorical pair.’ For Martin and White (2005:124), a rhetorical pair includes two interlinked rhetorical moves. With this, the writer first presents a seemingly agreeable stance with the reader on a certain point, which is subsequently challenged or rejected. To illustrate this, Martin and White (2005:124) use the following example: *Yes, he ducked and dived. Admittedly, he was badly behaved. But look at what he achieved.* Here, the writer first admits (*Yes*) the negative assessments (*ducked and dived*) but immediately dismisses them (*But*) as not sufficient. In this thesis, I use the term rhetorical pair to refer to any pair containing two moves that are used together for comparison, contrast, or emphasis.

However, Counter devices can either align or disalign the textual voice from its readership. For instance, in both examples 2.4 and 2.5, the countering claims ‘*Bruce and I are still best friends*’, and ‘*his leg didn't look any better*’ align the textual voice with the readers who share the same beliefs and expectations that divorced people

are not usually in friendly terms or that his leg should have looked better. Thus, both these propositions are “to some degree understandable or even logical since they are “shown to be based on a not unreasonable expectation” (White 2003:271) and act to enhance solidarity between the textual voice and the reader (Martin & White 2005:120-121). However, this presupposes that all readerships share the same viewpoints. If this is not the case, solidarity between the writer and reader is at risk (ibid 121). Nevertheless, “there is a counter effect by which the dis-alignment between textual voice and reader is mitigated” (White, 2003:271).

Lexicographically, Counter is signalled by a variety of resources (Martin & White 2005:120–121), typically

- adversative/contrastive connectors: *but, however, yet, nevertheless, nonetheless, whereas, whilst, while, on the other hand, alternatively, in contrast, conversely, instead, rather, merely, actually*
- concessive connectors: *although, even though, though, despite, in spite of, albeit, and*
- adversative adjuncts: *even, only, just, still*
- comment adjuncts/adverbials: *Surprisingly*

Counter markers have mostly been studied as part of the wider heading of ‘adverbials’ as ‘contrastive connectors,’ (Barton, 1995; Bondi, 2004), ‘adversative conjunctions’ (Halliday & Hassan, 1976; Gardezi & Nesi, 2009), ‘contrast/concession’ (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998; Shaw, 2009; Charles, 2011), ‘oppositional markers’ (Hyland, 2005), among others. Nevertheless, there is a consensus that they all describe these simple linguistic elements that are easily taught and contribute to the coherence of academic

writing (Gardezi & Nesi, 2009), play a fundamental role in constructing arguments, and they are “characteristic of the essay genre” (Charles (2011:26). Counter markers and their functions are discussed further in section 6.4.

2.9.6 CONTRACT: PROCLAIM

The second subsystem of Contract is that of Proclaim, which “acts to limit the scope of dialogistic alternatives” (Martin & White: 2005:121). It allows the textual voice to emphasise its own position as highly warrantable by confronting, challenging, or ruling out alternative positions, rather than directly rejecting them as in Disclaim. Proclaim formulations close down the space for a dialogic debate and attempt to move the reader towards the author’s point of view. They “increase the interpersonal cost” (White, 2020: n.p.) as they express a strong level of writer commitment through some “authorial interpolation, emphasis or intervention” (Martin & White, 2005:98), which stems from the idea that the proposition is generally accepted and expected. Thus, they allow little space for negotiation for an alternative position. Within Proclaim, Martin and White (2005:121) group formulations which, “rather than directly rejecting or overruling a contrary position, act to limit the scope of dialogistic alternatives in the ongoing colloquy”. The three subtypes of Proclaim are Concur, Pronounce and Endorse.

The options of Proclaim have undergone various modifications over the years by the creators of the Engagement framework, as can be seen in Table 2.3. For this project, I am adopting Martin & White’s (2005) typology of three choices: Concur, Pronounce and Endorse, discussed in detail below.

Table 2.3 Proclaim Options in the Literature			
White 1998	Expect	Pronounce	
White 2003	Concur	Pronounce	Endorse
Martin & White 2005	Concur	Pronounce	Endorse
Martin 2008	Confirm	Commit: <i>Pronounce</i> <i>Endorse</i>	
White 2012	Concur	Reinforce: <i>Pronounce</i> <i>Justify</i>	Endorse

2.9.6.1 CONCUR

Through the values of Concur, the writer presents the proposition as indisputable and as agreeing with a dialogic partner and what is generally known (Martin & White, 2005; White, 2020), as in extract 2.6 from the Bank of English presented by Martin and White (2005:123).

2.6 Bailey, **of course**, was that rarity, a cricketer who, at his best, was world-class with both bat and ball.

Concur formulations are dialogistic in that they present the writer as ‘in dialogue with the text.’ They also set the text into a heteroglossic background since it contains multiple voices (the textual voice and those agreeing with it) while excluding any contrary positions; hence, they are contractive rather than expanding. They generally construe solidarity between the writer and the readers as the textual voice “actively and explicitly presents itself as aligned with the construed reader, as having the same belief or attitude or ‘knowledge’” (White 2003:269). However, this solidarity may be at risk as such formulations convey a “heightened personal involvement” and imply a

certain amount of interpersonal risk when dialogic alternative positions are advanced (ibid).

Lexicogrammatically, this dialogic relationship is typically signalled by

- Comment adjuncts such as *of course, naturally, certainly, obviously, admittedly*, and
- Rhetorical or 'leading' questions, e.g., *Iraq: Should we go to war against these children?* (Martin & White, 2005:123).

Martin and White distinguish between 'conceding concurrence' (*Yes, ... but; Naturally, ... however*) and 'affirming concurrence' (*of course, naturally*). In affirming concurrence, there is a degree of high commitment by the writer. In example 2.6 presented above, for instance, with the use of, *of course*, the textual voice understands that the readers share its positive view of the cricketer Trevor Bailey. In contrast, with a conceding concurrence, the textual voice sounds more hesitant or reluctant. This second type of Concur is always followed by a Counter proposal forming a rhetorical pair of Concede (or Concur) + Counter. Thus, although the authorial voice at first acknowledges the validity of a particular proposition and seems to agree with the reader, it then 'changes its mind' and dismisses it as non-valid or insufficient, as exemplified in 2.7.

2.7 **Admittedly**, he [Robert Maxwell] was badly behaved. **But** look at what he achieved. (p.124)

Here, the textual voice first Concur with the reader by conceding that Robert Maxwell *was badly behaved*, which is signalled by the use of *admittedly*, to immediately overturn

any sign of negative views by the readers on Maxwell by adding that his achievements were more significant than his bad behaviour. This second move (*But...*), according to Martin and White (2005:125-126) is “a gesture towards solidarity”. It is seen as an attempt to “win the reader over” (ibid) and ease the negativeness of the initial argumentation (*badly behaved*) after anticipating a disagreement from the reader. These conceding concurrences are usually realised in pairs such as *Admittedly ... but*, *Naturally ... however*, *Certainly...but*, *Yes...but* and similar. Some of the markers conveying concurrence, the ones that emphasise certainty, are included in the ‘booster’ category of Hyland’s (2005) taxonomy and have been studied extensively, although ‘boosters’ are more closely related to the Graduation system of appraisal.

2.9.6.1.1 RHETORICAL QUESTIONS

Within the Concur system, Martin, and White place rhetorical or ‘leading’ questions. Questions can serve ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions in academic writing (Hyland, 2002). From an interpersonal perspective, Martin and White (2005) distinguish between rhetorical *leading* and *expository* questions.

Leading rhetorical questions are those that somehow ‘lead’ the reader(s) to a certain, often ‘unavoidable’ answer (Martin & White, 2005:123), as in “*Iraq: Should we go to war against these children?*”, where the writer assumes that the reader will reply, “*No, of course, we shouldn’t go to war with these children.*” Such questions are dialogically contractive and are considered Concur resources.

An *expository* rhetorical question, on the other hand, is one taken in the literal meaning of the term in the sense that it does not require an actual answer; it is a kind of ‘pseudo’ question. It, thus, presents the “proposition as so self-evident or agreed upon that it does not actually need to be stated by the textual voice; it can be left up to the reader to supply the required meaning” (White, 2003:267) and answer. They are expansive and seen as conveying Entertain. For example, this headline question about a British celebrity, “*Is Tara on a downhill spiral to her bad old ways?*” is employed to propose one possible view of Tara’s behaviour (Martin & White, 2005:110), suggesting that she is regressing into her negative habits from her past. With the use of a question the writer invites the reader to actively construe meaning rather than presenting a single, authoritative interpretation of Tara’s behaviour.

2.9.6.2 PRONOUNCE

Pronouncements contract the dialogic space by conveying a strong level of writer commitment and involvement to propositions that are “directed against some assumed or directly referenced counter position” (Martin & White 2005:129). They are dialogistic as they acknowledge an opposite view but are contractive because they narrow down and challenge alternative positions (ibid). Like Concur, Pronounce features are likely to construe disalignment between the writer and the reader.

Martin and White (2005:129-130) distinguish between pronouncements that challenge an assumed or directly referenced counter position, which is held as accurate by the reader, and pronouncements that may challenge the value position of a third party (i.e., an external voice). In the former case, there is an obvious threat to writer-reader

solidarity since “the authorial voice overtly presents itself as at odds with this construed addressee.” (ibid). In the case where the pronouncement confronts a third party, the opposite applies. The text “builds solidarity” as both the reader and the addressee stand together and “in opposition to some axiologically alien third party” (Martin & White, 2005:130).

Lexicogrammatical resources of Pronounces are diverse and include

- intensifiers with a clausal scope such as *indeed, really, in fact*
- explicit authorial interventions such as *I propose, I contend, the fact is, the truth is, you must agree that* and
- emphasis on the auxiliary such as *does, did, is*.

In example 2.8 below, the authorial voice openly intervenes in the text with the formulation *the facts of the matter are that* by asserting the ‘warrantability’ of the proposition that the US had *never made the national decisions or marshalled the national resources required for such leadership*.

2.8 But **the facts of the matter are that** we have never made the national decisions or marshalled the national resources required for such leadership.

In the hedging and metadiscourse taxonomies (Hyland, 2005), such formulations are grouped together under the label of boosters. However, Martin and White (2005:133) distinguish between boosters which are dialogistically Expansive (e.g. *I am convinced*

that), classified as instances of Entertain and those which are contractive (e.g. *I contend that*), conveying Pronounce.

2.9.6.3 ENDORSE

By the term endorsement, Martin and White (2005:126) refer to externally sourced propositions which the authorial voice grants “as correct, valid, undeniable or otherwise maximally warrantable” (p. 126). Endorsements are generally signalled by a limited set of reporting or projecting verbs and their nominalisations, which typically “portray certain acts of semiosis” and “provide the grounds for the writer to presuppose this warrantability” (ibid). These include

- the verbs *show, prove, demonstrate, indicate, find, affirm, confirm, point out,* and
- the nouns *proof, demonstration, indication, findings, affirmation, confirmation*

In both examples below, the textual voice does not simply cite a source, but it takes responsibility for the propositions presented. In this sense, endorsements are dialogically contractive as they close the dialogic space by excluding alternative viewpoints from the discussion and presenting the advanced propositions as ‘maximally warrantable’ and differ from dialogically expansive attributions, discussed next.

2.9 Downing Street has released details from a report which **shows** that the British prisoners have ‘no substantial complaints’ about their conditions.

2.10 Five studies **demonstrate** that investment dependence [...] increases economic inequality.

2.9.7 EXPAND: ATTRIBUTE

Writers use Expand moves to indicate that the idea is only one possible version of reality. There are two subsystems under the Expand system: Entertain and Attribute. With attribution, the authorial voice does not exclude alternative positions from the discussion as warrantable, as in Endorse. Instead, it acknowledges the source by attributing it to an external source and presenting it “as but one of a range of possible positions” (Martin & White, 2005:98) and open to question. Hence, unlike pronouncement, attributions Expand the dialogic space, and this is where the fundamental contrast between Expand and Contract in this framework is seen clearly. There are two main subcategories of Attribute: Acknowledge and Distance.

2.9.7.1 ACKNOWLEDGE

Acknowledgements are dialogic as they associate suggested propositions with voices external to the text and present the authorial voice as engaging with those voices, opening up the dialogic space to alternatives, and construing the communicative setting as heteroglossic (Martin & White, 2005:113).

Lexicographically, this is “achieved through reporting verbs and the grammar of direct or indirect reported speech” (Martin & White, 2005:111) via

- communicative process verbs, e.g., *say, argue, state*
- mental process verbs, e.g., *believe, think*
- nominalisations of these processes, e.g., *belief* and
- adverbial adjuncts, e.g., *according to; in X’s view*

However, the alignment or disalignment of the authorial voice with the proposition is not clear, and often the writer appears neutral with respect to the advanced proposition. In extract 2.11, for instance, it is not specified where the writer stands with regard to Dawkins's belief.

2.11 Dawkins **believes** that religion is not an adaptive evolutionary vestige, but in fact a cultural virus.

The attributed proposition may refer to a proper noun, e.g., *Dawkins believes*, as in example 2.11 or a collective one (e.g. *Many Australians believe*).

Acknowledgements are primarily and typically identified by the reporting verb and have been extensively studied under 'reported speech', 'reporting verbs' (e.g., Shaw, 1992), 'attribution and averral' (e.g., Tadros, 1993; Hunston, 1995; Groom, 2000; Caldas-Coulthard, 2002) and 'citation' (e.g., Swales, 1986; Thompson & Tribble, 2001) headings, while White (1998) has made the distinction between 'extra-vocalisation' and 'intra-vocalisation' as discussed in 2.9.1.

Martin and White (2005) also include here formulations in which no specific source is specified, often termed as Hearsay, exemplified in 2.12.

2.12 **It is said that** he lied about his age as he grew older ...

However, in an updated version of Engagement, White (2020) places Hearsay under the Entertain system. White explains that while such formulations introduce an external voice, the fact that the writer avoids identifying the source indicates some kind of endorsement of the proposition, “some communicative responsibility for the proposition/proposal.” Nevertheless, he concludes that “while authorially endorsed extra-vocalisations like Endorse, Acknowledge and Distance combine voices, Hearsay values tend more towards dialogistic ambiguity” (White, 2020:5/13).

2.9.7.2 DISTANCE

As its name suggests, the second subcategory of Attribution involves formulations in which the authorial voice distances itself from the attributed proposition. It is most typically realised by the reporting verb, *to claim*, which “acts to mark explicitly the internal authorial voice as separate from the cited, external voice” (Martin and White, 2005:113), “implies disagreement” (Hunston, 1995:145) and “detaches [the writer] from responsibility for what is being reported” (Caldas-Coulthard 2002:295), as in example 2.13.

2.13 Tickner **has claimed** that regardless of the result, the royal commission was a waste of money.

Like acknowledgement, distancing formulations are dialogistically expansive as they attribute the proposition to an external source, but unlike acknowledgements, they present “the authorial voice as explicitly declining to take responsibility for the

proposition” and “maximise the space for dialogistic alternatives” (Martin & White, 2005:114).

2.9.8 EXPAND: ENTERTAIN

By deploying an Entertain resource, “the authorial voice represents the proposition as but one of a range of possible positions – it thereby entertains or invokes these dialogic alternatives” (Martin & White, 2005: 98). By recognising such alternative views, then, the authorial voice enters into a dialogue with those who hold such views and builds relationships of alignment and solidarity (Martin & White, 2005). While Entertain resources also Expand the dialogistic space, they differ from Attribution ones in that Entertain values present the internal authorial voice (e.g., *I believe*) while attributions present an external voice (e.g., *Weber believes*) (ibid, p. 111).

Lexicogrammatically, the category of Entertain is very broad and does not explore distinctions which might operate among the various instances (White, 2003:280). It includes meanings of likelihood, probability and evidentiality, realised by:

- modal auxiliaries: *may, might, could, must, etc.*
- modal adjuncts: *perhaps, probably, definitely, etc.*
- modal attributes: *it's possible that ..., it's likely that ... etc.*
- modal conjunctions: *if-clauses, etc.*
- circumstances such as: *in my view/opinion*
- certain mental verbs: *I doubt, I think, I believe, etc.*

- evidence/appearance-based postulations: *it seems, apparently*, etc. and
- rhetorical 'expository' questions (Martin & White, 2005:105)

Entertain, then, includes all these meanings traditionally covered in the literature under the headings of epistemic modality, evidentiality, hedging, and metadiscourse. However, these resources are perceived differently from a dialogic perspective. For instance, traditional accounts of modality would have interpreted the use of *probably* in extract 2.14 below as explicitly indicating the writer's "lack of commitment to the truth value of the proposition" (Lyons 1977:847), "uncertainty...deference, modesty or respect" (Hyland, 2005:88), or "a desire not to express that commitment categorically" (Hyland 1996:1). For others, the purpose of such locutions, is "rather to mark the claim as 'unacknowledged' by the discourse community" (Myers 1989: 12).

2.14 In fact it was **probably** the most immature, irresponsible, disgraceful and misleading address ever given by a British Prime Minister.

From a Bakhtinian dialogistic perspective, however, their functionality is seen as 'dialogistic negotiation undertaken by the writers.' The utterance is interpreted as but one of a range of possible utterances, and by the use of such values, the writer opens up the space for dialogistic variation, which in some ways challenges or differs from the current utterance (White, 2020). In 2.14 then, the authorial voice clearly wants to put forward its subjective negative assessment of the Prime Minister's speech, yet with the choice of *probably*, it recognises that there are others who may not be sharing

these views and thus, entertains or leaves an open space for such alternative viewpoints to enter the discussion.

Within the Entertain subsystem, we also find rhetorical questions (see section 2.9.6.1.1) and conditionals (here, also referred to as *if* conditionals or *if*-clauses). In brief, expository rhetorical questions, “don’t assume a specific response but are employed to raise the possibility that some proposition holds” (Martin & White, 2005: 105). The following example is given by Martin and White (2005:110), who explain that the question is used “to put the proposition into play as one possible view of Ms Palmer-Tomkinson’s behaviour.” (Source: Daily Express, 19/10/04:10. A drunken night out for Britain’s favourite IT girl has set alarm bells ringing).

2.15 *Is Tara on a downhill spiral to her bad old ways?*

Interpersonal conditionals are concerned with establishing relationships between readers and writers in discourse. They are distinguished by the traditional type of conditionals, content, or direct conditionals (Quirk et al., 1985), which denote a cause-consequence pattern and are concerned with the ideational function. *If*-clauses and questions will be explored further in section 6.7.

2.10 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The chapter discussed the theoretical background for this study. Starting with Bakhtin's notions of dialogism, polyphony, and heteroglossia, the chapter moved on to review the SFL theory of language and its approach to genre and disciplines. The Engagement framework and all its subsystems were subsequently explored in detail. The next chapter will review some of the main studies that have applied the framework in student writing and their relevance to this thesis.

CHAPTER 3

3 LITERATURE REVIEW

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Dialogic positioning, interpersonal meanings and evaluation in academic writing have been approached from different perspectives, theories, and methodologies. The literature is extensive and not all relevant to the present study. In this chapter, I will first review studies under the major labels identified in the literature, namely *stance*, *metadiscourse*, and *evaluation*. The central tenets of these strands, their primary opponents, significant works in each strand, their methodologies and some of their key findings will be reviewed. I will then move on to discuss how these approaches relate to the appraisal framework. The remaining chapter will limit the review to studies on student essays applying the Engagement framework.

3.2 LEXICOGRAMMATICAL APPROACHES TO EVALUATION

Approaches that examine the resources used to express interpersonal meaning in writing have been at the core of both systemic-functional and social-constructivist frameworks of analysis and the focus of much research. Social constructivist theories examine academic writing as a socially and culturally situated activity. They draw attention to the complex relationships of social interactions, cultural practices, and historical factors that shape language use and meaning making when knowledge is produced and shared within academic communities. Systemic functional frameworks,

on the other hand, try to understand the interpersonal function of academic writing by examining how writers interact with their readers, convey their opinions, and navigate their position within disciplinary communities. Stance, engagement, and interpersonal meanings in academic writing have been studied under three main headings: stance, metadiscourse and evaluation.

3.2.1 STANCE

Biber and his colleagues are the representative scholars of this strand. Stance is defined as “the lexical and grammatical expression of attitudes, feelings, judgments, or commitment concerning the propositional content of a message” (Biber & Finegan, 1989: 94). Biber and Finegan initially looked at conversations, news reports, and research articles. They analysed twelve lexico-grammatical stance devices and identified three types of stance, namely, *epistemic stance* (evidentiality), *attitudinal stance* (affect), and *style of speaking stance*. *Epistemic stance* expresses certainty, doubt, actuality, precision or limitation, and the source of knowledge (e.g., *according to X, X claimed that*). *Attitudinal stance* expresses attitudes, evaluations, and personal feelings or emotions (e.g., *fortunately, amazingly*), while *style of speaking* markers indicate the speaker/writer’s comments on the proposition (e.g., *honestly, in truth*). Some of the conclusions Biber & Finegan, (1989) drew include:

- The linguistic means used for expressing the speaker’s stance in English are hedges, emphatics, certainty verbs, doubt verbs, certainty adverbs, doubt adverbs and possibility modals (p. 23).
- Stance is more common in written registers like news, fiction, and letters than academic writing.

- Seventy-five per cent of written academic texts were categorised as ‘faceless’ stance.

Later works of Biber himself (Biber, 2006) and other scholars (Gray & Biber, 2014; Nesi & Gardner, 2017; Gardner, Nesi, & Biber, 2019) extended the ‘lists’ of stance markers and modified the dimensions to analyse linguistic characteristics in academic discourse. Based on an extensive corpus project, Biber’s (2006) work on university language described and compared the patterns of language use across a range of spoken and written university registers, including classroom teaching and textbooks. Biber and his colleagues use the term register as “a cover term for any variety associated with a particular configuration of situational characteristics and purposes” (Biber & Conrad, 2005:175). Some of the findings of this extensive study (Biber, 2006) include:

- Stance is overtly marked to a greater extent in spoken registers than in written ones.
- Modal verbs are the most frequently used markers of stance, but there are differences in modal usage between spoken and written registers.
- Stance adverbs and stance complement clauses are also more common in spoken registers.
- Some stance features are associated with specific communicative purposes and are not limited to spoken or written registers.
- Spoken university registers use features expressing interpersonal functions and meanings, while written registers use features expressing informational functions and meanings.

Biber concluded that “linguistic features are used to express a wide range of stance meanings”, and they “are frequent and pervasive in the university context” (Biber, 2006: 225). Overall, “stance is fundamentally important in university registers, although

different registers express stance to differing extents and for different particular functions” (ibid, p. 130). Biber’s dimension tagsets for the linguistic description of registers have been applied to analyse university student writing across disciplines and levels. Hardy and Römer’s (2013) factor analysis of the Michigan Corpus of Upper-Level Student Papers (MICUSP) explored variations in student writing across many disciplines and genres. They found that although disciplines made a large difference in the linguistic features and functions of student writing, the level may have had an impact on how texts scored along the dimensions. They concluded that perhaps the grouping by discipline was not enough to explain functional variation.

Gardner, Nesi and Biber (2019) adopted Biber’s (2006) dimension tagset to analyse university student writing in the BAWE corpus. From the four new dimensions studied, Dimension 1: *Compressed Procedural Information versus Stance towards the Work of Others*, Dimension 2: *Personal Stance*, and parts of Dimension 3: *Possible Events versus Completed Events* are relevant to this study as they examine stance markers, modals, and conditionals to evaluate the work of others as well as personal stance markers.

Their findings reinforce some previous findings of research (e.g. Hyland, 2002, 2015), indicating noticeable differences in the expression of stance across genres and disciplines. Gardner, Nesi and Biber (2019) found that:

- There are significant differences across the four disciplinary groups in Dimensions 1 and 2.
- “The hard sciences are more informational, while Humanities disciplines are more involved” (p. 648).

- Epistemic and attitude adverbials used to boost, and hedge are typical of the soft disciplines.
- Personal stance features are typical of writing in philosophy.

In essays, they found that:

- Essays are situated along different dimensions and vary in density features depending on the disciplinary group, genre family, discipline, and level of study.
- Humanities essays use “expansive style” language (Dimension 1, such as stance nouns, stance adverbials, proper nouns, communication verbs, and longer sentences) which differentiates them from the “compressed language” (Dimension 1) of the science reports (p. 658, p. 671)
- Essays in the soft disciplines, particularly the humanities
 - are more likely to prioritise personal stance and evaluation rather than procedural details
 - are characterised by epistemic nouns and adverbials but
 - tend to have the lowest scores on dimension 1 (stance towards the work of others)
- Philosophy essays exhibit higher levels of personal stance and abstraction compared to science reports.
- Within Dimension 1, first and second-year undergraduate Humanities essays are characterised by
 - the use of third-person pronouns (e.g., *he*),
 - stance nouns (e.g., *argument*),
 - stance adverbials (e.g., *seemingly*),
 - proper nouns (e.g., *Plato*),
 - communication verbs (e.g., *state*), and
 - longer sentences, expanding through conjunctions (*but, yet, and*) and through different kinds of *that*-clauses.

3.2.2 METADISCOURSE

Another well-researched strand of stance is based on Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse framework. The term 'metadiscourse', first coined by Zellig Harris in 1959 (Hyland, 2005) and later developed by Kopple (1985) and Crismore (1990), encompasses a variety of linguistic elements within discourse. These elements, including hedges, connectives, and various forms of text commentary, are used by writers and speakers to shape the interpretation of their text by their audience, thereby exerting influence within the ongoing discourse (Hyland, 2005:3).

In an early paper, Hyland (2000:109) sees writing as a social engagement and defines metadiscourse as "the linguistic resources used to organise a discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader". Drawing on Thompson's (2001) distinction between 'interactive' and 'interactional', Hyland and Tse (2004:168-169) propose a metadiscourse model incorporating both 'interactive' and 'interactional' resources. 'Interactive' resources "set out an argument to explicitly establish the writer's preferred interpretations" (Hyland, 2005:49). They relate to the organisation of discourse and the construction of the text with the readers in mind. They include transition markers (e.g. *furthermore, similarly, therefore*), frame markers (e.g. *first, then*), endophoric markers (e.g. *see Figure 1*), evidentials (e.g. *X says*) and code glosses (e.g. *for example*). 'Interactional' resources engage readers in the argument by making them aware of the author's perspective, and they are divided into *stance and engagement*. Stance, here, refers to "the features writers use to annotate their propositions to convey epistemic and affective judgments, opinions and degrees of commitment to what they say" (Hyland, 2004b: 6). Stance includes resources of

hedges (e.g., *might, possible*), boosters (e.g., *in fact, definitely*), attitude markers (e.g., *unfortunately*), and self-mentions (e.g., *I, our*). Hyland's engagement resources "explicitly address readers, either to focus their attention or include them as discourse participants" and are employed "to highlight or downplay" their presence in the text (e.g., *you may notice, see*) (Hyland, 2005:53-54).

Like in Biber's stance strand, research here is corpus-based, investigating pre-defined lists of lexicogrammatical markings. Over the last fifteen years, a plethora of studies have been published applying the metadiscourse taxonomy in academic writing with greater emphasis on the research article and disciplinary variations (e.g. Hyland, 2004a, 2005; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Li & Wharton, 2012; Hu & Cao, 2015; Bruce, 2016; Hyland, & Jiang, 2018). Researchers applying the metadiscourse taxonomy have also investigated tertiary student writing by comparing high and low-graded essays (e.g. Lancaster, 2016; Lee & Deakin, 2016), native and non-native English speakers' writing (e.g., Herriman, 2009; Ädel, 2022) or first-year writing with advanced and professional writing (e.g., Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Aull 2015). Some of the main findings of these studies regarding disciplinary and level variations relevant to this project include:

- Metadiscourse use is associated with disciplinary and contextual factors, but contextual factors have a stronger effect (Li & Wharton, 2012).
- Stance and engagement are essential elements of writers' argument and the disciplinary context in published articles in eight disciplines (Hyland, 2005).
- Writers in the humanities and social sciences are more explicitly involved and take personal positions by employing more interactional (interpersonal) metadiscourse than those in the science and engineering fields (Hyland & Tse, 2004; Hyland, 2004a, 2005).

- The more discursive 'soft' fields of philosophy, sociology, applied linguistics, and marketing contain seventy-five per cent more interactional metadiscourse (hedges, boosters) items than the engineering and science papers (Hyland, 2005: 145).
- Writers in philosophy and applied linguistics most often take overt personal responsibility for their claims (high use of 'I,' and 'we') (Hyland, 2005: 164).
- Philosophy is a discipline with high author visibility, as knowledge heavily relies on personal engagement and argumentation (Hyland, 2005: 160).
- Certain linguistic stance markers are shared across the first-year essays despite differences in students' educational context (Aull & Lancaster, 2014).
- The specific features of stance that point to a developmental trajectory are hedges and boosters, code glosses, and adversative connectors (Aull & Lancaster, 2014).
- Successful essays contain significantly greater instances of hedges and no significant differences for boosters and attitude markers (Lee & Deakin, 2016).
- Differences in the use of metadiscourse regarding writer/reader visibility are found between non-native English learners and British and American university students, where the British writers were found to be at the extreme of impersonality (Ädel, 2022).

Overall, studies in stance and metadiscourse tend to agree on specific areas that are relevant to my research project. First, stance is more common in written discourse like news, fiction, and letters than in academic writing. Nevertheless, stance and engagement are essential elements of the writers' argument. Academic discourse is

characterised by heavy use of evidential and epistemic stance markers, the most common being hedges, emphatics, certainty verbs and adverbs, doubt verbs and adverbs, and modals. More importantly, stance and metadiscourse use are strongly associated with disciplinary writing. The distinction between 'soft' and 'hard' disciplines prevails here, with the former containing more epistemic and attitude adverbials to hedge and boost than the latter. Moreover, writers in the humanities and social sciences are more explicitly involved, taking personal positions compared to the hard sciences, which are more informational.

In relation to student writing, Humanities essays use "expansive style" language, which differentiates them from the "compressed language" of the science reports. They are more likely to prioritise personal stance and evaluation through epistemic nouns and adverbials but tend to have the lowest scores on stance towards the work of others. Studies consistently indicate that philosophy writing exhibits high levels of personal stance with high author visibility and responsibility. Works that compare successful and less successful student essays also tend to agree that the former contain more frequent use of stance with significantly greater instances of hedges. Some of the common features of stance that indicate a developmental trajectory are hedges, boosters, code glosses, and adversative connectors. Despite differences in students' educational context, first-year essays share certain linguistic stance markers; for instance, they contain significantly great instances of hedges. When comparing native and non-native English writers, British writers appear to be more impersonal in their writing.

The works of Biber and Hyland reviewed so far have been very influential and have made a significant contribution to our understanding of how language is used in academic contexts. Biber's work on the characteristics of language across specific genres and registers has contributed to our understanding and has informed theories of genre and discourse. His corpus-based approach and multi-dimensional analysis (MDA) framework have been influential in bridging the gap between theoretical linguistics and empirical research and have led to extensive systematic analyses of linguistic features and language phenomena. Similarly, Hyland's classification of metadiscourse into interactive and interactional elements has provided a comprehensive framework for analysing writer-reader interaction in academic writing. His extensive corpus-based research across different disciplines and genres has shed light on the linguistic practices that characterise academic discourse and has offered valuable insights into the conventions and variations in academic writing across disciplines.

Methodologically, most of the studies discussed are corpus-based, quantitative, cross-generic, and cross-disciplinary, and the units of analysis are pre-determined lists of lexical and grammatical items. One of the great advantages of these methods is that the retrieval process can be highly computerised, allowing for frequency and distribution patterns analysis across large data sets and quick comparisons between different genres, registers, and usage contexts (Ädel & Mauranen, 2010). This, however, shows a strong dependence on linguistic form. It presupposes that the general purpose of every form found will remain constant, and it implies that objects that are not on the list will not be recorded. However, within discourse, each language sign may have more than one purpose, which will likely be omitted by such methods.

This could result in confusing, subjective, and even incorrect interpretation, classification, and categorisation, which could introduce biases or inconsistencies in data analysis (Ädel & Mauranen, 2010).

The fuzziness and limitations of the categories in both Biber's and Hyland's taxonomies have also been scrutinised. Thompson (2008) argues that the term metadiscourse is inherently problematic as it is overly inclusive and covers a large spectrum of discourse elements, which can cause confusion and a lack of specificity when attempting to identify and classify metadiscursive aspects. Similarly, Hunston (2007:29) states that Biber's framework is "limited in the amount of detail it incorporates" because it "examines only one kind of stance meaning, thereby conflating a large number of different meanings in a single grouping", and it does not distinguish between different genres. As Gray and Biber (2014:242) admit, when trying to extend the study of stance with additional lexicogrammatical structures, "the major challenge ... [is] deciding how to operationalise the construct of 'stance' itself." Besides, Biber and Finegan's earlier finding of academic texts as 'faceless' has not remained unquestioned. Researchers have argued that academic writing should not be characterised as "objective, faceless and impersonal" (Hyland 2005: 173). Instead, it should be seen as persuasive, where the writer's purpose is "to persuade the academic community to accept the new knowledge claims" (Hunston 1994: 192).

3.2.3 EVALUATION

Thompson's and Hunston's (2000) work on evaluation challenges the methodologies used by the previously discussed frameworks by suggesting that evaluative resources

cannot always be reliably identified with corpus tools as they go beyond explicit linguistic signals and can only emerge from a clause-by-clause analysis and a fine-grained description.

The term evaluation itself originates in the highly influential works of Hunston (1994) and Hunston and Thompson (2000). They define evaluation as “the broad cover term for the expression of the speaker or writer’s attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities of propositions that he or she is talking about” (Hunston & Thompson, 2000:5). Unlike the definitions we saw earlier, evaluation here is a broad term concerned with the interpersonal uses of language. It focuses on the writers’ or speakers’ subjective presence in the discourse to convey attitude to both those they address and the properties they discuss (Hyland & Diani, 2009: 4) and includes notions such as stance, attitude, and subjectivity (Thompson and Hunston 2000: 21–22). From this perspective, stance is a more abstract concept, while evaluation includes the “actual verbal realisation or manifestation of the stance” (Alba-Juez & Thompson, 2014: 10).

According to Thompson and Hunston (2000: 6), evaluation has three main functions: 1) to express the speakers’ opinion, which can reflect their value system; 2) to construct and maintain social relations; and 3) to organise the discourse. ‘To express the speaker’s opinion’ is to convey what the speakers or writers think or how they feel about something, and it is the most obvious function of evaluation. Hunston and Thompson identify four parameters of evaluation: *good*, *bad*, *certainty*, *expectedness*, and *importance*. The first parameter, *good-bad*, depends on the value system of the

individual or the social group and is the more abstract and the broadest one. *Certainty* has to do with how convinced the speaker is of the information (indicated, for example, by modal auxiliaries); *expectedness*, reveals how obvious a piece of information is to the reader, and *importance* relates to the discourse itself that has to be evaluated as significant.

For Hunston, evaluation functions on two planes. She aligns herself with Sinclair's (1991) distinction between interactive and autonomous planes of discourse and parallels these to the roles of the writer and the reader. That is, in the interactive plane (writer-reader), "the writer is a text-constructor, and the reader is informed of the structure of the text," whereas in the autonomous plane (topic), "the writer is the informer, and the reader is informed of the content of the text" (Hunston, 2000:178). Thus, as she points out, the key difference between the two planes lies in what is being evaluated, that is, "a discourse act in the discourse itself (interactive) or something else (autonomous)," or to put it simply, the construction of the text (interactive plane), or its content (autonomous plane). The two planes function "simultaneously, although some sentences draw attention to their status on the interactive plane more explicitly than others" (Hunston, 2000: 183).

Hunston (2011:21) proposes a three-move evaluative act of *status*, *value*, and *relevance*, all happening simultaneously in a text, and are identified as the three functions of evaluation. *Status* relates to the identification and classification of an object to be evaluated, and the analysis is basically clause-based. In fact, for Hunston, modality and *status* are the same (Hunston, 2011:42-43). *Value* concerns ascribing

value to that object, while *Relevance* is concerned with identifying the significance of the information, and it organises text patterns. For Hunston, “every act of evaluation expresses a communal value-system, and every act of evaluation goes toward building up that value-system” (Thompson and Hunston 2000: 6).

Unlike the previously discussed frameworks, Hunston’s work “is bottom-up and based on the investigation of individual texts” (Hunston, 2011:22). As she explains, evaluative meanings are highly context-dependent and often implicit and cumulative and are construed at the clausal, rather than at the usual lexical level (Hunston, 2000). She notes that evaluative meanings go beyond explicit linguistic signals and suggests that the evaluative quality of a text can only emerge from a clause-by-clause analysis and a fine-grained description. Despite being conveyed both lexically and grammatically by a wide range of lexical and syntactical devices (Thompson & Hunston, 2000), evaluative meanings cannot always be reliably identified with corpus tools like concordance lines (Hunston, 2011). Although Hunston did propose a limited taxonomy of the value meanings found in scientific research articles, she did not “extrapolate from these individual instances to a general taxonomy of attitudinal meanings” (ibid, p. 22).

Hunston’s framework was initially based on experimental research articles and could be challenging to apply to student writing (Wu, 2005:231), nevertheless, Wu applied the framework of *status* and *certainty* on high and low-graded English language and undergraduate geography essays and found that:

- Regarding status, the stronger and weaker writers in both data sets significantly differ in their use of statement types.

- In English essays, the weaker scripts consist of a higher frequency of *fact* than the stronger ones, i.e., a higher level of assertiveness.
- The weaker geography scripts have a higher frequency of statements of *fact*.
- Significant differences exist in the certainty levels among the stronger and weaker geography scripts but not in the English ones.

Nonetheless, Hunston's work on pattern grammar and phraseology (Hunston & Francis, 2000) has inspired research in both scientific and student writing. Pattern is defined as "a series of elements, which may be a specific word (often a preposition) or a group or clause type (e.g., noun phrase, that-clause)" (Hunston, 2011: 122). The essence of pattern grammar is "that lexis and grammar are inseparable" and that the meaning is found "in phrases rather than in words" (Hunston, 2011:123).

The importance of pattern to evaluative meaning is best demonstrated in the case of adjectives, which relate to resources of Affect, Judgment and Appreciation of the appraisal framework (Hunston, 2011:130). Along with adjectives and nouns, which are the most frequent parts of speech in academic written registers (Biber, 2006: 47–8), modals and complement clauses have all been well explored by some influential researchers in this field (e.g., Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Englebretson, 2007). The use of reporting clauses in citations has also been widely investigated, with several studies explicitly focusing on reporting verbs (e.g., Hunston, 1993; Francis, Hunston, & Manning, 1996; Charles, 2006). For instance, early work by Francis, Hunston, and Manning (1996) examined the verb patterns *V that* (e.g. *Skinner argues that*), and *it be V-ed that* (e.g., *It has been reported that*) and their associated phraseology. Charles

(2006) analysed the reporting verbs on two corpora of theses written by native speakers in politics/international relations and materials science and found that the most frequent verb group is *argue*, and the most frequent tense is present (e.g., *Skinner argues that*). In materials science, however, there are almost as many instances of the *find/show* verb group (e.g., *show, find, observe*), and these occur predominantly in the past tense (e.g., *Sun (1990) showed that*).

3.3 LINKS TO APPRAISAL

Before I transition to the next section on studies applying the Engagement system, I would like to explore the similarities and differences between the previously reviewed frameworks and the principles of the appraisal theory and Engagement.

As already discussed in section 2.7, the appraisal framework extends the SFL model to provide a more nuanced analysis of evaluative language. It offers a systematic approach to understanding how writers express positive and negative assessments, negotiate these assessments with their audience, and position themselves within the discourse through Attitude, Engagement and Graduation. Appraisal focuses on meanings in context and the rhetorical effects rather than grammatical forms (Martin & White, 2005: 94). It is related to work on evaluation in other models, especially the ones discussed above, as it brings together a variety of lexical and grammatical locutions concerning writer positioning in the discourse and the backdrop of alternative opinions; however, it adopts “more of a separating approach to evaluation” (Martin & White, 2005: 40).

Although appraisal is most closely related to the concept of stance, as developed by Biber and his colleagues (e.g. Conrad & Biber 2000), the two differ in scope and approach. While stance tends to focus more narrowly on grammatical forms, appraisal encompasses a broader range of linguistic resources, including both lexical and grammatical elements, to analyse evaluative meanings in context. Additionally, appraisal goes beyond merely addressing the writer's stance to explore a wider spectrum of evaluative dimensions within the Attitude dimension, including Affect, Judgment and Appreciation (ibid).

In appraisal theory, concepts, and meanings of hedging (Hyland 2005), epistemic stance (Conrad & Biber, 2000), and evidentiality (Chafe, 1986) are organised into two sets of resources. The first relates to Attribution under the Engagement system, and the other to Graduation. Engagement brings together wordings which have traditionally been considered under headings such as “modality, polarity, evidentiality, intensification, attribution, concession, and consequentiality” (Martin & White, 2005:94), while Graduation includes meanings that have been labelled elsewhere as ‘hedges’, ‘downtoners’, ‘boosters’ and ‘intensifiers,’ e.g., *very, slightly, rather, and sort of/kind of* and so on (ibid).

Although both the Appraisal framework and Hunston's framework address how evaluative language functions within interaction, they approach it from different angles. In a sense, the Attitude dimension of the appraisal framework relates to Hunston's evaluation of the autonomous plane as they are both concerned with entities in the world and how these entities are assessed (Hunston, 2000:176) and they both deal

with evaluations that may be implicit and context dependent. It can be argued that Engagement relates to Hunston's interactive plane as both focus on the explicit, interpersonal dynamics of evaluation in interaction.

A notable difference is that in Hunston's framework, evaluation is assessed along the good-bad cline. This means that the focus is more on the value judgement, and to what extent it fits on the good and bad scale, with less emphasis on the types or dimensions of evaluation. In appraisal, on the other hand, evaluation is assessed along the positive-negative parameter, which is more complex and detailed, and incorporates a wider range of evaluations. It accounts not just for whether something is positive or negative, but also feelings (Affect), moral judgements (Judgment), and qualities (Appreciation), through the broad systems of Attitude, Engagement and Graduation. It, thus, allows for more complex and multi-dimensional analysis of evaluation compared to the simpler binary distinction between good and bad scale of Hunston's framework.

A further similarity of Hunston's work with the appraisal framework is that texts belonging to the same genre are characterised by their value systems. Lexicogrammatically, most of the language resources involved in *status* (e.g., modal auxiliaries, nouns and adverbs, it-structures, and structures of attribution) are accounted for under the heading of Engagement (Hunston, 2011:42-43).

3.4 RESEARCH ON APPRAISAL

Studies applying the appraisal framework have mostly investigated interpersonal values and dialogic language in published research articles, while student writing has been studied from an Attitude perspective.

Originally, the appraisal framework was concerned with Affect in narrative (e.g. Martin & Plum 1997), but later work moved beyond Affect to include resources for judging behaviour and appreciating things associated with different voices in the media discourse (e.g., Iedema, Feez & White 1994, Iedema 1995; White, 1998), the discourse of history (Coffin, 2004) and the print media (e.g., Bednarek 2006; Coffin and O'Halloran 2005, 2006). Research since then has extended to a variety of genres, including infant and children language development (Painter, 2003), evaluations by women and men on the experience of childbirth (Page, 2003), blurbs used for TV advertising (Bednarek, 2014), institutional discourse (Fuoli, 2012; Tupala, 2019), dentistry research reports (Crosthwaite, Cheung, & Jiang, 2017), book reviews (Oliver, 2015), consumer reviews (Carretero, & Taboada, 2014), TED.com presentations (Drasovean, & Tagg, 2015) and the language of wine appreciation (Hommerberg & Don, 2015) to name but a few.

A new line of inquiry towards academic discourse was initiated by Hood's (2004) work on undergraduate dissertations and published research papers. Following her lead, a wealth of appraisal studies on academic discourse followed, and other researchers applied the appraisal framework in various academic genres. In this section, I will

briefly review some of the most representative studies applying the appraisal theory in various academic genres and the main findings that are deemed relevant to this thesis.

In a secondary school setting, scholars have examined history writing (Coffin, 2004), English examinations (Rothery & Stenglin, 2000), narratives (Macken-Horarik, 2003), and the development in adolescent academic writing (Derewianka, 2007). Regarding Attitude, Hood (2004, 2010) studied the evaluative stance in undergraduate dissertation introductions of written in English as a second language and the introductory sections of published research papers. She found that

- Both published and student undergraduate dissertation writers prefer to use more Appreciation resources than Affect or Judgment resources (Hood, 2004).
- Academic writers in social sciences and humanities, i.e., education and applied linguistics, evaluate the object of study explicitly but other research implicitly (Hood, 2010).
- Undergraduate student writers tend to use more Affect and Judgment resources than published writers (Hood, 2004).

Other studies on pre-university and adolescent writing report that

- Pre-university high-scoring and low-scoring essays differ in the application of Engagement, Attitude, and Graduation resources, with the high-scoring writers using richer Engagement and Attitude resources to enhance their arguments (Cheung & Low, 2019).
- Adolescent history students expand their interpersonal choices as they adapt to the shared value system and institutionalised norms of secondary school (Derewianka, 2007).

Studies on university student writing include studies that have applied the whole framework or parts of it. Contrastive studies of high and low-graded essays and cross-cultural variations of academic writers' evaluation have been extensively explored. Some of these studies apply the Attitude and Graduation systems of appraisal to university student writing (essays), and their main findings are listed below.

- Evaluative linguistic choices made by writers of high-rated and low-rated essays are quite similar (Wu & Allison, 2003).
- High-rated essay writers successfully employ appraisal values to bring the author's voice to the fore and position readers, thus building strong persuasion (Liu, 2013).
- High-graded essays employ multiple attitude-invoking judgment strategies more frequently and skilfully (Lee, 2008).
- Successful writers strongly prefer Appreciation: Valuation resources, while less successful writers fail to display the prosodic pattern of the Valuation. (Lee, 2015).
- Chinese and American college students employ appraisal resources differently in argumentative writing, except for Affect resources (Yang, 2016).
- English and Chinese essays exhibit roughly similar patterns of Appreciation items but apparent differences in Affect and Judgement resources (Liu & Thompson, 2009).

Although some of these findings seem contradictory, samples used by the above researchers vary considerably from a couple of texts (Liu, 2013) to larger corpora, for instance, Yang's (2016) study, which used 64 essays. This inconsistency may also be

due to the methods applied to analyse appraisal. It might reflect the criticisms that the Attitude system has attracted by many scholars regarding its 'fuzzy' categories and how appraisal is expressed (inscribed vs evoked). (e.g., Bednarek, 2006; Thompson, 2014; Millar & Hunston 2015; Fuoli, 2018). Similar concerns and criticisms relating to the Engagement framework have also been raised and will be considered in chapters 4 and 6.

Two influential studies on disciplinary differences and level progression include Hewing's (2004) and Coffin's (2004, 2006) works. Drawing on SFL and Halliday's theme analysis, Hewings (2004) investigated writing by first and third-year undergraduate students and sought to identify discipline-specific characteristics in the field of geography. She found that geography essays showed a shift in rhetorical focus from the first to the third year. First-year students focused on demonstrating an understanding of basic content, while third-year students engaged more with disciplinary arguments, making linguistic choices which highlighted the evaluation and synthesis of theories and research (ibid, p.148).

Coffin (2004, 2006) investigated how upper secondary school history students projected their voices. She argued that, depending on the appraisal choices activated in the texts, there are three distinct voices in school history discourse, termed as 'recorder,' 'interpreter' and 'adjudicator,' revealing a developmental path. Writers start by simply observing and recording facts ('reporter' voice), move on to analysing them ('interpreter' voice) and finally to negotiating solidarity with the reader ('adjudicator'

voice) through the frequent use of discursial resources such as attributions, concessions, and counters.

3.5 STUDIES ON ENGAGEMENT

The importance of the Engagement resources in the persuasiveness of an essay and successful argumentative writing is well justified in the literature. In fact, it has been argued that the Engagement system plays a more pivotal role than Attitude in the persuasive efficacy of discussion (Swain, 2010). Although it has been pointed out that the use of such resources “contribute to, but do not actually determine, the overall success of an essay within an institutional context” (Wu & Allison, 2003: 84), including and engaging with multiple voices in academic writing is vital to constructing an authoritative voice (Brooke, 2014), and contribute to the quality of the writing. Besides, students who avoid writer responsibility are “unable to fully participate in the academic dialogue on [their] own behalf and undercut [their] textual authority” (Tang, 2009:185).

The Engagement framework has been studied either as part of the whole appraisal framework or in its own right. This may be not only because it plays a vital role in the construction of stance and argumentation in the text (Swain, 2007), but also because it relies on a comparatively more restricted, and easily identifiable set of resources (Swain, 2010).

Researchers who have investigated dialogistic positioning in educational settings under the Engagement framework have concentrated on the published research article (e.g., Hu and Wang, 2014; Fryer, 2019), doctoral theses (e.g. Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011), student blogs (Ryshina-Pankova, 2014) and IELTS writing (Coffin & Hewings, 2004). Increasingly, studies have applied the Engagement framework to examine how university learners integrate and engage with different external voices. Within this domain, studies have compared the writing of high and low graded tertiary level essays (e.g., Wu, 2007; Swain, 2007, 2010; Cominos, 2011) and the writing of native English-speaking students and non-native English-speaking students (e.g., Schleppegrell, 2004; Xiang & Xiao, 2009; Lancaster, 2011; Yang, 2016; Lam & Crosthwaite, 2018). Most of these studies have concentrated on one or more disciplines with the primary aim of unfolding the traits of a 'good' essay.

In what follows, I will briefly summarise the main findings of some of these works. I will then review in more detail some of the studies that have applied the Engagement framework and are particularly relevant to the current project.

3.5.1 STUDIES ON HIGH AND LOW-GRADED ESSAYS

One of the first studies that investigated the Engagement framework to examine the interactive quality of student writing was Wu's (2007) analysis of geography essays. She analysed 27 first-year high and low-rated argumentative essays on a specific topic, of about 2000 words each, written by non-native English speakers at the National University of Singapore. Her findings revealed two main patterns. Low-rated texts exhibited high frequencies of monoglossic statements, while high-graded essays were

more dialogically expansive, engaging with other sources by attributing ideas to others. Both sets of essays used contractive resources, but the high-rated script writers used Disclaim: Counter, Disclaim: Deny as well as Proclaim: Endorse markers more frequently. While closing down the dialogic space, high-rated writers usually addressed a claim from others and then countered it. With such choices, Wu concluded, students managed to “develop a contrastive stance strategically to bring out potential contradictions in presenting evidence.” (Wu, 2007:267). The low-rated script writers, on the other hand, used Proclaim: Pronounce much more frequently, showing “a stronger tendency to insist on the validity of [their] proposition” (ibid, p. 267).

Although in her paper, Wu discusses the marking process of the texts and the validation of her findings with intrarater analysis, the procedure of how the analysis was conducted is unaccounted for. In her results section, she presents the frequency of various Engagement resources in the two sets of scripts, but no explicit mention of the coding process is reported. Nevertheless, her study is cited extensively and has somehow marked the beginning of the scholars’ interest in applying the Engagement system in student writing. Since its publication, many studies have shifted attention towards interpersonal positioning in student writing, applying the Engagement category in different contexts but mostly comparing high and low-graded essays.

In an Italian context, Swain (2010) conducted an analysis of Attitude and Engagement of discussion essays written under exam conditions by EFL first-year undergraduate students of international relations at Trieste University. Her corpus included 13 high and 13 lower-scoring essays, and her analysis was both quantitative and qualitative.

She reports on the frequency of the Engagement categories in the corpus and the differences between high-scoring and low-scoring essays concerning their use of Engagement resources, with further detailed and in-depth analysis for each one of the texts. Her findings reinforce Wu's ones in that less successful essay writers were more likely to contract the dialogic space, while the 'good' essays tended to deploy a fuller range of Engagement resources. The latter skilfully used "to orchestrate the play of voices around propositions" (Swain, 2010: 313) by either Entertaining these or Attributing them to external sources, and this "allowed [them] to invoke more effectively a reader-in-the-text".

Drawing on the system of Engagement, Miller, Mitchell, and Pessoa (2014) also investigated differences between higher-graded and lower-rated essays in the history writing of 14 students in a university in the Middle East. Their results show that while both sets of essays employed some of the same moves, the higher-graded essays did so "in a way that consistently furthered an argument" (ibid, p. 107). In addition, the higher-graded essays seemed to use Engagement resources more frequently to incorporate and interpret sources through the use of Attribute and Endorse, as well as Concur: Concede and Counter moves.

Lastly, Lancaster (2014) compared high- and low-scoring advanced-level undergraduate economics essays from an unspecified American university. He examined one small corpus of 10 graded essays for both qualitative and quantitative analysis and a larger one of 92 essays for concordance analysis, coupled with interviews with the professor and graduate student instructor. Although Lancaster uses

the term stance, he does draw on appraisal theory to analyse the use of Engagement dialogic positioning in these papers. He found that the most frequently used resources are Entertain and Disclaim: Counter. Unlike the above-discussed studies, in his sample, the high-rated essays showed greater occurrences of Contracting options than the low-rated ones. He explains that these counters give voice to an alternative view, which is then countered, giving the sense that the writer takes other views seriously, thus creating a “critically distant stance” (Lancaster 2014:39). Another significant difference was that the high-rated essays used evidence-based Attribution (e.g. *the research suggests*). In contrast, the lower-rated ones resulted in more personal opinions or modal expressions (e.g. *it may be*) and evidentials, without necessarily meaning that the high-rated essay writers did more research.

In sum, most studies that analysed high and low-graded essays agree that

- Low-graded essays
 - resort more often to monoglossic resources and bare assertions, facts, personal opinions, and direct quotes
 - tend to restrict the dialogic space with high use of Contract resources such as Counter and Pronounce

- High-graded essays
 - use a wider range of Engagement resources
 - are more dialogically expansive
 - use a variety of Attribution resources and
 - integrate external voices into their scripts more skilfully

3.5.2 STUDIES ON WRITERS' FIRST LANGUAGE

A second group of studies that have applied the Engagement system to undergraduate student writing include those that have either compared native and non-native student writing or concentrated on learners' first language other than English. Most essays in this group come from students studying in EAP programmes (e.g. Isaac, 2012; Brooke, 2014) or an English major course (Wu & Allison, 2003; Liu, 2013; Yang, 2016). For instance, Xiang and Xiao (2009) analysed 30 argumentative essays from the Spoken and Written Corpus of Chinese Learners (SWECCCL) and the Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays (LOCNESS), and Yang (2016) compared Chinese and American writers. Li and Wharton (2012) examined the writing in English of undergraduate Chinese native speakers studying in China and the UK, and Brooke (2014) analysed essays in a Singaporean context. Most of these studies seem to agree that English L1 scripts tend to use fewer assertions and Proclaim features but more Counter and Endorse values. Generally, British students' texts were far more heteroglossic than those produced by non-native English speakers. Finally, in her doctoral dissertation, Cominos (2011) conducted a qualitative examination of dialogic positioning within an essay by a native-speaker student. She observed a greater prevalence of heteroglossic expressions in the Discussion section compared to the Introduction and Conclusion sections, where monoglossic or factual statements were more common.

3.5.3 STUDIES ON LEVEL AND DISCIPLINES

Research applying the Engagement system to explore disciplinary and level variations of undergraduate essays is limited. The only study, to my knowledge, which has

applied the Engagement framework to analyse student tertiary-level writing is by Pessoa, Miller, and Gatti (2013). This is a four-year longitudinal study of four case studies of 92 multilingual undergraduate business administration and information systems students at an English-medium university in Qatar. In the four case studies they examined, they noticed that progressively students' writing became more academic, analytical, and better organised. Drawing on the same data, Mitchell, Miller and Pessoa (2016) concentrated on the analysis of argumentative history essays written by one student over a one-semester course. They examined the changes in her use of Engagement resources to support her argument and found that the ways in which the student used such resources to incorporate sources and manage alternative voices improved over the course of the semester. Their findings suggest that students enter the university with different schooling experiences that impact their rate of development. They concluded that not only Engagement resources are valued, but students can improve in their use of these resources, even during a one-semester course.

Similarly, there seem to be limited studies that have analysed Engagement resources in undergraduate essays focusing on disciplinary variations. Unlike research drawing on Biber's stance taxonomy and Hyland's metadiscourse framework, no study, to my knowledge, has applied the Engagement framework to account for more than two disciplines or a disciplinary group at one time in one single study. The existing studies have mostly looked at a single discipline, such as world history (Miller et al., 2014), geography (Wu, 2007), economics (Lancaster, 2014), and international relations

(Swain, 2010), and the reported results emphasise the trends in the deployment of the Engagement resources in the specific discipline.

3.6 ESTABLISHING THE GAP

Despite the fact that the Engagement framework has been increasingly used in academic writing research, there are several observations we can make about the studies presented above. With reference to the texts chosen for analysis, the majority of the studies have exclusively analysed texts written by non-native English speakers or in contrast with native English speakers. Most of the studies concern students from Asia (Liu, 2013; Brooke, 2014; Wu, 2014; Lee, 2015), Italy (Swain, 2007, 2010), or the Middle East (Miller et al., 2014) and have mostly ignored English L1 student writers. Although such studies are highly valued as they contribute to the attempt to assist non-native speakers in improving their writing skills, research suggests (Romer, 2009; Zhao, 2017) that in academic writing, it is not the 'nativeness' aspect that is of importance but the 'expertise' of the writer, since both native and non-native students face the same difficulties when entering university. Existing studies on student writing neglect to consider that apart from exhibiting content knowledge and maintaining coherence in a text, first-year undergraduate L1 English writers are also learning how to write academically, synthesise information, support their arguments with evidence from the literature, express stance and evaluation, and project their voice in their essays. As Staples and Reppen (2016: 18) put it, "[l]ittle is known about the language produced by writers in their first-year writing courses, and how it might differ across L1 background, [and] across various genres".

What is a determining factor, however, in academic writers' rhetorical choices is the discipline they are writing for. There is a great deal of evidence in the literature (Hyland, 2000; Hood, 2004; Lancaster, 2011; Staples et al., 2016; Gardner, Nesi, & Biber, 2019) suggesting that the use of interpersonal resources in argumentative writing is affected by the discipline and that each discipline has its own conventions of academic writing (Thompson, 2001; Hyland, 2017). Yet, this is an area that has not received adequate attention in the research presented above. This limitation arises for several reasons. Firstly, as we have already seen, many studies aim to analyse differences in writing quality between low-graded and high-graded essays or between essays written by native English speakers and those by non-native English speakers. These comparisons often require significant analysis, making it challenging to include more than two disciplines or disciplinary groups in a single study. Secondly, the size of the samples used in these studies plays a crucial role. Including multiple disciplines or disciplinary groups within a single study would require larger sample sizes to provide more reliable and generalisable results. Hence, disciplinary differences are better and more accurately revealed via large corpus studies and quantitative methods. This may be the reason why disciplinary differences in academic writing have been extensively studied under Hyland's metadiscourse taxonomy or Biber's dimensions of stance using corpus linguistics methods and multifactor analysis.

A further point to consider is that most of the studies applying the Engagement framework in the undergraduate essay focus on comparing high and low-graded essays, and this proves beneficial when it comes to applying and teaching evaluative resources to undergraduate students. They have failed, though, to account for any

variations across the levels of study, with the exception of Miller et al. (2014), who urge for more similar studies. Painter (2003:207), among others, places interpersonal meaning at the heart of language development, and there is obviously a need for research on the progression of student writing from the time they enter the university to their graduation and any variations in the use of Engagement resources in student writing across the undergraduate levels.

Finally, methodologically, these studies share some commonalities. The majority of them are small-scale studies based on a small number of student texts (Swain, 2007; Lee, 2008). Some of them are qualitative only (e.g. Isaac, 2012), others quantitative only (e.g. Brooke, 2014), and a few use mixed methods (e.g. Lancaster, 2014). Additionally, although most researchers report on the context of their study, the participants, and the data collection procedures, they do not provide a detailed record of the annotation procedure, particularly the identification and classification process of the appraisal resources they examine. However, this is a significant challenge in the application of the appraisal framework, and it must be addressed to ensure that the analysis is “reliable, replicable and transparent” (Fuoli, 2018: 229).

Drawing on the discussion above, it is clear that although the Engagement framework has been increasingly applied to investigate the undergraduate essay, some areas still seek the researchers’ attention. The current research attempts to bridge these gaps by investigating the differences in the use of Engagement resources in the essays employed by English L1 writers at the three undergraduate levels and across various disciplines in the Arts and Humanities.

The first neglected area this research plans to address is to examine undergraduate essays written by English L1 writers only. There are a number of reasons for this decision. Firstly, as it has already been mentioned, most research on the essay and undergraduate writing has neglected English L1 writers. However, such writers typically adhere to standardised rules and conventions of English grammar and syntax. This consistency can facilitate the analysis of essays without additionally complicating the analysis from variations related to language proficiency. Hence, studying English L1 scripts allows us to establish a baseline for comparison, which can provide insights into the impact of language proficiency on linguistic choices and strategies. Furthermore, limiting the scope to essays by English first language writers allows us to delve deeper into specific aspects of resources within a more homogeneous sample, which can yield more rigorous findings and interpretations. While studying essays from writers of diverse linguistic backgrounds is valuable for understanding the broader landscape of student academic writing, beginning with essays by English L1 writers can provide a solid foundation for subsequent comparative analyses and explorations into cross-cultural variations.

To address these gaps, this research will extend the analysis across the three undergraduate levels and the seven disciplines of the Arts and Humanities disciplinary group. Finally, by using both semi-manual annotation of a small sample of essays and further statistical analysis of a larger corpus of essays, this project also wishes to contribute to the existing volume of research in the area. The detailed research design and methods applied in this project are explained in the next chapter.

4 METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The study aims to investigate and analyse the distribution of Engagement resources in a corpus of forty-two undergraduate essays written by English L1 in the Arts and Humanities drawn from the BAWE corpus. It further intends to investigate the differences in the frequencies and use of dialogic Engagement in academic writing from the first to final year, and among the seven disciplines within the Arts and Humanities disciplinary group. Methodologically, the study draws on pragmatics and discourse analysis. It combines qualitative data analysis, semi-manual annotation, and corpus linguistics methods.

This chapter discusses the methodology and research design of the study. It will start by reviewing the methodological approaches in studying evaluation and will then consider the challenges faced during the annotation process. The selection of the corpus, the annotation process, the assessment of reliability and the pilot study leading to the annotation manual are all considered in detail. The chapter closes with a brief overview of the corpus study.

4.2 METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES IN STUDYING EVALUATIVE LANGUAGE

Evaluative language in academic writing has been approached from various perspectives, as we have already seen, both theoretically and methodologically. Corpus studies, by default (Aijmer, 2018; O’Keeffe, 2018), begin with forms and their frequencies and work towards a functional analysis of these forms. This form-to-function approach allows for the investigation of large corpora and enables the examination of language patterns on a larger scale, identifying trends and variations in language usage across different texts and contexts. A great deal of research in the area comes from researchers who work under the headings of stance and metadiscourse, applying Biber’s or Hyland’s taxonomies to classify linguistic markers into preset categories, assuming that all the items on their lists have only one meaning (e.g., Biber & Finegan, 1989; Conrad & Biber, 2000; Hyland, 2005; Staples et al., 2016; Gardner, Nesi & Biber, 2019). They use computer-assisted methods to annotate and code evaluative language features and computational tools and statistical techniques to analyse large corpora of academic texts concurrently.

Pragmatics researchers usually work in the opposite direction. They begin with a particular pragmatic purpose and proceed to investigate the forms that are often used (function-to-form) by use of “carefully designed elicitation tasks” (O’Keeffe, 2018:587). The methodology is usually qualitative and includes discourse analysis, case studies, and ethnography. Text analysis involves manual annotation and in-depth analysis of the specific pragmatic or discursive phenomenon rather than a fixed list of lexicogrammatical units. For large-scale textual data, corpus linguistic methods are used to identify patterns, frequencies, and distributions of pragmatic features and

phenomena across different genres, registers, and languages. However, research on pragmatics has shifted recently from a purely form-to-function perspective to function-to-form one or the combination of the two (Rühlemann & Aijmer, 2015; Yu et al., 2024).

Essentially, there is a trade-off between the volume of analysis that can be achieved with corpus linguistics and the richness of analysis through discourse analysis (in this case, annotation of small samples of writing) (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004: 49). The two approaches do not represent 'a strict dichotomy' (Bednarek, 2009:22), and despite their differences, they have 'much in common' (Thompson & Hunston 2006) and can 'complement each other' (Hunston, 2013:618). Matthiessen (2006:113) argues that a bottom-up approach "only allows us to see a relatively small part of what can be analysed manually 'from above'." Similarly, Hunston states that although "a corpus approach can perform a function in quantifying expressions and in providing the basis for comparisons" [...], "it cannot [...] replicate the kinds of analysis performed by [...] Martin and White." (Hunston 2011: 24). There is a consensus, therefore, among researchers that a qualitative approach should be complemented by a quantitative approach, "which would focus on fewer variables across a corpus of texts" (Martin and White, 2005: 260).

Annotating a small sample of essays allows for in-depth analysis of the texts, while quantitative analysis of the corpus ensures representativeness, as corpora are designed to capture the variety of language usage (Hunston, 2002). Within the SFL traditions, Matthiessen (2006) has adopted a two-pronged approach which involves both a manual analysis of small samples and an automated analysis of large corpora.

Extending Matthiessen's approach, Bednarek (2009) proposes a 'three-pronged approach' which involves a large-scale computerised corpus analysis, a semi-automated small-scale corpus analysis, and small-scale qualitative case studies. As McEnery and Wilson (1993: 63) point out, a combined approach can not only provide greater richness and precision but also provide statistically reliable and relatively generalisable results. By integrating both qualitative and quantitative data and methods, we can triangulate findings, enhance the validity of the results, and explore research questions from multiple perspectives (e.g., Thompson, 2001; Hyland, 2005; Hu, 2005).

Consistent with this approach, my study employs a mixed methods approach by integrating qualitative and quantitative techniques to examine the use of Engagement in essays. This allows us to explore the complex relationships between form and function, achieving a more holistic understanding of the discourse. Starting with a function-to-form approach with the annotation of a small sample of essays, the study moves on to analyse the functions of these forms in a larger corpus of essays (Chapter 8). This form-to-function approach, Aijmer (2018) observes, allows for the precise study of forms in terms of frequency, distribution, positions, and collocations with various functions. By combining both approaches, I am adopting a comprehensive method to analyse the phenomenon from multiple angles, enhancing the validity and depth of the study. The steps followed in this research process are depicted in Figure 4.1 and described in the remaining parts of this section.

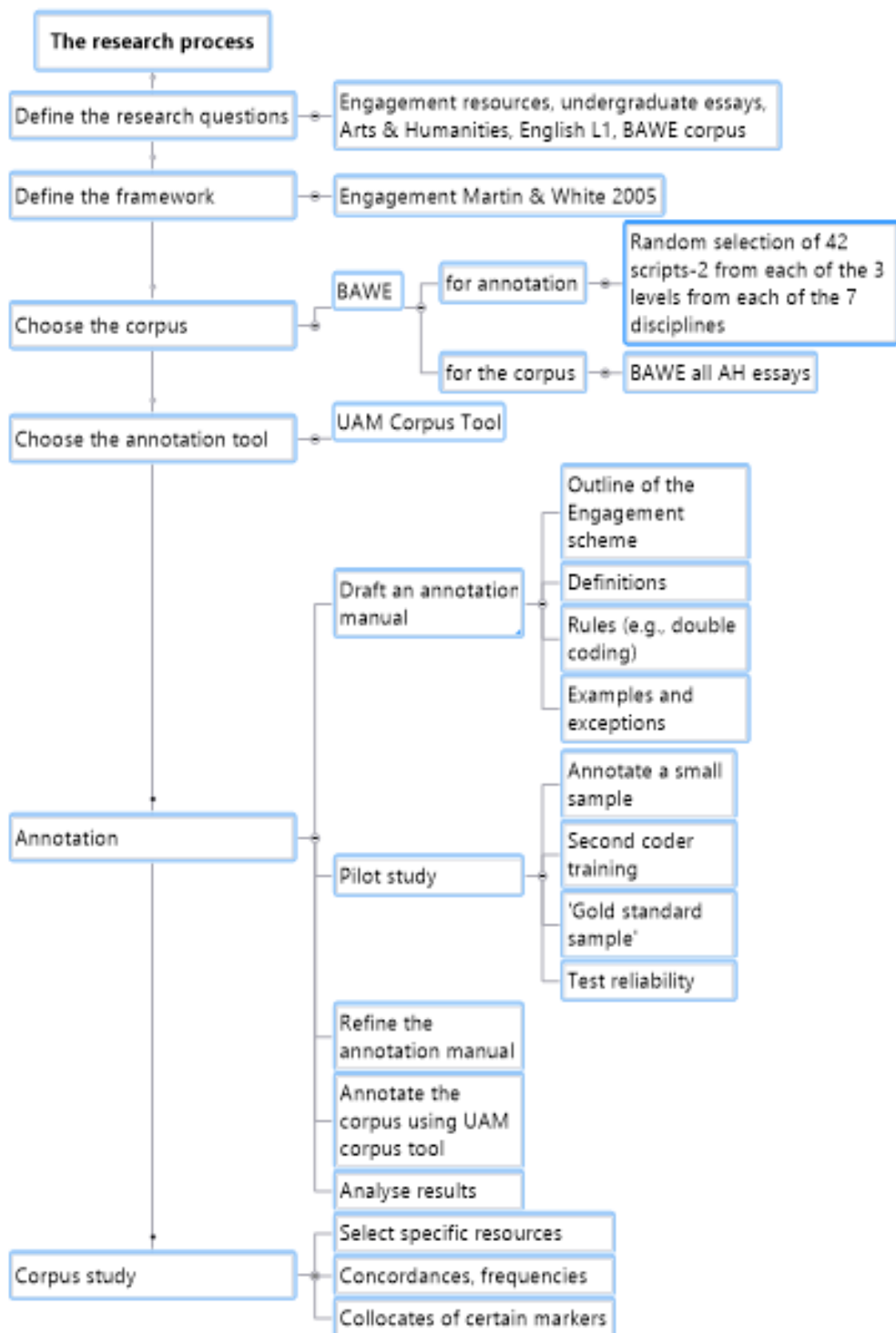


Figure 4.1 The research process step-by-step

4.3 CHALLENGES IN THE ANNOTATION PROCESS

The most challenging, time-consuming, and laborious part of this project was to identify, classify and annotate the various semantic features under the prescribed categories of the Engagement framework. Similar difficulties are reported by researchers working with the appraisal theory in particular and evaluative language in general (Thompson, 2008; Hunston, 2011; Macken-Horarik & Isaac, 2014; Hommerberg & Don, 2015; Fuoli, 2018). The following quote by Thompson (2008) succinctly summarises the issues in annotating appraisal and the steps researchers should take to address these.

APPRAISAL resources draw on a very wide range of structures, and, as Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) and others have pointed out, interpersonal meanings are inherently prosodic, running through the clause and the text in a cumulative fashion. A rigidly constituent-based analysis is therefore not appropriate, and overlaps, nesting, and ambiguity of evaluation are all to be expected. Nevertheless, I would argue strongly in favor of a recognition that it is important, as far as is practical, **to sharpen the definition of the categories**, and **to tether analyses of evaluation firmly to the wording selected** by the writer or speaker. Only by doing that can we avoid the charge that we are merely providing an idiosyncratic and impressionistic commentary on discourse rather than a replicable linguistic analysis. (Thompson, 2008:185) (emphasis added)

Although the appraisal theory provides a detailed framework for the analysis of evaluative strategies in texts, “[e]valuation in discourse is an elusive concept” (Mauranen & Bondi, 2003: 269). Its identification and coding of its different systems and subsystems are ‘a problematic’ task (Fuoli, 2018) and one which “many writers on the topic avoid [...] altogether” (Hunston, 2004:158). Evaluation can belong to any word class, which means that it is not possible to draw up exhaustive lists of evaluative forms (Hunston, 2011:13) and its interpretation is highly subjective. Researchers quite often

need to rely on their own knowledge, intuition, and interpretation to reach decisions on what constitutes an evaluative instance in a text. Thompson and Hunston (2006:3) also argue that one of the “aspects of SFL that can appear unappealing is the feeling that analyses have to be ‘shoehorned’ into the existing categories”. This relates to what Thompson (2014) calls the ‘Russian doll syndrome’ which describes situations in which an evaluative expression that instantiates one category might indirectly invoke further evaluations. Although in addressing this issue of many layers of analysis, specifically in Attitude and Graduation systems, Martin and White (2005:164) treat most of the coding choices made in the analyses “as self-evident and unproblematic” (Fuoli, 2018:3) suggesting that the decision should lie on where the focus is on the cline of instantiation.

More importantly, interpersonal meanings not only “spread out amorphously in the text” (Hunston, 1989:201) but their meaning is also “distributed like prosody throughout a continuous stretch of discourse” (Martin and White, 2005:19). This means that the boundaries of the researched items are often blurred as they may span multiple words (Fuoli & Hommerberg, 2015) making their detection difficult. What is more, one of the qualities of evaluation is that it is value-laden, which means that not all lexical items reflect a perception of evaluation (Hunston, 1989: 178) in every context. As Hunston has put it, some items are ‘instantially’ evaluative; that is, they “are evaluative only because the text itself sets them up to be” (Hunston, 1989:175). Similarly, Martin and White (2005:103) recognise that the function of certain Engagement expressions “may vary systematically under the influence of different co-textual conditions, and across registers, genres and discourse domains.” Likewise, Engagement features do not

always stand out so as to be picked up by a researcher. They are knitted within the discourse and often cannot be identified unless the surrounding context is explored. A further challenge of classifying Engagement resources is that each item may fall into more than one different subsystem of the framework depending on the context, which may call for double or multiple coding. In other cases, items may not fit in any of the categories of the model, so a modification of the initial framework is necessary (Macken-Horarik & Isaac, 2014). One of the choices Macken-Horarik and Isaac (2014:85) propose is to accept the mega-system, in this case Engagement, and then to extend the current sets of systems within it for a particular corpus. For identification purposes on a more practical level, another challenge relating to discourse and language analysis overall, and not solely to Engagement, is the semantic richness of English lexis. In what follows, I will expand on these areas and the steps taken to address them.

The first consideration to be addressed during the identification process relates to the polysemy of many linguistic markers and expressions. This is one of the limitations of the Engagement system and evaluative language framework in general, which restricts its application to being analysed solely through corpus methods. Deciding on the interpersonal function of a marker would mean considering the purpose of the specific word choice made in the specific discourse. In the current project, this task was sometimes straightforward, but in other cases, it was more complicated. The method used to address it was to determine whether the functionality of the resource performs a dialogistic effect within the discourse based on a context sensitive interpretation of the most plausible communicative intent; specifically, whether with the use of a

particular marker, the textual voice acts first and foremost to acknowledge, engage with and align itself with respect to positions which are in some way alternatives to that being advanced by the text (White, 2020: n.p.).

Let us consider the following cases of negation and modality to demonstrate this. Instances of *not* belong to the Disclaim: Deny subcategory. Negation “is a resource for introducing the alternative positive position into the dialogue, and hence acknowledging it, so as to reject it” (Martin & White 2005:118). However, not all negation forms perform a dialogic function. In many cases, “negation appears to perform an ‘objective/descriptive’ function, i.e. to simply reverse the polarity of a statement, rather than to reject an alternative viewpoint.” (Fuoli, 2018:236). The two examples (4.1 & 4.2) given by Fuoli (2018:237) from the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) and BP’s annual report, respectively, illustrate this.

4.1 For all practical purposes, wartime Washington was a segregated city. There were two school systems, separate and unequal. Restaurants for whites did **not** admit blacks, although blacks managed, or even owned, some white establishments.

4.2 We may **not** have communicated it enough at times, but yes, we get it. Our fundamental purpose is to create value for shareholders, but we also see ourselves as part of society, not apart from it.

While in extract 4.2 negation is used to perform a dialogic function and reject an alternative proposition, in example 4.1, *not* is simply employed to introduce or just state a negative reality or fact, to “reverse the polarity of a statement, rather than to reject an alternative viewpoint” (ibid, p. 236).

Most modal verbs also fall into these polysemantic categories, as most of them convey different meanings. Modal auxiliaries fall under the Entertain subsystem of Engagement through which the authorial voice presents “the proposition as but one of a range of possible positions” and “entertains or invokes [...] dialogic alternatives” (Martin & White, 2005: 98) to build power and solidarity relations with the reader, as in this example (4.3) from Martin and White (2005:106) which expresses probability.

4.3 In fact it **may** have been the most immature, irresponsible, disgraceful, and misleading address ever given by a British Prime Minister.

Obviously, meanings of *may* indicating polite requests, wishes or permission, as in “*You may leave now*” are excluded from the coding process.

Similar issues are encountered when coding certain opinion verbs which perform different functions. Compare, for instance, (1) *Webber believes*, (2) *It is believed*, (3) *Critics believe*, and (4) *I believe*. Martin and White (2005:98) list the verb *believe* and other opinion verbs under the Entertain system. Although in some contexts, as in example (4), *believe* clearly performs a dialogically expansive function of Entertain, in other cases, it is employed to Attribute the proposition to an external source whether explicitly stated as in (1) or not as in (2) and (3). Such variations intensify the need for in-depth reading of the text and its context and restrict list-making and the use of corpus tools to quantify Engagement resources.

Another problem that arises during the classification of Engagement units is that certain resources fall under multiple categories. For example, the locutions *undoubtedly* and *no doubt* are used to represent a proposition as highly valid and

generally agreed through which the textual voice rules out alternative positions, and they are placed under the Proclaim subsystem. At the same time, they also denote negation. For such cases, Macken-Horarik and Isaac (2014:88) propose double or multi-coding. Despite the disadvantages of this strategy (Fuoli 2018:238), I decided to apply double coding in similar cases, as it allows for both flexibility in analysis and detailed exploration of different perspectives within the data. It can also help clarify ambiguous or complex items by providing additional context or interpretation, highlighting the various dimensions of a particular item.

A further challenge relates to the blurred boundaries of Engagement items within the discourse among the different subcategories of the framework. This is what Fuoli (2018:235) calls “discontinuous evaluative expressions.” For instance, how do we classify the following? *Weber strongly argues*, or *Weber seems to argue*. In both cases, the Attribute feature *Weber argues* is interrupted by expressions that represent a different Engagement function, i.e. *strongly* [Attitude], *seems* [Entertain]. The literature suggests that the decision is rather subjective, and in cases of software-assisted annotation, it depends on whether the tool used supports “the coding of discontinuous text spans” (Fuoli, 2018:235). I have opted for separate coding where both resources convey Engagement. Hence, *Weber strongly argues* is annotated as Attribute, ignoring *strongly* or other Attitude or Graduation expressions, while *Weber seems to argue* is coded both as Attribute and *seems* separately as Entertain. Although, according to Fuoli (2018:235), separating the components “results in misleading duplication of the annotated instances”, not including them would also mean missing capturing the nuanced meaning of each component. The challenge, however, remained in finding a

balance between capturing detailed information and avoiding repetition in the coding process.

A final problem encountered while annotating Engagement is that certain words and phrases do not fit well in any of the categories in the taxonomy (Fuoli, 2018:238). This was more obvious in the Entertain subsystem, and it led to the expansion and refinement of certain subcategories of the original framework to account for the specific context of the current study (see chapter 6).

As it is apparent from the discussion so far, when annotating for Engagement, we need to go beyond the word, consider the semantic function of formulations within, across and often beyond the specific co-text, and devote time for a meticulous reading and analysis of the text. More importantly, the highly subjective nature (Fuoli & Hommerberg, 2015) of this method requires definite and explicit decisions on strategies to follow during the annotation process. The challenges discussed not only hinder the annotation process but also affect the reliability and replicability of the research. To avoid this, all choices made should be consistently applied and recorded throughout the analysis. The annotation of a 'Gold standard' sample (Appendix B), the detailed annotation manual (Appendix C), as well as testing for reliability adopted in this study and discussed below assist in alleviating some of the issues of the annotation process and controlling the bias and subjectivity of the research.

4.4 THE CORPUS

When selecting a corpus for research, size, and representativeness, are among the crucial factors to consider in order to ensure that the data accurately reflects the linguistic phenomena under investigation. It has been argued (de Haan, 1992) that the ideal corpus size is highly dependent on the specific phenomenon being investigated. Representativeness refers to the extent to which a sample includes the full range of variability in a population (Biber, 1993:244). Representativeness can be achieved with far fewer texts than would be needed for a general corpus when the corpus is specialised, as is the case in the current study, which focuses on only one genre, one disciplinary group and one nationality. As Atkins et al. (1992: 1-16) argued, “the more highly specialized the language to be sampled in the corpus, the fewer will be the problems in defining the texts to be sampled”. Biber (1993: 223) also argues that sample size may not be the most important factor in selecting a representative sample. Instead, “a thorough definition of the target population and decisions concerning the method of sampling are prior considerations.” Following Biber’s (1993) criteria, the boundaries of the target population in this study are set in essays written by English L1 undergraduate writers in the Arts and Humanities disciplinary group. Biber also argues that different linguistic features can be identified within a text (internal criteria). This is easily distinguishable in longer texts, for example, Research Articles, where sections are easily labelled. For our corpus, the analysis will look at the whole text, and it can be argued that the quantity of Engagement resources identified in the scripts is adequate to reflect the use of these resources by student writers. With regard to the issue of text length, text samples should be long enough to reliably represent the distributions of linguistic features (Biber, 1993:254). The BAWE corpus includes essays

of varying length. As will be explained further down, the selection of the papers to be analysed was targeted to achieve optimal word length.

The scripts analysed in this project are extracted from the British Academic Written English corpus (BAWE) corpus. The BAWE corpus is a 6.9 million words collection of texts produced by university students for assessment of taught degree programmes undertaken in four universities in the UK (Coventry, Oxford Brookes Reading and Warwick) as part of a larger ESRC-funded project to investigate genres of assessed writing in British higher education (Heuboeck, Holmes, & Nesi, 2010). All the assignments in the corpus have received above 2:2 grade, and they can be considered examples of successful student writing. The BAWE corpus contains 2,761 proficient student assignments, produced, and assessed as part of university degree coursework and fairly evenly distributed across ten genre families distributed across 35 university disciplines and four levels of study (first-year undergraduate to Masters level). The disciplines are grouped together in four disciplinary groupings (Arts and Humanities, Life Sciences, Physical Sciences and Social Sciences). About half the assignments were graded at a level equivalent to 'distinction' (D) (70% or above) and half at a level equivalent to 'merit' (M) (between 60% and 69%). The majority of assignments (1,953) were written by English L1. Representation was achieved with non-random sampling (Alsop & Nesi, 2009; Nesi et al., 2005: 6). The corpus is freely available through the Coventry University website <http://www.coventry.ac.uk/bawe> and the Sketch Engine corpus query interface <http://www.sketchengine.co.uk/> (Kilgarriff et al., 2004).

The selection of the essays for this thesis was conducted using the spreadsheet available through the Coventry University website. The spreadsheet provides information on the student ID, the module, the level of study, the title of the essay, the grade, the gender of the writer, and the word length of the text. The BAWE includes ten different assignment genres. Nearly half (43.8%) of all assignments are essays, totalling around 2,357,384 words distributed among 1238 texts across various disciplinary groups. The vast majority of the essays (84.5%, n=602) are found in the Arts and Humanities (AH) disciplinary group, and this forms the disciplinary group for investigation in this study.

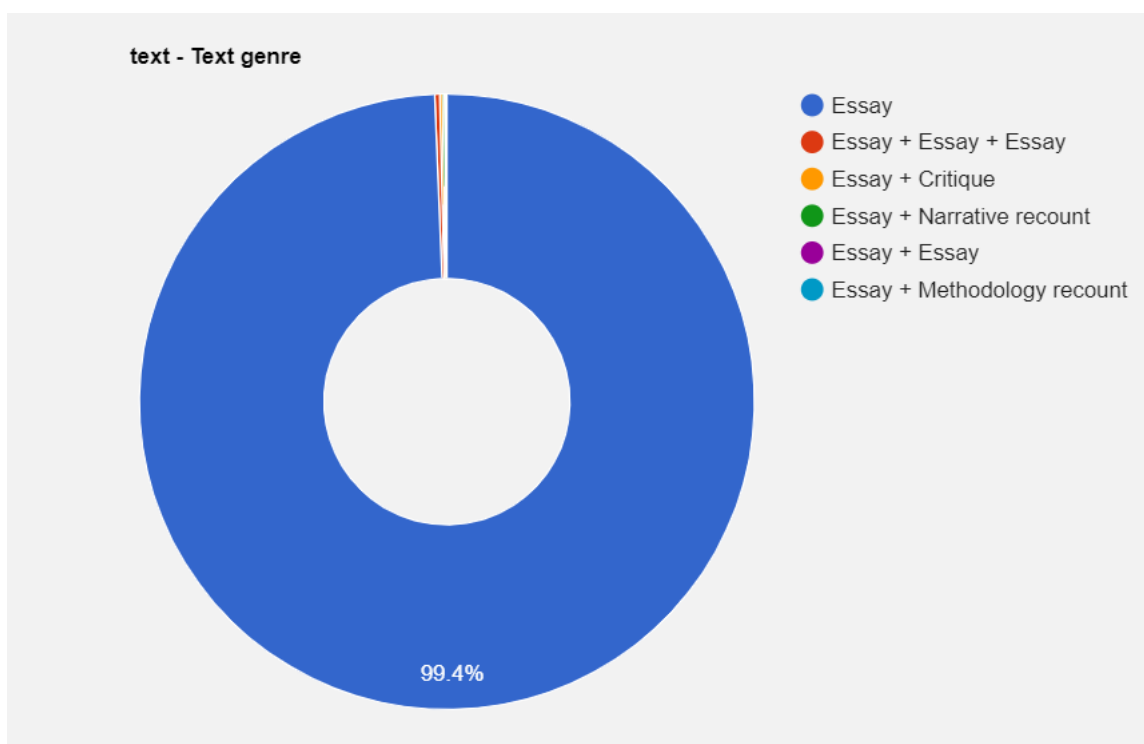


Figure 4.2 Text genres in AH in the BAWE corpus (Source: SketchEngine)

However, there are various labels that correspond to essays (Figure 4.2). For this project, scripts were selected exclusively from categories labelled as 'Essay,' 'Essay + Essay,' and 'Essay + Essay + Essay.' Metadata on all AH essays written by English L1 writers in the three undergraduate levels was transferred to a new spreadsheet.

Using the spreadsheets provided by the compilers of the BAWE corpus and the SketchEngine (Nesi & Thompson, 2019), the following steps were taken to generate the subcorpora for this study. First, using SketchEngine, the subcorpus labelled BAWE-AH123 was created from text types including Merit and Distinction grade, the three undergraduate levels, the Arts and Humanities (AH) discipline group, and limiting the text genre to Essay, Essay+Essay and Essay+Essay+Essay, and the first language of the author to English, as illustrated in Figure 4.3.

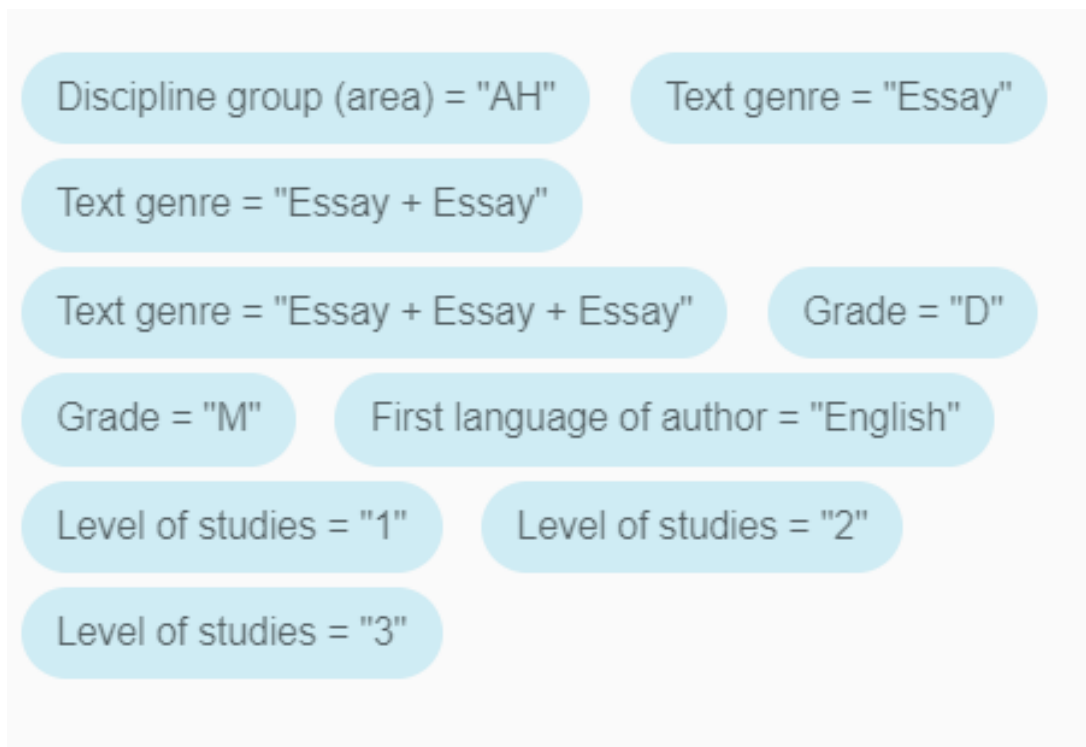




Figure 4.3 Selection of BAWE-AH123 corpus

The new BAWE-AH123 corpus contains 427 essays, totalling 1,691,302 tokens and 1,413,720 words, accounting for 20.3 per cent of the whole BAWE corpus (Table 4.1). This subcorpus was used for the corpus study in the second phase of this project. It was also used to extract the AH123 subcorpus comprising forty-two essays for the annotation analysis. Using the spreadsheets provided by the compilers of the BAWE, two papers from each discipline and each of the three years were extracted using the random choice generator on www.textfixer.com.

Further considerations were made to achieve uniformity in the word length of the selected essays. In the BAWE-AH123 subcorpus, the word length of the scripts spread between 500 and 5000. Too long or too short essays were excluded during the random selection process to achieve consistency in length and maintain a fair basis for analysis. The new subcorpus, labelled AH123, thus included forty-two essays of 92,519 words in the seven disciplines of the Arts and Humanities, written by native English speakers, ranging from 1000 to 3000 words (Appendix A). Table 4.1 demonstrates the selection process and criteria for creating the two subcorpora this study is based on.

Table 4.1 Selecting the Subcorpora							
Genre	Disc.Group	Discipline	Level	WriterL1	Grade	Texts	Words
BAWE							
45	AH/SS/LS/PS	31	1,2,3,4	42	M, D	2,761	6,506,995
							
English writer 7 disciplines AH essays (for corpus study)							
BAWE-AH123							
Essay	AH	7	1,2,3	English	M, D	427	1,413,720
							
English writer 7 disciplines AH essays (for annotation)							
AH123							
Essay	AH	7	1,2,3	English	M, D	42	92,519

Tables 4.2 and 4.3 provide a breakdown of essay distribution by level and discipline, expressed in word count.

Discipline	Words	Level	Words
Archaeology	14,389	Year 1	26,376
Classics	10,877	Year 2	30,482
Comparative American Studies	11,343	Year 3	35,661
English	15,417		
History	13,355		
Linguistics	13,574		
Philosophy	13,564		
Total words	92,519	Total words	92,519

Discipline	Y1	Y2	Y3
Archaeology	3982	4237	6170
Classics	2463	4317	4097
Comparative American Studies	4026	3589	3728
English	4421	5005	5991
History	3956	4386	5013
Linguistics	4050	4121	5403
Philosophy	3478	4827	5259

Each of the forty-two texts was copied-pasted to a word document along with the following contextual information: text ID, title, disciplinary group, grade, discipline, gender of writer, course, and year and were saved in a separate folder for future reference. Each text was then cleared from notes, footnotes, references, and all

metadata except a reference number and an indication of the discipline and level. For example, the reference number CL1-6060C corresponds to the essay coded 6060c in BAWE, and it is from the first year in classics. Each of the essays was saved in .txt form. No corrections were made to spelling or grammar errors.

4.5 ASSESSING RELIABILITY, VALIDITY, AND REPLICABILITY

Before commencing the actual annotation of the texts, an assessment of the reliability, validity, replicability, and transparency of the study is needed. In fact, the subjective nature of the appraisal annotation process makes the need for a reliability assessment of the study even greater. Reliability, replicability, and transparency are ‘intertwined’ (Fuoli, 2018:243), and before considering ways to achieve them, I will define some terms related to improving robustness in a study. By reliability, we mean that “if the same methods are used with the same sample, then the results should be the same” (Cohen et al., 2011:202). Validity refers to the degree to which a study accurately measures what it intends to measure, i.e., the ‘truthfulness’ of the phenomenon studied. Validity depends on factors such as the quality of the data, the appropriateness of the methods used, and the soundness of the theoretical framework guiding the analysis. Reproducibility (Krippendorff, 2004:215) or replicability implies that the research can be repeated by different analysts under the same conditions, yielding similar results. Transparency, finally, refers to making the annotation process and the data obtained available and easily accessible to other researchers. For transparency and replicability to be achieved, it is imperative that all choices and decisions made

during the manual annotation process are recorded and the whole process, as well as detailed guidelines, are readily available to other researchers. Hence, reliability, validity, reproducibility, and transparency are interrelated and collectively contribute to the quality, credibility, and trustworthiness of research findings. For a rigorous and ethical study that leads to meaningful and reliable contributions to knowledge, all these principles need to be adhered to.

The three types of reliability relevant to the current research refer to consistency over time (*test-retest reliability* or *stability*), across items (*internal consistency reliability*) and across different coders (*inter-rater reliability*) (Cozby & Bates, 2015:104). All three types of reliability are difficult to achieve mostly because of the subjective and context-specific nature, as well as the ‘fuzziness’ of the model and the ambiguity of specific categories in the framework.

Test-retest reliability or stability is “the extent to which a measuring or coding procedure yields the same results on repeated trials” (Krippendorff, 2004:215), and it is tested with an intra-coder agreement test (section 5.1). According to Krippendorff (2004:215), stability should be assessed before interrater reliability and tested with an intra-coder agreement test until maximum reliability is achieved. For the preliminary study, I followed Krippendorff’s (2004) guidelines, and I reread and reanalysed the same texts at an interval of three weeks. For the first stage of the project, the annotation of the whole corpus was repeated after about three weeks of the first coding, and any inconsistencies between the two processes were addressed.

Internal consistency “measures the extent to which an annotator is consistent in applying the coding guidelines, treating similar textual items in the same way throughout a text or corpus” (Fuoli, 2018:243). Manual annotation is a time-consuming and labour-intensive endeavour, and its consistency might be affected by psychological factors, fatigue, and low motivation (ibid). Some of the suggestions Fuoli (2018:252) gives to achieve high internal consistency include approaching the identification and classification processes separately, reviewing each text several times and taking regular breaks while annotating.

Lastly, inter-rater reliability assesses the consistency of different coders, that is, whether two or more coders annotating independently can reach the same results. Inter-rater reliability can be reached in two main ways: first, by accounting for all decisions and providing explicit annotation guidelines for all annotators to follow in the form of an annotation manual and second, by conducting an inter-coder agreement test. Both these tests were applied and are discussed below.

4.5.1 INTERCODER AGREEMENT

Spooren and Degand (2010:241) propose three routes to achieving a high inter-coder agreement. Single coding, double coding and enriched kappa statistics. In single coding, or ‘one coder does all,’ the whole corpus is annotated by only one coder. In doublecoding, two annotators code the entire data independently and then discuss all the disagreements until a full consensus is reached. The ‘soft kappa’ method, finally, involves double coding of a portion of the data and a single annotation of the rest of

the corpus. Inter-coder agreement is calculated on the double-coded sample, and the two annotators discuss disagreements and possible reasons for these until they reach an agreement. For this project, the 'soft kappa' approach seems more appropriate. The whole corpus was annotated by me, but a second annotator was assigned the coding of a pilot sample which formed the 'gold standard' sample discussed in section 4.7. For gathering inter-coder agreement data and calculating the scores, Fuoli and Hommerberg's (2015) procedure was adopted.

4.6 THE ANNOTATION MANUAL

The annotation manual is a crucial step for "optimising reliability, replicability and transparency" of the study (Fuoli, 2018:249). A first draft of an annotation manual for the current study was prepared at the early stages of the project. It included an outline of the Engagement scheme to be used for the annotation, definitions of the subsystems, rules on how each category should be coded, instructions on how to deal with areas of ambiguity, and exceptions to the rules, all illustrated with examples. This was the result of the first pilot annotation of a small corpus of essays to familiarise myself with the framework and calibrate the guidelines. The manual was revised many times following further annotations by me and the second annotator until its robustness and clarity were established. The finalised version of the annotation manual can be found in Appendix C.

4.7 THE 'GOLD STANDARD' SAMPLE

One of the outcomes of the inter-coder agreement test was the annotation of a 'gold standard' sample (Fuoli and Hommerberg, 2015). To create the 'gold standard' sample, I first chose one random essay from each year and each discipline (<https://www.random.org>). The paragraphs of these twenty-one texts were first identified, and then, using textfixer.com, random paragraphs were selected to form a new text of approximately 5,000 words to be the gold standard sample. Paragraphs in essays vary from 6 to 29. The length of each paragraph in the essays varies from less than 50 to more than six hundred words. I restricted the random paragraphs to >200 and <400 words. If the first random number did not correspond to a paragraph between 200 and 400 words, another number was generated. If there were no paragraphs greater than two hundred words in an essay, two adjacent paragraphs were chosen. The final sample has one or two paragraphs from each discipline and each year (n=29) and is 5,447 words long (Appendix B). The gold standard sample was first manually annotated by me (AN1) and a second coder (AN2) individually following the guidelines in the manual.

The second annotator (AN2) was a colleague PhD researcher who was already familiar with the appraisal framework and volunteered to assist. Although no extensive training was needed, in the first meeting, the Engagement scheme with examples and a draft of the annotation manual with specific guidelines were given to him and discussed thoroughly. Each of the annotators then individually annotated the sample manually by either highlighting or underlining instances of Engagement. A second meeting followed

a few days later after both annotators had completed the task. In this first post-annotation meeting, the main difficulties with the annotation process and problems with the manual were discussed.

The main discrepancies between the annotations fell into four main categories, which are explained in detail below and indicated in bold within the examples provided by each annotator (AN1 and AN2).

[1] Total disagreement: both coders annotated items differently. For example, in the extracts below, while AN1 annotated the whole phrase '*I do not find this to be a satisfactory response*' as Contract: Proclaim: Concur (4.4a), AN2 restricted the annotation to the first part of the clause, the negation (4.4b).

4.4a However, **I do not find this to be a satisfactory response** [CONCUR] as one cannot fully meet their moral requirements and still have time to successfully pursue contemplation. [AN1]

4.4b However, **I do not** [DENY] find this to be a satisfactory response as one cannot fully meet their moral requirements and still have time to successfully pursue contemplation. [AN2]

Alternatively, as seen in examples 4.5a and 4.5b, both coders annotated the same string of words but differently. Cases like these were discussed extensively in the meetings with the second coder, and in most cases, an agreement was reached.

4.5a However, aphasic **studies have informed our knowledge** [ENTERTAIN] as to the localisation of language functions in the brain. [AN1]

4.5b However, aphasic **studies have informed our knowledge** [ATTRIBUTE] as to the localisation of language functions in the brain. [AN2]

[2] Inaccuracy: The 2nd coder annotated an item that does not construe Engagement. In most cases, this was a textual rather than an interpersonal feature, as shown in excerpts 4.6a and 4.6b. Cases like these were identified and clarified in the meeting, and a relevant note was added to the Annotation manual.

4.6a The third point is that [IGNORED] tragedies include both pity and fear. [AN1]

4.6b **The third point is that** [ENTERTAIN] tragedies include both pity and fear. [AN2]

[3] Omission: Only a few inconsistencies in the two annotations fell in this category, whereby the annotator failed to recognise the Engagement resource in the text as in examples 4.7a and 4.7b. In most cases, the omission was related to nominalised realisations of attribution (e.g., *suggestion*). This was a key point missed by the second annotator, although it was clear in the manual.

4.7a Although Broca and Wernicke's **suggestion** [ATTRIBUTE] that language is specifically localised is now being challenged by new information about language distribution in the brain. [AN1]

4.7b Although Broca and Wernicke's suggestion [IGNORED] that language is specifically localised is now being challenged by new information about language distribution in the brain. [AN2]

[4] 'Holistic' annotation refers to annotating the whole sentence or clause under a certain subsystem, ignoring other intervening features. As seen in example 4.8a, AN2 coded the whole extract as Attribute disregarding any other features in the sentence, such as, *may*, and *possibly*, which were separately annotated by AN2 (4.8b).

4.8a These cases suggest that language may not be contained in the way that Broca believed it to be, or possibly support the notion of brain plasticity that Broca suggested was capable in adults, should the correct rehabilitation and encouragement be given, causing the right hemisphere to adopt the language functions of the damaged hemisphere (Caplan 1987: 47). [ATTRIBUTE] [AN2]

4.8b These cases suggest [ENTERTAIN] that language may [ENTERTAIN] not be obtained in the way that Broca **believed** [ATTRIBUTE] it to be, or **possibly** [ENTERTAIN] support the notion of brain plasticity that Broca **suggested** [ATTRIBUTE] was capable in adults, should the correct rehabilitation and encouragement be given, causing the right hemisphere to adopt the language functions of the damaged hemisphere (Caplan 1987: 47). [AN1]

Both 'omissions' and 'holistic annotations' were admittedly due to fatigue, excessive cognitive overload and rushing of the task by the second annotator. As this would affect the test results (precision was low), the decision to make a second attempt to annotate the same sample was mutually taken. Following the second annotation, any remaining

disagreements were discussed until an interrater agreement was reached, as discussed next.

4.7.1 THE INTERRATER AGREEMENT TEST

There are several methods for calculating interrater agreement, and the greater the score attained, the higher the likelihood that the study is well-designed, and the results will be replicable. In contrast, a low degree of interrater agreement is an indication of either a flawed coding scheme or the need for retraining the raters (Fuoli, 2018: 244). I am quantifying agreement in terms of 'precision' (as per Taboada & Carretero, 2012). I take the annotations produced by me (AN1) as the 'correct' ones. All the overlapping annotated items between the two coders are considered matches and presented as 'Agreement' in Table 4.4. The precision score is calculated by the number of units of AN2 over the number of units of AN1. Recall relates to the correct units identified by AN2 over the annotations by AN1.

The Precision score after the first annotation phase was low (65%). A second annotation phase was decided (as discussed above), which generated a much higher precision score (90%), and they are both recorded in Table 4.4. The agreement scores achieved after the second annotation clearly indicate that collaboration, clarifications and elimination of inaccuracies and inconsistencies due to annotator fatigue and distraction or omissions in the instructions can substantially improve agreement scores (Fuoli & Hommerberg, 2015:333).

Phase 1-First annotations by both coders	Items	Per cent (%)	Fraction
Annotator 1 correct-predicted results	154		
Annotator 2-actual results	120		
Total Agreement 1-true positives	100		
Precision 1(100:154)		65	0.65
Recall 1 (120:154)		78	0.78
F score 1		71	0.71
Phase 2-Second annotations by both coders			
Annotator 1	154		
Annotator 2	148		
Total agreement 2	138		
Precision 2		90	0.90
Recall 2		96	0.96
F score 2		93	0.93

The final scores obtained are more than satisfactory and seem to agree with scores reported in the literature (Taboada & Carretero, 2012; Fuoli & Hommerberg, 2015). Following this, the jointly annotated sample was used as the ‘gold standard’ to guide the annotation of the whole corpus along with the Annotation Manual. Next, the pilot sample was imported into the UAM CorpusTool (O'Donnell, 2008) for semi-manual annotation and analysis, and a colour-coded copy can be found in Appendix B.

4.8 THE ‘GOLD STANDARD SAMPLE’ ANNOTATION

The raw and normalised (per 1000 words) frequencies of the Gold standard sample are presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5 Raw and Relative frequencies (per 1000 words) of Gold Standard Sample Annotation		
System	Raw Frequency	Relative Frequency (per 1000 w)
Contract	111	17.16
Deny	33	5.10
Counter	70	10.82
Concur	3	0.46
Pronounce	3	0.46
Endorse	2	0.31
Expand	112	17.31
Entertain	74	11.44
Attribute	38	5.87

As can be seen, there is a balance between the Expand and Contract resources in the sample. This suggests that despite the diverse range of essay paragraphs chosen for the pilot study, many of which display very descriptive discourse, the sample is probably representative of the strategies students employ in their essays. Entertain and Counter figures display the highest frequencies, whereas all Proclaim features (Concur, Pronounce and Endorse) have very few occurrences. Subsequently, the AH123 corpus of forty-two essays in text form was imported into the UAM CorpusTool (O'Donnell, 2008; version 3.0), described next.

4.8.1 THE UAM CORPUS TOOL

For the annotation of the texts, the UAM CorpusTool was used (O'Donnell, 2008) (for a review of similar programmes, see Fuoli, 2018). The UAM CorpusTool is a user-

friendly, free-download computer software program for coding texts in a corpus at multiple levels. It provides the option for researchers to use a pre-loaded scheme of the appraisal framework or design their own. It has an 'auto-coding' function, which allows for automatic coding of all instances of the same subsystem. Texts can be 'styled' using distinct colours, fonts, and so on to indicate the different systems and subsystems of the appraisal framework. The interface also provides a number of functions for statistical analysis of the results. At various stages of the analysis, both the v2.8.17 and v3.3h versions were used for different statistical analyses. The stages and the functions used in the current study will be introduced below.

The first step was to create a new project, which I saved on my computer. Then, the layers were created. The interface provides the option between automatic annotation (following a system already built into the software) or manual annotation. For the annotation scheme, the tool provides three options. Design your own, use a built-in scheme or reuse a user-specified one. I chose the first option to design my own scheme because I wanted to restrict my scheme to the Engagement system. There is also the option to annotate the whole document or segments within a document. I choose to treat the text as 'segments within a document' so that I can assign features to each document. Then, a layer named Engagement was created, followed by two more layers, one for disciplines and one for level (Figure 4.4) and each scheme was then edited.

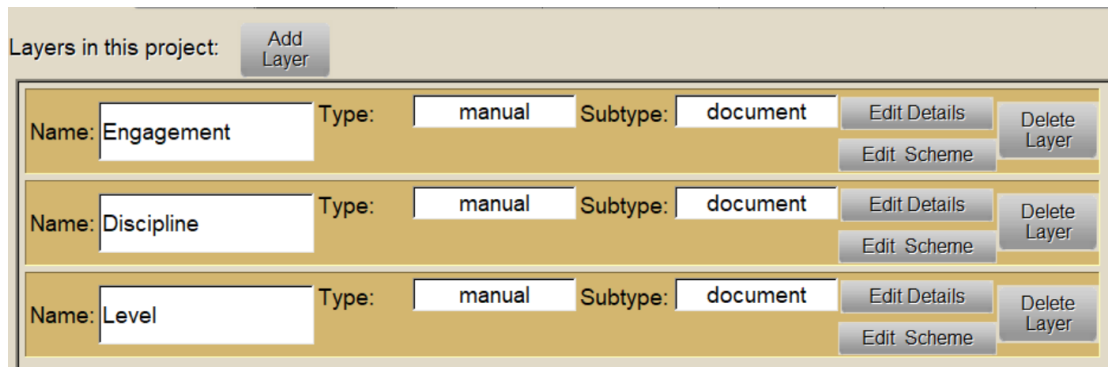


Figure 4.4 Multiple layers

In the first instance, I created my own Engagement scheme following Martin and White (2005), and then added two further layers, one for the three levels and one for the seven disciplines (Figure 4.5).

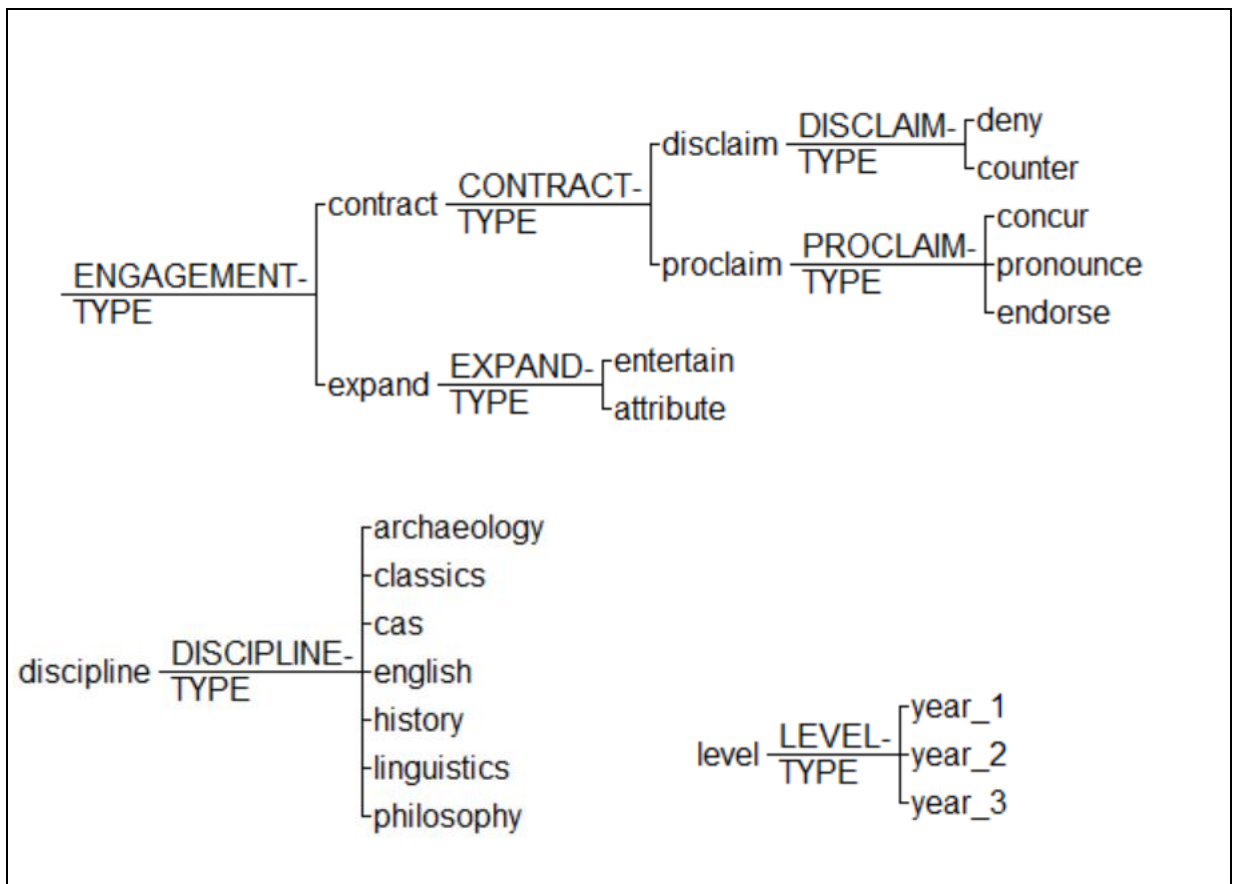
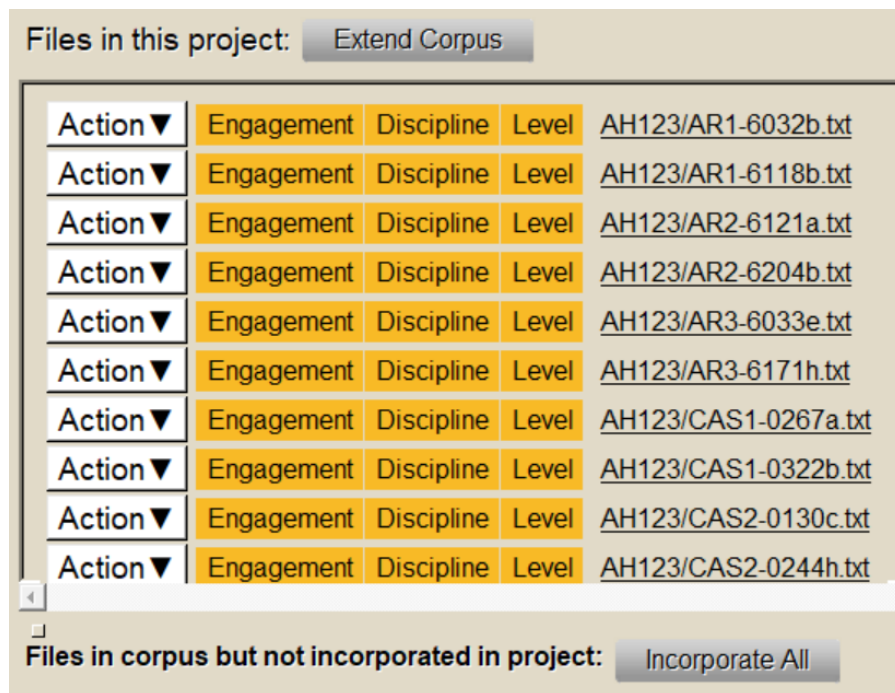


Figure 4.5 Engagement, discipline and level schemes

After creating and editing the schemes, the forty-two texts were uploaded to the CorpusTool and ready to be annotated (Figure 4.6). The dark orange colour in the layers indicates that the texts are not annotated. Once they are coded, the colour changes to light orange, which assists in reviewing any features in the texts that are not fully coded or missed.



Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	File Name
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/AR1-6032b.txt
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/AR1-6118b.txt
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/AR2-6121a.txt
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/AR2-6204b.txt
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/AR3-6033e.txt
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/AR3-6171h.txt
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/CAS1-0267a.txt
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/CAS1-0322b.txt
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/CAS2-0130c.txt
Action ▼	Engagement	Discipline	Level	AH123/CAS2-0244h.txt

Files in corpus but not incorporated in project: Incorporate All

Figure 4.6 The AH123 corpus in the UAM corpus tool

Each text is then annotated in the Annotation window by choosing the corresponding appraisal feature (Figure 4.7).

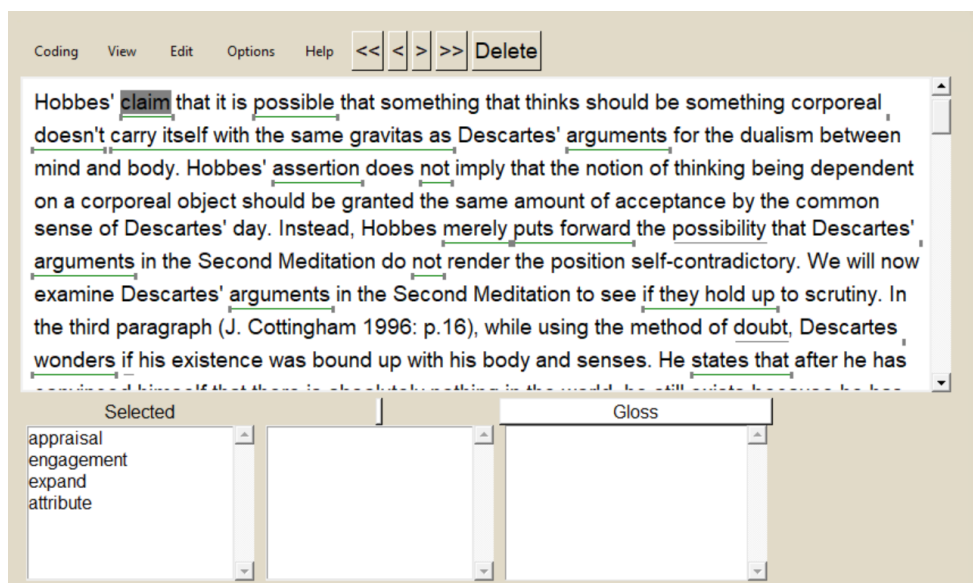


Figure 4.7 Annotation window

The statistics window allows for four kinds of analysis of the annotated data: descriptive statistics, contrastive statistics of any two subsets of the corpus, general text statistics providing basic information about the corpus, and word propensity, which compares a keyword list of a given subcorpus with the rest of the corpus.

4.9 THE CORPUS STUDY

The second phase of the thesis involves a brief corpus study, which is used to triangulate the findings of the annotation process. The subcorpus used (BAWE-AH123) consists of 427 essays from seven disciplines in AH, with a word count of 1,413,720. Sketch Engine was utilised to create the subcorpus and conduct the corpus analysis. The study comprises two stages. The first stage includes a Sketch Engine CQ search of the BAWE-AH123 of mostly monosymous lexicogrammar markers of the Engagement features found in the annotations and compares their frequencies in the

two subcorpora. The second stage examines the frequencies of these features across levels and disciplines. The study compares the findings of the two datasets using corpus methods. The methodological considerations, the rationale for the selection of search words as well as the analytical corpus techniques employed, are thoroughly discussed in Chapter 8.

4.10 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter has provided a comprehensive overview of the methodological framework and research design underpinning this study. By first reviewing the various methodological approaches to evaluation, the detailed research process undertaken in this project was presented. The challenges encountered during annotation were addressed, and the selection of the corpus and subcorpora was discussed in detail. The chapter further considered strategies to assess reliability, validity and replicability of the study focusing on the steps taken to achieve interrater agreement. The chapter also described the pilot study, which was important in improving the annotation manual and make it both thorough and precise for the larger investigation and provided a description of the corpus tool used for the annotation of the corpus. Finally, a brief overview of the corpus study was provided, setting the stage for the detailed examination of the data in the following chapters.

5 ENGAGEMENT IN UNDERGRADUATE ESSAYS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I present and discuss the findings on heteroglossic Engagement in student essays in the AH123 corpus as a whole. The main purpose of this chapter is to address the first overarching research question of this thesis: *How do undergraduate writers enter into a dialogue with the other voices in the AH undergraduate essays?* and its sub-questions. These questions will guide the analysis of each of the Engagement categories as follows. For each of the seven features of the framework as proposed by Martin and White (2005), I will first present the frequencies for the whole corpus and then account for the relevant most common lexicogrammar locutions, and their frequencies as deployed by the essay writers. I will further account for any subcategories in each feature, discuss their dialogic functionality areas for concern such as exceptions, overlapping between different subsets and account for any rhetorical pairs and their interplay within and beyond the clause and the sentence. Writer-reader alignment and solidarity issues will be further addressed where appropriate. Finally, the distribution of data in each essay will be accounted for to determine the existence of outliers within individual scripts. This analysis will assist in highlighting any significant deviations from the typical patterns observed. An outlier in this context refers to a data point that significantly differs from the majority of other observations in the dataset. By identifying and analysing outliers, we can gain insight

into unusual patterns within data due to variables that might need further investigation, in this case, the classification of the scripts into the subgenres of essays.

5.2 HETEROGLOSSIC ENGAGEMENT

In the analysis of 287 distinctive lexicogrammatical items in the AH123 corpus, a total of 3836 instances of heteroglossic Engagement were identified. The analysis found that heteroglossic Engagement occurred at a frequency of approximately 36.3 per 1000 words in the corpus and, unlike the findings in the 'Gold standard' sample, the majority of these features were dialogically contractive (53.52%). Between the two dialogically Contractive subsystems, Proclaim is scarcely represented, with only eight per cent of all Engagement resources, implying that writers avoid overly expressing a strong degree of commitment in the essays within the AH123 corpus. However, further examination reveals that there are some variations in the frequencies of the three subsystems of Proclaim. Within the Disclaim category, Counter is nearly twice as frequent as Deny, indicating that writers tend to contradict other claims rather than explicitly denying or rejecting them. Nevertheless, the most frequently represented category is Entertain which accounts for one third of all heteroglossic features and approximately 67% of dialogic expansion. Table 5.1 presents the raw frequencies (column 1), the normalised frequencies per 1000 words (column 2), and the global and local selection percentages (columns 3 and 4, respectively) for each of the systems of Engagement. Global percentages represent the overall distribution of Engagement across all categories, while local percentages specifically reflect the distribution within the Contract, Expand, Disclaim, and Proclaim categories.

Table 5.1 Raw and normalised (per 1000 words) frequencies of Engagement features in AH123				
Feature	Raw Freq.	Per 1000 words	% of Engagement (Global)	% of Subsystem (Local)
ENGAGEMENT	3832	36.3		
CONTRACT	2053	19.43	53.52	
Disclaim	1738	16.45	45.31	84.66
Deny	686	6.49	17.88	39.47
Counter	1052	9.96	27.42	60.53
Proclaim	315	2.98	8.21	15.34
Concur	81	0.77	2.11	25.71
Pronounce	178	1.68	4.64	56.51
Endorse	56	0.53	1.46	17.78
EXPAND	1783	16.87	46.48	
Entertain	1194	11.30	31.13	66.97
Attribute	589	5.57	15.35	33.03

I will discuss these findings in detail below starting with the variations between Contract and Expand.

Contract vs Expand

The data (Table 5.1, Figure 5.1) shows that dialogically Contractive resources are more frequently used than dialogically Expansive resources. Specifically, Contractive features appear in a frequency of 19.43 per 1,000 words (raw= 2,053), whereas Expansive features occur, with a slightly lower frequency of 16.87 per 1,000 words

(raw= 1,783). This difference indicates a tendency toward more restrictive or closed-off dialogic positioning. The chart 5.1 below clearly depicts the difference in the distribution of Expanding and Contracting resources in AH123 (per 1000 words).

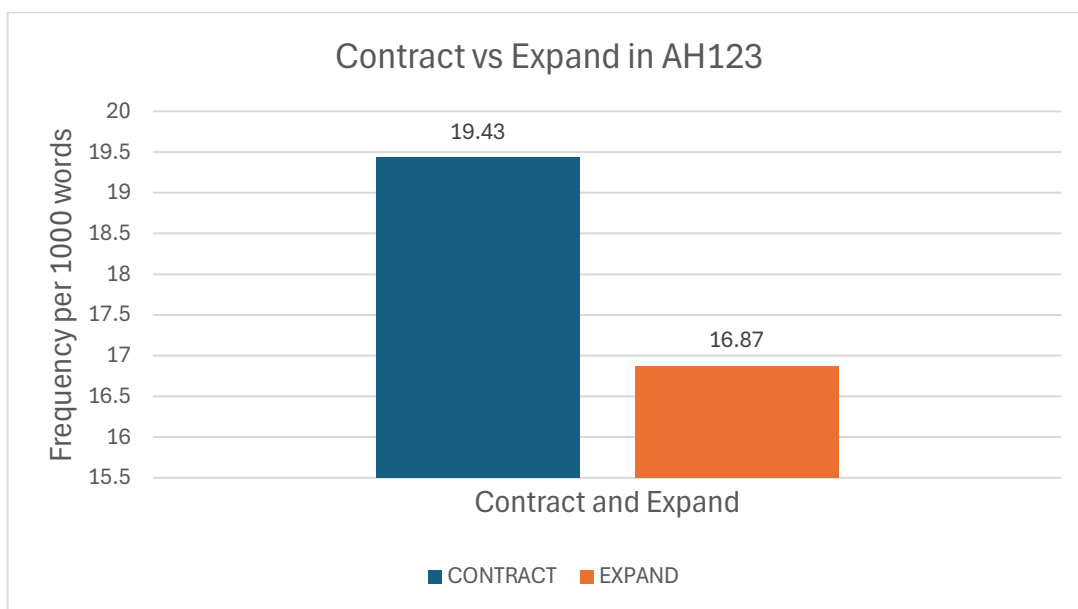


Figure 5.1 Contract vs Expand frequencies in AH123

These findings are broadly in line with Liu's (2015) results, who also reported more Contract than Expand resources in all four sets of argumentative essays. However, an earlier study by Xiang and Xiao (2009), who compared thirty argumentative essays written by Chinese and English learners, found that both groups of writing contained more dialogical Expanding resources and deployed more Contracting negation resources. Some studies associate high Contract rates with less successful essays (Swain, 2010), while others found greater amounts of Contracting options in high-rated essays (Wu, 2007; Lancaster, 2012, 2014). While the prevalence of Contract and Expand resources is significant, it is equally essential to explore the specific strategies

employed within each subsystem of Engagement to gain a comprehensive understanding of dialogic Engagement in the student essays. This is addressed in the following sections of this chapter.

Although Contractions are deployed more frequently in the corpus, the dialogic system with the highest frequencies is that of Entertain (Table 5.1). This suggests that undergraduate writers often open up the dialogic space to other possibilities in their essays. This correlation with the low Proclaim figures, however, is not equally reflected in explicit attributions or endorsements of external sources, as such features are not highly represented in the corpus. Endorsements, in particular, are the least frequent Engagement features in the AH123 corpus, with a relative frequency as low as 0.53 per 1000 words.

Frequencies across the main subsystems

The frequencies per 1000 words for each of the main subsystems of Engagement are illustrated in Figure 5.2 and are discussed in detail below.

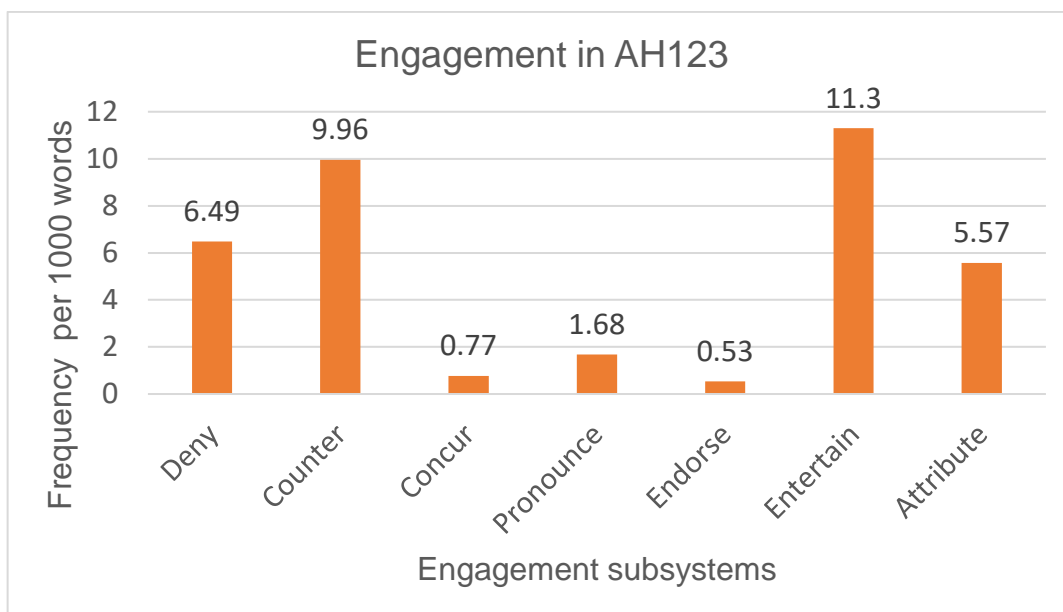


Figure 5.2 The seven subsystems of Engagement in AH123

5.2.1 DENY

In AH123 as a whole, Deny is the third most common Engagement feature (n=686 RF 6.49 per 1000 words). It accounts for 18 per cent of Engagement and nearly 40 per cent of Disclaim. Following Martin and White (2005), Deny formulations were quantified under three headings: *no*-negation, *not*-negation (Biber et al., 1999:159) and *affixal & semantic* negation. The latter includes items with prefixes *in-*, *im-*, *un-* (Tottie 1991:45-59), and 'semantic negation' (Fairclough 1992:122) realised by verbs and nouns of *fail*, *lack*, and *exclude*. Examples of each type are presented below (5.1-5.4), and Table 5.2 shows the raw and normalised frequencies of each type. A full list of all Deny types annotated in AH123, including their frequencies, can be found in Table D1 in Appendix D.

No-negation

5.1 Susan Amussen argues that this contradiction is one of the main reasons why the wish for '...clear subordination of wives to husbands...was **never** fully realised.' [H2-0010d]

Not-negation

5.2 Although climate begins the process by making a shortage of food it does **not** determine whether this becomes a famine. [H1-0098a]

Affixal & Semantic negation

5.3 It therefore seems **un**founded to blame their extinction solely on climate. [AR3-6033e]

5.4 As Weber acknowledges, the East possessed geometry, natural sciences, and chemistry, but what was **lacking** was a method of experiment and rationality. [H3-0144e]

Table 5.2 Raw and Normalised Frequencies (per 1000 words) of Deny in AH123

No-negation			Not-negation			Affixal & semantic negation		
Feature	RAW	PTW	Feature	RAW	PTW	Feature	RAW	PTW
no	99	1.04	not	464	4.88	-in	3	0.03
never	19	0.20	n't	27	0.28	-im	4	0.04
nothing	12	0.13				-un	11	0.12
neither	6	0.06				Lack/-s/-ed/-ing	23	0.24
nor	6	0.06				Fail/-s/-ed/failure	7	0.07
non	1	0.01				Exclude/-ing	2	0.02
nobody	1	0.01						

As can be seen from Table 5.2, *not*-negation is much more frequent than *no*-negation in the AH123 corpus, with a percentage ratio of 77-23. This contradicts findings reported in the literature by Tottie (1991) and Biber et al. (1999), who found that *no*-negation was more common in written language. However, in the AH123 corpus analysed in the current study, *not*-negation is more prevalent in written academic texts. Interestingly, in Biber et al.'s written corpus, both types of negations show high occurrences in academic texts and fiction compared to news (*not*=75%; *no*=25%), which are very similar to the findings in my corpus (*not*=77%; *no*= 23%). Nevertheless, Biber et al. (1999:170) regard *not*-negation as the default choice for both spoken and written discourse. Herriman's (2009) corpus study on student academic writing also found high proportions of *not*-negation. As she explains, this "may reflect a tendency for these writers to use a somewhat more informal, conversational style in their argumentative writing" (ibid. 121), based on the assumption that *not*-negation, especially in its contractive form, is more common in everyday spoken language.

5.2.1.1 RHETORICAL PAIRS OF DENY

The scope of negation, however, as with all Engagement resources, goes beyond the boundaries of clauses and sentences (Lemke, 1992; Martin & Rose, 2003) and is achieved through interpersonal meanings "accumulating, reinforcing, or resonating with each other" (Hood, 2004, 2006). Once more, we need to go beyond the lexicogrammatical realisation and form of each of the appraisal resources. We need to look at the rhetorical functions of each resource and its interplay with other resources within and beyond the clause and the sentence. We need to look at how negation is

communicated alongside other relevant appraisal resources to co-construct interpersonal meanings, what kinds of meanings it is used to negate and how it interacts with other resources to indicate authorial voice in the text. Deny, like most other Engagement resources, co-exists with other appraisal resources to form rhetorical pairs (see 3.4.1.2), which perform important semantic functions within the text. The most common rhetorical pairs identified in the corpus and their functionality are now discussed.

For Martin and White (2005), a common rhetorical pair is Deny with Counter. In the Deny+Counter contrastive pair, the denying proposition opposes and contrasts the “expectation which is assumed to arise from an immediately prior or an immediately posterior proposition” (Martin & White, 2005:120). Thus, in example 5.5, the denying proposition ‘*it [climate] does not determine whether this [shortage of food] becomes a famine*’ is contrasting with the preceding proposition that ‘*the climate begins the process*’ of food shortage. In 5.6, the denial precedes the Counter proposition, but the function is still the same. The order of the concession and the denial constructions does not seem to affect the dialogistic nature of the contractive formulations, which, similarly to denials, refer to a contrary position that is said not to hold. The denial ‘*climate should not be classified as the cause of famine*’ contrasts sharply with the proposition immediately following it ‘*[we should classify climate] as a precipitating factor.*’ This means that one would expect that since climate begins the process of food shortage, it would also determine whether this shortage becomes famine. This would be the normal expectation. But this is contradicted by the denying proposition ‘*it does not determine...*’

5.5 Every major famine of the nineteenth century was preceded by the partial, sometimes the complete, failure of the monsoon rains on which Indian agriculture has traditionally been so heavily dependent'. Although climate begins the process by making a shortage of food it does **not** determine whether this becomes a famine. [H11-0098a]

5.6 Therefore climate should **not** be classified as the 'cause' of famine, or as important as government policies, but rather as a precipitating factor, too insufficient and common to explain the emergence of a major famine. (H1-0098a)

Another rhetorical pair found in the AH123 corpus is Deny and Entertain. In the literature, this has been addressed as one of the common uses labelled as 'cautious stance' (Webber, 2004:195) or 'cautious detachment' (Sun & Crosthwaite, 2022). However, the cautiousness implied in such constructions does not stem from the denial itself but from the various hedging resources used in the clause. What is evident in these examples, though, is that the negation is paired with an Entertain resource (*probably, seem, should, may*). In this way, the textual voice expresses detachment but does so in a cautious manner by adopting certain Entertain resources such as evidentials (*seem*), modal verbs (*may*), as illustrated in extracts 5.7, 5.8 and modal adjuncts (*perhaps, probably*). Although with the negation, the writers close the space for alternative views and distance themselves, at the same time, they represent the proposition as only one of a range of possible positions, opening up possibilities for alignment and solidarity with the readers.

5.7 [I]t would then seem that a model **cannot** be lightly undertaken as a means of identifying the individual functions of the site but merely a basic overall one. [AR1-6032b]

5.8 Although speech as we know it may not have evolved, language of another form may have been present. [AR3-6171h]

A further function of Deny identified in the corpus stems from the interplay of Deny and Proclaim resources. A previously asserted or implied proposition is rejected, but, in this case, the writer does so in an assertive way. Such denials are often introduced by Proclamations, some of the most common in the corpus being, *it is important to note*, *of course*, and *surely* (examples 5.9, 5.10). They still convey 'disagreement' and 'rejection' in most cases, but the fact that the textual voice uses a pronouncement before the negation denotes a strong declaration of its position, adding confidence to its voice. With such overt and assertive authorial intervention, the writer justifies the warrantability of the opposing proposition and does not allow much room for disagreement from the readers.

5.9 It is important to note that although a plan can help it **cannot** be deemed an entirely accurate way of identifying functions and should not be taken as unquestionable fact. [AR1-6032b]

5.10 Of course, **not** all functional roles are fulfilled by states that receive sensory inputs and produce behavioural outputs. [PH2-0235b]

In brief, the three main rhetorical pairs of Deny identified in the corpus and their functions are:

- Deny + Counter → Contrastive denial
- Deny + Entertain → Cautious detachment
- Deny + Proclaim → Assertive authorial intervention

5.2.1.2 DENY IN INDIVIDUAL PAPERS

Figure 5.3 shows the variation in the relative frequency of Deny in individual texts in AH123, with values ranging from 0.89-16.67 instances per 1000 words (corpus as a whole: 6.44 instances per 1000 words).

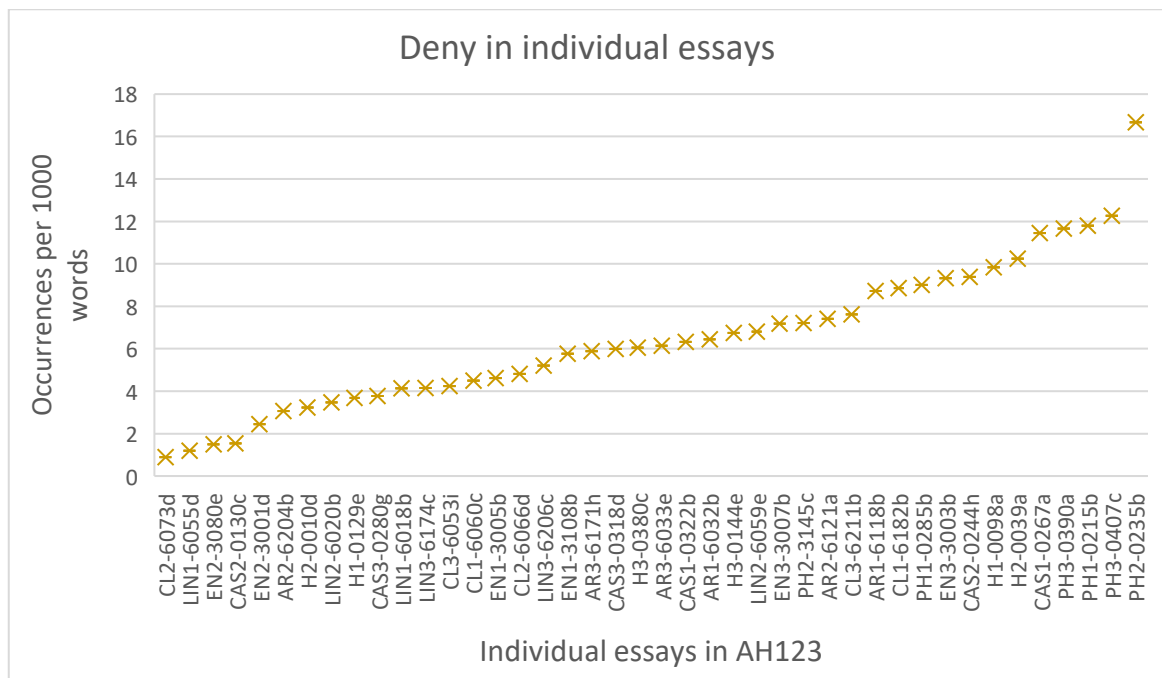


Figure 5.3 Occurrences of Deny (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

One paper that stands out here is PH2-0235b, with a normalised frequency of 16.67 per 1000 words and a raw frequency of 51. This is a year 2 *Philosophy of Mind I* essay entitled '*Can functionalism provide a cross-species concept of pain?*' All but two Deny instantiations by this writer are the adverb '*not*' (example 5.11).

5.11 We have shown that functionalism **cannot** provide a definition of pain that can apply to all organisms, and thus that although functionalism does avoid some of the faults of behaviourism, it **cannot** claim this as a further reason for its superiority. [PH2-0235b]

In example 5.11, the writer explicitly rejects the propositions discussed earlier in the text by suggesting that functionalism neither provides '*a definition of pain that can apply to all organisms*' nor can it claim its superiority to behaviourism.

The paper with the lowest frequency of Deny is CL2-6073d (0.89, n=2) from the second-year classics module in Greek history with the title: '*What effect, if any, did the Peloponnesian War have on either Athenian or Spartan Society?*'. The essay contains only two instances of Deny. This is a highly descriptive essay with a high frequency of monoglossic statements and very low dialogic interaction, which, in general, shows low frequencies of all Engagement features.

Overall, these specific examples highlight the variability in Deny usage among different texts within the AH123 corpus. The findings highlight the diverse student writing styles and levels of Engagement within the context of academic discourse. It also stresses the importance of understanding how different factors, such as essay topics and

disciplinary backgrounds, influence the deployment of linguistic resources in student writing.

5.2.2 COUNTER

In AH123 as a whole, Counter is the second most common heteroglossic Engagement category (n=1052 instances, RF 9.96 per 1000 words). It accounts for 27.42 per cent of Engagement, 60.53 per cent of Disclaim and 51.42 per cent of Contract.

Despite the varied terminology used in the literature (section, 2.9.5), there is a consensus that Counter markers are frequently used in academic writing. Barton's (1995) analysis of contrastive and non-contrastive connectors in a corpus of essays found that "contrastive connectives seem to be the preferred form of connective expression in claims" (ibid: 230) and often take the form of a two-part structure, consisting of a claim and a counterclaim. In her corpus study, Charles (2011) also found high frequencies of contrast adverbials and explains that "making contrasts is a fundamental part of constructing the argumentation that is characteristic of the essay genre" (ibid: 26). Lancaster's (2014) analysis of economics and politics essays also echoes the findings of the current study, with Counter resources being the most frequently used next to Entertain. Significant use of Counter markers has also been noticed in high-graded essays by Wu (2007) and Swain (2007). Liu's (2008) study of spoken and written registers in the British National Corpus (BNC) found that adversative linking adverbials are roughly one-third more common in academic writing than they are in spoken English. Finally, Gardezi and Nesi (2009) found that British

writers used adversatives significantly more frequently than other types of conjunctives.

5.2.2.1 TYPES AND DISTRIBUTION OF COUNTER FEATURES

The AH123 corpus reveals a diverse array of 34 Counter features, illustrating the breadth and depth of linguistic strategies employed by undergraduate writers in their academic essays. The most frequent Counter markers identified in the corpus are seen in Figure 5.4, and a full list can be found in Appendix D (Table D2). The most common Counter resources in AH123 are *but*, *however*, *only*, accounting for more than half (57%) of all instances of Counter in the corpus.

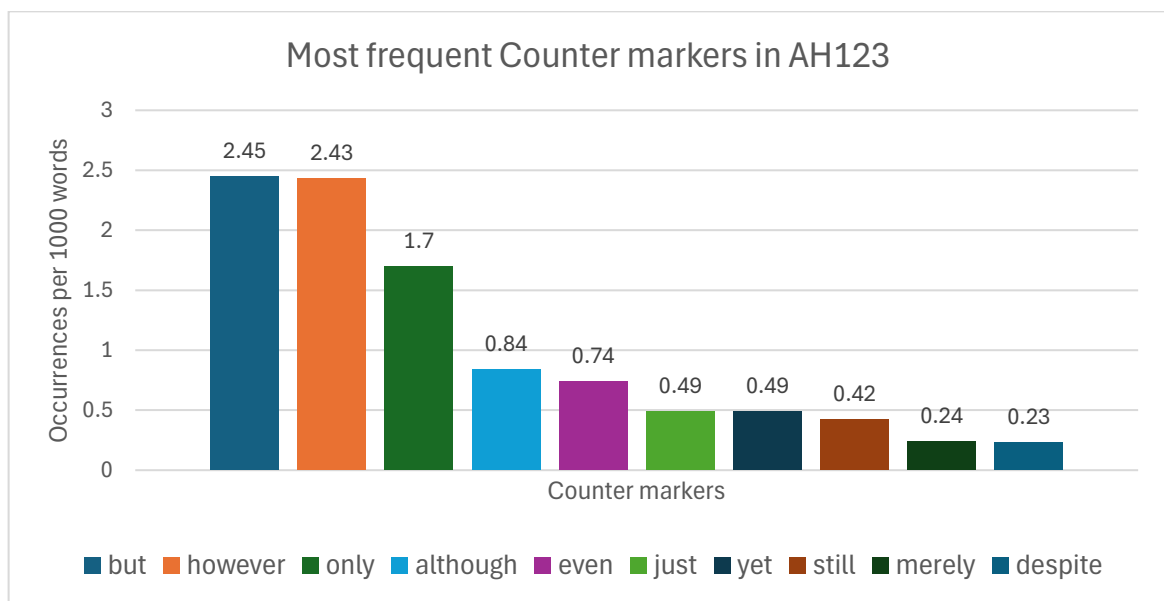


Figure 5.4 The most frequent Counter features in AH123 (raw frequency ≥ 20).

The two most frequently used contrastives in the corpus are *but* and *however* (examples 5.12, 5.13) and are found in every single one of the forty-two papers. The

frequent use of *but* and *however* in academic writing highlights the importance of contrast in scholarly discourse. These contrastives serve to elucidate opposing viewpoints or to introduce critical analysis, contributing thus to the complexity and depth of academic arguments. They help to clarify differences in opinion, highlight contrasting viewpoints, and introduce critical analysis in academic discourse.

In example 5.12, the phrase '*but Burton Stein argues*' introduces a contrasting perspective to the previous statement about the British-built canals and railways in India. This contrast highlights a disagreement or contradiction, indicating that Burton Stein's perspective differs from the intended purpose of the infrastructure projects. Similarly, in example 5.13, the use of *However, MacLeod uses another line of argument* introduces a shift in perspective or approach to Giddens' Structuration Theory. This indicates that MacLeod presents an alternative viewpoint or interpretation, contrasting with the previous discussion about the theory.

5.12 The series of canals and railways built across India by the British were intended to solve distribution problems, **but** Burton Stein argues they worsened existing problems [H1-0098a]

5.13 Giddens' Structuration Theory "challenges the way culture is portrayed in archaeology and attempts to change the analytical focus of archaeology separating will or agency from social structures". **However**, MacLeod uses another line of argument. [AR2-6121a]

Consistent with the findings in the AH123 corpus, prior studies have highlighted the prominent usage of contrastives in academic discourse. In their extensive corpus

study, Biber and colleagues (1999) found that *however* is significantly common in academic writing compared to other contrastives with similar meanings. Similarly, research conducted by Bolton et al. (2003) revealed a disproportionately high use of *however* by British students. On the whole, academic writing research consistently identifies *however* as the most frequent linking adverbial (Biber et al., 1999; Gardezi & Nesi, 2009; Shaw, 2009). Contrast adverbial frequency variations have also been reported between professional and learner genres, with skilled groups employing fewer linkers (Shaw, 2009) and among disciplines (Charles, 2011), with politics writers scoring high in the use of contrastives.

Another resource used to construe Counter in the AH123 corpus is *actually*. In example 5.14 below *actually* serves to Counter or contrast with the preceding proposition (*such accounts might be acceptable*), because what '*they find*' contradicts that expectation. In cases like these *actually* conveys a sense of surprise and counter-expectation.

5.14 Some account of this sort we might expect and perhaps grudgingly accept from someone for whom the will accounts for everything. But we **actually** find that Schopenhauer's views on compassion are of the most contrary and optimistic kind. [PH3-0407c]

5.2.2.1.1 POSITION OF CONTRASTIVE MARKERS

The position of Counter connectors within a text has also been given attention in the literature (Quirk et al., 1985; Biber et al., 1999; Bell, 2007; Gardezi & Nesi, 2009; Shaw, 2009). Researchers agree that, in general, conjunctive adjuncts, particularly

adversatives, are predominantly placed in the initial position of a sentence (Biber et al., 1999; Altenberg & Tapper, 2014; Kunz & Lapshinova-Koltunski, 2014). Shaw (2009:227) suggests that “a tendency towards more initial placement is a marker of less skill,” and Gardezi and Nesi (2009:244) admit that in their study, there were instances “where it might have been more rhetorically effective to delay the placement of the adversative marker”. Research has consistently shown that students who prefer sentence-initial placement of adversative markers and other conjunctive ties are often learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) (Crewe, 1990; Milton & Tsang, 1993) as well as non-native English speakers (Granger & Petch-Tyson, 2002; Aarts & Granger, 1998; Altenberg & Tapper, 2014; Shaw, 2009; Gardezi & Nesi, 2009; Wang, 2011). If this tendency is attributed to interference from the writer’s first language, then the low occurrence of sentence-initial positioning of Counter markers in the AH123 corpus, which consists of essays written by English L1 writers, may be justified.

A quarter of all the Counter realisations in the AH123 corpus are in sentence-initial position with *but* and *however* both competing for the first position. Table 5.3 provides information on the raw frequency and percentage of sentence-initial Counter resources in the AH123 corpus. The percentages represent the proportion of times each Counter feature occurs at the beginning of a sentence out of its total occurrences in the corpus.

Table 5.3 Raw Frequencies and percentages of Counter resources in sentence initial position in AH123, in raw frequency order		
Counter Feature	Raw frequency in sentence-initial position	Percentage (%) in sentence-initial position
However	147	65
Although	31	40
But	16	7
Yet	16	36
Despite	13	62
Nevertheless	9	90
Even	7	10
Unlike	5	28
On the other hand	4	67
Whilst	4	24
Nonetheless	2	67
Even though	2	29
Still	2	5
Conversely	2	100
Contrastingly	1	100
In contrast	1	100
Though	1	20

Adverbials such as *conversely*, *contrastingly*, *in contrast* and *nevertheless* are predominantly used at the beginning of sentences. *However* stands out in the list, with 65 per cent of all the instances in the corpus occurring in sentence-initial positions, closely resembling the percentage found in the BAWE corpus as a whole (60%) by Gardezi and Nesi (2009). Regardless, the sentence-initial position of *however* not only stresses a deliberate contradiction within a text, but also signifies the writer's

confidence in challenging existing arguments or ideas, and critically evaluating viewpoints.

Only seven per cent of all instances of *but* are placed at the beginning of a sentence. Gardezi and Nesi (2009: 244) maintain that although both *but* and *however* seem to have a similar function when in sentence-initial position, *however* tends to *mark* “the contrastive relation a little less strongly”. For instance, in the sentence, *But there are instances when 'domestic patriarchy' was reversed*, [HIS2-209] the contrastive element is introduced at the beginning, yet the transition feels less abrupt compared to when *but* is positioned elsewhere in the sentence. This placement can soften the contrast and create a smoother transition between ideas.

In Gardezi and Nesi's (2009) study, the Pakistani subcorpus had a noticeably higher frequency of sentence-initial *but*, while both the British subcorpus and the BAWE corpus had the same frequency. Other studies have found that sentence initial *but* is more frequent in published academic writing (Bell, 2007) or in scripts by professional literary critics (Shaw, 2009) than in British undergraduate writing. The low frequency of sentence-initial *but* in my corpus may be the result of a traditional tendency of teaching materials and tutor instruction to discourage students from beginning a sentence with it (Bell, 2007).

Unlike some studies (Charles, 2011) in which *although/though* is predominantly found in the initial position of a clause, less than 40 per cent of all the instances of *although/though* in my corpus are used in sentence-initial position. Compared to

however, *although* introduces a milder, more subtle critical comment, as the subordinate clause that expresses a positive evaluation precedes the negative one. This pattern “limits and mitigates the effect of the threat and renders the criticism more acceptable” (Charles, 2011:6). Despite that, sentence-initial *however* is much more common than *although* in AH123, probably indicating a tendency of the writers for clearer transitions and more explicit contrasts in their writing.

5.2.2.1.2 CONTRASTIVE PAIRS

Counter formulations often operate in conjunction with other Engagement resources, forming a contrastive rhetorical pair. In the AH123 corpus, 829 contrastive rhetorical pairs have been identified across six distinct categories (Table 5.4).

Rhetorical Pair	Raw frequency	Percentage (%) of rhetorical pairs
Assert + Counter	452	54.5
Counter + Attribute	145	38.5
Counter + Entertain	114	30.2
Counter + Deny	93	24.7
Counter + Pronounce	20	5.3
Counter + Concur	5	1.3

Of these pairs, more than half (n=452, 54%) represent the Assert+Counter pairing. In this, the counterclaim is presented by an assertion (monogloss), which is immediately countered in a similar monoglossic manner as in 5.15. The Assert + Counter pair is

used most frequently to review facts, and they convey no explicit alignment with alternative positions or readers' expectations.

5.15 Excellent theorising is considered the ultimate end as it is the pinnacle of human life, the best life is one dedicated to both moral and theoretical excellences. [ASSERT] **However**, [COUNTER] the reasonable man is more concerned with the theoretical aspect of his life despite the 'mixed life' proving to be preferable as a practical theory due to human limitations. [PH2-3145c]

In contrast, the remaining five pairs are more pertinent to the current study as they have a clearer function in creating a dialogically engaged, contrastive stance. Examining these can further assist in explaining how Counter operates in the corpus. The Deny+Counter rhetorical pair accounts for nearly a quarter of all contrastive pairs in the corpus and it is the third most frequent among all pairs. As it has already been discussed (section 2.9.5), it typically functions to address and amend a possible misunderstanding on the part of the readers in order to guide them toward the author's perspective.

Another common pair, according to Martin and White (2005), also found in my data, is that of Concede + Counter. With wordings like *of course/but* or *certainly/nevertheless*, "the writer construes a putative reader who is presumed to be to some degree resistant to the writer's primary argumentative position" (Martin & White, 2005:125). With the Concede element (e.g., *of course*), the writer tries to establish solidarity with a non-aligned reader, while with Counter (e.g., *but*), the textual voice tries to win the reader over to its view. Barton (1995:233) also observed this construction in her analysis of contrastive connectors in argumentative essays and explained the use of the Concede

part as a 'face-saving' mitigation move before the actual opposition. In extract 5.16 below, the use of *certainly* indicates that the textual voice agrees that '*government policies were significant in the development of the famines*' but immediately counters this assertion with the use of *but* in order to add further factors that have influenced the development of famines which are also important ('*climate, over-population and social reaction*'). Unlike Martin and White's findings in media discourse, this pair, here called 'Counter+Concur,' scarcely occurs in AH123.

5.16 Government policies were certainly significant in the development of these famines, **but** the roles of factors such as climate, over-population and social reaction should not be ignored. [H1-0098a]

Similarly, in the Pronounce+Counter pairing, the authorial voice accepts a certain proposition (in the case of 5.17) that undoubtedly '*many proper women were bright*' and then counters it while giving further explanation ('*they disguised their intelligence around men*').

5.17 No doubt many 'proper' Greek women were bright, **but** they were quick to disguise their intelligence around men lest they be shunned by society. [CL1-6060c]

The three pairs discussed so far operate in a Contractive way to directly engage with the readers in order to win them over to the writer's view and account for one-third of all the contrastive rhetorical pairs in the AH123 corpus.

The remaining nearly 70 per cent comprise pairs that serve to expand the dialogic space and engage with alternative views presented in the text, extending beyond those of the reader. In this context, the move that precedes the Counter expands the dialogic space while the Counter itself contracts it. The most common of these is Attribute+Counter (n=145). Here (example 5.18), the authorial voice attributes a proposition to an external voice, which is then immediately countered. This pair has strong interpersonal heteroglossic value as it creates a dialogic backdrop against which specific evaluations and judgments can be made. The high frequency of this rhetorical pair also suggests that while student writers attribute views to external voices, they often raise a contrastive voice towards them, which, however, is often supported by a further external view, as in 6.38 (*feminists have criticised Ezell*).

5.18 Looking at contemporary literature and popular opinion, Ezell **concludes** [ATTRIBUTE] that [...] 'Differences between men and women are merely superficial...women are as naturally capable as men of reason, wit ... and government.' **However**, [COUNTER] feminists have criticised Ezell for her limited interpretation of the literature she looks at. [H2-0010d]

A further contrastive pair is formed by first entertaining a point of view, which is then countered or contradicted by the writer (Entertain+Counter). In example 5.19, the contradiction of the definition of the '*model state*' is not an assertive one as it is accompanied by the evidential verbal item *seem* by which the writer allows space for alternative interpretations to enter the dialogue. Nevertheless, by using *although* the writer does express a disalignment with the proposition that '*the model state is an elitist one.*'

5.19 From this respect, the so-called model state seems [ENTERTAIN] very much an elitist one, **although** [COUNTER] some elements seem to contradict the standard definition of elitism. [CL3-6211b]

Similarly, in 5.20, *however* is employed to ‘repair’ the preceding proposition that ‘*Marquez has many different reasons for this showing of magic*’ by providing the additional explanation that ‘*this magic trick is positioned by the author for the benefit of Jose Arcadio Buendia.*’ Thus, while the Entertain+Counter rhetorical pair first invites the reader to accept the proposition as valid or at least arguable, it then replaces it with the author’s personal opinion, which is often a more refined version of the preceded proposition.

5.20 Marquez may [ENTERTAIN] have many different reasons for this showing of magic, the first simply to integrate the priest into the town. **However**, [COUNTER] it is possible that this magic trick is positioned by the author for the benefit of Jose Arcadio Buendia... [CAS1-0322b]

Generally, contrastive pairs are a rhetorical strategy employed by writers to exert a contrastive authorial voice while at the same time engaging with dialogic alternative positions. “They invoke both the writer’s presence and the writer’s awareness of the reader” (Thompson & Zhou, 2000:140). They also allow the writers to progress the argument in a logical and organised way (ibid). The analysis of contrastive pairs in the AH123 corpus reveals the subtle ways in which writers engage with opposing viewpoints and construct dialogic interactions within their texts. While pairs like Assert+Counter operate to directly persuade readers, others such as

Attribute+Counter and Entertain+Counter serve to expand the dialogic space and negotiate alternative perspectives. This suggests that writers in the AH123 corpus employ a variety of rhetorical strategies to navigate complex arguments and negotiate differing perspectives, contributing to the richness of academic discourse.

5.2.2.2 COUNTER IN INDIVIDUAL ESSAYS

Counter formulations are employed with high frequency in most essays. Figure 5.5 shows the variation in the relative frequency of Counter in individual essays in AH123, with values ranging from 2.56-19.54 instances per 1000 words (corpus as a whole: 9.91 instances per 1000 words).

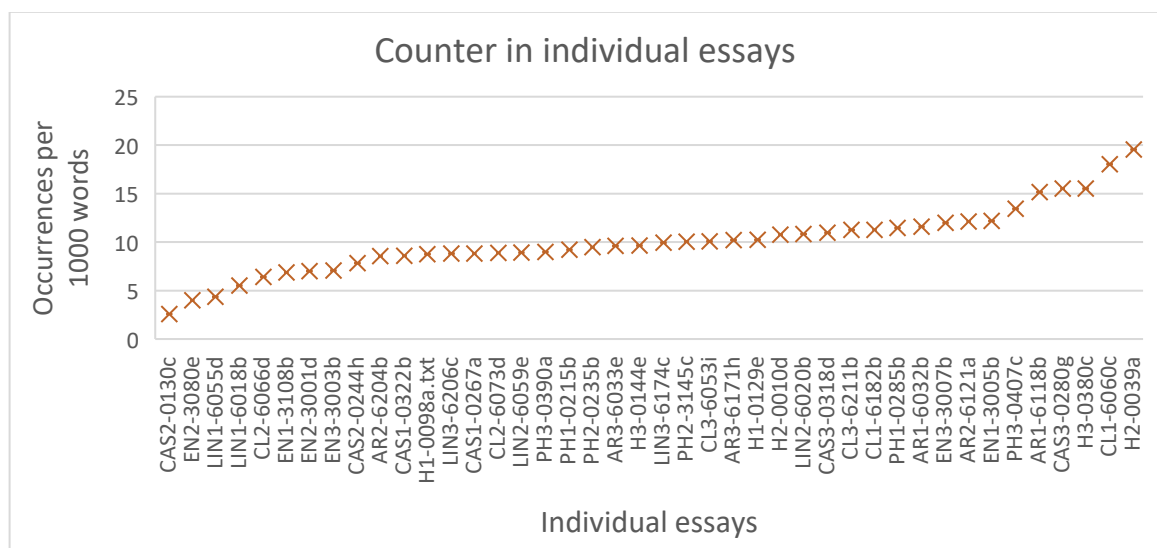


Figure 5.5 Occurrences of Counter (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123.

One paper that stands out here is H2-0039a, with a normalised frequency of 19.54 per 1000 words and a raw frequency of 42. This is a year 2 social history of England essay entitled '*How successfully did the Church impose its moral values on society in the period 1560-1640?*' The writer uses a variety of contrastive connectors, with the most frequent ones being *only* (n=12), *but* (n=6), *even* (n=5), *yet* (n=5), but also *nevertheless*, *nonetheless*, and *merely*.

The essay with the lowest frequency of Counter comes from second-year contemporary American studies (CAS2-0130c) and discusses the influence of religion on the Inca's expansion in the 14th century. It has a relative frequency of 2.56 per 1000 words and a raw frequency of five, signalled by *only*, *merely*, *however*, and *yet*. However, this paper scores low in the use of Engagement resources as a whole, with a total of 17 instances in all categories. It is predominantly monoglossic without a single reference to external sources.

5.2.3 PROCLAIM

Proclaim is the least populated type of Engagement in the AH123 corpus, with 315 instances and a relative frequency of just 2.98 per 1000 words. These instantiations account for 8.21 per cent of all instances of Engagement and 15.34 per cent of instances of Contract. Figure 5.6 illustrates the distribution in frequencies per 1000 words of Concur, Pronounce and Endorse, which correspond to raw frequencies of 81, 158 and 48, respectively.

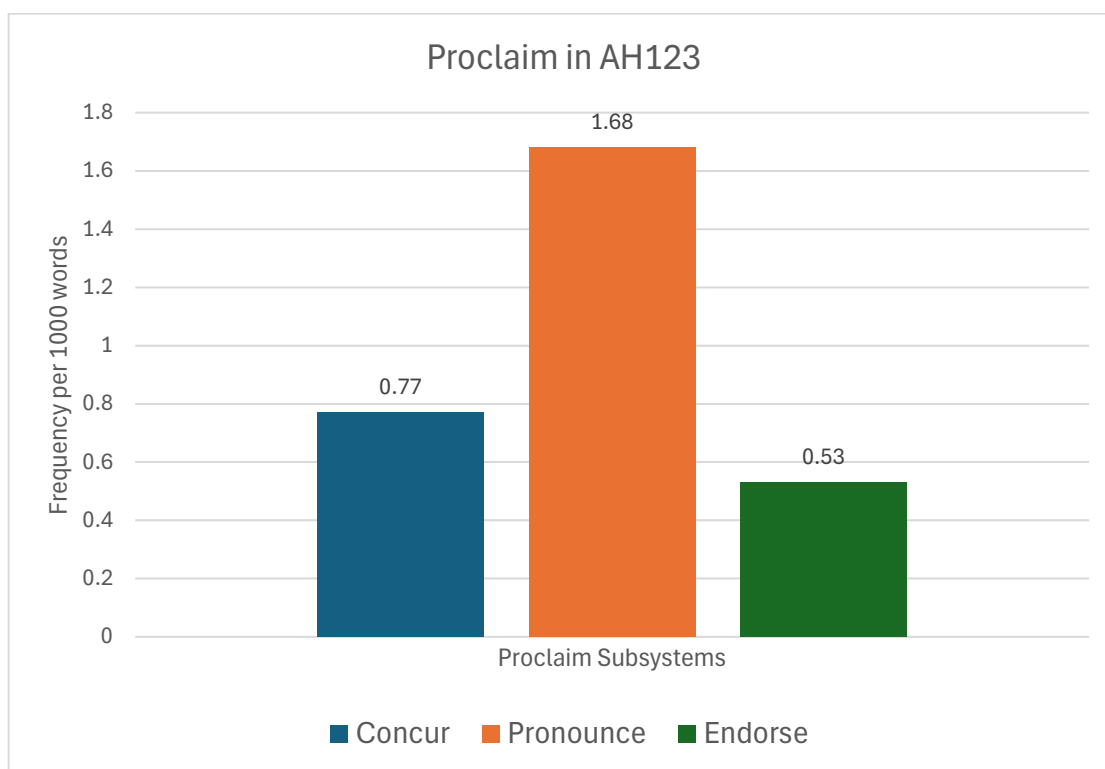


Figure 5.6 Normalised (per 1000 words) frequencies of Concur, Pronounce and Endorse in AH123

There are two essays with zero Proclaim instantiations in the corpus. The first, LIN3-6206c, comes from the Language Pathology module in linguistics entitled '*In what way can aphasia inform our knowledge about the localisation of language functions in the human brain?*'. The paper describes studies on the aphasic syndrome and language with the use of many references. From a dialogic perspective, the writer relies heavily on external sources and expands the dialogic space with such Entertain resources as '*x suggests*', '*it seems*', and modality (*can, may*). Alternative voices are challenged or fended off with the use of Contractive conjunctions (mostly *however*) and less so with negation.

The second paper with no Proclaim instantiations, comes from philosophy, and it is a discussion and comparison of the main argument of Descartes and Hobbes (*In connection with the Second Meditation, Hobbes said it was possible that something that thinks should be something corporeal. Do Descartes' arguments succeed in ruling this possibility out?*). In contrast to the previous essay, in this one, the writer employs a wide range of dialogically Expansive resources (both Attribute and Entertain) to open up the dialogic space for alternative voices and propositions. Both writers, however, avoid emphasising or even presenting their own viewpoints, and it could be argued that the topics of these two essays do not allow for such interpersonal risk.

Low frequencies of Proclaim categories are reported by studies on student academic writing (Derewianka, 2007; Wu, 2007; Swain, 2010; Liu, 2014; Miller et al., 2014; Zhang & Cheung, 2017) and expert writers of published research papers (Fryer, 2019). Proclaim, as a form of dialogic contraction, expresses some degree of personal commitment of the writer to the proposition and reflects different degrees of assertion of the textual voice. These findings suggest a possible correlation between the low frequency of Proclaim instances and the complex nature of dialogic Engagement, where writers may hesitate to assert personal viewpoints with absolute certainty. Following is a discussion of the findings for each of the three subtypes of Proclaim, i.e., Concur, Pronounce, and Endorse, as annotated in the corpus.

5.2.3.1 CONCUR

The analysis of Concur features in the AH123 corpus reveals various expressions used by writers to affirm specific positions or propositions. There are eighty-four instances of Concur in AH123 (RF 0.77 per 1000 words). The feature accounts for 2.11 per cent of all instances of Engagement, 4 per cent of Contract and 25.71 per cent of instances of Proclaim. Figure 5.7 shows the frequency per 1000 words of the most common (n=above 10) Concur formulations in AH123.

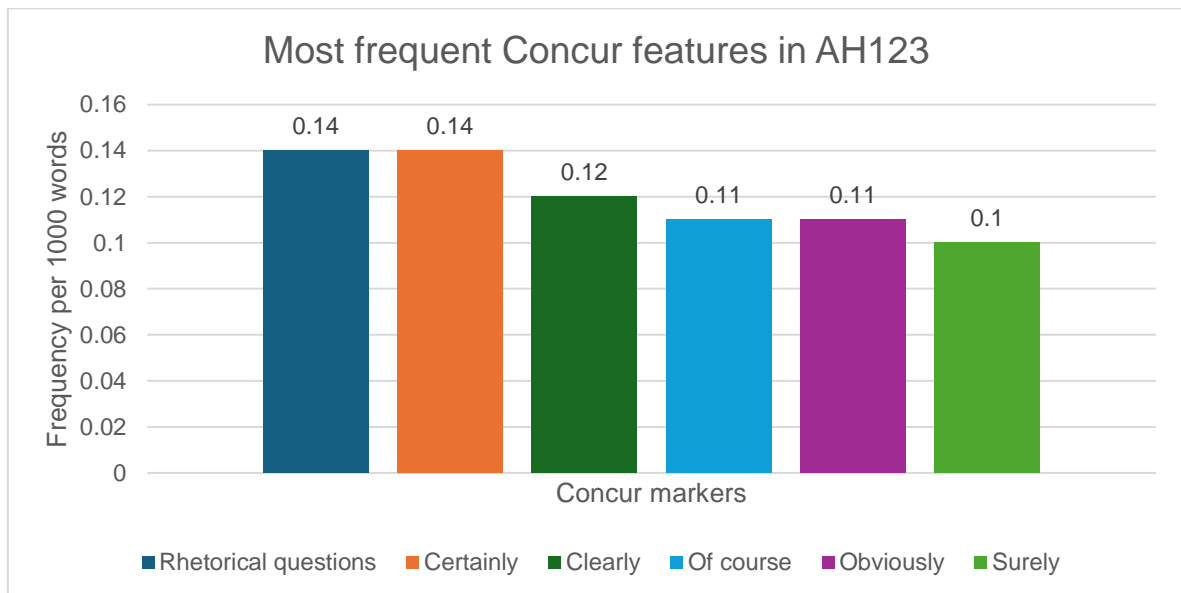


Figure 5.7 Most common Concur features in AH123

The most frequent Concur features, such as *certainly*, *clearly*, *of course*, *obviously*, and *seriously*, collectively account for over 65 per cent of instances in the corpus. The frequencies of occurrence and examples from the corpus for these realisations are listed in Table D3 in Appendix D. Some examples are discussed below.

5.21 Thomas Malthus, [...] asserted that famine, war, and pestilence were positive ways of checking the growth in population, sweeping away excess peoples, and then maintaining a rough equilibrium between people and necessities. [...] These theories are **of course** seen as nonsensical in modern terms, Amartya Sen states 'the increase in food supply has been comparable to, or faster than, the expansion of population'. [H1-0098a]

5.22 The gap between theory and practice in the social position of women in early modern England was **certainly** influenced by the economic realities they faced in their everyday lives. It was often necessary for poorer women to marry quite late; the time before marriage was spent working in service adding to the family purse. [H2-0010d]

In both extracts (5.21, 5.22), the textual voice seems to support a particular position, e.g., *Malthus's theories on checking population growth* in 5.21, and that *the gap between theory and practice in women's' position was influenced by the economic realities women faced in their lives* in 5.22. They emphasise a dialogic space in which the reader and the textual voice seem to be aligned and are construed as having "the same belief or attitude or knowledge" (White 2003:269). Specifically, in 5.21, the writer assumes or even expects that all readers share the view that theories, such as those discussed earlier, are not only dated but also absurd. He does, however, go on to provide further evidence from the literature (*Amartya Sen states*) to support this assertion. In 5.22, too, the textual voice 'proclaims,' with the use of *certainly*, that the economic realities women faced in their everyday lives enhanced *the gap between theory and practice* in their *social position in early modern England*. This is assumed to be a widely accepted belief, which the writer further supports with examples (e.g., *poorer women married late to contribute to their families' finances*).

However, *certainly* does not always have this concessional meaning, as in example 5.22. In some cases, *certainly* does not imply agreement with some dialogic partner, but “high commitment to the proposition on the part of the speaker/writer via an assessment of high probability” and is therefore classified as an instance of Entertain, (Martin & White, 2005:125), as in 5.23 below.

5.23 The reader, throughout the essays and **certainly** [ENTERTAIN] in the two chosen chapters, makes a mental link back to the preface as ideas are aroused once again in the text following 'To the Reader'. [ENG1-3108b]

Similarly, *clear*, and *clearly* do not always function to add emphasis and construe concurrence, but they are instances of Attitude (Appreciation: Composition) functioning as evaluations of ‘things’ with reference to balance and complexity. To exemplify this, in 5.24 *clearly* evaluates the ‘cultural context’ while in 5.25 *clear* refers to the outline, characterising it as ‘simple’ and ‘uncomplicated.’

5.24 Some people dispute the evidence presented on Mallorca as the *Myotragus* bones were not found in a **clearly** [ATTITUDE] cultural context and the inference of co-existence comes mainly from the contemporary dates, [...] [AR3-6033e]

5.25 The presence of a **clear** [ATTITUDE] outline to the town produced by the presence of town walls enforces the idea of a developed infrastructure. [AR1-6032b]

The majority (88%) of the Concur instantiations in the AH123 corpus are ‘affirming concurrences’ as in the extract that follows. In 5.26, the writer expects readers to share

the knowledge that private madhouses are less scandalous than public ones and conveys this with the deployment of *surely*.

5.26 Therefore, it is important to discuss the private asylum compared to the alternatives. **Surely**, being in a private madhouse had less scandal than a workhouse. [H3-0380c]

The ten instances (12%) of ‘conceding concurrence’ pairs found in the corpus, are presented in Table 5.5.

Table 5.5 ‘Conceding concurrence’ pairs in AH123	
‘Concede’ Pair	N
Certainly...but	2
Naturally...but	1
Of course...but	1
Of course...However (new sentence)	1
Yes...but	1
Yes... despite	1
Clearly...but	1
Clearly...However (new sentence)	1
Obviously...However (new sentence)	1
Total	10

Conceding concurrences imply a sense of reluctance or hesitation on the part of the textual voice. The authorial voice first acknowledges a certain proposition, presents

itself as agreeing with it and the reader, only then to counter and reject it as non-valid or insufficient. This is achieved by the rhetorical pair Concur + Counter (discussed earlier) as in example 5.27. In the first sentence, the writer's use of *of course* construes an audience which shares the writer's estimation that Esteban is not the only important character in the novel. In the next sentence, however, this is somehow doubted by the writer, who is now defending the ultimate importance of the particular character in the novel.

5.27 To ascertain whether Esteban is indispensable, one has to examine his function in the novel and compare it to the function of other characters. **Of course** [CONCUR] there are other characters that are just as important as Esteban, if not more so. **However** [COUNTER] he creates the world that the majority of the characters are to live in; the house in the city, the estate in Country, he even effects the politics of the time they are living in as he becomes a senator. [CAS3-0280g]

In Concur+Counter pairings, the writer 'bids to win the reader over.' As Martin and White put it, "in such a rhetorical pair, the writer construes a reader holding some natural assumption or opposing position, strategically establishing solidarity with the reader, only to guide them later towards the author's argued position" (Martin & White, 2005:126). Thus, the writer first acknowledges the contrary viewpoint, accepting it as valid establishing thus solidarity with the reader. This is further exemplified in 5.28, where the writer starts by stating that "*Pauper inmates certainly received worse treatment in private asylums*" to then disagree with this view through the deployment

of a Counter formulation, in this case *but*, and express disagreement with the preceding proposition.

5.28 Pauper inmates **certainly** received worse treatment in private asylums, **but** there was scandal of false confinement and poor conditions for all patients. [H3-0380c]

Thirteen leading rhetorical questions conveying Concur were also identified in the corpus. These are used to attract the readers' attention and persuade them of the credibility of the writer's proposition, as in *Can you just define behaviour as aversion behaviour without specifying further?* [PH2-0235b] and will be discussed further in 6.5.

Concur, like Endorse and Pronounce, involves "heightened personal investment" (White 2003:269) and it does not come as a surprise that they are not very frequent in undergraduate writing. Low frequencies of Concur have also been reported by other researchers (e.g., Swain, 2007; Wu, 2007; Ryshina-Pankova, 2014).

5.2.3.1.1 CONCUR IN INDIVIDUAL ESSAYS

As Figure 5.8 shows, there is a great variation in the relative frequency of Concur across the individual essays in AH123, with values ranging from 0 to 2.90 instances per 1000 words (corpus average 0.74 instances per 1000 words).

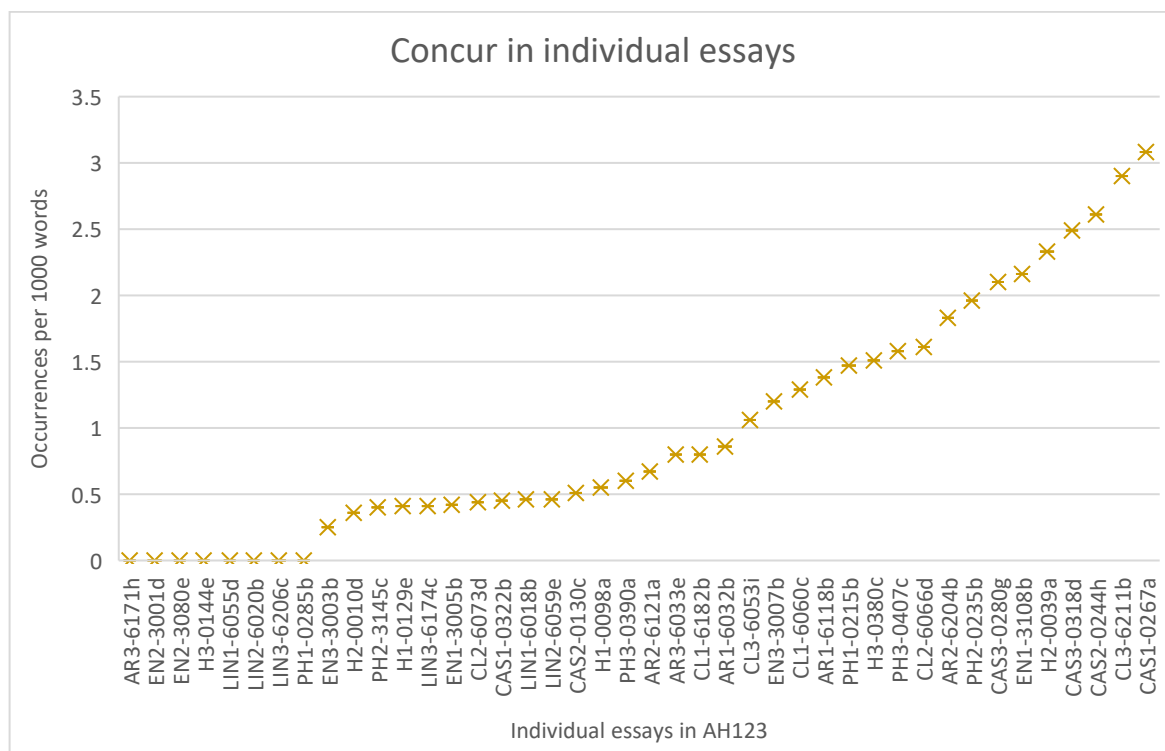


Figure 5.8 Occurrences of Concur (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123.

Among the 42 essays in the corpus, eight contain no instances of Concur. Rather surprisingly, the outlier here is CAS1-0267a, with 3.08 instances per 1000 words and a raw frequency of 7. This essay employs a diverse range of Concur features, such as *clearly*, *certainly*, and *surely*, suggesting a tendency towards agreement or affirmation within its discourse.

A few more papers employ between five to eight Concur markers. In CL3-6211b, five of the eight Concur instantiations are in the form of leading rhetorical questions. The high use of such rhetorical devices effectively engages the reader and invites agreement or alignment with the argument presented. On the other hand, in ENG1-3108b, Concur formulations are more evenly distributed, comprising three rhetorical questions and other items such as *obviously*, *of course*, and *certainly*. This balanced

distribution suggests a more subtle approach to affirming or agreeing with the discussed points in this essay.

5.2.3.2 PRONOUNCE

Pronounce is the most populated category of Proclaim in the corpus, with 141 instances and relative frequency of 1.68 per 1000 words. This feature constitutes 4.64 per cent of all instances of Engagement, more than half (56.51%) of all Proclaim instances and 8.67 per cent of Contract instances. The frequencies of occurrence and examples of these realisations are listed in Table D4 in Appendix D. Some examples are presented and discussed below.

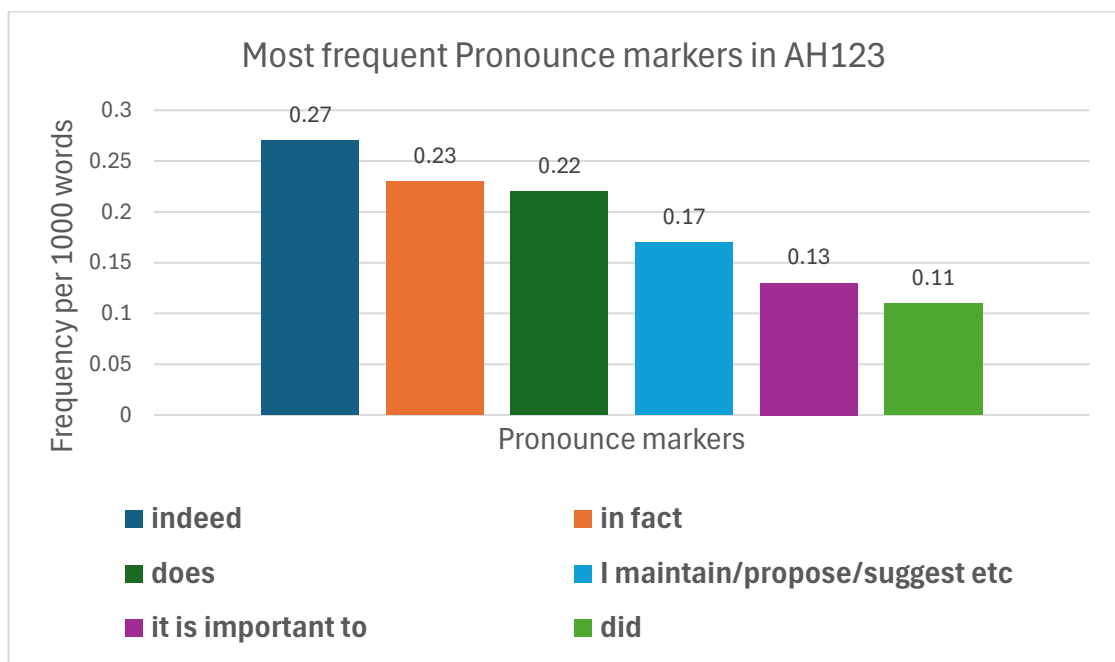


Figure 5.9 Most frequent Pronounce features in AH123 (raw frequency ≥ 10)

The most frequent Pronounce features in the AH123 corpus (Figure 5.9) are emphatic auxiliaries (*did, does*), *indeed*, and *in fact*, collectively constituting slightly more than half (53%) of all the Pronounce encodings in the corpus. One of the most common Pronounce features *indeed* occurs 25 times in the corpus (example 5.29).

5.29 **Indeed** we might say that we observe women to be more compassionate than men. [PH3-0407c]

There are twenty-one occurrences of the prepositional phrase *in fact* but no cases of 'fact clauses' (e.g., *the fact is*), which are among the main formulations evoking Pronounce, according to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004:470). The nearest item resembling this found in the corpus is *the point is that* (example 5.30).

5.30 However, we can respond to this objection by asking 'rather than the idea of what'? **The point is that** there is no representation possible of objects which exceed a certain magnitude. [PH3-0390a]

There are also eight occurrences of *no doubt* and *undoubtedly*, which have been considered both as denials and pronouncements during the annotation process.

Other lexicogrammar Pronounce realisations in the corpus include the expressions *it is important to note that* (example 5.31), and *it is interesting to see that*.

5.31 Context is clearly important in gaining an overall understanding of a text but it has been suggested that Goodman's account of reading 'more accurately characterises beginning readers than skilled readers'. (Oakhill & Garnham

1988:33). **It is important to note that** 'the use of context decreases as reading skill increases' (Oakhill & Garnham, 1988:86). [LING3-6174c]

Although such expressions convey a particular attitude or perspective within the discourse and fall under the Attitude category of appraisal, they also serve the function of pronouncing a specific point; the writer's perspective that what follows is noteworthy and highlights the author's evaluation or stance on the information being presented. By explicitly stating that something is important or interesting to note, the writers assert their judgment and guide the reader's attention to specific aspects of the discourse. Instances of verbs such as *propose*, *suggest*, and *argue* when used in the first person singular or plural form (e.g., *I argue*, *we agree*) have also been annotated as Pronounce as they indicate a direct assertion of the writer's viewpoint or stance on a particular issue.

Half of the Pronounce items in the corpus are directed towards an opposed dialogic alternative in order to Deny or Counter it (example 5.32), and the other half towards a positive clause, as in example 5.33. In extract 5.32, the writer states that *the infinite cannot be in the world*, aiming to deny the infinite's existence in the world.

5.32 In fact, from this formulation we can see that the infinite cannot be in the world. [PH3-0390a]

Example 5.33, on the other hand, illustrates the use of pronouncement to affirm a positive clause. Here, the writer asserts that *we are in fact very instinctual in matters such as this*, contradicting the belief introduced in the first part of the sentence, that humans have free will.

5.33 It is generally believed that as humans we lack instinct and possess free will, but we are **in fact** very instinctual in matters such as this. [PH3-0407c]

Most pronouncements (111/145, 77%) are directed towards a third party. This third party is a theory, a method, evidence or a direct or indirect quotation and/or citation. In example 5.34, for instance, the writer quotes Perfetti (underlined) on the importance of the quantity of words in effective reading. The textual voice, then, counters this proposition while vouching for its own position.

5.34 Perfetti concluded that 'readers must read lots of words in order to read effectively' (1999:45). However **it is important to note** that the readers technique can be affected by the purpose of reading. [LIN3-6174c]

The remaining Pronounce occurrences challenge a position which is or is likely to be held as true by the reader. In such cases, there is an obvious threat to solidarity since the authorial voice openly presents itself as “at odds with this construed addressee” (Martin & White, 2005:130). To illustrate this, in example 5.35, the writer addresses the audience in first person plural (*We all suppose*) as an attempt to build solidarity before putting forward the pronouncements *I wish to propose* and *in fact*. Further dialogistic resources are employed, such as Entertain: *perhaps* and Concur: a leading rhetorical question (underlined), to alleviate the apparent disalignment.

5.35 The word that Schopenhauer uses to discuss compassion is the German Mitleid, meaning precisely 'to suffer with', so essentially, we are talking exclusively of suffering. We all suppose that compassion is an act of altruism; the unselfish concern for the welfare of others, but **I wish to propose** that we are, **in fact**, secretly and perhaps unknowingly seeking our own ends. To see

another person suffering causes us to suffer, and we act to alleviate their suffering and, by doing so, alleviate our own. But why should another's plight cause us to suffer in the first place? [PH3-0407c]

Like Concur, low frequencies of pronouncements have also been recorded in the literature. Nevertheless, in most studies of undergraduate writing, it has been noted that lower-graded scripts make greater use of Pronounce compared to high-rated ones (Wu & Allison, 2005; Wu, 2007; Miller et al., 2014; Ryshina-Pankova, 2014). Miller et al. (2014:115) suggest that this creates a subjective voice as it does not leave room for considering alternative views. With Pronounce, the writer's own voice is explicitly inserted into the text, or as White (2020:5) puts it, the authorial voice is "the explicitly responsible source of the utterance". The point being made is emphasised, and alternative perspectives are rejected. In contrast, Swain (2010) found low frequencies of contracting resources, particularly Pronounce and Concur, in low-rated essays and explains this as a tendency of weaker essays "to avoid bold authorial intervention in the text" (ibid, p. 311). It remains to be seen whether any variations exist across the different levels of study and/or disciplines in the AH123 corpus in the deployment of these Proclaim categories.

5.2.3.2.1 PRONOUNCE IN INDIVIDUAL ESSAYS

Figure 5.10 shows variation in the relative frequency of Pronounce for individual essays AH123. Values range from 0 to 4.65 instances per 1000 words (corpus as a whole: 1.37 instances per 1000 words).

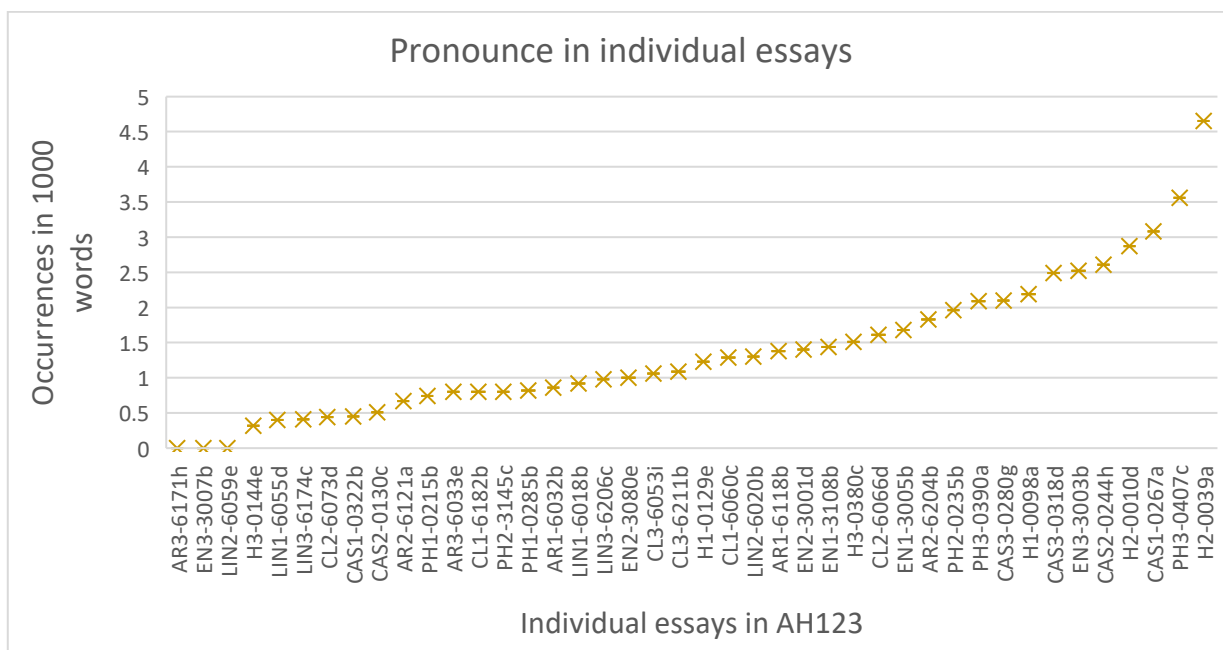


Figure 5.10 Occurrences of Pronounce (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123.

Three essays, namely AR3-6171h, LIN2-6059e, and EN3-3007b, contain no instances of Pronounce. For example, AR3-6171h, a third-year essay in archaeology about “Neanderthal speech”, displays a highly dialogic nature with numerous Entertain resources but minimal Proclaim ones, such as *evidence suggests*, *studies reaffirm* and *evidently*. Similarly, LIN2-6059e, a second-year essay on *Corpus-based approaches to language on “patterns and meaning”*, employs a high frequency of Entertain resources but only two Proclaim ones, like *obviously* and *of course*.

The two essays with the highest relative frequencies are H2-0039a, with ten occurrences of Pronounce (RF 4.65), and PH3-0407c, with nine Pronounce occurrences (RF 3.56). The former comes from history and is about the role of the Church and the moral values in society in the period 1560-1640. It is the paper with the highest both raw and relative frequencies of contractive resources in the corpus. It

also has a high relative frequency of Expanding resources, 16.29, with the average of the whole corpus being 17.05. This essay also 'stood out' in the discussions of the findings in Concur and Counter. It is likely that the high frequency of Engagement resources is due to the writer's own style rather than other variables such as discipline, level, genre, or gender. The latter, PH3-0407c, is from year three philosophy, and it discusses 'the Will' and 'Compassion' from Schopenhauer's perspective. This essay, too, has remarkably high frequencies (both raw and relative) of both Contract and Expand features (n= 82, RF=32.45 and n=54, RF=21.37, respectively). Here, though, it can be argued that it is the topic discussed that allows for higher use of Proclaim. The writer uses very few attributions, relying only on the works of Schopenhauer in a highly personalised manner with extensive use of Entertain, Counter and Deny resources.

There is one more essay that stands out because of its high raw frequency of Pronounce (n=10), though its RF is only 2.52. The essay (ENG3-3003b) is from year 3 English contemporary literature with the title "*Using any critical/theoretical ideas that you have encountered so far on this module explore the continuities or discontinuities between any two texts you have read on your degree.*" The writer discusses two novels (Joseph Conrad's *Heart of Darkness*, 1899 and Alan Warner's *Morvern Callar*, 1996), and he uses a variety of resources to both Contract and Expand the dialogistic space. With reference to Pronounce, there are instances of *indeed*, *in fact* and *it is interesting to*. Another reason that this paper is worth noting is that it is the only one in the corpus that employs subjective explicit Pronounce realisations such as *I grant that*, *I would say that* (n=4), as a means of explicit authorial intervention. In examining the

Pronounce usage across individual essays in the AH123 corpus, it becomes evident that the frequency and nature of pronouncement vary significantly. This diversity may be influenced by factors such as discipline, topic specificity, and writer's style.

5.2.3.3 ENDORSE

Endorse is the least frequent Engagement feature in the AH123 corpus, with a raw frequency of forty-eight and a relative frequency of less than one (0.45). Despite its rarity, it constitutes 1.46 per cent of all recorded instances of Engagement. Although it is less common overall, it represents nearly 18 per cent of Proclaim instances, underscoring its significance in certain linguistic contexts. The frequencies per 1000 words of the most common Endorse features in the corpus are depicted in Figure 5.11. The full list of the annotated Endorse markers and their frequencies are in Table D5, in Appendix D.

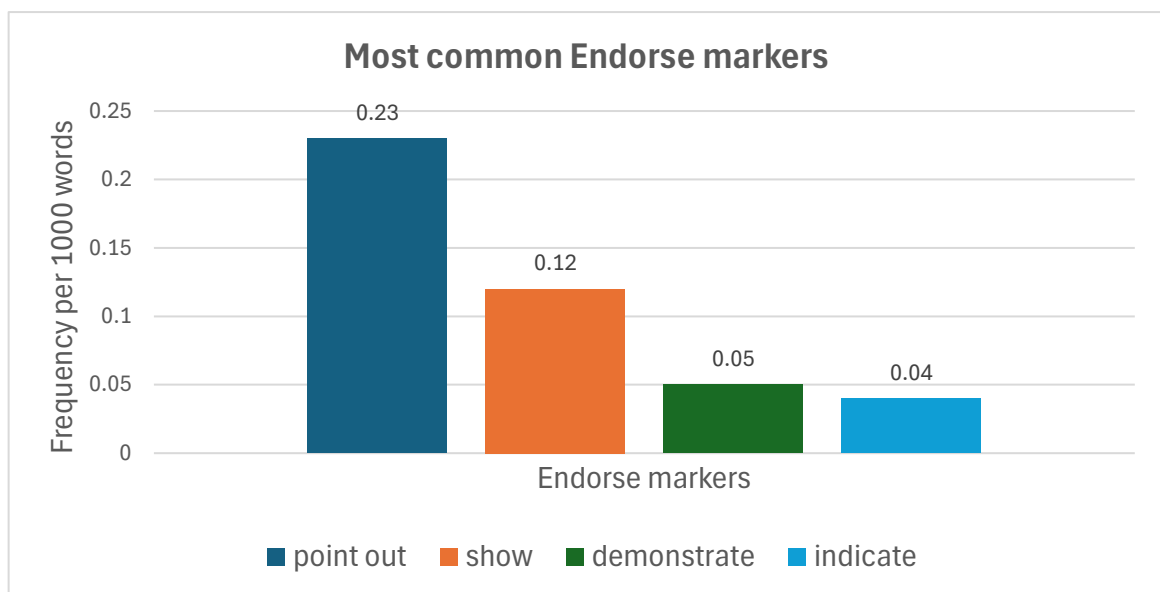


Figure 5.11 Most frequent Endorse features in AH123 (raw frequency ≥ 4)

Endorse affirms the proposition attributed to an external source (Martin and White, 2005). The endorsements in the AH123 corpus include instances where writers incorporate studies, findings, evidence, or propositions from external sources into their writing. These endorsements serve to support or validate the writer's arguments or claims by citing credible sources. For example, in references 5.36 and 5.37, the writers integrate information from Frison and Stadler, respectively, to support their own assertions.

5.36 This has been **shown** in a study by Frison in 1989 which demonstrated that simple tools can be used in dismembering animals (Simmons 1991, p862). [AR3-6033e]

5.37 Stadter has **pointed out** that several other biographies by Plutarch show a change in the protagonist's character near the end of the Life, for example Alexander also became increasingly superstitious. [CL3-6053j]

By referencing external sources in this manner, writers demonstrate their engagement with existing literature and scholarly discourse, enhancing the credibility and validity of their arguments.

In other cases, Endorse formulations express the writer's alignment with an attributed position in a study conducted by the same writer (internally sourced proposition, self-reference). Such text-internal endorsements are also more common in published research articles (e.g., Fryer, 2019), dissertations or theses but not expected in undergraduate writing, as undergraduate writing assignments typically focus on synthesizing existing literature, analysing concepts, and developing arguments based

on secondary sources rather than original research. However, we found one such occurrence in AH123. In extract 5.38 below, the writer endorses the findings of her own study (test) conducted to test Goodman's theory.

5.38 By conducting a miscue analysis on 3 students I attempted to see if my findings supported the theory of Goodman... The findings of this small test **showed** that the readers used analogies in order to read unfamiliar words. [LING3-6174c]

Although this paper is still classified as an essay in BAWE, the assignment prompt is to create a portfolio of media texts and write a commentary. The student writer explains in her essay that she conducted her own analysis on three students to determine if her findings supported the theory of Goodman.

Research indicates that endorsing verbs are favoured by expert writers in the sciences (Pickard, 1995; Hyland, 2005; Charles, 2006; Zhang & Cheung, 2017; Fryer, 2019). In contrast, undergraduate writers and students in Humanities opt for a neutral position with respect to the preposition with the use of reporting verbs conveying acknowledgment (Swales, 2007; Liardét & Black, 2019). Pickard (1995), for example, reports that experts preferred dialogically contracting reporting verbs, such as *show* and *find*, to endorse a proposition. Charles (2006), however, found that in the materials science corpus, there were almost as many instances of the *find/show* reporting verbs group, which includes the verbs *find*, *observe*, and *show*. Low Endorse frequencies have also been recorded in other studies of student writing (Swain, 2010; Liu, 2014; Miller, Mitchel & Pessoa, 2014; Liu & McCabe, 2018; Liardét & Black, 2019). Brooke (2014:5) found a significant difference in the quality between high and low-scoring

papers that writers with the latter avoiding “to strongly endorse.” In high-rating papers, in contrast, he reports a significantly higher frequency of attribution and authorial (dis) endorsement. Similarly, in literature reviews of research articles (Zhang & Cheung, 2017) and medical research articles (Fryer, 2019), much higher frequencies of Endorse are evident compared to Concur and Pronounce.

There are many reasons why Endorse frequencies are low in the AH123 and in student academic writing in general. The first reason relates to the topic of the essay. Apart from one title in linguistics (example 5.60), all the other essay questions require a review of the literature in some form or other, an analysis of historical events, or a review of literary works. This discourages the frequent use of Endorse markers because such topics often require critical evaluation and interpretation rather than outright endorsement or approval of specific viewpoints.

The second reason why Endorse frequencies are low in the AH123 corpus relates to the disciplinary domain. In disciplines covered by the AH123 corpus, students are not typically required to conduct their own empirical research during their undergraduate studies. Instead, they are expected to draw on existing literature to demonstrate their knowledge of the subject matter. Unlike disciplines such as the sciences or social sciences, where empirical research findings are more prevalent and often endorsed, the humanities disciplines covered in the AH123 corpus place less emphasis on empirical evidence and more on critical analysis of existing texts or ideas. Hyland (1996) also notes a similar trend, linking the low frequencies of endorsements to the

positive-empirical epistemology of hard disciplines, where empirical research findings are more common and, therefore, more frequently endorsed in academic writing.

More importantly, the use of Endorse associates the proposition with the subjectivity of the authorial voice and its intervention in the meaning. Endorse is used not only to construe the proposition as correct or valid (Martin and White, 2005) but also to offer an interpretation that supports the author's assertion (Miller et al., 2014). With endorsements, writers incorporate information from a source, align with that perspective and then construct an argument based on their own interpretation of that information in order to emphasise or clarify their position, which means explicit exposure of subjectivity. This explicit exposure to subjectivity may be something that student writers wish to avoid.

Finally, the limited lexicogrammar selection of items in the Endorse category of Engagement might be another reason for the low occurrences of endorsements. For this study, I have annotated as Endorse only a few verbs and their nominalisations. Studies that have found high frequencies of Endorse have opted for a great selection of verbs as well as their nominalisations. Fryer (2019), for example, reports high instances of Endorse in his study. However, apart from the fact that he concentrated on medical research articles, which probably justifies such high rates, he also opted for a greater choice of Endorse markers such as *findings*, *evidence* and other nouns. Despite this limitation of the current study, there are some variations across levels and disciplines, as we will explore in the next chapter, and across individual texts, as discussed next.

5.2.3.3.1 ENDORSE IN INDIVIDUAL ESSAYS

Figure 5.12 shows variation in the relative frequency of Endorse for individual essays in AH123. Values range from 0 to 2.75 instances per 1000 words, compared to 0.44 instances per 1000 words for the entire corpus.

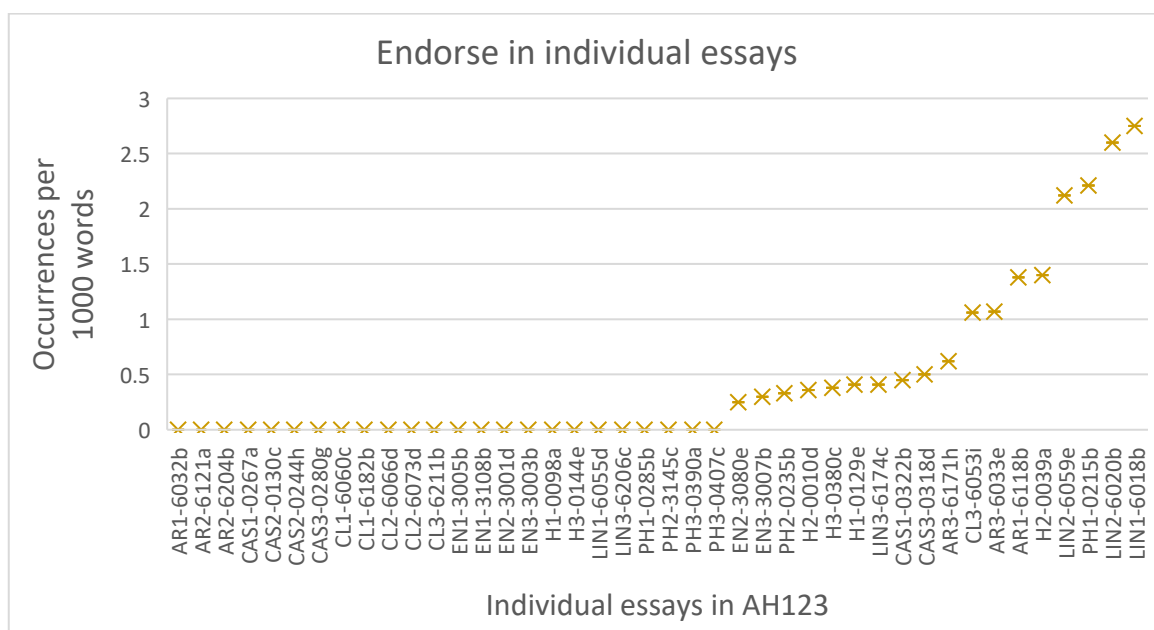


Figure 5.12 Occurrences of Endorse (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123.

More than half of the essays (24/42) include no Endorse figures at all. Three papers stand out with six instances each and relative frequencies of 2.75, 2.60 and 2.21, respectively.

Texts LIN1-6018b and LIN2-6020b come from linguistics and discuss the effects of ‘gender and class’ in language and ‘language development’, respectively. In both essays, the writers endorse external sources such as *these studies confirm that, Clark*

points out, different linguists have shown to support their arguments. In contrast, the third essay is from philosophy and discusses 'virtue' and Meno. Four out of the six endorsement occurrences in this paper are the verb *point out*. It is likely that the high frequency of *point out* suggests a personal preference of the writer, possibly substituting for another reporting verb. Moreover, the textual voice in these instances does not necessarily aim to endorse, but rather to acknowledge the source, indicating no authorial stance towards the referenced proposition. For further discussion on this, see section 6.6.

If we could draw some conclusions from the examination of these papers, they would be threefold. First, in linguistics essays, endorsements are often used to cite external studies and expert linguists, indicating a reliance on empirical evidence and scholarly authority to support arguments about language and social phenomena. Conversely, in philosophy essays, endorsements may serve a different purpose, with writers using them to acknowledge sources and present alternative viewpoints without necessarily endorsing them outright. Finally, the personal preferences and rhetorical strategies of individual writers are significant factors in constructing their unique authorial voices.

5.2.4 ENTERTAIN

Entertain is the most frequent instantiated Engagement feature in AH123, with a raw frequency of 1194 and a relative frequency of 11.30 per 1000 words. It represents 31 per cent of all recorded instances of heteroglossic Engagement and 67 per cent of Expand. The most common Entertain realisations in AH123 are the modal verbs *can*,

could and *may*, accounting for half of all the Entertain encodings in the corpus. Other common Entertain resources found in AH123 include modal adjuncts, like *perhaps*, *probably*, modal attributes, such as *it's possible*, *likely*, and evidence/appearance-based markings, also called evidentials in this thesis, such as *it seems*, *it appears*, together accounting for one-third of all Entertain resources in the corpus. All the Entertain locutions (in bold) in the above extracts (5.39-5.41) construe a heteroglossic backdrop for the texts. *May*, *perhaps*, and *seems* openly ground the propositions in the subjectivity of the writers and recognise them as only one among other propositions available in the current communicative context. Hence, the authorial voice acknowledges the existence of alternative viewpoints that readers may align with.

5.39 The functionalist **may** wish to accept this anti-mentalist consequence and take the behaviourist line. PH2-0235b

5.40 Climate is **perhaps** the most appropriate place to start as it is undoubtedly at the origin of all shortages of food. H1-0098a

5.41 This characteristic tone **seems** to represent Montaigne's feelings on the 'limited scope' of his attempts. ENG1-3108b

Entertain was annotated following the seven lexicogrammar categories presented in Table 5.6 along with their raw frequencies, with modals and evidentials accounting for 87 per cent (n=1034) of all Entertain realisations.

Table 5.6 Lexicogrammatical categories of Entertain in order of raw frequency

Entertain category	Realisations	Raw Frequency
Modal auxiliaries	<i>May, might, could, must</i>	712
Modal adjuncts/attributes	<i>Likely, perhaps, possibly</i>	163
Evidence/appearance	<i>Seem, appear, suggest</i>	159
<i>If</i> -clauses	<i>If, assuming, supposedly</i>	72
Expository questions	<i>Why did they die out?</i>	48
Mental verbs/opinion	<i>Think, believe, in my opinion</i>	40

The distribution of these categories in the corpus is illustrated in Figure 5.13 as frequencies per 1,000 words.

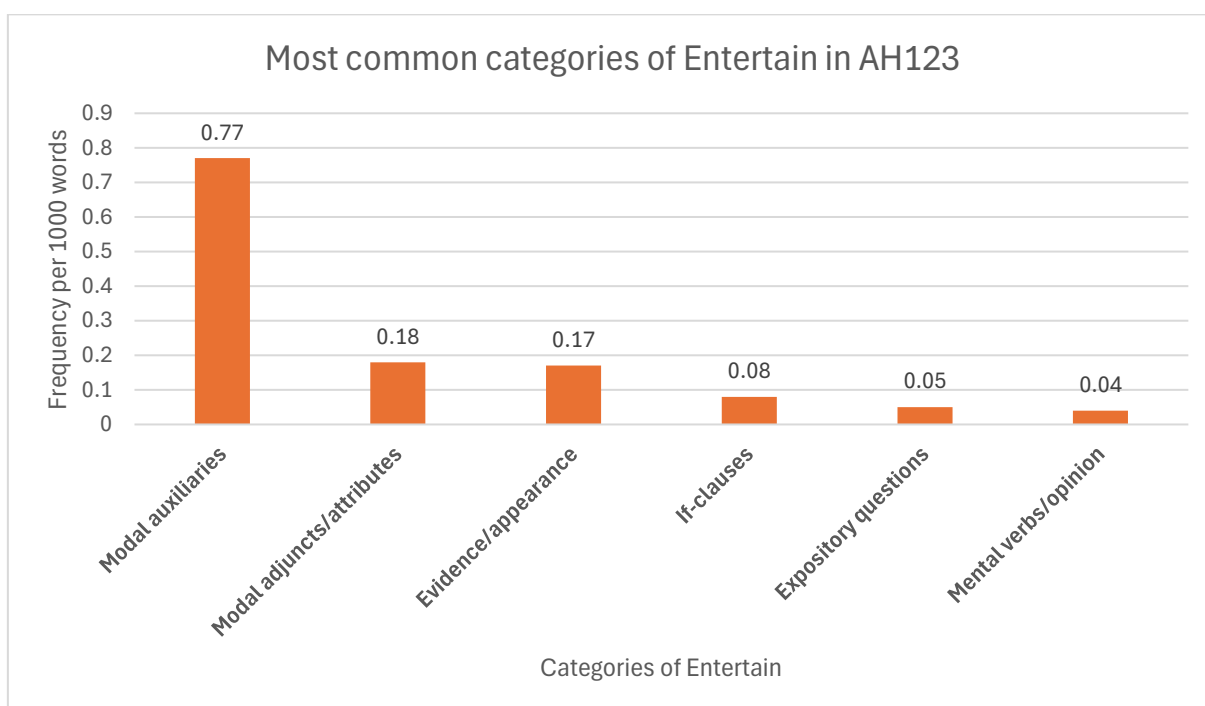


Figure 5.13 Normalised frequency (per 1000 words) of the most common lexicogrammar categories of Entertain in AH123

In AH123, there are also seventy-two *if*-clauses (example 5.42) and forty-eight expository rhetorical questions (example 5.43 and 5.44).

5.42 If this idea is correct, then we never acquire new knowledge, but rather recall that which is latent, thus neatly avoiding Meno's paradox. PH1-0215b

The *if*-clause in example 5.42 presents a hypothetical scenario to explore the concept of acquiring knowledge, specifically in the context of Meno's paradox. By posing the condition *if this idea is correct*, the writer invites readers to consider the implications of the proposition on the paradox and the nature of knowledge acquisition.

In extract 5.43, a rhetorical expository question is employed to put forward a proposition as one possible view among others and encourage a deeper exploration of the relationship between the concept of free will in the dynamic sublime and its implications for morality.

5.43 In the case of the dynamic sublime we saw that our free will was shown to be more powerful than anything that could be presented to us by the imagination. **How does this relate to morality?** In the case of the dynamic sublime things are fairly straightforward. We are led to recognise the fact that our free will cannot be impinged upon by the sensible world. PH3-0390a

Similarly, the rhetorical question in example 5.44 challenges readers to contemplate the feasibility of identifying spoken language in the Neanderthal fossil record and

material remains. By posing the question, the writer engages readers in critical thinking about the limitations and possibilities of archaeological evidence in understanding ancient linguistic communication.

5.44 Is it possible to identify a spoken language in the neanderthal fossil record and through their material remains? [AR3-6171h]

As mentioned in section 4.3, some of the mental verbs used to convey Entertain can also construe Acknowledge. A distinction between the two, however, can usually be made by considering the framer of the proposition. Two such verbs are *suggest* and *believe*. For example, in 5.45 and 5.47, the instances of *suggest* and *believe* are grounded in the writer's own subjective assessment and enact Entertain, while in 5.46 and 5.48, they refer to an external source (Tattersall and Grotstein, respectively) and enact Attribution.

5.45 There appears to be evidence **suggesting** that the Egyptian culture was in fact relatively open. [AR1-6118b]

5.46 Tattersall (1999) **suggests** the development of tool-making techniques may be contemporaneous with the evolution of language and regional dialects: one possibly prompting the other. [AR3-6171h]

5.47 **It is believed** by some groups of archaeologists that high status metallic goods were at least part of the basis for the establishment of control in the emerging stratified societies that are indicative of the Bronze and Iron Ages.

5.48 Grotstein (1998:64) **believes** that 'the search for God is but another way - in part, albeit - to search for his/her own Unconscious'.

Overall, these extracts employ various linguistic expressions to convey the notion of possibility or uncertainty. They introduce alternative viewpoints or potential interpretations, indicating the writers' engagement with different possibilities and their intent to entertain the reader rather than presenting definitive statements. As it is evident, some instantiations extend across or beyond the level of the clause or the proposition (e.g. *if*-clauses, expository questions), others are restricted to specific semantic elements (e.g. *possibility*), and both often co-occur with other Entertain formulations (e.g., *seems unlikely*). As the main purpose of the project was to identify and analyse individual linguistic units within the text, these were coded as separate units (more details are provided in the Annotation manual).

Lexicographically, the category of Entertain is broad and does not explore distinctions which might operate among the various instances (White, 2003:280). The fact that Entertain is not always construed by a single lexicogrammatical item is one of the reasons that make both annotating and quantifying Entertain occurrences a challenging task. In fact, annotating the corpus for Entertain resources prompted the need to clarify, modify, and refine the Engagement framework, as I will explain in the next chapter.

5.2.4.1 ENTERTAIN IN INDIVIDUAL PAPERS

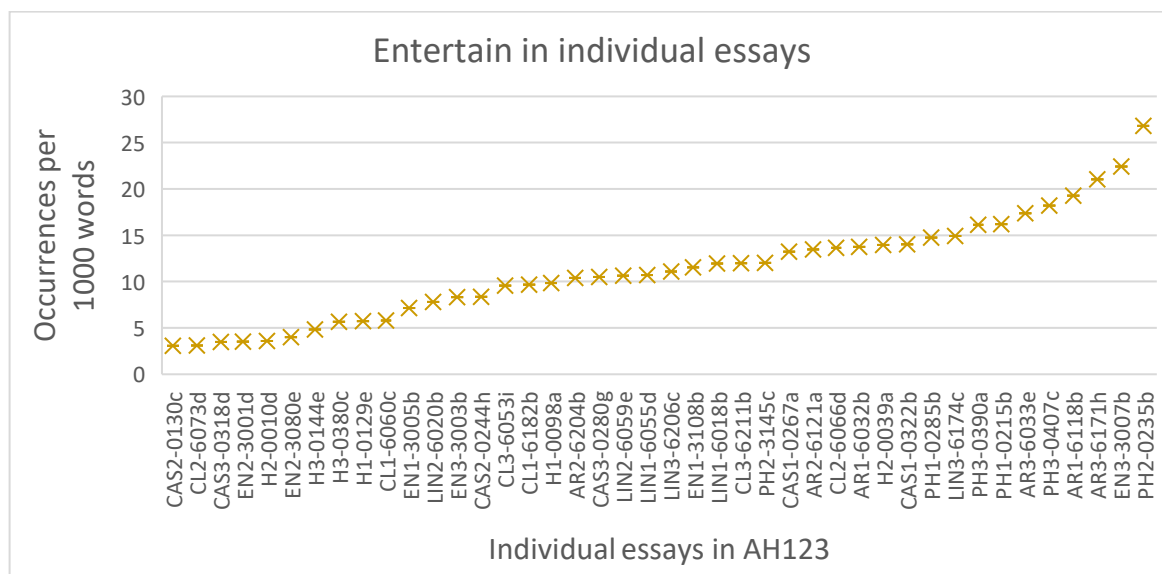


Figure 5.14 Occurrences of Entertain (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Entertain values are highly represented in most essays, ranging from 3.07 to 25.82 instances per 1000 words, with an average of 10.9, closely mirroring the corpus-wide average of 11.49 instances per 1000 words. Figure 5.14 visually depicts the relative frequency of Entertain instances per 1000 words for individual essays in AH123. The high representation of Entertain values across most essays suggests that Entertain is a significant aspect of Engagement used by student writers throughout the corpus. It also highlights the importance of exploring trends in individual papers, as this can provide valuable insights into the writing styles, rhetorical strategies, and Engagement techniques employed by student writers.

Two papers exceed 20 normalised frequencies per 1000 words, while five essays exhibit frequencies lower than 4 per thousand words. The two papers with the highest

frequency of Entertain features are PH2-0235b and ENG3-3007b. In both, we find a high frequency of modal verbs and a variety of other Entertain resources. The first also has a high frequency of modal adjuncts, while the second has a greater occurrence of evidence/appearance markings. Five papers are characterised by very low occurrences of Entertain locutions (average 3.3 per 1000 words). These are all year two essays from English, history, CAS, and classics, and most of the Entertain locutions employed are modal verbs. There is a high reliance on external sources and many direct quotations in all these papers. All but one also have very low frequencies per 1000 words in all other Engagement subsystems. The exception is the paper HIS2-0010d with above corpus average Pronounce and Attribute instances. Despite their differences, these papers collectively emphasise the diverse ways in which student writers navigate Entertain strategies in their academic writing.

5.2.5 ATTRIBUTE

The Attribute category has been approached and annotated in two ways, initially as attributions following the appraisal framework and then as citations. In the first case, reporting verbs, nouns, the adverbial adjunct *according to* and the preposition *for* (as in *For Webber*) were coded. Next, citations were reported, using Swales' (1990) distinction between integral and non-integral citations for any reference to an external source made by the writer. The former includes the cited author(s) names in the sentence, within the text, whereas in the latter, the source is placed in brackets.

5.2.5.1 ATTRIBUTE FEATURES FREQUENCIES

There are approximately six hundred instances of Attribute in AH123 occurring at a relative frequency of 5.96 instances per 1000 words. Instances of Attribute account for 15.69 per cent of all instances of Engagement and 33.71 per cent of Expand. The raw frequencies and frequencies per 1000 words of these functions are shown in Table 5.7. A list of all Attribute occurrences with raw frequencies and examples can be found in Table D6 in Appendix D.

System	Raw Freq.	Freq. per 1000 words
Acknowledge	560	5.30
Distance	38	0.36

The vast majority of the Attribute instantiations in the AH123 corpus fall under the Acknowledgement subcategory (n=511, 85%) (examples 5.49 and 5.50).

5.49 Tattersall (1999) **suggests** the development of tool-making techniques may be contemporaneous with the evolution of language and regional dialects. [AR3-6171h]

5.50 Weber places a great **emphasis** upon the part played by religion, arguing that this, more than anything else, 'created the differences of which we are conscious today', [...]. [H3-0144e]

One hundred twenty-six different reporting verbs and nouns in the Acknowledge category have been identified. Of these, the two most common reporting verbs are *argue* and *suggest*, accounting for 23 per cent of all the acknowledgements in the

corpus. Other Acknowledge reporting verbs with a raw frequency of ten or more (Figure 5.15) include *state*, *believe*, *say*, *conclude*, *explain*, *write*, *propose*, *highlight*, which together account for nearly a quarter of all the Acknowledge resources in the corpus. Nineteen nouns have also been annotated, the most common of which are *argument*, *conclusion*, *emphasis*, and *theory*.

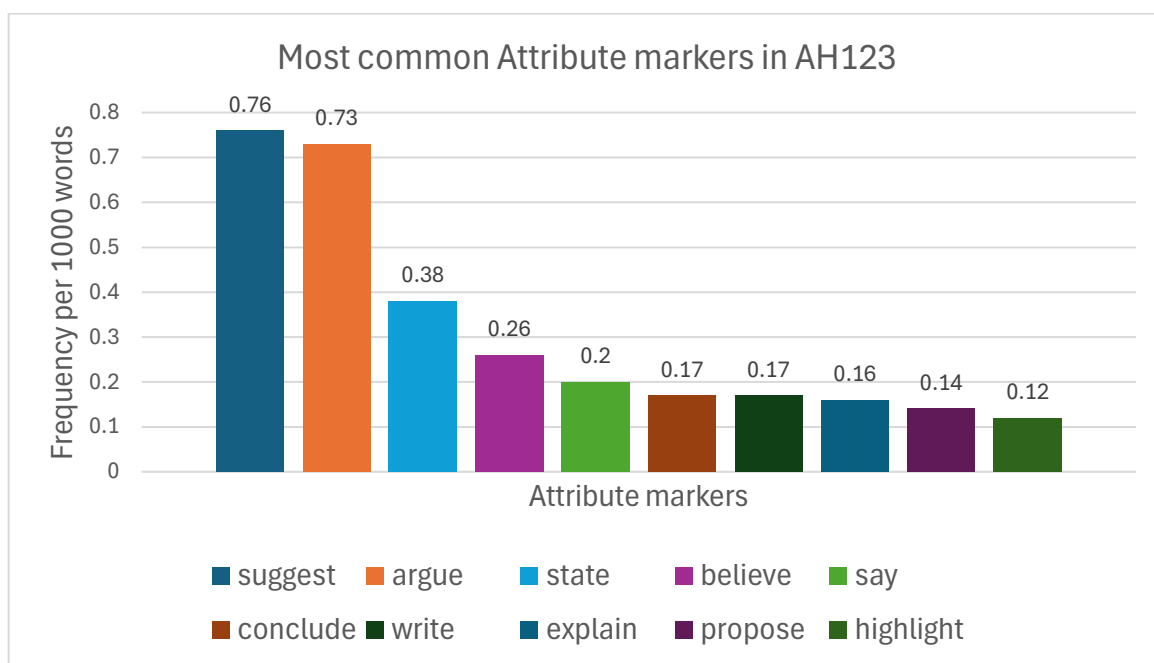


Figure 5.15 Most common Attribute markers in AH123 (raw frequency ≥ 10)

Attribute formulations are primarily and typically identified by the reporting verb and have been extensively studied under *reported speech*, *reporting verbs* (e.g., Shaw, 1992), *attribution and averral* (e.g., Tadros, 1993; Hunston 1995; Groom, 2000; Caldas-Coulthard 2002) and *citation* (Swales, 1986; Thompson & Tribble, 2001) headings, while White (1998) has made the distinction between ‘extra-vocalisation’ and ‘intra-vocalisation’ as discussed in 2.9.1.

Researchers analysing Engagement moves in successful and less successful essays concur that high-graded essay writers use Attribute resources more often than low-graded ones (Swain, 2007; Brooke, 2014; Miller et al., 2014). Comparing experts' and learners' use of reporting verbs, Liardét and Black (2019) concluded that while experts tend to favour dialogically contracting reporting verbs, such as *show* and *find*, to endorse the proposition, learners strongly rely upon Acknowledge structures, like *state* and *according to*, providing "no overt indication as to their intersubjective stance on the evidence" (ibid, p. 47). Charles (2006) compared the use of reporting structures in theses written by politics/international relations and materials science native speakers. She found the most common reporting verbs across both corpora were *argue*, *note*, and *suggest*. Thompson (2013) applied Groom's (2000) model of propositional responsibility and textual voice to investigate 'manifest intertextuality' (explicit references to other texts) in PhD theses in the disciplines of Agricultural Botany and Agricultural and Food Economics and reports that, in both sets of the theses, writers use neutral verbs, suggesting that "previous studies are usually treated as unproblematic" (Thompson, 2013:111), and stresses the importance of achieving an appropriate balance of averral and attribution in different rhetorical sections.

The Distance category includes thirty-eight instances of *claim* (both verb and noun). In example 6.27, the textual voice employs the verb *claim* to distance itself from the externally sourced proposition by Lakoff that '*women's use of tag questions shows uncertainty and lack of assertiveness.*' Lakoff's view is presented as 'open to question' and although the authorial voice, with the use of *claim*, does "maximise the space for dialogistic alternatives" (Martin and White 2005:114), it avoids high interpersonal risk

by disaligning itself from the external voice, and “implies disagreement” (Hunston, 1995:145).

6.27 Lakoff **has claimed** that women's use of tag questions shows an uncertainty on their part and an unwillingness to assert their views [LING1-6018b]

It has to be noted, however, that *claim* as a lexeme does not always encode Distance. Its function varies depending on “co-textual conditions, and across registers, genres certain and discourse domains” (Martin & White 2005:103), as in extract 6.28, in which it signals Entertain.

6.28 However, one may still **claim** he is still effective even towards the end, as a character as he provides a stark contrast to the new politics and the old conservative way of life. CAS3-0280g

5.2.5.2 ATTRIBUTE IN INDIVIDUAL PAPERS

Like most of the Engagement values, Attribute instantiations vary across the essays examined. Figure 5.16 shows the relative frequency (per 1000 words) of Attribute for individual essays in AH123. Values range from zero to 22.48 instances per 1000 words (corpus as a whole: 5.38 instances per 1000 words).

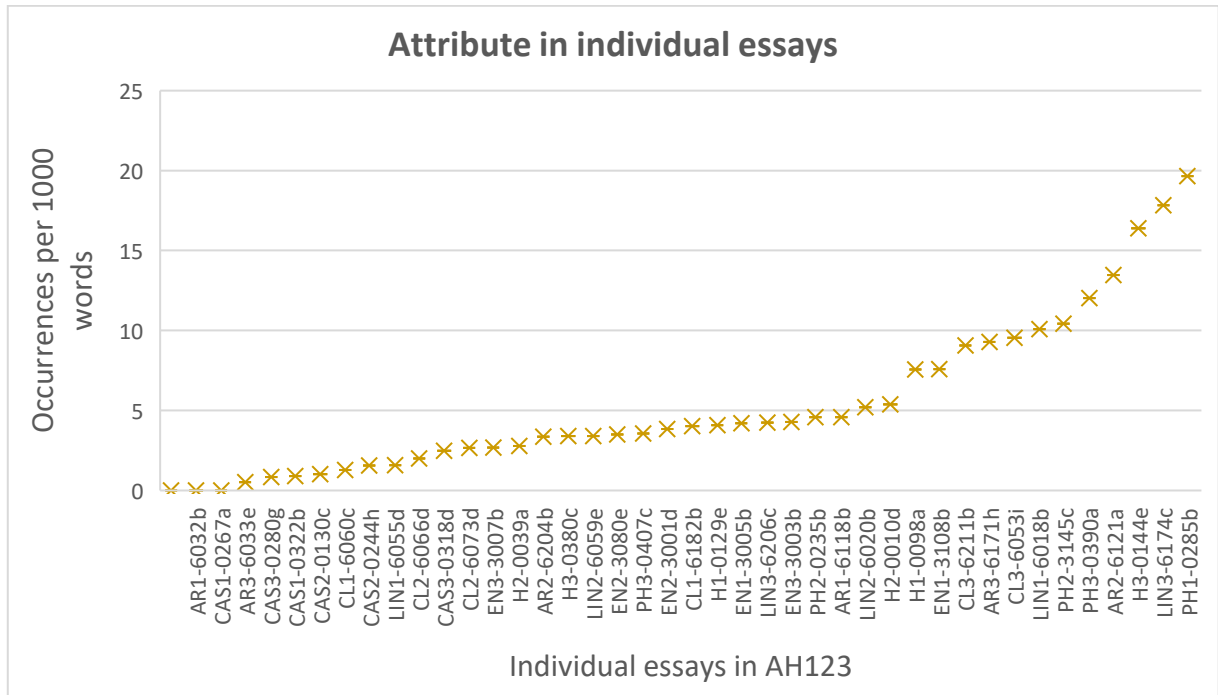


Figure 5.16 Occurrences of Attribute (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

Essays AR1-6032b and CAS1-0267a are at the lowest end of the rank with zero Attribute instantiations. The AR1-6032b is based on only two external sources, with in-text citations accompanying direct quotes. CAS1-0267a is highly monoglossic, with not one citation or external source. Although both texts employ heteroglossic resources (Entertain, Counter), their lack of Attribute resources implies that the writers do not explicitly ground propositions in the subjectivity of other voices. Since these two papers are from year one, their failure to engage with external sources and enter a heteroglossic dialogue might indicate a lack of awareness of academic writing conventions. Interestingly, at the upper limit of the rank, there are also two first year papers but from a different discipline. PH1-0215b is on 'virtue' and whether it is teachable, according to Meno. The writer makes extensive and skilful use of heteroglossic Engagement resources (n=63), both contractive and expanding. She

assigns propositions to external sources by acknowledging them via a wide range of reporting verbs (*argue, assume, present, conclude*) while occasionally disassociating herself (*claim*) from certain positions. PH1-0285b discusses Descartes' arguments, avoiding direct quotes, and instead, she uses a variety of reporting verbs to acknowledge their positions. The writers of both these papers deploy large numbers of attributions grounding the propositions to an external source and thus positioning themselves in a relatively neutral position with respect to the propositions advanced.

5.2.5.3 CITATIONS

As already mentioned, I have extended the annotation and analysis of Attribute to include citations, distinguishing between integral and non-integral ones (Swales, 1990) to account for the limited coding of attributions in this sample. Citation practices have been studied extensively, but for this project I am only concerned with citation density, i.e. the frequency of citations in academic texts (Hyland, 1999, 2002; Thompson, 2001; Thompson & Tribble, 2001; Fløttum et al., 2006; Hu & Wang, 2014) as it indicates to what extent an author engages with the knowledge-making work of others i.e. the heteroglossia of academic discourse (Bakhtin, 1981). Thompson (2013) examined the citation practices in 16 PhD theses, focusing on the positions taken by the writers and applying Groom's model of propositional responsibility and textual voice. He proposes that 'manifesting intertextuality' is expressed differently in various disciplines and research approaches and discusses the pedagogical implications.

In AH123, there are 680 citations with raw frequencies ranging from zero to sixty-four, with less than a third of the texts having a raw frequency above the corpus mean of 16. Citations referring to literary works that are the topic of the essay have not been included in the analysis. For example, in the essay '*What part did the factors outlined in Weber's Protestant Ethic play in explaining the divergent economic development of Western and Eastern civilisations* [H3-0144e], references to Weber have not been calculated.

There are three-hundred and thirty (3.34 per 1000 words) non-integral citations (example 5.73) and three-hundred and forty-nine (3.53 per 1000 words) integral ones (example 5.74), producing a percentual ratio of 51-49.

5.73 Misuse of larynx in glottal articulation results a harsh quality phonation with uncontrolled loudness (Berry & Einsenson, 1972). [LIN1-6055d]

5.74 Mercer (2001:21) states that conversations are 'not necessarily made up of physical objects and events around the speaker'. [ENG3-3007b]

Although this ratio is not an indication of a great variation in citation practices of the writers in my corpus, as it will be seen later on, and as is evident in Figure 5.17, this varies considerably when we examine citation practices according to levels and disciplines.

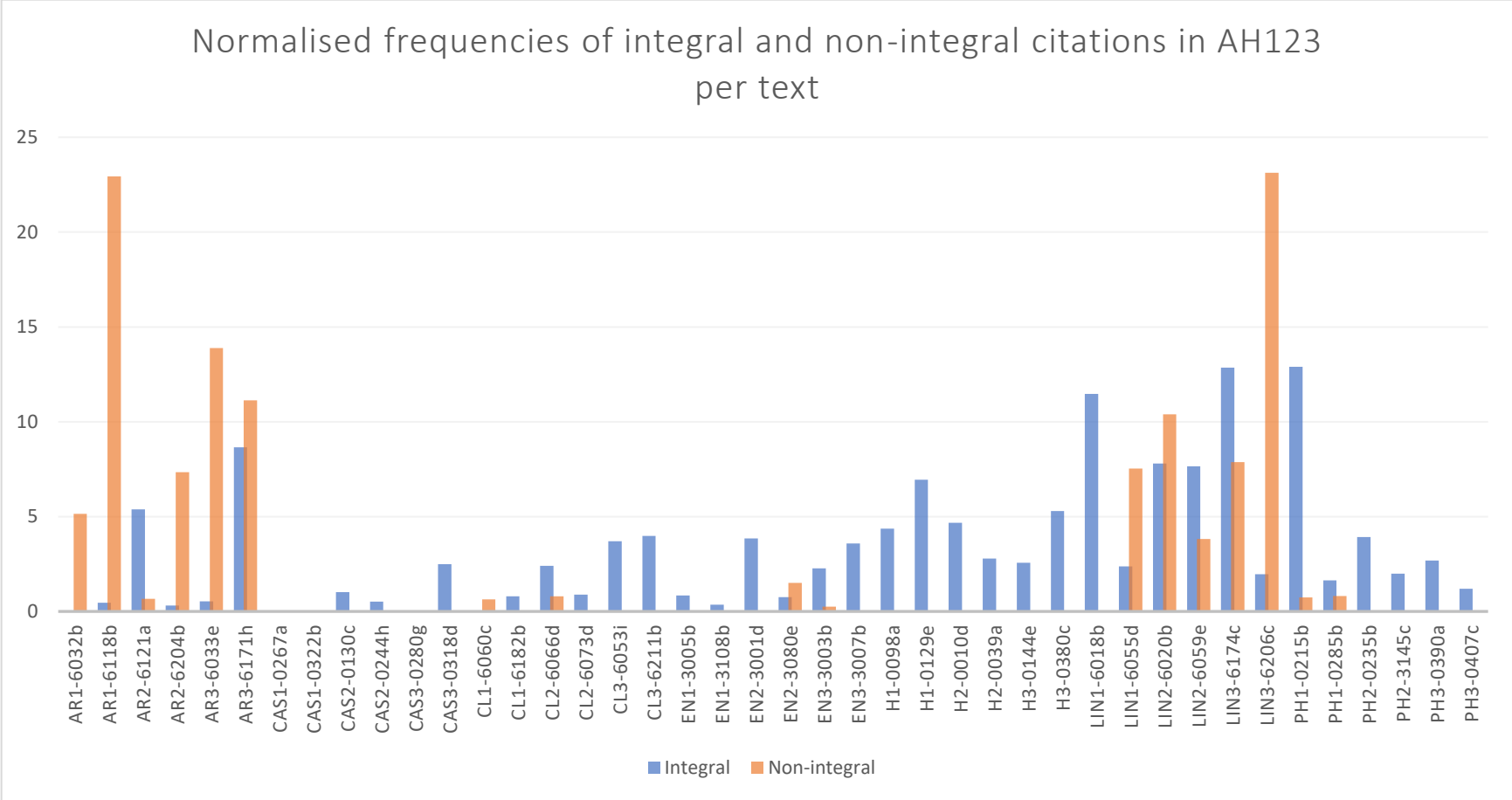


Figure 5.17 Frequencies (per 1000 words) of integral and non-integral citations per text in AH123

The normalised frequencies of both types of citations in individual papers are illustrated in the box and whisker chart (Figure 5.18). As this indicates, a number of papers (n=7) use very little to no citations, and they come from certain disciplines and levels. The two outliers are LIN3-6206c and AR3-6171h, with relative frequencies of 0.83 and 0.69, respectively. Both papers come from year three, and the writers make extensive use of references from the literature using both a variety of reporting verbs and non-integral citations, indicating that they are very well aware of the conventions of writing in their disciplines.

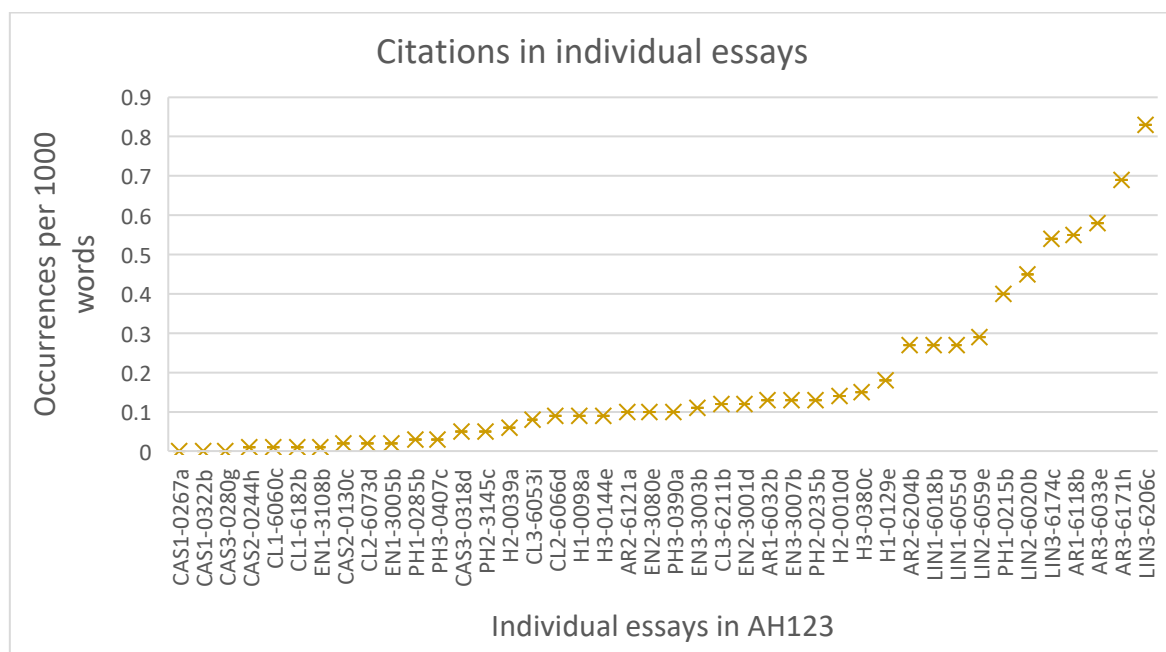


Figure 5.18. Occurrences of citations (per 1000 words) per essay in AH123

In the first instance, there seems to be some correlation between the frequency of citations and the level of the writers, and we also notice that most of the papers in the higher end come from linguistics.

5.3 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter addressed the first research question by investigating the rhetorical functions of each Engagement resource within the sentence or clause and the rhetorical pairs formed to create contrast, comparison, or balance in the discourse. The analysis was further extended to comment on the outliers for each category, highlighting areas of differentiation in each script to facilitate the classification of the scripts into the subgenres of essays.

The quantitative analysis of the data shows that Engagement features in the forty-two texts comprising the AH123 corpus range from 9.22 to 64.11 per 1000 words, a mean of 36.48, with more than half of the texts (n=24) falling under the corpus mean. The findings suggest that in the AH123 corpus Contract resources are more commonly used than Expand resources (19.43 and 16.87 per 1000 words, respectively). However, while this finding is important as it indicates the writers' general tendency to close the dialogic space for negotiating the debatability of their positions and enhancing their claims, the frequency and diversity of the individual subsystems of Engagement used in the texts are equally important. Within the Contract subsystem, the high frequency of Disclaim (Proclaim 2.98, Disclaim 16.45 per 1000 words) suggests that undergraduate writers feel more comfortable to Counter or even reject a proposition rather than taking a clear stance by either concurring or pronouncing their position by seldom encoding explicit alignment with the view they put forward, in order to emphasise or clarify their position and challenge or dismiss an alternative viewpoint.

High frequencies of Entertain (11.30 ptw) compared to Attribution (5.57 ptw) in the corpus could mean a number of things. First, student writers seem to adopt more dialogic and less descriptive writing techniques by assuming responsibility for their own arguments rather than shifting them to an external source. It could also mean, however, that undergraduate writers may not be aware of the rhetorical requirements of university writing, thus failing to acknowledge external sources and presenting themselves as the source of the proposition. At the same time, though, by employing more Entertain resources and fewer Proclamations, writers tend to withhold the commitment to the proposition. In sum, the main findings of the annotations of the AH123 corpus are:

- Contracting resources are highly more frequent than Expansive ones
- There are high frequencies of Disclaim and Entertain
- All categories of Proclaim are represented with very low frequency

The above annotation and analysis of the corpus applied the 'original' framework as proposed by Martin and White (2005). Although these initial findings shed some light on the discursive practices of undergraduate essay writers and on how these writers express their authorial voice and position, they also highlighted the necessity for a more nuanced system of Engagement. Despite being a powerful tool to understand and analyse evaluative stance and voice and providing quite flexible discourse semantic categories, the appraisal framework with its subsystems should be seen, according to its creators, as an ongoing project open to further interpretations, modifications, and refinements. This is more relevant when it comes to the specific

context of student academic writing and the Engagement framework, which deals with the play of voices within and across texts.

The need to account for further intended, implied or pragmatic meanings in the data for each of the subcategories of Engagement led to the elaboration of this system. The aim was to deal with the annotation and analytical challenges which arose during the first phase of this project. Such challenges were more obvious in the discourse semantic function of Entertain, where different lexicogrammatical items – all belonging to this same system – appeared to convey a range of meanings and perform a variety of further underlying functions. The rationale behind expanding some of the categories of Engagement, as well as the refinements made, will be the aim of the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

6 REFINEMENT OF THE ENGAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The process of identifying and classifying Engagement resources and the findings of the annotation of the whole corpus (AH123) presented in the previous chapter used the standard Engagement framework (Martin & White, 2005). This coding process highlighted the necessity to refine the framework. This chapter will first explain the rationale behind the decision to modify the Engagement framework, and it will then present and elaborate on the changes made to the framework's subcategories to accommodate further functional variations revealed from the coding process

6.2 THE NEED FOR REFINING THE FRAMEWORK

During the initial annotation of the whole corpus (AH123), the process of classification using the Engagement system as proposed by Martin and White (2005) was, at times, problematic. It was noticed that the framework had some limitations that needed to be addressed. In some cases, it was not always easy to classify formulations into one distinct category. In others, functionally different formulations were grouped under the same category in the framework (a more detailed discussion can be found in section 4.3).

In brief, drawing on insights from the analysis and relevant literature the proposed modifications include: the operationalisation of the communicative functions of most

categories to make them more tangible and analysable; the addition of further categories or clines to some subsystems to account for dimensions not covered in the original framework; and the elaboration of the definitions of some of the existing categories to reduce ambiguity and clarify the meaning and application of certain terms. The changes pertain to five of the seven subsystems of the framework. The Endorse and Pronounce categories already adequately capture the aspects of Engagement that align with this research focus, and they were kept intact.

It is argued that these refinements would increase granularity and would allow for a more detailed analysis of subtle nuances of Engagement that may not be adequately addressed by its original categories. They would also contribute to achieving greater clarity, specificity and consistency among the categories within the framework. It is further argued that through these modifications, the validity and reliability of the framework will be strengthened, making it a more robust analytical tool. Finally, revising the framework would facilitate the application of the framework to new genres from those initially used to develop it (media discourse), such as academic writing. A detailed discussion of the modifications made to each of the subsystems of the framework follows.

6.3 FUNCTIONS OF DENY

In Martin and White's (2005) framework, the Deny category remains a general one, but my analysis revealed that a more refined examination of Deny formulations potentially proposes further subtypes to this category, based more on the discourse semantic positioning of the writers rather than on the lexicogrammar use.

From a heteroglossic perspective, denial is perhaps the most obvious way of introducing an alternative position into the dialogue, acknowledging it and then excluding or rejecting it through negation (Martin & White, 2005: 118), and it is perhaps “a more categorical way of expressing author’s stance” (Webber, 2004:183) than other Engagement features. Negation has been examined and classified in numerous ways over the years, and its various rhetorical functions have received some detailed consideration in the literature (see, for example, Tottie, 1982; Pagano, 2002; Webber, 2004; Herriman, 2009; Don, 2017; Sun & Crosthwaite, 2022), as outlined below.

Biber quantified negation under the headings of *no*-negation and *not*-negation (Biber et al., 1999:159), while Fairclough (1992:122) distinguished between grammatical and semantic negation, which is not realised with typical negative wording. Tottie (1991) claimed that negation serves to reject suggestions and deny assertions and made the distinction between implicit and explicit types of negation, referring to whether what is negated needs to be inferred from the context or is explicitly mentioned. Pagano (2002) clarified this as denials of background information and of text-processed information, while Webber (2004) used the terms extratextual and intratextual negation. Pagano explains Tottie’s idea of implicit denials as referring to a proposition which is not explicitly expressed in the text, but an idea implicit in the text, inferable from the text. Such denials reveal something that goes on in the writer’s mind when constructing a communicative message. Pagano, however, believes that we also need to distinguish between facts and opinions and argues for a further distinction between denials of background information and text-processed information. She analysed the role of negatives in written texts from an ideational, textual, and interpersonal

perspective and found four reasons why writers use negatives. She classified them into the following categories (Pagano, 1994:258):

- 1) Denials of background information: that is, denials used when the writer assumes that the reader entertains certain mistaken ideas from his/her previous background knowledge.
- 2) Denials of text-processed information: that is, denials used when the writer assumes that the reader could derive a wrong idea from the text.
 - a. Denials used to prevent an erroneous inference from text to come.
 - b. Denials used to correct an idea already processed in the text.
- 3) Unfulfilled expectations: that is, denials used when the writer wants to express an unfulfilled expectation of which she/he makes the reader coparticipant.
- 4) Contrasts: that is, denials used to compare or contrast two or more items.

Pagano's 2b category is what Martin and White (2005) refer to as corrective denial. With corrective denial, the textual voice corrects some misunderstanding or misconception, which it assumes that – at least some of – the readers are subject to. Such denials are directed at the reader and present the writer as having greater expertise in some area than the reader, and they are 'corrective rather than confrontational' (Martin & White, 2005:120). As such, they enhance solidarity provided the readers are "not resistant to having this particular lack of knowledge projected onto them" or "reject the particular viewpoint" (Martin & White, 2005:120).

Although negation has been examined and classified in numerous ways from different perspectives over the years, from an SFL perspective, and especially the discourse semantic function, negation has not been fully researched (Don, 2017). From this perspective, negation functions to negotiate interpersonal meanings, and it has been argued that it is heavily used in students' writing (Herriman, 2009). To my knowledge,

only the studies by Webber (2014), Don (2017) and more recently Sun and Crosthwaite (2022) have investigated the taxonomy and the interpersonal function of negation from an SFL perspective.

In this line of research, Webber (2004) studied applied linguistics papers and identified seven functions of negation: (1) *unfulfilled expectations*, (2) *correcting assumptions*, (3) *comparison*, (4) *dissatisfaction*, (5) *disagreement*, (6) *wholehearted agreement* and (7) *expression of cautious stance* (Table 6.1). However, while underlining the evaluative role of negation, Webber acknowledges “a certain amount of overlap between categories,” which prevents detailed analysis and makes quantification difficult (2004: 195).

Use	Example
Unfulfilled expectations <i>intra-textual or extra-textual (includes presumed assumptions)</i>	This may be no bad thing, of course This viewpoint does not mean that...
Correcting assumptions	Not x but y
Comparison <i>making distinctions</i>	No such explicit statement of compliance was required by the US proposals.
Dissatisfaction	Not only...but also
Disagreement	No war I can think of has fit its practices to the theory.
Wholehearted agreement	It cannot be denied
Expression of cautious stance <i>hedging, litotes</i>	The research is not without controversy. I have no idea, no matter how, there is no point, not in a position to.

Don's (2017) work on 'Negation as part of the Engagement Framework' on an electronic discussion corpus suggests three uses of denial: (1) *unfulfilled expectations*, (2) *mistaken idea*, and (3) *disambiguation*. Don based these upon their functions and suggested that each category performs to develop a distinctive evaluative stance in written academic discourse.

More recently, Sun and Crosthwaite (2022:189) investigated negation via the appraisal framework in PhD theses and produced the following three subcategories of negation.

- 1) *Unfulfilled expectation* conveys the authors' dissatisfaction rather than outright criticism (Pagano, 2002, Webber, 2014).
- 2) *Disalignment* expresses explicit denial of a corresponding affirmation and
- 3) *Cautious detachment*, through which the author indicates a detachment with the use of hedges such as "perhaps," "might,"

Drawing on the work of Tottie (1991), Pagano (2002), and Webber (2004), four main subtypes of Deny were identified in the AH123 corpus. These are presented in Figure 6.1 and are discussed in detail below.

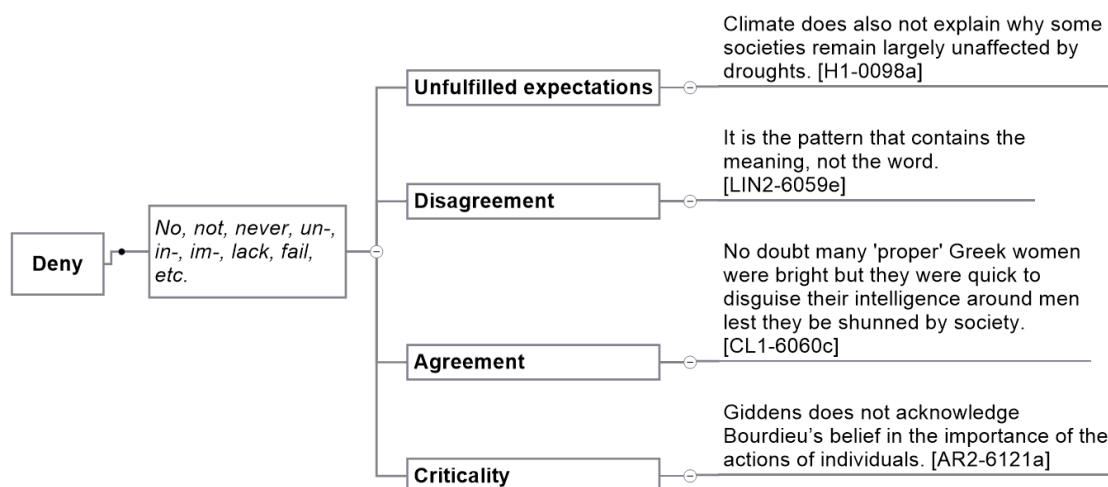


Figure 6.1 Functions of Deny formulations in AH123

Unfulfilled expectations

For the first Deny subtype, I am using Pagano's (2002) term (also used by Webber 2004, Don 2017, and Sun & Crosthwaite 2022) 'unfulfilled expectations.' The writer makes an assertion or sets up expectations and then denies them and/or their implications. These are explicit denials of the corresponding affirmation and are mainly expressed with the use of *no*, *not*. The rejected propositions are explicitly asserted by the authorial voice beforehand or attributed to an external voice. The 'positive' is either explicitly stated or implied.

6.1 Climate does also **not** explain why some societies remain largely unaffected by droughts and why in others it can easily turn into a famine that costs millions of lives. [H1-0098a]

6.2 Closely related of course to the development of embalming is why the Egyptians chose to mummify their dead in the first place. Lifestyle and beliefs are **not** two separate topics. Egyptians were very conscious of religion and the dead in their everyday lives. [AR1-6118b]

In 6.1, for example, it is expected by the writer and probably the readers that climate explains drought spells in certain areas, an expectation that the writer rejects. In 6.2, it is assumed that the fact that '*Egyptians chose to mummify their dead*' indicates the Egyptians' lifestyle and belief practices. The writer rejects this assumption by asserting that '*beliefs and lifestyle*' are two distinct topics and goes on to explain why.

Expressing disagreement

The second function I call 'expressing disagreement' because, through this, the writer expresses some kind of dissatisfaction with the previously presented claim. It is also used to clarify or further explain an area or concept for which there is some misunderstanding or confusion on the readers' part. The most common patterns here are *not...but rather*, *but...not*, *this/that is not to say* and *not only...but*. In some cases (e.g. 6.3), this function is similar to Pagano's (2002) 'corrective denial'. However, in most of the instances identified in my corpus, it seems that the intention of the writers is not so much to 'put something right' and provide expertise but rather to express disagreement with an asserted or implied view and offer alternative explanations or clarifications. Whether correcting or disagreeing with a proposition, these negations are still 'not confrontational' (Martin and White, 2005:120). Instead, they contribute to enhancing solidarity among discourse participants. This solidarity is further strengthened by the use of additional linguistic devices, such as the adverb *rather*, and expressions such as '*it doesn't mean*', '*this is not to say*', and '*not only...but*', which express dissatisfaction rather than outright criticism and therefore tend to open the potential for dialogue. The main difference between this type of Deny and 'unfulfilled expectations' is that here, the writer proposes another dimension to the assumption already mentioned or implied, clarifies it or corrects it. The following essay extracts illustrate these points.

In example 6.3, for instance, the writer rejects the commonly held view that it is the word that bears the meaning by 'correcting' it and somehow setting the record straight that it is the pattern, in this case '*that contains the meaning*' rather than the word, as

one would expect. Although the writer here risks disaligning with the reader, assuming alignment between the reader and the original proposition may not be warranted. Nevertheless, the careful wording of the proposition with the use of other Entertain resources (*it can be argued*) opens up the space for negotiation that is unlikely to create disalignment.

6.3 Hunston and Francis look at the example of the word 'talk'. 'To talk' means something different than 'to talk one's way out of something'. The implications of the latter are that "someone uses clever, devious, or forceful language to achieve a goal" (Hunston and Francis 2000:100) In this example it can be argued that it is the pattern that contains the meaning, not the word. It is the pattern that contains the meaning, **not** the word. [LING2-6059e]

In 6.4, with the negation in '*this is not to say all cases should be dismissed as exaggerated,*' the writer expects that the widely held view would be that all reported cases of abuse concerning the madhouses of that era would be overstatements. The writer is, thus, trying to persuade the reader otherwise by first rejecting this proposition. However, this does bear an interpersonal risk to a certain extent, and thus, the writer's attempt to convince the reader is reinforced by further argumentation or, as in this case, an example (*a pauper at the Dunston Lodge*) to support his rejection.

6.4 The case of Coates the Elder and his wife in 1772 is one of the worst instances of abuse in a private madhouse. [...]. However, there is much exaggeration in these accounts for effect. There was also much fictional writing on madhouses, which fed their public reputation. However, this is **not** to say all cases should be dismissed as exaggerated. For example, a pauper at the Dunston Lodge had his two upper incisor teeth removed and was secluded after he bit the proprietor [H3-0380c]

6.5 The epic poem, the Aeneid, is considered **not** only Virgil's greatest work, but perhaps the greatest of Rome's Augustan Age. [CL1-6182b]

In 6.5, the writer employs the construction '*not only... but also*' to reinforce the significance of the epic poem, the Aeneid. By stating that it is 'not only Virgil's greatest work but perhaps the greatest of Rome's Augustan Age,' the writer corrects and expands upon the commonly held assumption that the Aeneid is merely one of Virgil's most significant works. But, while acknowledging the original proposition that the Aeneid is indeed among Virgil's greatest works, the writer further emphasises its broader significance as the greatest work of the entire Rome's Augustan Age.

Expressing criticality

Another common function of Deny is to 'express criticality.' Here, negation is used to critically evaluate a proposition. The textual voice not only overtly and categorically denies and rejects but also criticises an aforementioned assumption and proposition and/or an external voice and its claims. The proposition or the external voice is often directly 'attacked' and dismissed as inappropriate, unsatisfactory, or wrong.

In extract 6.6, Giddens's work is negatively evaluated as failing to acknowledge '*Bourdieu's belief in the importance of the actions of individuals.*' There seems to be a shared viewpoint with the reader that Giddens should have acknowledged Bourdieu's particular beliefs, and with the use of negation, the writer creates some kind of solidarity with the readers, assuming that they are familiar with Bourdieu's beliefs

regarding the importance of actions, or at least by inviting them to think critically about Giddens' position, thus establishing a dialogic space.

6.6 Giddens does **not** acknowledge Bourdieu's belief in the importance of the actions of individuals. [AR2-6121a]

In the next example, 6.7, the writer again criticises Darwin's work for failing to elaborate on the coexistence aspect.

6.7 The work of Charles Darwin, from the 1830s, did **not** elaborate upon this aspect of co-existence. [H1-0129e]

Expressing agreement

Unlike criticality, negation may also express agreement. 'Wholehearted agreement' (Webber, 2004: 195) is expressed with locutions such as *no doubt*, *undoubtedly*, *without a doubt*, as in 6.8 and 6.9, whereby the authorial voice openly agrees with the pre-mentioned proposition. There is an overlap here between negation and pronouncement. Although the locutions *undoubtedly* and *no doubt* lexicogrammatically belong to the Pronounce category of Proclaim, according to Martin and White (2005), semantically, they also construe negation and have also been included in the Deny annotations.

6.8 I strongly agree with this view and maintain that the Romantic Movement **undoubtedly** paved the way to modern environmentalism to a significant extent, primarily due to its emphasis upon the preservation of nature in all her forms. [H1-0129e]

6.9 No doubt many ‘proper’ Greek women were bright but they were quick to disguise their intelligence around men lest they be shunned by society. [CL1-6060c]

6.4 FUNCTIONS OF COUNTER

In the Counter subtype of Disclaim, Martin and White (2005:120) include “formulations which represent the current proposition as replacing or supplanting, and thereby ‘countering,’ a proposition which would have been expected in its place”. They are also labelled ‘adversatives’ or ‘contrastives’ indicating concession/counter expectation and are conveyed via conjunctions and connectives such as *although, however, yet* and *but* and adjuncts such as *even, only, just, and still*.

Six main subtypes are associated with contrast in the literature: *opposition, concession, correction, exception, reformulation, and dismissal* (Lakoff, 1971; Halliday & Hassan, 1976; Quirk et al., 1985; Martin & Rose, 2007). Halliday & Hasan (1976: 255-56) classify contrastive connectors into five types by their functions: *adversative proper, internal contrast, external contrast, correction, and dismissal*, with further distinctions under each type, while Fraser (1998: 306-08) divides them into three mutually exclusive groups by their ‘core’ meaning: *contrast, correction, and rejection*.

Drawing on the semantic categories identified in the literature, my analysis has revealed five functions of Counter (Table 6.2), labelled in accordance with the functions performed in my scripts. While some of the labels applied are ‘borrowed’ from the literature on contrastives, others are ‘invented’ to reflect the relevant function in the specific discourse.

Table 6.2 Functions of Counter in AH123	
Type	Function
Opposition	It directly rejects a proposition
Correction	It corrects a proposition
Limitation	It limits the validity of a proposition
Contrast	It establishes differences between two or more propositions
Judgement	It expresses criticism of the proposition by finding its faults

A summary of the proposed Counter functions with corresponding examples is illustrated in Figure 6.2, and a detailed discussion follows.

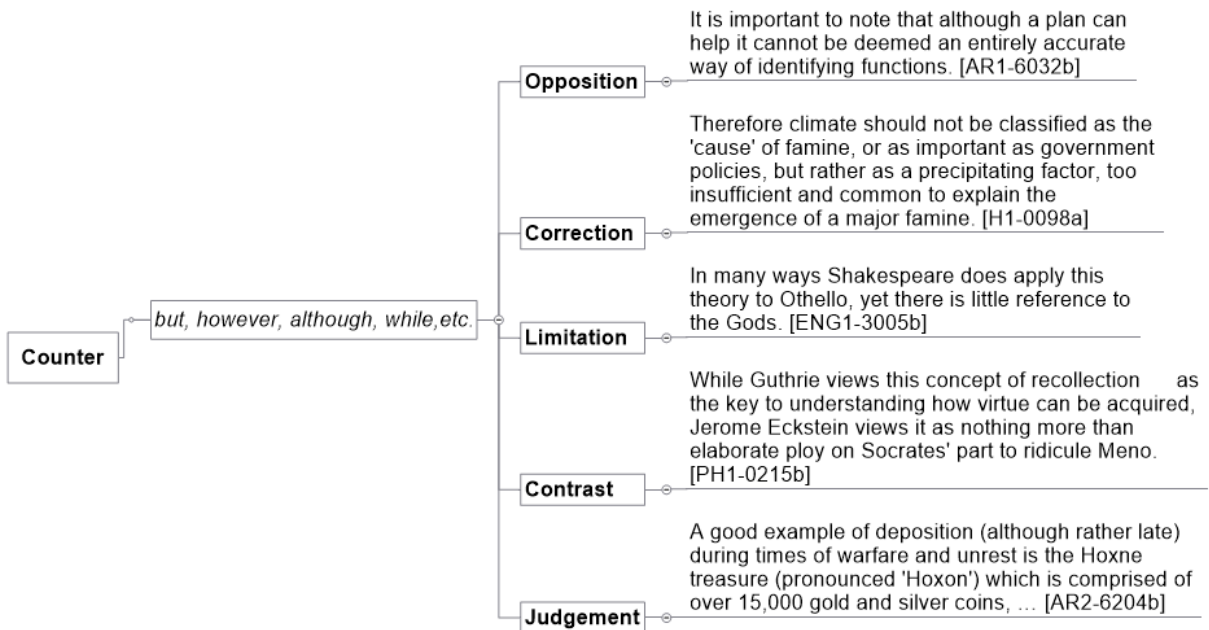


Figure 6.2 Functions of Counter

(i) *Opposition*

The main semantic function of Counter is to introduce a proposition in order to disagree with it and often immediately reject it. In an analysis of contrastive and non-contrastive connectors in argumentative essays from a metadiscourse perspective, Barton (1995:230) found that among the claims that were marked with transitional expressions, “the majority were marked with contrastive connectives”, and they were typically realised in the claim-counterclaim two-part structure. Bondi (1999) reached a similar conclusion in a study of dialogic patterns in academic textbooks. This subtype of Counter, which I call *opposition*, is used to introduce a counterclaim, and directly rejects either an entire proposition (example 6.10) that has already been presented (or assumed) or a certain component of the preceding proposal, by adding further information or an additional dimension to it. In either case, explicit disagreement is conveyed, whereby the authorial voice makes a strong commitment and sounds assertive. This is the most common subtype of Counter in the AH123 corpus, and it is realised with a variety of contrastive/concessive lexical items.

6.10 **Although** climate begins the process by making a shortage of food it does not determine whether this becomes a famine. [H1-0098a]

(ii) *Correction*

Another common function of Counter in AH123 is *correction*. Here, the writer not only explicitly discards a proposition but also somehow alters it, rectifies it, reformulates it and perhaps improves it by providing the correct alternative to it. In the extracts below, this is even further intensified by the deployment of *not only* in the first part of the sentence in extract 6.11, and *rather* in 6.12, which indicate that the correct alternative

to the information rejected is suggested. That is, climate should not be considered as a cause of famine but as a common factor unable to explain it. It is worth noting here that the majority of the 'correction' type contrastives are preceded by a negation (in italics in the examples). This means that the proposition is first rejected and then corrected. Some common linguistic realisations here include *but*, *not only but*, *but rather*, *instead*, *just* among others.

6.11 Again we see the function of public buildings *not only* for its obvious public service of enjoyment and sanitation **but** as a sign of goodwill from the emperor and a sign of his generosity towards his people in order to gain their support and keep them contented.

6.12 Therefore climate *should not* be classified as the 'cause' of famine, or as important as government policies, **but rather** as a precipitating factor, too insufficient and common to explain the emergence of a major famine. [H1-0098a].

(iii) *Limitation*

A further semantic category of Counter is used to establish a limitation or restrictions on a proposition and, at the same time, present an oppositional counterclaim. The authorial voice clearly states a proposition and agrees with it until, with the deployment of a contrastive marker, it reconsiders it. Unlike 'correction,' the proposition is not wholly or explicitly rejected in 'limitation.' Instead, the writer expresses his/her disagreement with some aspect of it and somehow limits its validity or, in many cases, adds more information on it (6.13, 6.14). Any counter/concession marker may be

employed in this type of Counter, but quite commonly used are *just, only, still, yet, and merely*.

6.13 Most public buildings were associated with a religious aspect, whether they were temples, theatres, amphitheatres, basilica or markets. **However**, there is also a secular dimension to these buildings. [AR1-6032b]

6.14 Undoubtedly Nationalism, the effect of Colonial rule on society, and the European influence of ideas and events were root causes, indispensable to the necessity of independence, but they were consistent **only** with the general landscape of confusion and contradiction in the first half of the nineteenth century in Latin America. [CAS1-0267a]

(iv) *Contrast*

The contrastive markers *while, whilst, contrastingly* and similar adversatives often signify the *contrast* semantic subtype of Counter. Its main function is to establish distinctions and differences between two propositions, theories, concepts, or authorities. In 6.15, for instance, the writer compares and contrasts the views of Guthrie and Eckstein on *how virtue is acquired*, whereas in 6.16, the Greeks are compared with other civilisations.

6.15 **While** Guthrie views this concept of recollection as the key to understanding how virtue can be acquired, Jerome Eckstein views it as nothing more than elaborate ploy on Socrates' part to ridicule Meno. [PH1-0215b]

6.16 **Unlike** previous civilisations the Greeks were quite advanced in the areas of mathematics, philosophy, medicine, astrology and other sciences. [CL1-6060c]

(v) *Judgement*

The final type of Counter, which I call 'judgement,' expresses some kind of criticism of the entire claim already presented or some of its components. The proposition is not outrightly rejected but the writer scrutinises it by finding its faults.

6.17 The end of this decade was also the period of the Lincoln-Douglas debates which captured the publics' attention and persuaded people to take one side or the other. **However** these debates were misleading as Abraham Lincoln did not believe in the total abolition of slavery and believed it should be protected where it already existed... [CAS2-0244h]

6.18 A good example of deposition (**although** rather late) during times of warfare and unrest is the Hoxne treasure (pronounced 'Hoxon') which is comprised of over 15,000 gold and silver coins, ... [AR2-6204b]

6.19 Even after marriage it was often necessary for women to make economic contributions to the family; supplementing the low wages her husband was paid. Keith Wrightson argues that these female supplements to male wages were crucial to survival **even if** they did somewhat undermine the official female position in society. H2-0010d

The criticism comes from either the writer (examples 6.17, 6.18) or attributed to an external voice, as in 6.19. Although it may seem that this type is similar to the 'limitation' type discussed above, they are indeed different. In most cases, in 'limitation,' the writer accepts the proposition and only further supports it by adding further evidence, while in 'judgement,' the purpose of the contrastive is to indicate the faults in the proposition or some of its components without necessarily attempting to correct it. The authorial voice, in this case, is purely judgemental.

6.5 FUNCTIONS OF CONCUR

The two subtypes of Concur, according to Martin and White (2005:134), are 'Affirm' and 'Concede'. Here, I have added a further category labelled 'Persuade.' Figure 6.3 presents the three new functions of Concur with examples from the corpus, and the rationale for opting for a further subcategory of Concur is given below.

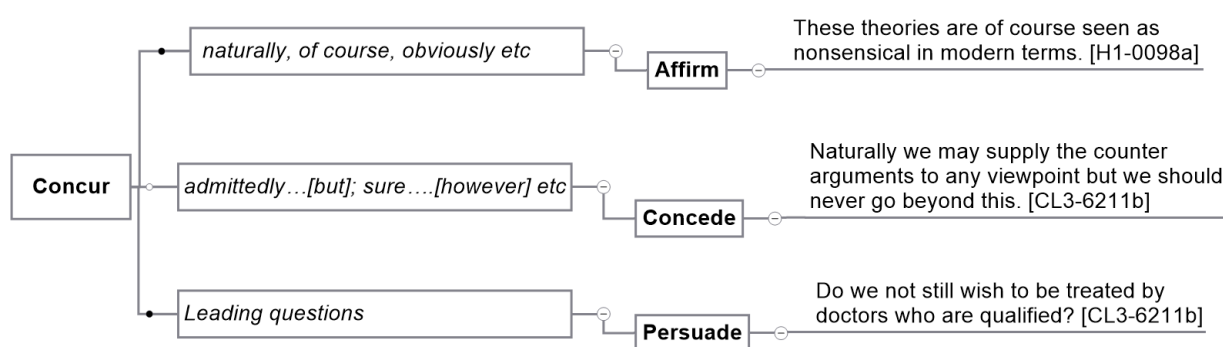


Figure 6.3 Concur functions (adapted from Martin and White, 2005)

According to Martin and White (2005:98), lexicogrammatically Concur meanings are further realised via a certain type of rhetorical or 'leading' questions. They are those by which the writer "is presented as assuming that no answer needs to be supplied for a particular question on account of that answer being so 'obvious'" (Martin & White, 2005: 123). They "represent the proposition as so self-evident or agreed upon that it doesn't actually need to be stated by the textual voice, it can be left up to the reader to supply the required meaning" (White, 2003: 267). They are employed to make a point and assume answers that are evident for the reader, and in this way, the reader is aligned to accept the writer's position. These questions differ from the 'expository

questions' (also discussed in 2.9.6.1.1), which "introduce a proposition in such a way that it is presented as but one of a number of possible positions" (ibid), they are dialogically expansive rather than contractive and will be discussed later. Rhetorical leading questions are a rhetorical strategy employed to attract the readers' attention and persuade them of the credibility of the authorial voice's proposition. The writer makes an effort to overtly invite the reader into the conversation with a direct question while at the same time closes up the space for alternative viewpoints. Although these questions reject and exclude dialogistic alternatives from the discussion, they are still heteroglossic in that they contain multiple voices.

For these questions, I am using the term 'leading rhetorical questions,' and I have included them in a separate subtype of Concur called 'to persuade.' Although it can be argued that they could belong to the Affirm type of Concur, I am opting for a separate category for them for a number of reasons. Firstly, these questions serve a different purpose compared to straightforward affirmations, as they are crafted to gently guide the audience towards a specific viewpoint or conclusion. Unlike affirmations, which typically presuppose agreement or alignment with a particular viewpoint, 'persuade' questions do not necessarily assume agreement. Instead, they are designed to prompt the audience to consider a specific perspective or argument, regardless of their initial stance. Categorising them under 'persuade' acknowledges their function as a persuading tool and the author's intent behind their use, as they are aimed at engaging the audience and influencing their perspective. Lastly, having a separate category enhances the clarity of the analysis, as it allows for easier identification of the questions and their contribution to the dialogicity of the text.

In excerpt 6.20, the writer assumes that readers do expect to be examined by doctors (or other professionals) who are qualified as ‘professional specialization’ (as suggested by Plato) is ‘*still part of our modern mindsets.*’ The question leads the reader to the ‘obvious’ answer ‘No.’ Similarly, in 6.21, the textual voice expects that the readers would agree that behaviour can be defined as aversive only after further specifications are given. Again, the commonsensical answer from the part of the reader would be a ‘No.’

6.20 I would advocate that we should not even consider condemning him at all; his values of professional specialization are still part of our modern mindsets. **Do we not still wish to be treated by doctors who are qualified?** The same is true for lawyers, brain surgeons and politicians. [CL3-6211b]

6.21 **Can you just define behaviour as aversion behaviour without specifying further?** [PH2-0235b]

6.6 FUNCTIONS OF ATTRIBUTE

Martin and White (2005) recognise two subsystems of Attribute, Acknowledge and Distance. As I explain below, I have added Hearsay as a third subset of the Attribute system (Figure 6.4).

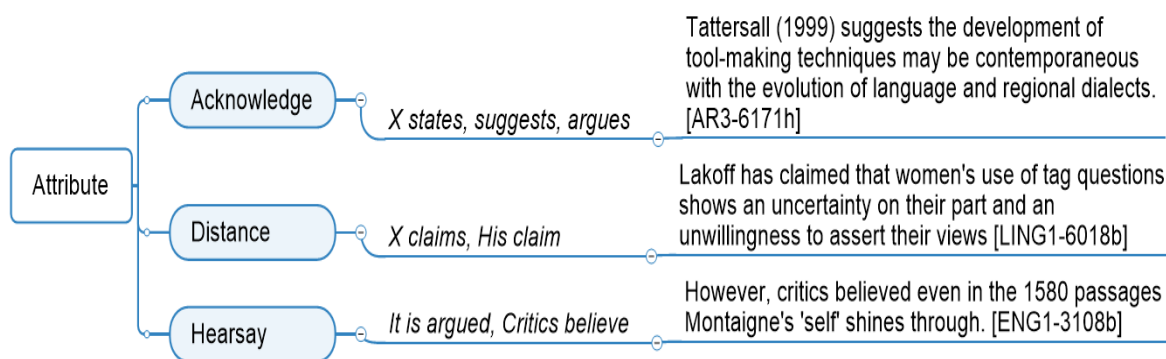


Figure 6.4 Attribute subtypes

Within the Acknowledge subtype, we find “those locutions where there is no overt indication, [...], as to where the authorial voice stands with respect to the proposition” (Martin and White, 2005:112). Acknowledgements are dialogic as they associate the advanced proposition with voices external to the text and present the authorial voice as engaging interactively with those voices. This is realised with the reporting verbs, such as *say*, *report*, *state*, *declare*, *announce*, *believe*, *think*, *suggest*, and their nominalisations via which the writer presents the proposition as but one of a range of possible positions. It is not clear where the authorial voice stands with respect to the proposition; thus, its alignment, disalignment or neutrality is determined by the co-text (Martin & White, 2005:113).

Although there are variations in the meaning of the different reporting verbs regarding degrees of alignment and/or neutrality, I have opted to code the most widely used reporting verbs and their equivalent nouns as Acknowledge. This aspect of Attribution has been widely dealt with in the literature on reported speech and reporting verbs (Thompson & Ye, 1991; Hyland, 1999, Uba, 2020; Eckstein et al., 2022) and citation (Groom, 2000; Hyland, 2000; Thompson & Tribble, 2001; Thompson, 2002; Charles,

2006; Fløttum et al., 2006; Pecorari, 2006; Hu & Wang, 2014). Some reference was made in chapter 5, but it is beyond the scope of this project to enter a detailed discussion on reporting verbs.

Martin and White (2005) also place in this category constructions where the source is not mentioned. These include 1) anticipatory-*it* phrases, e.g., *It has been reported*, 2) locutions such as *Another theory suggests*, or 3) cases where the proposition is supported by 'a multiplicity of sources' (Hood 2004), e.g., *Critics believe*. However, in some of these cases, the source is specified in my essays. Therefore, I have made a slight distinction. In all the above cases, if there is mention of the source, I follow Martin and White's classification and consider them as Acknowledge features, for instance, extract 6.22.

6.22 Concerning theory of why the heart was one of the main organs left in place during mummification, **it has been suggested that** [ACKNOWLEDGE] the Egyptians saw it as the "centre of life" (Sandison 1986: 2). [AR1-6118b]

Instances of these constructions where the writer fails to mention the source have been classified as Hearsay (example 6.23).

6.23 However, **critics believed** [HEARSAY] even in the 1580 passages Montaigne's 'self' shines through. [ENG1-3108b]

While in 6.22, the source is clearly cited, *i.e.*, *Sandison*, in 6.23, the writer omits to cite the source, *i.e.*, who those critics are. In these 'fake,' incomplete or improper attributions, there is no relevant reference either in the sentence or the immediate text

context. Twenty-six such occurrences were found in the corpus, and the most common hearsay formulations found in my corpus include *It is/has been argued*.

The different functions of endorsing a source and how they are labelled are presented in Figure 6.5. I have included the Proclaim: Endorse category here as well, as, though contractive, it does act to combine voices in discourse and in all of them, the textual voice recognises that the claim belongs to an external source.

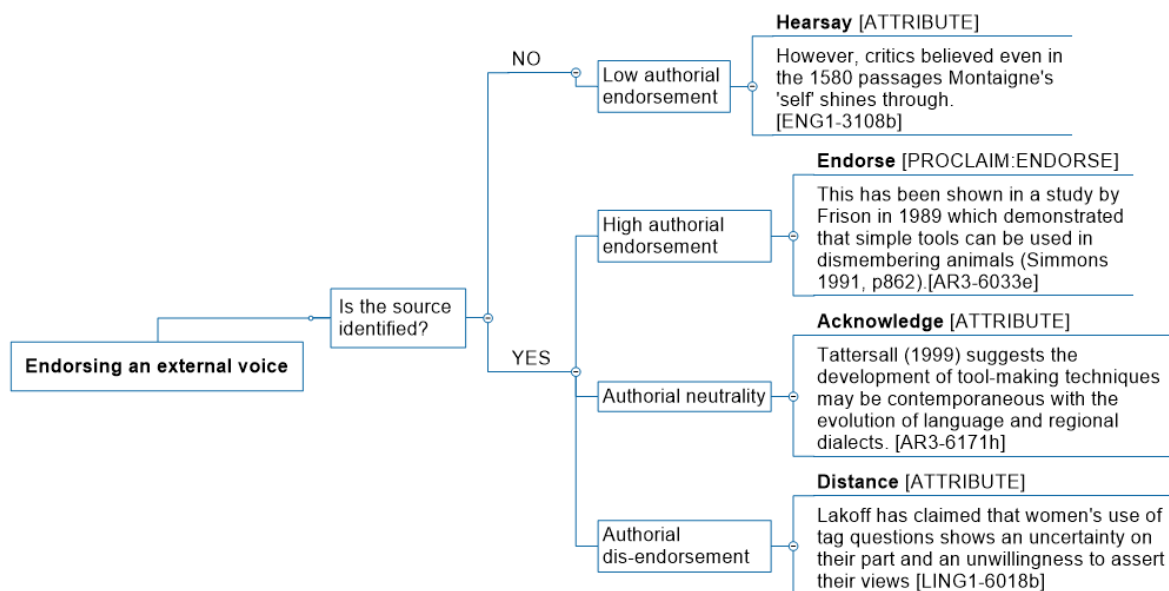


Figure 6.5 Endorsing functions

Most importantly, the difference among them lies in the responsibility assumed by the writer, the degree to which the writer endorses or not the attributed material, and whether the source is explicitly mentioned. In Acknowledge, the external voice is explicitly named in the text either integrally or in brackets. With the choice of a reporting verb, the author indicates alignment, disalignment or a neutral stance towards the proposition. In Distance, similarly, the external voice is mentioned, but the writer takes

a distance from it. Finally, in Hearsay, the proposition is attributed to an external voice, which, however, is not identified. It could be argued that with constructions such as *It has been argued* or *Many critics believe* although the writer expands the dialogic space and engages with external voices, it does this in an insufficient way. These are somehow 'fake' or 'incorrect' attributions, as in many cases, not enough information is given as to where the supporting evidence is coming from. A further difference is that Acknowledge, Hearsay and Distance are dialogistically expansive, leaving room for alternative perspectives and voices, while Endorse, as discussed, tend to contract the scope for dialogistic diversity, allowing for only one perspective.

6.7 FUNCTIONS OF ENTERTAIN

Although all linguistic realisations ascribed to the system of Entertain are used by the authorial voice to Entertain or invoke other dialogic alternatives within the communicative context, they do convey a range of other various meanings and functions. While lexicogrammatically, the category of Entertain is broad, it does not explore distinctions and meanings which might operate among the various instances (White, 2003:280). I have extended the Entertain system of Engagement to portray these diverse meanings, as seen in Figure 6.6, and I will discuss each one of these with examples below.

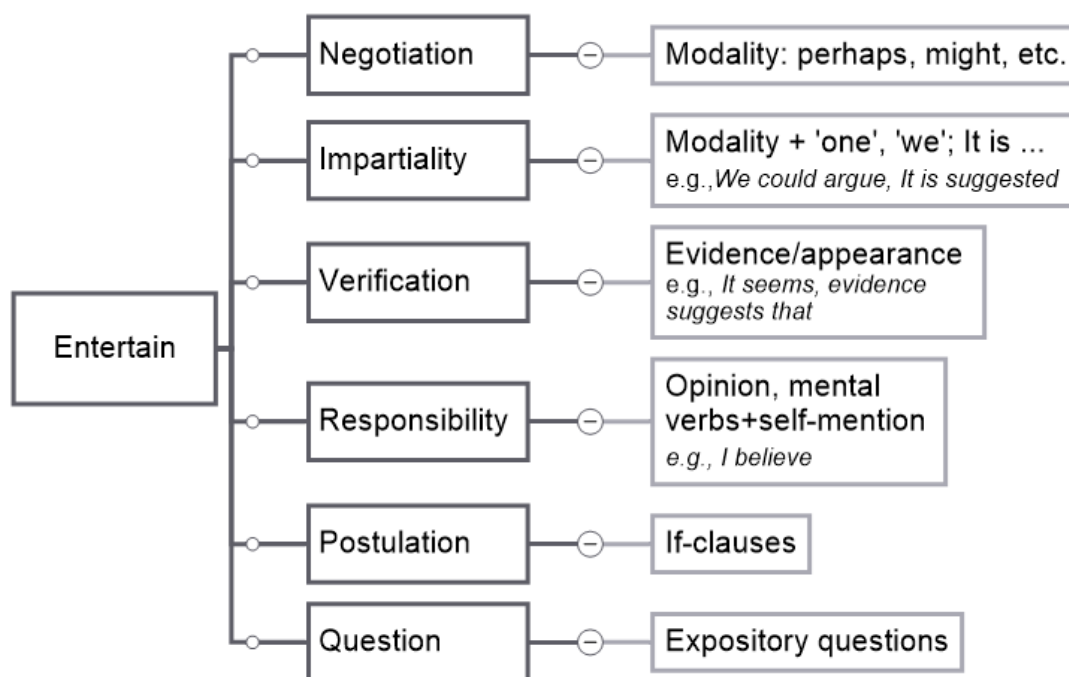


Figure 6.6 Functions of Entertain

6.7.1 NEGOTIATION

Modal verbs (*may, might, could*), modal adjuncts (*perhaps, probably*), and modal attributes (*likely, possible*) have traditionally (Martin & White, 2005:105), been interpreted as indicating ‘lack of commitment to the truth value’ of the proposition (Lyons, 1977; Coates, 1983; Palmer, 1986), cautiousness, humility tentativeness or uncertainty (Quirk et al., 1985; Hyland, 2000). From a dialogistic perspective, such locutions construe a heteroglossic backdrop for the text by recognising the subjectivity of the writer in the proposition presented, recognising thus that it is just one among others in the current communicative context. When seen from the writer’s own perspective, the authorial voice’s intention is one of Negotiation. Extract 6.24 exemplifies this.

6.24 Climate is **perhaps** the most appropriate place to start as it is undoubtedly at the origin of all shortages of food. [H1-0098a]

Whether the writer feels humble, cautious or does not want to expose his or her position to sound assertive is something we are unable to argue with certainty. The authorial voice, with the use of *perhaps* does indeed recognise that there are other viewpoints available as to whether *'the functionalists wish to accept this anti-mentalist consequence and take the behaviourist line'* while at the same time trying to find its place among all those other voices and negotiate its position in the current communicative context.

6.7.2 IMPARTIALITY

In contrast, in extract 6.25, it seems that the writer, while entertaining the reader, attempts at the same time to sound impartial and remain neutral by avoiding self-mention and opting for the *'it can be argued'* construction instead of, for instance, *'I argue'* or *I would argue.'* The choice of *it*-clauses over a first-person personal pronoun distances the writer from the content expressed and "allows the writer to depersonalise opinions" (Hewings & Hewings, 2004). In this way, the writer presents an opinion as objective and less open to negotiation (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 1997). It has also been argued that anticipatory *it*-clauses (e.g. *It can be argued*) "express the speaker's tentativeness over the truth of the matrix clause" (Quirk et al., 1985:1114).

6.25 It can therefore be argued [...] that if the people responsible for this form of deposition did not return it was for reasons that were beyond their control ... [AR2-6204b].

It-clauses may convey both Entertain: *Impartiality* and Attribute: *Hearsay* (section 6.6). The core difference lies in the dialogic function of the locution, that is, whether it is employed to open up the space for dialogic alternatives or to restrict such process. For instance, *It can be argued* (Entertain: *Impartiality*) vs *It is argued* (Attribute: *Hearsay*).

6.7.3 VERIFICATION

While in the *Negotiation* and *Impartiality* subtypes, the writer withholds the commitment to the proposition and somehow acknowledges the lack of evidence, in this category of Entertain, supporting evidence is employed (usually in the post-text) to put forward the argument. I am calling this subtype Verification, and its meanings are realised via locutions such as *seem*, *appear*, *evidence*, *suggests* and similar (example 6.26). With such locutions the warrantability of the proposition is reinforced as it now rests beyond the writer's subjectivity.

6.26 Trade can also link into a cultures ability to open itself to others. There **appears to be evidence suggesting** that the Egyptian culture was in fact relatively open. [AR1-6118b]

6.7.4 RESPONSIBILITY

Entertain formulations also include certain mental verb/attribute projections (*I think*, *I believe*, *I'm convinced that*, *I doubt*, etc.) (Martin & White, 2005:105). In all the cases identified in the corpus, the textual voice assumes responsibility and firmly commits to

the proposition expressed while at the same time acknowledges that others may not share this viewpoint. The level of commitment may vary from strongly assertive, as in

6.27 I believe Radcliffe's numerous descriptions of nature are stimulated by a nostalgia that was being threatened by the onset of industrialisation... [ENG2-3001d]

to a milder one often accompanied by other Entertain resources as in 6.28, where *probably* (underlined) is added, opening up space for further negotiation.

6.28 I believe a similar process probably happens in social classes. [LING1-6018b]

I have added two further subtypes in the original Entertain system, Postulation and Question, which correspond to *if*-clauses and 'rhetorical expository questions,' respectively. Although these two formulations allow the authorial voice to invoke other dialogic alternatives and often negotiate its position in the text, they do function in a slightly different way and communicate additional meanings. Examined from an interpersonal perspective, both *if*-clauses and expository questions can be classified into further types by their semantic function in the text and are discussed in detail below.

6.7.5 POSTULATION (*IF*-CLAUSES)

Conditionals and *if*-clauses have been analysed from various perspectives in the literature. My analysis is based on Warchał's (2010) taxonomy of conditionals. Warchał (2010) analysed a 2.4-million-word corpus of 200 electronically available

research articles published between the years 2001-2006 in five journals internationally recognised in the area of linguistics. Following Quirk et al. (1985) and Sweetser (2002), she found eight different types, of which seven can be considered to fulfil an interpersonal function, these being *Epistemic*, *Politeness*, *Relevance*, *Metalinguistic*, *Reservation*, *Concessive* and *Rhetorical*. With the exception of *Politeness*, occurrences of all the other types were found in my corpus as discussed below.

Epistemic conditionals

Epistemic conditionals “allow the writer to share with the receiver the responsibility for the claim made in the main clause” (Warchał, 2010:147). They present the proposition in the apodosis (main clause) as the logical consequence of the protasis (*if*-clause). Put it simply, *If [I know that] X happens/stands/is true, then [I can conclude] that Y is true. Epistemic* conditionals are the closest in meaning to the *if...then* structure (Sweetser, 2002:116), as exemplified in 6.29.

6.29 After all, **if all learning is simply a matter of recollection, then one already has knowledge**, though it is buried deeply in one's brain. [PH1-0215b]

In 6.29, the statement in the main clause (*one already has knowledge*) arises as a logical consequence of the claim made in the *if*-clause (*if all learning is a matter of recollection*). In some cases, however, this claim (*if*-clause) may be challenged in the apodosis with the deployment of another Entertain resource. In 6.30, for instance, the proposition that *the final de-glaciation of the pleistocene was the cause of the extinctions* is further challenged through an expository rhetorical question.

6.30 If the final de-glaciation of the pleistocene was the cause of these extinctions, then why did extinctions not also occur during similar de-glaciations throughout the whole of the pleistocene? [AR3-6033e]

Reservation conditionals

In this type of conditionals the reservation is expressed in the *if*-clause, and it restricts the validity of the apodosis because the textual voice may not have adequate knowledge to interpret the situation. Such reservation conditionals are usually expressed explicitly with the use of a first-person pronoun (*If I am right*) or implicitly with the use of the indefinite pronoun 'one' (*If one is correct*) (Warchał, 2010:147). No first-person constructions, however, were found in my corpus. In the *reservation if*-clauses found in AH123, the reservation is aimed at an externally voiced proposition, theory or even authority, as in 6.31, where the apodosis (underlined) is justified if the reader is aware of Putnam's theory or is willing to find out. The reader is openly invited into the dialogue, and this further indicates that the authorial voice is aware of the fact that its knowledge might be insufficient.

6.31 If Putnam is correct, the function of pain as defined must admit of application to both fish and humans. [PH2-0235b]

Relevance conditionals

In *relevance* conditionals the statement expressed in the apodosis is relevant only if the proposition in the protasis is true (Sweetser, 2002:119). This is exemplified in

extract 6.32, where the authorial voice opens up the dialogue with the reader by supplying additional information in the main clause (underlined), which is relevant only under the conditions expressed in the *if*-clause.

6.32 Furthermore, **if this evidence does not seem sufficient to prove that** senators were greatly motivated to make war on foreign states so that they might gain from trade there is also the fact that when the Lex Claudia was introduced by the tribune of the plebs there was a massive amount of opposition to it in the senate despite it being passed. [CL2-6066d]

Metalinguistic conditionals

Metalinguistic conditionals indicate that the author is either not fully satisfied with a certain form or terminology or makes a stronger claim for consideration. Often, both may occur in the same context (Warchał, 2010). In extract 6.33, the authorial voice makes a comment to show 'dissatisfaction' with the wording used in the main clause (*one of*), while in 6.34, it restricts the validity of the verb *limit* to a particular understanding, i.e., *rectify*.

6.33 There can be no discussion of magic in 'One Hundred Years of Solitude' without mentioning one of, **if not the most important** character in the novel, Melquiades. [CAS1-0322b]

6.34 The 'pioneers of modern environmentalism' sought to limit, **if not rectify**, these problems by establishing numerous protective schemes, for example to conserve forests by placing strict controls upon the cutting of trees. [H1-0129e]

Concessive conditionals

Concessive if-clauses mean that the apodosis is true without claiming that the protasis is not (Mann & Thompson, 1988:254), and they are often paraphrased as *even if*-concessive clauses (example 6.35).

6.35 A very credible, **if euro-centric**, understanding can be reached of the causes of the Wars of Independence as having all to do with events in Paris, Madrid, Cadiz, and the rest of the old world. [CAS1-0267a]

Rhetorical conditionals

Finally, *rhetorical* conditional clauses represent strong assertions. The one instance identified in the corpus more closely relates to Quirk et al.'s (1985:1094-1095) first type of rhetorical conditionals, whereby the strong assertion derives from the conditional clause, which is 'absurd' or even offensive, as in example 6.36 below.

6.36 Yes, it was ugly enough; but **if you were man enough** you would admit to yourself that there was in you just the faintest trace of a response to the terrible frankness of that noise, a dim suspicion of there being a meaning in it which you - you so remote from the night of first ages - could comprehend. [ENG3-3007b]

6.7.6 QUESTIONS (EXPOSITORY QUESTIONS)

Like *if*-clauses and conditionals, rhetorical expository questions are used to Entertain a dialogic background of alternative propositions rather than assert a proposition (White, 2003; Martin & White, 2005). They are “used to introduce a proposition in such a way that it is presented as but one of a number of possible positions” (White, 2003:267), but to which the writer is not committed. They explicitly bring the readers into the text, involve them, and draw their attention to the arguments that follow. Such questions differ from the leading rhetorical questions discussed earlier (sections 2.9.6.1.1 and 6.5) that close up the space and convey Concur.

The role and functions of questions in academic writing have been studied from various perspectives. Hyland (2002:10) conducted a study analysing research articles, textbooks, and L2 student project reports, where he explored the role of questions in academic writing. He found that questions serve six primary functions: (1) arousing interest, (2) framing the discourse, (3) establishing a research niche, (4) organising the discourse, (5) expressing an attitude or evaluation, and (6) setting up a claim. Notably, functions (5) and (6) are particularly relevant to the interpersonal aspect of academic writing. Hyland (2002) focuses mostly on ‘expository’ questions, which fall within the Entertain system of the Engagement framework, and his findings and classification will be useful to our analysis of the rhetorical questions found in the corpus. Drawing on Hyland’s (2002) taxonomy of questions in academic writing, the five functions of expository questions identified in my corpus are: *frame the discourse*, *introduce a proposition*, *challenge a proposition*, *support a claim*, and *emphasise the topic*, and are addressed below.

Introduce a proposition

Most expository questions in AH123 are used to 'introduce a proposition.' Such questions are similar to the ones mentioned by Swales (1990) as one way of 'establishing a niche' in research articles. In undergraduate essays, they usually raise a question about theory, introduce a new topic for discussion, or promote a significant problem or issue worth exploring further. In example 6.37, an expository question is used to present the proposition as one possible view of how corpus analysis can explain meaning.

6.37 There is ultimately no distinction between form and meaning.... [The] meaning affects the structure and this is.... the principal observation of corpus linguistics in the last decade" (Sinclair 1991 in Stubbs 1996:35). The question is, **can corpus analysis give any insight into meaning?** As Stubbs points out, corpus linguistics in Britain has focussed directly on semantics and the best way to find out about meaning is through the analysis of texts. [LIN2-6059e]

In the extract above, through the use of the question, the author avoids taking a position. Instead, she expands the dialogue and 'answers' the question by presenting the proposition as based on the subjectivity of an external voice, in this case, Stubbs, and thus entertains this dialogic alternative. This type of expository question is usually posed in order to be answered immediately or later in the text, and it is addressed by the writer either heteroglossically or monoglossically. In the first case, most such questions are followed by citations, either integral or non-integral. In some other cases, the writer goes on to discuss the new proposition in a monoglossic way.

As can be seen in extract 6.38, the authorial voice does not 'resort' to an external voice to discuss the new proposition; instead, it supports it with a narrative based on a number of facts. This, however, does not affect the dialogic expansive function of the expository question *per se*. The proposition is still recognised as one among others available in the particular context.

6.38 According to the Noble Lie, the god added gold to the rulers and silver to the Auxiliaries and bronze to the farmers and workers. **How did Plato decide to winnow out the silver from the bronze?** The candidates were put through rigorous tests designed to lead them astray and tricking them to neglect their responsibility of protecting the city. After testing the candidates during a period from childhood to adulthood, the candidates who would 'stick most firmly to the principle' would be chosen as Guardians. [CL3-6211b]

Challenge a proposition

Such questions, according to Hyland (2002), are evaluative, express an attitude, hedge alternative claims, and distance the writer from the preceding view. They are often used to criticise others' work or undermine a certain argument. They present a counterclaim, and they are usually followed by reasoning (example 6.39), while others sound ironic (example 6.40). In 6.39, Descartes's premise is described as '*dubious*,' while in 6.40, Chappell's solution is rejected as '*nonsensical*.'

6.39 Granted, we may assign different properties to the mind and body, but to state that they are independent of each other is to draw an invalid conclusion. **Who is to say that the relationship of thought and extension is one of unity of composition and not of nature?** As a result, Descartes' premise that mind and body are separate and distinct is dubious. Already weakened, we shall

analyse the rest of the Second Meditation to see if Descartes manages to salvage his position from Hobbes. [PH1-0285b]

6.40 Chappell argues that it is possible to make a case for the Meno acting as a sort of showcase for Socrates' abilities, demonstrating that he alone 'had devised the proper method...if only men would listen to him or listen to him long enough.' While an ingenious solution, it does not entirely resolve the problems that the Meno presents. **Are we to conclude that virtue can be taught, but that the only person capable of teaching it is Socrates?** This is somewhat nonsensical and entirely unhelpful for the billions of us who have been born since Socrates' death in 399BC. [PH1-0215b]

Frame the discourse

Some expository questions are employed for framing purposes (Hyland, 2002). They are usually posed in introductions and are taken up in the remainder of the text, and also include the research questions the paper is set to address. In Hyland's study, these questions were more common in textbooks and reports, and there were considerable genre differences in how writers used questions in this way (Hyland, 2002:13). In the undergraduate essays examined for this project, only three questions were found that were used to frame the discourse (examples 6.41 and 6.42), two of them belonging to the same paper.

6.41 The functional definition of pain must be couched in terms that admit of application to both fish and humans. We have two questions that I shall state and then answer together: **(1) How can the sensory input of a fish be specified in the same way as the sensory input of a human being? (2) How can the behaviour (the output) of a fish be specified in the same way as**

that of a human being? We can see that we have a problem if we define inputs and outputs in terms of sensory data and physical movements, as neither the sensory organs nor the physical movements of fish and humans are very similar. [PH2-0235b]

6.42 Is it possible to identify a spoken language in the Neanderthal fossil record and through their material remains? This essay will approach the subject by examining articles detailing fossil evidence, neurological interpretation and the function of verbal communication, attempting to identify whether Neanderthals were capable of speech. [AR3-6171h]

Although this kind of expository question is expected to be more common in research articles or dissertations, as well as textbooks and reports, as mentioned above, it still comes as a surprise that undergraduate writers do not employ this rhetorical device when introducing the topic for discussion in their essays. One explanation might be the word length of the essay. It might be too soon after the prompt to have a repetition of the essay question in a script of, say, 2000 words.

Support a claim

Hyland also calls these ‘hypothetical narratives’ or ‘tales’ (Hyland, 2002:19), and their main function is to involve and persuade the reader to agree with the writer’s position “through a direct, almost intimately conversational appeal” (Hyland, 2002:19).

6.43 To see another person suffering causes us to suffer, and we act to alleviate their suffering and by doing so alleviate our own. **But why should another’s plight cause us to suffer in the first place?** Because the Will dictates it, and **why should the Will dictate it?** Because it is tricking us into preserving the species. [PH3-0407c]

Both instances found in the corpus (example 6.43) come from the same philosophy essay, where the writer poses two questions one after the other, which she immediately answers, thus ‘simultaneously initiating and closing the dialogue’ (Hyland, 2002:19).

Emphasise the topic

A further type of expository question is one that emphasises the topic, what Hyland calls genuine or real questions (Hyland, 2002:21). These questions usually indicate gaps in present knowledge and refer to the future by suggesting areas for further research (Hyland, 2002; Weber, 1994). They tend to occur in the conclusion of a text and, in Hyland’s study were mostly found in research articles coming from the soft disciplines.

6.44 After reading the preface therefore, whilst studying the Essays, we refer back to the introduction and perhaps it influences our own appreciation of themes dealt with later on. **Are we subconsciously influenced in making up our own minds due to the innocuous style and apparent friendliness of 'To the Reader'?** [ENG1-3108b]

The one such question (example 6.44) that was identified in my sample is indeed in the closing line of a philosophy essay, but it does not explicitly refer to future research. Instead, the writer poses the question to indicate that the issue is still open to discussion while leaving the reader wondering whether the style of the ‘To the Reader’ essay has ‘subconsciously influenced in making up our own minds.’ According to

Hyland, they offer “a powerful form of closure by forcefully emphasising the main point of the paper” (Hyland, 2002:21).

From a dialogistic perspective, all Entertain resources act to explicitly present a proposition “as grounded in its own contingent, individual subjectivity”, through which it is presented by the authorial voice “as but one of a range of possible positions” (Martin and White, 2005:98), they do act to convey more communicative motives and functions on the part of the writer. Thus, while, for example, both *perhaps* and *I believe* make dialogic space for other possibilities in the communicative context, with the latter, the authorial voice conveys a stronger sense of commitment than in the former, which indicates a sense of cautiousness or uncertainty. The new refined Entertain system with the further functionalities for its categories is visually presented in Figure 6.7 while the complete Engagement framework in Figure 6.8.

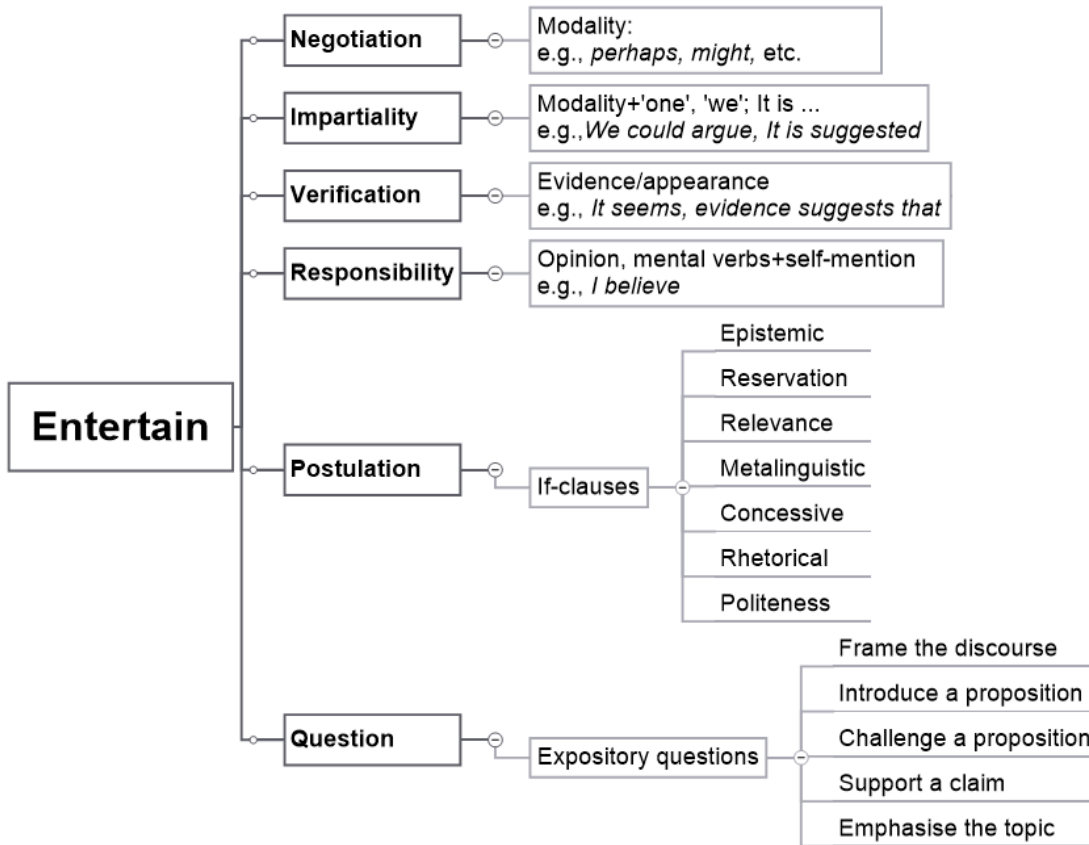


Figure 6.7 Proposed expanded Entertain framework

6.8 THE NEW ENGAGEMENT FRAMEWORK

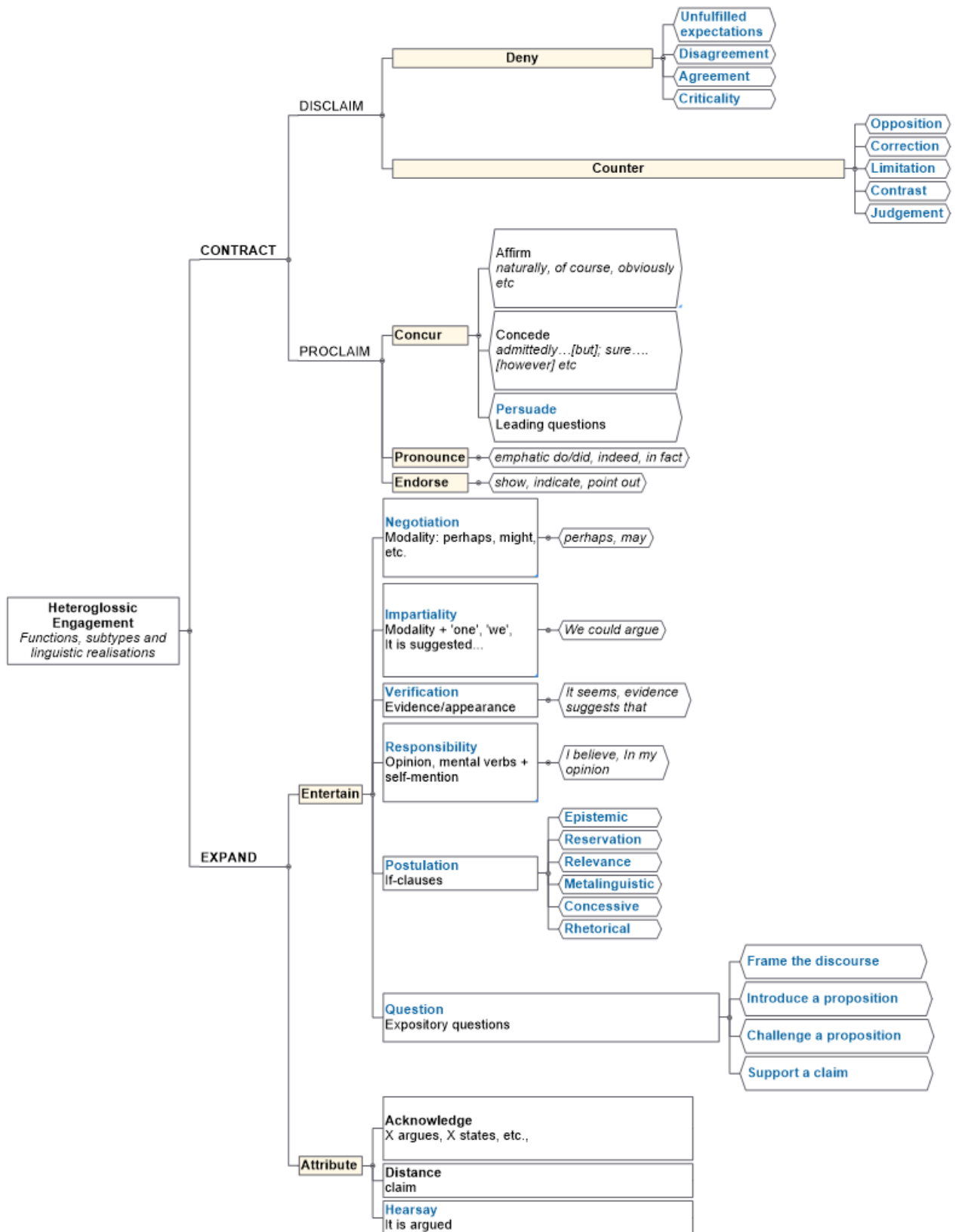


Figure 6.8 Proposed expanded framework for heteroglossic Engagement
(Adapted from Martin & White 2005. New categories added in blue font)

6.9 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The aim of this chapter was to present and discuss the modifications made to some of the subsets of the Engagement framework. As explained at the beginning of the chapter, the necessity emerged from the classification of resources in the corpus, wherein it became evident that specific functions of the discursal markers were not accommodated in the initial framework. The proposed taxonomy of the functional subcategories of the Engagement framework (Figure 6.8) is by no means stringent or absolute, but it does reflect the context-dependent interpretation of authorial voice and positioning in the current data. Overall, revising or refining the Engagement framework by Martin and White has enabled me to improve its analytical precision and maintain the framework's relevance in my study of discourse in undergraduate writing. The new expanded Engagement framework was applied to investigate genre, discipline, and level variations within the AH123 corpus examined next.

CHAPTER 7

7 ENGAGEMENT ACROSS GENRE, LEVEL AND DISCIPLINE

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter five discussed the findings of Engagement in the AH123 corpus as a whole. It also presented variations in the relative frequencies of each of the subsystems and features of Engagement in individual essays and commented on the outliers for each category, highlighting areas of differentiation in each script. The analysis brought about the need to refine the framework, and this was the focus of chapter 6.

This chapter will present and discuss the findings and analysis for level and discipline differences in the AH123 corpus as these emerged from the annotations in the UAM Corpus Tool applying the expanded Engagement framework proposed earlier. The two overarching questions relating to level and discipline variations that will guide the analysis in this chapter are: *“How do the Engagement resources employed in the essays vary across the three undergraduate levels?”* and *“How do the Engagement resources employed in the essays vary across the different Arts and Humanities disciplines?”*

Before addressing these questions, the chapter will start by reporting on the genre and purpose differentiations of the chosen essays, as these arose from the analysis of the individual scripts in the current corpus.

7.2 ESSAY SUBGENRES IN AH123

While the corpus comprises essays only, the variations that emerged from both the annotation and the statistical analysis of the individual papers call for further investigation on the subgenre and the communication purpose of the selected texts, as they differ in style, content, and dialogic functionality. The distribution of the dialogistic features of Engagement across the individual essays, as presented in chapter 5, is summarised in Figure 7.1. As it is clear from this illustration, each paper is unique. Each writer deploys a different number and range of Engagement resources. To account for these variations, I will explore any similarities or differences among these scripts with reference to their genre and purpose.

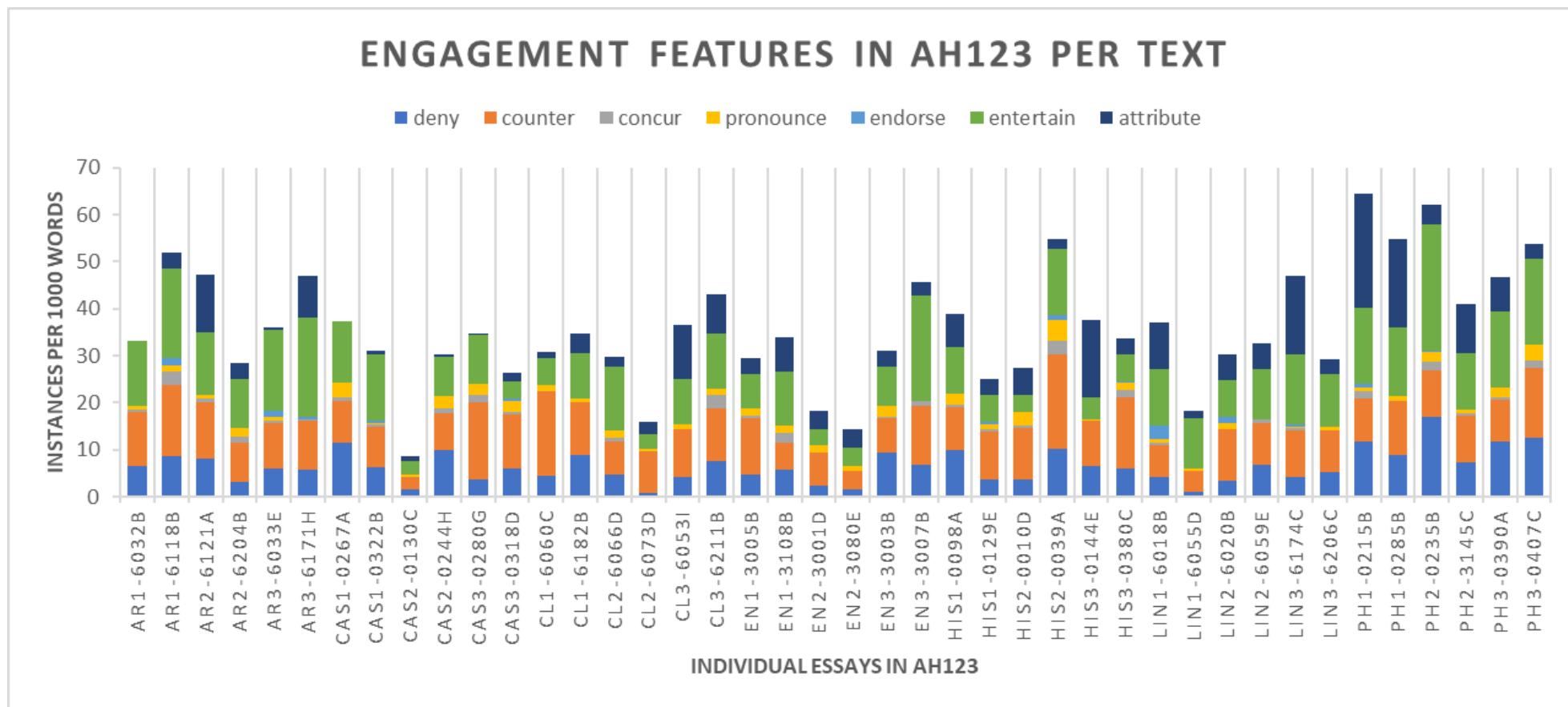


Figure 7.1 Normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Engagement features per essay in the AH123 corpus

Drawing on Nesi and Gardner's (2012) taxonomy of essay genres, Gardner's (2008) classification of history essays, Coffin's (2006) history genres and Goulart, Biber and Reppen's (2022) communicative purposes of student assignments, four main essay genres were identified in the AH123 corpus, *exposition*, *discussion*, *commentary*, and *narration* performing various purposes. (For a detailed reference to the literature, refer to section 2.4.1). My classification does not solely reflect the prompt, but it is also based on the thesis statement of the paper (if there is one) and the overall discourse of the essay.

Briefly, *expositions* are persuasive essays. The writer puts forwards evidence and arguments drawing on the relevant literature and takes a clear position on the issue. They have been found to perform two main purposes in my corpus: *to argue* and *to challenge*. In *discussions*, the writer discusses the topic by drawing on the literature but follows an explanatory rather than an argumentative path. Most of the time, the writer explains a process, a theory, or a condition (e.g. aphasia) and occasionally describes tangible objects (e.g. archaeological sites). Both *discussions* and *expositions* belong to the 'arguing' essay genre (Coffin, 2004), and we expect to see great dialogic involvement of the writer and high occurrences of evaluative language and heteroglossic Engagement in these two genres, more specifically, high frequencies of attribution and Endorse features as well as a great proportion of citations.

Commentaries are analyses and/or comparisons of texts. They analyse specific passages of literary or philosophical genres, both fiction and non-fiction and

discuss their function and characteristics. Their main purpose is to analyse and occasionally compare the two texts rather than argue (Nesi & Gardner, 2012). *Narrations*, finally, are ‘telling a story,’ and they are similar to Coffin’s (2004) ‘historical recount’. In my sample, these are highly descriptive scripts that report on historically remarkable events or other events that occurred in the past, with not much argumentation or reference to external sources. Along with *commentaries*, *narrations* are the weakest scripts with regards to dialogicity, with perhaps more monoglossic, personalised and descriptive discourse than the other genres and are those scripts that instigated the genre analysis in this project.

The distribution of these new essay subgenres in AH123, along with their corresponding communicative purposes in my sample, is presented in Table 7.1 in raw counts (N) and percentage of the total.

Genre	Purpose	N	Per cent (%)
Discussion	Explain and argue	14	33
Exposition	Argue, evaluate and challenge	13	31
Commentary	Analyse and compare	8	19
Narration	Narrate and describe	7	17

The majority of the essays (64%) are either *expositions* or *discussions*, which is in line with the findings of other studies (Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Goulart et al., 2022). The remaining 15 essays (36%) are distributed almost evenly between *narrations*

and *commentaries*. This is a high percentage, which is expected to affect the findings in the corpus as these two essay genres are not considered highly dialogic.

7.3 GENRE AND LEVEL

Figure 7.2 presents the distribution of the four essay genres across levels in raw frequencies. As can be seen, *expositions* come from years 2 and 3, *discussions* are found in all years, while *commentaries* are more common in Y1. *Narrations*, finally, as expected, are only found in the first two years.

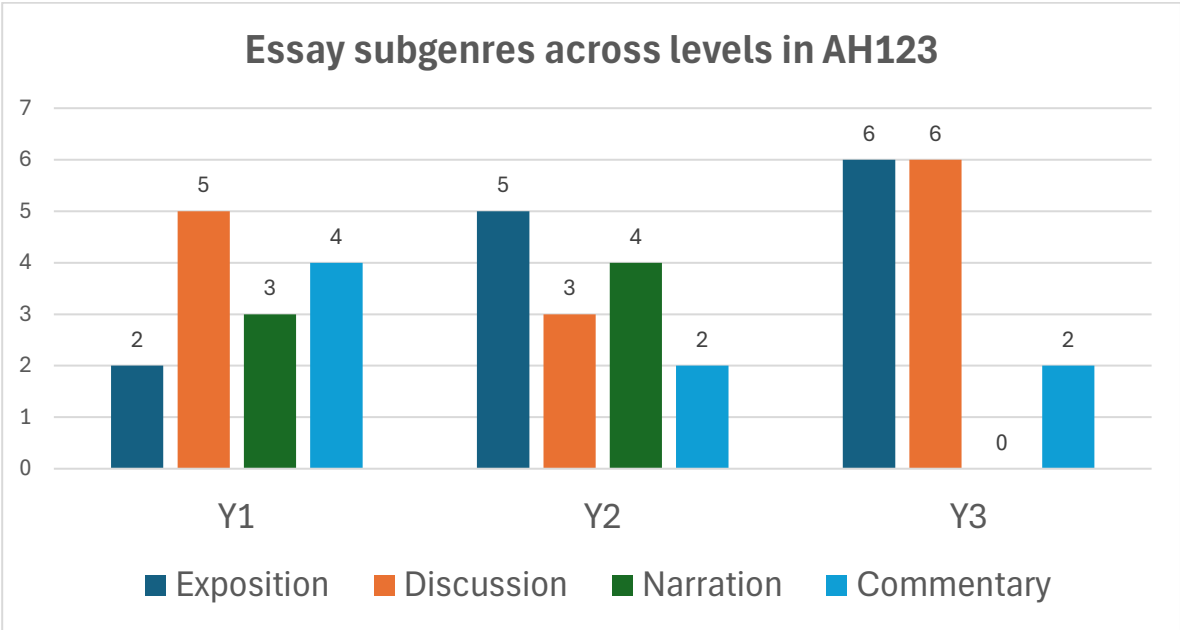


Figure 7.2 Distribution of essay genres across levels in AH123

The fact that no narrations were found in Year 3 is perhaps an indication that by this stage, students have moved away from descriptive and narrative discourse

and towards a more argumentative and dialogic style in addressing the essay questions. Perhaps this is also so because, at this level instructors are not assigning essay tasks that call for narrations. Research is not decisive, though, in this respect. Gardner (2008:25) did not find any straightforward “evidence of progression from narrative to argumentative language through Years 1 to 3” in her sample of 60 history essays. Pessoa, Miller and Kaufer (2014:150-151), on the other hand, in a 4-year longitudinal study of literacy development at university in Qatar, argue that students’ writing “became more academic-like with increasing use of institutional and academic register, elaboration, and reasoning, leaving behind more descriptive, narrative, informal, and oral-like ways of communicating.”

This trend is also reflected in the fact that only two of the forty-two papers are *expositions* in Y1. Coming straight from high school, first-year writers seem to adopt a more explanatory and descriptive style in developing a particular prompt. It was noticed that first-year students often chose to answer certain essay questions as *discussions* rather than *expositions*. This means that although the writers address the question fully, discuss the topic and present some clear and occasionally strong arguments, the scripts lack analysis and evaluation. This could be explained by the fact that freshers are not yet aware of the academic conventions required at the university level. For instance, this prompt from first-year philosophy (0285b), “*In connection with the Second Meditation, Hobbes said it was possible that something that thinks should be something corporeal. Do Descartes’ arguments succeed in ruling this possibility out?*” could have been developed as either an *exposition* or a *discussion*, with the writer opting for the

latter. Similarly, direct question prompts such as “*In what sense does our experience of the sublime demonstrate the supremacy of our rational nature, according to Kant?*” (PH3-0390a) could be approached in either way, with the particular student choosing the former. In other cases, prompts that explicitly call for a *discussion* have been analysed as either a *narration* (as in HIS1-0098a’ *Famines in India have been caused primarily by government policies.*’ *Discuss*) with extensive descriptions and factual recounts or a *commentary* (as in EN2-3080e, *Discuss the representation and use of childhood in literature of the Romantic Period*) because the writer chose to discuss the topic drawing on specific texts.

Judging from this small sample, it can be argued that as they move up the years, students seem to move towards more ‘arguing’ genres, and while first-year students *narrate*, *describe*, and *explain*, final-year students *argue* and *discuss* more. But it is possible that such variations are discipline-dependent, as we will see next, where a distinction in the communicative purposes of writers is even more clear.

7.4 GENRE AND DISCIPLINE

The distribution of the four essay genres across the seven AH disciplines is shown in Figure 7.3 in raw frequencies.

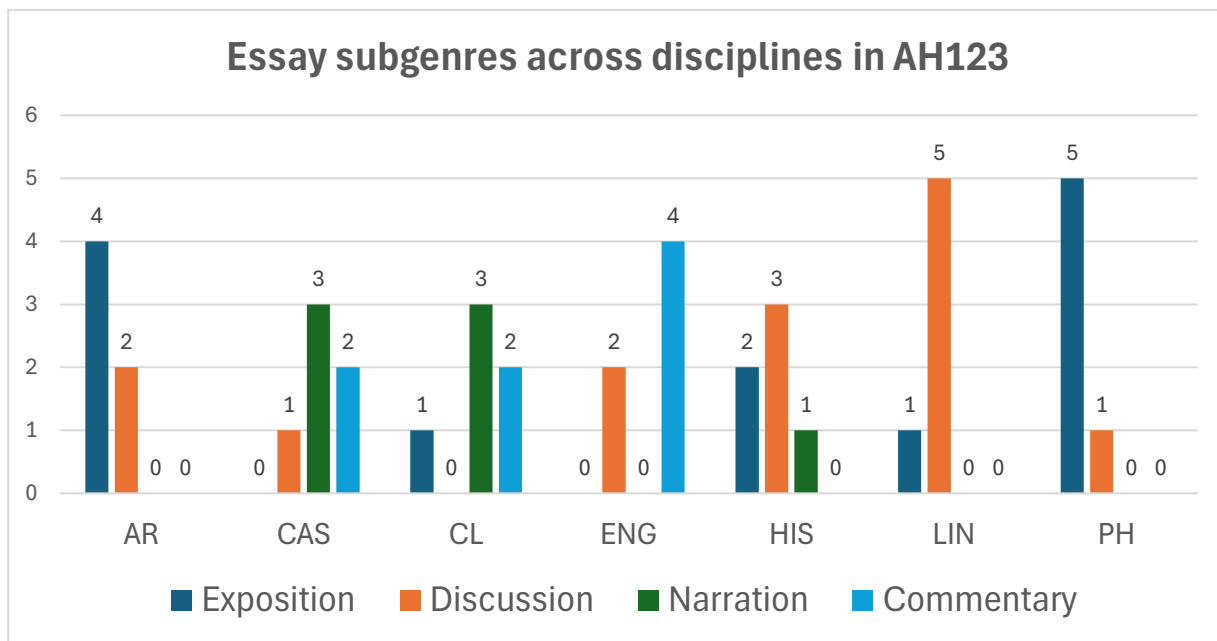


Figure 7.3 Distribution of essay genres across disciplines in AH123

As can be seen, most *expositions* come from the disciplines of philosophy and archaeology, while *discussions* are found mostly in linguistics and history. *Commentaries* are mainly written for the English discipline and reflect the prompts which ask for an analysis of specific literary works. *Narrations*, finally, as expected, are only found in CAS and classics. Neither *narrations* nor *commentaries* were identified in archaeology, linguistics, and philosophy, and this can be attributed to both the epistemological groundings and the knowledge acquisition and construction and the instructional practices in these three disciplines.

Before I move to the analysis of the dialogic behaviour of the writers in the disciplines, I will briefly summarise the characteristics, the prompts and the genres identified in each of the seven disciplines.

Archaeology

Archaeology is a “tremendously varied discipline both in its subject matter and in the ways in which it produces its knowledge” (Sinclair, 1989:212). It is one of the disciplines that has not been studied extensively from an academic writing perspective and, to my knowledge, there is very little in the literature as to what characterises its discourse. Although it is a Humanities discipline, it “combines elements of both science and humanities, thus covering the middle ground” (Rizomilioti, 2006:53), and this may influence the ways writers in this discipline construct arguments, exert their authorial voice and engage with sources. Fagan and Durrani (2022:25) characterise archaeological writing as dull and dry and modern archaeology as “a serious, meticulous discipline with highly technical jargon and research methods,” but this relates to areas of the discipline that deal with excavations and descriptions of found artefacts. The prompts in my corpus relate more to discussion and evaluation of ancient lifestyle and beliefs, architecture, and ecofacts, among others, and essays have been classified as either *expositions* or *discussions*. It came as a surprise that no *narrations* were identified in the sample, as this would have been justified by Fagan and Durrani’s claim above.

Comparative American Studies

Comparative American Studies is a relatively late newcomer onto the academic scene (Grgas, 2014). It is a hybrid discipline, which lies between history and

literature and is a representative example of interdisciplinarity, balancing between the Humanities and Social Sciences. According to Grgas (2014), its object has always been the history of the United States, but its status remains problematic. Its interdisciplinarity is reflected in the essays analysed, as half of them relate to historical issues, two are on literature, and one is on sociology. The history essays (0267a, 0130c, 0244h) have been classified as *narrations*, while the two questions on famous literary works (0322b & 0280g) have been addressed as *commentaries*, and the last paper on the 'passionless' debate (0318d) has been classed as a *discussion*. No *expositions* were identified in the CAS sample, making scripts in this discipline stand out as the least argumentative and dialogic ones.

Classics

Originally relating to the study of literary texts of ancient Greeks and Romans, the discipline of classics has undergone some transformations over the years, and, in some institutions, it now covers all aspects of the field, from history through philosophy to demography and archaeology (Morley, 2018). This is also reflected in my sample with titles like *What effect, if any, did the Peloponnesian War have on either Athenian or Spartan Society?* The six scripts have been identified as *narrations* and *commentaries*, with one only an *exposition* case. No research, to my knowledge, has examined academic writing in classics, and although it is often included in studies on the Humanities (e.g., Stotesbury, 2003; Hyland, 2005; Matruglio, 2010; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Staples et al., 2016; Gardner, Nesi, & Biber,

2019), there is no particular reference to it. Along with CAS writers, classics students tend to address the prompts as either *narrations* or *commentaries*

English

English studies, one of the original humanities subjects, is concerned with the English language and its literature. Research on English has studied both professional writing (e.g., Afros & Schryer, 2009) and student writing (e.g., Bruce, 2016; Lancaster, 2016). My corpus includes samples from both English literature (e.g. ENG1-3005b on Shakespeare) and language (e.g. ENG3-3007b on meaning). However, all the essay prompts require analysis or comparison of literary texts, and they have been developed as *commentaries* with the exception of two final-year scripts, which have been classified as *discussions*. This perhaps supports the claim made earlier that students move towards more argumentative genres as they progress in their studies, as there are no distinctive wordings in the prompts to suggest either genre.

History

As a discipline, history is concerned with narrating, describing, and analysing facts of the past. These may include particular events, time periods, people or social groups, and institutions (Gray, 2011; Tosh, 2015). The discourse of history has received considerable attention in the literature (e.g. Coffin, 2006; Derewianka, 2007; Miller, Mitchell & Pessoa, 2014). It has been suggested that writing in history often entails an alternative argument structure (Shaw, 1998) and that historians

intrude most when it comes to making claims (McGrath, 2016:91). If it was not for one paper (0098a), all the history essays would have been written as either *expositions* or *discussions*. This paper comes from year one, and the writer has chosen to develop the topic in a largely narrative way with highly descriptive, factual and monoglossic discourse, which I believe reflects the level of the paper rather than its disciplinary discourse. Nevertheless, this one paper cannot contradict Coffin's recognition that in recent years, history does not provide a "factual record" (Coffin, 2002:504), but the focus has shifted to the author's role in the construction of knowledge (McGrath, 2016).

Linguistics

This discipline in the BAWE and in my sample includes assignments on both linguistics and applied linguistics. Linguistics is the scientific study of language, its structure, meaning, and usage across different languages and contexts. The subject matter of applied linguistics is the application of linguistic theory and methods to real-world and is concerned with language teaching, assessment, policy, and the use of language and its users. It is quite a contested, broad, and diverse discipline (Ruiying & Allison, 2003:266), which is sometimes classified as a social science. Researchers have taken an interest in both theoretical linguistics (e.g. Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Vold, 2006) and applied linguistics (e.g., McCarthy, 2001; Cook, 2003; Gray, 2011). In her study of research articles in applied linguistics, Gray (2011) distinguishes between quantitative and qualitative articles, which both discuss research procedures and methods. This is also evident in the undergraduate essays in the current sample, which have been classified as either

discussions or *expositions* and which follow a format much closer to research articles, drawing on original, empirical research to develop and support their arguments.

Philosophy

Philosophy focuses on the understanding of fundamental problems and truths of human existence, including the nature of knowledge, ethics, and principles of conduct through the study of critical thinking and logic. It is a typically theoretical discipline, and texts report on theoretical rather than empirical research. Studies on academic writing in philosophy agree that its discourse is highly dialogic with a large number of stance and engagement markers (Hyland, 2004a; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Hardy & Römer, 2013; Lancaster, 2016; Gardner, Nesi, & Biber, 2019; Yoon & Römer, 2020). Hyland (2004a: 114) describes the philosophy corpus in his study as “striking for its heavy use of interpersonal discourse containing twice as many devices as any other discipline” and explains that it might reflect the ‘individualistic ethos’ of the discipline (ibid, p. 82). Judging from the genre taxonomy of the philosophy essays in the current study, philosophy writers seem to develop arguments and produce engaging discourse in a more developed manner and frequency than writers in the other disciplines. No *narrations* were identified in the sample, where five out of the six essays in philosophy have been classified as *expositions* and come from all three levels. Only one essay was identified as a *discussion* (0285b), with the writer relying on explaining rather than arguing Descartes’ arguments on the Second Meditation.

To sum up, the analysis reveals that archaeology and philosophy writers tend to favour *expository* writing, while linguistics and history writers often approach essay prompts as *discussions*. CAS and classics disciplines show a higher proportion of *narrations*, while English papers predominantly consist of *commentaries*. From this taxonomy, it could be inferred that philosophy and archaeology writers demonstrate a deeper familiarity with academic writing conventions, while CAS and classics writers may show a tendency to use more monoglossic, descriptive styles, which are more commonly associated with secondary school writing. However, it is essential to consider other factors that may contribute to these differences, such as disciplinary norms and lecturers' expectations, before drawing definitive conclusions.

What is important to investigate now is how the writers of these different genres dialogically engage with both the reader and external voices and whether there are any variations in their construal of authorial voice across these genres, the three undergraduate levels and the seven disciplines examined in this project. I will discuss these with reference to each of the main subsystems and the new subcategories of Engagement.

7.5 ENGAGEMENT ACROSS GENRES

As already mentioned, it is expected that there are variations in the dialogistic functionality of each of the four essay genres. It is anticipated that *exposition* and *discussion* essay writers employ far more Engagement markers than, say, writers

who opt for *narrations* or *commentaries*. It is also anticipated that *narrations* will make use of low Attribute as well as Entertain resources and perhaps writers in this genre will sound more certain compared to writers of *expositions*. The findings of this stage of the project support some of these assumptions, as can be seen from Figure 7.4 and Table 7.2, which present the distribution of the subgenres across the disciplines and the frequencies (normalised per 1000 words) in the expanded Engagement framework features, respectively. In Table 7.2, new categories are italicised and the highest figures per category are indicated in blue font. The raw frequencies of each category are added in table D10 in Appendix D.

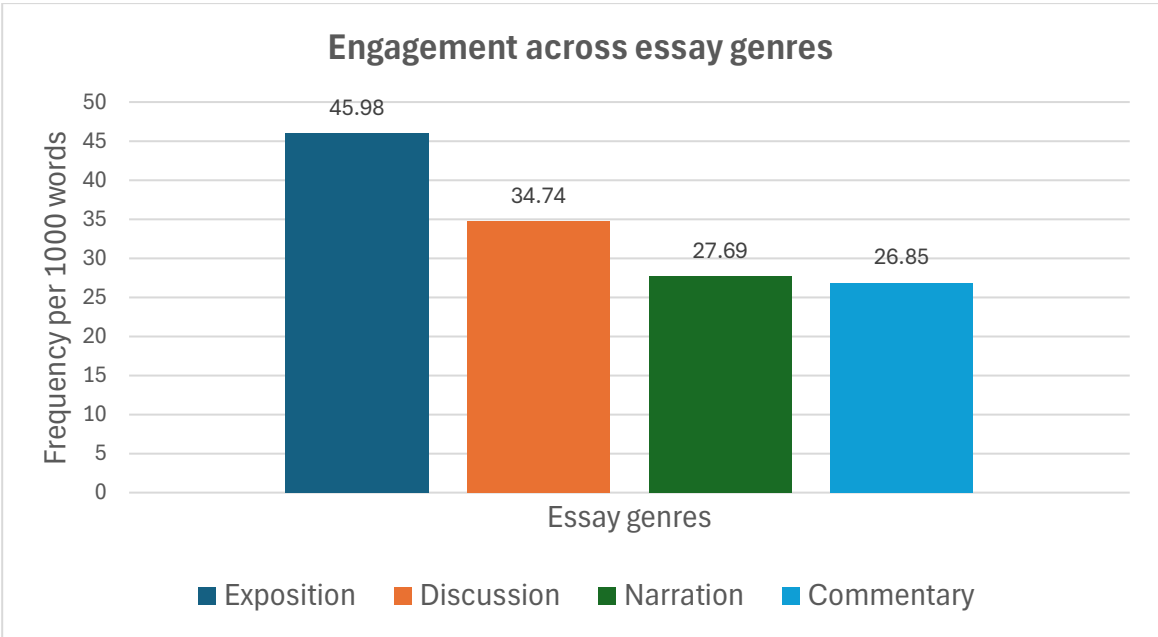


Figure 7.4 Engagement across essay genres (frequencies per 1000 words)

As expected, *exposition* essay writers tend to engage more and employ a high frequency of Engagement resources, while *narration* scripts do less so (Figure 7.4). In all genres, we see that writers Contract the dialogic space more often than

Expand it (Table 7.2). However, *expositions* and *discussions* show an even distribution of both Contract and Expand frequencies (mean ratio 21:20, respectively).

Table 7.2 Normalised (PTW) frequencies (per 1000 words) of Engagement subsystems across essay subgenres				
System	Exposition	Discussion	Narration	Commentary
Engagement	45.98	34.74	27.68	26.86
CONTRACT	23.72	17.43	16.96	15.05
Deny	8.54	5.88	5.96	4.10
<i>Unfulfilled Expectations</i>	6.20	4.06	4.91	2.99
<i>Disagreement</i>	1.67	1.16	0.56	0.71
<i>Agreement</i>	0.16	0.09	0.28	0
<i>Criticality</i>	0.49	0.54	0.21	0.41
Counter	11.59	9.45	8.69	8.46
<i>Opposition</i>	6.09	5.08	3.93	4.26
<i>Correction</i>	0.66	0.65	0.49	0.56
<i>Limitation</i>	4.23	3.32	3.01	2.79
<i>Contrast</i>	0.41	0.31	0.28	0.86
<i>Judgement</i>	0.03	0	0	0
Proclaim	3.60	2.10	2.31	2.48
Concur	1.29	0.37	0.56	0.66
<i>Affirm</i>	0.85	0.23	0.49	0.56
<i>Concede</i>	0.11	0.11	0.07	0.10
<i>Persuade</i>	0.33	0.03	0	0
Pronounce	1.62	1.28	1.75	1.47
Endorse	0.69	0.45	0	0.35

Table 7.2 (Continued) Normalised (PTW) frequencies (per 1000 words) of Engagement subsystems across essay subgenres				
System	Exposition	Discussion	Narration	Commentary
EXPAND	22.26	17.31	10.72	11.81
Entertain	15.54	10.45	8.48	7.60
<i>Negotiation</i>	10.27	8.09	6.45	6.13
<i>Impartiality</i>	0.44	0.23	0.28	0.25
<i>Responsibility</i>	0.36	0.14	0.14	0.15
<i>Verification</i>	2.33	1.39	0.84	0.76
<i>Postulation</i>	1.15	0.45	0.63	0.20
<i>Epistemic</i>	0.25	0.09	0.14	0
<i>Reservation</i>	0.44	0.20	0.14	0.05
<i>Relevance</i>	0.38	0.11	0.14	0
<i>Metalinguistic</i>	0	0.03	0.07	0.05
<i>Concessive</i>	0.05	0	0.14	0.10
<i>Rhetorical</i>	0	0.03	0	0
<i>Question</i>	1.07	0.14	0	0.10
<i>Frame the discourse</i>	0.05	0	0	0
<i>Introduce a proposition</i>	0.52	0.11	0	0.05
<i>Challenge a proposition</i>	0.47	0.03	0	0.05
<i>Support a claim</i>	0.03	0	0	0
Attribute	6.73	6.87	2.24	4.21
<i>Acknowledge</i>	5.60	6.53	1.96	3.80
<i>Distance</i>	0.74	0.20	0	0.20
<i>Hearsay</i>	0.38	0.20	0.28	0.15
Citations	9.17	8.37	1.54	1.57

This means that in both these genres, writers show a balance between entertaining other possibilities, integrating other voices in their discourse and promoting their

own position by closing down the dialogic space. In contrast, in *narrations*, we notice very low figures of Expand features (RF=10.72), with the fewest occurrences of Attribute and citations and zero in Endorse but the highest frequencies in Pronounce. This does not come as a surprise, as these papers are mainly 'historical recounts' (Coffin, 2004), in which writers report events rather than engage in argumentation. This 'reporting' tends to be mostly subjective based on the knowledge and the readings of the writer but often lacks supporting evidence from the literature.

Expositions are characterised by high frequency values in nearly all Engagement features. In this genre, while writers exhibit strong argumentation skills by rejecting propositions, they do at the same time Expand the dialogic space by entertaining alternative views while at the same time engaging with external voices, as is evident from the high figures of attribution. The same is evident in *discussions*, which also employ a large proportion of attributions, as in this genre, writers attempt to discuss an issue by drawing on the literature in the field. *Commentaries* exhibit the lowest use of both Contract and Expand resources but have higher frequencies of Attribute markers compared to Narrations. *Narrations*, finally, are worth discussing for two reasons. First, they have very low frequencies of Expand with just 10.72 per thousand words, almost half of those found in *exposition* essays (22.26 ptw). Second, unlike *expositions* and *discussions*, *narrations* have very low Attribute values, just 22 markers across the seven papers, and zero endorsements. As already argued above, this is understandable as these writers recount historical events, often in their own words and without citing specific sources. This is also

reflected in the frequencies of citations, which are the lowest among the papers, with 1.54 per thousand words compared to around 9.0 in *discussions* and *expositions*. Instead, but not surprisingly, *narrations* have the highest Pronounce values of all the essay types, indicating strong authorial emphasis and exclusion of alternative positions.

This somehow correlates to findings in the literature that less successful writers tend to rely on pronouncing their own viewpoints (e.g., Wu, 2007; Miller, Mitchell, & Pessoa, 2014) to the detriment of heteroglossia. However, in this sample, while *narration* essays have the highest Pronounce values, *exposition* and *discussion* writers opt for more subjectively worded authorial intervention with self-mentions such as *I propose*, *I maintain*, *I grant*, which contradicts findings of certain studies (e.g., Schleppegrell, 2004) which relate these to less proficient writers. Concurring strategies are also more frequent in *exposition* scripts, with 92 per cent of the leading rhetorical questions found here. Within the Contract system, *expositions* and *discussions* have the highest frequencies of all subtypes of Counter and nearly all subtypes of Deny. Writers in the 'arguing' genres employ negation for *disagreement* and *criticality* purposes and contrastive markers for *opposition*, *correction*, and *limitation* of an alternative position. Clearly, *narration* scripts avoid *criticality*, while in *commentaries*, we find the highest instances of Counter: Contrast as here can be found papers which compare and contrast literary works.

Expanding rhetorical strategies are much more prevalent in *expositions* and *discussions* (with 22 and 17 instances per thousand words, respectively, and ratio

22:17) compared to *commentaries and narrations*, with around 11 occurrences per thousand words and ratio 11:10. Within the Entertain subsystem, we notice high occurrences of questions in *expositions* (85%). The majority of the expository questions are employed for argumentative purposes, specifically to introduce or challenge a proposition, strategies aiming not only to attract readers' attention but also to persuade them of the validity of the proposition. No questions were found in the *narration* texts, and only two in *commentaries*. This variation of the use of questions as a strategy of Engagement has been reported in the literature, and Hyland's (2002:6) explanation is that although questions "involve readers in both the argument and the ethos of a text," they are not evident in all genres.

Other genre differences are found in some of the Entertain functions. *Discussions*, for instance, have very low frequencies of *impartiality*, and *responsibility* and *commentaries* have very low *postulation* figures. *Discussions* in my sample include all those papers that rely heavily on explanation and occasionally description with high instances of Attribution but moderate values of either explicit authorial intervention or Entertain. Writers in these two genres opt for contracting the dialogic space with negation or Counter formulations failing to both integrate external voices and allow space for alternative positions to enter the dialogue.

As already seen, the highest occurrences of Attribute are found in *expositions* and *discussions*, with the Acknowledge category of *discussions* having considerably more instances than any other category (6.53 per 1000 words) and *narrations* the least (1.96 per thousand words) figures and the least variety of Acknowledge

markers of just 14 compared to 76 in *expositions*. Besides, Attribution figures correlate with citations, where again, *expositions* and *discussions* of the final level show the highest frequencies. Among the most common reporting verbs across the genres are *argue* and *suggest* for *expositions*, *argue*, *suggest*, and *conclude* for *discussions*, *write* for *narrations*, and *believe* and *emphasise* for *commentaries*, choices indicative of these genres. The main findings across the four essay subgenres are summarised in Table 7.3.

Table 7.3 Engagement across essay subgenres- Key findings

<p>Expositions</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High frequency of Engagement resources • Even distribution of both Contract and Expand • High frequency of Entertain and Attribute • Subjectively worded authorial intervention with self-mentions such as <i>I propose, I maintain, I grant</i> • More frequent Concur strategies • The highest frequencies of all subtypes of Counter and nearly all subtypes of Deny. • Writers employ negation for <i>disagreement</i> and <i>criticality</i> purposes • Writers employ contrastive markers for <i>opposition, correction, and limitation</i> of an alternative position. • High occurrences of Entertain expository questions • Highest frequencies of Attributions and citations • Most common Acknowledge verbs: <i>argue</i> and <i>suggest</i>
<p>Discussions</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Even distribution of both Contract and Expand • High frequency of Entertain and Attribute • More subjectively worded authorial intervention with self-mentions such as <i>I propose, I maintain, I grant,</i> • More frequent Concurring strategies • Highest frequencies of all subtypes of Counter and nearly all types of Deny. • Writers employ negation for <i>disagreement</i> and <i>criticality</i> purposes • Contrastive markers are mainly used for <i>opposition, correction, and limitation</i> purposes • Low frequencies of <i>impartiality, and responsibility</i> • Among the highest frequencies of Attribution and citations • Most common Acknowledge verbs: <i>argue, suggest, and conclude</i>
<p>Narrations</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Low frequency of Engagement resources • More contract than Expand • Very low figures of Expand • Zero Endorse resources • The highest frequencies in Pronounce • Writers avoid <i>criticality</i> • No rhetorical expository questions • The lowest Attribute and citation values • Most common Acknowledge verb: <i>write</i>
<p>Commentaries</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • More contract than Expand • The highest instances of Counter: <i>Contrast</i> • Entertain: only two rhetorical expository questions • Entertain: very low <i>postulation</i> figures • Most common Acknowledge verbs: <i>believe</i> and <i>emphasise</i>

7.6 ENGAGEMENT ACROSS LEVELS

If the quantification of Engagement resources is an indication of how students engage in dialogue through their writing and reflects the development of their authorial voice during the undergraduate years, one might expect to see a steady, linear increase in Engagement frequencies across the three levels, as the literature suggests (e.g., Hewings, 2004; Coffin, 2006; Liu, 2014). However, this does not seem to be the case in this study, as clearly illustrated in Figure 7.5 and Table E1 in Appendix E.

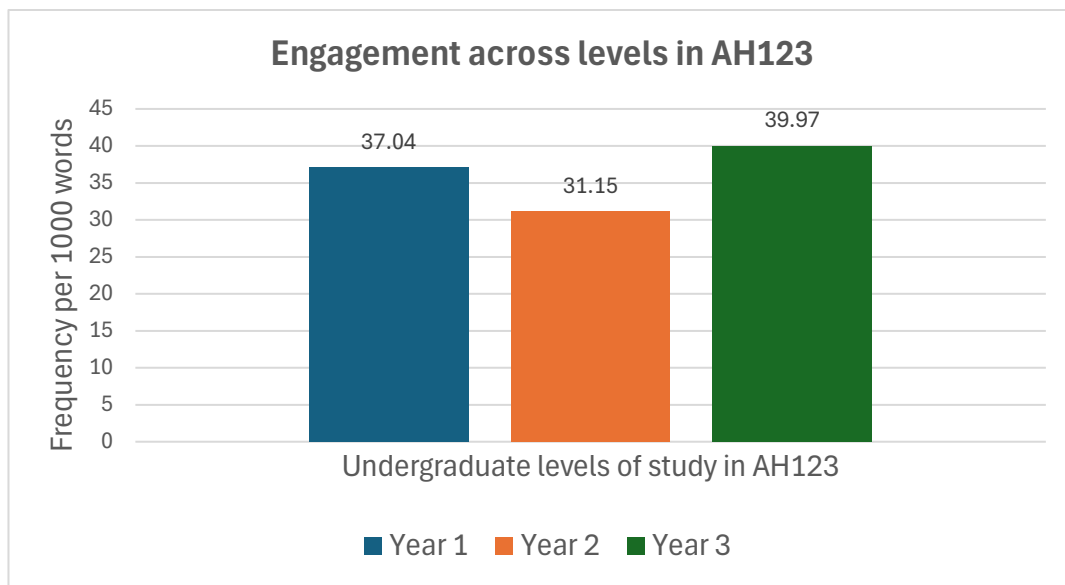


Figure 7.5 Engagement across levels in AH123

Nevertheless, a number of important observations can be made from the data. First, the overall Engagement figures fall in year two and go up again in year three. Second, year 3 has the highest occurrences of Engagement resources among the three levels, and third, Proclaim figures linearly decrease from year one to the final year. I will explore these areas in detail in the remaining of this section.

The question of why figures fall in year two compared to the first year cannot be answered confidently but only speculatively. It has been argued that first-year writing does not fully fit the expectations of university academic writing (e.g., Lea & Street, 1998; Aull, 2015). Students enter university with the knowledge and the writing practices acquired in high school, which is often characterised as overly personalised, descriptive (Pessoa, Miller, & Kaufer, 2014), authoritative and monoglossic containing “overstated arguments which presume too much authority and go beyond the scope of the evidence they have to support them” (Aull, 2015:4). One reason for this, according to Aull (2015:11), is that it relies on “shared antecedent writing genres of standardised secondary writing assignments” which are “high- stakes tasks that often matter a great deal in student admission to post-secondary institutions”. Some of the expectations of these genres include “generalised claims, topic-centred instead of source text-centred arguments, and personal experience as evidence” (ibid), in which students are often invited to write opinion-based arguments, which are not highly valued in university writing.

Another reason is that first-year writers, having not yet acquired academic research skills, often rely heavily on textbooks, rather than original research sources, to display content knowledge. As a result, they tend to often prioritise understanding, and summarising theories, concepts and information primarily aiming to demonstrate that they have gained an understanding of the materials. This may lead them to overlook academic writing conventions, such as synthesising and evaluating sources, as well as incorporating their own critical voice. Many first-year writers are unaware of these expectations, and they are confronting them for the

first time (Aull, 2015). As the students progress in their studies, they become more cautious, move away from overstatements and highly opinionated claims, and become more familiarised with the rhetorical conventions of academic discourse in general and the discourse of their own discipline in particular (Nesi & Gardner, 2012). By the final year, it is expected that students have achieved a balance between integrating diverse perspectives into their writing, allowing space for other possibilities, and projecting their own stance and voice without risking sounding personal or overconfident.

A more likely explanation, however, for the decline of Engagement figures in year two in this sample would be genre specific. Many of the year two essays (43%) are *narrations* and *commentaries*, which have very low Expand frequencies (Figure 7.6). In these two genres, Attribution figures are particularly low (mean 3.2) compared to the 'arguing' genres (mean 6.8). Although all years employ a balanced proportion of both Expanding and Contracting resources, Y1 *expositions* and *discussions* Expand slightly more than Contract. In contrast, *narration* and *commentary* writers of all years employ more Contract than Expand resources (mean ratio: 47:33 respectively). As discussed previously and as illustrated in the chart, the mean of *narrations* and *commentaries* (23 per thousand words) in year 2 is nearly half of that of *expositions* and *discussions*, equivalent to 44 per 1000 words. Yet, it remains to be seen from the corpus study that will follow whether the decline of Engagement figures in year two is a situational trend due to the high number of *narrations* and the small overall sample in this study or a predominant one in all the AH essays in the BAWE.

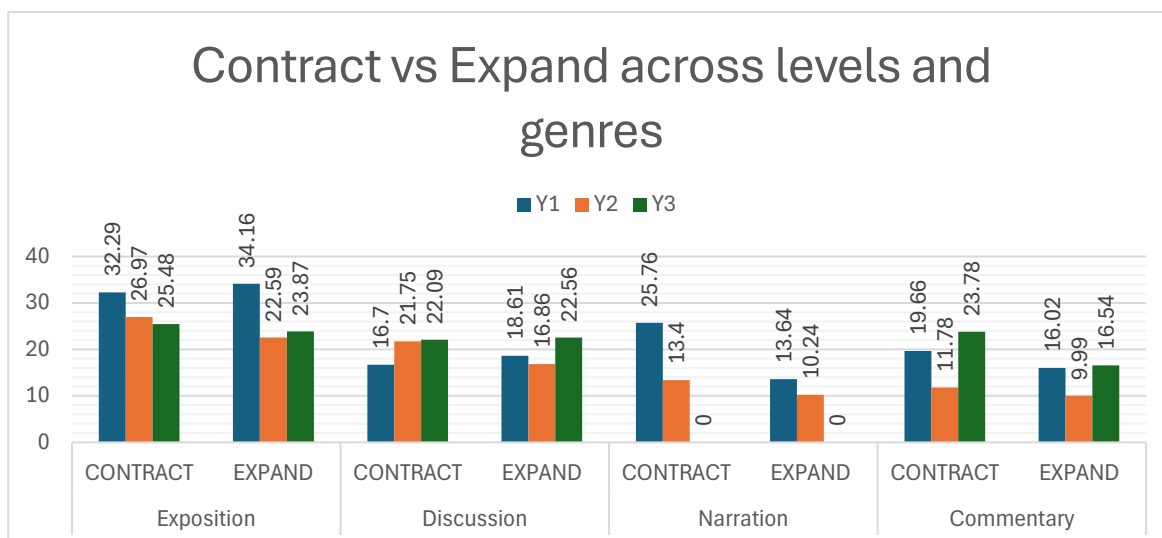


Figure 7.6 Contract vs Expand frequencies (per 1000 words) across levels and genres

The second observation apparent from the data is that, overall, year three is characterised by the highest occurrences of Engagement figures. Although research on Engagement in undergraduate writing is limited, these findings are in line with studies that report high Engagement occurrences in third-year essays (e.g., Hewings, 2004; Coffin, 2006; Liu, 2014) or in high-rated essays (Wu, 2007; Lancaster, 2014, Mitchell, Miller & Pessoa, 2016). Since the essays chosen for this sample are all graded as either Merit or Distinction, they are considered successful for the corresponding level and discipline and can occasionally, but still cautiously, be compared to high-rated essays as reported in the literature cited above. It has been argued that “greater frequency of occurrence in third-year essays and especially in those receiving higher marks” is valued (Hewings, 2004), but also that “students of different proficiency levels indicate different engagement strategies in their writing” (Yuliana & Gandana, 2018:613).

In general, the values of both Expand and Contract fluctuate across the three levels in the current data, ranging from 17:19 in year one to 14:17 in year two and 19:21 in the final year. This variability suggests a pattern where, over the years, there is a slight decrease in the Expand value compared to the Contract value, followed by a slight increase in the final year. This implies a potential shift in the writers' approach to academic writing and a progression in their rhetorical skills over time. Specifically, it can be argued that the decreasing ratio of Expand to Contract from year one to year two and then a slight increase in the final year indicates that the writers are becoming more adept at both expanding the dialogic space by entertaining and attributing other perspectives and contracting it by asserting their own voice to persuade the reader toward their position.

This trend suggests that by the final year, the writers have developed an understanding of how to navigate the complexities of academic discourse. Signs that discourse has moved away from being undialogised and monoglossic to one that recognises, incorporates, and engages with other voices would indicate that students have managed to adapt to and incorporate the demands, expectations, and conventions of academic writing in the university and participation in a discourse community. It also suggests that students have not only learned how to engage with the existing literature and different perspectives effectively but have also been more adept in asserting their own arguments and interpretations, as the slight increase in the ratio in the final year indicates. Although, as we will see, this does not entirely apply to Proclaim figures, it does echo other research findings that "successful academic writers create a balance between introducing their own

perspective, acknowledging the existence of other perspectives, and effectively estimating what their audience's assumed perspective will be" (Mitchell, Miller & Pessoa, 2016:153).

Contraction of the dialogic space is achieved in all years, with very few variations. All years employ Deny and Counter resources equally and in balanced percentages, with Counter figures being higher than negations. This could be due to the fact that far more Counter figures (n=27) than Deny ones (n=14) have been annotated. From a dialogic perspective, however, this would infer that undergraduate writers avoid explicit denial and rejection of other propositions. Instead, they favour countering such claims by presenting arguments to support a counterclaim.

Higher frequencies of certain features, such as Attribute: Acknowledge, and citations, suggest that these aspects of Engagement may be emphasised or valued more in academic writing across all three years and possibly indicate a potential development or growth in their usage, as students advance through their academic studies. They could be signs that discourse has moved away from being undialogised and monoglossic to one that recognises, incorporates, and engages with other voices, although this might be difficult to prove as no monoglossic data has been analysed in the current study. This trend may also indicate that students have managed to adapt to and incorporate the demands, expectations, and conventions of academic writing in the university and participation in a discourse community.

A final notable quantitative finding from the level data (Table E1-Appendix E) is that Proclaim figures decrease steadily across the years from 2.88 to 2.69 to 2.62 per thousand words (Figure 7.7).

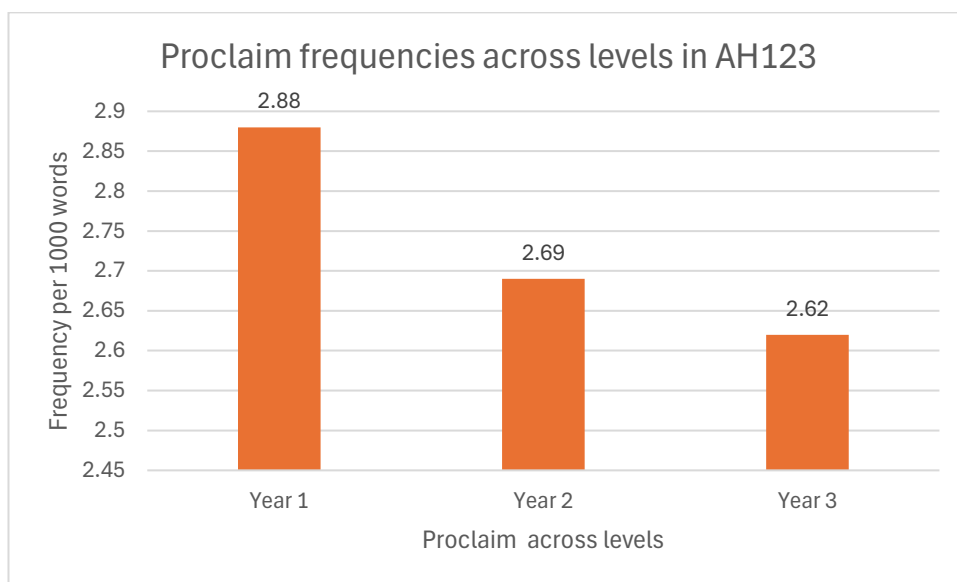


Figure 7.7 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Proclaim across levels

In the literature, high Proclaim occurrences have been associated with low-graded essays (e.g., Wu & Allison, 2005; Wu, 2007; Lancaster, 2014; Miller, Mitchell & Pessoa, 2014; Ryshina-Pankova, 2014) and first year of university writing (Hewings, 2004). It has been found that as students advance in their studies, they tend to express overt stance to lesser extents (Gardner, Nesi & Biber, 2019). In addition, when high Proclaim occurrences are used by more adept writers, they “reinforce viewpoints that were potentially contentious by closing off opportunities for counterargument” (Coffin & Hewings, 2005:42). Similarly, Miller, Mitchel, and Pessoa (2014:116) interpret high occurrences of contraction in their sample as leading to “a subjective voice precisely because it does not leave room for

considering other alternatives”. However, the decrease in the overall Proclaim figures is not consistent across the three subsystems as will be discussed in section 7.6.2. The next section presents a detailed analysis of the findings from the application of the expanded framework across all three levels for each system and subsystem.

7.6.1 ANALYSIS OF LEVEL-SPECIFIC VARIATIONS

7.6.1.1 DENY

There are no noteworthy differences in the negation markers used by writers of different levels, but the functions of the Deny subcategories are of some interest (Figure 7.8).

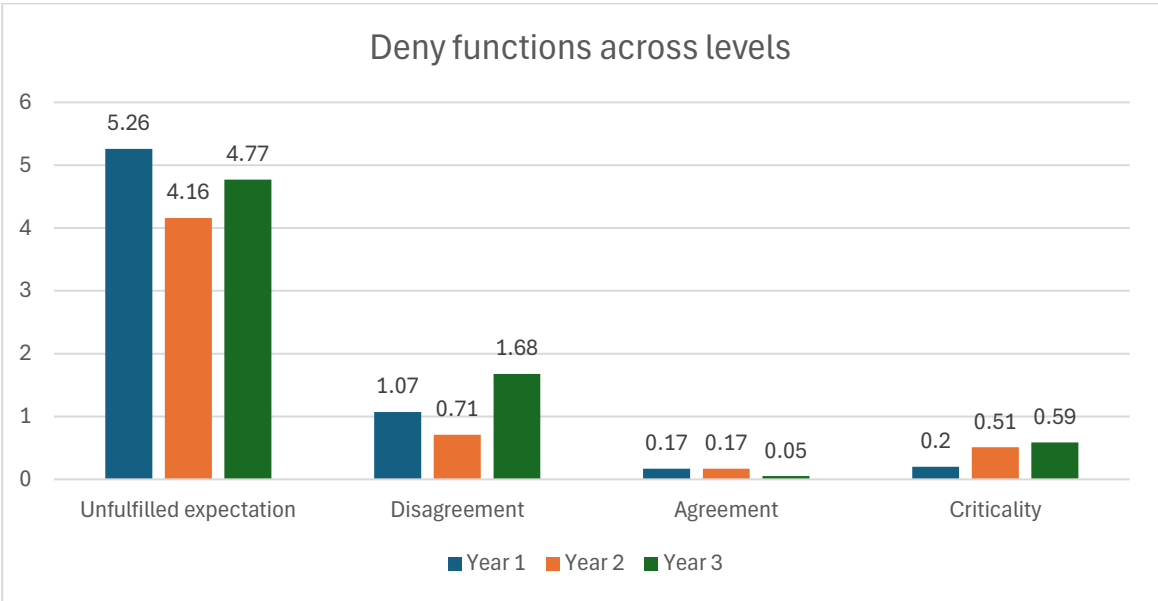


Figure 7.8 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Deny functions across levels in AH123

Negations expressing *unfulfilled expectations* are the most common type of Deny formulations at all levels. However, year three writers seem to employ negation to express *disagreement* and *criticality* much more often than writers in the first two years. For instance, only six instances of *criticality* were retrieved in the first year compared to 24 in year three (ratio ptw 0.20:0.59). Although no particular lexical varieties are associated with *disagreement* in each level, *criticality* is expressed mostly with the lemma *lack* in year three. *Agreement* is conveyed with the locutions *undoubtedly*, and *no doubt*, and it is very low in year 3. These formulations have also been double coded as Pronounce and will be discussed shortly. Nevertheless, these two markers are used more frequently by writers in the first two years, reinforcing the above discussed claims that ‘novice’ writers tend to sound more certain and assertive.

7.6.1.2 COUNTER

Counter markers occur in year three in higher frequencies than in all years. The same applies to all subcategories of Counter except *Contrast* (Figure 7.9). *Contrast* is expressed with markers such as *whilst*, *in contrast*, and similar, which are encountered in higher frequencies in years one and two and are related to the *commentary* genre where texts are compared and contrasted. Within Counter, there are no great quantitative differences in the three years in *limitation* and *correction*, but each level seems to adopt different markers to express these. Specifically, two of the common *limitation* makers for third-year writers are *at least* and *merely*, whereas Y1 writers prefer *yet*. *Correction* is expressed more often by

actually in year three and *rather* in the first year. Overall, third-year writers adopt a greater variety of contrastive markers to propose counterclaims, some of which are not found in first-year essays. For instance, *merely* and *albeit* are mostly found in year three scripts, implying that as university writers progress, their lexical diversity does so too.

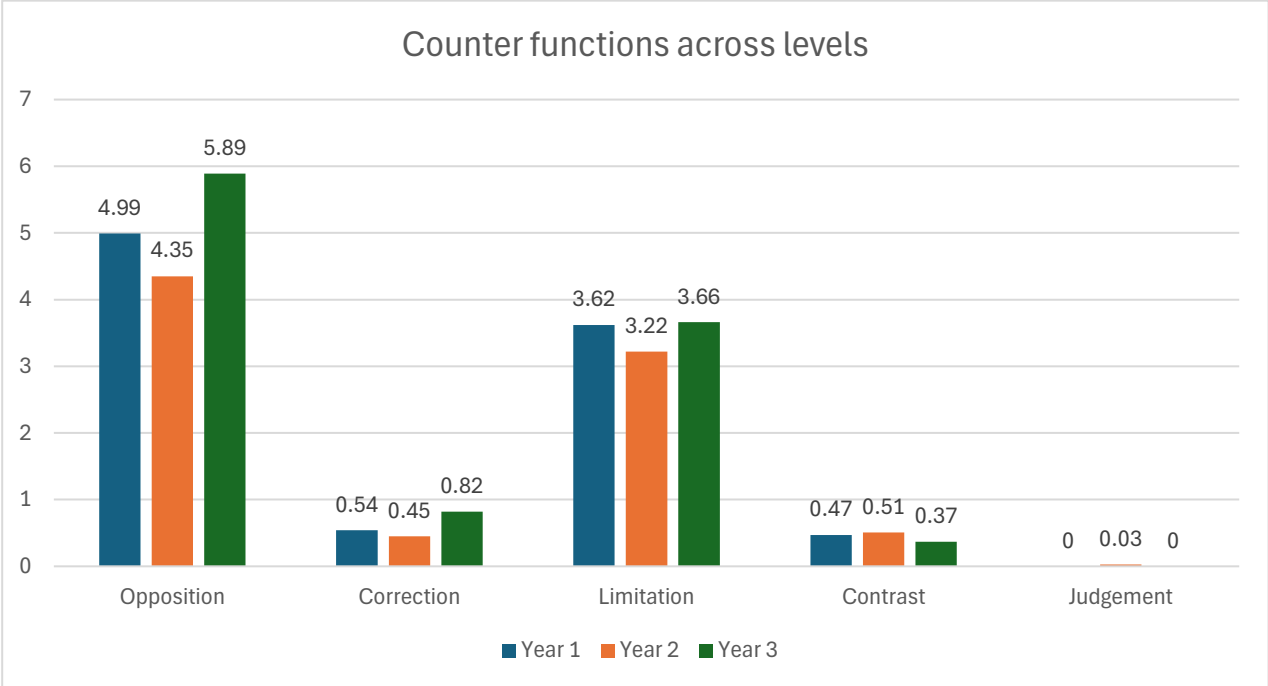


Figure 7.9 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Counter functions across levels in AH123

7.6.1.3 ATTRIBUTE

Expanding resources follow the same trend across levels (Table E1-Appendix E), that is, a drop in year two but an increase in the final year. The distribution of the three Attribute functions in the three years is pictured in Figure 7.10.

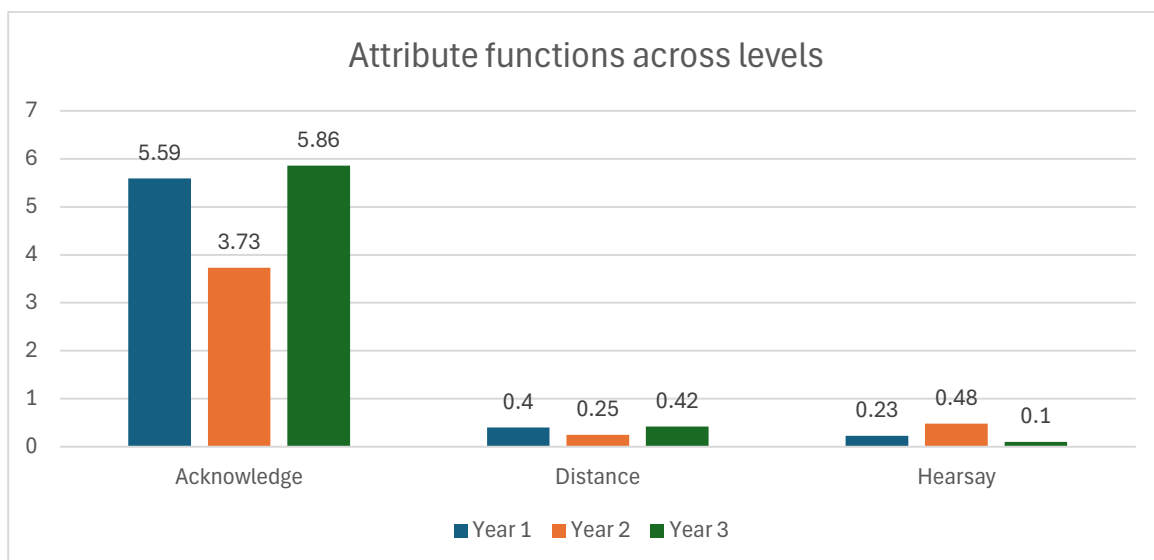


Figure 7.10 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Attribute functions across levels in AH123

Acknowledge is the category with the highest frequencies, with a slight increase from the first to the last year, while Distance and Hearsay are poorly represented in all three levels. Low Attribute figures are associated with less successful essays in the literature (e.g., Brooke, 2014; Lee, 2010; Tang, 2009; Swain, 2007), and it has been argued that first-year writers “merely distribute knowledge of the field” (Zhang & Cheung, 2017), or overuse certain forms, for instance ‘according to’ (Thompson & Tribble, 2001). However, this is not the case in my sample, where only two out of the eight cases of ‘according to’ correspond to year one scripts.

Nevertheless, in the final year, there seems to be a difference both in the quantity of the Attribute locutions employed and how such attributing propositions are presented. This is intensified by the fact that such propositions are almost always presented as direct quotes with a non-integral citation. The two extracts below (Figure 7.11) are indicative of the rhetorical practices employed by students at different levels. While in year one, the writer integrates external sources with direct

quotes and non-integral citations (in bold), the year three script adopts a dialogic discourse with a variety of reporting verbs (underlined) and integral citations (in bold) to integrate sources and argue the point.

Extract 1-Attribution- Year 1

'Trawling through the byways of Ancient literature has yielded a rich trove of abstruse knowledge which has been used to reconstruct everything from the history of the early Roman calendar to the topography of the Roman forum' (**Coulston & Dodge 2000**). The documentary evidence of a detailed plan of the correct construction of a Roman town provided by Vitruvius gives us a few indications of location being linked to function. 'Town streets should be planned first, then the forum. In a seaside town the forum should be by the harbour; elsewhere it should be central. Next the theatre site should be chosen. Temple sites should be fixed with due consideration for the deity involved. For baths as warm a site as possible is advocated.' (**Grew & Hobley 1987**) Not only can we consult the layout remains of a building and site but by looking at its other material remains within the building; 'buildings given to industrial use may contain traces of the processes carried out within them.' (**Grew & Hobley 1987**) [AR1-6032b]

Extract 2-Attribution- Year 3

Although **Johanson & Edgar (1996)** describe this small bone, required for speech, as identical to modern examples, **Trinkaus and Shipman** depict [Endorse] the bone as a "slightly enlarged version of a human hyoid and nothing like an ape hyoid" (1994: 391). The discovery of the Kebara fossil caused reassessment and proposed the morphologically modern bone was capable of a modern range of sounds (**Johanson & Edgar, 1996**), a hypothesis supported by Mithen (1996) when he submitted, assuming the presence of a cognitive ability, there is no reason a full range of sounds could not be produced. However, **Lieberman and his colleagues** suggested the dimensions of the Kebara hyoid could not distinguish the fossil from that of a modern human or pig hyoid and even suggested that Neanderthals may have oinked instead of spoken (**Trinkaus and Shipman, 1994**). [AR3-6171h]

Figure 7.11 Examples of Attribution in Year 1 and Year 3

Yet first-year writers use a greater variety of Acknowledge markers. From the one hundred and twenty-six different reporting verbs and nouns in the Acknowledge category, seventy-five (60%) correspond to year 1 and sixty-six (52%) to year 3. In contrast, in his study of high and low scripts, Brooke (2014) observed that "high-scoring papers demonstrated a more diverse set of reporting verbs". *State, suggest*

and *argue* are among the most common reporting verbs used in all years. The ten most frequent Acknowledge markers for each year are presented in Table 7.4.

Table 7.4 The ten most common Attribute markers across levels in order of normalised frequency		
Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
state	argue	suggest
suggest	suggest	argue
argue	state	say
believe	write	state
say	propose	explain
conclude	explain	believe
write	believe	conclude
argument	say	argument
propose	argument	write
explain	conclude	propose

Some specific features across levels include *state* for the first year, *argue* for year 2 and *suggest* in year 3. Staples and Reppen (2016: 27) also report that in their sample L1 English writers used the verb *state* much more frequently.

7.6.1.4 ENTERTAIN

While Entertain figures drop in year 2, the final year scripts have the highest frequencies of Entertain resources across the levels (Table E1-Appendix E). Level 1 is characterised by high occurrences of *negotiation*, while in the final year, *Verification*, *Postulation* and *Question* are much more prevalent than in the other two levels (Figure 7.12).

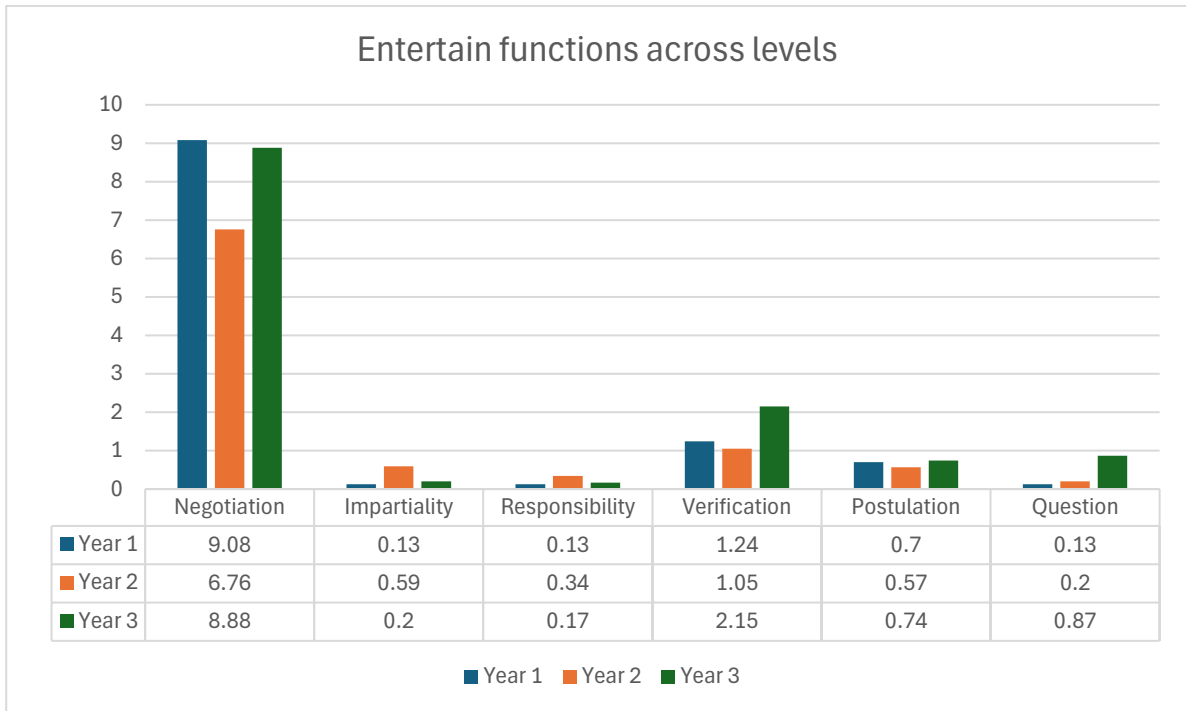


Figure 7.12 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Entertain functions across levels of study in AH123

Negotiation includes all modal verbs and adjuncts, such as *probably*, *perhaps*, and similar, formulations that open the dialogic space and leave room for alternative positions. Table 7.5 lists the ten most common Entertain markers in the three levels in order of frequency per 1000 words.

Table 7.5 The ten most common Entertain markers across levels in order of normalised frequency		
Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
can	can	can
may	could	may
could	may	could
possible/-ly/-ity	must	possible/-ly/-ity
must	possible/-ly/-ity	must
perhaps	probably	likely/unlikely
probably	likely/unlikely	might
likely/unlikely	perhaps	probably
might	might	perhaps
should	should	should

One comment that can be made here is that the three most common modal verbs in all levels are *can*, *may* and *could*, while *might* is slightly more frequent in level three. Novice writers tend to use *perhaps* more frequently, while final-year writers prefer adverbs like *possibly* and *likely* instead of *probably*. Such locutions relate to hedges in the metadiscourse framework, and studies have found that compared to more experienced academic writing, undergraduate writers use fewer hedges (e.g., *perhaps*), “projecting a less measured, more direct stance” (Hyland, 2012:146). Although I am not comparing undergraduate scripts to published papers, final-year writers in my sample do hedge more, while first-year booster values are the highest across the three levels, supporting Aull’s (2015:96) assertion that first-year writers “err heavily on the side of certainty”.

Impartiality includes formulations through which the writer avoids responsibility, such as *it is argued* or the use of first-person plural, *we*, and *one*. These are found

mostly in years two and three. In particular, the structure *It+modal+verb* (e.g., *it can be argued*) is hardly found in the first year. As discussed earlier (section 6.6), the choice of *it*-clauses expresses “the speaker’s tentativeness” (Quirk et al., 1985:1114), distances the writer from the content expressed and “allows the writer to depersonalise opinions” (Hewings & Hewings, 2004:3). In this way, the writer presents an opinion as objective, and less open to negotiation (Martin, Matthiessen & Painter, 1997). Although I would expect to see some variation of this construction between levels, it seems that it rather relates to discipline, as we will see below and less so to genre or level. Similarly, there are no differences in the use of *one* and *we* across levels.

First-person, present tense mental processes of cognition establish certainty (Martin and White, 2005:11) and they are almost equally found in the first and last year, with year 2 again not only having the highest occurrences but also employing a greater variety of verbs such as *I assume*, *I regard*, and *I hold a similar view*. The three verbs found in year three include *I think*, *I believe*, and *I feel* (meaning think), with the last being found only in this year’s scripts, once again reinforcing the suggestion that final-year writers tend to adopt more advanced and perhaps more sophisticated lexical items than the other two years. This is also reflected in the deployment of *verification*, where we find the greatest variety of such markers in the final year (Y1=6, Y3=13). Thus, while *seem* and *appear* are used by all levels, year 3 writers seem to favour the adverb *seemingly*, and the verb *suggest*, as in *This suggests*, to express *verification*.

Where a level difference is evident, though, is in the *Question* category of Entertain (Figure 7.13), which includes expository rhetorical questions employed to put forward a proposition as one possible view among others. Questions emphasise the dialogic nature of discourse (Bakhtin, 1981), mark the presence of the ‘reader-in-the-text’ (Thompson, 2001) and “have a direct appeal in bringing the second person into a kind of dialogue with the writer” (Webber, 1994: 266), while “claiming solidarity and acknowledging alternative views, but most importantly inviting readers to engage with the argument” (Hyland, 2002:22).

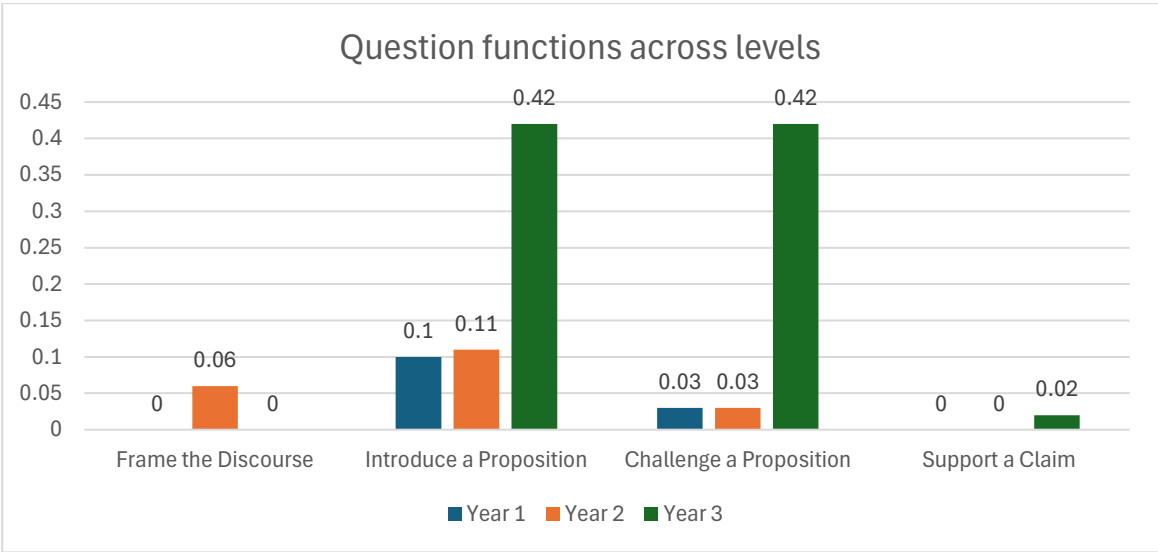


Figure 7.13 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Question functions across levels of study in AH123

In Hyland’s (2002) sample students employed more yes/no questions, as a means of organising their discourse or as section headings to recycle their research questions, while research writers tended to use questions for more argumentative

purposes such as evaluating statements and supporting claims. In his interviews, students reported that they did not feel comfortable with the use of questions as a strategy to persuade readers. The findings from my sample, however, are not in agreement with these. There are only two questions functioning to frame the discourse – both from year one – while the majority (89%) of the expository questions in AH123 are employed to either *introduce* or *challenge* a proposition (Figure, 7.13). Such questions are often used to criticise others' work or undermine a certain argument, usually followed by reasoning. These are rhetorical strategies that we find in the final year scripts where most of the questions that *challenge* or *introduce* a proposition are found (Figure 7.13). This suggests that, unlike students in Hyland's study, essay writers in the BAWE corpus, or rather in the small sample investigated for this project, come across as bold and adventurous, not hesitating to sound authoritative, engage in an open dialogue with their readers and attempt to persuade them through this rhetorical strategy.

The analysis has shown that *Postulation* figures expressed with *if*-clauses are evenly distributed across the three levels. *Reservation* conditionals are the most frequent functional category among *if*-clauses found in the corpus, accounting for 38% per cent of all occurrences, and found mostly in year 2 (Figure 7.14). *Epistemic* conditionals are highly frequent in year 3, while *relevance* conditionals are equally distributed between first and final years of study and account for approximately a quarter of all *if*-clauses occurrences. *Rhetorical* function is very scarcely represented across levels, while *concessive* and *metalinguistic* conditionals are more frequently employed by level 3 writers. Overall, seventy-four

conditionals conveying interpersonal meaning were identified in AH123, and their distribution across the different types is shown in Figure 7.14.

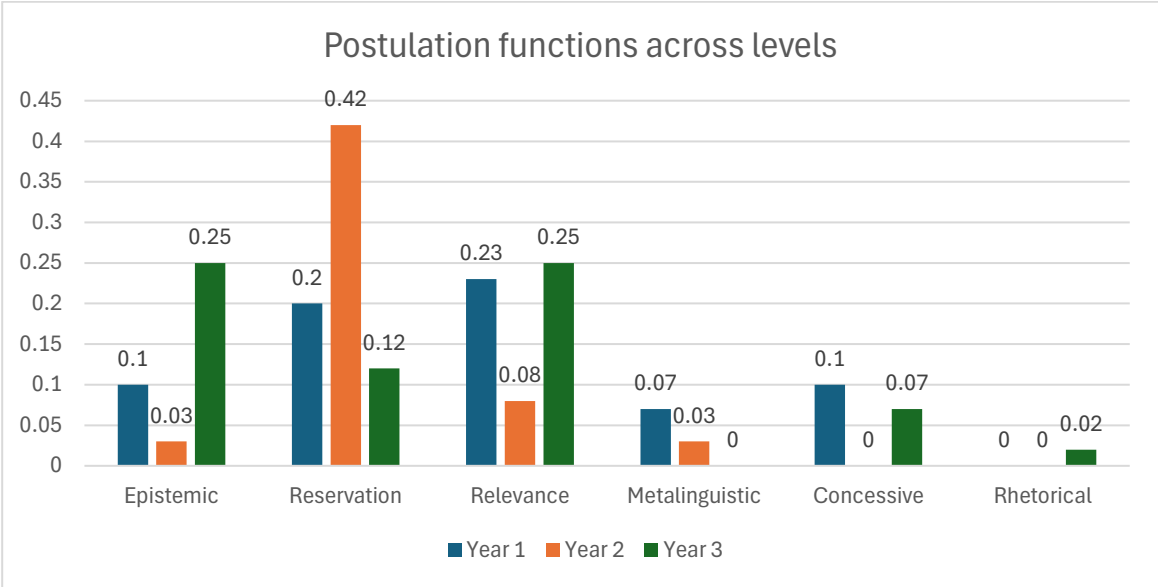


Figure 7.14 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Postulation functions across levels of study in AH123

These findings are not very dissimilar to the interpersonal conditionals found in Warchal’s study of 200 linguistics research articles. She also found *epistemic* conditionals to be the most frequent interpersonal *if*-constructions in her sample, followed by *reservation*, *relevance*, and *metalinguistic* conditionals, while *concessive*, *rhetorical* and *politeness* conditionals were not very common in her data either. Along with other Entertain resources, *if*-conditionals are used by student writers to expand the dialogic space, to enter into a dialogue with the readers, to guide them and negotiate terms and concepts with them and even to make strong assertions.

7.6.2 PROCLAIM

As already mentioned, a final notable quantitative finding from the level data (Table E1-Appendix E) is that Proclaim figures decrease steadily across the years from 2.88 in year one to 2.69 in year two to 2.62 per thousand words in the final year. However, this decrease is not consistent across the three subsystems of Proclaim, with only Endorse showing a steady decrease from level 1 to level 3 (Figure 7.15).

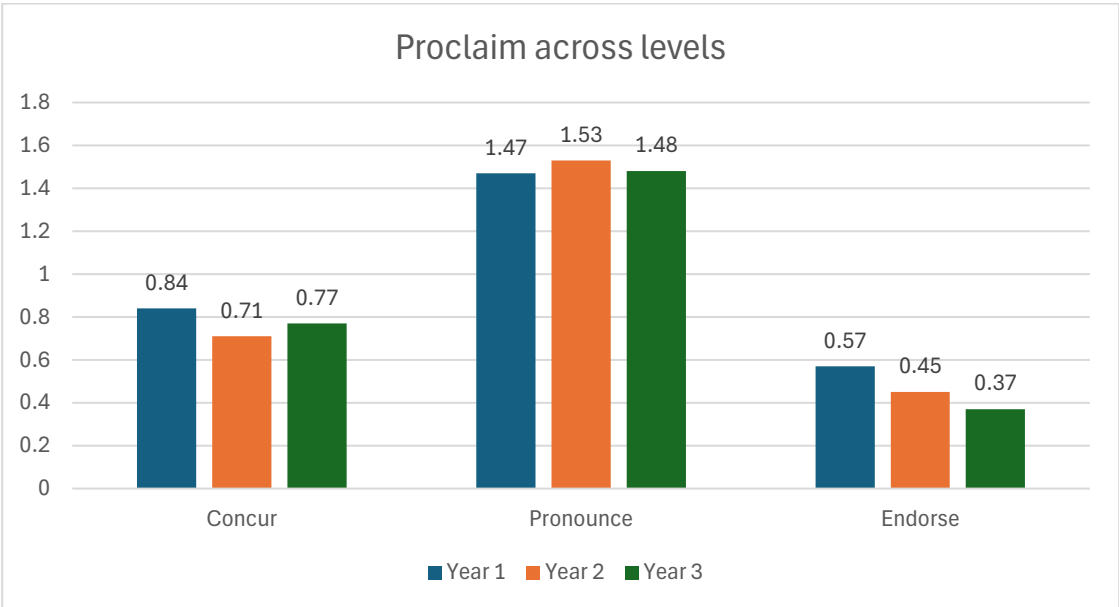


Figure 7.15 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Proclaim subsystems across levels of study in AH123

Although Concur and Endorse figures are higher in the first years compared to the other two, Pronounce occurrences differ, as we see higher figures in the second year but not much difference between the first and the final levels. This, however, does not mean that students have become more subjective. It is rather interpreted as an indication that students are acquiring more responsibility for their own position because as Pronounce figures increase, so do Attribution, citations, and Entertain values. This means that while students incorporate in their writing other

voices and support their claims with evidence from the literature, they expand the dialogic space to include such alternatives while at the same time making their own voice present and taking an assertive stance towards such propositions. It may also imply that students move from a more generic type of writing to more specialised, discipline-specific writing. This is more clearly evident in the specific resources that students apply across different levels (and disciplines as will be seen next). Table 7.6 lists the most frequent features in the three subsystems of Proclaim across the three years, discussed below.

Table 7.6 The most frequent Proclaim markers across levels in order of normalised frequency			
Proclaim	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
Concur	clearly certainly obviously of course surely	certainly clearly obviously of course surely	surely of course certainly obviously clearly yes leading rhetorical questions inevitably rightly
Pronounce	important to indeed in fact undoubtedly no doubt interesting to	indeed in fact interestingly undoubtedly no doubt interesting to	in fact indeed important to interesting to self-mentions
Endorse	show point out demonstrate indicate	point out show indicate demonstrate	point out show indicate demonstrate

While first-year students express strong pronouncement with locutions that convey a high level of certainty, such as *undoubtedly*, *no doubt*, and *indeed*, year three students take clear responsibility for their own position with high occurrences of self-mentions such as *I maintain*, *I propose*, *I grant* and so on. Although it could be argued that year one students try to sound more authoritative and confident with their linguistic choices, final year writers are more successful in projecting their authorial voice and their position in relation to their arguments for as Hyland (2005:53) argues, “explicit author reference is generally a conscious choice by writers to adopt a particular stance and a contextually situated authorial identity” which contributes to the construction of an authoritative stance (Lancaster, 2014) and to the negotiation of a successful writer-reader relationship (Hyland, 2001).

Similarly, final-year students’ concurring features conveying certainty and agreement with a dialogic partner are expressed in more subtle and skilful ways than novice writers (Figure 7.16). While the latter resort to explicitly support their agreement with Affirm or Concede resources such as *certainly*, *clearly*, and *obviously*, year three adopts Persuade strategies, i.e., leading rhetorical questions, as well as features such as *yes*, *inevitably*, and *rightly*, which are not found in the year one corpus, to put their point forward. Leading rhetorical questions assume that “no answer needs to be supplied for a particular question on account of that answer being so ‘obvious’” (Martin & White, 2005:123) and are employed to persuade the reader. While the textual voice attempts to invite the reader into the conversation with a direct question, it, at the same time, closes up the space for alternative viewpoints.

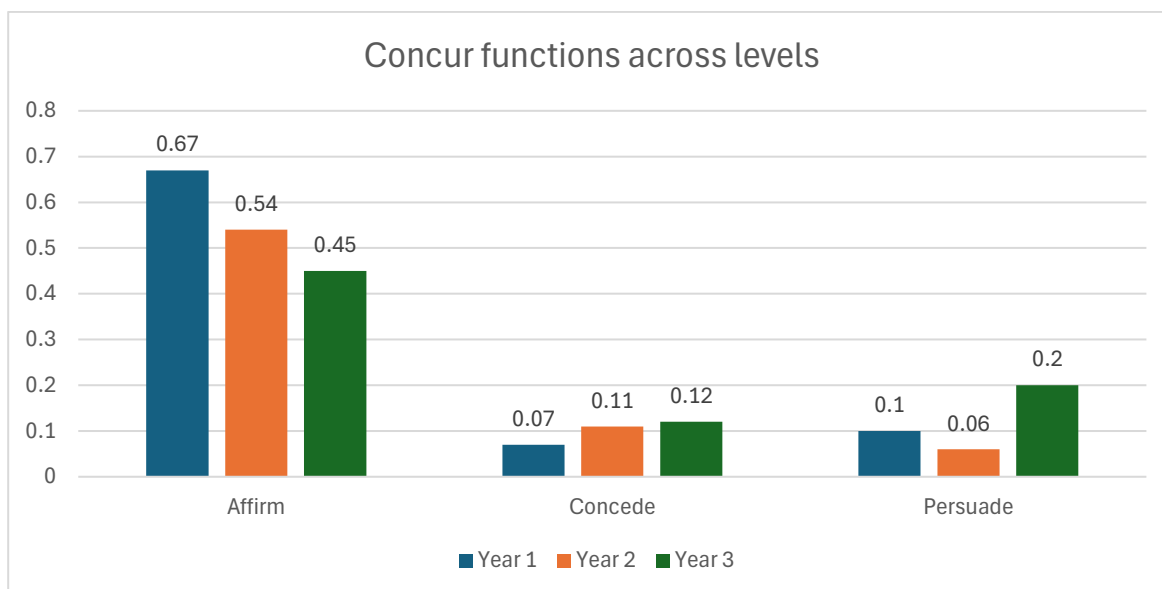


Figure 7.16 Normalised frequencies (ptw) of Concur subsystems across levels of study in AH123

Endorse figures are the only ones in the Proclaim subsystem that drop steadily across the undergraduate levels (Figure 7.15). While, however, these figures drop over the years, Attribution ones increase. Low endorsement frequencies have also been recorded in other studies of student writing (Swain, 2010; Brooke, 2014; Liu, 2014; Miller, Mitchel & Pessoa, 2014; Liu & McCabe, 2018), while in literature reviews of research articles (Zhang & Cheung 2017; Fryer, 2019) much higher frequencies of Endorse are evident compared to Concur and Pronounce. On a lexicogrammatical level, as already noted, the Endorse category entails a fairly restricted group of resources. From a dialogic perspective, despite being associated with the hard disciplines (Hyland, 1999), endorsing an external position entails overt authorial alignment with the source, excluding alternative viewpoints from the debate, and taking responsibility for supporting it with the confidence that undergraduate university writers seem to lack. They, instead opt for the neutral strategy of acknowledging external voices with reporting verbs that convey

ambiguity, undecidedness, or neutrality, as recorded in the Acknowledge function of Attribute. The key findings across levels are summarised in Table 7.7.

Table 7.7 Engagement and level- Key findings		
<p>General observations</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • No significant differences across the three levels of study in AH123 • Relatively balanced Expand and Contract values across the three levels • All years employ Deny and Counter resources equally and in balanced percentages • Overall Counter figures are higher than negations • Frequencies of both Contracting and Expanding resources drop in year two but go up again in the final year • <i>State, suggest</i> and <i>argue</i> are among the most common Acknowledge verbs in all years • <i>If</i>-clauses are evenly distributed across the three levels • <i>Epistemic</i> conditionals are the most frequent functional category of Postulation • Proclaim figures decrease steadily across the years • Endorse figures drop steadily across the levels 		
Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • A greater variety of Acknowledge markers • High occurrences of <i>negotiation</i> • Higher occurrences of <i>perhaps</i> • Higher frequencies in Concur and Endorse • High frequency of locutions that convey a high level of certainty, e.g., <i>undoubtedly, no doubt, and indeed,</i> • <i>Agreement</i> is expressed with adverbs such as <i>certainly, clearly, and obviously</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lowest figures of Contract and Expand • High frequencies of <i>Impartiality</i> (e.g., <i>it is argued, we, and one</i>) • The highest occurrences and greatest variety of first-person, present tense mental processes of cognition (e.g., <i>I assume, I regard, and I hold a similar view</i>) • Highest figures of Pronounce 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The highest occurrences of Engagement figures • Slightly higher Attribution frequencies • The highest frequencies of Entertain • Negation is employed to express <i>disagreement and criticality</i> • High frequencies of <i>Impartiality</i> (e.g., <i>it is argued, we, and one</i>) • The highest frequencies of <i>Verification, Postulation</i> and <i>Question</i> • High occurrences of <i>might, possibly, likely/unlikely, presumably</i> and <i>potentially.</i> • The greatest variety of <i>verification</i> markers. Most common being <i>seemingly</i> and <i>suggest</i> • <i>Reservation</i> conditionals • High occurrences of self-mentions such as <i>I maintain, I propose, I grant</i> • High occurrences of leading rhetorical questions

7.7 ENGAGEMENT ACROSS DISCIPLINES

It has been suggested that disciplinary variations in writing are more clearly distinguishable between ‘hard’ and ‘soft’ disciplines, and disciplines belonging to the same family tend to share the same characteristics (e.g., Hyland, 1999). It has also been argued that some characteristics of interpersonal language identified in some disciplines belonging to the same ‘soft’ knowledge domain may not always be true of another discipline within the same domain. As Rizomilioti (2006:66), referring to epistemic modality, maintained, “although in some cases there is some indication of existing tendencies, it is not always possible to generalise about frequencies of epistemic devices in the humanities and science as a whole.” In a similar vein, as Gardner (2012) reveals in her study of BAWE corpus essays from classics, English, law, philosophy and sociology, arguments can be constructed differently in different disciplines. Yoon and Römer (2020) question the value of the existing disciplinary categories as they found that interactional metadiscourse use differed even among disciplines that fall into the same academic division.

Similarly, Stotesbury (2003) concluded that disciplinary variations are very wide, especially in the humanities, even within her broad domains. Nevertheless, linguistic examinations of student texts have uncovered disciplinary variations in multiple dimensions of language use (e.g., Samraj, 2004; Hardy & Römer, 2013; Bruce, 2016). Besides, although the seven disciplines examined for this project all belong to the Arts and Humanities disciplinary group as classified by the creators of the BAWE corpus (Nesi & Gardner, 2012), the findings of this study show that there are a number of differences in the way writers in each discipline present their

claims, align or disalign with the readers, engage with alternative voices in the text and make a stronger or more subtle commitment when they wish to make their authorial voice 'heard'.

The distribution of essay genres across the disciplines was discussed in section 7.4. Briefly, most of the essays in archaeology and philosophy are *expositions*, in English, history and linguistics are *discussions*, while most papers in classics and CAS are *narrations*. The overall normalised frequencies per 1000 words of Engagement across disciplines are illustrated in Figure 7.17, and the detailed data for each subsystem can be found in Table E2- Appendix E.

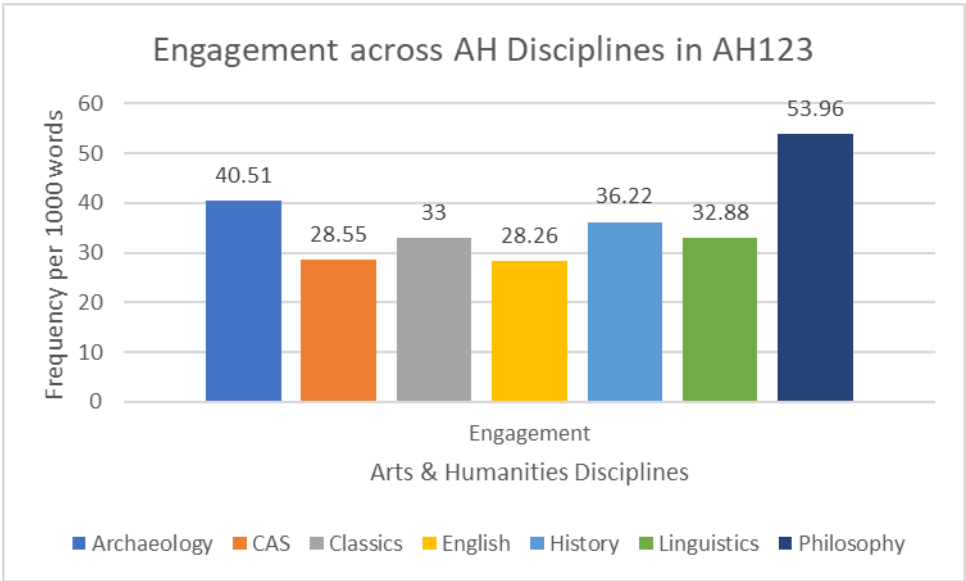


Figure 7.17 Normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Engagement in the seven disciplines

In the AH123 corpus, archaeology has the second highest frequency per 1000 words for heteroglossic Engagement among the seven disciplines (40.51 ptw), with 657 instances, compared to 822 (53.96 ptw) of philosophy which is the highest in

the corpus (Figure 7.17). These two disciplines, along with linguistics, are the ones that employ more expanding than contracting resources (Table E2-Appendix E), and they also show a balanced proportion of both Contract and Expand figures along with English. CAS and history are the two disciplines that favour high Contraction and low Expanding figures. This allows us to suggest that archaeology, English and philosophy writers are highly dialogic compared to writers in the other disciplines and manage to integrate alternative points of view while at the same time showing some commitment and projecting a stronger authorial presence in their discourse, while history and CAS writers tend to Contract the dialogic space with either disclaiming or proclaiming their position. These will be clarified further if we examine how each discipline applies the different systems and subcategories of Engagement.

The fact that philosophy is the discipline with the highest rates of Engagement does not come as a surprise, and it parallels the findings of other researchers who highlight that philosophy papers contain the largest number of personal stance markers (e.g., Nesi & Gardner 2012; Hardy & Römer, 2013; Gardner, Nesi & Biber, 2019), engagement markers (e.g., Hyland, 2005; Lancaster, 2016; Yoon & Römer, 2020) and hedges (e.g., Hyland, 2005; Vázquez & Giner, 2008).

While all disciplines have higher Disclaim than Proclaim figures – the latter being very low anyway – the ways writers position themselves “as at odds with, or rejecting, some contrary position” (Martin & White, 2005:97) differ. Thus, although in genre and level, Deny and Counter figures are balanced, in disciplines, there are

some variations. For instance, philosophy and CAS writers use an even balance of Deny and Counter instances, while in history and classics, we find very low occurrences of negation compared to Counter. This might relate to the epistemology of these two disciplines, where it is hard to deny, say, historical events. The same could be argued for CAS, though, CAS papers are mainly *commentaries* and *narrations*, and as it has already been argued, the purpose and style of these two genres differ from the 'arguing' genres, as they seem to follow their own rules, which often challenge any assumptions.

The Deny functions along with the frequencies for each discipline are illustrated in Figure 7.18. As the data clearly indicates, *unfulfilled expectations* is the most common function of negation across disciplines.

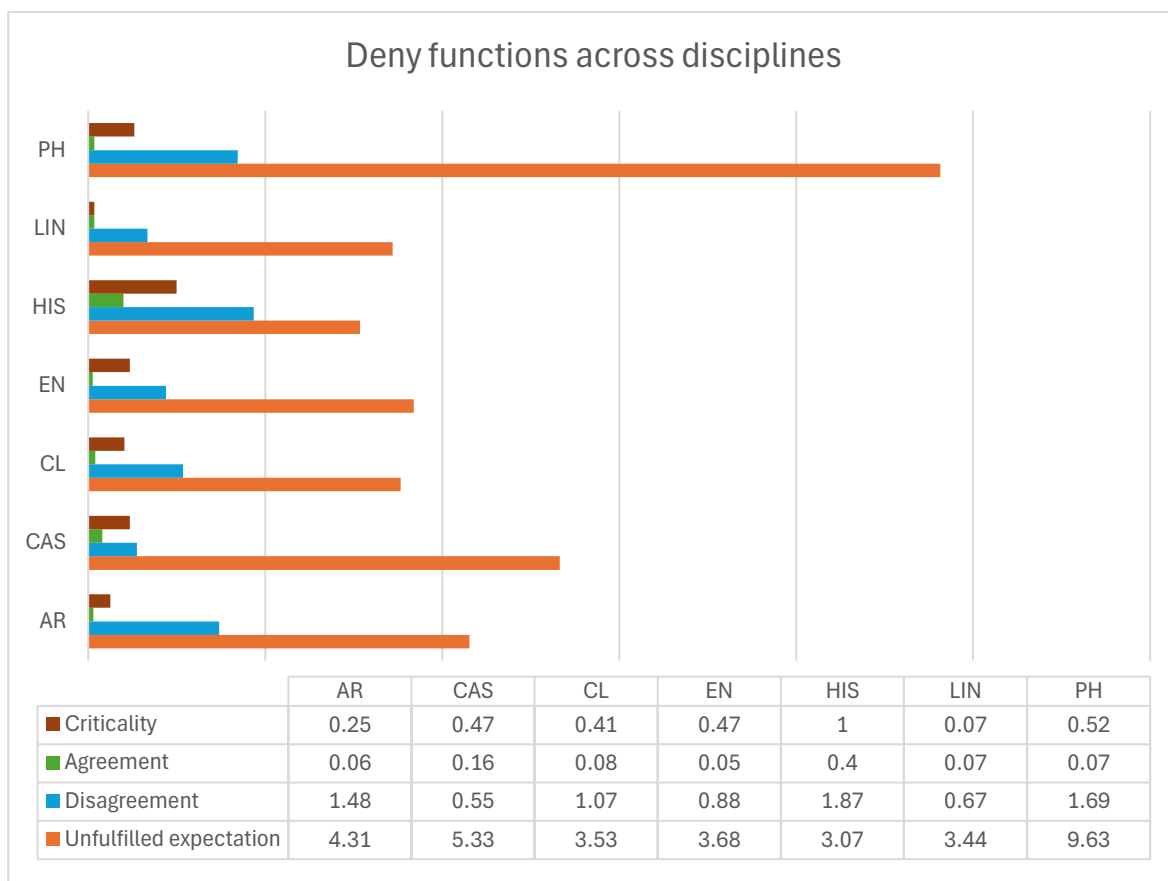


Figure 7.18 Normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Deny functions in the seven disciplines

However, we notice that historians employ denials to *criticise* a proposition while philosophers employ them to *disagree* with an alternative view, a sign that writers in both these disciplines overtly project disagreement and criticality.

The highest Counter figures are found in history and the lowest in English (Table E2-Appendix E). As demonstrated by the data in Figure 7.19, the main function of Counter in all disciplines is *opposition*, although classics use Countering to *correct* a proposition while history writers for *limitation* purposes. In general, the *limitation* function is the second most common function of Counter after *opposition* in the disciplines, expressed with adjuncts such as *only*, *just*, *still* and the like. Finally,

Counter markers are used to *Contrast* mostly by linguistics papers where discussions are related to text comparisons. Compared to the other disciplines, CAS writers employ both a great amount and a great variety of Counter markers. The most common contrastive items are *but* and *however* accounting for 40 per cent of all the Counter resources. Other common ones include *yet*, *even*, *actually* and *although*. *Criticality* in CAS is expressed with *lack*, while historians use *lack* and *fail* almost equally. Philosophy is the only discipline that expresses *disagreement* with *no* more than other lexemes, but these are all from one paper of year 3.

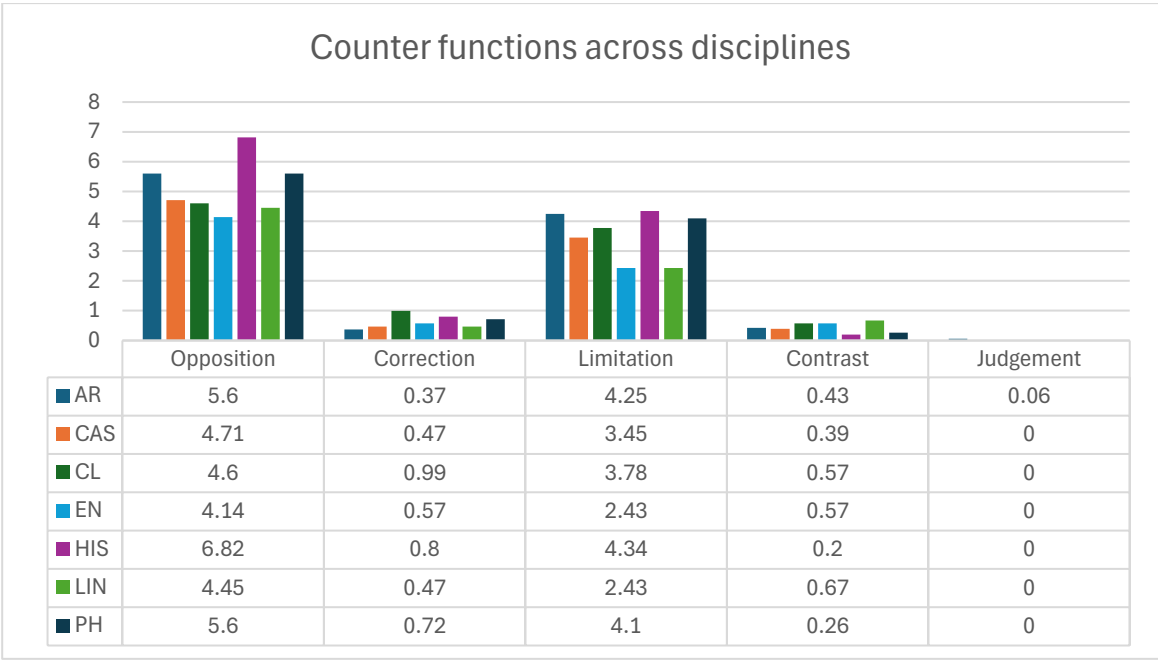


Figure 7.19 Normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Counter functions in the seven disciplines

Proclaim figures are generally low, and there is no great discrepancy among the disciplines, with figures ranging from 2.29 per 1000 words in linguistics to 3.25 in

philosophy. However, while philosophy texts have the highest figures of Concur (1.11 ptw), Pronounce features are more common among writers in history (2.34 ptw). Linguistics essays, on the other hand, have the highest occurrences of Endorse (1.28 ptw) but the lowest figures in all other Proclaim subcategories. Interesting as this finding might be, it does not suggest much as most of these endorsements come from one second-year paper on language development after age five (LIN2-6020b), which has been classified as *exposition*, but it actually challenges the common assumption held until the late 1990s that by that age children “had mastered the syntactic structures of their native language”. It is not possible to argue with certainty that *challenge* essays tend to Endorse more than other genres, as there is only one such paper in this sample. However, high Endorse occurrences in linguistics may be justified by the fact that writers in this discipline rely more than others on evidence from empirical research to support their claims. In some cases, the high prevalence of Endorse may also suggest that while writers close down the space for debates and attempt to draw the reader towards their point of view, when they integrate external sources in their discourse, they do so by Endorsing them rather than Acknowledging them. One such case is archaeology, in which we find that writers do Endorse much more than many of the writers in the other disciplines, but their Attribution figures are comparatively quite low, indicating that writers in archaeology are bolder in ‘taking sides’ and expressing their authorial voice.

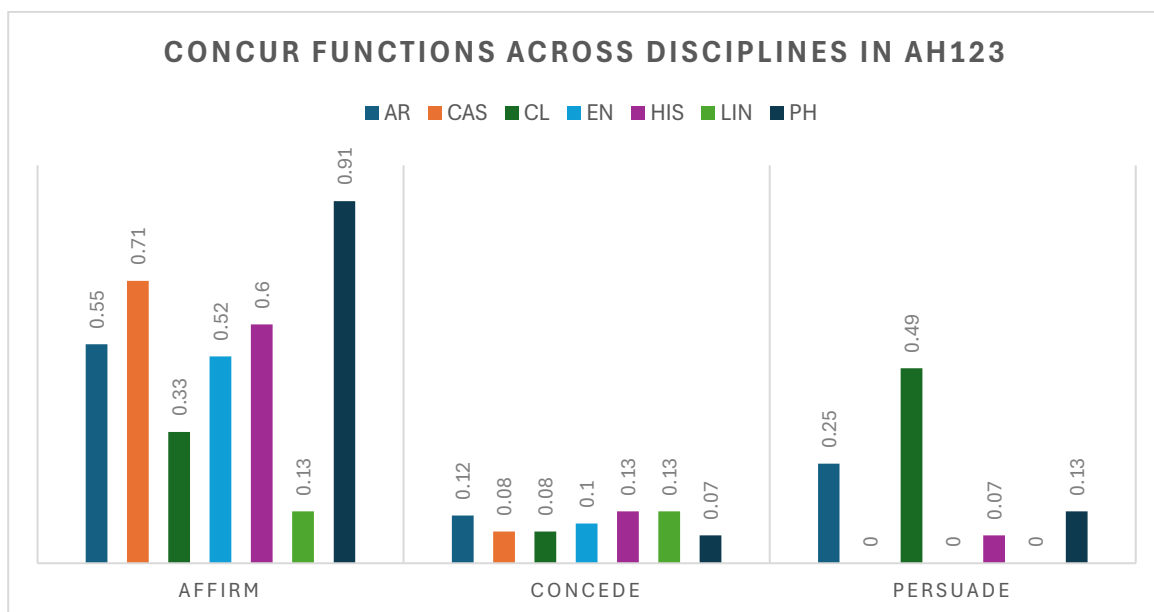


Figure 7.20 Normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Concur functions in the seven disciplines

However, there are some variations across disciplines in the three functional categories of Concur (Figure 7.20). Although the Concur: *Affirm* category is more common in philosophy, the Concur: *Persuade* category, which includes leading rhetorical questions, is more frequent in year three classics *exposition* essays. Archaeology, philosophy, and history writers also use questions to persuade the readers, but no such strategy was found in CAS, English and linguistics. Interestingly, the thirteen Concur questions identified in the corpus ‘belong’ to only five different writers. All six questions in classics come from one single paper (CL3-6211b), suggesting that applying this rhetorical strategy is possibly a matter of personal style. In history scripts, finally, only one such question was found in a year three essay. There are some variations in the lexical choices discipline writers use to convey concurrence, showing agreement with their dialogic partners. For instance, while archaeology writers prefer *obviously*, philosophy writers opt for *surely* and *of course* and history ones for *certainly*. *Certainly* indicates a low degree

of reluctance and “a relatively high degree of commitment by the speaker to the conceded proposition” (Martin & White, 2005:125) when it is part of the Concede + Counter pairing, which is, in fact, more frequent in history. Some variations in the lexicogrammar choices across disciplines for Concur do exist, as can be seen in Table 7.8, which presents the raw frequencies of the most common Proclaim locutions across the disciplines in order of frequency per 1000 words.

Table 7.8 The most frequent markers of Proclaim across disciplines presented in order of relative frequency

Discipline	Concur	Pronounce	Endorse
Archaeology	obviously questions of course clearly certainly	indeed it is important to self-mention/mental verbs	show
Contemporary American Studies	of course it is clear surely certainly	it is important to in fact undoubtedly/no doubt really	-
Classics	questions surely certainly clearly	self-mention/mental verbs in fact undoubtedly/no doubt indeed	point out
English	clearly certainly obviously it is clear	indeed self-mention/mental verbs in fact	point out
History	certainly clearly surely obviously questions	indeed in fact undoubtedly/no doubt self-mention/mental verbs it is important to	point out demonstrate
Linguistics	obviously clearly of course	it is important to undoubtedly/no doubt	point out show demonstrate
Philosophy	of course surely clearly certainly questions	indeed self-mention/mental verbs in fact really	point out show demonstrate

Notably, history writers prefer *certainly*, archaeology *obviously*, philosophy of *course* and *surely*. Expository rhetorical questions are more common among classics and archaeology writers, but they are also used by history and philosophy writers.

High figures of Pronounce come predominantly from history (2.34 ptw) and low from archaeology (0.86 ptw). Being in line with research that asserts that less proficient writers tend to express their personal opinion through high use of pronouncements (Wu, 2007), eighty-six per cent of the history pronouncements come from the first two years. Explicit authorial interventions with self-mentions, as in *I propose, I maintain, I grant* were found more in philosophy and English scripts, which seems to be in line with what research on philosophy suggests, as discussed earlier. Mental verbs in the first person as Pronounce features, are used by writers in all disciplines except CAS and linguistics. Finally, the choice of endorsing verbs is very limited among the disciplines as well, with the most common one being *point out*.

Linguistics and philosophy writers equally Pronounce in Year 3 as in the first two years. Writers in these two disciplines appear to be much more mature in their discourse choices and more skilled, as we have already seen, in blending the different Engagement strategies to both invite alternative views to enter the dialogue by either entertaining or acknowledging such views and articulate their own position confidently and explicitly. However, overall, high Pronounce figures are more dominant in scripts of the first two undergraduate years, with the

exception of linguistics and philosophy. For instance, 83 per cent of the Pronounce features in history come from the first two years.

Expanding resources range from 10.12 per thousand words in CAS to 28.05 in philosophy (Table E2-Appendix E). The very low figures in CAS are attributed to the minimal instances (1.10 ptw) of Attribution features in this discipline, and this is genre-related as most of these papers in CAS are either *Commentaries* or *Narrations*. Apart from CAS, archaeology and English essays also employ a few instances of Attribute markers, contradicting earlier research that linguistics writers prefer Endorse to Attribute (Geng, 2015:280). Nevertheless, raw figures steadily increase in level 3 in all disciplines but philosophy. This is mostly due to one paper PH3-0407c (entitled *Do you agree with Schopenhauer that Compassion is the only genuine and moral motive of action?*), which is an *exposition* essay discussing Compassion drawing exclusively and repeatedly on Schopenhauer and Darwin with only nine Attribute markers in the whole paper. Regarding the three subcategories of Attribute (Figure 7.21), Acknowledge is the most populated, including mostly reporting verbs, with Hearsay being scarcely represented. Instances of Distance, which includes the verb *claim*, were not found in CAS, and there are similarly very few occurrences in the corpus, which suggests, to quote Nesi and Gardner (2012:126), that students are not very likely “to challenge the validity of the published ideas through the use of claim or other more negative reporting verbs”. Philosophy writers, though, use a good proportion of all three Attribute subcategories, while in the CAS papers, only twelve instances of Acknowledge and two of Hearsay were annotated.

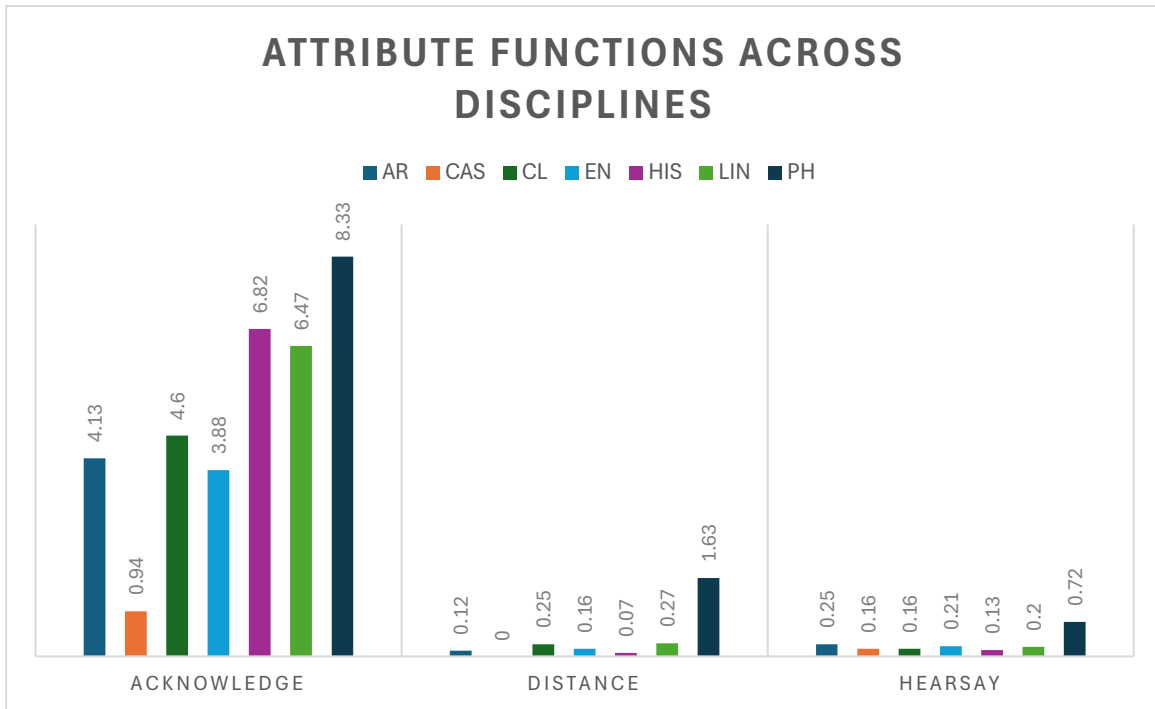


Figure 7.21 Normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Attribute functions in the seven disciplines

Nevertheless, the analysis revealed some variations in the lexical preferences of writers in these disciplines (Table 7.9).

Table 7.9 Most frequent Attribute markers across disciplines in order of relative frequency						
AR	CAS	CL	ENG	HIS	LIN	PH
suggest	believe	write	state	argue	suggest	suggest
argue	argue	argue	suggest	conclude	state	argue
say	say	explain	believe	state	conclude	believe
propose	propose	state	write	suggest	argument	argument
explain		say	argue	write	propose	say
argument		believe	explain	explain	argue	state
state		suggest	say	say	explain	propose
believe		propose	argument	argument	believe	conclude
conclude				propose		explain
write						write

First of all, philosophy and archaeology writers employ the greatest variety of reporting verbs for acknowledging external sources (n=41), and secondly, each discipline seems to favour slightly different verbs to Acknowledge sources and the least variety of markers overall. For instance, CAS writers predominately use the verb *believe*, history and philosophy students the verb *argue*, linguistics and archaeology writers opt for the verb *suggest*, while English and classics for the verbs *state* and *write*, respectively (Table 7.11). These choices are not unrelated to the genre of each essay, as, for instance, writers in classics report on specific classic literary works and their authors, whilst history and philosophy writers endorse others' work to support their own claims and put forward their arguments. None of these appear in Nesi and Gardner's (2012:128) list of key verbs in the BAWE essays, where the only two reporting verbs in their list were *assert* and *criticise*. The three instances of *assert* in my corpus were found in history and CAS, and the one case of *criticise* in philosophy, but then again, this is a minuscule sample and may not be representative of the broader trends in the BAWE corpus. Once again, although drawing any conclusions on attributing and citing practices of students across the disciplines from such a small sample of scripts is not wise, these findings can serve as a starting point for further research.

Entertain figures range from 6.82 in history to 17.38 in philosophy (Table E2-Appendix E). *Negotiation* is once more the subcategory with the highest frequencies across all disciplines, with archaeology and philosophy writers employing many more such markers than, say, history (Figure 7.21).

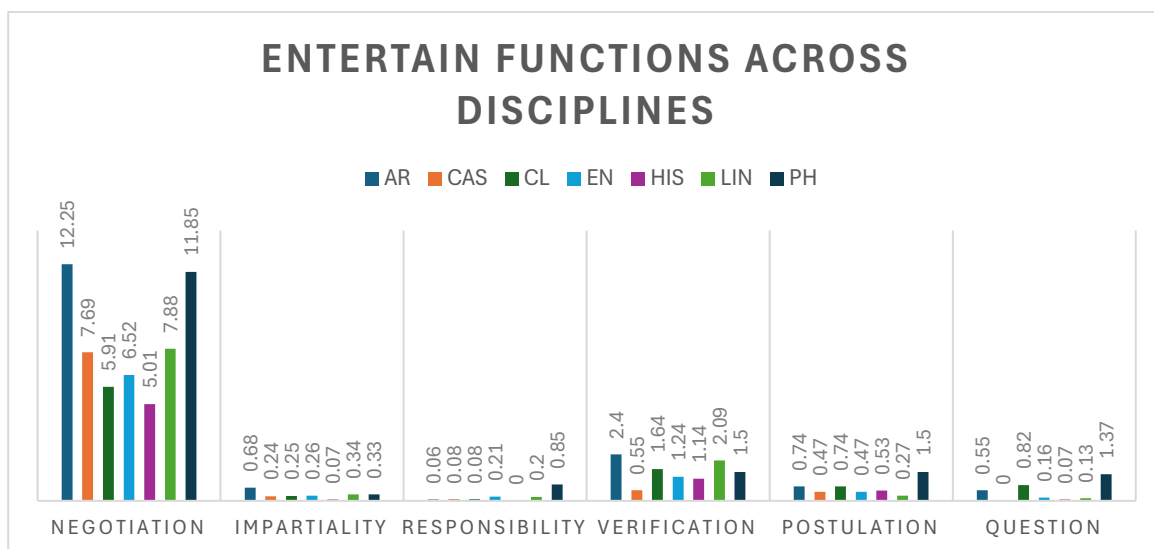


Figure 7.21 Normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Concur functions in the seven disciplines

The modal verbs *can*, *may*, *could* and *must* are used by writers in all disciplines and in high frequencies. *Might* was only found in classics, English and philosophy, perhaps implying that writers in these disciplines are much more cautious when entertaining alternative views. Unlike Nesi and Gardner's (2012:126) findings, *perhaps* is not the most frequent marker in this sample of essays, occupying the second place along *probably*, with the most common being *likely*. But *perhaps* is more common in CAS papers, while *likely* is more frequently used in linguistics.

The use of *I* or self-mention in academic writing has been studied extensively over the last decades and from different perspectives (e.g., Tang & John, 1999; Harwood, 2005; Wang & Zeng, 2021). In Nesi and Gardner's study of assignments in the BAWE corpus, the lemma *I* is a top keyword. Disciplinary differences in the use of self-mention have been reported in dissertations by Hyland (2004b), with applied linguistics occupying the first place and in critiques and essays by Nesi and

Gardner (2012), with four Arts and Humanities disciplines occupying the high end. Nesi and Gardner found that *I* was much more frequent in philosophy with varying purposes, like to guide the reader through the text, to “keep track of the steps in the argument in the assignment” (ibid, p.113-14), but also to make claims. These support similar findings of earlier studies in other genres, for example, master’s dissertations (Samraj, 2008), research articles (Chang & Swales, 1999; Hyland, 2002; Fryer, 2019) and disciplines (Gray, 2011). Students seem to hold “some vague preconceived notion that academic writing should be distant and impersonal” (Tang & John, 1999:35) and that the use of *I* is “stylistically inappropriate” (McGrath 2016:87) in academic writing. The question of whether or not in assignments is one that still confuses them, and it is one I am asked by every single EAP cohort I teach. Nevertheless, as Gardner and Nesi (2012) report, confusion prevails because both staff advice and instructions seem to be ambiguous.

In line with the studies mentioned earlier, in my sample, philosophy has the highest frequencies of both overall self-mentions and those of interpersonal nature, as in all the studies reported above. However, the disciplines with the highest proportions of interpersonal use of *I* of all counts of self-mentions are English and classics. When counting the instances of explicit authorial intervention with self-mention *I* (excluding quotes) in the essays, it was found that there are a total of 129 instances, of which 39 convey interpersonal meaning (30%). No self-mention with interpersonal meaning was found in CAS, and only one occurrence in history scripts. Small numbers of *I* in history articles have also been reported by Coffin

(2006), justified perhaps by the writers' reluctance to take an assertive stance in these scripts due to the epistemological groundings of the discipline. The distribution of all self-mentions across level and discipline in raw frequencies is depicted in Table 7.10.

	Discipline							Level		
	AR	CAS	CL	ENG	HI	LIN	PH	Y1	Y2	Y3
Self-mentions	9	1	14	14	8	27	56	7	63	59
<i>Interpersonal</i>	1	0	7	9	1	3	19	3	17	20
Interpersonal % of total	11	0	50	64	13	11	34	43	27	34

From a dialogic perspective, the use of self-mention could denote Proclamation as in *I concede, I agree* (Concur), *I grant, I maintain* (Pronounce), Entertain with mental verbs as in *I believe, I think*, or even denial as in *I do not agree*. All the annotated locutions of *I* in the disciplines are presented in Table 7.11.

Archaeologists come across as more *impartial* with the use of *we, one* and *it*-constructions, while Historians avoid *responsibility* (self-mentions). In contrast, *responsibility* is more common in English and philosophy, where most of the instances of first-person mental verbs *I believe, I think, I feel* are found. *Verification* markers such as *seem, appear, evidence suggests* are common among all disciplines except CAS, with the highest frequencies found in archaeology. High frequencies of *this suggests* and *evidence suggests* were noticed in linguistics

essays, and this relates to the fact that in this discipline, empirical studies are often cited to support arguments.

Table 7.11 Interpersonal locutions of / in the disciplines				
Discipline	Pronounce	Concur	Entertain	Deny
Archaeology	I would suggest			
Classics	I would advocate	I find it hard to agree I concede I find it hard to hold I have one reservation I agree with this view		I do not agree
English	I would say I would suggest I have argued I would argue I propose	I grant	I think I believe I am persuaded to think	
History		I strongly agree		
Linguistics			I think I believe I feel that	
Philosophy	I have suggested (x 2) I wish to propose	I hold a similar view to I agree	I feel (x 2) I believe (x 2) I think (x 2) I maintain (x 2) I find this I regard to	I do not find this to be (x 2) I do not believe this to be I don't think

If-clauses (*postulation*) are used in much higher proportions in philosophy (23 instances, 32% of all *Postulation* in the sample) than in other disciplines, of which most are either *Reservation* or *Relevance*, and a quarter are in the form of *if-then* indicating logical deduction (Figure 7.22). Similarly, Nesi and Gardner (2012:119) found high frequencies of the *if-then* construction in philosophy essays in the BAWE corpus. In this sample, Entertain: *Postulation: Relevance*, through which additional information in the main clause is relevant only under the conditions expressed in the *if*-clause, is also frequent in archaeology scripts.

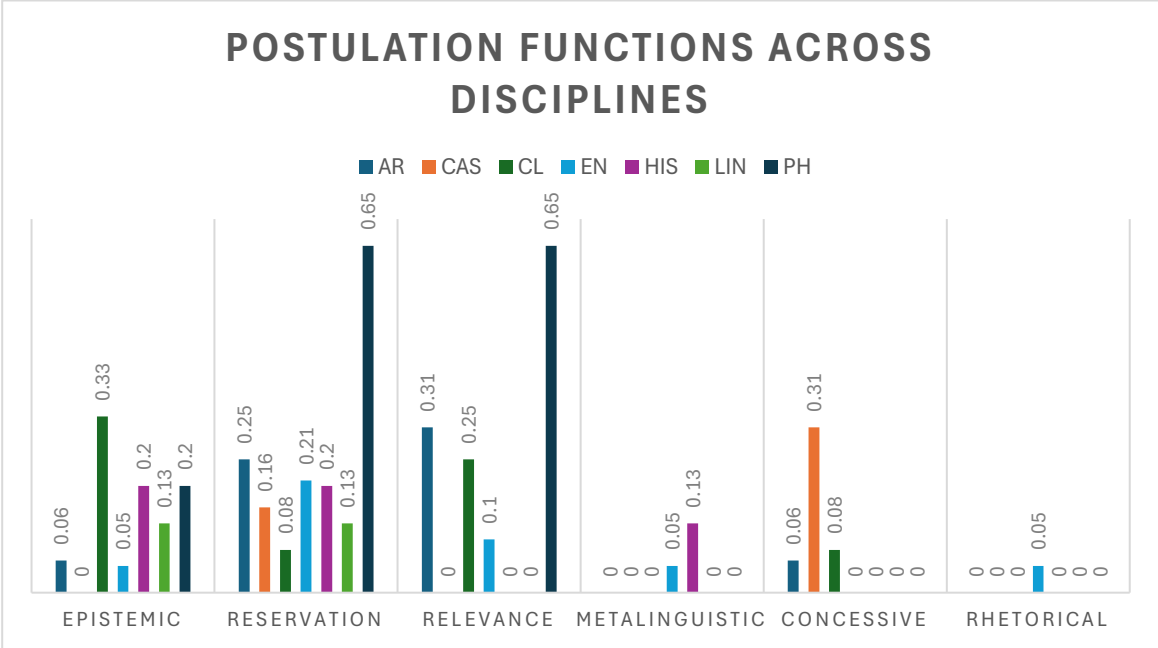


Figure 7.22 Normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Postulation functions in the seven disciplines

Rhetorical expository questions — used to Entertain a dialogic background of alternative propositions rather than assert a proposition — are found predominantly in philosophy (46% of all *questions*), as in Hyland’s sample, and they are used to either *introduce* or *challenge a proposition* (Figure 7.23). Classics and archaeology

use questions for the same purposes while not one question was identified in CAS. With this discursive strategy, writers “assume a stance of undisguised authority in relation to their readers,” a strategy, according to Hyland, found in high frequencies in textbooks and in the soft disciplines as this is “where acceptance of claims depends more on the construction of an elaborate discursive framework” (Hyland, 2002:23). Unlike the students in Hyland’s sample who employed questions for discourse structuring purposes, writers in my sample employ questions “argumentatively to evaluate positions and support their claims” as the research writers did in Hyland’s study (ibid).

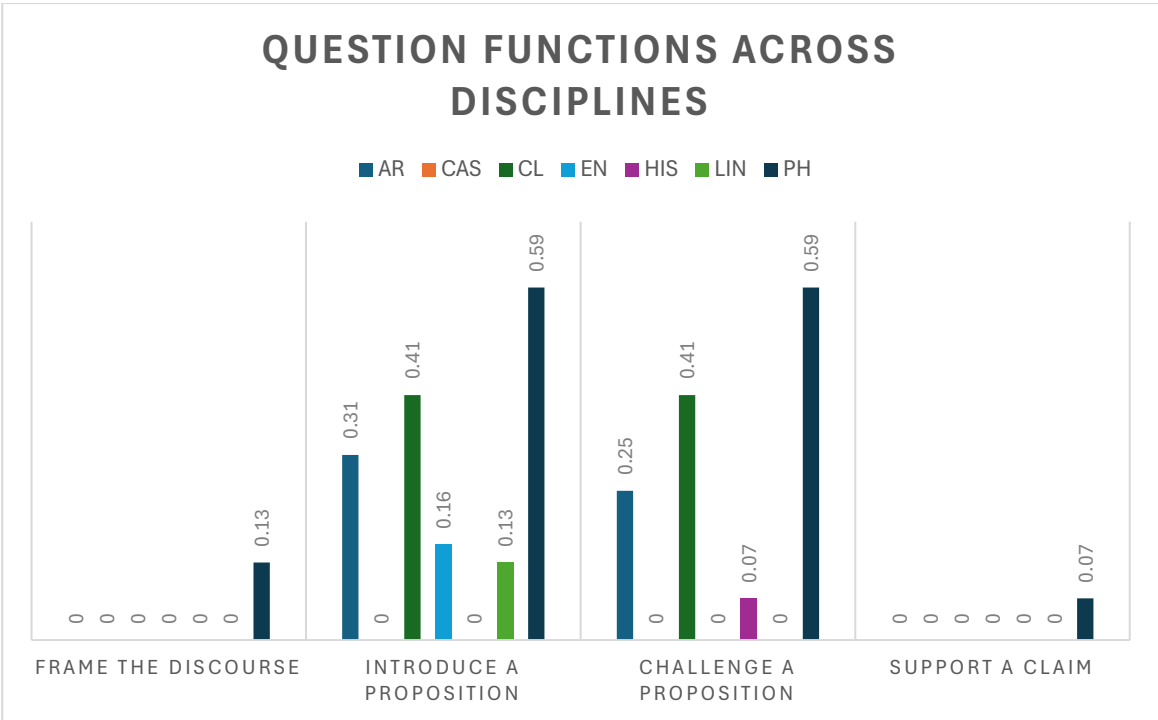


Figure 7.23 Normalised frequencies (per 1000 words) of Question functions in the seven disciplines

To sum up, from a discipline angle, the dialogically strongest scripts are those of philosophy, while the most dialogically weak ones are those coming from the

comparative American studies discipline. Although it was anticipated that CAS would share more similarities with the history essays, this is not the case. CAS writers fail to integrate external voices in their texts compared to history writers, with a ratio of Attribution figures of 1:8 per thousand words. Instead, CAS writers employ Entertain markers in slightly higher frequencies than history writers, with a ratio of 9:7 per thousand words, but the fewest instances of Attribute (0.94 per 1000 words). Countering and pronouncements are more often used by history writers, who, in contrast, deploy the least Entertain markers. High Attribute figures, Counter and Pronounce, are more often used by history writers, who, in contrast, deploy the least Entertain markers. The ones that stand out are history and CAS, both of which show greater frequencies in Contract. The fact that these two disciplines are closely related epistemologically might explain this. What is more, four of the six CAS essay topics are on historical topics. The discourse of undergraduate archaeology students is highly dialogic, and writers prefer to open up the space for alternative views to enter the dialogue, but they do not often Acknowledge outside sources. Although they Counter and Deny potentially opposing propositions, archaeology authors make attempts to mitigate any interpersonal risk involved in such rejections and maintain the writer-reader relations by employing a great number of Entertain resources.

Archaeology writers prefer Concur to Pronounce and Entertain to Attribute, although there are quite high instances of Endorsing in their essays. Linguistics texts, on the other hand, seem to both Endorse and Attribute external sources, but they are not likely to Deny propositions as often as CAS and history texts do, as

they – together with English – have among the lowest occurrences of Disclaim and Counter features. English essays are characterised by the lowest frequencies of both Entertain and Attribute, although the latter may be explained by the nature of these papers as most of them discuss specific literary texts without resorting to external sources. Finally, philosophy scripts stand out in the corpus with the highest occurrences of all Engagement features. Not only do they employ the higher frequencies of all Engagement markers, with an even proportion of Expanding and Contracting figures (28:26), but they also project their own voice with a high number of Pronounce and Concur formulations compared to other disciplines, and they also do so in a more sophisticated and innovative way, such as the use of rhetorical questions, for example. A list of the findings across disciplines is presented in Table 7.12.

Table 7.12 Engagement across disciplines -Key findings

General observations

- *Unfulfilled expectations* is the most common function of negation across disciplines.
- The two main functions of Counter in all disciplines are *opposition* and *limitation*
- The most common contrastive items in all disciplines are *but* and *however*
- Proclaim figures are generally low, and there is no great discrepancy among the disciplines,
- The modal verbs *can*, *may*, *could* and *must* are used by writers in all disciplines and in high frequencies

Archaeology

- The second highest frequencies of Engagement features
- Balanced proportion of both Contract and Expand
- Comparatively high frequencies of Endorse and Concur
- Comparatively quite low Attribution figures
- High use of expository rhetorical questions mostly used to *introduce or challenge a proposition*.
- Low figures of Pronounce
- The greatest variety of reporting verbs
- Most common verb *suggest*
- Comparatively high use of Entertain: *Negotiation*
- High frequencies of *impartiality* with the use of *we*, *one* and *it*-constructions
- The highest frequencies of *Verification* markers such as *seem*, *appear*, *evidence suggests*
- Frequent use of Entertain: *Postulation: Relevance*,
- Common concur marker: *obviously*

Classics

- The main use of Counter is to *correct* a proposition
- More frequent use of Concur: *Persuade* (leading rhetorical questions)
- High frequencies of expository rhetorical questions used to either *introduce or challenge a proposition*
- Common Acknowledge verb *write*
- Among the highest proportions of interpersonal use of *I* of all counts of self-mentions

Comparative American Studies

- The second lowest figures of Engagement
- High Contract and low Expand figures
- No questions to persuade the readers
- The fewest instances of Attribute
- Common verb: *believe*
- High use of *perhaps*
- No self-mention with interpersonal meaning
- *No Verification* markers such as *seem*, *appear*, *evidence suggests*
- No rhetorical expository questions

Table 7.12 (Continued) Engagement across disciplines -Key findings

English	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The lowest figures of Engagement • The lowest Counter figures • Among the lowest occurrences of Disclaim features • The lowest frequencies of both Entertain and Attribute • Common verb: <i>state</i> • No questions to persuade the readers, • Among the highest proportions of interpersonal use of <i>I</i> of all counts of self-mentions (<i>I propose, I maintain</i>) • High frequencies in <i>Responsibility</i> (first-person mental verbs <i>I believe, I think</i>)
History	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • High Contract and low Expand figures • The highest number of Counter figures • Main use of Counter for <i>limitation</i> purposes • High frequencies of Pronounce (most common marker: <i>certainly</i>) • High figures of Pronounce • <i>Responsibility</i> (self-mentions): only one occurrence with interpersonal meaning • The lowest frequencies in Entertain markers • High Attribute figures • Most common Acknowledge verb: <i>argue</i>
Linguistics	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Balanced proportion of both Contract and Expand • Among the lowest occurrences of Counter features (mostly to <i>Contrast</i>) • The highest occurrences of Endorse • The lowest figures in Pronounce and Concur • High frequencies of Attribute • Most frequent Acknowledge verb: <i>suggest</i> • <i>likely</i> is more common in linguistics. • High frequencies of <i>this suggests</i> and <i>evidence suggests</i>
Philosophy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The highest occurrences of Engagement features • Balanced proportion of both Contract and Expand • The highest figures of Concur, particularly Concur: <i>Affirm</i> • Most common Concur markers: <i>surely</i> and <i>of course</i> • A high number of Pronounce formulations • Explicit authorial interventions with self-mentions, as in <i>I propose</i> • A good proportion of all three Attribute subcategories • The greatest variety of reporting verbs • Most common verb: <i>argue</i> • Comparatively high use of Entertain: <i>Negotiation</i> • The highest frequencies of both overall self-mentions and those of interpersonal nature • Entertain: <i>responsibility</i> is more common (e.g., <i>I believe, I think</i>) • High proportions of <i>If</i>-clauses, mostly <i>Reservation</i> or <i>Relevance</i> • High proportions of rhetorical expository questions used to either <i>introduce</i> or <i>challenge a proposition</i>

7.8 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

The chapter presented and discussed the quantitative findings of the annotations with reference to genre, discipline, and level in the AH123 corpus. The taxonomy of the forty-two Arts and Humanities essays from the three undergraduate levels in the BAWE corpus revealed that most papers are written as either *expositions* or *discussions*, more evident in year three scripts of philosophy and linguistics. *Narrations* are common in CAS and classics of the first two levels, while *commentaries* in first-year English essays. Dialogically examined, *expositions* have the highest frequencies in most Engagement features, with great proportions of rhetorical questions, both leading ones conveying concurrence and expository ones conveying Entertain. Along with *discussion*, *exposition* writers also employ the highest occurrences and variety of attributions and citations, while *narrations* are the lowest. Overall, *narrations* are characterised by high Pronounce values and very low Expanding resources, making the writers of this essay genre the least adept at both negotiating and integrating alternative positions in their discourse. *Commentaries*, finally, lie somewhere in between but still with similar discrepancies between Expand and Contract values, yet with the highest instances of Contrast Counter features as they mostly compare and contrast literary works.

The quantitative data, however, does not reveal any analogous trends for level differentiation since scripts in all years seem to equally and evenly employ both contracting and expanding resources. The only type of variation observed is related

to the increase in frequencies of overall Engagement features in the final year, along with the analysis of the subsystems of the framework for each level.

For instance, we saw that intersubjectivity slightly improved in the final year, that students resort to rhetorical questions to propose and challenge propositions and that they express their agreement in more subtle ways as they progress in their studies. Although longitudinal studies are more appropriate to account for any developmental changes across levels of study, it is hoped that some variations will emerge from the corpus study that follows.

Disciplinary variations are more easily identified from the current data. If we accept that successful academic writers are those who skilfully and in a balanced way manage to acknowledge and integrate the arguments and voices of others while introducing their own perspective (Hood, 2004; Mitchell, Miller & Pessoa, 2016), then it can confidently be argued that in the current sample philosophy and English writers are more adept writers than history and American studies ones, while archaeology, classics, and linguistics writers equally compete for a place in between. Although genre and level might play their role in how dialogicity is construed in undergraduate writing, it can be argued that with the exception of CAS, Arts and Humanities student writers in the current sample are aware that a balance between integrating other voices, taking a clear position and negotiating their own views with the propositions of others as well as engaging with the reader – even if in this case by a reader we mean their tutor – are qualities highly valued in academic writing.

CHAPTER 8

8 THE CORPUS STUDY

8.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 of this thesis discussed the annotation findings of the entire corpus and proposed a refinement of the Engagement framework, which was further detailed in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 then, presented and analysed the findings for genre, level, and discipline of the AH123 corpus by applying the expanded Engagement framework. Building on these analyses and the methodological foundations established in Chapter 4, this shorter chapter presents the corpus study conducted to validate and triangulate the findings from the annotation process.

8.2 THE SCOPE OF THE STUDY

While the initial annotation findings (Chapter 5 and 7) provide valuable insights into the discursive practices of undergraduate essay writers, particularly in how these writers express authorial voice and position themselves within discourse, they are not entirely representative of the broader student population and cannot be confidently generalisable. The initial analysis was limited to forty-two essays from three academic levels and various AH disciplines, revealing variations influenced by these factors. Despite this, the small corpus size and the diversity of essay topics preclude broad quantitative generalisations.

This corpus study aims to quantify and analyse the use of Engagement resources across a broader set of undergraduate essays, consisting of 427 texts totalling 1,413,720 words. This approach allows us to identify the use of Engagement resources, provide a more representative picture of student writing practices and enhance the generalisability of the findings. Given the inherent limitations of both manual annotation and corpus-based analysis discussed in chapter 5, this approach leverages the strengths of each. While manual annotation provides detailed insights into specific instances of evaluative language, the corpus study facilitates the analysis of these phenomena on a larger scale, ensuring that our findings are not limited to the small sample size initially studied.

Hence, the corpus study that follows can complement the previous analysis in several ways. First, it can help us understand how these resources are commonly used in a larger body of student essays. By quantifying the frequency and distribution of Engagement resources in the entire corpus of AH student essays in the BAWE corpus, we can determine which resources are used most frequently and whether there are any patterns in their distribution across essays. It also allows us to compare the use of Engagement resources across the three levels and the different subdisciplines of AH within a larger corpus. This can shed light on how disciplinary and level norms and expectations influence the use of these resources. Finally, the triangulation approach enhances the robustness of the analysis, offering a more accurate depiction of the relationship between form and function in language use, offering both qualitative depth and quantitative breadth. The

following sections present the findings from the corpus study, including the frequency, distribution, and variation of Engagement resources across the different levels and disciplines within the corpus. Although it has been argued that Engagement resources cannot be fully explored through corpus-based methodologies, this investigation aims to validate and extend the previous findings, by providing additional quantitative data on the frequency, distribution, and contextual usage of most Engagement items across a larger corpus. This will enhance the robustness and generalisability of the analysis.

8.3 THE BAWE-123 SUBCORPUS

The subcorpus for this analysis, BAWE-AH123, was created in Sketch Engine and consists of essays from seven English disciplines in AH, totalling 427 essays with a word count of 1,413.720 and 1,691.302 tokens, representing 20.3% of the BAWE corpus. The study comprises two stages. Stage 1 quantifies the frequency and distribution of Engagement subsystems in the BAWE-AH123 subcorpus. In stage 2, the frequency and distribution of the same features are examined to compare the use of Engagement resources across the three levels and the different subdisciplines of AH within the BAWE-AH123 corpus.

8.4 STAGE 1-FINDINGS IN BAWE-AH123

The first stage of the study includes a Sketch Engine search of the BAWE-AH123 of the lexicogrammar markers of the Engagement features found in the annotations. The detailed annotation analysis of the AH123 identified 287

distinctive features that signal heteroglossic contraction and expansion within the selected scripts. Due to the polysemy of certain items, the search is now limited to single words and lemmas that are characteristic to each subsystem of Engagement and, where possible the monosemantic ones. Long phrases, hypotheticals and rhetorical questions have been excluded. The search items for the first stage are presented in Table 8.1.

Table 8.1 Search items in BAWE-AH123	
Deny	<i>no, not, n't, non, nor, nobody, nothing, never, neither</i>
Counter	<i>but, however, only, although, even, just, yet, still, despite, merely, whilst, actually, unlike, rather, nevertheless, though, conversely, nonetheless, albeit, simply, in spite, of, on the other, on the other hand, in contrast, contrary to, as if, as though, even though, even if, at least.</i>
Concur	<i>certainly, clearly, obviously, surely, evidently, naturally, inevitably, yes, of course, it be clear, it be certain, it be obvious, I concede</i>
Pronounce	<i>indeed, undoubtedly, unquestionably, undeniably, indisputably, questionably, debatably, fascinatedly, the truth be, interestingly, ideally, really, it is interesting, it is important, no doubt, in fact, the point is, the fact is, I maintain, I propose, I say, I grant, I argue, I suggest, I advocate</i>
Endorse	<i>show, demonstrate, indicate, prove, confirm, reaffirm, point out</i>
Entertain	<i>can, could, might, may, must, may be, should, would, ought, seem, appear, seemingly, apparently, evidently, allegedly, assuming, arguably, definitely, impossible, improbable, likely, unlikely, perhaps, likelihood, plausible, possibility, possible, possibly, probably, probable, potentially, supposedly, presuming, presumably, I believe, I think, I feel, I suggest, I regard, in my opinion, as if, as though</i>
Attribute	<i>According to, argue, accept, acknowledge, admit, affirm, agree, assert, assume, attack, avoid, believe, cite, claim, comment, concede, conclude, concur, confirm, continue, counter, criticise, declare, define, deny, describe, differentiate, disagree, discover, dispute, elaborate, emphasise, explain, find, highlight, identify, ignore, imply, inform, initiate, insist, interpret, maintain, mean, note, notice, observe, pinpoint, predict, present, propose, question, recall, recognise, regard, remind, report, reject, reveal, say, state, study, stress, submit, suggest, summarise, summarize, tell, verbalise, verbalize, think, view, wonder, write, speak, refer, object, hint, doubt, come up with, draw attention to, doubt away, extend the idea, make a point, raise a point, make clear, raise an example, look at, look into, result in, sum up, own words, argument, agreement, assertion, assumption, belief, conclusion, criticism, critique, distinction, emphasis, explanation, interpretation, solution, suggestion, summary, theory.</i>

A CQL under concordance search was conducted in SketchEngine for each lemma of every subsystem, for example, *[word="apparently"], [lemma="show" & tag="VV*"]*. The relative frequencies per million tokens for all the Engagement markers searched in the BAWE-AH123 corpus are presented in Appendix F. To facilitate the comparison between the two datasets, frequencies have been normalised to 1000 words. These figures for the four broad categories of the framework, Contract, Expand, Disclaim and Proclaim, and the seven subsystems are illustrated in Figures 8.1 and 8.2 respectively.

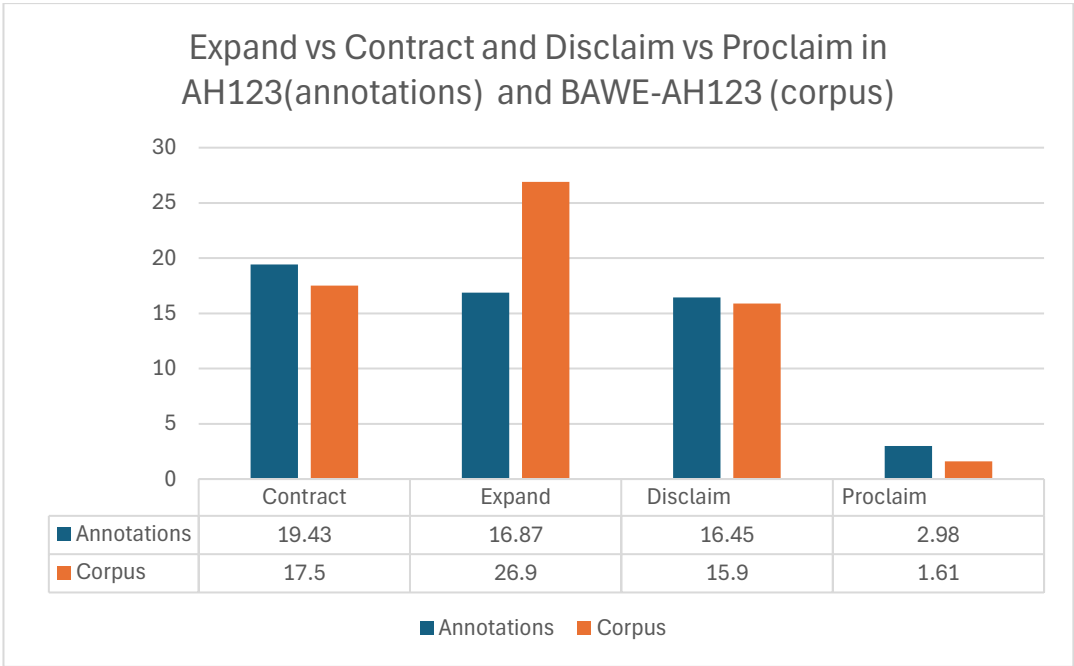


Figure 8.1 Frequencies (per 1000 words) of the four main systems in the two studies

Disclaim and Proclaim frequencies are relatively close in both datasets. As in AH123 study, Proclaim is very poorly represented in the BAWE-AH123 corpus, too. It also shows lower frequencies compared to the AH123 corpus, likely due to the exclusion of Concur leading rhetorical questions from the corpus study. Obvious

differences are noticed in the Contract vs Expand systems. While the annotations revealed that the discourse in the selected essays was slightly more dialogically contractive than expansive, in the corpus study the frequencies of Expand are nearly twice as many as in the AH123 corpus.

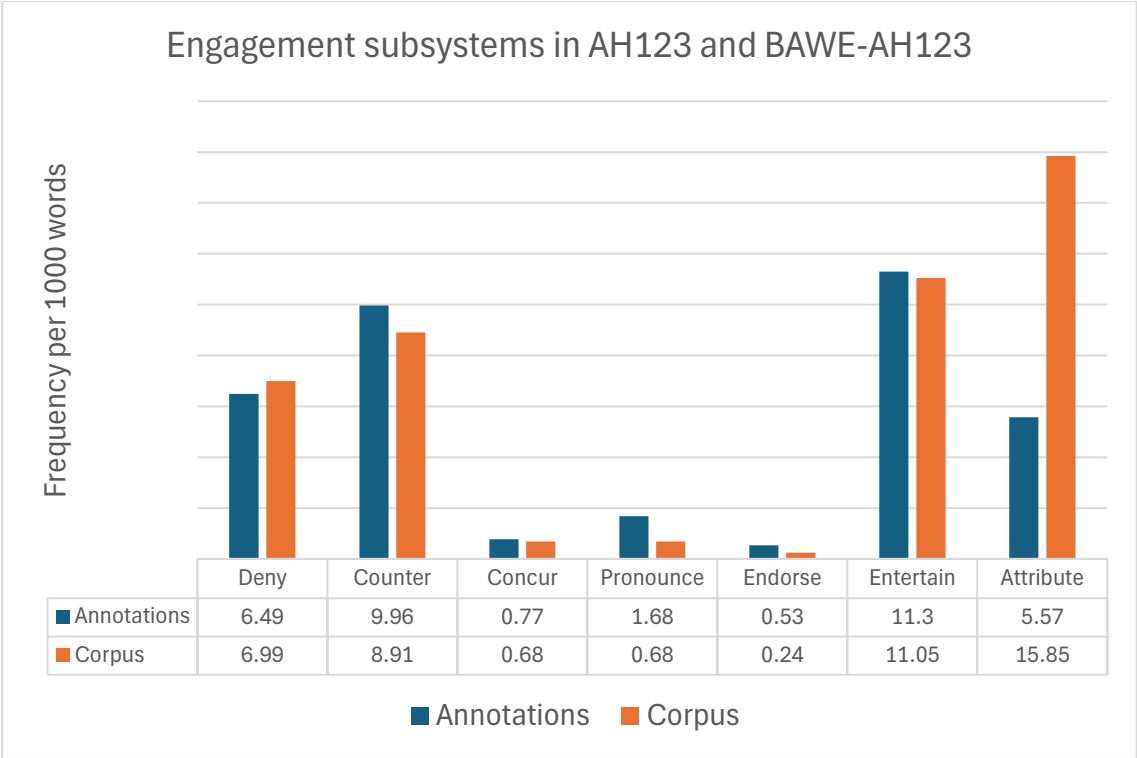


Figure 8.2 Frequencies (per 1000 words) of the main subsystems of Engagement in the two studies

This discrepancy is due to the high rates of Attribute in the BAWE-AH123 corpus (Figure 8.2) and are indicative of one of the limitations of corpus methods. The search for Attribute markers in BAWE-AH123 includes all the reporting verbs and their nominalisations as listed in table 8.1, however, not all of them convey Attribute, as it is illustrated in the concordance lines of the lemma *find* in Figure 8.32. Where in this sample we can see the past tense of the verb used to attribute a proposition to an expert and report results of empirical research, for example, lines 7 to 15, in

other cases, for instance, in lines 19 and 20 the verb is used to mean ‘to locate something’ which should have been excluded from the count.

7	3	Lin...	Flusberg, 1999: 313), and can affect language.	However Dodd (1972, as in Tager-Flusberg, 1999: 302)	found	no significant difference between typically developing infants and those with Down's Syndromes acquisition of
8	3	Lin...	ths in those with Down's Syndrome.	Similarly, Stray-Gundersen (1986 as in Tager-Flusberg, 1999: 303)	found	first word acquisition across a wide range of ages within a Down's Syndrome population, varying from a typica
9	3	Lin...	e items was also found to be problematic in SLI children with Udwin and Yule (1983 as in Leonard, 2000: 121)		finding	age matched controls to perform better on tasks which aimed to elicit concepts of time and space using a mir
10	3	Lin...	/s>.	On an assessment battery of non-verbal tests, Johnston and Ramsted (1983 as in Leonard, 2000: 123)	found	mental imagery proved to be the area of most deficit with SLI participants failing to identify shapes they had b
11	3	Lin...	no previous hearing impairment, hence their classification as SLI. Rosenthal (1972, as in Leonard, 2000: 133)		found	SLI children capable of correctly identify single phonemes produced at intervals of 200ms, however reporting
12	3	Lin...	if TOT's as older people's memories often work less well than that of younger ones.	Burke et al (1991)	found	out for example that older people experience 1.65 TOT's per week, whereas in the speech of younger people
13	1	Lin...	difference between genders seems to be associated with topics in conversations.	Coates (1993: P118)	found	that women are inclined to discuss personal matters than men therefore they often use hedges such as I think
14	1	Lin...	re are the other social influence to consider linguistic identities between genders.	Chaika (1994: P382)	found	that women who speak tentatively are enabled to persuade men more strongly than women who speak asser
15	1	Eng...	ars.	George Eliot, Middlemarch, London: Penguin, 1965		K.K.Ruthven, The Savage God (1968)
16	1	Lin...	s study) with Lakoff's research focusing on the use of tag questions (such as, "the war in Iraq is terrible, isn't it)		finding	that again, women used far more than men.
17	1	Cla...	reat a curse a woman is'	Euripides (420BC) Hippolytus, eBook translated by E. P. Coleridge (2004)	found	at-
18	1	Cla...	Primary Sources:- Euripides (420BC) Hippolytus, translated by E. P. Coleridge (2004). Online text (eBook)		found	at- Homer (8th/7th Century BC) The Homeric Hymns Online text/Secondary Sources:- Cooper, Kate (1996) I
19	2	His...	>	Walter Lafeber, America, Russia, and the Cold War, 1945-2002 (Boston, 2004), p. 13		Britain, too,
20	2	His...	ality behind these claims was only limited.			The producing classes, those of the workers and peasants,

Figure 8.32 Sample concordance lines of Attribute markers in BAWE-AH123

Ideally, each of the hits of all the lemmas searched should be examined to ensure its meaning, use and function is equivalent to the Engagement functions, but perhaps this could be an entire different project.

Bearing that limitation in mind, with the exception of Attribute and Pronounce, the variations in the frequencies across the two datasets are minor. To assess the strength of the relationship, and to determine if the differences in means are statistically significant a Pearson correlation analysis and a paired t-test were performed. The correlation coefficient was $r = 0.874$, with a p-value of 0.0004, which indicates a strong, positive correlation between the two datasets. The t-test yielded a t-statistic of -0.116 and a p-value of 0.910. The fact that the p-value is much greater than the typical significance level of 0.05 indicates that the differences between the two datasets are not statistically significant. The consistency between the two datasets supports the reliability of the findings across

both studies. It further suggests that the way the selected markers and the analytical procedure have been designed and implemented make the analysis more efficient and consistent and enhance the generalisability of the results, although human checking, as argued above, is still needed to achieve accuracy and reliability.

8.5 STAGE 2-FOCUS ON LEVEL AND DISCIPLINE

8.5.1 LEVEL

The frequencies of almost all subcategories of Engagement are relatively similar across all levels in both subcorpora, with only slight variations observed, which indicate overall alignment (Figure 8.43). Largely, the frequencies across the three levels are generally aligned between the annotations and the corpus study, with variations observed only in Endorse and Attribute. Similarly to the findings of the annotation study, no developmental changes across levels of study have emerged from the analysis of a larger corpus.

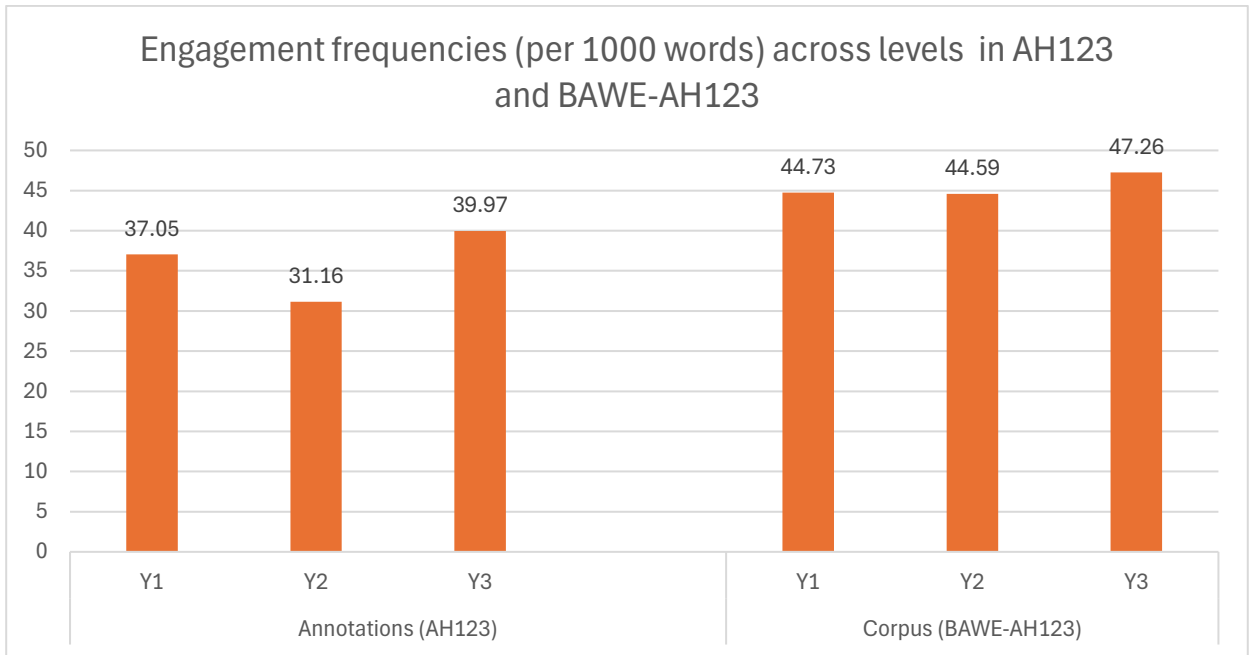


Figure 8.43 Normalised (per 1000 words) frequencies of Engagement resources in the two studies across levels.

Again, as it is apparent from figure 8.53 there are no great variations among the three levels. Nevertheless, unlike the findings in the annotation study where figures dropped in year 2 and raised again in the final level here, we notice a more balanced representations of occurrences across the three years of study.

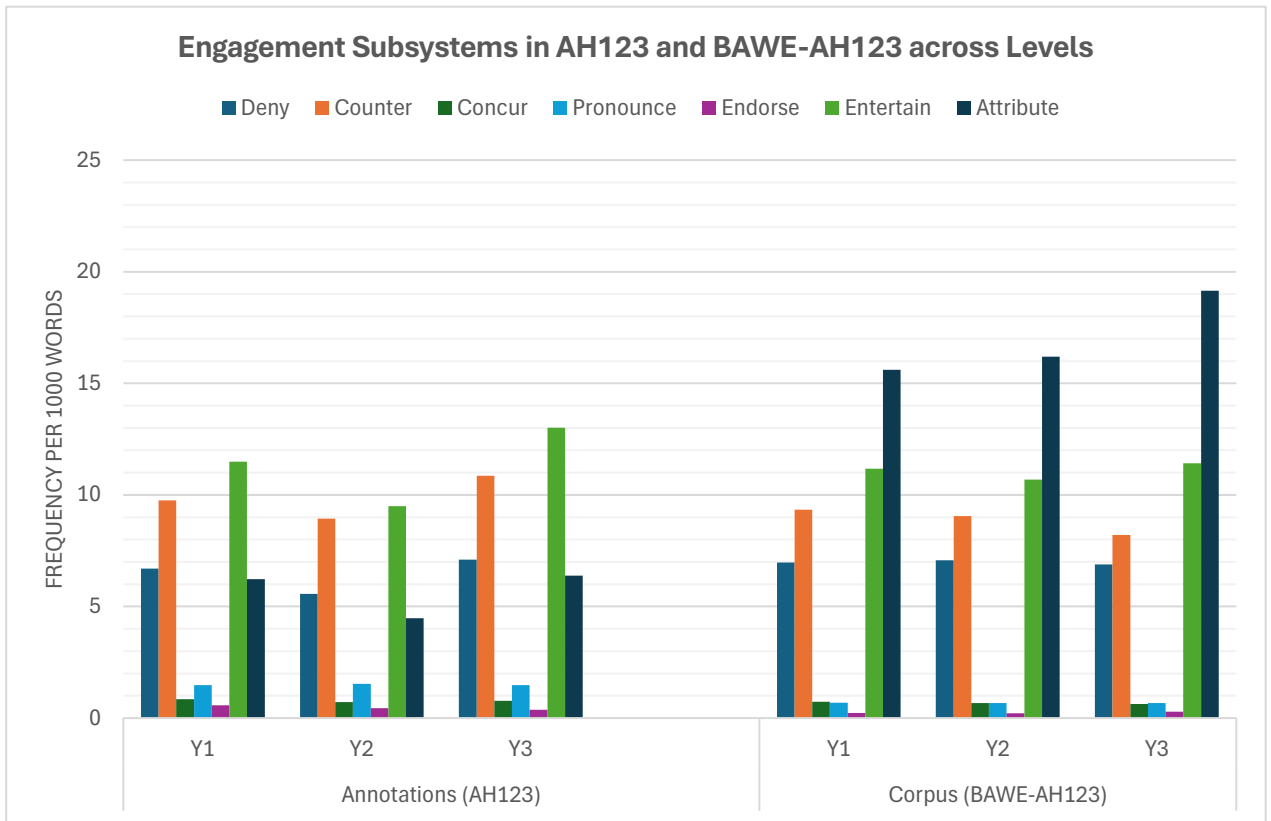


Figure 8.54 Frequencies (per 1000 words) of the seven subsystems of Engagement in the two studies across levels

The frequencies for Endorse are notably higher in AH123 compared to BAWE-AH123 across all levels. Once again, significant differences in frequencies of Attribute are observed between the two datasets across all levels, with much higher frequencies in BAWE-AH123 compared to the annotation corpus.

8.5.2 DISCIPLINES

Unlike level differences, disciplinary variations are more prominent, as illustrated in the chart in Figure 8.64. The results clearly indicate that philosophy is the discipline with the higher frequencies of Engagement subsystems in the corpus

study, too, while CAS has the lowest frequencies. With the exception of Endorse, philosophy writers employ many more resources under every subsystem compared to writers in the other disciplines. In particular, they use twice as many Pronounce markers as most of the writers across the other disciplines. Similarly, Attribute resources are twice as many as in CAS and archaeology. Finally, linguistics has the lowest occurrences of Concur and Endorse features. In archaeology, all data frequencies are lower in BAWE-AH123. This indicates that the usage and distribution of these verbs differ between the two datasets. In classics, Deny and Entertain are higher in the corpus. Counter, Concur and Pronounce are higher in the annotated sample, while Endorse and Attribute are lower in the corpus study sample. In CAS, most Engagement subsystems have higher frequencies in AH123 compared to the corpus study.

Philosophy papers consistently stand out with higher frequencies in both studies. In English, some systems have higher frequencies in annotations compared to the corpus (e.g., Counter, Pronounce, Attribute), while others show slightly higher frequencies in the corpus or remain similar (e.g., Deny, Concur, Endorse, Entertain). With the exception of Entertain, all figures in history scripts are higher in the annotation corpus. The same trend is apparent in the linguistics and philosophy samples apart from Deny, Counter, Concur in the former and Counter in the latter. The results align in their most part with the findings in the annotations study.

Overall, we can say that the annotation (AH123) and the corpus study (BAWE-AH123) findings across disciplines have similar central tendencies but differ in their spread and distribution. The disciplines in the BAWE-AH123 seem to have more values concentrated in the higher range compared to the annotation's findings. While in AH123 there is a more even distribution across its range with values spread throughout, the BAWE-AH123 figures show some gaps in the higher range and more values clustered around the middle. In summary, while the two sets have similar averages and medians, they differ in their distribution and variability. BAWE-AH123 tends to have more values in the higher range compared to AH123. Although the two sets of data may be comparable, the annotation findings across disciplines seem to represent a more diverse or varied dataset. This might be the result of the selection of the features used in the corpus searches. With regard to the disciplines, further exploration and contextual analysis is needed to provide insights into the factors contributing to the observed patterns and differences in the distribution of the features across the disciplines in the two datasets.

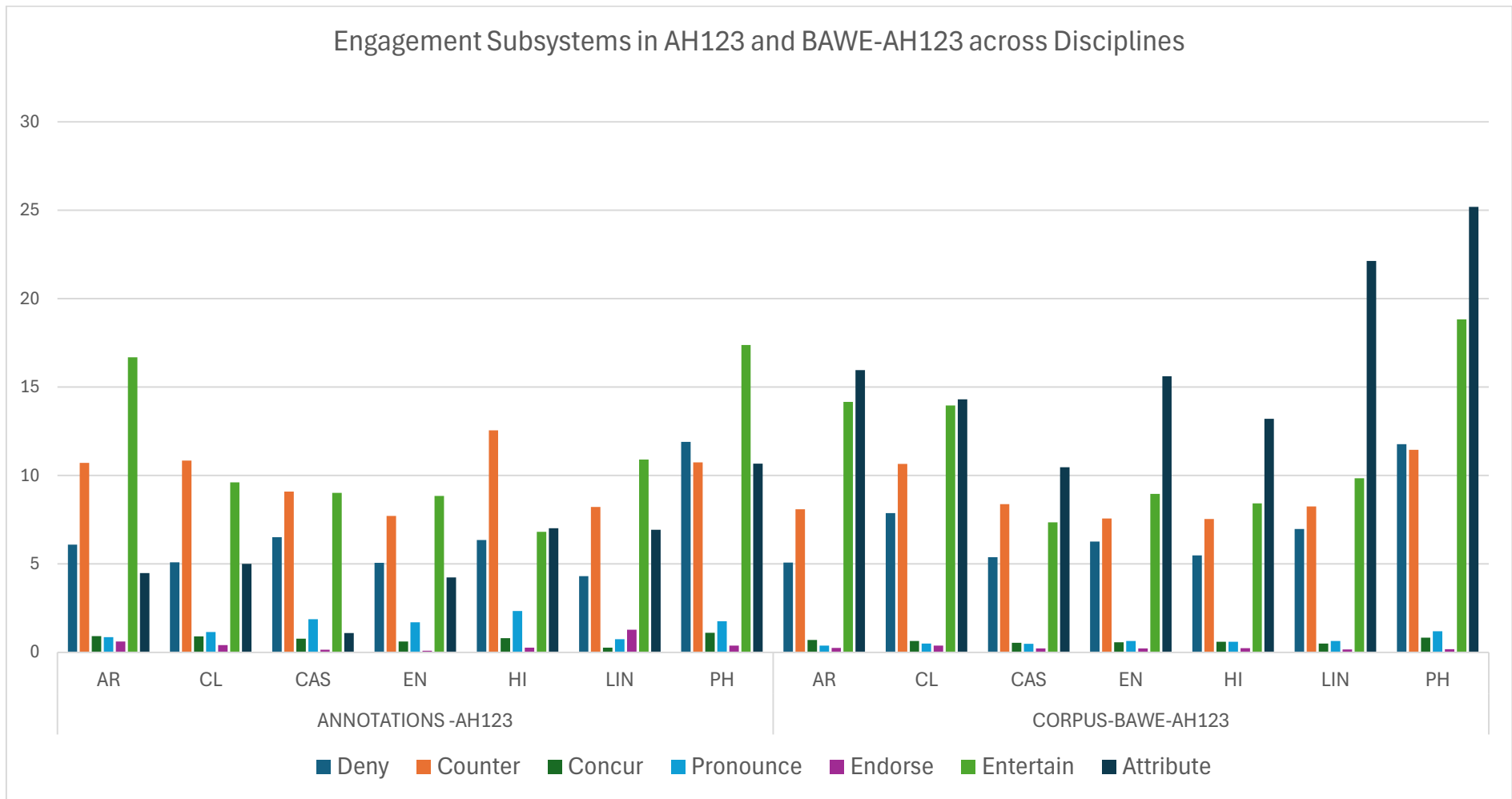


Figure 8.64 Frequencies (per 1000 words) of the seven subsystems of Engagement in the two studies across disciplines

8.6 SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In summary, this corpus study confirms and extends the findings from the annotation analysis. In general, while the AH123 corpus showed a more even distribution of resources, the BAWE-AH123 data appears to have more values concentrated in the higher range. Overall, there is alignment between the two datasets, despite some discrepancies, mostly caused because of the polysemy of certain items. Disciplinary variations in the use of Engagement resources are more noticeable than level differences and this highlights the influence of disciplinary norms on student writing practices. It is important to emphasise that the primary goal of this brief study was to quantify the use of these resources in a larger dataset and enhance the generalisability of the annotation findings. It did not intend to provide a comprehensive analysis of all aspects of Engagement resources found in the BAWE-AH123 corpus or to account for pattern and context variations in their usage. Future research could further refine the methodology by incorporating manual checks of corpus hits to improve accuracy and reliability and potentially reveal more nuanced variations.

9 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

9.1 INTRODUCTION

This concluding chapter will first summarise the main findings of the study by revisiting the original research questions and exploring connections with the reviewed literature. It will further address the challenges encountered during the research process and the limitations of the study in order to highlight the significance and implications of the findings. Some suggestions for the application of the findings in EAP pedagogy will be provided before the chapter concludes with the main contributions of the current study and suggested areas for further research.

9.2 MAJOR FINDINGS

This thesis set out to investigate how university students enter into a dialogue with other voices in their academic essays; more specifically, what Engagement resources are most frequently employed by English L1 writers in a corpus of successfully assessed essays in British universities.

The first research question was addressed by analysing the use of Engagement markers in a sample of 42 Arts and Humanities essays drawn from the BAWE

corpus. The initial analysis focused on two areas. First features corresponding to each subsystem of Engagement were identified and classified and their frequencies were calculated. Second, the distribution of the resources and the identification of outliers in each individual paper was considered to provide a more balanced and representative understanding and highlight any patterns that might be overlooked in a broad analysis and might need further examination.

Research on undergraduate student writing from a dialogic perspective (Wu, 2007; Swain, 2010; Lancaster, 2014; Miller, Mitchell, & Pessoa, 2014) has predominately focused on analysing successful and less successful scripts or comparing native and non-native English speakers' discourse strategies and patterns. It has overwhelmingly been suggested that low-graded essays tend to resort to monoglossic, 'bare assertions,' and high frequency of pronouncements. More successful essays, on the other hand, opt for a wider selection of Engagement resources efficiently employed to enhance argumentation and enter into a dialogue with external voices and the reader through such strategies as attributions and endorsements while contracting the dialogic space by countering and denying propositions. Overall, there seems to be a consensus that both high occurrences and a variety of Engagement resources skilfully integrated into the discourse contribute to successful essay writing.

My findings are consistent with the observed trends in successful, high-rated undergraduate writing. Essay writers in my sample, to a large extent, construe a contractive dialogic space with a high representation of negations and counter

formulations but limited use of Proclaim resources. The high frequency of Disclaim suggests that undergraduate writers feel more comfortable to counter or even reject a proposition rather than taking a clear stance by either concurring or pronouncing their position by seldom encoding explicit alignment with the view they put forward, in order to emphasise or clarify their position and challenge or dismiss an alternative viewpoint. The very low figures of Proclaim and all its categories imply that writers hesitate to openly voice their claims, take sides, assume responsibility and commitment and sound authoritative leaving space for alternative proposals to enter the dialogue encouraging thus greater engagement and dialogic interaction with the putative reader.

In line with other research (e.g., Lancaster, 2014) Entertain formulations are highly present in the essays in my sample. Student writers employ various linguistic expressions to convey the notion of possibility or uncertainty. They introduce alternative viewpoints or potential interpretations, indicating the writers' engagement with different possibilities and their intent to entertain the reader rather than present definitive statements. Student writers tend to withhold the commitment to the proposition while at the same time opening up the dialogic space to invite alternative positions. One third of all expanding resources represent attributing propositions to external sources by mostly acknowledging them through the use of reporting verbs and nouns. Although the Attribute figures in the whole corpus are low compared to other systems, the examination of the individual papers reveals that there are substantial differences across the scripts which can be attributed to variations in both the level and the discipline each essay belongs

to. They also mostly prefer to sound neutral by merely acknowledging the source rather than endorsing or showing strong support for a proposition.

The initial analysis brought about two further areas of concern. First, the Engagement framework does not adequately capture all areas of dialogicity. Second, despite the fact that all scripts are essays there are considerable variations in the ways discourse evolves. The first concern led to the refinement of the Engagement framework, while the second to identifying further subgenres of the essay.

An equally important purpose of this project was to investigate any variations in dialogic discourse strategies across the three undergraduate levels and the seven disciplines in the AH disciplinary group. These are linked to the second and third research questions. Regarding the level, it was hypothesised that level 3 scripts would be richer both in frequency and range of Engagement resources through which both dialogicity and polyglossia and an authorial stance would be reached in more resourceful and sophisticated ways. Studies that have analysed the development trajectory of university student writing report high Engagement occurrences in third-year essays (Hewings, 2004; Coffin, 2006; Liu, 2014). They also argue that as students move forward in their educational levels, they create a balance between introducing their own point of view and acknowledging other perspectives (Mitchell, Miller & Pessoa, 2016) and become more familiar with the rhetorical conventions of academic discourse. Finally, while first-year university writing is characterised by high Proclaim occurrences and a sense of certainty (Aul,

2015), instances of overt stance tend to be rarer at higher levels (Gardner, Nesi, & Biber, 2019), where students become more cautious. The findings of this study are not far from the above claims as I found that year 3 has the highest occurrences of Engagement among the three levels, and Proclaim figures linearly decrease from year 1 to the final year. While first-year students express strong pronouncement with locutions that express a high level of certainty, year three students take clear responsibility for their own position with high occurrences of self-mentions. In addition, in the final year, there seems to be a difference both in the quantity of the Attribute locutions employed and how such attributing propositions are presented.

Disciplinary variations were much more prevalent in this project, reflecting the bulk of relevant research consenting that in the humanities, such variations are extensive (e.g., Stotesbury, 2003). In line with many other studies (e.g., Hyland, 2005; Nesi & Gardner, 2012; Hardy & Römer, 2013; Lancaster, 2016; Gardner, Nesi & Biber, 2019), my philosophy corpus stands out as the most dialogic of all seven. Not only do philosophy papers include the highest occurrences of Engagement resources, but they also have a greater range of these dispersed throughout the text, adeptly integrated to engage with alternative voices, align or disalign with readers and project an authorial stance. The dialogic richness of the philosophy scripts is evident throughout the three levels, culminating in year three where heteroglossic discourse and intersubjective stance is conveyed through unique and sophisticated strategies and lexicogrammar structures. At the antipode stand English and CAS papers, with the latter being the dialogically weakest ones.

The genre analysis elucidated this, as five out of six CAS scripts were either *commentaries* or *narrations*.

9.3 CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS

Three main challenges were encountered from the beginning to the completion of this project. The first challenge relates to the manual annotation of the framework, which was not unexpected, but proved complex. In spite of its limitations, the Engagement system of the appraisal framework can generate valuable insights into the interpersonal function in language and how writers “approve and disapprove, enthuse and abhor, applaud and criticise”, “align or disalign with actual or potential readers”, position themselves “with respect to other voices”, “adopt stances towards both the material they present and those with whom they communicate” and “construe for themselves” a particular authorial identity (Martin & White, 2005:1-2). All these aspects are fundamental in academic discourse, and areas that student writers aspire and are expected to achieve as they, along with strong argumentation, are elements of good essay writing. Nevertheless, the challenge lay in accurately capturing the subtleness of authorial voice and the contextual meaning of language used by student writers, especially given the inherent subjectivity in interpreting these interactions. The problematic nature of manually annotating Engagement resources was addressed by double coding a sample of the corpus, reliability testing and drafting a detailed annotation manual to guide the process. The enhancement of the validity, reliability and credibility of findings was further reinforced by triangulating the manual annotation with a corpus analysis.

The second area of concern relates to the apparent discursive differentiations noticed in the selected scripts, despite all belonging to the essay genre. The findings of the annotation and the subsequent in-depth reading and analysis of individual papers revealed specific repetitive patterns in the ways student writers analysed various essay prompts that necessitated a thorough genre analysis to understand and explain the diversity in the annotation findings. Taxonomising the essays from the original corpus into further subgenres proved necessary in addressing this challenge and assisted in understanding and explaining the diversity in student writing practices.

Finally, identifying and classifying certain resources specific to academic discourse under the original framework was often challenging. With some subsystems of the framework being too broad and others too limited or vague, leading to ambiguities in classification, the refinement of the framework seemed necessary. The new modified framework, despite being too detailed, has assisted in bringing out delicate variations in the linguistic choices adopted by students to communicate their perspective across the levels and disciplines.

Nevertheless, even with the steps taken to address the challenges faced during this project, the study is not without shortcomings. Firstly, the initial sample size was relatively small, comprising only 42 texts. A larger sample would have given clearer insights into the level and disciplinary differences and would have allowed for more confident generalisability of the findings to larger populations. Additionally, the cross-sectional design of the study does not allow for conclusive discussions

on the developmental trends across the three levels. These would have been better highlighted with longitudinal research, which, however, would constitute a completely different project. Finally, despite its contributions, the corpus study conducted to triangulate the annotation findings was limited in its scope, as it did not fully explore other factors that influence the usage across different disciplines and levels. Employing more advanced corpus linguistics techniques, such as collocation analysis or n-grams, could help uncover deeper patterns and relationships among Engagement resources.

9.4 IMPLICATIONS AND APPLICATIONS

Notwithstanding the limitations, the findings of this study carry significant implications for the theorisation and analysis of Engagement, as well as the writing pedagogy within EAP. The research contextualises and highlights the linguistic choices made by university student writers in successful essays across disciplines. Understanding the ways successful writers convey their position and integrate sources can inform targeted instructional materials and facilitate the implementation of teaching practices aiming at enhancing writing skills of undergraduate learners. On a theoretical level, the expansion and modification of the Engagement framework contributes to its wider application within the area of academic discourse. By clarifying the various strategies employed by university students to articulate their voice and engage with sources in essays, this research provides valuable insights for educators who seek to enhance their students' skills in academic writing across disciplines for both novice and more advanced learners. It can not only contribute to discussions related to disciplinary literacy, but it can

also inform EAP curricula and instructional materials to better prepare students for their academic studies.

Applying the findings of discourse analysis to pedagogic practice can often be challenging. In this case, the application of appraisal in general and Engagement system in particular, can be additionally demanding due to the detailed taxonomy and inherent jargon used in the original framework. Some of the suggestions for applying the findings of the current research to the EAP pedagogical context are outlined below. By incorporating these steps into EAP pedagogy, teachers can help novice and more advanced students to not only develop an understanding of language use in academic contexts but also incorporate such strategies and choices in their academic essays.

1. Building genre awareness

- Explain and compare and contrast different academic genres across disciplines (e.g., lab reports, research papers, argumentative essays).
- Help students understand how Engagement resources are used differently in the various academic genres. For example, compare their use and position within the discourse of research articles, reports, and essays.
- Have students practice writing in different genres, with attention to the appropriate use of Engagement resources.

2. Focusing on disciplinary variations

- Use sample texts or paragraphs from various disciplines (e.g., sciences, humanities, social sciences) and analyse the language features, unique to each discipline.

- Demonstrate with examples linguistic differences across disciplines.
- Compare and contrast linguistic features across different disciplines.
- Create discipline-specific vocabulary lists for various academic fields.

3. Teaching dialogistic expressions

- Concentrate on and emphasise the Expand and Contract concepts. Stress the purpose and importance of closing down the dialogic space for alternative views and opening up the space for different positions to take part in the dialogue.
- Simplify the jargon. Focus on the function performed by each category regarding the proposition rather than the label of each Engagement category (Tables, 9.1 & 9.2).
- Highlight the position of such resources within a text.
- Provide sample papers as model texts to identify and deconstruct the kinds of strategies and resources used by the writers, their purpose and position.

There are ample online materials and textbooks on academic writing and critical thinking that guide learners in engaging with readers, taking a stance, and integrating alternative viewpoints in their essays. Common terminology includes 'hedges,' 'boosters,' 'reporting verbs,' and 'modality' (e.g., Swales & Feak, 2004; Hewings et al., 2012). At first glance, the Engagement framework may seem daunting for novice writers in EFL/ESL and EAP classrooms. However, the concepts of expanding and contracting the dialogic space through certain formulations can be easily explained, forming two initial dimensions for students to focus on when constructing dialogic discourse and authorial voice. Once these functions are clear, further categories can be introduced in a simplified and

comprehensive way, emphasising function over label of each Engagement subsystem as outlined in Tables 9.1 and 9.2. These tables can be provided to students for self-study and reference or used to create gap-filling and matching activities for further practice in class.

Table 9.1 Closing down the dialogic space to alternative views		
Function	Features	Example
To make an assertion and then deny it	<i>not, no, never, nothing, nor, non, neither, un-, in-, im-, fail, lack; not only...but</i>	Climate does not explain why some societies remain unaffected by droughts.
To express dissatisfaction with the previously presented claim		It is the pattern that contains the meaning, not the word.
To openly agree with the pre-mentioned proposition		The Aeneid, is considered not only Virgil's greatest work, but perhaps the greatest of Rome's Augustan Age.
To critically evaluate a proposition		The work of Darwin did not elaborate upon this aspect.
To directly reject a proposition	<i>actually, albeit, already, although, as though, at least, but, contrast, contrary to, conversely, despite, even, even if, even though, however, in spite of, just, merely, nevertheless, nonetheless, on the other hand, only, rather, simply, still, though, unlike, whilst, yet</i>	Although climate begins the process by making a shortage of food it does not determine whether this becomes a famine.
To correct a proposition		Climate should not be classified as the 'cause' of famine, but rather as a precipitating factor.
To limit the validity of a proposition		Most public buildings were associated with a religious aspect. However , there is also a secular dimension to these buildings.
To establish differences between two or more propositions		Unlike previous civilisations the Greeks were quite advanced in many sciences.
To express criticism of the proposition by finding its faults		The female supplements to male wages were crucial to survival even if they did somewhat undermine the official female position in society.
To agree with a proposition		I strongly agree with this view ... Naturally , this presents us with a further problem,
To make your voice/opinion present		In fact , the State, was known only in Western civilisation.
To confirm a proposition	Chappell points out that there is no evidence for this in the text itself.	

Similarly, the Entertain system can be broken down according to the functions of each subcategory as proposed and defined in this thesis (section 6.7). Thus, a student would be aware that by using, for example, the construction *it could be argued* sounds more impartial whereas with expressions such as *I believe* assumes a certain degree of responsibility for the proposition put forward while simultaneously presenting it as but one of a range of possible positions.

Table 9.2 Opening up the dialogic space to alternative views		
Function	Features	Example
To negotiate a proposition	<i>may, might, could perhaps, probably likely, possible</i>	Climate is perhaps the most appropriate place to start a discussion on famine.
To sound impartial	<i>It is/could/may/can be argued/suggested; we...; one...</i>	It can be argued that it was beyond their control.
To verify your position	<i>seem, appear, evidence suggests</i>	There appears to be evidence suggesting that the Egyptian culture was relatively open.
To take responsibility for the proposition	<i>mental verb + self-mention: I think, I believe, I'm convinced that</i>	I believe that Radcliffe's numerous descriptions of nature are stimulated by a nostalgia.
To postulate	<i>If, if...then,</i>	If all learning is simply a matter of recollection, then one already has knowledge
To question	<i>An expository question which does not require an actual answer.</i>	The question is, can corpus analysis give any insight into meaning?
To acknowledge a proposition	<i>accept, according to, acknowledge, add, admit, affirm, agree, agreement, argue, argument, assert, assertion, assign, assume, assumption, avoid, belief, believe, call, cite, claim, come up with, comment on, concede, conclude, conclusion, concur, confirm, consider, continue, counter, criticise, criticism, critique, decide, declare, define, definition, deny, describe, differentiate, disagree,</i>	According to Allen, the Meno indicates 'the conditions of inquiry under which alone moral conclusions may be properly reached.' Aristotle argues that the highest good is happiness/eudaimonia.

	<i>discover, dispute, distinction doubt away, draw attention to, emphasis, emphasise, explain, explanation, express, extends the idea, feel, find, for x, highlight, hint at, identify, ignore, imply, inform, insist, interpret, interpretation, look, maintain make clear, make the point, mean, mention, note, notice, objection, observe, own words, pinpoint, present, propose, put forward, put it, question, raise the point, refer, regard, reject, remind, report, reveal, say, see, speak of, state, stress, suggest, suggestion, sum up, summarise, summary, support, tell, theory, think, verbalise, view, wonder, write</i>	
To take a distance from a proposition	<i>claim</i>	Guthrie claims that the conclusion Socrates reaches is not the correct one.

9.5 CONTRIBUTIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

This study makes several notable contributions to the existing literature on undergraduate academic writing and disciplinary discourse in the Arts and Humanities. First and foremost, it contributes to the growing body of research on student writing from an SFL perspective by examining successful English L1 scripts, an area that has not been researched adequately. It further explores

discoursal changes across the three levels and investigates disciplinary variations, areas which have been seldom investigated in a single study.

Furthermore, by integrating function-to-form and form-to-function approaches and applying both qualitative and quantitative analyses, this study contributes to the methodological approaches to studying Engagement in academic writing, offering a comprehensive understanding of the rhetorical choices made by students. From a methodological perspective, it further tests the interpersonal system of Engagement and provides suggestions for possible refinements to its application in academic discourse.

Finally, the findings of the present study may have practical applications in EAP programmes, but they also provide a foundation for future research exploring a number of areas. Researchers might identify avenues for further exploring variations among other disciplinary groups, gender differences in the deployment of certain dialogic features and strategies or comparing undergraduate and post-graduate dialogic discourse.

Building on the insights gained from examining Engagement resources in this study and the expanded framework proposed, a number of suggestions for further research can be made. Future studies could further explore variations across additional disciplinary groups to uncover how these variations shape writing across disciplines. Comparative studies of larger datasets from one or more disciplines could examine the dialogic discourse of undergraduate and postgraduate students

and reveal developmental trends and shifts in rhetorical strategies that evolve with academic maturity. Such analyses may yield interesting insights into how writing expectations and conventions differ across educational stages, an area which was not particularly revealing in the current study, due to the limited sample size. Furthermore, gender differences in the deployment of dialogic features could be investigated to provide a richer understanding of how identity and voice are expressed in academic contexts. Finally, the expanded framework can be applied to other genres of academic writing, such as research articles or theses, allowing for a broader examination of Engagement resources and their impact on scholarly communication.

REFERENCES

- Aarts, J. and Granger, S. 1998. Tag sequences in learner corpora: A key to interlanguage grammar and discourse, in S. Granger (ed.), *Learner English on computer*, London: Addison Wesley Longman, pp. 132-141.
- Ädel, A., 2010. Just to give you kind of a map of where we are going: A taxonomy of metadiscourse in spoken and written academic English. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 9, 2, pp. 69-97.
- Ädel, A., 2022. Writer and reader visibility in humanities research articles: Variation across language, regional variety and discipline. *English for Specific Purposes*, 65, pp. 49-62.
- Ädel, A. and Garretson, G. 2006. "Citation practices across the disciplines: The case of proficient student writing". In M. C. Pérez-Llantada Auría, R. Pló Alastrué and C. P. Neumann, *Academic and Professional Communication in the 21st century: Genres, Rhetoric and the Construction of Disciplinary Knowledge*. Proceedings of the 5th International AELFE Conference, pp. 271-280.
- Aijmer, K., 2018. Corpus pragmatics: From form to function. In Jucker, A. H., Schneider, K. P., and Bublitz, W., (eds.). *Methods in pragmatics* (Vol. 10). Berlin: De Gruyter.
- Alba-Juez, L., and Thompson, G., 2014. The many faces and phases of evaluation. In G. Thompson and L. Alba-Juez (eds.). *Evaluation in Context*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 3-26.
- Alsop, S., and Nesi, H., 2009. Issues in the development of the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus. *Corpora*, 4, 1, pp. 71-83.
- Altenberg, B., and Tapper, M., 2014. The use of adverbial connectors in advanced Swedish learners' written English. In S. Granger (ed) *Learner English on computer*, pp. 80-93. London: Routledge.
- Andrews, R., 1995. *Teaching and learning argument*. London, NY: Cassell.
- Artstein, R., and Poesio, M. 2008. Inter-coder agreement for computational linguistics. *Computational linguistics*, 34, 4, pp. 555-596.
- Atkins, S., Clear, J., and Ostler, N., 1992. Corpus design criteria. *Literary and linguistic computing*, 7,1, pp. 1-16.
- Aull, L. L., 2015. *First-year university writing: A corpus-based study with implications for pedagogy*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Aull, L. L., and Lancaster, Z., 2014. Linguistic markers of stance in early and advanced academic writing: A corpus-based comparison. *Written communication*, 31, 2, pp. 151-183.
- Bakhtin, M. M., 1981. *The Dialogic Imagination*. Translated by C. Emerson and M. Holquist. Austin: University of Texas Press.
- Bakhtin, M., M., 1981/1935. *The dialogic imagination: four essays*. Translated by Caryl Emerson and Michael Holquist. Edited by Michael Holquist. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press.
- Barton, E., 1995. Contrastive and non-contrastive connectors. *Written Communication*, 12, 2, pp. 219-239.
- Bazerman, C., 1994. *Constructing experience*. Carbondale and Edwardsville: SIU Press.

- Becher, T., 1994. The significance of disciplinary differences. *Studies in Higher Education*, 19, 2, pp. 151-161.
- Becher, T., and Trowler, P., 2001. *Academic tribes and territories*. Buckingham: Open University Press.
- Bednarek, M., 2006. *Evaluation in media discourse: Analysis of a newspaper corpus*. London: Continuum.
- Bednarek, M., 2009. Language patterns and Attitude. *Functions of Language*, 16, 2, pp. 165-192.
- Bednarek, M., 2014. An astonishing season of destiny!. Evaluation in blurbs used for advertising TV series. In G. Thompson and L. Alba-Juez (eds.), *Evaluation in Context*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 197-220.
- Bell, D. M., 2007. Sentence-initial *and* and *but* in academic writing. *Pragmatics*. Quarterly Publication of the International Pragmatics Association (IPrA), 17, 2, pp. 183-201.
- Biber, D., 1993. Representativeness in corpus design. *Literary and linguistic computing*, 8(4), pp. 243-257.
- Biber, D., 2006. *University language: A corpus-based study of spoken and written registers*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Biber, D., and Conrad, S., 2005. Register variation: A corpus approach. *The handbook of discourse analysis*, pp.175-196.
- Biber, D. and Conrad, S., 2019. *Register, genre, and style*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Biber, D., Conrad, S., Reppen, R., Byrd, P., and Helt, M., 2002. Speaking and writing in the university: A multidimensional comparison. *TESOL quarterly*, 36, 1, pp. 9-48.
- Biber, D., and Finegan, E., 1989. Styles of stance in English: Lexical and grammatical marking of evidentiality and affect. *Text-interdisciplinary journal for the study of discourse*, 9, 1, pp. 93-124.
- Biber, D., Johansson, S., Leech, G., Finegan, E., and Conrad, S., 1999. *The Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English*. London: Longman.
- Bolton, K., Nelson, G., and Hung, J.A., 2003. A corpus- based study of connectors in student writing: Research from the International Corpus of English in Hong Kong (ICE- HK). *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 7, pp. 165–182.
- Bondi, M., 1999. *English Across Genres: Language Variation in the Discourse of Economics*. Modena: Fiorino.
- Bondi, M., 2004. The discourse function of contrastive connectors in academic abstracts. In Khalil, E. N., Jucker, A. H., Mey, J. L., and Verschueren, J. (eds) *Pragmatics and Beyond*. New Series, pp. 139-156.
- Bondi, M. 2018. Dialogicity in written language use: Variation across expert action games. In E. Weigand & I. Kecskes (eds.), *From pragmatics to dialogue*. (Vol. 31). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Bruce, I., 2016. Constructing critical stance in university essays in English literature and sociology. *English for Specific Purposes*, 42, pp. 13-25.
- Caldas-Coulthard, C. R., 2002. On reporting reporting: the representation of speech in factual and factional narratives. In Coulthard, M. (ed), *Advances in written text analysis*, pp. 309-322. London: Routledge.
- Caldas-Coulthard, C. R., Caldas-Coulthard, C. R., and Coulthard, M., 1995. *Texts and practices*. London: Routledge.

- Carretero, M., and Taboada, M., 2014. Graduation within the scope of Attitude in English and Spanish consumer reviews of books and movies. In G. Thompson and L. Alba-Juez (eds.), *Evaluation in Context*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 221-239.
- Chang, P., and Schleppegrell, M., 2011. Taking an effective authorial stance in academic writing: Making the linguistic resources explicit for L2 writers in the social sciences. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10, 3, pp. 140-151.
- Cheung, Y.L. and Low, T.H., 2019. Pre-university students' voice construction in argumentative essays. *RELC Journal*, 50(2), pp.269-284.
- Coates, J., 1983. *The semantics of the modal auxiliaries*. London: Croom Helm.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L., and Morrison, K., 2011. *Research Methods in Education*. London: Routledge
- Cominos, N., 2011. *Managing the subjective: exploring dialogistic positioning in undergraduate essays*. PhD Thesis. University of Adelaide.
- Chafe, W. L., and Nichols, J., (eds.). 1986. *Evidentiality: The linguistic coding of epistemology*, 20, pp. 261-312. Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Chandler, D., and Munday, R., 2016. *A dictionary of media and communication* (2nd ed.). Oxford: OUP.
- Charles, M., 2003. 'This mystery...': a corpus-based study of the use of nouns to construct stance in theses from two contrasting disciplines. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 4, pp. 313-326.
- Charles, M., 2006. Phraseological patterns in reporting clauses used in citation: A corpus-based study of theses in two disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 25, 3, pp. 310-331.
- Charles, M., 2011. Adverbials of result: Phraseology and functions in the Problem–Solution pattern. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 10, 1, pp. 47-60.
- Charles, M., Pecorari, D., and Hunston, S., (eds.). 2009. *Academic writing: At the interface of corpus and discourse*. London: Continuum.
- Coffin, C., 2002. The Voices of History: theorising the interpersonal semantics of historical discourses. *Text*, 22, 4, pp. 503–528.
- Coffin, C., 2004. Learning to write history: the role of causality. *Written Communication*, 21, 3, pp. 261–289.
- Coffin, C., 2006. *Historical Discourse*. London: Continuum.
- Coffin, C., Curry, M. J., Goodman, S., Hewings, A., Lillis, T., and Swann, J., 2005. *Teaching academic writing: A toolkit for higher education*. London: Routledge.
- Coffin, C., and Hewings, A., 2003. Writing for different disciplines. In C. Coffin, M. J. Curry, S. Goodman, A. Hewings, T. Lillis, and J. Swann, (eds.), *Teaching academic writing: A toolkit for higher education*, pp. 45-72. London: Routledge.
- Coffin, C., and O'halloran, K., 2005. Finding the global groove: Theorising and analysing dynamic reader positioning using APPRAISAL, corpus, and a concordancer. *Critical Discourse Studies*, 2, 2, pp. 143-163.
- Coffin, C., and O'Halloran, K., 2006. The role of appraisal and corpora in detecting covert evaluation. *Functions of language*, 13, 1, 77-110.

- Conrad, S., and Biber, D., 2000. Adverbial Marking of Stance in Speech and Writing. In S. Hunston, and G. Thompson (Eds.), *Evaluation in Text: Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse*, pp. 56-73. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Cozby, P. C., Bates, S. C., 2015 (12th ed.). *Methods in behavioural research*. New York: McGraw-Hill Education
- Crewe, W. J., 1990. The illogic of logical connectives, *ELT Journal*, 44, 4, pp. 316–325, <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/44.4.316>
- Crismore, A., 1989. *Talking with readers: Metadiscourse as rhetorical act*. New York: Peter Lang.
- Crismore, A., 1990. Metadiscourse and discourse processes: Interactions and issues. *Discourse processes*, 13, 2, pp. 191-205.
- Crosthwaite, P., Cheung, L. and Jiang, F.K., 2017. Writing with attitude: Stance expression in learner and professional dentistry research reports. *English for specific purposes*, 46, pp.107-123.
- Derewianka, B., 2007. Using appraisal theory to track interpersonal development in adolescent academic writing. In A. McCabe, M. O'Donnell, and R. Whittaker, (eds.). *Advances in language and education*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Don, A., 2017. Negation as part of the engagement framework: Explorations in the territory disclaim: Deny. *Occasional papers* 20. Bologna: Quaderni del CeSLiC.
- Drasovean, A., and Tagg, C., 2015. Evaluative language and its solidarity-building role on TED. com: An appraisal and corpus analysis. *Language@ Internet*, 12.
- Drury, H., 2001. Short answers in first-year undergraduate science writing. What kind of genres are they? In M. Hewings (ed.), *Academic Writing in Context: Implications and Applications*. Papers in Honor of Tony Dudley- Evans (pp. 104-121). Birmingham: University of Birmingham Press.
- Eckstein, G., Rawlins, J., Taylor, H., Briggs, Candland, A., Hanks, E., and Hill, S., 2022. Reporting verb variation across disciplines: An academic corpus study. *Journal of Academic Language and Learning*, 16, 1, pp. 59-75.
- Elbow, P., 1994. What do we mean when we talk about voice in texts. *Voices on voice: Perspectives, definitions, inquiry*, 1, pp.1-35.
- Englebretson, R., 2007. Stancetaking in discourse: An introduction. *Stancetaking in discourse: Subjectivity, evaluation, interaction*, 164, pp. 1-26.
- Fairclough, N., 1992. Discourse and text: Linguistic and intertextual analysis within discourse analysis. *Discourse & society*, 3, 2, pp. 193-217.
- Fakhrudin, W. F. W. W., and Hassan, H., 2015. A review of genre approaches within linguistic traditions. *LSP International Journal*, 2, 2, pp. 53-68. <https://doi.org/10.11113/lspi.v2n2.28>
- Fløttum, K., Dahl, T., and Kinn, T., 2006. *Academic voices: Across languages and disciplines*. (Vol. 148). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Francis, G., Hunston, S. and Manning, E., 1996. *Collins COBUILD Grammar Patterns 1: Verbs*. London: HarperCollins.
- Fraser, B., 1998. Contrastive discourse markers in English. In A.H. Jucker and Y. Ziv, (eds.). *Discourse Markers: Descriptions and theories*, pp. 301-326. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

- Fryer, D. L., 2012. Analysis of the generic discourse features of the English-language medical research article: A systemic-functional approach. *Functions of language*, 19, 1, pp. 5-37.
- Fryer, D. L., 2019. *Engagement in Medical Research Discourse. A Multisemiotic Discourse-Semantic Study of Dialogic Positioning*. PhD Thesis. University of Gothenburg.
- Fryer, D. L., 2022. *Engagement in medical research discourse: A multisemiotic approach to dialogic positioning*. London: Routledge.
- Fuoli, M., 2012. Assessing social responsibility: A quantitative analysis of Appraisal in BP's and IKEA's social reports. *Discourse & Communication*, 6, 1, pp. 55-81.
- Fuoli, M., 2018. A stepwise method for annotating APPRAISAL. *Functions of language*, 25, 2, pp. 229-258.
- Fuoli, M., and Hommerberg, C., 2015. Optimising transparency, reliability and replicability: Annotation principles and inter-coder agreement in the quantification of evaluative expressions. *Corpora*, 10, 3, pp. 315-349.
- Gardezi, S., A., and Nesi, H. (2009). Variations in the writings of Economics students in Britain and Pakistan. The case of conjunctive ties. In M. Charles., D. Pecorari., and S. Hunston (eds.), *Academic writing: At the interface of corpus and discourse*. London: Continuum.
- Gardner, S., 2008. Evaluation across disciplinary groups in university student writing: the critique genre family as texts and text. In *Proceedings of the BAAL Annual Conference*.
- Gardner, S., 2012. Genres and registers of student report writing: an SFL perspective on texts and practices. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes* 11, 1, pp. 52–63.
- Gardner, S., and Nesi, H., 2013. A Classification of Genre Families in University Student Writing. *Applied Linguistics* 2013: 34, 1, pp. 25–52.
- Gardner, S., Nesi, H. and Biber, D., 2019. Discipline, level, genre: Integrating situational perspectives in a new MD analysis of university student writing. *Applied Linguistics*, 40, 4, pp. 646–674.
- Geng, Y., 2015. *Appraisal in discussion sections of doctoral theses in the discipline of ELT/Applied Linguistics at Warwick University: A corpus-based analysis*. PhD Thesis. University of Warwick.
- Goźdz-Roszkowski, S., and Hunston, S., 2016. Corpora and beyond—investigating evaluation in discourse: introduction to the special issue on corpus approaches to evaluation. *Corpora*, 11, 2, pp. 131-141.
- Goulart, L., Biber, D., and Reppen, R., 2022. In this essay, I will...: Examining variation of communicative purpose in student written genres. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 59, pp. 101159.
- Gray, B. and Biber, D., 2014. Stance markers. In K. Aijmer, and C. Rühlemann, (eds.). *Corpus pragmatics: A handbook*, Cambridge: CUP.
- Groom, N., 2000. Attribution and averral revisited: Three perspectives on manifest intertextuality in academic writing. In P. Thompson (ed). *Patterns and perspectives: Insights into EAP writing practice*, Centre of Applied Language Studies, The University of Reading, pp.14-25.
- Halliday, M. A. K. 1961 Categories of the Theory of Grammar, *WORD*, 17:2, 241-292, DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1080/00437956.1961.11659756>

- Halliday, M. A. K., 2003/1993. Language in a changing world. In J.J. Webster (ed). *On language and linguistics*, Volume 3 in the collected works of M. A. K. Halliday. pp. 213–231. London: Continuum.
- Halliday, M. A. K., and Hasan, R., 1976. *Cohesion in English*. Hong Kong: Longman.
- Halliday, M.A.K., and Hasan, R., 1985. *Language context and text: Aspects of language in a social-semiotic perspective*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Halliday, M. A. K., and Matthiessen, C. M. I. M., 2004/2013. *Halliday's Introduction to Functional Grammar*, Taylor and Francis Group. ProQuest Ebook Central,
<https://ebookcentral.proquest.com/lib/bham/detail.action?docID=1323310>
- Hamp-Lyons, L., 2002. The scope of writing assessment. *Assessing writing*, 8(1), pp. 5-16.
- Harwood, N., 2005. 'Nowhere has anyone attempted... In this article I aim to do just that': A corpus-based study of self-promotional I and we in academic writing across four disciplines. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 37(8), pp.1207-1231.
- Hasselgren, A., Granger, S., Hung, J., and Petch-Tyson, S., 2002. Learner corpora and language testing. *Computer learner corpora, second language acquisition and foreign language teaching*, pp. 143-173.
- Herriman, J., 2009. Don't get me wrong! Negation in argumentative writing by Swedish and British students and professional writers. *Nordic Journal of English Studies*, 8, 3, pp. 117-140.
- Heuboeck, A., Holmes, J., and Nesi, H., 2010. The BAWE Corpus Manual for the project entitled "An investigation of genres of assessed writing in British Higher Education". *Funded by the ESRC [project number RES-000-23-0800] Version III*. Retrieved from <http://www.coventry.ac.uk/bawe>
- Hewings, A., 2004. Developing discipline-specific writing: An analysis of undergraduate geography essays. In L. J. Ravelli and R. A. Ellis (eds.), *Analysing Academic Writing: Contextualised Frameworks*, pp.104-130. London: Continuum.
- Hewings, M., Thaine, C. and McCarthy, M., 2012. *Cambridge Academic English C1 Advanced Student's Book: An Integrated Skills Course for EAP*. Cambridge University Press.
- Hirvela, A., and Du, Q., 2013. "Why am I paraphrasing?": Undergraduate ESL writers' engagement with source-based academic writing and reading. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 12(2), pp. 87-98.
- Holquist, M., 2003. *Dialogism: Bakhtin and his world*. London: Routledge.
- Hommerberg, C., and Don, A., 2015. Appraisal and the language of wine appreciation: A critical discussion of the potential of the Appraisal framework as a tool to analyse specialised genres. *Functions of Language*, 22, 2, 161-191
- Hood, S., 2004. *Appraising Research: Taking a stance in academic writing*. PhD Thesis. University of Technology, Sydney.
- Hood, S., 2006. The persuasive power of prosodies: Radiating values in academic writing. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 5, 1, pp. 37-49.
- Hood, S., 2010. *Appraising research: Evaluation in academic writing*. NY: Springer.

- Hu, G., and Cao, F., 2015. Disciplinary and paradigmatic influences on interactional metadiscourse in research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 39, pp. 12-25.
- Hu, G., and Wang, G., 2014. Disciplinary and ethnolinguistic influences on citation in research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 14, pp. 14-28.
- Hunston, S., 1989. *Evaluation in experimental research articles*. PhD Thesis. University of Birmingham.
- Hunston, S., 1993. Evaluation and ideology in scientific discourse. In M. Ghadessy (ed.). *Register analysis: Theory and practice*, pp. 57-73. London: Pinter.
- Hunston, S., 1994. Evaluation and organization in a sample of written academic discourse. In Coulthard, M. (ed.) *Advances in written text analysis*, pp. 191-218. London: Routledge.
- Hunston, S., 1995. A corpus study of some English verbs of attribution. *Functions of language*, 2(2), pp. 133-158.
- Hunston, S., 2000. Evaluation and the planes of discourse: Status and value in persuasive texts. In S. Hunston and G. Thompson (eds.), *Evaluation in Text: Authorial stance and the construction of discourse*, pp. 176-208. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hunston, S., 2002. Pattern grammar, language teaching, and linguistic variation. In R. Reppen, S. Fitzmaurice and D. Biber (eds) *Using corpora to explore linguistic variation*, 167-183. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Hunston, S., 2004. Counting the uncountable: Problems of identifying evaluation in a text and in a corpus. *Corpora and discourse*, 9, pp. 157-188.
- Hunston, S., 2007. Using a corpus to investigate stance quantitatively and qualitatively. *Stancetaking in discourse: Subjectivity, evaluation, interaction*, 164, pp. 27-48.
- Hunston, S., 2011. *Corpus approaches to evaluation: Phraseology and evaluative language*. London: Routledge.
- Hunston, S., and Francis, G., 2000. *Pattern grammar: A corpus-driven approach to the lexical grammar of English* (No. 4). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Hunston, S. and Thompson, G., 2000, (eds.). *Evaluation in Text: Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hyland, K., 1996. Writing without conviction? Hedging in science research articles. *Applied linguistics*, 17, 4, pp. 433-454.
- Hyland, K., 1999. Academic attribution: Citation and the construction of disciplinary knowledge. *Applied linguistics*, 20, 3, pp. 341-367.
- Hyland, K., 1999. Disciplinary discourses: writer stance in research articles. In C. Candlin and K. Hyland (eds), *Writing: texts, processes and practices*, pp. 99-121. London: Longman.
- Hyland, K., 2000. Hedges, boosters and lexical invisibility: Noticing modifiers in academic texts. *Language awareness*, 9, 4, pp. 179-197.
- Hyland, K., 2001. Humble servants of the discipline? Self-mention in research articles. *English for specific purposes*, 20, 3, pp. 207-226.
- Hyland, K., 2002. What do they mean? Questions in academic writing. *Text*, 22(4): pp. 529-557.
- Hyland, K., 2004a. *Disciplinary discourses*, Michigan classics ed.: Social interactions in academic writing. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.

- Hyland, K., 2004b. Disciplinary interactions: Metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13, pp.133-151.
- Hyland, K., 2005. *Metadiscourse: Exploring interaction in writing*. London: Continuum.
- Hyland, K., 2010. Constructing proximity: Relating to readers in popular and professional science. *Journal of English for academic purposes*, 9, 2, pp. 116-127.
- Hyland, K., 2017. Metadiscourse: What is it and where is it going? *Journal of pragmatics*, 113, pp. 16-29.
- Hyland, K., and Diani, G., (eds.). 2009. *Academic evaluation: Review genres in university settings*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Hyland, K., and Jiang, F., 2016. Change of attitude? A diachronic study of stance. *Written communication*, 33, 3, pp. 251-274.
- Hyland, K., and Jiang, F. K., 2018. "In this paper we suggest": Changing patterns of disciplinary metadiscourse. *English for Specific Purposes*, 51, pp. 18-30.
- Hyland, K., and Tse, P., 2004. Metadiscourse in academic writing: A reappraisal. *Applied linguistics*, 25, 2, pp. 156-177.
- Iedema, R., 1995. Political newsreporting: The media as 'secondary orality'. *Social Semiotics*, 5, 1, pp. 65-99.
- Iedema, R., Feez, S., and White, P., 1994. Appraisal and journalistic discourse. *Media literacy*, pp. 1-31.
- Ivanič, R. and Camps, D., 2001. I am how I sound: Voice as self-representation in L2 writing. *Journal of second language writing*, 10(1-2), pp.3-33.
- Jucker, A., and Ziv, Y., 1998. Discourse markers: Introduction. In A. Jucker and Y. Ziv (eds). *Discourse Markers. Description and Theory*, pp. 1–12. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Jucker, A. Schneider K. P. and Bublitz W., 2018, (eds). *Methods in Pragmatics*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Kilgarriff, A., Baisa, V., Bušta, J., Jakubíček, M., Kovář, V., Michelfeit, J., Rychlý, P., and Suchomel, V., 2014. The Sketch Engine: ten years on. *Lexicography*, 1, pp. 7-36.
- Kilgarriff, A., Rychlý, P., Smrž, P., Tugwell, D., 2004. The Sketch Engine. *Proceedings of the 11th EURALEX International Congress*, pp. 105-116.
- Kopple, W. J. V., 1985. Some exploratory discourse on metadiscourse. *College composition and communication*, pp. 82-93.
- Krippendorff, K., 2004. Reliability in content analysis: Some common misconceptions and recommendations. *Human communication research*, 30, 3, pp. 411-433.
- Kuhn, T. S. (1997). *The structure of scientific revolutions* (Vol. 962). Chicago: University of Chicago press.
- Kunz, K., and Lapshinova-Koltunski, E., 2014. Cohesive conjunctions in English and German: Systemic contrasts and textual differences. In L. Vandelanotte, K. Davidse, and C. Gentens (eds). *Recent advances in corpus linguistics*, pp. 229-262. Leiden: De Gruyter Brill.
- Lave, J., and Wenger, E., 1991 *Situated Learning. Legitimate peripheral participation*, Cambridge: University of Cambridge Press.

- Lea, M. R., and Street, B. V., 1998. Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach. *Studies in higher education*, 23, 2, pp. 157-172.
- Lakoff, R., 1971. If, ands and buts about conjunction. In C. J. Fillmore and D. T. Langendoen, (eds). *Studies in Linguistic Semantics*, pp. 114–149. New York: Holt, Reinhart and Winston.
- Lakoff, G., 1973. Hedges: A study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts. *Journal of philosophical logic*, 2, 4, pp. 458-508.
- Lam, S.L. and Crosthwaite, P., 2018. Appraisal resources in L1 and L2 argumentative essays: A contrastive learner corpus-informed study of evaluative stance. *Journal of Corpora and Discourse Studies*, 1(1), pp.8-35.
- Lancaster, Z., 2011. Interpersonal stance in L1 and L2 students' argumentative writing in economics: Implications for faculty development in WAC/WID programs. *Across the Disciplines*, 8, 4, pp. 1-23.
- Lancaster, Z., 2012. *Stance and reader positioning in upper-level student writing in political theory and economics*. PhD Thesis. University of Michigan.
- Lancaster, Z., 2014. Exploring valued patterns of stance in upper-level student writing in the disciplines. *Written Communication*, 31, 1, pp. 27-57.
- Lancaster, Z., 2016. Expressing stance in undergraduate writing: Discipline-specific and general qualities. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 23, pp. 16-30.
- Lea, M. R., and Street, B. V., 1998. Student writing in higher education: An academic literacies approach. *Studies in higher education*, 23, 2, pp. 157-172.
- Lee, S. H., 2008. An integrative framework for the analyses of argumentative/persuasive essays from an interpersonal perspective. *Text & Talk*, 28, 2, pp. 239-270.
- Lee, S. H., 2010. Attribution in high-and low-graded persuasive essays by tertiary students. *Functions of Language*, 17, 2, pp. 181-206.
- Lee, S. H., 2015. Evaluative stances in persuasive essays by undergraduate students: Focusing on APPRECIATION resources. *Text & Talk*, 35, 1, pp. 49-76.
- Lee, J. J., and Deakin, L., 2016. Interactions in L1 and L2 undergraduate student writing: Interactional metadiscourse in successful and less-successful argumentative essays. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 33, pp. 21-34.
- Lemke, J. L., 1992. Intertextuality and educational research. *Linguistics and education*, 4, pp. 257-67.
- Li, T., and Wharton, S., 2012. Metadiscourse repertoire of L1 Mandarin undergraduates writing in English: A cross-contextual, cross-disciplinary study. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11, 4, pp. 345-356.
- Lillis, T., 1997. New voices in academia? The regulative nature of academic writing conventions. *Language and Education*, 11, 3, pp. 182-199.
- Liu, D., 2008. Linking adverbials: An across-register corpus study and its implications. *International journal of corpus linguistics*, 13, 4, pp. 491-518.
- Liu, S., 2014. Engaging with Dialogic Alternatives in ESL Argumentative Essays: Systemic Functional Linguistic and Teacher Perspectives. PhD Thesis. McGill University. Montreal.

- Liu, X., and Thompson, P., 2009. Attitude in students' argumentative writing: A contrastive perspective. *University of Reading Language Studies Working Papers*, 1, pp. 3-15.
- Liu, X., 2013. Evaluation in Chinese University EFL Students' English Argumentative Writing: An APPRAISAL Study. *Electronic Journal of Foreign Language Teaching*, 10, 1, pp. 40–53.
- Liu, X., McCabe, A., 2018. *Attitudinal Evaluation in Chinese University Students' English Writing: A Contrastive Perspective*, Springer, eBook
<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-6415-9>
- Loghmani, Z., Ghonsooly, B., and Ghazanfari, M., 2020. Engagement in doctoral dissertation discussion sections written by English native speakers. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 45, 100851, pp. 1-12.
- Lyons, J., 1977. *Semantics*. Cambridge: CUP.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511620614.010>
- Macken-Horarik, M., 2003. Appraisal and the special instructiveness of narrative. *Text & Talk*, 23, 2, pp. 285-312.
- Macken-Horarik, M., and Isaac, A., 2014. Appraising appraisal. In G. Thompson and L. Alba-Juez (eds.). *Evaluation in Context*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 67-92.
- Mann, W. C., and Thompson, S. A., 1988. Rhetorical structure theory: Toward a functional theory of text organization. *Text-interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse*, 8, 3, pp. 243-281.
- Martin, J.R., 1992. *English Text, System and Structure*. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Martin, J. R., 1997. Analysing genre: Functional parameters. In F. Christie and J. R. Martin (eds) *Genre and institutions: Social processes in the workplace and school*. London: Bloomsbury, pp. 3-39.
- Martin, J. R., 2000. 'Beyond exchange: appraisal systems in English'. In S. Hunston, and G. Thompson (eds), 2000. *Evaluation in Text. Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press, pp. 142-75.
- Martin, J.R., 2008. What kind of structure?—interpersonal meaning and prosodic realization across strata, *Word*, 59:1-2, pp. 111-141, DOI:10.1080/00437956.2008.11432583.
- Martin, J. R., Matthiessen, M. I. M., and Painter, C., 1997. *Working with Functional Grammar*. London and New York: Hodder Headland Group.
- Martin, J. R., and Plum, G., 1997. Construing experience: Some story genres. *Journal of narrative and life history*, 7, 1-4, pp. 299-308.
- Martin, J. R., and Rose, D., 2007. Interacting with text: The role of dialogue in learning to read and write. *Foreign Languages in China*, 4, 5, pp. 66-80.
- Martin, J. R. and Rose, D., 2003. *Working with Discourse: Meaning Beyond the Clause*. London: Continuum.
- Martin, J. R., and White, P. R., 2005. *The language of evaluation*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Matthiessen, C. M. I. M., 2006. Frequency profiles of some basic grammatical systems: An interim report. *System and corpus: Exploring connections*, pp. 103-142.

- Mauranen, A., and Bondi, M., 2003. Evaluative language use in academic discourse. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 4, pp. 269-271.
- Meng, M., and Li, X., 2010. A corpus-based study of ENGAGEMENT resources in English research papers of Chinese and NSE authors. *Foreign Language Research*, 153, 2, pp. 55-58.
- Millar, N., and Hunston, S., 2015. Adjectives, communities, and taxonomies of evaluative meaning. *Functions of Language*, 22, 3, pp. 297-331.
- Miller, R. T., Mitchell, T. D., and Pessoa, S., 2014. Valued voices: Students' use of Engagement in argumentative history writing. *Linguistics and Education*, 28, pp. 107-120.
- Milton, J. C., and Tsang, E. S. C., 1993. A corpus-based study of logical connectors in EFL students' writing: Directions for future research. In *Studies in lexis. Proceedings of a seminar on lexis organized by the Language Centre of the HKUST*, Language Centre, HKUST, Hong Kong.
- Mitchell, T. D., Miller, R. T., and Pessoa, S., 2016. Longitudinal changes in use of engagement in university history writing: A case study. *Multiperspective studies of language: Theory and application*, pp. 153-163.
- Myers, G., 1989. The pragmatics of politeness in scientific articles. *Applied linguistics*, 10, 1, pp. 1-35.
- Nesi, H., 2011. BAWE: An introduction to a new resource. *New trends in corpora and language learning*, pp. 213-228.
- Nesi, H., and Gardner, S., 2012. *Genres across the disciplines: Student writing in higher education*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Nesi, H., and Gardner, S. 2017. Stance in the BAWE Corpus: New Revelations from Multidimensional Analysis. In *Corpus Linguistics 2017 Conference (July)*, University of Birmingham, pp. 25-28.
- Nesi, H., Gardner, S., Forsyth, R., Hindle, D., Wickens, P., Ebeling, S., Leedham, M., Thompson, P., and Heuboeck, A., 2005. Towards the compilation of a corpus of assessed student writing: an account of work in progress. *Proceedings from the Corpus Linguistics Conference Series*, 1(1). URL: <http://www.birmingham.ac.uk/research/activity/corpus/publications/confere-nce-archives/2005-conf-e-journal.aspx>
- Nesi, H. and Thompson, P., 2019. *Using Sketch Engine with BAWE. Version III*. Retrieved from : <https://www.sketchengine.eu/wp-content/uploads/Using-Sketch-Engine-with-BAWE.html>. Accessed 19/8/2019.
- Nystrand, M., 1987. The role of context in written communication. In R., Horowitz and S. J. Samuels (eds). *Comprehending oral and written language*, pp. 197-214. Brill,[e-book].
- Ochs, E., and Schieffelin, B., 1989. Language has a heart. *Text-Interdisciplinary Journal for the Study of Discourse*, 9, 1, pp. 7-26.
- O'Donnell, M., 2008. UAM corpus tool. *Universidad Autónoma de Madrid*. Retrieved from www.wagsoft.com/CorpusTool
- O'Donnell, M., 2008. The UAM CorpusTool: Software for corpus annotation and exploration. *Proceedings of the XXVI Congreso de AESLA* 3, 5.
- O'Keefe, A., 2018. Corpus-based function-to-form approaches. In A. H. Jucker, K. P. Schneider and W. Bublitz, (eds). *Methods in Pragmatics*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter, pp. 587-618.

- Oliver, S., 2015. Spanish authors dealing with hedging or the challenges of scholarly publication in English L2. *English as a Scientific and Research Language: Debates and Discourses*, 3, 141.
- Pagano, A., 2002. Negatives in written text. In Coulthard, M. (ed). *Advances in written text analysis*, pp. 264-279. London: Routledge.
- Page, R. E., 2003. An analysis of APPRAISAL in childbirth narratives with special consideration of gender and storytelling style. *Text & Talk*, 23, 2, pp. 211-237.
- Painter, C., 2003. Developing attitude: An ontogenetic perspective on APPRAISAL. *Text & Talk*, 23, 2, pp. 183-209.
- Palmer, F. R. 1986. *Mood and Modality*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Park-Fuller, L.M., 1986. Voices: Bakhtin's heteroglossia and polyphony, and the performance of narrative literature. *Text and Performance Quarterly*, 7(1), pp.1-12.
- Pecorari, D., 2006. Visible and occluded citation features in postgraduate second-language writing. *English for specific purposes*, 25, 1, pp. 4-29.
- Pessoa, S., Miller, R. T., and Kaufer, D., 2014. Students' challenges and development in the transition to academic writing at an English-medium university in Qatar. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, 52, 2, pp. 127-156.
- Pessoa, S., Miller, R., and Gatti, N., 2013. Different trajectories to undergraduate literacy development: Student experiences and texts. In *Qatar Foundation Annual Research Forum*. Volume 2013. Issue 1, pp. SSHO-09). Doha: Hamad bin Khalifa University Press (HBKU Press).
- Pickard, V., 1995. Citing previous writers: What can we say instead of 'say'?. *Hong Kong papers in linguistics and language teaching*, 18, pp. 89–102. Retrieved from: <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED390262.pdf>.
- Pöldvere, N., De Felice, R., and Paradis, C., 2022 *Advice in conversation: Corpus pragmatics meets mixed methods*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech, G., and Svartvik, J., 1985. *A comprehensive grammar of the English language*. London: Longman.
- Rothery, J., and Stenglin, M., 2000. Interpreting literature: The role of appraisal. In L. Unsworth (ed.), *Researching language in schools and communities: Functional linguistic perspectives*, pp. 222–244. London: Cassell.
- Rühlemann, C., and Aijmer, K., 2015. Corpus pragmatics: Laying the foundations. In Aijmer, K., and Rühlemann, C. (eds.). *Corpus Pragmatics: A handbook* (pp. 1–28). Cambridge: CUP.
- Ruiying, Y., and Allison, D., 2003. Research articles in applied linguistics: Moving from results to conclusions. *English for specific purposes*, 22(4), pp. 365-385.
- Ryshina-Pankova, M., 2014. Exploring academic argumentation in course-related blogs through ENGAGEMENT. In G. Thompson and L. Alba-Juez (eds.), *Evaluation in Context*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 281-302.
- Schleppegrell, M. J., 2004. *The language of schooling: A functional linguistics perspective*. London: Routledge.
- Shaw, P., 1992. Reasons for the correlation of voice, tense, and sentence function in reporting verbs. *Applied linguistics*, 13, 3, pp. 302-319.

- Shaw, P., 1998. Patterns of argument in published articles in literary studies. In L. Lundquist, H. Picht, and J. Qvistgaard (eds.), *LSP identity and interface: Research, knowledge and society*. Proceedings of XI LSP Symposium Copenhagen, August 1997 Copenhagen: Copenhagen Business School.
- Shaw, P., 2009. Linking adverbials in student and professional writing in literary studies: What makes writing mature. In M., Charles, S., Hunston, and D. Pecorari, (eds.). *Academic writing: At the interface of corpus and discourse*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing, pp. 215-235.
- Sinclair, A., 1989. This is an article about Archaeology as writing. *Archaeological Review from Cambridge*, 8:2.
- Sinclair, J., 1991. *Corpus, Concordance, Collocation*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Sperling, M. and Appleman, D., 2011. Voice in the context of literacy studies. *Reading research quarterly*, 46(1), pp.70-84.
- Spooren, W., and Degand, L., 2010. Coding coherence relations: Reliability and validity. *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory*, 6, 2, pp. 241-266. <https://doi.org/10.1515/cllt.2010.009>
- Staples, S., Egbert, J., Biber, D. and Gray, B., 2016. Academic writing development at the university level: Phrasal and clausal complexity across level of study, discipline, and genre. *Written Communication*. 33, 2, pp. 149–183.
- Staples, S., and Reppen, R., 2016. Understanding first-year L2 writing: A lexico-grammatical analysis across L1s, genres, and language ratings. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 32, pp. 17-35.
- Stotesbury, H., 2003. Evaluation in research article abstracts in the narrative and hard sciences. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 4, pp. 327-341.
- Sun, S. A., and Crosthwaite, P., 2022. “The findings might not be generalizable”: Investigating negation in the limitations sections of PhD theses across disciplines. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 59, 101155.
- Swain, E., 2007. Constructing an effective ‘voice’ in academic discussion writing: an appraisal theory perspective. In McCabe, A., O'Donnell, M., and Whittaker, R., (eds.). *Advances in language and education*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing, pp. 166-184.
- Swain, E., 2010. Getting engaged: Dialogistic positioning in novice academic discussion writing. In E. Swain (ed.), *Thresholds and potentialities of systemic functional linguistics: Multilingual, multimodal and other specialised discourses*, pp. 291-317. Trieste: EUT Edizioni Università di Trieste. Retrieved from <http://hdl.handle.net/10077/3647/EUT>
- Swales, J., 1986. Citation analysis and discourse analysis. *Applied linguistics*, 7, 1, pp. 39-56.
- Swales, J., 1987. Approaching the Concept of Discourse Community. Retrieved from <https://www.learntechlib.org/p/139822/> on 04/04/2020.
- Swales, J. M., 1990. *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Swales, J. M., 1996. Occluded genres in the academy. *Academic writing*, pp. 45, 58.
- Swales, J., M., 2016. Reflections on the concept of discourse community. Retrieved from: <http://journals.openedition.org/asp/4774> on 19/04/2019.

- Swales, J.M. and Feak, C.B., 2004. *Academic writing for graduate students: Essential tasks and skills* (Vol. 1). Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Sweetser, E., 2002/1990. *From Etymology to Pragmatics Metaphorical and Cultural Aspects of Semantic Structure* (Vol. 54). Cambridge: CUP.
- Taboada, M., and Carretero, M., 2012. Contrastive analyses of evaluation in text: Key issues in the design of an annotation system for attitude applicable to consumer reviews in English and Spanish. *Linguistics & the Human Sciences*, 6.
- Tadros, A., 1993. The pragmatics of text averral and attribution in academic texts. In M. Hoey, (ed.). *Data, description, discourse. Papers on English Language in Honour of John Sinclair*. London: HarperCollins, pp. 98-114.
- Tang, R. and John, S., 1999. The 'I' in identity: Exploring writer identity in student academic writing through the first person pronoun. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18, pp.S23-S39.
- Tang, R., 2009. A dialogic account of authority in academic writing. In M. Charles, D. Pecorari, and S. Hunston, S. (Eds.) *Academic writing: At the interface of corpus and discourse*. London: Continuum. pp.170-190.
- Thompson, G., 2001. Interaction in academic writing: Learning to argue with the reader. *Applied linguistics*, 22, 1, pp. 58-78.
- Thompson, G., 2008. Review of Metadiscourse: Exploring Interaction in Writing, by K. Hyland. *Language in Society*, 37, 1, pp. 138–141.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/20108104>
- Thompson, G., 2014. Affect and emotion, target-value mismatches, and Russian dolls. In G. Thompson and L. Alba-Juez (eds.), *Evaluation in context*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, pp. 47-66.
- Thompson, G., and Hunston, S., (eds.) 2006. *System and corpus: Exploring connections*. London: Equinox.
- Thompson, P., and Tribble, C., 2001. Looking at citations: Using corpora in English for Academic Purposes. *Language Learning & Technology*, 5, 3, pp. 91-105.
- Thompson, G., and Ye, Y., 1991. Evaluation in the reporting verbs used in academic papers. *Applied linguistics*, 12, 4, pp. 365-382.
- Thompson, G. and Zhou, J. L., 2000. Evaluation and organization in text: The structuring role of evaluative disjunct's in S. Hunston and G. Thompson (eds). *Evaluation in Text: Authorial Stance and the Construction of Discourse*. Oxford: Oxford University Press
- Thompson, P., 2001. *A pedagogically-motivated corpus-based examination of PhD theses: Macrostructure, citation practices and uses of modal verbs*. PhD Thesis. University of Reading.
- Thompson, P., 2002. Manifesting intertextuality in the PhD thesis. *Revista Canaria De Estudios Ingleses*, 44; pp. 97-114
- Thompson, P., 2012. Achieving a voice of authority in PhD theses. In Hyland, K. and Guinda, C.S. eds., *Stance and voice in written academic genres*, pp. 119-133. London: Palgrave Macmillan UK.
- Tottie, G., 1991. Lexical diffusion in syntactic change: Frequency as a determinant of linguistic conservatism in the development of negation in English. *Historical English syntax*, pp. 439-467.

- Tucker, P., 2003. Evaluation in the art-historical research article. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 2, 4, pp. 291-312.
- Tupala, M., 2019. Applying quantitative appraisal analysis to the study of institutional discourse: the case of EU migration documents. *Functional Linguistics*, 6, 1, 2.
- Uba, S. Y., 2020. Semantic Categories of Reporting Verbs across Four Disciplines in Research Articles. *English Language Teaching*, 13, 1, pp. 89-98.
- Voloshinov, V. N., 1994. *Bakhtinian Thought-an Introductory Reader*. Translated by S. Dentith, L. Matejka and I. R. Titunik. London: Routledge.
- Voloshinov, V. N. 1995. *Marxism and the Philosophy of Language*. Bakhtinian Thought-an Introductory Reader. Translated by S. Dentith, L. Matejka and I. R. Titunik. London: Routledge.
- Wang, J., 2011. *Contrastive connectors in English and Chinese: a corpus-based study*. PhD Thesis. The University of Auckland.
- Warchał, K., 2010. Moulding interpersonal relations through conditional clauses: Consensus-building strategies in written academic discourse. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 9, 2, pp. 140-150.
- Webber, P., 1994. The function of questions in different medical journal genres. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13, 3, pp. 257-268.
- Webber, P., 2004. Negation in linguistics papers. In G. Del Lungo Camiciotti, and E. Tognini-Bonelli (eds.). *Academic discourse: New insights into evaluation*, Amsterdam: Peter Lang, pp. 181-202
- White, P. R. R., 1998. Telling Media Tales: The News Story as Rhetoric. PhD. Thesis. University of Sydney.
- White, P. R. R., 2003. Beyond modality and hedging: A dialogic view of the language of intersubjective stance. *Text & Talk*, 23, 2, pp. 259-284.
- White, P.R.R., 2008. Praising and blaming, applauding and disparaging – solidarity, audience positioning, and the linguistics of evaluative disposition. In Antos, G and Ventola, E., (eds), *Handbook of Interpersonal Communication*. Berlin & New York: Mouton de Gruyter, pp 542-567 (word version downloaded from <https://www.prrwhite.info/new-page-2b.html>, pp. 1-38).
- White, P.R.R., 2012. Exploring the axiological workings of ‘reporter voice’ news stories—Attribution and attitudinal positioning. *Discourse, Context & Media*, 1, 2-3, pp. 57-67.
- White, P.R.R., 2015. Appraisal theory. In: Ilie C and Sandel T (eds) *The International Encyclopedia of Language and Social Interaction*. Hoboken, NJ: Wiley, pp. 1-7.
- White, P.R.R., 2020. The Appraisal website: www.grammatics.com/appraisal (last update): 01/01/2020 <http://languageofevaluation.info/appraisal/>
- Wingate, U., 2012. ‘Argument!’ helping students understand what essay writing is about. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 11, 2, pp. 145-154.
- Wingate, U., and Tribble, C., 2012. The best of both worlds? Towards an English for Academic Purposes/Academic Literacies writing pedagogy. *Studies in higher education*, 37, 4, pp. 481-495.
- Wu, S. M., 2005. *Investigating evaluative language in undergraduate argumentative essays*. PhD Thesis. National University of Singapore.

- Wu, S. M., 2006. Creating a contrastive rhetorical stance: Investigating the strategy of problematization in students' argumentation. *RELC Journal*, 37, 3, pp.329-353.
- Wu, S. M., 2007. The use of engagement resources in high-and low-rated undergraduate geography essays. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 6, 3, pp. 254-271.
- Wu, S. M., and Allison, D., 2003. Exploring appraisal in claims of student writers in argumentative essays. *Prospect*, 18, 3, pp. 71-91.
- Wu S. M., and Allison, D., 2005. Evaluative expressions in analytical arguments: Aspects of Appraisal in assigned English Language essays. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2, 1.
- Xiang, P., and Xiao, D., 2009. A study on ENGAGEMENT resources in Chinese EFL college learners' English argumentative writing. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, 241, 4, pp. 22-26.
- Yang, Y., 2016. Appraisal resources in Chinese college students' English argumentative writing. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 7, 5, pp.1002-1013.
- Yuliana, D., and Gandana, I. S. S., 2018. Writers' voice and engagement strategies in students' analytical exposition texts. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 7, 3, pp. 613-620.
- Zhang, W. Y., and Cheung, Y. L., 2017. Understanding ENGAGEMENT resources in constructing voice in research articles in the fields of computer networks and communications and second language writing. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 13, 3, pp. 72-99.
- Yu, D, Li, L, Su, H. and Fuoli, M., 2024. Assessing the potential of LLM-assisted annotation for corpus-based pragmatics and discourse analysis: The case of apologies. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*.
<https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.23087.yu>

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A-THE AH123 CORPUS METADATA

<p style="text-align: center;">Table A The AH123 corpus metadata</p> <p>All essays are from the Arts and Humanities, by English L1 writers and under 'Essay' 'Essay+Essay', 'Essay+Essay+Essay' genre in BAWE</p>								
No	ID	Discipline	Module	Year	Title	Words	Grade	Gender
1	6032b	Archaeology	Historic Archaeology	1	How are the functions of Roman towns reflected in the Archaeological record? Discuss with reference to specific sites.	2112	M	f
2	6118b	Archaeology	Bones, Bodies and Burials	1	What can the scientific study of mummies tell us about the life style and beliefs of the ancient Egyptians?	1870	M	f
3	6060c	Classics	5th Century Athens	1	How did the Greeks construct Greek and non-Greek identity?	1417	M	f
4	6182b	Classics	Rome in the Augustan Age	1	Virgil, Aeneid, 'How is love presented in the extracts?'	1046	D	f
5	0267a	Comparative American Studies	Latin American Themes and Problems	1	What caused the Wars of Independence?	2069	D	m
6	0322b	Comparative American Studies	Latin American Themes and Problems	1	Examine the function of magic in Gabriel Garcia Marquez's 'One Hundred Years of Solitude'	1957	M	m
7	3005b	English	Texts, Problems and Approaches	1	Explore Shakespeare's handling of the conventions of tragedy in Othello, and the tragedy of Desdemona	2117	M	f
8	3108b	English	aspects of European renaissance literature	1	How important is Montaigne's preface 'to the reader' for our appreciation of any two or more chapters of the essays?	2304	D	f
9	0129e	History	The Making of the Modern World	1	To what extent did the Romantic Movement pave the way for modern environmentalism?	2164	M	m
10	0098a	History	The Making of the Modern World	1	'Famines in India have been caused primarily by government policies.' Discuss.	1792	M	m
11	6018b	Linguistics	Language in the Individual and Society	1	What is the effect of the social variables of gender and class on the way we speak? Is there a link between them?	1945	M	m
12	6055d	Linguistics	Introduction to Clinical Studies	1	The study of linguistics is essential to speech and language pathology. Discuss this statement with reference to two communication disorders.	2105	D	f
13	0285b	Philosophy	Locke	1	In connection with the Second Meditation, Hobbes said it was possible that something that thinks should be something corporeal. Do Descartes' arguments succeed in ruling this possibility out?	1075	M	m
14	0215b	Philosophy	Introduction to Ancient Philosophy	1	Does the Meno show that virtue is teachable?	2403	D	f
15	6204b	Archaeology	Later Prehistoric Europe	2	HOW HAVE ARCHAEOLOGISTS ACCOUNTED FOR THE DEPOSITION OF METALLURGY (IN BOTH WET AND DRY CONTEXTS) IN EUROPE?	2914	M	m
16	6121a	Archaeology	Archaeological Thought	2	Compare and contrast the approach to structure and agency adopted by Giddens and Bourdieu. What can their approaches offer archaeology?	1323	M	m

17	0130c	Comparative American Studies	Pre-Colombian and Spanish America	2	How did religious belief influence and interact with Inca imperial expansion, ca. 1430-1530?	1800	D	m
18	0244h	Comparative American Studies	North America: Themes and Problems	2	Why Did the Political Accommodation between the North and the South Break Down in the 1850's?	1789	M	f
19	6066d	Classics	Roman Republic	2	Was Rome an aggressive imperialist power?	2309	D	m
20	6073d	Classics	Greek History: Archaic Age to Alexander	2	What effect, if any, did the Peloponnesian War have on either Athenian or Spartan Society?	2008	M	m
21	3001d	English	Romantic core	2	Manfred desires "Forgetfulness...of that which is within me." With reference to at least two texts on the course, discuss the ways in which Gothic writing explores the category of subjectivity in the Romantic era.	2397	M	f
22	3080e	English	Romantic core	2	Discuss the representation and use of childhood in literature of the Romantic Period	2608	M	f
23	0010d	History	Social History of England, 1500-1700	2	How should we explain the gap between theory and practice in the social position of women in early modern England?	2523	D	f
24	0039a	History	Social History of England, 1500-1700	2	How successfully did the Church impose its moral values on society in the period 1560-1640?	1863	M	m
25	6020b	Linguistics	Child language development	2	How Far Does Language After Age Five Differ From What Has Developed Up To That Point?	2038	D	f
26	6059e	Linguistics	Corpus Based Approaches to Language Description	2	'One of the most important observations in a corpus-based description of English is that patterns and meanings are connected'- Discuss ...	2083	M	f
27	0235b	Philosophy	Philosophy of Mind I	2	Can functionalism provide a cross-species concept of pain?	2552	D	m
28	3145c	Philosophy	Ancient Greek Philosophy	2	Critically discuss Aristotle's understanding of Eudaimonia. Can his two accounts be reconciled?	2275	M	f
29	6033e	Archaeology	Early Agricultural Societies in the Mediterranean	3	What role did humans play in the extinction of Mediterranean Island faunas? Discuss in relation to Cyprus and Mallorca.	3340	M	f
30	6171h	Archaeology	The Neanderthals	3	Discuss and evaluate the evidence for Neanderthal speech	2830	D	f
31	6053i	Classics	Ancient Biography	3	Commentary on Plutarch, Life of Pericles 38-39	1693	D	m
32	6211b	Classics	Greek Political Thought	3	Should we condemn Plato's model state, as proposed in the Republic, as elitist?	2404	D	m
33	0280g	Comparative American Studies	Early American Social History	3	Why did Christianity have such a minimal impact on the lives of slaves by 1775?	2175	M	m
34	0318d	Comparative American Studies	Histories of Gender in the Americas	3	The 'passionlessness' debate	1553	D	f
35	3003b	English	Contemporary Lit.	3	Using any critical/theoretical ideas that you have encountered so far on this module explore the continuities or discontinuities between any two texts you have read on your degree	3034	M	m
36	3007b	English	Contemporary Lit. / Synoptic	3	'The author's text is only half the story'. In what ways is meaning	2957	D	m

					always mediated through discursive dialogues?			
37	0144e	History	Historiography	3	What part did the factors outlined in Weber's Protestant Ethic play in explaining the divergent economic development of Western and Eastern civilisations	2678	M	m
38	0380c	History	Madness and Society: from Bethlem to the Present	3	Roy Porter describes private asylums as both 'running sores of scandal' and 'sites of therapeutic innovation.' Do you agree with this dual imagery?	2335	M	f
39	6174e	Linguistics	Psycholinguistics	3	To what extent do readers rely upon information from decoding the written text and to what extent do they bring in information from external sources?	2850	M	f
40	6206c	Linguistics	Language Pathology	3	In what way can aphasia inform our knowledge about the localisation of language functions in the human brain?	2553	D	f
41	0390a	Philosophy	Aesthetics	3	In what sense does our experience of the sublime demonstrate the supremacy of our rational nature, according to Kant?	3015	D	m
42	0407c	Philosophy	Post Kantian Continental Philosophy I	3	Do you agree with Schopehauer that Compassion is the only genuine and moral motive of action?	2244	M	f

APPENDIX B- THE ‘GOLD’ STANDARD SAMPLE

Table B The gold standard sample annotated in UAM						
Colour coding						
Deny	Counter	Entertain	Attribute	Concur	Pronounce	Endorse
<p>[AR1p1-146] Humanities first known art tradition appeared during the Upper Palaeolithic period. The vast majority of Palaeolithic art appears in cave systems throughout the world, especially in areas like France and Spain. Prehistoric art comes in two main forms parietal and mobiliary art. Parietal art covers paintings and engravings on stationary surfaces, such as cave walls or on large blocks of stone. A famous and well known example of parietal art are the spectacular cave paintings discovered in 1940 at Lascaux near Montignac in the Dordogne region of France. There are many images of animals including Reindeer and Bison (animals commonly found throughout Europe in that period) which date back almost 22,000 years. The reason these paintings have survived the test of time concerns the environment for artefact preservation. The paintings and related artefacts are protected from the elements in a cool, dry environment, ideal for preservation. [AR1p11-62] One very important factor that must be taken into consideration when looking at Upper Palaeolithic religious practices and mythology is that they would have been completely different to our own. We just would not recognise certain things as being significant as we have no firm point of reference from which to study religions of such great antiquity (Leakey and Lewin 1992: 318).</p> <p>[AR2p8-219] Both the Pawnee and the Omaha had instances of disarticulated burials. The Pawnee burials are probably due to the time or location of the death as if they died in the winter then they may have had to wait until the ground was sufficiently thawed to perform the burial, similarly if the person died far from the settlement then they may have had to be carried back which could have caused the body to be damaged. These reasons are more likely than rank distinctions since there were no other differentiations in terms of goods.</p> <p>There are also two graves of an unusual orientation which contain no grave goods. One theory is that they are the graves of social deviants but one is a child and they are both in the community burial area so it would seem more likely that they are simply buried that way due to unusual circumstances of death. The Omaha burials are of adolescent males with disarticulated bones which are in good condition. Both males had grave goods. It appears that these are the result of the well known Plains practice of dismembering war victims. All these examples seem to indicate that disarticulated graves or those of non-normative orientation are due to special circumstances of death, although with only six examples it is not conclusive.</p> <p>[AR3p3-260] In 1983, the discovery of the Kebara 2 fossil in Israel renewed discussion on the possibility of Neanderthal speech. The skeleton was incomplete, however, the hyoid bone, located within the cartilage surrounding the larynx, was recovered (fig 1). Although Johanson & Edgar (1996) describe this small bone, required for speech, as identical to modern examples, Trinkaus and Shipman depict the bone as a "slightly enlarged version of a human hyoid and nothing like an ape hyoid" (1994: 391). The discovery of the Kebara fossil caused reassessment and proposed the morphologically modern bone was capable of a modern range of sounds (Johanson & Edgar, 1996), a hypothesis supported by Mithen (1996) when he submitted, assuming the presence of a cognitive ability, there is no reason a full range of sounds could not be produced. However, Lieberman and his colleagues suggested the dimensions of the Kebara hyoid could not distinguish the fossil from that of a modern human or pig hyoid and even suggested that Neanderthals may have oinked instead of spoken (Trinkaus and Shipman, 1994). However, the recovery of the hyoid bone and the comparison to that of a modern human does not assist in the interpretation of the remaining components of the vocal tract - what did the unpreserved soft tissue look like and did it allow speech? The pharynx, a tube connecting the oral cavity to the throat, is also partly responsible for the ability to speak; without a long pharynx, the range of sounds is limited, as this soft tissue moderates the vibrations at the larynx (Tattersall, 1999).</p> <p>[CAS1p9-232] [1] There can be no discussion of magic in 'One Hundred Years of Solitude' without mentioning one of, if not the most important character in the novel, Melquiades. [2] The old gypsy appears in the very first chapter and his legacy is key to the story until the very end. [3] To describe Melquiades as simply a supernatural being would be too simplistic and probably wouldn't represent the aim of Marquez. [4] Magic and Melquiades however are very closely related and their relationship is fundamental to the story. [5] It has already been noted that Melquiades brought the magic potion to cure Macondo of the</p>						

insomnia plague and this act highlights the importance of his character as the holder of ultimate power over the future and history of Macondo. [6] Melquiades is able to visit after his foretold death, has the ability to converse with characters throughout the story after death, and his room is free from the dust and ruin of time. [7] These magical abilities given to Melquiades by Marquez give him a certain hold or control over time, a control he needs to write the parchments that in essence tell the story. [8] His ability to live in a time after he has died emphasises this power. [9] His room never ages, as his time is **not** linear, a concept necessary in order for him to write the story of many generations **even** before they have been born.

[CAS2p9-116/4] [1] The end of the decade saw another incident which demonstrated how far political accommodation had broken down between the two sides. [2] John Brown's seizure of the Harper's Ferry arsenal in 1859 and his call for the insurrection of the slaves was a complete disaster after he was besieged within thirty-six hours.

[3] He **did however** manage to seize the Potomac River Bridge, the Shenandoah River Bridge and the Federal armoury and his subsequent trial created a great deal of public attention. [4] The abolitionists viewed him as a martyr when he was hung in December 1859 and the Southerners perceived the North as an ever increasing threat and one where its individuals were willing to use force and violence.

[CAS2p10-119/3] [1] I mentioned earlier that the South was increasingly feeling **as though** it occupied a minority position within the Union **but** this was **not just** because of the pressure to abolish slavery. [2] Economic differences between the North and South were becoming **even** more apparent as the century went on and by the 1850's 'industrial growth, urban growth, large-scale immigration were helping both to boost the North's majority status and to intensify the divergence of character between Northern and Southern society' [3] In particular they disagreed over the possibility of bringing in a tariff which **could** protect Northern manufacture **but** would at the same time be detrimental to the South as trading cotton for foreign goods would **not** be as easy any more.

[CAS3p7-382/14] [1] This is one of his longer passages and without passages like this we would **not** know what **actually** happened at certain points in the novel. [2] It also shows how much of an influence he has on the plot. [3] He chops off the fingers of Pedro Garcia which, using Alba's theory of the chain of events started before her birth; one **can** link the loss of Alba's fingers as a punishment to Esteban for chopping off the fingers of Pedro. [4] Another issue that is brought to light in this passage is that of the sinister nature of Esteban Garcia because he was the one who gave away Pedro's location and who picked up his sliced off fingers 'holding them like a bouquet of bloody asparagus.' [5] This gives Esteban an important part in the novel, filling in the gaps that the other narrators have in their narratives. [6] However, one could say that the roles of Clara's notebooks, Blanca's letters and Alba's actual narration are far more important than Esteban's first person narrative. [7] He **only** contributes a small amount to the narrative as a whole as Allende places the **emphasis** on the females in the family who provide the bulk of the narrative. [8] Alba's narration using Clara's notebooks begins and ends the novel with the words 'Barrabas came to us by sea.' [9] **Yet** it is clear that **not only** did Esteban play a small **but** decisive part in the narrative, he also caused it to be written down. [10] In a clever play on narrative technique Allende has Alba say 'It was my grandfather who had the idea that we should write this story.' [11] **Not only** was it his idea, it is clear that by using the pronoun we Allende has made it **seem as if** both of them played a part in the writing of their tale. [12] It was also crucial that 'his memory' remained intact down to the last second of his ninety years.' [13] This **may seem as if** he is aiding the narrative; **however**, if you read into it more, one **may** see that the gaps that he does fill in **may** be altered to make his own character look better wherever possible. [14] Therefore one **may** see that his character is **possibly** far more influential on the narrative than one **may** first believe.

[CL1p3-231/11] [1] A society where women had rights and freedom, especially where they were allowed to dominate men, was seen as dangerous and barbaric. [2] Egyptian women were seen as being equal to men and had rights and political power. [3] These women were especially dangerous and the men were seen as barbarians for letting their women have such freedom. [4] Another factor that contributed to the Egyptians being labelled as barbarians was the fact that having harems was widely accepted in Egypt. [5] The Egyptian royalty **even** practised polygamy and the Pharaoh was encouraged to have more than one wife. [6] He **could even** have hundreds of concubines in his harem. [7] The people who considered themselves to be Greek would have found this custom extremely barbaric as monogamous marriage was practised throughout Greece. [8] Greek men **did** have mistresses **but** kept them secret as adultery was highly disapproved of. [9] Adultery was seen as stealing another man's property; the woman belonged either to her husband or her father (or another male member of the household if her father was dead) Persians, the enemies of Greece, also had harems and other customs that were strange to the Greeks. [10] They were considered to be the most brutish of barbarians, **probably** due to the conflict with Greece. [11] Their portrayal as primitive and uncivilised people was part of the propaganda the Greeks used to inspire hatred for the Persians and get men to fight.

[CL2p6-380/16] [1] The Athenian tragedies written during the time of the Peloponnesian war also reflect the mood and atmosphere present in Athens. [2] Euripides wrote several plays, in particular the Trojan Women and the Bacchae, which showed the fears of the Athenians. [3] In particular, the Trojan Women describes the fears of the women left in Troy as the Greeks approached, reflecting the impending sense of defeat that was present in Athens as the war started to turn to Sparta's favour. [4] Euripides also cleverly used his plays to show his shock at the changes to the behaviour of the people caused by the war and "In the Trojan women, produced in 415BC after the massacre of Melos he voiced a shocked cry of despair at the conscienceless brutality which was infecting all Greeks." [5] This shows another change of the belief in the Athenian character. [6] Athens had considered itself more civilised than the other Greek cities in terms of its culture and politics. [7] However Euripides believed that this had since changed and was beginning to damage Athens. [8] The frequent indecision of the Assembly and the massacre at Melos were seen by many as a sign that Athens was no more civilised than many of the other Greek city-states, and this caused much surprise and discomfort for the Athenians. [9] Euripides perfectly displayed this sense of change in Athens' behaviour in his play the Bacchae. [10] This play focuses on Pentheus, a confident and strong man. [11] However, despite his apparent civilised nature, this did not save him from the fury of his own mother, who, alongside other women, tore apart her son in a Bacchic frenzy. [12] This showed to the Athenians that, despite their civilised society, they could not protect themselves from their true nature. [13] In doing this Euripides succeeded in creating "a despairing recognition of the triumph of the Irrational, which breaks through the orderly façade of the human intellect like an animal shattering a flimsy cage." [14] As can be seen, the tragedies written by Euripides were a strong reflection of the beliefs and fears of the Athenians. [15] The Trojan Women showed the fears of the Athenians if they would be defeated. [16] The Bacchae shows Euripides anger at the violent human nature that was present in all Athenians, even if it had been well disguised by 'civilisation'.

[CL3p8-123/4] [1] Presuming that the rulers did this, they too would then be witness to the truth behind the Noble Lie itself. [2] It seems that Plato was not only aware of this prospect but he also expected that the Philosopher Kings would be quite content with ruling by 'a fairy story, like those the poets tell' with 'a great deal of fiction and deceit'. [3] It will be for the rulers of our city, then, if anyone, to use falsehood in dealing with citizen or enemy for the good of the state; no one else must do so. [4] And if any citizen lies to our rulers, we shall regard it as a still greater offence than it is for a patient to lie to his doctor.

[CL3p16-104/5] [1] In essence Plato wanted by means of the eugenic breeding, to improve the Guardian Class and in doing so even their worst offspring (provided they are healthy) will improve the lower classes as the standard will be ever increasing in excellence. [2] Or is there another explanation? [3] Does Plato mean that only healthy children of the Guardians are to survive birth and that the best of them become future Guardians, while the worst are relegated to the lower classes? [4] With such an overall scheme in mind; what would the opportunities of a bronze child really be? [5] Would they be able to be promoted at all?

[ENG1p6-349/14] [1] The third point is that tragedies include both pity and fear. [2] Aristotle stated that "the plot ought to be so constructed that, even without the aid of an eye, he who hears the tale told will thrill with horror and melt to pity at what takes place". [3] These contradictory emotions are often wrapped up in religion and fear of the Gods. [4] The audience often pities the protagonist's dilemma. [5] In many ways Shakespeare does apply this theory to Othello, yet there is little reference to the Gods. [6] However, there is still a large focus on fate, and how the characters are unable to escape from it. [7] The play explores the ways in which different people make sense of events in their lives, including what they merely imagine to be happening. [8] Often their fate is set by the social concepts of the time; for example, it could be suggested that Desdemona's death was inevitable due to the view of women in that era. [9] It makes the audience consider the ways in which certain events are 'fated' to us, but the reaction towards the plot of Othello doesn't just include fear and pity. [10] The power of this play as a tragedy is founded in its ability to make the audience recognise how much it shares as human beings with the characters because of a fundamental link between needs and fallibility, such as the human need for desire and the mistakes it causes us to make. [11] Othello also makes the audience acutely aware of its needs for emotional and moral certainty. [12] It will not allow them to judge its characters in terms of moral 'debit and credit', yet it still creates a need for the audience to seek a shelter from the full reality of its ending. [13] Even though the audience and the characters recognize that there's "no remedy", it doesn't overcome the need for one. [14] Whilst the dramatic illusion is bearable, there is still a need for some moral simplicity to lessen it, which is why some people might take Othello's final speech as a form of redemption for his terrible act.

[ENG2p594/3] [1] However it appears that this process has not enlightened the inhabitant of Mercury, as their response is only to question again in line 12 ('Menhawl!'). [2] Following this, though, there appears to be a bridge of understanding at line 20 when the Mercurian repeats the sound made by 'leader' and

transfers it into something which **can** be understood by them with 'yuleeda'. [3] This poses the question as to whether or not words are defined by the ability to copy the sound they make or to understand their meaning and where the meaning is inherited from. [ENG2p6-185] After this turn at line 20, and the speech just after it becomes increasingly difficult to keep track of who the speaker is. What's more, because neither of the speakers have names it is **seemingly** left for the reader to interpret and monitor the dialogue themselves. The speech between lines 24 and 34 becomes quite confusing because it is almost all undecipherable, and is mixed between languages apart from phrases which occasionally emerge in English like 'there is no more talk' (33) and the rare word strewn between what one **must** assume is the language of the Mercurian. The person who has invaded this planet (the people from Earth), have quickly acquired the language of those which they intended to conquer. This brings many connotations of power, the acquisition of language and ownership of people to mind because when people invade a country their language tends to take over, **however** the invaders appear **not** to have much power here as it is the Mercurians who have the dominance with language and the people from Earth are sent back (37), **perhaps** unfulfilled by what they have learnt.

[ENG3p13-212] In conclusion, it **seems** both Eliot and Dickens found the facets of tragedy ideal for exploring the topics that were the cause of the doubt and fear endemic to Victorian society. They used their novels as vehicles to teach and where possible provide comfort through comedy. They were able to convey their realist views on social class, gender relations and education, whilst purging their "yearning for an earlier society that was supposed to be idyllically integrated and morally pristine." Indeed, Eliot was concerned with exploring the relationship of the past to the present. She **saw** "tragedy as the universal experience, so she opted for the traditional catharsis, or purging of emotion that Maggie and Tom's death delivers to the reader. In an ironic twist Eliot destroys her champion for the liberated female, **perhaps** too afraid to openly challenge Victorian morality and keen to restore the stability her society craved. Sandra Gilbert **feels** "Eliot becomes entangled in contradictions that she can only resolve through acts of vengeance against her own characters. Alternatively, Dickens **opted for** a modernist denouement that lacked finality **but** paved the way for a new version of tragedy, preferring to leave his readers in an emotional stasis and in doing so reserving and concealing his final conclusions on social reality.

[H1p1-106] India's history has been frequently disrupted by the influence of famine, on average twice a century regions would be severely hit by an extreme shortage of food, resulting in mass casualties. **However**, from 1765 (which saw the British conquer Bengal) to 1900, there were approximately 17 major famines, a dramatic increase that was conflicting with the modernisation process associated with the period. Government policies were **certainly** significant in the development of these famines, **but** the roles of factors such as climate, over-population and social reaction should **not** be ignored. Once assessed against these reasons, the importance of the role a government plays **can** be accurately determined.

[H1p4-128] Another factor that has been historically seen as important enough to be classified as the 'cause' of famine is over-population. The most radical theories around this subject were those **argued** by Thomas Malthus, who wrote 'Essay on the Principles of Population' in 1798. He **asserted** that famine, war and pestilence were positive ways of checking the growth in population, sweeping away excess peoples, and then maintaining a rough equilibrium between people and necessities. 'The common people', he **wrote**, 'must regard themselves as being themselves the principal cause of their misfortunes'. The most damaging effects of these theories were brought about by Indian civil servants, who were taught this school of thought and then had no hesitation in letting famines continue, having the horrifying belief of it being 'healthy'.

[H2p2-117] In this essay I am going to argue from a standpoint **assuming** that a gap between the theory and the practice in the social position of women in early modern England **did in fact** exist. I will argue that this gap existed despite both male and female attempts to keep within it, due both to its unrealistic expectations compared with the actual lives women led, and the dualities and contradictions within it. I will argue that due to three broad and overlapping areas: economic and personal factors, and a contradiction within the role which expected servility **but** also demanded command and power, women could not live out their lives within the boundaries of their expected social positions.

[H2p10-131] The domestic sphere, often seen as the sight of women's inequality, was **in fact** the one area of society over which women had a lot of control. Rule over servants and the running of a complex household were **just** some of the tasks women were expected to perform. Other tasks included care and religious education of children as well as total authority in the field of pregnancy and childbirth; 'lay ins' gave women an all female space in which to recover after childbirth. Women were also expected to give their husbands sound business advice and make decisions within the domestic sphere. The fact that these tasks **could not** be performed without being domineering, active and authoritarian was why a necessary gap existed between theory and practice in the social position of women.

[H3p1-208] The foundations of the group of historians now known as the Annales 'school' were laid when in 1929 Marc Bloch and Lucien Febvre published the journal *Annales d'histoire économique et sociale*. Since this pivotal moment, the Annales have been credited with undermining the positivist definition of historical fact, destroying the taboo on unwritten evidence, imposing a dialogue with other disciplines, discrediting the history of events, and rejecting the primacy of political history. **Importantly**, this tradition cannot be attributed to a single historian, **nor** has it employed a 'clear-cut' paradigm. Their work is united, **however**, in terms of theoretical and methodological principles embodied in the journal *Annales: Économies, Sociétés, Civilisations* whence their name derives." Trevor-Roper helpfully captures these elements of unity, emphasising their attempts to grasp the totality and cohesion of every historical period, their conviction that history is at least partly determined by forces which are external to man, and their determination to reduce areas of incomprehension by rigorous statistical analysis Fernand Braudel's contribution to the Annales tradition, **although** significant, should be therefore, placed within a wider tradition of conjectural fluidity and development. Far from betraying this tradition, we **can** credit Braudel with furthering the principle for which the Annales stood most, promulgating an ideal of *histoire totale*.

[LIN1p11-85] As with any variety AAVE provides its speakers with status within their group. It is a symbol of group identity, **but** as it is considered by authority to be sub-standard, many speakers use Standard American English in certain contexts, particularly writing. This **illustrates** that people know different varieties of their language and use them according to social context. (Baron, 2005). It is this symbol of identity which helps to explain why people continue to use non-standard varieties when they perceive the standard to be 'proper'.

[LIN1p12-191] **Although** we have enormous choice when speaking or writing we are generally constrained by our linguistic knowledge and our perception of social acceptability and appropriateness. Holmes (2001) **describes** these choices as being a part of our linguistic repertoire, a knowledge acquired largely subconsciously through exposure rather than learnt in the way which may be required for more formal varieties, especially the written form. This knowledge includes the regional variety which gives us our geographical identity marking us as originating from a particular place. For example people speaking to their doctor speak differently than to their butcher, as the butcher speaks differently to his mechanic than to another butcher, and all of them speak differently at home than at work or in social settings. Similarly they will each modify their language to the company they are in, swearing freely with their friends **but** never in front of women perhaps. Each may make different linguistic choices when in his native locality if he now lives elsewhere. The linguistic choices we make then, the vocabulary we use, the grammatical construction, and the sounds we produce will match the social context of any given situation.

[LIN2p2-255] The deficiency theory was **proposed** by Robin Lakoff in 1975. Lakoff **suggested** that women speak an inferior version of the language spoken by males. She was the first linguist to **point out** that women use more tag questions than men. **It had been pointed out** that women used several devices in their speech more than men. Along with tag questions, these included: more hedges, more overt prestige forms and over-reporting on usage of prestige forms, more intensifying devices, finer discriminations in, for example, colour terms, more baby talk and weaker expletives such as 'oh dear'. These are **still** accepted as features of women's speech **but** it was how Lakoff interpreted this research that led to the 'deficiency theory'. Lakoff **saw** language as reflecting society and **suggested** that women spoke an inferior version of the language because they were inferior in society. **According to** Lakoff, women 'are socialised to believe that asserting themselves strongly isn't nice or ladylike or even feminine' (Lakoff 1975:54 in Coates 1993:116). Lakoff therefore described women's language as, among other things, tentative and unassertive, hence the 'deficiency theory'. This theory is now thought of as dated since changes in society, and follow up research have discounted many of the principles. Lakoff's observations are generally supported **but** her reasoning gained from the studies has been replaced by other more modern theories. It was noticed that most of the research done had been focused on female language. The focus **may** have been leading to false theories and further research was needed into male language.

[LIN3p11-130] The presence of syntax errors in Broca's aphasia **does, however, suggest** that Broca's area is **not only** responsible for language production (Libben 1996:427) as does the identification of patients with lesions within Broca's area who have been found to have no speech or language problems (Caplan 1987: 49) These cases **suggest** that language **may not** be contained in the way that Broca **believed** it to be, or **possibly** support the notion of brain plasticity that Broca **suggested** was capable in adults, should the correct rehabilitation and encouragement be given, causing the right hemisphere to adopt the language functions of the damaged hemisphere (Caplan 1987: 47); **however** plasticity lessens as we grow into adulthood with the brain becoming more stable and the ability to learn language being lost (Obler, 1999: 4).

[LIN3p22-151] **However**, aphasic studies have informed our knowledge as to the localisation of language functions in the brain. **Had the original theories not have been suggested by the likes of Broca**

and Wernicke further research would not have been done and technology would not have developed to aid our understanding of neurolinguistics via mapping of brain activity. Although Broca and Wernicke's suggestion that language is specifically localised is now being challenged by new information about language distribution in the brain, it has not been totally disproven, as mentioned previously; however it seems vital to remember that different tasks require different functions and that "localisation of symptoms is a product of brain maturation and years of language use" (Goodglass, 2001: 57) thus proposing that not all brains necessarily follow the same paths in relation to their deficits, which in turn reinforces individual differences and therefore the possibility that language pathways can also differ.

[PH1p5-273] Already weakened, we shall analyse the rest of the Second Meditation to see if Descartes manages to salvage his position from Hobbes. He doubts away all notions of his being a corporeal entity or even tenuous ether. After this, he states that he is still something. Here Descartes makes another illogical move. It is one thing to doubt away all the features you attribute to yourself and quite another to have them actually stripped away. In a paradoxical section of the passage, he doubts the integrity of his method of doubt, asking himself if the properties he supposes as non-existent are actually part of his identity. He then convinces himself that if a person's identity is something that thinks, 'knowledge of it does not depend on things of whose existence I am as yet unaware' (p18-19). This conclusion relies on the implicit premise that if someone is a thinking thing, separate from corporeal extensions, then his identity is not reliant on anything else, because everything else falls into the same category as 'things which I invent in my imagination', which is 'simply contemplating the shape of image of a corporeal thing'(p19). Notice that this premise relies on the earlier assumption that thought and extension are separate and distinct, which has been undermined. Also, Descartes repeats the error of believing his own conjectures. In this case, he supposes that he may discard all physical objects because he believes that there is a malicious demon that renders them chimeras. However, it may just be the case that there is no demon and that should he be stripped away of his physical features, he wouldn't exist.

[PH2p9-225] A typical response is for one to meet the needs of ones moral life and then to concentrate on contemplation. However, I do not find this to be a satisfactory response as one cannot fully meet their moral requirements and still have time to successfully pursue contemplation. The man who is truly kind, brave, generous etc will be fully occupied exercising these virtues. Also, if contemplation is the highest activity, it is not evident why the needs of the moral life should take precedence. It is evident the moral life is not just practical activity that is practiced insofar as it is sufficient to keep one alive and in a position to pursue contemplation. Such activities are time consuming as they are concerned with the welfare of others, yet if theoretical activity is the dominant end it is not evident why displays of practical virtue should be prioritised above philosophical contemplation. Aristotle does not respond to this himself but one suggestion designed to connect morality and contemplation is that the very aim of morality is the promotion of contemplation, what makes a type of action good is its tendency to promote contemplation. Here the ultimate justification for the necessity of characteristics of the good man is that general adherence to the rules he abides by would maximise the amount of contemplation possible in the community.

[PH3p6-263] The theory of justice Plato offers bears no resemblance to the two theories that had been previously suggested by Thrasymachus and Glaucon (Santas, 2006). Plato arrives at the conclusion of justice being the unity of these three qualities (wisdom, courage, moderation) by looking at the perfect city he has imagined. As the city is perfectly good it must be wise, courageous, moderate and just. Pappas (1995) points out that this is a massive assumption that for something to be good, it must be: wise, courageous, moderate and just. It is also assumed that these four attributes provide an exhaustive list of what is required for something to be good. Though Plato suggests moving tentatively from the provisional idea of justice found in the state to the soul (Singpurwalla, 2006), it is not clear that any revisions or alterations are made, and it appears that Plato accepts the just state as an acceptable model for the just soul. Plato overlooks this assumption and does not provide reasoning for it. This therefore means that the definition of justice, and therefore the analogy of state and soul are based upon "an unexamined causal belief" turned into a "technical claim" (Pappas, 1995). It appears apparent that these unexamined beliefs are societal. The four virtues were accepted by Plato's peers (Field, 1967), but a Christian may wish to include humility and/or love (Pappas, 1995) and there are a host of other characteristics that could be considered to be part of 'being good'. It is therefore unlikely to be the case that this is an accurate depiction of justice.

APPENDIX C-ANNOTATION MANUAL

The texts to be annotated are undergraduate essays in the Arts and Humanities (archaeology, classics, contemporary American studies, history, English and philosophy) drawn from the British Academic Written English Corpus (BAWE) from the three undergraduate levels. The aim of the project is to identify and classify resources of Engagement, one of the three core systems of Appraisal theory developed by Martin and White (2005).

Engagement is “a cover-all term for resources of intersubjective positioning” (Martin & White, 2005: 95) which “deals with sourcing attitudes and the play of voices around opinions in discourse” (ibid. p. 35). It is concerned with the linguistic resources by which writers adopt a stance towards the value positions being referenced by the text and with respect to those they address (ibid, p. 92).

Utterances are distinguished as either monoglossic when they make no reference to other voices and viewpoints or heteroglossic when they allow for dialogistic alternatives. For example, ²

Monogloss: *The banks have been greedy.*

Heterogloss: *There is the argument though that the banks have been greedy.*

In my view the banks have been greedy.

² All the examples in this manual are taken from Martin and White (2005).

This project focuses only on heteroglossic Engagement occurrences. These are divided into two broad categories according to whether they Contract or Expand the dialogic space. Dialogic expansion resources actively make allowances for dialogically alternative positions and voices, whereas dialogic contraction ones act “to challenge, fend off or restrict the scope of” alternative views (ibid, p. 102).

Examples

Contract

1. *He **shows** that the mafia began in the 19th century as armed bands protecting the interests of the absentee landlords who owned most of Sicily.*

Expand

2. *The Rt Rev Colin Buchanan, Bishop of Woolwich, **says**: ‘In this, as in so many other things, the Church of England prefers to live by fantasy rather than look coolly at the facts.’ [The Guardian, 21/06/04]*

Extracts 1 and 2 exemplify formulations in which reporting verbs have been used (*show, say*). The first one adopts a particular stance towards the attributed proposition, holding it to be true. By such formulations, the authorial voice presents the proposition as ‘true’ or ‘valid’ and thereby aligns itself with the external voice

which has been introduced as the source of that proposition. Such wordings close down the space for dialogic alternatives, and they are dialogically contractive.

With the use of the second verb, *say*, the writer acknowledges the proposition framed by the claim made by the Bishop of Woolwich. The writer invites or at least entertains dialogic alternatives and thereby lowers the interpersonal cost for any who would advance such an alternative. Accordingly, such formulations are dialogically expansive, as they open up the dialogic space for alternative positions.

The complete Engagement framework is presented in Figure 1. Table 1 puts together the seven subsystems of the framework, the corresponding formulations used to express it and most of the common locutions for each one of them.

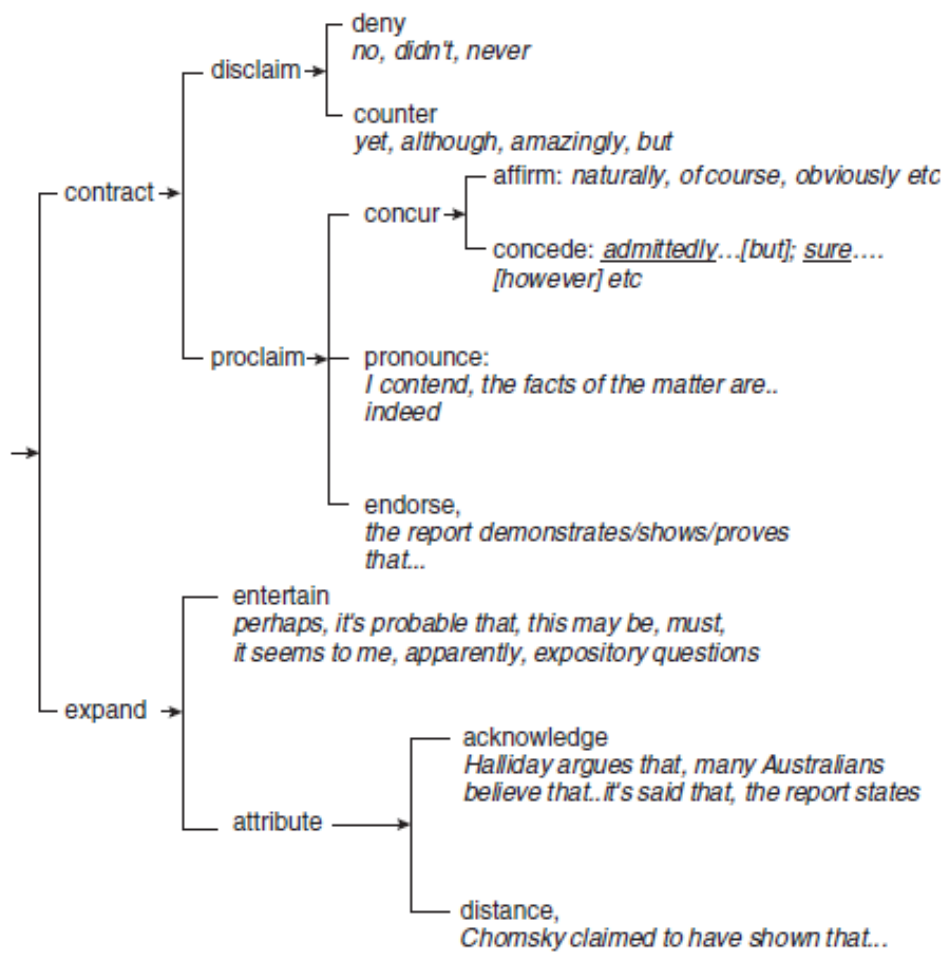


Figure 1 The Engagement framework (Source: Martin & White, 2005:134)

1. General rules

- Any errors in syntax, grammar or mechanics may be ignored.
- Annotation should focus on heteroglossic Engagement resources only, ignoring monoglossic, bare assertions, as well as anything found within quotes.
- Try to keep the length of the annotated text to a minimum. I ignore any features that do not contribute to determining its classification.
- If unsure of whether to annotate a certain resource or not, signpost it to be discussed later.

2. Identification

Generally, it is the dialogistic function of the resources that we are concerned with and not merely any utterance listed in the table above. For example,

- Night staff were **not** employed until the 1840s. [fact], [IGNORE]
- Plato is **not** [DENY] claiming expertise but trying to point out facts that he thinks everyone can see for themselves.
- She **argued** [IGNORE] passionately for her client's innocence during the trial.
- He **argued** [ACKNOWLEDGE] that famine, war and pestilence were positive ways of checking the growth in population.

Table 1 Functions and wording for the Engagement subsystems		
Subsystem	Function	Wordings
Deny	Introduce the alternative positive position into the dialogue and acknowledge it so as to reject it.	no, not, n't, never, nothing, fail/failure, lack, un- im-, in-
Counter	Represent the current proposition as replacing or supplanting, i.e. 'countering', a proposition which would have been expected in its place.	but, however, yet, nevertheless, nonetheless, whereas, whilst, while, on the other hand, alternatively, in contrast, conversely, instead, rather, merely, actually, although, even though, though, despite, in spite of, albeit, even, only, just, still, surprisingly
Concur	Overtly announce the addresser as agreeing with, or having the same knowledge as, some projected dialogic partner.	of course, naturally, certainly, obviously, admittedly, and 'leading' rhetorical questions
		'concede concurrence' e.g., Yes, ... but; Naturally, ... however 'affirm concurrence,' e.g., of course, naturally
Pronounce	Involve authorial emphases or explicit authorial interventions or interpolations.	indeed, really, in fact, I propose, I contend, I argue, we agree, the fact is, the truth is, and emphatic auxiliaries, i.e., does, did, is.
Endorse	Through these, propositions sourced to external sources are construed by the authorial voice as correct, valid, undeniable or otherwise maximally warrantable.	Verbs: show, prove, demonstrate, indicate, find, affirm, confirm, point out. Nouns: proof, demonstration, indication, findings, affirmation, confirmation
Entertain	The authorial voice indicates that its position is but one of a number of possible positions and makes dialogic space for those possibilities.	Modality: may, might, could, must, perhaps, probably, possibly, it's possible that ..., it's likely that, <i>if</i> -clauses. circumstances such as: in my view/opinion mental verbs: I doubt, I think, I believe, evidentials: seem, appear, apparently, suggest, imply, and rhetorical 'expository' questions
Attribute	Wordings that disassociate the proposition from the text's internal authorial voice by attributing it to some external source.	Acknowledge: say, argue, state, believe, think, belief, argument, theory, according to, For X, in X's view. Distance: claim

3. Classification

Table 2 Annotation guidelines-examples		
Resource	Annotate as	Multiple coding
Argue, suggest (and other reporting verbs)		
Weber argues/suggests/states	Acknowledge	
As Weber suggests	Acknowledge	
Weber seems to be suggesting	Acknowledge	Seems to → Entertain
It is said	Acknowledge	
It could be suggested	Entertain	Could → Entertain
I suggest	Entertain	
Claim		
Weber claims	Distance	
Weber's claim	Distance	
Evidence, findings		
These findings suggest	Entertain	Findings → Endorse Theory → Acknowledge
It has been suggested	Entertain	
The theory suggests	Entertain	
The evidence suggests	Entertain	Evidence → Endorse
Evidence shows	Endorse	
The report demonstrates	Endorse	
Weber shows	Endorse	
Believe, think (and other mental and opinion verbs)		
I believe	Entertain	
We believe	Entertain	
One believes	Entertain	
It is believed	Acknowledge	
X believes	Acknowledge	
Critics believe	Acknowledge	
Other 'fuzzy' formulations		
Undoubtedly, no doubt	Pronounce	un → Deny no → Deny
Weber strongly suggests	Acknowledge	Ignore: strongly

As a general rule, annotate as follows (see also Table 2):

- The author agrees with the cited source: **Proclaim: Endorse**
- The author takes a neutral stance on the cited proposition: **Attribute: Acknowledge**
- The author keeps a distance or even disagrees with the cited proposition: **Attribute: Distance**
- *If*-clause: Annotate the whole clause
- Questions:
 - Leading rhetorical questions: they somehow 'lead' the reader to a certain, 'unavoidable' answer: **Concur: Affirm**
E.g., *Should we go to war against these children? (No)*
 - Expository questions: They do not assume a specific response; they are employed to propose a possible view or proposition: **Entertain**
E.g., *Is Tara on a downhill spiral to her bad old ways? (I think she is)*

Sample annotation

The presence of syntax errors in Broca's aphasia does [ENTERTAIN], however [COUNTER], suggest [ENTERTAIN] that Broca's area is not [DENY] only [COUNTER] responsible for language production (Libben 1996:427) as does [ENTERTAIN] the identification of patients with lesions within Broca's area who have been found [IGNORE] to have no [IGNORE] speech or language problems (Caplan 1987: 49).

APPENDIX D- AH123 ANNOTATION FINDINGS

Table D1	Deny
Table D2	Counter
Table D3	Concur
Table D4	Pronounce
Table D5	Endorse
Table D6	Attribute
Table D7	Entertain
Table D8	<i>If</i> -clause
Table D9	Rhetorical Questions
Table D10	Findings across genres
Table D11	Findings across genres, levels and disciplines
Table D12	Essay subgenres

Table D1-Deny features in AH123			
Feature (n=15)	N	Relevant forms	Example from AH123
not	463		Meaning is not obvious through one pattern alone.
no	97		It makes no sense to talk of the alternative of the subject forming the idea of a given object's infinity rather than infinity itself which Budd does.
n't	27	aren't 1 wasn't 1 wouldn't 2 didn't 3 isn't 3 don't 4 doesn't 10 can't	Although this is isn't the main focus of the tragedy it is a factor of movement, as it is what moves the cast to a new setting.
lack	23	lack 16 lacks 1 lacking 4 lacked 2	While Tupac Amaru's campaign was large-scale and threatening, it lacked a definitive objective and must therefore be classed as simply the most significant of the various rebellions under Spanish rule.
never	19		Some have responded to this criticism by maintaining the successful contemplative will always be morally virtuous as the committed intellectualist will never consider it rational to neglect conducting virtuous action as it is a necessary means to furthering the life of contemplation.
nothing	12		He is so keen to be told the answer to his question that he ignores the attempts by Socrates to define what virtue is, and this is precisely what leads to a conclusion in which nothing appears to have been resolved.
un-	11		undoubtedly
fail	7	failed 4 failure 1	Nevertheless, the records historians utilise to measure the effect of the Church on everyday lives are limited;

		fails 1 fail 1	they may show an increase in moral standards, but fail to signify the motives for conformity.
neither	7		As in the previous passage, there is an emphasis on the fact that it is the viewer who must obtain enlightenment for themselves, and just as Morpheus cannot grant it to Neo, neither can the dialogue spoken here grant it to the viewer.
nor	5		Neither Orthodox Christianity (represented by the Abbot) nor the spirit world can control Manfred.
in-	3		Indisputably , empirical evidence indicates that the church not only victoriously imposed its values on, but also indoctrinated, a diverse range of society
im-	4		The very notion that humans could all survive for such a long period of time without sleep is extremely improbable...
excluding	2		Excluding specific hotspots of religious observance such as Fenstanton and Hilton in Huntingdonshire, spreading God's word was difficult to organise, since educated clergymen were not attracted by the low wages of working in parishes.
non	2		Words that are not found in a corpus are not necessarily non -existent in a pattern.
Total RF	682		

Table D2-Counter features in AH123			
Feature (n=27)	n	Relative forms	Example from AH123
but	230		The series of canals and railways built across India by the British were intended to solve distribution problems, but Burton Stein argues they worsened existing problems
however	220		Opinion, however , is far less stable, and is not always correct.
only	159		The theories of Adam Smith about a free market economy being the answer to famine fails at these moments - the market seeks to make more profit rather than channel it into the most needy areas, and so famine only creates further polarisation in society when the exact opposite is needed.
although	78		Aristotle influenced the form of Othello, and although there are some deviations, Shakespeare followed the main principles, creating a play full of the typical conventions of tragedy.

even	68		It was even considered to be rape if a man had an affair with an unmarried girl because he had made her impure.
yet	44		It will not allow them to judge its characters in terms of moral 'debit and credit', yet it still creates a need for the audience to seek a shelter from the full reality of its ending.
just	44		It makes the audience consider the ways in which certain events are 'fated' to us, but the reaction towards the plot of Othello doesn't just include fear and pity.
still	38		However, there is still a large focus on fate, and how the characters are unable to escape from it.
despite	23	Despite=19, Despite the fact (that)=4, Despite this=2	Despite this difference, the words of Samuel Taylor Coleridge go some way towards bridging the gap between the two poets, as he states that 'innocence and the very truth of Nature must go together.'
merely	22		Instead, Hobbes merely puts forward the possibility that Descartes' arguments in the Second Meditation do not render the position self-contradictory.
whilst	17		Whilst innocence is a state to be envied, it can be short-sighted in its vision and therefore is likely to be abused.
actually	13		These sorts of Southern sentiments only continued throughout the decade and it has been argued that the Civil War actually 'resulted more from the whipping up of emotions than from the impact of realistic issues'.
unlike	13		Unlike previous civilisations the greeks were quite advanced in the areas of mathematics, philosophy, medicine, astrology and other sciences.
rather	11		In this way he hopes to show that the slave is not being told the correct answer, but rather is required, by faltering steps, to recall knowledge he already possessed.
nevertheless	10		Nevertheless , in his desperation to answer to his original question, Meno insists that Socrates find out whether virtue is teachable rather than become sidetracked in defining virtue itself.
at least	10		The situation at Aetokremnos indicates that humans were at least a part of the reason for the extinction of the Phanourios and Elephas there.
even if	8		The Bacchae shows Euripides anger at the violent human nature that was present

			in all Athenians, even if it had been well disguised by 'civilisation'.
even though	7		Even though Hourani correctly states that even at birth the chasm between the bronze and silver children would be too great to bridge, I have one, possibly unfounded reservation concerning his treatment of the question.
on the other hand	7	On the other hand=7, On the other=1	While on one hand, the Rulers are in complete control of the laws and state policy; yet on the other , they completely lack private property and strive for the general welfare of those ruled.
though	5		Though caring and affection were viewed with importance; and were often an unavoidable outcome of spending lives together, measures were taken to limit the influence affection had on the social position of women.
conversely	3		Conversely , Darwin deployed a pessimistic and darker view of nature, which revolved around the process of natural selection and the survival of the fittest, to a much greater extent.
nonetheless	3		Nonetheless , measuring the conformity of the clergy does not give a full indication of how successful the church was...
as though	2		It seems as though both Esteban and Clara are at odds with each other, but both need to be present for it to work in the way that their family does.
albeit	2		...the story is not so dissimilar from the parable of the lost son, see Luke 15:11-31, albeit with a different conclusion
simply	2		The Will for Schopenhauer is not an individual will, it is not simply doing 'what one wills'.
contrast	2	Contrastingly=1, In contrast=1	In contrast to this, the islands in the Eastern Mediterranean such as Cyprus seem to be isolated from the cultures of the mainland (Cherry 1984, p16).
contrary to	1		Contrary to this theory is the more recent idea that a skilled reader is someone who can decode automatically without being conscious of it (Field: 2003).
in spite of	1		Patients may ignore turn-taking, as well as continue to jargon (production of incomprehensible utterances) in spite of negative feedback from conversational partner.
already	1		After all, if all learning is simply a matter of recollection, then one already has

			knowledge, though it is buried deeply in one's brain.
Total Raw <i>f</i>	1044		

Table D3-Concur Features in AH123		
Feature (n=14)	N	Example
certainly	13	Certainly , the growth of prosecutions by the laity against non-conforming ministers illustrates this.
clearly	11	Clearly truth and deceit are major concerns in the chapter aptly named 'On liars'.
obviously	10	As well as social class, Gender also obviously has a huge effect on the way we speak
of course	10	Of course there are other characters that are just as important as Esteban, if not more so.
surely	9	Sisterly love over matrimonial love may have brought some advantages, but surely none as great as a union of love and respect in marriage.
it is clear	4	Yet it is clear that not only did Esteban play a small but decisive part in the narrative, he also caused it to be written down.
yes	3	Yes , Aristotle's two accounts of eudaimonia can be reconciled as they both promote contemplation/theoretical activity as paramount despite appearing to adopt conflicting positions regarding the importance of other virtues.
I agree	3	I strongly agree with this view and maintain that the Romantic Movement undoubtedly paved the way to modern environmentalism to a significant extent, primarily due to its emphasis upon the preservation of nature in all her forms.
naturally	2	Naturally this then presents us with a further problem, namely how someone can be consistently virtuous when correct opinion is so frequently a fleeting phenomenon.
it is obvious	2	Once again it is obvious to note Montaigne's beliefs and ideas when it comes to 'Nature' and how the preface leads us, the reader, onto exploring this major theme.
evidently	1	If this was the case then they may have tried to manage them in some way but were evidently unsuccessful as they became extinct by around 4090+/-390BP
I concede	1	However I concede that after the Punic Wars when Rome had suffered a heavy defeat at Cannae they may still have feared the figure of Hannibal and ...
it is certain	1	It is almost certain that Marquez was influenced by stories told to him in his native Aracataca where he lived with his grandparents in a house rumoured to have been inhabited by ghosts.
inevitably	1	Analysis of sensibility inevitably leads to an awareness of landscape and its potential for describing the external world, whilst also evoking sublime emotions that reflect interiority.

Leading Rhetorical Questions	13	<p>and isn't it a bad thing to be deceived about the truth, and a good thing to possess the truth?' is it not possible that a lack of mummification evidence could also suggest that not everyone who did have the opportunity decided to take it? why would you kill your own animals when there was such easy prey running around? do we not still wish to be treated by doctors who are qualified? or is there another explanation? on these grounds then can we completely condemn plato's model state for being elitist? is it primarily a centre of administration, or possibly is it primarily a centre of trade and distribution? if they were completely scandalous why would families sent their relatives there at cost? could this have been the beginnings of an 'egyptian death industry'? can you just define behaviour as aversion behaviour without specifying further? surely it is absurd to suggest that someone who feels pain and has the appropriate output is not in pain? what hope is there for the rest of the model state? how can we even consider his model state as an aristocracy when we can not even define what an aristocracy is?</p>
Total Raw f	84	

Table D4 Pronounce Features in AH123		
Feature (n=25)	n	Example
a notable point is	1	Another notable point is that in the preface, as said before, Montaigne compares himself to a 'native' who appears 'wholly naked'.
debatably	1	Elsewhere, people were debatably unaffected.
Emphatic did/does	30	However this very rigid structuring of intra linguistic cohesion did lead to poor coherence.
I agree/propose/maintain/grant	16	I propose that the boundary between reality and perception of reality is problematised for the reader
in fact	21	In fact , any medical discourse discussing 'excessive' female sexual desire, contraception, or abortion, innately undermined notions that women were 'naturally' 'passionlessness'.
indeed	25	Indeed , Lancashire was reported to have only six of twenty-five justices favourable of the established church in 1564.
indisputably	1	Indisputably , empirical evidence indicates that the church not only victoriously imposed its values on, but also indoctrinated, a diverse range of society:

interestingly	5	Allende chooses to name her chapters and interestingly no name of a chapter is devoted to Esteban Trueba.
it is important to	10	It is important to note that although a plan can help it cannot be deemed an entirely accurate way of identifying functions and should not be taken as unquestionable fact.
it is interesting that/to	5	It is interesting to note that 'O' at the beginning and end of his name reflects his calamity at the end of the play, exclaiming 'O, O' as his attempts to remedy his actions are ultimately irredeemable.
it is reasonable to	2	Therefore it is reasonable to say that it is the reaction of the government that is the deciding factor between crisis and famine, and so can be classified as the 'cause'.
it is worth noting	1	It is worth noting here before the discussion proper starts, an important distinction, that is the one between gender and sex.
no doubt	4	No doubt many 'proper' greek women were bright but they were quick to disguise their intelligence around men lest they be shunned by society.
questionably	2	Next, quite questionably , he attributes the properties of nourishment, locomotion, sense perception and thinking to the soul, which he imagined to be something tenuous, like ether, which permeated his body.
really	5	Whether the argument in the dynamic sublime really shows the superiority of reason or its independence is an interesting question.
the truth is	1	The mundane truth is that they were mostly landowners and the privileged, natural conservatives in fact, so 'the French Revolution and the example of Haiti brought home to the white elites of the colonies the value of the Crown as a guarantor of law and order within their own racially divided societies'.
the point is that	1	The point is that there is no representation possible of objects which exceed a certain magnitude.
this is true	2	This is especially true of the leading character, Othello is gifted with the power of good speech and his tales of military feats gives a sense of action.
undeniably	1	Undeniably , the Church imposed its moral values thoroughly in some regions of the country
undoubtedly	4	I strongly agree with this view and maintain that the Romantic Movement undoubtedly paved the way to modern environmentalism to a

		significant extent, primarily due to its emphasis upon the preservation of nature in all her forms.
unquestionably	3	This was due to many factors but the most important was unquestionably the divisive issue of slavery and whether or not it should be allowed to continue.
Total Raw <i>f</i>	141	

Table D5 Endorse Features in AH123			
Feature (n=10)	N	Relative forms	Example
Point out	22	X points out (22)	V.C. Chappell criticises Bluck for this separation of virtue, pointing out that there is no evidence for this in the text itself.
Show	12	X shows (2) studies/findings/evidence show(s) (7) linguists have shown (1)	Putting the time differences of extinctions aside, studies have shown that roughly 35% of terrestrial mammals on islands become extinct after the arrival of humans (excluding flying mammals) and this is a minimum estimate (Alcover 1998, p914).
demonstrate	4	X/study demonstrates 4	Labov demonstrated this by looking at a few variables.
indicate	5	evidence/account/sources indicate(s) that 5	For example, Foyster's account indicates that mad-doctors like Battie and Monro may have been assistants in errant husbands who sought control of their unruly wives
reaffirm	1		more recent studies in the effects of alzheimer's disease have reaffirmed
prove	1		The evidence proves that
proof	1		There is also however proof that
confirm	1		These studies confirm that
reveal	1		Studies of egyptian mummies have revealed
Total Raw <i>f</i>	48		

Table D6- Attribute Features in AH123		
Feature (n=106)	N	Example from AH123
suggest	72	Tattersall (1999) suggests the development of tool-making techniques may be contemporaneous with the evolution of language and regional dialects

argue	68	Sen argues that social security is hugely important to successfully avoid a famine...
claim	39	W.K.C. Guthrie claims that the conclusion Socrates reaches at the end of the Meno is not the correct one, 'because Meno has made Socrates ask the wrong question.'
state	35	Aristotle stated that "the plot ought to be so constructed that, even without the aid of an eye, he who hears the tale told will thrill with horror and melt to pity at what takes place".
believe	24	However Euripides believed that this had since changed and was beginning to damage Athens.
say	19	Brunt cites Valerius Maximus as saying that if a general excelled himself in battle by killing 5,000 of the enemy it was possible for him to be awarded Rome's ultimate accolade, a triumph.
argument	18	However, MacLeod uses another line of argument ; he argues that in contrast to Johnson's argument "structural determination is inscribed in the very core of human agency".
conclude	16	Herbert concluded that compliments given by female speakers tend to have a personal base and use personal pronouns for example "I love your hat!" "You look great!"
write	16	Giddens writes "human history is created by intentional activities but is not an intended project."
explain	15	On The Basis Of Morality contains Schopenhauers most illusive exposition of compassion. He explains that we cannot examine the motives of actions in terms of empirical evidence because we can only observe the action, not the motive behind it
propose	13	David Pepper proposes that 'within the environmental movement there is a host of ideologies and cross-currents', and furthermore, that some factions altered the path of their campaigning in synonymy with contemporary environmental concerns.
highlight	11	David Arnold highlights the role which climate plays
according to	8	According to Allen, the Meno indicates 'the conditions of inquiry under which alone moral conclusions may be properly reached.'
conclusion	8	Another critic, R.E. Allen makes quite another attack on Bluck's conclusion that virtue is teachable.
for	8	For Weber, the formation of the Protestant religion in the sixteenth century preceded the emergence of this spirit.
theory	8	A Roman floor provides a suitable example of Giddens' theory in practice, linking both structure and agency.
assert	7	He [Malthus] asserted that famine, war and pestilence were positive ways of checking the growth in population, sweeping away excess peoples, and then maintaining a rough equilibrium between people and necessities.
find	7	For every variable Trudgill found that the higher the class the more likely the standard was to be used and vice versa.
think	7	Unlike Kant, Schopenhauer thinks you cannot derive morality from a theory of abstract reasoning, and compassion is not merely a feeling but a human essence; a superhuman quality.
emphasis	6	He only contributes a small amount to the narrative as a whole as Allende places the emphasis on the females in the family who provide the bulk of the narrative.

present	6	It is also desirable in its own right and is an essential aspect of the eudaimon life presented by Aristotle.
agree	5	Bourdieu and Giddens both agree that practice theory is a "theory of the continuous and historically contingent enactments or embodiments of people's ethos, attitudes, agendas and dispositions"...
emphasise	5	Wernicke emphasises that patients do not mispronounce phonemes (Caplan 1987: 50) and that aphasia is not a production disorder. The errors in sound selection lead to the use of non-words and neologisms (Libben 1996: 429)...
maintain	5	Aristotle maintains that the highest good is happiness/eudaimonia.
suggestion	5	Although Broca and Wernicke's suggestion that language is specifically localised is now being challenged by new information about language distribution in the brain, it has not been totally disproven, as mentioned previously.
view	5	Bourdieu's view is that society, contrary to traditional Marxism, cannot be analyzed simply in terms of economic classes and ideologies.
affirm	4	He [Descartes] goes on to affirm once more, at the end of the paragraph, that 'the power of self-movement, like the power of sensation or of thought, was quite foreign to the nature of the body' (p.17).
assume	4	He [Descartes] assumes that he had all the features and mechanical structure of limbs which can be seen in a corpse, which he calls the body.
see	4	Like others, Weigand sees corpora as simply a tool for analyzing language.
support	4	Therefore we can see that Plutarch appears to have supported the idea that external circumstances could affect a person's character, with Pericles' change from rational thinker to follower of superstition in chapter 38 being just one of a number of examples he uses to support this theory.
acknowledge	3	As Weber acknowledges , the East possessed geometry, natural sciences, and chemistry, but what was lacking was a method of experiment and rationality.
agreement	3	Amintore Fanfani is also in agreement , arguing that capitalism has relations with various religions, 'because these, in seeking to discipline the spiritual powers of man, can, in combination with other social phenomena, destroy it, check it, or stimulate it.'
call	3	... his theory of habitus is what Jay MacLeod calls "a regulator between individuals and their external world, between human agency and social structure".
cite	3	To chart the developmental progression of cohesion within extended narratives Garton and Pratt (1998) cite a study where children between the ages of four and nine were given a specially designed picture book (to limit narrative options) and asked to tell the story that the pictures described.
consider	3	In section 25 Kant considers how we measure extension.
criticism	3	Criticisms have been raised in response to the contemplative life theory.

feel	3	However, from this tool, these linguists feel that we can only get phenomena, not full theories.
identify	3	Within the Protestant Ethic, Weber identifies the separation of the business from the household, book-keeping, science, law, education, citizenship, climate, and biology as factors that influenced, and were influenced by, the spirit of capitalism and consequently modern capitalist culture.
imply	3	Aside from the fact that Dido and Aeneas are simply not meant to be together, Virgil implies that love is a bad force overall.
look	3	In the case of the post-vocalic /r/ variable Labov looked at three department stores with three quite different clienteles and staff divided upon class lines.
make clear	3	But as Allen makes clear , such an approach is inherently flawed because Socrates spends a good chunk of the dialogue systematically showing how virtue is knowledge.
mean	3	By this he [Aristotle] meant that it is not dependant on its characters and more focused on the actual plot.
mention	3	This story is always different because the context that surrounds an individual is always dynamic, active and as Mercer (2000:21) mentions 'created anew in every interaction between speaker and listener'.
observe	3	Johanson and Edgar (1996) observed there appeared to be no technological advancement in the production of stone tools around the time of the proposed introduction of language...
put forward	3	Writers such as Thucydides put forward this point of view, which greatly influenced Plutarch.
question	3	Lane questions the anthropologist's "perceived determinism and consequent inability to account for significant historical change"...
stress	3	Their ideas have given a useful insight into past societies social cohesion, archaeologists have stressed the importance of individual agency in the past, in reaction to other approaches such as culture history or environmental determinism, in which individuals and communities are sidelined.
add	2	Lee adds that: '...belief in an aristocracy of talent may be wicked; but it is not the same thing as belief in a hereditary caste'.
admit	2	Descartes admits that he 'cannot guarantee that others can be convinced of it'...
assumption	2	Foucault makes an illogical assumption that because meaning and interpretation will be open to some question, it is impossible to communicate any meaning faithfully.
belief	2	This goes directly against Wordsworth's belief , influenced greatly by the pantheism of Samuel Taylor Coleridge, that 'truth to nature was the vital precondition for the exercise of poetic imagination.'
concede	2	However, Weber also concedes , 'we shall thus have to admit that the cultural consequences of the Reformation were to a great extent, perhaps in the particular aspects with which we are dealing predominantly, unforeseen and even unwished for results of the labours of the reformers.'

counter	2	however, Johanson and Edgar (1996) are quick to counter this argument with the observation brain evolution continues, indicating a single mutation is unlikely to have caused the initiation of speech.
criticise	2	V.C. Chappell criticises Bluck for this separation of virtue, pointing out that there is no evidence for this in the text itself.
define	2	Aristotle defines reason to include not only theoretical and practical reason but also our emotions and desires as long as they can 'listen to reason'.
deny	2	After all, Eckstein has denied that virtue is knowledge, and as a result it cannot be taught.
describe	2	Contrastingly, Sharpe describes the entire of Elizabethan and early Stuart society as a "population...very unconvinced about the advantages of Protestantism"...
dispute	2	Gough and Wren (1999) disputed the findings of Goodman (1973) in their own miscue analysis task when they found very few miscues in their own results.
insist	2	Rather than answer Meno's opening question straight away, Socrates insists that they attempt to define what virtue is.
interpretation	2	The doctrine of anamnesis (or recollection) is essential for a proper understanding of Guthrie's interpretation .
note	2	Interestingly both skilled and less skilled readers appear to make the same number of fixations, however, as Field notes 'what marks out less skilled reading is a much higher level of regression' (2003:75).
notice	2	Schopenhauer, however, noticed that there was one 'feeling' or 'motivation' quite unlike all other, and he also noticed that it had been largely ignored or dismissed by other philosophers.
regard	2	He contrasts this with the unity of composition, which he regards as the proper way of interpreting the union of thought and body.
reject	2	Weber, rejecting the primacy of economics in historical processes, therefore presents a 'multivocal' and 'polymorphous' view of causation...
tell	2	Where Darwin tells us what, Schopenhauer has already told us why, and this is no better portrayed than in his theory of love...
accept	1	It is now generally accepted that meaning and form are related.
assertion	1	Hobbes' assertion does not imply that the notion of thinking being dependent on a corporeal object should be granted the same amount of acceptance by the common sense of Descartes' day.
assign	1	The placing of religious significance upon human activity therefore encouraged an attitude towards life, to which Weber assigns 'the spirit of capitalism', a spirit distinct to the West.
avoid	1	Eckstein avoids the issue completely in a vague statement towards the end of his commentary.
come up with	1	In the third century BC Aristotle attempted to differentiate between the different genres of writing, and he came up with five main principles of tragedy.
comment on	1	Aristophanes makes only a few short comments of the war, mentioning Cleonymus who was given the name "the great-

		shield dropper," referring to an incident during one of the battles with the Spartans.
concur	1	Critic David Punter concurs that " it is conventional, and reasonable, to say that the society which generated and read Gothic fiction was one which was becoming aware of injustice in a variety of different areas ... there was a dawning consciousness of inequality."
confirm	1	These studies confirm that the full understanding and adult use of relative clauses are not totally acquired by the age of five.
continue	1	Weber continues , affirming that 'in fact, the State itself, in the sense of a political association with a rational, written constitution, rationally ordained law, and an administration bound to rational rules or laws' was known only in Western civilisation.
critique	1	Houghton (1993) provided an interesting critique of the work of Lieberman (1989) when discussing the possibility of Neanderthal speech.
decide	1	The following diagram shows the set-up of the Computer Corpus Pilot Project (CCPP) which was set up in the early 1980s and tagged using syntactic rules which were decided upon by linguists.
declare	1	David Pepper declared that 'modern ecological environmentalism... has particular affinities with 19 th-century romanticism."
definition	1	The definition that Trevor gives to describe his group of friends is simply "We drink" (p.128).
differentiate	1	In the third century BC Aristotle attempted to differentiate between the different genres of writing, and he came up with five main principles of tragedy.
disagree	1	Houghton disagreed with this hypothesis, saying the interpretation of the oral cavity was incorrect and the tongue would occupy 90% of the oral cavity
discover	1	It was discovered in November 1992 by Eric Lawes, who immediately reported the find and did not remove all the objects from their contexts.
distinction	1	Bluck's distinction between higher and lower forms of virtue enables him to reach such a conclusion since the virtue we come across on earth is guided by right opinion, and not absolute knowledge.
doubt away	1	He doubts away all notions of his being a corporeal entity or even tenuous ether.
draw attention to	1	Henry Crabb Robinson draws attention to 'the reproaches [Blake] continually cast on [Wordsworth's] worship of nature, which, in the mind of Blake, constituted Atheism.
explanation	1	Western capitalism, defined by the rational organisation of free labour, was however distinct, and it is the emergence of this rationality that underpins Weber's explanation and development of modern Western culture.
express	1	In nineteenth-century Massachusetts, the transcendentalist Henry David Thoreau expressed the ideals of the Romantic Movement and veneration of nature in an American context.

extends the idea	1	Montaigne also extends the idea of 'lies' and more fully exploring all areas of this 'accursed vice', the writer links the act of lying with a strong 'memory'
hint at	1	Philip Stubbes, author of The Anatomie of Abuses, hints at a widespread lack of adherence to the requirements of the Church on a Sunday
ignore	1	Unlike Bourdieu, Giddens ignores the 'body' of the agent, something that Bourdieu stresses throughout his theory of habitus where he implies that we manipulate and change society through our actions
inform	1	Hourani also informs us that it seems likely that these bronze children would have had no education, as he states that the source for the description of the education makes no mention of anyone else but the Guardians
interpret	1	Cooper (1986) interprets Aristotle's concept of eudaimonia to be arguing the intellectualist may perform various virtuous actions as to remain involved with other people.
make the point	1	He also makes the point that the kindergarten education is not given to 'the best children', but 'the children of better parents'
objection	1	Crowther's similar objection can be countered in the same way.
own words	1	In Allen's own words , 'knowledge is an intrinsic or defining characteristic of virtue.
pinpoint	1	Virgil pinpoints aspects of obsessive love; driven to distraction from her duties to her people, she is convinced this 'heaven-born' hero can do no wrong.
put it	1	In terms of Archaeology perhaps Marx puts it best when relating agency to archaeology...
raise the point	1	So Hunston and Francis raise the point , "can we state categorically that something 'cannot' be said?" (Hunston and Francis 2000:103).
refer	1	Aristophanes makes only a few short comments of the war, mentioning Cleonymus who was given the name "the great-shield dropper," referring to an incident during one of the battles with the Spartans.
remind	1	Balot reminds us that unlike the totalitarian states of the last century, it was not simply a matter of the elite seizing power for their own benefit.
report	1	Campbell, reported that between 1847 and 1858, forty-eight male attendants and twenty female 'nurses' were dismissed for cruelty from private madhouses.
reveal	1	Over two studies Zimmerman and West have revealed men interrupt more than women.
speak of	1	An example of this is described by Appian who speaks of Lucullus' reasons and actions for attacking the Vaccei
sum up	1	Harris sums this point up best in the general context
summarise	1	He quotes from the work of Cornford, summarizing his opinions on the matter
summary	1	E. Seymer Thompson provides an excellent summary of the reasons for this.
verbalise	1	he verbalises that the culture in villages was unreflective of the strict, pious archetype the Church aspired to install,

wonder	1	Descartes wonders if his existence was bound up with his body and senses.
Total Raw <i>f</i>	582	

Table D7- Entertain Features in AH123		
Feature	N	Example from AH123
can	359	Dental studies can reveal other things such as "pathological and non-pathological dental abnormalities" (Leek 1986: 35).
may	148	This may give an indication that Allende intended to place less focus on Trueba as his name does not appear in bold as a heading on any of the chapters.
could	133	The first wars following the defeat of Carthage could be attributed to this however it would not seem correct to believe that all of Rome's wars were defensive considering the benefits that were associated with war and the way in which they embraced these through exploiting the provinces.
seem	75	... it seems valid to suggest that these dogmatic differences should be more greatly drawn out,...
must	63	While Tupac Amaru's campaign was large-scale and threatening, it lacked a definitive objective and must therefore be classed as simply the most significant of the various rebellions under Spanish rule.
might	26	Continuous, long-term payments emphasized the submission of the former enemy and gave a repeated reminder of her defeat, a lesson to other powers who might be recalcitrant or belligerent. The economic benefit was incidental.
possible	26	However, it is possible that this magic trick is positioned by the author for the benefit of Jose Arcadio Buendia, so the reader can understand how unimpressed Buendia is with the event.
possibly	26	This is possibly because the effects of social class and gender on language are so easily noticeable and so easily stigmatised.
probably	25	They were considered to be the most brutish of barbarians, probably due to the conflict with Greece.
perhaps	24	Climate is perhaps the most appropriate place to start as it is undoubtedly at the origin of all shortages of food.
likely	21	... Catholics are more likely to remain in their crafts than attend institutions preparing for technical, industrial and commercial occupations.
suggest	20	These findings suggest that the development of social roles although beginning before the age of five are not complete representations by this age.
i + mental verb	18	However, I think Budd is just confusing our customary notion of the imagination with Kant's.
appear	13	It is interesting to see that some 'greek' ideas about astronomy, medicine and religion appear to have been adapted from the ideas of those they considered to be barbarians.

evidence	13	There appears to be evidence suggesting that the Egyptian culture was in fact relatively open.
possibility	12	Hobbes has the upper hand in this argument, because if the intellect cannot be proven to be liberated from the body, then there is the possibility that thinking is a corporeal faculty.
seemingly	12	With this in mind, the question is seemingly unimportant.
unlikely	11	... it was unlikely that their differences would ever be reconciled in a peaceful way which would accommodate both sides.
should	6	This proposal should be considered together with the possibility of misinterpretation.
as if	6	That discongruity however, is the problem when analysing the independence movements, there are so many contradictions among what are surely the root causes that it seems as if there is a 'thinness' to the causation that does not convince of their contribution.
plausible	5	I find this to be the most plausible interpretation of Aristotle's account of eudaimonia as the eudaimon life will include various enjoyments whilst still holding contemplation as paramount.
supposedly	5	The charcoal, which is supposedly the best material to obtain dates from, supported the dates of around 10,000BP (Simmons 1991, p 866).
assume	4	Assuming people report themselves as using the forms that have positive connotations for them we see that women want to be seen as using standard prestige forms whereas men don't.
evident	4	It is evident the moral life is not just practical activity that is practiced insofar as it is sufficient to keep one alive and in a position to pursue contemplation.
apparent	3	The most apparent psychological occurrence in the novel surrounds the idea of an 'insomnia plague,' a so-called 'illness' that 'invaded the town.'(47)
apparently	3	Apparently , the restraints established were not sufficient to guarantee consistent and ardent conformity.
arguably	3	Therefore the government's failure to unite both sides due to a highly centralised system and inadequate leadership meant that it was arguably inevitable that political accommodation between the North and the South would break down in the 1850's.
suggestion	3	There has been suggestion that the position of the Neanderthal larynx has less to do with the capability of speech and more to do with climatic adaptation
imply	3	This view implies that it is civilization that causes this fragmented sense of self, which an individual can only recover through knowing what parts of the self have been lost.
support	3	This supports the idea that context is used in less skilled readers to support them when their decoding is weak.
as though	3	I mentioned earlier that the South was increasingly feeling as though it occupied a minority position within the Union but this was not just because of the pressure to abolish slavery.

evidently	3	If this was the case then they may have tried to manage them in some way but were evidently unsuccessful as they became extinct by around 4090+/-390BP (Burleigh and Clutton-Brock 1980, p387).
findings	2	These findings suggest that the development of social roles although beginning before the age of five are not complete representations by this age.
in my opinion	2	In my opinion this is unfair, Boudieu's theory of habitus enables us to pose key questions when assessing social stratification in the past.
potentially	2	Blake is pointing out 'the state of innocence and its relationship to the protective but potentially restrictive adult' in this poem, showing how over-zealous but ultimately
presumably	2	It is also interesting to look at the differences between the effects hunter gatherer groups have on island fauna compared to agriculturalists, as hunter gatherers would presumably present a case for a direct extinction, with the agriculturalists being an indirect cause.
allegedly	1	For example, the medium-sized rural parish of Terling, the changes it went through allegedly a representation of "national or even supra-national developments",
emphasise	1	It is as well to emphasise that Kant's concern here is with aesthetic measurements of magnitude.
impossible	1	...it is almost impossible to deny their meaning.
improbable	1	The very notion that humans could all survive for such a long period of time without sleep is extremely improbable...
likelihood	1	The important issue concerning the plague is not the likelihood of its manifestation in the town, but its deeper meaning concerning the towns people, and to a greater extent, the Buendia's.
presuming	1	Presuming that the rulers did this, they too would then be witness to the truth behind the Noble Lie itself.
probable	1	It is probable that popular opinion took on board a mixture of both views as well as referring to personal experience of female figures and their behaviour.
questioned	1	It is questioned whether the function argument supports the claim that eudaimonia is the life of contemplation.
Questions	46	is Kant saying that we attempt to think a measure of the power of nature as in the mathematically sublime?
if -clauses	68	If a motive of action is a mere expression of the Will, it is not genuinely moral, since the Will cares not for morality.
Total Raw <i>f</i>	1209	

Table D8- If-clauses in AH123	
Conditional	Essay ID
During the First and Second Intermediate Periods far fewer mummies have survived, if there were as many made as during other times.	AR1-6118b
It can then be argued (if a correlation is found between periods of warfare and unrest and an increase in hoarding/deposition in that region) that hoarding does indeed intensify during times of warfare and political and social upheaval (Grinder - Hansen 23rd March 2001, URL)	AR2-6204b
However, this is not to say that Bourdieu has gone uncriticised in his approaches to the subject, Lane questions the anthropologist's "perceived determinism and consequent inability to account for significant historical change", if this is true then we must seriously question Bourdieu's relevance to historical analysis, Bridget Fowler goes on to add that "Bourdieu has never undertaken any protracted discussion of transformation in the social, cultural, or political spheres".	AR2-6121a
This argument (if true) has important ramifications and provides vital data concerning the demand for certain objects during the Bronze and Iron Ages.	AR2-6204b
Radiocarbon dates have placed the site at around 10,000BP which, if accurate, make this the oldest site on Cyprus by 1500 years (Simmons 1991, p857).	AR3-6033e
if neanderthals were non-verbal, does this place them in the animal bracket?	AR3-6171h
if the final de-glaciation of the pleistocene was the cause of these extinctions, then why did extinctions not also occur during similar de-glaciations throughout the whole of the pleistocene?	AR3-6033e
An evolution in communication systems would potentially lead to success as a culture (Davidson, 1991); if this is so, and the Neanderthals were capable of speech, why did they die out?	AR3-6171h
If this early date for the arrival of humans is correct then it would mean an extremely long period of co-existence before the extinction of Myotragus.	AR3-6033e
If this was the case then they may have tried to manage them in some way but were evidently unsuccessful as they became extinct by around 4090+/-390BP (Burleigh and Clutton-Brock 1980, p387).	AR3-6033e
There can be no discussion of magic in 'One Hundred Years of Solitude' without mentioning one of, if not the most important character in the novel, Melquiades.	CAS1-0322b
There was a mutual dislike, racial, social and political in nature, between the classes that prevented wholesale unity, if that was ever likely, and enabled the use of local forces for the purpose of reaction.	CAS1-0267a
A very credible, if euro-centric, understanding can be reached of the causes of the Wars of Independence as having all to do with events in Paris, Madrid, Cadiz and the rest of the old world.	CAS1-0267a
These differing view points both about slavery and the economy may not have been such divisive issues, however, if the government had been able to unite the two sides and create compromises as each difficult situation arose.	CAS2-0244h

In particular it was again the issue of slavery where the authorities gave out mixed signals with regards to its stance on whether it could continue and if it could then to what extent and where this was allowed.	CAS2-0244h
Consequently, if Esteban Trueba had not been a part of the novel, events could have turned out very differently.	CAS3-0280g
Of course there are other characters that are just as important as Esteban, if not more so.	CAS3-0280g
if foreigners demonstrated these ideals they would have been regarded as bloodthirsty and dangerous.	CL1-6060c
If this was so, Propertius' unpleasant, 'perverse' sense of being in love may have seemed romantic at the time.	CL1-6182b
if the ancient greeks are to be believed, their art and customs are tasteful whereas barbarians such as the persians flaunted their sexuality in a pervers manner.	CL1-6060c
Prominent barbarian groups in the greek world were the Persians and the Amazons, if they truly existed.	CL1-6060c
Furthermore, if this evidence does not seem sufficient to prove that senators were greatly motivated to make war on foreign states so that they might gain from trade there is also the fact that when the Lex Claudia was introduced by the tribune of the plebs there was a massive amount of opposition to it in the senate despite it being passed.	CL2-6066d
'It will be for the rulers of our city, then, if anyone, to use falsehood in dealing with citizen or enemy for the good of the state; no one else must do so.	CL3-6211b
Seemingly if Plato's whole model state is based on an elitist ideal, what hope is there for the rest of the model state?	CL3-6211b
If they believe that they are ruling for the good of the city, they themselves would believe the Noble Lie.	CL3-6211b
If we were to condemn Plato for his viewpoints, it would be seen as an attack on our own belief that everyone is entitled to their own opinion.	CL3-6211b
This is evident on her meeting with Count Morano, whom 'she looked upon...with horror, but apart from him, a conviction, if such that may be called, which arises from no proof, and which she knew not how to account for, seized her mind.	ENG2-3001d
If a reader associates their self with a character in a work of fiction whom it is believed the messages or ideas of the text are being conveyed to, they in return may use the insight gained from the text to put into perspective their own personal context, hence a story is developed far beyond what is merely implied in the text.	ENG3-3007b
Both Heart of Darkness and The Matrix focus on journeys, where the reader may, if viewed within a symbolic context, discover truths about themselves.	ENG3-3007b
The attainment of such a state of mind, however, can only be aroused by text - it is the individual, imaginatively creating their own stories from the text, who are then responsible to learn from these truths if any sense of meaning is to be formed.	ENG3-3007b
The individual, if Foucault is right, is left to act alone in a bleak world that has become incommunicative, de-stabilised and seemingly meaningless, despite their inner need for communication, order and morality.	ENG3-3003b
In effect, if Foucault's theory were true, then we would not be able to read his own essay and understand it so coherently.	ENG3-3003b

It is not possible to understand another individual if one cannot at the same time identify oneself with them.	ENG3-3007b
Modern and Postmodern thought derives from the idea that religion is dead, and in view of human death being the end of life (if religion is dead, so is the afterlife) come the philosophies for the present age.	ENG3-3003b
If someone were to sadistically rape, beat and cut up a young child, then it would take great courage (or lack of courage) for an individual to claim no objective wrongdoing.	ENG3-3003b
The 'pioneers of modern environmentalism' sought to limit, if not rectify, these problems by establishing numerous protective schemes, for example to conserve forests by placing strict controls upon the cutting of trees.	H1-0129e
'The history of famine in India, too, seems to substantiate the importance, if not the primacy, of climate.	H1-0098a
If the development of a famine was plotted along points in a process, it would show that social panic triggered by a shortage of food from abnormal climate creates a food crisis, but most important in this process would be whether government policies are able to prevent an outbreak of famine.	H1-0098a
Finally, there were areas of society in which women held most if not all power, these areas meant that women by necessity had authority which contradicted the submissive position intended for them, as well as giving women power which they could use to renegotiate their limited position.	H2-0010d
Whether you believed the new ideas of the reformed church or not, conforming just to avoid publicly apologising to the whole parish in a white gown, holding a white candle, seems a prudent decision.	H2-0039a
For instance before five relative clauses if used at all do not include relative pronouns (Ingram 1989) and embedded relative clauses are not likely to be understood if the function changes between clauses (Karmiloff-Smith 1986).	LIN2-6020b
This strengthens the case of creativity in that if this theory is correct, any word from the same group could be inserted into this pattern and the meaning would not be lost.	LIN2-6059e
Had the original theories not have been suggested by the likes of Broca and Wernicke further research would not have been done and technology would not have developed to aid our understanding of neurolinguistics via mapping of brain activity.	LIN3-6206c
if [the injection does result in temporary paralyisis it can be concluded that the side injected is dominant in language functions, with normal language functions being found to resume shortly after (Obler, 1999: 29).	LIN3-6206c
Already weakened, we shall analyse the rest of the Second Meditation to see if Descartes manages to salvage his position from Hobbes.	PH1-0285b
So, if Eckstein is correct then virtue is guided, sometimes, by right opinion and not knowledge, and when right opinion abandons us (which it frequently does), we have no guide at all and no way of summoning it.	PH1-0215b
After all, if all learning is simply a matter of recollection, then one already has knowledge, though it is buried deeply in one's brain.	PH1-0215b

If the soul's observance of forms is in fact passive, then there is no learning as we might understand the term, but rather detached perception of ultimate truths.	PH1-0215b
If these were Descartes' premises, it would be easy to deduce his conclusion that should he not possess a body, that which the faculties of the soul that are nourishment, locomotion and sense perception are bound up with, he would simply be a thinking thing.	PH1-0285b
We will now examine Descartes' arguments in the Second Meditation to see if they hold up to scrutiny.	PH1-0285b
If this idea is correct, then we never acquire new knowledge, but rather recall that which is latent, thus neatly avoiding Meno's paradox.	PH1-0215b
If this interpretation is correct then the Socratic method of drawing out truths latent in the minds of his pupils is the way of teaching virtue.	PH1-0215b
'If this is true, the tangled conclusion of the Meno is a piece of dialectical irony, its purpose not to plead the necessity of definition but to exhibit it.'	PH1-0215b
He states that virtue is 'largely unguided by knowledge; for if it were its guide, then virtue would be teachable and taught.'	PH1-0215b
If Putnam is correct, the function of pain as defined must admit of application to both fish and humans.	PH2-0235b
If you don't specify the behaviour - 'waving arms around or running away' for example - in terms of what it actually is as physical behaviour then the condition for the presence of the state can be nothing to do with the behaviour per se, as your only other option is to specify it in terms of the state (the input and inner state).	PH2-0235b
The first problem doesn't have to arise for functionalism if it agrees to suspend judgement on the question of whether there are distinctly mental states or properties, as I have suggested functionalism should do above.	PH2-0235b
But this only makes sense as a definition of a single function if all those states are characterised under some more general category and if conditions are included in the functional states whereby some have no affect on the organism. I shall explain.	PH2-0235b
Also, if contemplation is the highest activity, it is not evident why the needs of the moral life should take precedence.	PH2-3145c
But this only makes sense as a definition of a single function if all those states are characterised under some more general category and if conditions are included in the functional states whereby some have no affect on the organism.	PH2-0235b
An action is right if and only if it is what the person of practical wisdom would do in the circumstances.	PH2-3145c
However this response appears contradictory as if it is accepted that virtuous activity should only be engaged in as long as it contributes to nurturing ones intellect then virtuous action that does not contribute to furthering intellect should logically be neglected.	PH2-3145c
If a motive of action is a mere expression of the Will, it is not genuinely moral, since the Will cares not for morality.	PH3-0407c
If it were actually an expression of Will, however, everyone would have the capacity for compassion.	PH3-0407c
Compassion is therefore a truly altruistic act, and if it weren't then what we call morality would be a futile science without any object, like astrology.	PH3-0407c

if the whole of humanity were to injure each other and never care for each other, this would be a great detriment to the future of the species.	PH3-0407c
If there could [be content to the idea], there would be a synthesis of representations represented as infinite.	PH3-0390a
If that was so our idea of the infinite would be a concept to fit a synthesis of representations of the imagination.	PH3-0390a
If we attempt to represent the magnitude of a vast object - an object that exceeds my ability to comprehend all its representations - we are led to try to find a measure for it.	PH3-0390a
." If we read Kant this way we can agree that infinity is added by thought to an immensely large object.	PH3-0390a
if we were not able to relate the length 1cm to some such experience as 'the length of a house fly' we would not be able to use the measure in any but pure mathematical contexts.	PH3-0390a

Table D9- Rhetorical Expository Questions in AH123	
Question	Essay ID
were the ancient egyptians obsessed with death?	AR1-6118b
An individual's actions and the traces of actions that they leave in the archaeological record are not necessarily done on purpose so we, as archaeologists must ask why did they do it?	AR2-6121a
did they, and for what purpose?	AR3-6171h
have the two layers have been contaminated due to later activity?	AR3-6033e
is it possible to identify a spoken language in the neanderthal fossil record and through their material remains?	AR3-6171h
so why should they have died out so suddenly at the end of the last glacial (ramis and alcover 2001, p266)?	AR3-6033e
why did extinctions not also occur during similar de-glaciations throughout the whole of the pleistocene?	AR3-6033e
if this is so, and the Neanderthals were capable of speech, why did they die out?	AR3-6171h
what did the unpreserved soft tissue look like and did it allow speech?	AR3-6171h
does plato mean that only healthy children of the guardians are to survive birth and that the best of them become future guardians, while the worst are relegated to the lower classes?	CL3-6211b
how are the guardians to be brought up and educated?	CL3-6211b
how did plato decide to winnow out the silver from the bronze?	CL3-6211b
how will the philosopher kings be able to endure one untruth, which is the one of the greatest imaginable?	CL3-6211b
The so called 'Noble Lie' should be a great source of angst amongst these rulers, or should it?	CL3-6211b
so how was plutarch able to portray pericles as a good aristocratic ruler in chapter 39 of the life, when many of his early actions appear to be those of a demagogue?	CL3-6053i
what are the traits that distinguish an aristocracy in the first place?	CL3-6211b
what is the intended result from such a regime of selection?	CL3-6211b
what would the opportunities of a bronze child really be?	CL3-6211b

would they be able to be promoted at all?	CL3-6211b
are we subconsciously influenced in making up our own minds due to the innocuous style and apparent friendliness of 'to the reader'?	ENG1-3108b
what happens to morality and ethics when there is no centre?	ENG3-3003b
how does one identify oneself when there is no one to be accountable to?	ENG3-3003b
how can people be even aware of the central church's moral values when their ministers were overwhelmingly non-protestant?	H2-0039a
can corpus analysis give any insight into meaning?	LING2-6059e
when do children become aware of these roles?	LIN2-6020b
are we to conclude that virtue can be taught, but that the only person capable of teaching it is socrates?	PH1-0215b
who is to say that the relationship of thought and extension is one of unity of composition and not of nature?	PH1-0285b
what could we do as a cross-species functionalist?	PH2-0235b
how can the behaviour (the output) of a fish be specified in the same way as that of a human being?	PH2-0235b
how can the sensory input of a fish be specified in the same way as the sensory input of a human being?	PH2-0235b
but what could inspire us to help someone poor and dying, who could not possibly repay our actions, or to act heroically to the extent of putting our own life in danger?	PH3-0407c
but why should another's plight cause us to suffer in the first place?	PH3-0407c
but why the 'love' bit?	PH3-0407c
by asking 'rather than the idea of what'?	PH3-0390a
how do we get an 'absolute' concept of magnitude - how do i get a concept of magnitude that isn't related to other measures in an infinite regress?	PH3-0390a
how does it cause us to do this?	PH3-0407c
how does this relate to morality?	PH3-0390a
in what sense is this superior?	PH3-0390a
is compassion therefore unnatural, and whence forth does it stem?	PH3-0407c
is kant saying that we attempt to think a measure of the power of nature as in the mathematically sublime?	PH3-0390a
what is the source of the valuation here?	PH3-0390a
what is this intended to show?	PH3-0390a
why does this lead me to produce the idea of infinity?	PH3-0390a
why is it a boon to be able to think an idea which can not be presented in experience?	PH3-0390a
why should it serve as a motive for some and not others?	PH3-0407c
why should the will dictate it?	PH3-0407c

Table D10 Raw (N) and Normalised (PTW) frequencies (per 1000 words) of Engagement features across genre								
	Exposition		Discussion		Narration		Commentary	
Feature	N	PTW	N	PTW	N	PTW	N	PTW
CONTRACT	864	23.72	614	17.43	242	16.96	297	15.05
Deny	311	8.54	207	5.88	85.00	5.96	81.00	4.10
<i>Unfulfilled Expectations</i>	226	6.20	143	4.06	70.00	4.91	59.00	2.99
<i>Disagreement</i>	61.00	1.67	41.00	1.16	8.00	0.56	14.00	0.71
<i>Agreement</i>	6.00	0.16	3.00	0.09	4.00	0.28	0.00	0.00
<i>Criticality</i>	18.00	0.49	19.00	0.54	3.00	0.21	8.00	0.41
Counter	422.00	11.59	333	9.45	124	8.69	167	8.46
<i>Opposition</i>	222.00	6.09	179	5.08	56.00	3.93	84.00	4.26
<i>Correction</i>	24.00	0.66	23.00	0.65	7.00	0.49	11.00	0.56
<i>Limitation</i>	154.00	4.23	117.00	3.32	43.00	3.01	55.00	2.79
<i>Contrast</i>	15.00	0.41	11.000	0.31	4.00	0.28	17.00	0.86
<i>Judgement</i>	1.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
<i>Proclaim</i>	131.00	3.60	74.00	2.10	33.00	2.31	49.00	2.48
Concur	47.00	1.29	13.00	0.37	8.00	0.56	13.00	0.66
<i>Affirm</i>	31.00	0.85	8.00	0.23	7.00	0.49	11.00	0.56
<i>Concede</i>	4.00	0.11	4.00	0.11	1.00	0.07	2.00	0.10
<i>Persuade</i>	12.00	0.33	1.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Pronounce	59.00	1.62	45.00	1.28	25.00	1.75	29.00	1.47
Endorse	25.00	0.69	16.00	0.45	0.00	0.00	7.00	0.35
EXPAND	811.00	22.26	610.00	17.31	153.00	10.72	233.00	11.81
Entertain	566.00	15.54	268.00	10.45	121.00	8.48	150.00	7.60
<i>Negotiation</i>	374.00	10.27	285.00	8.09	92.00	6.45	121.00	6.13
<i>Impartiality</i>	16.00	0.44	8.00	0.23	4.00	0.28	5.00	0.25
<i>Responsibility</i>	13.00	0.36	5.00	0.14	2.00	0.14	3.00	0.15
<i>Verification</i>	85.00	2.33	49.00	1.39	12.00	0.84	15.00	0.76
<i>Postulation</i>	42.00	1.15	16.00	0.45	9.00	0.63	4.00	0.20
<i>Epistemic</i>	9.00	0.25	3.00	0.09	2.00	0.14	0.00	0.00

<i>Reservation</i>	16.00	0.44	7.00	0.20	2.00	0.14	1.00	0.05
<i>Relevance</i>	14.00	0.38	4.00	0.11	2.00	0.14	0.00	0.00
<i>Metalinguistic</i>	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.03	1.00	0.07	1.00	0.05
<i>Concessive</i>	2.00	0.05	0.00	0.00	2.00	0.14	2.00	0.10
<i>Rhetorical</i>	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
<i>Question</i>	39.00	1.07	5.00	0.14	0.00	0.00	2.00	0.10
<i>Frame the discourse</i>	2.00	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
<i>Introduce a proposition</i>	19.00	0.52	4.00	0.11	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.05
<i>Challenge a proposition</i>	17.00	0.47	1.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.05
<i>Support a claim</i>	1.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.0	0.00
Attribute	245.00	6.73	242.00	6.87	32.00	2.24	83.00	4.21
<i>Acknowledge</i>	204.00	5.60	230.00	6.53	28.00	1.96	75.00	3.80
<i>Distance</i>	27.00	0.74	7.00	0.20	0.00	0.00	4.00	0.20
<i>Hearsay</i>	14.00	0.38	7.00	0.20	4.00	0.28	3.00	0.15
Citations	334.00	9.17	295.00	8.37	22.00	1.54	31.00	1.57

Feature	GENRE				LEVEL			DISCIPLINE						
	Exposition	Discussion	Narration	Commentary	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3	Archaeology	Contemporary American Studies	Classics	English	History	Linguistics	Philosophy
Engagement-Heterogloss	45.98	34.74	27.69	26.85	37.04	31.15	39.97	40.51	28.55	33.0	28.26	36.22	32.88	53.96
Contract	23.72	17.43	16.96	15.05	19.32	17.19	20.58	19.15	18.43	18.39	15.22	22.38	14.82	25.91
Expand	22.26	17.31	10.72	11.81	17.72	13.97	19.39	21.37	10.12	14.61	13.04	13.83	18.06	28.05
Disclaim	20.12	15.33	14.65	12.57	16.44	14.5	17.96	16.75	15.61	15.93	12.79	18.91	12.53	22.65
DENY	8.54	5.88	5.96	4.10	6.7	5.57	7.1	6.10	6.51	5.09	5.07	6.35	4.31	11.91
Unfulfilled_Expectation	6.18	4.06	4.91	2.99	5.26	4.16	4.77	4.37	5.33	3.53	3.68	3.07	3.44	9.63
Disagreement	1.70	1.16	0.56	0.71	1.07	0.71	1.68	1.42	0.55	1.07	0.88	1.87	0.67	1.69
Agreement	0.16	0.09	0.28	0.00	0.17	0.17	0.05	0.06	0.16	0.08	0.05	0.40	0.07	0.07
Criticality	0.49	0.54	0.21	0.41	0.20	0.51	0.59	0.25	0.47	0.41	0.47	1.00	0.07	0.52
COUNTER	11.59	9.45	8.69	8.46	9.75	8.93	10.86	10.65	9.10	10.84	7.71	12.56	8.22	10.74
Opposition	6.09	5.08	3.93	4.26	4.99	4.35	5.89	5.60	4.71	4.60	4.14	6.82	4.45	5.60
Correction	0.66	0.65	0.49	0.56	0.54	0.45	0.82	0.37	0.47	0.99	0.57	0.80	0.47	0.72
Limitation	4.26	3.32	3.01	2.79	3.62	3.22	3.66	4.19	3.45	3.78	2.43	4.34	2.43	4.10
Contrast	0.41	0.31	0.28	0.86	0.47	0.51	0.37	0.43	0.39	0.57	0.57	0.20	0.67	0.26
Judgement	0.03	0	0	0	0	0.03	0	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Proclaim	3.60	2.10	2.31	2.48	2.88	2.69	2.62	2.40	2.82	2.46	2.43	3.47	2.29	3.25
CONCUR	1.29	0.37	0.56	0.66	0.84	0.71	0.77	0.92	0.78	0.90	0.62	0.80	0.27	1.11
Affirm	0.85	0.23	0.49	0.56	0.67	0.54	0.45	0.55	0.71	0.33	0.52	0.60	0.13	0.91
Concede	0.11	0.11	0.07	0.10	0.07	0.11	0.12	0.12	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.13	0.13	0.07
Persuade	0.33	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.10	0.06	0.20	0.25	0.00	0.49	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.13
PRONOUNCE	1.62	1.28	1.75	1.47	1.47	1.53	1.48	0.86	1.88	1.15	1.71	2.34	0.74	1.76
ENDORSE	0.69	0.45	0.00	0.35	0.57	0.45	0.37	0.62	0.16	0.41	0.10	0.33	1.28	0.39
ENTERTAIN	15.54	10.45	8.48	7.60	11.49	9.50	13.01	16.87	9.02	9.61	8.80	6.75	11.05	17.38
Negotiation	10.21	8.06	6.45	6.13	9.08	6.76	8.88	12.44	7.69	5.91	6.52	5.01	7.88	11.85
Impartiality	0.44	0.23	0.28	0.25	0.13	0.59	0.20	0.68	0.24	0.25	0.26	0.07	0.34	0.33
Responsibility	0.36	0.14	0.14	0.15	0.13	0.34	0.17	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.21	0.00	0.20	0.85
Verification	2.31	1.42	0.84	0.76	1.24	1.05	2.15	2.40	0.55	1.64	1.19	1.07	2.22	1.50
Postulation	1.15	0.45	0.63	0.20	0.70	0.57	0.74	0.74	0.47	0.74	0.47	0.53	0.27	1.50
Epistemic	0.25	0.09	0.14	0	0.1	0.03	0.25	0.06	0.00	0.33	0.05	0.20	0.13	0.20
Reservation	0.44	0.20	0.14	0.05	0.2	0.42	0.12	0.06	0.00	0.33	0.05	0.20	0.13	0.20
Relevance	0.38	0.11	0.14	0	0.23	0.08	0.25	0.25	0.16	0.08	0.21	0.20	0.13	0.65
Metalinguistic	0	0.03	0.07	0.05	0.07	0.03	0	0.31	0.00	0.25	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.65
Concessive	0.05	0	0.14	0.10	0.1	0	0.07	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.13	0.00	0.00
Rhetorical	0	0.03	0	0	0	0	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00
Question	1.07	0.14	0	0.10	0.13	0.20	0.87	0.55	0.00	0.82	0.16	0.07	0.13	1.37
Frame the Discourse	0.05	0	0	0	0	0.06	0	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.13
Introduce a Proposition	0.52	0.11	0	0.05	0.1	0.11	0.42	0.31	0.00	0.41	0.16	0.00	0.13	0.59
Challenge a Proposition	0.47	0.03	0	0.05	0.03	0.03	0.42	0.25	0.00	0.41	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.59
Support a Claim	0.03	0	0	0	0	0	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07

ATTRIBUTE	6.73	6.87	2.24	4.21	6.23	4.47	6.38	4.49	1.10	5.01	4.24	7.08	7.01	10.67
Acknowledge	5.60	6.53	1.96	3.85	5.59	3.73	5.86	4.13	0.94	4.60	3.88	6.88	6.54	8.33
Distance	0.74	0.20	0	0.20	0.4	0.25	0.42	0.12	0.00	0.25	0.16	0.07	0.27	1.63
Hearsay	0.38	0.20	0.28	0.15	0.23	0.48	0.10	0.25	0.16	0.16	0.21	0.13	0.20	0.72
CITATIONS	9.17	8.37	0.25	0.40	6.13	4.86	8.09	13.30	1.36	2.46	2.38	4.41	16.64	4.49

Table D12 Essay subgenres

ID	Prompt	WORDS	RAW	PTW
EXPOSITION (13)				
AR1-6118b	What can the scientific study of mummies tell us about the life style and beliefs of the ancient Egyptians?	1870	113	2.99
AR2-6204b	How have Archaeologists accounted for the deposition of metallurgy (in both wet and dry context) in Europe?	2914	93	2.46
AR3-6033e	What role did humans play in the extinction of Mediterranean Island faunas? Discuss in relation to Cyprus and Mallorca. Discussion	3340	135	3.57
AR3-6171h	Discuss and evaluate the evidence for Neanderthal speech Discussion	2830	152	4.02
CL3-6211b	Should we condemn Plato's model state, as proposed in the Republic, as elitist?	2404	119	3.14
HIS2-0039a	How successfully did the Church impose its moral values on society in the period 1560-1640?	1863	118	3.12
HIS3-0380c	Roy Porter describes private asylums as both 'running sores of scandal' and 'sites of therapeutic innovation.' Do you agree with this dual imagery?	2335	89	2.35
LIN2-6020b	How Far Does Language After Age Five Differ From What Has Developed Up To That Point?	2038	70	1.85
PH1-0215b	Does the Meno show that virtue is teachable?	2403	175	4.63
PH2-0235b	Can functionalism provide a cross-species concept of pain?	2552	190	5.02
PH2-3145c	Critically discuss Aristotle's understanding of Eudaimonia. Can his two accounts be reconciled? Discussion	2275	102	2.69
PH3-0390a	In what sense does our experience of the sublime demonstrate the supremacy of our rational nature, according to Kant?	3015	156	4.12
PH3-0407c	Do you agree with Schopenhauer that Compassion is the only genuine and moral motive of action?	2244	136	3.59

DISCUSSION (14)				
AR1-6032b	How are the functions of Roman towns reflected in the Archaeological record? Discuss with reference to specific sites.	2112	77	2.03
AR2-6121a	Compare and contrast the approach to structure and agency adopted by Giddens and Bourdieu. What can their approaches offer archaeology?	1323	70	1.85
CAS3-0318d	The 'passionlessness' debate	1553	53	1.4
ENG3-3003b	Using any critical/theoretical ideas that you have encountered so far on this module explore the continuities or discontinuities between any two texts you have read on your degree	3034	123	3.25
ENG3-3007b	'The author's text is only half the story'. In what ways is meaning always mediated through discursive dialogues?	2957	153	4.04
HIS1-0129e	To what extent did the Romantic Movement pave the way for modern environmentalism?	2164	61	1.61
HIS2-0010d	How should we explain the gap between theory and practice in the social position of women in early modern England?	2523	76	2.01
HIS3-0144e	What part did the factors outlined in Weber's Protestant Ethic play in explaining the divergent economic development of western and Eastern civilisations	2678	117	3.09
LIN1-6018b	What is the effect of the social variables of gender and class on the way we speak? Is there a link between them?	1945	81	2.14
LIN1-6055d	The study of linguistics is essential to speech and language pathology. Discuss this statement with reference to two communication disorders. Discussion	2105	46	1.21
LIN2-6059e	'One of the most important observations in a corpus-based description of English is that patterns and meanings are connected'- Discuss/discussion	2083	77	2.03
LIN3-6174e	To what extent do readers rely upon information from decoding the written text and to what extent do they bring in information from external sources?	2070	114	3.01
LIN3-6206c	In what way can aphasia inform our knowledge about the localisation of language functions in the human brain?	2553	90	2.38
PH1-0285b	In connection with the Second Meditation, Hobbes said it was possible that something that thinks should be something corporeal. Do Descartes' arguments succeed in ruling this possibility out?	1075	67	1.77
COMMENTARY (8)				
CAS1-0322b	Examine the function of magic in Gabriel Garcia Marquez's 'One Hundred Years of Solitude'	1957	69	1.82
CAS3-0280g	"Esteban Trueba is the indispensable character in Allende's 'The House of the Spirits'. Discuss"	2175	83	2.19
CL1-6182b	Virgil, Aeneid, 'How is love presented in the extracts?'	1046	43	1.13

CL3-6053i	Commentary on Plutarch, Life of Pericles	1693	69	1.82
EN1-3005b	Explore Shakespeare's handling of the conventions of tragedy in Othello, and the tragedy of Desdemona	2117	70	1.85
EN1-3108b	How important is Montaigne's preface 'to the reader' for our appreciation of any two or more chapters of the essays?	2304	94	2.48
EN2-3001d	Manfred desires "Forgetfulness...of that which is within me." With reference to at least two texts on the course, discuss the ways in which Gothic writing explores the category of subjectivity in the Romantic era.	2397	52	1.37
EN2-3080e	Discuss the representation and use of childhood in literature of the Romantic Period	2608	57	1.5
NARRATION (7)				
CAS1-0267a	What caused the Wars of Independence?	2069	85	2.24
CAS2-0130c	How did religious belief influence and interact with Inca imperial expansion, ca. 1430-1530?	1800	17	0.44
CAS2-0244h	Why Did the Political Accommodation between the North and the South Break Down in the 1850's?	1789	58	1.53
CL1-6060c	How did the Greeks construct Greek and non-Greek identity?	1417	48	1.27
CL2-6066d	Was Rome an aggressive imperialist power?	2309	74	1.95
CL2-6073d	What effect, if any, did the Peloponnesian War have on either Athenian or Spartan Society?	2008	36	0.95
HIS1-0098a	'Famines in India have been caused primarily by government policies.' Discuss.	1792	71	1.87

**APPENDIX E- AH123 FINDINGS ACROSS LEVELS AND
DISCIPLINES**

Table E1 Normalised Frequencies per 1000 words of Engagement features per level of study			
Feature	Year 1	Year 2	Year 3
CONTRACT	19.32	17.19	20.58
DISCLAIM	16.44	14.5	17.96
Deny	6.70	5.57	7.10
<i>Unfulfilled Expectation</i>	5.26	4.16	4.77
<i>Disagreement</i>	1.07	0.71	1.68
<i>Agreement</i>	0.17	0.17	0.05
<i>Criticality</i>	0.20	0.51	0.59
Counter	9.75	8.93	10.86
<i>Opposition</i>	4.99	4.35	5.89
<i>Correction</i>	0.54	0.45	0.82
<i>Limitation</i>	3.62	3.22	3.66
<i>Contrast</i>	0.47	0.51	0.37
<i>Judgement</i>	0.00	0.03	0.00
PROCLAIM	2.88	2.69	2.62
Concur	0.84	0.71	0.77
<i>Affirm</i>	0.67	0.54	0.45
<i>Concede</i>	0.07	0.11	0.12
<i>Persuade</i>	0.10	0.06	0.20
Pronounce	1.47	1.53	1.48
Endorse	0.57	0.45	0.37
EXPAND	17.72	13.97	19.39
Entertain	11.49	9.50	13.01

<i>Negotiation</i>	9.08	6.76	8.88
<i>Impartiality</i>	0.13	0.59	0.20
<i>Responsibility</i>	0.13	0.34	0.17
<i>Verification</i>	1.24	1.05	2.15
<i>Postulation</i>	0.70	0.57	0.74
<i>Epistemic</i>	0.10	0.03	0.25
<i>Reservation</i>	0.20	0.42	0.12
<i>Relevance</i>	0.23	0.08	0.25
<i>Metalinguistic</i>	0.07	0.03	0.00
<i>Concessive</i>	0.10	0.00	0.07
<i>Rhetorical</i>	0.00	0.00	0.02
<i>Question</i>	0.13	0.20	0.87
<i>Frame the Discourse</i>	0.00	0.06	0.00
<i>Introduce a Proposition</i>	0.10	0.11	0.42
<i>Challenge a Proposition</i>	0.03	0.03	0.42
<i>Support a Claim</i>	0.00	0.00	0.02
Attribute	6.23	4.47	6.38
<i>Acknowledge</i>	5.59	3.73	5.86
<i>Distance</i>	0.40	0.25	0.42
<i>Hearsay</i>	0.23	0.48	0.10
Citations	6.13	4.86	8.09

Table E2 Normalised frequencies per 1000 words of Engagement features across disciplines

Subsystem	Archaeology	CAS	Classics	English	History	Linguistics	Philosophy
Deny	6.10	6.51	5.09	5.07	6.35	4.31	11.91
<i>Unfulfilled_Expectation</i>	4.31	5.33	3.53	3.68	3.07	3.44	9.63
<i>Disagreement</i>	1.48	0.55	1.07	0.88	1.87	0.67	1.69
<i>Agreement</i>	0.06	0.16	0.08	0.05	0.40	0.07	0.07
<i>Criticality</i>	0.25	0.47	0.41	0.47	1.00	0.07	0.52
Counter	10.71	9.10	10.84	7.71	12.56	8.22	10.74
<i>Opposition</i>	5.60	4.71	4.60	4.14	6.82	4.45	5.60
<i>Correction</i>	0.37	0.47	0.99	0.57	0.80	0.47	0.72
<i>Limitation</i>	4.25	3.45	3.78	2.43	4.34	2.43	4.10
<i>Contrast</i>	0.43	0.39	0.57	0.57	0.20	0.67	0.26
<i>Judgement</i>	0.06	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
Concur	0.92	0.78	0.90	0.62	0.80	0.27	1.11
<i>Affirm</i>	0.55	0.71	0.33	0.52	0.6	0.13	0.91
<i>Concede</i>	0.12	0.08	0.08	0.10	0.13	0.13	0.07
<i>Persuade</i>	0.25	0.00	0.49	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.13
Pronounce	0.86	1.88	1.15	1.71	2.34	0.74	1.76
Endorse	0.62	0.16	0.41	0.10	0.27	1.28	0.39
Entertain	16.69	9.02	9.61	8.85	6.82	10.91	17.38
<i>Negotiation</i>	12.25	7.69	5.91	6.52	5.01	7.88	11.85
<i>Impartiality</i>	0.68	0.24	0.25	0.26	0.07	0.34	0.33
<i>Responsibility</i>	0.06	0.08	0.08	0.21	0.00	0.20	0.85
<i>Verification</i>	2.40	0.55	1.64	1.24	1.14	2.09	1.50
<i>Postulation</i>	0.74	0.47	0.74	0.47	0.53	0.27	1.50
<i>Epistemic</i>	0.06	0.00	0.33	0.05	0.20	0.13	0.20
<i>Reservation</i>	0.25	0.16	0.08	0.21	0.20	0.13	0.65

<i>Relevance</i>	0.31	0.00	0.25	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.65
<i>Metalinguistic</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.13	0.00	0.00
<i>Concessive</i>	0.06	0.31	0.08	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
<i>Rhetorical</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.05	0.00	0.00	0.00
<i>Question</i>	0.55	0.00	0.82	0.16	0.07	0.13	1.37
<i>Frame the Discourse</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.13
<i>Introduce a Proposition</i>	0.31	0.00	0.41	0.16	0.00	0.13	0.59
<i>Challenge a Proposition</i>	0.25	0.00	0.41	0.00	0.07	0.00	0.59
<i>Support a Claim</i>	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.07
Attribute	4.49	1.10	5.01	4.24	7.02	6.94	10.67
<i>Acknowledge</i>	4.13	0.94	4.60	3.88	6.82	6.47	8.33
<i>Distance</i>	0.12	0.00	0.25	0.16	0.07	0.27	1.63
<i>Hearsay</i>	0.25	0.16	0.16	0.21	0.13	0.20	0.72
Citations	13.30	0.63	2.46	2.38	4.41	16.64	4.49

APPENDIX F-THE CORPUS STUDY

System	Corpus study (BAWE-AH123)			Annotations (AH123)
	Raw	Per mil	Per 1000	
ENGAGEMENT	50,413	29,806.13	29.81	
Contract	29,604	17,502.59	17.50	19.43
Expand	43,813	12,303.54	12.30	16.87
<i>Disclaim</i>	26,887	15,896.59	15.90	16.45
Deny	11,818	6,987.52	6.99	6.49
Counter	15,069	8,909.07	8.91	9.96
<i>Proclaim</i>	2,717	1,606.00	1.61	2.98
Concur	1,153	681.72	0.68	0.77
Pronounce	1,156	684.00	0.68	1.68
Endorse	408	241.23	0.24	0.53
Entertain	18,685	11,047.70	11.05	11.30
Attribute	26,815	15,854.65	15.85	5.57

System	Corpus			Annotations
	Raw	Per mil	Per 1000	Per 1000
Deny	11,818	6,987.52	6.99	6.49
Counter	15,069	8,909.07	8.91	9.96
Concur	1,153	681.72	0.68	0.77
Pronounce	1,156	684.00	0.68	1.68
Endorse	408	241.23	0.24	0.53
Entertain	18,685	11,047.70	11.05	11.30
Attribute	26,815	15,854.65	15.85	5.57