A Genre-based Study of Pedagogical Business Case Reports

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Declaration

I declare that this thesis, which I submit for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at the University of Birmingham is my own work.

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Abstract

Business case report writing is a common requirement on academic business programmes. In order to inform language-based pedagogical support, this thesis set out to explore the linguistic characteristics of these case reports and to evaluate different approaches to the teaching and learning of business case report writing. Analysis of a specially constructed case report corpus (125,000 words) consisting of 53 postgraduate NS and NNS business reports, combined with confirmatory analysis of BAWE[1] corpus business case reports, identified common report features as impersonal style, high levels of explicit structure, low citation levels and business specialism-dependent lexis. Three obligatory rhetorical moves were identified (orientation, analysis, advisory) and five optional moves (methodology, options and alternatives, summary and consolidation, supplementary supporting information and reflection), moves being realized through diverse structural components with significant variability observed in optional move deployment and move realization dependent on a range of factors, in particular business specialism, suggesting the value of specialism-based pedagogy. Study of case report options and alternatives move structures identified multiple rhetorical components, exhibiting high degrees of cyclicity. Genre learning experiments demonstrated learning-approach dependent increases in move, modal verb and lexical deployment, with both directed and undirected approaches to genre model study supporting effective pedagogy.

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[1] British Academic Written English corpus (2008)

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Chapter 1 – Introduction

While the essay in its varied forms remains a staple of university pedagogical assignments and assessments, the university learning environment plays host to a range of written pedagogical tasks and genres, occurring both across the different academic disciplines, but also in many cases, restricted to more narrowly defined specialist fields. This variety of written tasks and genres is evidenced, for example, by recent research undertaken in the development of the British Academic Written English corpus (2008), as well as the university writing task reviews of the US researchers Cooper and Bikowski (2007) and Horowitz (1986). These non-essay tasks and genres range from critiques, laboratory reports and research proposals to design specifications, empathetic writing and explanatory texts.

Within the academic business specialism, which forms the broad context for the research in this thesis, a core approach to teaching and learning is the business case method, in which business principles are taught through business cases describing characteristics and actions of specific companies operating within the context of realistic business situations. Key vehicles within the business case method for both developing learning and enabling evaluation of student performance, are texts generated by students in response to these cases. These text responses can take a variety of forms, ranging from essay-like case critiques and non-essay responses such as short answer texts, to more extended texts described as case reports, case studies and case write-ups.

At the particular locus of research in this thesis, a UK university business school, postgraduate students were required, as one of the core tasks on their business Masters programmes, to write non-essay texts, referred to as reports, in response to business case

information. Due to the requirement for the writing of these case-based reports on the business Masters programmes, together with a perception that such report writing might be challenging for non-native speaker students, a strand of teaching focusing on business cases and business case report writing was incorporated within the university's pre-sessional preparatory business English programme. While considered a valuable component of student preparation, however, the research literature available to support the teaching of business case report writing was found to be limited.

Although some outline support for the teaching and learning of case report writing, in particular relating to text structure, existed in business specialism-based teaching texts focused on strategies for tackling business cases (for example, Easton 1992; Maufette-Leenders *et al.,* 1997), this advice was provided from a business rather than a linguistic perspective, and also, while deriving from substantive specialist expertise and experience, was not based on a published research literature incorporating systematic investigation of case report characteristics.

Within more specifically linguistic and business communications focused literature, research was primarily ethnographic in approach, and focused around texts referred to as case studies (Freedman *et al.,* 1994; Freedman & Adam, 1996) or case write-ups (Forman & Rymer, 1999a,b). Little information was provided in this US based ethnographic research in terms of lexical and grammatical features of these texts, however, preliminary analysis of this US research and initial comparison with case reports from the UK business school indicated the relevance of the US research to study of the UK business school case reports, as shown by similarities in the nature of case tasks, and text structural characteristics, particularly a requirement for analytical and recommendations components.

Information about low level lexical and grammatical characteristics of case reports as well as broader rhetorical and structural patterns was considered of significant value for the teaching and learning of case report writing on the pre-sessional business preparation programme at the research site, and was also considered of potential value in terms of understanding the characteristics of case reports and case report writing more generally. Given the absence of detailed business case report textual data in the research literature, and the absence of previous research on business case report writing in a UK context, in order to support the teaching and learning of case report writing at the research site and develop further understanding of case report writing it was decided to investigate the characteristics of business case report texts at the research site.

Characterisation of the business case reports was conducted within the framework of genre analysis developed and exemplified by Swales (1981, 1990, 2004), and widely adopted in the field of English for specific purposes relevant to this research (Hyon, 1996). This ESP framework has been widely applied to study of a range of academic and specialist genre, in particular on account of its pedagogical applicability (Cheng, 2007). As opposed to the new rhetoric school of genre analysis in which more ethnographic analyses are situated, researchers in the ESP genre approach, though maintaining a focus on the social purposes of texts and their communicative goals, have significant regard to the lexicogrammatical and other more formal features of text genres including rhetorical organisation and structure, defined in terms of purposeful moves (for example, Swales, 1990; Bhatia, 1993) and it is these features of business case reports which are considered of major relevance in the current research.

In order to investigate the characteristics of business case reports at the research site, it was

necessary to construct a corpus of report texts written by students on the relevant postgraduate business programmes. In addition to the ESP genre framework, the approach to text analysis was therefore also based within the methodological framework of corpus linguistics, which is widely viewed as a powerful tool for language analysis. Despite the fact that some criticisms have been made of corpus based approaches (for example Chomsky, 1962), it is considered that naturally occurring data, collected together in language corpora provides a wealth of empirically valid and verifiable 'real' information as regards language performance.

Initial case report characterisation focused on establishing the structural and linguistic characteristics of these reports as a whole, incorporating descriptions of individual structural elements in terms of rhetorical function and identification of some key lower level linguistic characteristics. Once this broad characterisation was complete, further in-depth investigation was conducted on structural elements dealing with the analysis of options and alternatives. These elements were chosen for more detailed study due to the observed occurrence in preliminary analyses of a range of errors in options element writing by pre-sessional business students, particularly in terms of the deployment of modal verbs; due to the absence of identified research on the linguistic and functional nature of options related structural elements, and further, on the grounds that the presentation of alternative solutions and options was identified as an element of case report and case study writing in a number of different research sources (for example Easton, 1992; Forman & Rymer, 1999a; Zhu, 2004). Generalisability of the overall description of business case reports from the thesis corpus was investigated through analysis of further business case reports identified from the BAWE corpus (2008).

Linked to the text analysis and characterisation, given the practical context which served as

part of the motivation for this research, it was also decided to conduct some preliminary investigations into how case report options analysis elements might be taught and learnt in the language classroom. In line with teaching and learning procedures adopted within the ESP genre framework (for example Paltridge, 2001; Hyland, 2004a) samples of options analysis structural elements were used as exemplars or models for developing student case writing and for the investigation of teaching and learning approaches with non-native speaker students. The utilisation of texts as models and their evaluation as learning vehicles within the ESP genre framework was considered of particular interest as their use is a matter of some controversy in the world of English language and genre teaching and learning, both within and beyond the university academic environment.

In summary, the research reported in this thesis attempts a preliminary broad structural and linguistic characterisation of a corpus of business case report texts generated at the university research site. This is combined with more detailed structural and linguistic characterisation of options and alternatives related report components. The final component of the thesis is an experimental analysis and evaluation of the use of a genre approach to teaching, focusing in particular on the use of model options analysis texts in the teaching and learning of options writing to non-native speaker students.

Chapter 2 – Business Case Report Writing and Case Pedagogy

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines in detail the published literature relevant to case report writing and provides contextualising information concerning the case method of business teaching through which case reports are generated.

In order to delimit the research literature relevant to case report writing, taking into account the commonality of analytical and recommendations in the case texts described on page 2 of this thesis and the educational context of pedagogical reports, as a preliminary measure business case reports are defined operationally as:

> *simulation-based pedagogical texts incorporating analysis and providing advice or recommendation, which are generated in response to business case materials and case-based tasks, and which serve as loci for the development and evaluation of learner knowledge and abilities relevant to the business field.[1]*

Given this operational definition, the ethnographically focused US research, based within the situational and contextually focused new rhetoric school and conforming to the operational definition, forms a significant part of the background discussion in this chapter, as this research constitutes the sole identified peer-reviewed research relevant to case report writing. While the main focus of the thesis research is more on formal text features than the US studies, the US research is considered to provide noteworthy research evidence, including relevant rhetorical and structural information.

The research literature relevant to workplace business report writing is also reviewed in this chapter since a number of literature sources describe writing of pedagogical case reports as

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[1] Surveying business assignments at a single US university site, Zhu (2004) proposed two case related categories; firstly business reports encompassing texts requiring provision of recommendations, but also requiring company research to be conducted by student writers; and secondly case analysis tasks in which case information was normally supplied. The second category of case analysis texts overlaps substantially with the category of case reports defined here.

simulated business writing and as preparation for writing in the workplace (for example Christensen, 1981; Stewart, 1992; Mauffette-Leenders *et al.,* 1997). Insights into pedagogical case report writing might therefore be gained from analysis of the workplace business report literature, with workplace reports potentially constraining pedagogical case reports but also serving as an interesting and relevant point of comparison.

In the absence of significant and distinct linguistic research relating to consideration of optional and alternative actions in case reports, background information related to these functions and structures is presented within the context of the broader analysis of the business case report literature.

2.2 The business case method

The writing of business case reports constitutes a common form of response to case method teaching and learning approaches which are widely, if not universally, used on university business programmes (Easton 1982:1-11; Russell 2002:131). While there are many different case methods, all of these teaching approaches centre around the use of business cases, which often highlight problems that have confronted a company. Business students, dependent on the particular individual or institutional approach, engage with the case situation in a variety of ways, including class discussion, the giving of presentations, responding to short answer questions and, in particular, the production of written responses such as the case reports which are the object of this thesis research.

In the vast majority of teaching and learning contexts, cases describing companies and business situations are presented in the form of written documents, generally varying from 10 to 20 pages in length (though in some cases over 100 pages), including tables, diagrams, sometimes photographs, and often with extensive appendices (Easton, 1992:2; Maufette-

Leenders *et al.*, 1997:3). Video and other media may also be used for presentation of case information.

The best-known approach to the use of business cases is the Harvard method (Leenders & Erskine, 1989:13; Easton 1992:3). The Harvard case method, as used at both Harvard University and other US business schools, involves students being presented with a specific business case, preparing an analysis of that case, then bringing a prepared 'case study' (with parallels to a case report) to the lecture classroom where their different analyses are discussed (Easton 1982:3; Forman & Rymer, 1999). The lecturer in the Harvard situation facilitates or leads discussion and draws out conclusions and key business principles.

A range of other case method approaches are also used (Easton, 1982:4; Leenders & Erskine, 1989:17). Cases may be prepared by students prior to a case-based session, with subsequent presentation of cases by the students themselves, either individually or in groups. Rather than receiving case information in one chunk (a 'dead case'), cases may be provided in an ongoing fashion with the case developing over time (a 'live' case). Furthermore, students may be required to apply specific taught techniques in solving case problems or answer specific questions about a case, making text-based case responses more akin to practice exercises than pedagogical reports.

Reflected in case report writing, the learning purposes derived from case situations are described as many and varied, including the development of problem solving skills, creative, analytical, decision making, time management, communication, and social skills, as well as developing personal knowledge and attitudes (Easton 1982:7-9; Maufette-Leenders *et al.*, 1997:5-6; Allen, 2006).   The benefits of the case method are also seen as linked to the

integration of theory and practice, with learning being facilitated through action (Boehrer, 1995). In a similar vein, Velenchick (1995) identifies pedagogical benefits of case method approaches as being the motivating nature of case studies, and the provision of opportunities for application of theory, and use of evidence to justify ideas and actions.

2.3 Business case reports and assessment

Business case reports are commonly used as vehicles for student assessment. Case study texts, related to if not equivalent to case reports, comprise 21% of business assessment texts in the BAWE corpus. In the reviews of US university writing mentioned in chapter 1, case study assessment tasks were set in 12% of classes in a range of subject areas at the university in the Cooper and Bikowski study (2007), with business scenarios noted as exemplars of these tasks. In the Horowitz study (1986), five case study assessment texts were identified from a small corpus of university texts, with four of these originating from business related specialisms. In a further survey Bridgeman and Carlson (1984) identify case studies as frequent forms of assessment on MBA graduate management programmes, while Zhu (2004) also identifies business case analyses as used for assessment.

In the US ethnographic research studies relating to case response writing, Forman and Rymer (1999a) report the grading of their subjects' single page case write-ups, while Freedman *et al.,* (1994) interview a case instructor who provides information regarding reasons for awarding grade levels to particular case studies.

Case reports are generally used as part of continuous assessment processes, but may also be required in timed written examinations (Easton 1982:208; Maufette-Leenders *et al.,* 1997:111), as is the case with texts in a sub-component of the thesis case report corpus. Case report examinations are often seen exams in which students receive case materials a

significant time prior to the exam (days or weeks). The case task is, however, only revealed at the start of the exam. Case reports may also be required in lengthy unseen examinations, sometimes known as speed tests (Mauffette-Leenders *et al.,* 1997:111) where the case is provided at the beginning of the examination.

2.4 Business case report research

2.4.1 The research of Freedman and co-workers on case study/case report writing (Freedman *et al.,* 1994; Freedman & Adam, 1996)

Freedman and co-workers investigated claims that pedagogical case writing provides useful preparation for workplace writing by comparing academic and workplace discourse. Their ethnographically based research, situated in a US university financial analysis programme, incorporated field observations, interviews with an instructor and students, as well as questionnaires. As one component of their research, the Freedman research team collected and analysed written case studies.

Focusing on the roles of student authors, the researchers reported that case study writing tasks required students to adopt the role of management consultants. Despite the allocation of this consultant role, students were described as being confused about the role they should adopt, as writing for the real lecturer audience was felt to be in conflict with the consultancy role. Research data indicated that students believed their objective in case writing was to demonstrate understanding of the issues, identify the problem and demonstrate logical thought to support their recommendations. These beliefs were seen as consistent with an epistemic[2], learning purpose for these texts, and inconsistent with a view of writing as instrumental and action-oriented as would be the case in the workplace environment. Clearly the university context was shaping the student writing (Freedman *et al.,* 1994; Freedman & Adam, 1996)

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[2] Epistemology is the study of the nature of knowledge and how it is acquired (Grayling, 2009). The use of the term *epistemic* by Freedman and co-workers, relates to case reports as vehicles for learning (Freedman & Adam, 1996).

with learners aware that their audience was the professor – acting in an academic role, tasked with the evaluation and grading of student texts.

In terms of textual analysis, in addition to the recommendations and analysis components characterising case reports required by the case report operational definition, Freedman *et al.*, (1994) identified executive summaries and appendices as common structural features, and noted headings and sub-headings as present within the texts. Numbers were unsurprisingly reported as a significant feature of these financial analysis case studies.

Overall the researchers concluded that there are important differences between pedagogical case study and workplace business writing, and that the necessary knowledge to produce effective workplace writing is not provided by the simulated writing experienced through university case report writing. For these researchers, it is only through immersion in workplace contexts that the necessary genre knowledge can be acquired.

2.4.2 Business case reports and the case write-up: The research of Forman and Rymer (1999a,b)

Forman and Rymer (1999a) are critical of the research in the Freedman and co-worker research papers, describing the conclusions produced as 'anomalous and even misleading' on the grounds that the Freedman research was situated outside of the Harvard Business School case tradition. Nevertheless, while Forman and Rymer's own research occurs in an MBA management programme operating within this tradition, the authors do not claim that their research site is representative of 'case schools', nor that the practices at the case school institution they examine are universal. Indeed it is acknowledged that many business schools and some MBA programmes use cases extensively, but not in the Harvard tradition.

In line with the Harvard case tradition as described in section 2.2 above, Forman and Rymer (1999a), describe the purpose of the single page case write-ups produced in their study as the preparation of students for classroom discussions, thereby facilitating class participation. This purpose statement does not highlight the learning purpose of case report writing as in the Freedman researcher's statement of epistemic purpose. Despite the stated preparatory purpose, as mentioned above, these write-ups were submitted to lecturers and instructors for grading.

In terms of structural components Forman and Rymer's case write-ups contain analytical and recommendations components. A proposal and analysis of alternatives move forms one of several explicit moves identified, including problem definition, which are situated within a proposed problem-solution framework (figure 1). Executive summaries and appendices are not identified in these texts.

Forman and Rymer (1999a) also identify a number of implicit moves which are modelled in the case classroom including advocating a point of view, the assumption of a management stance, and adopting the persona of "a blunt, decisive consultant". The requirement for a management stance and such an adopted persona mirrors the management consultant role referred to in the Freedman group case writing research.

Forman and Rymer (1999a), like Freedman *et al.,* (1994) identify conflict between the different roles required of case report writers. For Forman and Rymer, attempting to display disciplinary knowledge can mitigate against the development of the logical argument which supports a recommendation.

Figure 1. Roles, actions and explicit moves in case write-up texts (Forman & Rymer, 1999a)

ROLES	ACTIONS	MOVES
Problem-solver	Demonstrate analytical skills	Define significant problem(s) in case Propose and analyse alternative solutions
Manager	Show readiness to act in business situations	Make logical recommendations
Disciplinary thinker	Apply academic knowledge	Connect relevant course materials to case Show understanding of disciplinary theories, tools and principles

A further interesting feature of the case write-ups noted in the Forman and Rymer research is that these texts are described as opaque to the external reader, with text being disjointed and fragmentary, and case write-ups also assuming that the reader has complete knowledge of the case, other previously encountered classroom cases and relevant disciplinary concepts. Further, the reasons for adopting a particular perspective towards a problem may not be explained; there is an absence of logical transition between different sections of the text and in addition, as illustrated in the sample text provided by Forman and Rymer, solutions are highly abbreviated and presented in a list-like manner. Such text characteristics were not mentioned in the Freedman case study-case report research and may provide a point of distinction between these case text analyses.

At a more microlinguistic level, Forman and Rymer state that case write-up texts contain bullet points and headings, however no information is provided about the grammatical or lexical content of these texts. Interestingly, Forman and Rymer (1999a) suggest that further research is required on the case write-up, including detailed linguistic analysis and the identification of a wider repertoire of moves and the steps by which students accomplish these moves.   The current thesis research focuses on detailed linguistic and rhetorical move

analysis, though within the context of business case reports generated outside of the Harvard case method tradition.

2.4.3 Information and advice on case report writing from the business specialism case literature

The small number of case study book publications written by experts from within the business specialism generally focus on strategies for learning from cases, processes for analysis and generating solutions. These books also provide students with some specific advice with regards to language style and how to approach and structure business case reports.

Gist (1972), writing about cases in marketing management, apparently outside of the Harvard case method tradition, advises students to use a three section structural pattern incorporating (1) problem statement (2) analysis containing sub-headings, and (3) recommendations. This structure clearly reflects aspects of the structure of the case write-ups described by Forman and Rymer (1999a) and Freedman *et al.,* (1994), though the former researchers conflate the ideas of analysis and problem identification, and the latter do not mention the structural element of problem statement.

Easton (1982:200-204) describes a number of possible generic report structures (figure 2) with structure five illustrating a response to a particular case. Structures two and three in figure 2, show the clearest resemblance to the structure proposed by Forman and Rymer (1999a). Easton points out a lack of disciplinary agreement about the structure of written case responses, suggesting that, in some instances, the case itself will suggest the structure of a report. For Easton, if a more idiosyncratic structure is more effective and more interesting, that structure should be used.

Figure 2. Alternative case report structures (Easton 1982:203)

1. Summary Purpose Scope Conclusion(s) Recommendations Introduction Body Appendices	4. Principal message Why it was chosen Why others not chosen Evidence supporting the analysis
2. Problem statement Factors causing problems The effects of the problem Examination of the possible solutions and their implications Conclusions Recommendations Appendices	5. The situation in the toolroom What I would do Why I wouldn't close down the factory Action plans The future
3. Title page List of contents List of exhibits Summary of recommendations Background material and facts Statement of problem Analysis Solutions and implementations Appendices	

Easton describes an academic model for structural sequencing involving the building up of evidence until the conclusion is reached in the final section, and a management report sequence involving a clear statement of the outcomes of the analysis followed by justifications and then recommendations. Easton recommends the academic approach for more complex analytical cases whereas the management report structure is more appropriate for simpler action-oriented case situations.

In terms of style, Easton recommends that students should write simply and briefly avoiding wordy phrases, reducing qualifications and avoiding evaluative language.

Mauffette-Leenders *et al.,* (1997:107-117) appear to refer to all student case writing, with the exception of some examination tasks, as involving business case reports. In terms of structure it is suggested that reports will include an executive summary, an introduction, a report body

and conclusion supplemented with exhibits (equivalent to appendices). A checklist structure for case reports which parallels some of the structures illustrated by Easton is shown in figure 3, and incorporates analysis and recommendations as required within the case report operational definition. These authors provide another source of support for the commonality of sections focusing on options and alternatives.

Figure 3. A case report checklist (Mauffette-Leenders *et al.,* 1997:109)

Title page
Table of Contents
Executive Summary
Issue Statement
Data Analysis
Alternatives Analysis
Recommendations
Action and Implementation Plan
Exhibits

In common with other researchers, Maufette-Leenders *et al.,* describe case report writing as often involving the students adopting a role, for example as a marketing manager. Students are advised to write as a manager following business conventions, as the authors state that learning with cases aims to simulate real life, a statement clearly at odds with the conclusions of Forman and Rymer, as well as Freedman's research.

In terms of style, similar to Easton, students are advised to adopt a simple, functional style incorporating clarity, accessibility, brevity and accuracy. As with other sources of advice described in this review, numerous headings and sub-headings are recommended with point form lists, though these authors also advise the use of short paragraphs.

2.5 Business report writing in the workplace

While the US ethnographic researchers argue that writing business case reports is not effective preparation for workplace report writing, it would seem reasonable to expect some

linguistic similarities given the commonality of field, the perception of case reports within the business specialism as simulation texts, and the fact that, for example, recommendations would be a minimal expectation in both report types. The key literature regarding workplace business reports is therefore reviewed in this section.

Efforts to define the nature of workplace business reports have met with terminological difficulties somewhat similar to those involved in delineating business case reports, as within the business workplace environment the term report is used to refer to texts which are wide-ranging in designation, content, structure and form (Barbara *et al*., 1996; Yeung, 2007). Documents referred to as reports within the workplace include annual company reports, visit reports, feasibility reports, progress reports, personnel reports, stock reports, financial reports and sales reports.

Not only is there diversity in relation to the terminology and content areas covered in workplace reports, but there are major differences in length and format. Reports may consist of a single page (Donna, 2000:260) or simply comprise short notes or completed forms (Ellis and Johnson 1994:160). On the other hand they may be long, carefully considered, containing detailed information about key business areas for either internal or external consumption (Yeung, 2007).

Variability in workplace reports and difficulty in collecting authentic reports have restricted studies of these texts (Yeung, 2007). Investigating more readily available report types, Harvey (1995) has attempted to characterize what were described as public reports and Rutherford (2005) and Thomas (1997) have investigated rhetorical features of the genre of corporate annual reports. However these report types bear little relation in terms of purpose and structure, to the type of pedagogical case reports considered in this thesis. Overall,

considering the prominence and importance of reports in the business world, the research on authentic business reports is sparse.

This lack of research has been somewhat redressed by recent research in which a small corpus of 22 authentic business reports was analysed, and efforts made to characterize what was termed the business report genre (Yeung, 2007), with business reports defined operationally as:

> *formally prepared documents containing information and opinions as a result of careful investigation and consideration, with the purpose of furthering the business operations of an organization in the private or public sector in fulfillment of its goals.*
>
> (Yeung, 2007)

This broad definition seems to allow for the incorporation within Yeung's business report genre, of the wide range of business report texts already mentioned, which might be considered significantly different in terms of form, style, content and structure.

Yeung's report corpus texts, comprising both internal and external reports, originated from a variety of countries, from both large and small enterprises and from different industries. Report types were diverse including review reports, problem-solving reports, market reports and feasibility study reports, and were written by native and non-native speakers. Notably these reports comprised an average of 4,614 words, ranging from 409 to 28,593 words.

Analysis of this corpus led Yeung to propose a broad 'funnel-like' structure for business reports incorporating an initial background description followed by a statement of report objectives, a broad discussion of current business practices and principles, followed by a statement of findings and recommendations (figure 4).

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Figure 4. A schematic representation of business report structure (Yeung, 2007)

Discussion of models/principles of practice/application

Findings

Recommendations
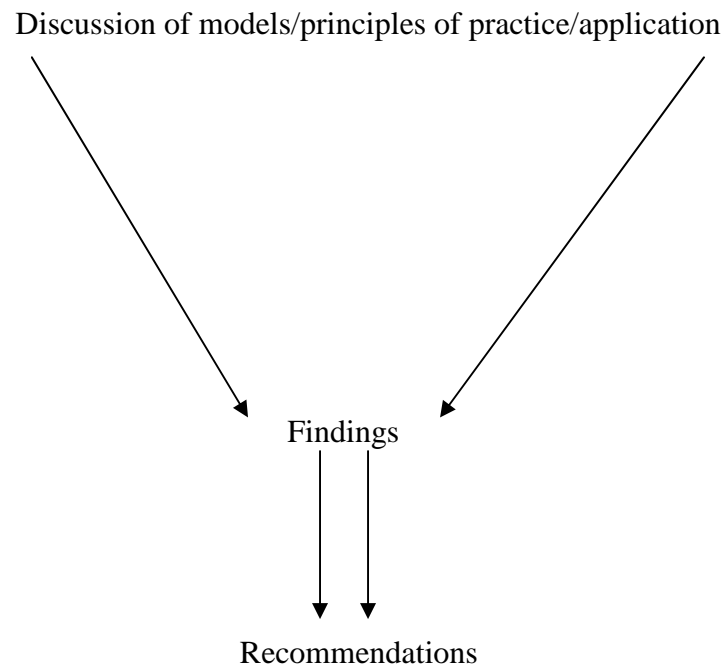
A key element of these business reports is identified as being a focus on practical problem solving. Yeung states that business reports are "guided by topical analysis of the subject matter, not epistemic considerations" and argues that a key feature of business reports is to persuade readers to act, rather than to persuade intellectually. If these alternatives are meant as means of contrasting pedagogical texts and workplace reports, this contrast would seem difficult to sustain, as it seems difficult to envisage the purpose of pedagogical business case reports as intellectual persuasion, as these texts are not aimed at persuading the lecturer to adopt a particular intellectual position.

In terms of structure, the workplace reports varied dependent on the topic under consideration, but generally possessed topical sections, recommendations elements, executive summaries and introductions (figure 5). However, the workplace report structure described by Yeung (2007) differs significantly from pedagogical case report structures in the literature lacking mention of problem and analytical components, as well as consideration of options and

alternatives. However, these functions, might be realised in the context of the workplace report topical sections.

Figure 5. Business report structure for full length reports – (Yeung 2007)

Executive summary (optional)
List of recommendations (optional)
Introduction
Methods (optional)
Topical sections containing findings and interpretations/conclusions
Conclusion (optional)
Recommendations for decision-making

Focusing on recommendations, Yeung found that while only seven reports had clear recommendations headings, 19 incorporated recommendations. Two reports, both sales reports, lacked recommendations. In terms of rhetorical force, some recommendations were hedged and indirect, using weaker modal language, while others were made more forcefully using imperatives or more directive modals. Overall Yeung states that in recommendations sections, there is generally a strong tone adopted in an effort to encourage the reader to take the recommended action.

In addition to modal language, Yeung identifies the presence of impersonality (the pronoun *I* being largely absent), nominalisation and rational argument in workplace reports, characteristic of the analytical exposition (Martin, 1989 cited in Yeung, 2007) found in professional and academic texts.

2.6 Summary and discussion

Consolidating the relevant literature from the different sources examined in this chapter, pedagogical business case reports, generated through case method teaching and business case materials, appear to share a range of features but also exhibit some important variety.

In terms of text length, the literature suggests there is significant variation in text length, from the single page reports of the Forman and Rymer case write-up research, to longer texts of unspecified text length.

Structural descriptions of case writing texts from linguistic and disciplinary sources, indicate that core components of case reports are analytical and recommendations elements, while introductions, executive summaries, options and alternatives elements, as well as problem or issue statements and appendices, are optional components.

With regard to lexis and grammar, very little information could be identified from the linguistics-based research and no comments were identified in the business sources. In terms of style, business specialist writers argue for concise writing, brevity and clarity. In terms of overt features and layout, texts may be divided into headed, titled sections and contain bullet point lists.

The key new rhetoric research of Freedman and co-workers as well as Forman and Rymer, have identified case reports as epistemic in purpose, and therefore these texts have been argued to be ineffective simulations of workplace writing. While from this new rhetoric perspective this view may be valid, this is dependent on a view of the primacy of social purpose (and in this case epistemic purpose), rather than overt text characteristics such as structure, as key determinant of text type identity. Parallels in linguistic structure between the workplace reports examined by Yeung, and pedagogical case reports, in particular in regard to the optional presence of executive summaries, introductions and obligatory recommendations, suggest a degree of linguistic similarity between these report text types.

An important point of commonality in the case writing responses, mentioned in several sources, is a requirement for students to act in a management role. It remains unclear, however, as to whether such a role is required in all case report writing tasks. Nevertheless, such a role or persona may be adopted implicitly by writers, whether or not it is explicitly required in task rubrics.

In terms of purpose, workplace business case reports are seen to differ from pedagogical case reports in being action-focused rather than learning focused. The workplace reports differ from pedagogical reports in containing topically focused elements, however, workplace reports studied by Yeung share the features of executive summaries, introductions and recommendations with the financial case reports described by Freedman and co-workers, while lacking discrete problem and options-focused elements. Forman and Rymer's (1999a,b) single page MBA case reports also contained recommendations components.

Detailed comparison of workplace reports and pedagogical business case reports in terms of style and lower level linguistic features is not possible at this juncture due to the lack of information available, in particular relating to the pedagogical business case reports. It is noticeable however that, considering all of the sources, both linguistic and business specialism-based, no mention is made of citation and referencing in the pedagogical reports, though these are generally considered as core characteristics of academic texts.

The variation in pedagogical business case report features, observed in the linguistically sourced literature referring to case write-ups (Forman & Rymer, 1999a,b) and case studies (Freedman *et al.,* 1994; Freedman & Adam, 1996), originates from studies restricted to single and separate business schools operating in different case method traditions. Both studies are

therefore highly situated. It seems reasonable to suggest that study in additional contexts might reveal further variation in report features, especially since there is no systematic data provided in the linguistics literature regarding the extent to which particular case report tasks and realisations may be found in other institutions or other cultures.

While the linguistic data and conclusions from the US context in terms of structural and other information may be of value, generalised conclusions about case writing would require study at a wider range of institutions. The extent to which these studies are relevant to a UK context such as that in which the current thesis research is located, is a matter which requires research in that UK context.

Given the summary information from the literature, the examination in this thesis of the business case reports generated at the UK research site is aimed at further informing the notion of pedagogical business case reports and their characterisation, identifying further and more detailed structural information regarding these texts in particular with regard to features of rhetorical structure. The thesis research also focuses on identifying key lexical and grammatical features of the pedagogical reports at the research site, which have not been the focus of case report study up to now.

Finally, with regard to the planned detailed investigation of options and alternatives text elements, the fact that data from specialism-based and linguistics sources indicates that functional components dealing with options and alternatives may be widely present in business case report texts, provides additional motivation for characterising these options components in the UK case reports.

Chapter 3 - Genre Theory and Genre Analysis

3.1 Introduction

The concept of genre is central to this thesis through its role as a tool in the definition and delimitation of the business case report class of texts studied in this research and through the role of genre theory and methodologies in framing the characterisation of these business case reports and their component options analysis elements. The experimental research conducted, focusing on the teaching and learning of business case report writing, is also grounded in genre theory and practice. This chapter therefore examines the nature of genre and the literature surrounding this concept in order to underpin the thesis research.

The notion of genre theory has given rise to a substantial number of research papers and review publications in recent years, with a range of perspectives taken within the field of language and linguistics on genre and genre theory. In order to make this review as relevant as possible, this chapter focuses on the notion of genre as seen through the prism of the ESP genre school, which frames the genre study in this thesis. This ESP genre approach originated significantly in the work of Swales (1990) and was delineated as a separate school by Hyon (1996).

The ESP framework is the prevalent framework for analysis of texts in professional and academic fields and has been used for investigation of a range of texts, most prominently the research article (for example Swales & Najar, 1987; Swales, 1990; Nwogu 1997; Anthony, 1999; Samraj, 2002; Kanoksilapatham, 2005), but also including the PhD thesis (for example Bunton, 2005; Kwan, 2006), MSc dissertations (Hopkins & Dudley Evans, 1988), job application letters (Henry & Roseberry, 1998), sales promotions letters, laboratory reports and legal cases (Bhatia, 1993) amongst other genres. Given its specialist and academic focus this

ESP approach is considered most applicable to the thesis research, in particular bearing in mind the lack of pedagogical application of new rhetoric approaches to genre, and the school-based focus of the Australian genre school. Nevertheless, while the main focus of this chapter is on the ESP approach to genre analysis, arguments and conceptions of researchers operating within key alternative genre frameworks, are considered in this discussion where relevant [3,4].

3.2 The notion of genre in the ESP school

At its core, the term *genre* refers to the idea of type or kind, deriving from the original Latin *genus*. More specifically in the field of literature, it refers to literary texts, and in linguistics is seen as referring to types of both spoken and written texts.

In order to more specifically ascribe text identities and understand relationships between classes of texts, linguistic practitioners have proposed criteria through which different text genres can be distinguished. Within the Australian genre school, genres have generally been defined in terms of the criterion of broad social purposes of school-based texts, for example, description and explanation (Martin, 1985; Gee, 1997), while within the new rhetoric school, genre is described in terms of situations and social contexts in which the genre, or typified rhetorical action occurs (Miller, 1994).

The most influential work within the ESP school in terms of both analysis and delineation of genre has been that of Swales and Bhatia. Within this ESP framework, Swales (1990:58), in a widely cited definition of genre, identifies genres as communicative events which are

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[3] Summary reviews relating to genre and the main schools of thought and main approaches to genre within linguistics, can be found in and Hyon (1996), Flowerdew (2002) and Johns (2003). Other useful reviews relating to specific schools or approaches can be found in Hyland (2004), Paltridge (2007, 2001) and Gee (1997).

[4] It is noted that while Hyon (1996) divides the different approaches to genre into three main schools, namely the ESP, new rhetoric and Australian schools, Flowerdew (2002) identifies two main genre approaches, textual approaches (ESP/Australian) and ethnographic (new rhetoric approaches). In this thesis, the distinctions between the Australian and the ESP frameworks are considered to be significant enough to justify a separate focus on the ESP framework.

primarily determined by shared communicative purposes, these purposes constraining the rhetorical structure, content, and style of the genre. According to Swales, genres operate within discourse communities, whose members recognise the genre's communicative purposes. Bhatia (1993:13), while omitting the notion of discourse community, preferring the terms professional or academic community, mirrors part of Miller's (1994) new rhetoric genre definition by additionally incorporating explicit mention of the regularity of genre occurrence. Bhatia also incorporates the concept of realization of private intentions as an element of genre.

Although Swales (2004:61), has since stated that he is less committed to the type of definitional descriptions originally proposed for genre, due to the continued prominence and influence of this original genre characterization the following analysis of the ESP genre approach focuses on the key genre components of communicative purpose, discourse community, and comparable rhetorical structure, style, form and content, identified in the original Swales definition. This discussion describes and builds on criticisms of the Swalesian ESP approach in order to establish the approach adopted to genre analysis in this research and to support the interpretation and discussion of case report genre analysis.

3.2.1 Communicative purpose as a genre determinant

Stemming from the centrality of communicative purpose in the ESP genre definitions of Swales and Bhatia, clearly determination of communicative purpose would be an essential element in both case report genre analysis and the ascription of business case report genre identity. However, while a role for communicative purpose within the framework of genre is generally acknowledged, the centrality of this role has been challenged on a number of grounds.

Askehave (1999) points out that Swales provides no clear definition of communicative purpose, thereby undermining its privileged role.   Further Askehave argues that as genres may have multiple communicative purposes, both hidden and official, it is unclear which of these purposes should act as primary criterion for genre classification.

In response to the criticisms of Askehave, Swales has somewhat modified his presentation of the role of communicative purpose within genre definition, retaining it as a 'privileged criterion' for genre determination, but presenting it as an endpoint of genre analysis rather than an initial point of genre delineation and definition (Askehave & Swales, 2001).

The centrality of communicative purpose is also undermined by the acknowledged difficulty in identifying communicative purpose, since writers and speakers rarely state their purposes overtly, nor indeed, contrary to the original assertion from Swales, is it correct to say that discourse community members are generally aware of the purposes of the genres which they produce, with evidence available that, for example, the writers of research articles may see their papers as simple experimental reports, whereas detailed analysis suggests a persuasive function to be a more accurate description (Askehave & Swales, 2001). Acknowledging the difficulties in genre ascription, Swales (1990:46), argues that though communicative purposes may be hidden and difficult to identify, this fact makes the concept of heuristic value, and through the necessity of research, enhances the validity of the classification, avoiding "facile classification based on stylistic and inherited beliefs such as typifying research articles as simple reports of experiments" (Swales 1990:46). Bhatia (1997) concurs that the assignation of communicative purpose is a complex and difficult process, arguing that the complex realities of communication in the modern world mitigate against easily definable communicative purposes. Nevertheless the difficulties in establishing communicative

purpose, clearly presents challenges for genre classification based on communicative purpose as a privileged criterion.

A further difficulty in relation to the assignation of communicative purpose arises from the possibility of assigning purpose at different levels of abstraction. For example, Bhatia identifies job applications and sales promotion letters as fulfilling the broad purpose of promotion, however, the purpose of sales promotions letters is defined in more detail at a lower level of abstraction in terms of five detailed purposes (Bhatia 1993:45-46), none of which could be applied to job application letters. Bhatia represents the different levels of genre abstraction using the notion of sub-genre to represent varieties within promotional genres relating to medium, product type and genre participants[5] (figure 6).

Fairclough (2003:68) also comments on the difficulties associated with levels of abstraction in assignation of communicative purpose, choosing to adopt the term 'pre-genre' as used by Swales (1990:58), to refer to purposeful categories such as narrative, argument, description and conversation. However, Fairclough argues that this terminology does not fully resolve classification difficulties since lower levels of abstraction such as interview or report are identified. Fairclough used the term 'embedded genre' to describe this further level of abstraction with an additional term 'situated genre' used to describe 'particular networks of

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[5] Yates and Orlikowski (1992), operating within the new rhetoric school of genre, also identify the issue of level of abstraction as important in genre analysis, and like Bhatia adopt the terminology of genre and sub-genre, although within the new rhetoric approach, genres are determined as typified rhetorical actions based in recurrent situations (Miller, 1994) rather than founded in terms of communicative purpose. The notion of situational exigencies is, however, related to that of purpose, is component to the rhetorical situation and varies according to this view of genre. Interestingly, Yates and Orlowski reject Miller's contention (1994) that genres can exist only in a single time and place, and accept the argument of Simon (1978:37, cited in Yates and Orlikowski, 1992) that genres exist at various levels of abstraction from the more generalised to the more specific and exist simultaneously. Yates and Orlowski adopt an approach to classification in which genres and sub-genres can be classified at several levels in a nested fashion (exemplified by the positive recommendation letter which can be said to be a sub-genre existing within a recommendation letter sub-genre or genre itself existing within a business letter genre).

practices' such as the ethnographic interview.

Figure 6. Levels of genre abstraction (Bhatia 2004:59)

Identification criteria	Genre-specification	Genre level
Rhetorical act		Generic value
	Description Evaluation	
Communicative purpose (General)	↓ Promotional genres	Genre colony
Communicative purpose (Specific)	↓ Book blurbs/Advertisements/Job applications	Genre
Medium	↓ TV ads/Print ads/Radio ads	Sub-genres
Product	↓ Car ads/Airline ads/Cosmetic ads	Sub-genres
Participants	↓ For holiday travellers/ For business travellers	Sub-genres

Other terms have also been used to describe levels of genre abstraction. For example, within

the BAWE corpus, the case study is described as representing a cross-disciplinary 'genre

family' within which exist genres such as investigation reports, company reports and patient

reports. Within the Australian genre framework, as mentioned above, genres are defined by

purposes such as description, and explanation (for example Martin, 1985; Gee, 1997), which

appear to overlap with Fairclough's notion of pre-genre. Grabe (2002) seems to use the term

macrogenres to refer to these same genre categories.   Martin uses this same term of

macrogenre to refer to genres within which elemental genres such as recount and explanation

are embedded, while Woodward-Kron (2005) uses macrogenre to refer to a "text's main

social purpose and its schematic stages", and the term micro-genre to refer to embedded

genres.

Related to these issues concerning abstraction, in Swales's earlier research (Swales, 1990), the research article is consistently referred to as a genre. However in more recent work (Swales, 2004:213) the research article is stated to consist of four genres: theory pieces, data-based RAs, review articles and short communications. Having proposed these new genres, the status of the research article is not then clarified through assignation of specific genre classification terminology.

Overall, both within the ESP genre school and beyond, there is a range of terminologies referring to different levels of genre abstraction. This range of terminology and the various levels of abstraction clearly has implications for the definition and delineation of pedagogical business case reports as well as their classification in relation to other genres.

A further problem with regard to the view of genres as determined by communicative purpose arises from the suggestion that many texts do not exist within any particular genre but draw upon a range of genre resources in their construction (Fairclough, 2003:69; Woodward-Kron, 2005).

Within his broad definition of genre, Swales states that communicative purpose "shapes the schematic of the discourse and influences and constrains style and content" with genres, influenced by communicative purpose, having similarities of structure, form, content and style. Al-Ali and Holme (1999) contend however that defining genre on the basis of communicative purpose provides no meaningful insight into the realisations of that communicative purpose, implying that the notion of communicative purpose can impose no such constraints. If this is indeed the case, this would further undermine the utility of communicative purpose as a key genre determinant.

Askehave (1999) concluded that, on the grounds of multiple communicative purposes and their relationship to linguistic realisations, together with classificatory difficulties related to levels to abstraction, communicative purpose while constituting "one of the most interesting aspects of text analysis" should not be used as a primary determinant of genre. Notably, however, in the joint paper with Swales (Askehave & Swales, 2001), communicative purpose is retained as a privileged criterion for genre determination.

Fairclough (2003:71-72), uses the notions of communicative and strategic action, as distinguished by Habermas (1984, cited in Fairclough, 2003), the former involving interaction aimed at developing understanding, and the latter aimed at achieving results, to illustrate the difficulties of over-privileging communicative purpose. For Fairclough, reflecting the argument of Swales (1990:58), communicative actions, such as chatting with friends, present difficulties in purpose assignation and lack the structure associated with more determinate and purposeful strategic actions. Fairclough concludes that while communicative purpose is of importance, it should not be over-privileged and that "our view of genre should not be centred on purpose"[6].

Overall, while it is argued by Swales and Askehave that communicative purpose should retain its privileged position in the definition of genre, the lack of a definition of communicative purpose, the difficulties in establishing such purpose, the presence of multiple text purposes, the lack of specification in terms of the level of abstraction at which genre purpose is to be defined, together with the variety of terminologies and statements in the literature describing communicative purpose and levels of abstraction, mean that determination of communicative

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[6] Fairclough acknowledges that purposes can be found for 'chat', however argues that chat is not purpose-driven. It would therefore seem that Fairclough's view is in fact driven more by a concern for genres to possess a determinate structure, than difficulties in purpose assignation.

purpose and classification of text classes solely on this basis, is a complex and problematic endeavour.

In terms of the business case report class of texts under investigation in this research, the conclusion from these arguments with regard to communicative purpose is that, while it seems of significant value to investigate the communicative purpose of business case report texts, it seems difficult to sustain a case for using communicative purpose as primary or privileged determinant for delineating the genre. While this thesis research incorporates investigation of case report communicative purposes, it is considered that a range of linguistic and other criteria are required for genre delineation and classification.

3.2.2 Discourse community and disciplinarity

3.2.2.1 ESP genre and discourse community

A key notion relevant to the genre analysis and designation of business case reports within the ESP framework is that of discourse community. Swales (1990:52) ties the notion of discourse community and genre tightly together, stating that "established members of discourse communities employ genres to achieve the goals of their communities" adding however that these genres may be only partially recognised by apprentice members of the community and unrecognised by non-members. Support for the linking of discourse community and genres comes from amongst others, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1996) who describe genres as signalling the discourse community's "norms, epistemology, ideology and social ontology".

Swales (1990:24-27) identifies six characteristics of discourse communities, namely common public goals, mechanisms of intercommunication between members, the use of participatory mechanisms for provision of information and feedback, the use and possession of genres to pursue community goals, specific lexis, and a threshold membership level with relevant

content and discoursal expertise. This description has parallels with the broader definition of Barton (1994:57), who describes discourse communities as groups of people who share texts and practices. Barton's definition itself has echoes of the related term *communities of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1991) within which, according to Johns (1997:52), members 'share genres, language, values and concepts, as well as echoing Geertz's (1983) 'ways of being' '.

Swales (1993, cited in Al-Ali & Holme, 1999) developed his view of discourse community, representing the idea in terms of concentric circles of community, which incorporate interaction within disciplines and between disciplines and the outside world. A concentric circle view of discourse community has also been put forward by Jolliffe and Brier (1988), with the broadest circle representing any who might be interested in a particular text, with smaller circles representing more specialised interest parties. Johns (1997:55-57) describes the complexity of community affiliations amongst professionals and academics and puts forward the idea of different levels of academic community in which, for example, the scientific community contains sub-communities of biologists and chemists. This description does not explicitly focus on the notion of discourse community.

As with communicative purpose, the notion of discourse community, in particular in relation to academic genres has been subject to criticism. Difficulties with the notion of discourse community and its applicability within the academic context can be illustrated through consideration of the research article 'genre', which constituted the main focus of Swales's initial genre research. The research article is presented by Swales as representing a commonality of discourse existing within a cross-disciplinary academic discourse community. However, Ali and Holme (1999) point out that while the research article may be a common feature of an academic community, it is difficult to see academics in diverse disciplines such as history, physics, modern art and engineering as sharing a common discourse. Members of

the academic community clearly differ in their lexis, which may incorporate specific terminology, acronyms and abbreviations incomprehensible to those outside the discipline. Content in one discipline would frequently not be understood by those in other disciplines. Further, in terms of Swales definition of discourse community, it is not difficult to argue that those in different academic disciplines do not generally share participatory mechanisms (by for example attending conferences together, or reading the same journals) nor engage in significant discoursal exchange (although there may be some tangential interactions).

The notion of the research article being located in a single cross-disciplinary academic discourse community has also been challenged through analysis of the rhetorical structure of research article introductions. Al-Ali and Holme focused on the CARS rhetorical structure for introductions proposed by Swales (1981, 1990), identifying inconsistencies between disciplines in rhetorical realisation of introductions. Analysing a corpus of Jordanian research articles in different disciplines, with the exception of history texts, the three CARS rhetorical moves are described as generally present in the order described by Swales, however the introductions analysed exhibited more elaborate structures. Further, a single text from the discipline of surgery omitted two of Swales's obligatory rhetorical moves. These disciplinary differences were taken as undermining the notion of a broader academic discourse community as an appropriate location for the research article genre.

With regard to this notion of common introduction rhetorical structure within a cross-disciplinary academic research discourse community, Swales (2004:226) cites a number of researchers in support of the claim that the three part rhetorical CARS model has been established as a common feature across disciplines. For example, Anthony (1999) describes the overall CARS framework as very successful in describing a corpus of introductions in the

field of software engineering. However, these software engineering introductions incorporate significant recycling of moves, not initially identified by Swales[7], and further, Anthony states that problems emerge when more detailed descriptions are required, with an obligatory step identified in the software articles (evaluation of research) which is absent from the CARS model, with a number of steps redundant or only rarely used. Anthony argues that pedagogical problems arise from teaching the general CARS model within a discipline wherein there is such deviation from the general model.

Samraj (2002), also cited by Swales, compares RA introductions in wildlife behaviour and conservation biology, and identifies variation in rhetorical structure between these two disciplines, stating that wildlife behaviour articles for the most part contain CARS moves in introductions, but also contain an additional background sub-move that describes the species under discussion. Samraj describes the modification of the CARS structure to incorporate this move as problematic and states there is significant variation in terms of move positioning within these article introductions. Further, a literature review move, restricted in the CARS model to move 1, was found through each of the CARS moves in both wildlife behaviour and conservation biology.

Identifying further cross-disciplinary differences, Holmes (1997), in a study focusing on social science discussion sections in three disciplines, found that sociology and political science RAs, in a majority of samples studied, contained separate untitled introduction sections followed by titled background sections dealing with theoretical background, previous research and general topical information. Such an RA structure contrasts with the IMRD structure associated with science RAs, indicating that cross-disciplinary differences present

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[7] Cycling of moves was incorporated in a modified CARS model proposed by Swales (2004).

themselves in more realisations than simply the rhetorical structure of RA introductions, and further that the structure of social science RA introductions is not consistent with the CARS model.

Variability, described as occurring at the disciplinary level rather than the academic discourse community level, has also been identified by Swales *et al.,* (1998) with regard to frequency of imperatives in research articles, Hanania and Akhktar (1985) in terms of verb form and rhetorical function in science-based masters level dissertations, and Thetela (1997) in regard to evaluative focus in RAs. Similarly, but more extensively and comprehensively in comparison to other studies, in Hyland's (2004b) designated disciplines, significant levels of variation in both level and form of citation, evaluative language and reporting verb usage are all identified within the context of research articles. In addition Hyland (2004b:70), identifies a range of highly variable rhetorical structures in the abstracts of research papers between these designated disciplines. All of this data serves to undermine claims of high levels of cross-disciplinary similarity in categories of academic text.

Further variation across the academic community, is also found at what is described as a sub-disciplinary level of differentiation. Ozturk (2007) examined RA introductions in two sub-disciplines of applied linguistics, namely second language acquisition and second language writing research. Rather than comprising similar CARS constrained rhetorical structures, introductions in the two sub-disciplines are described as possessing "different and almost unrelated move structures". Ozturk argues that the variation observed in these RA introductions cannot be interpreted in terms of inter-disciplinary or sub-disciplinary analysis and instead chooses to ground these differences in terms of the concepts of established and

emerging fields, the former being represented by SLA, and the latter by second language writing research.

Notably, Ozturk, while describing the CARS model as a "useful descriptive reference", states that the model was inadequate to account for the data observed, in particular failing to take account of the high levels of topic-based sub-headings found subsequent to Swales's move 3.

Overall, considering the data regarding the CARS introduction model, it seems that CARS introduction moves are present in a range of RAs across disciplines and sub-disciplines, however there is strong evidence for the existence of significant variation between and within disciplines in relation to the complexity of the CARS structure with regard to sub-moves or steps, and the presence of additional moves, sub-moves or topic-based elements.

Despite similarities in introduction rhetorical structure, the observation of identified differences in CARS rhetorical structure between specialisms, combined with other arguments related to lexis, content, lack of discoursal exchange and participatory mechanisms presented by Al-Ali and Holme, (1999) suggests that differences in specialism below the level of broad academic community, are of key significance in relation to genre.

The current thesis research on business case reports is located within an academic environment. However, due to the difficulties in establishing the existence of an academic discourse community within the parameters put forward by Swales and others, the recognised divisibility of academic entities into disciplines and sub-disciplines, as well as the tendency in recent years to focus on the examination of genres within the context of disciplines rather than discourse community (Hewings, 2004), the notion of academic discourse community is

considered unsatisfactory as a framework for genre investigation in this thesis research. Instead, business case reports examined in this thesis are considered to be more appropriately and usefully grounded within more narrow academic specialist communities, generally disciplinary or sub-disciplinary or sub-disciplinary specialist in nature. These notions are considered further in the following section.

3.2.2.2 ESP genre and the notions of academic discipline and sub-discipline

Disciplines have been said to comprise the visible fundamental units of organisation and management in higher education institutions and it is through these visible structures that disciplines are most frequently recognised (Becher, 1989). Biglan (1973a) describes university departments as constituting single disciplinary entities, and based his studies of variation in subject matter within a departmental framework (1973a,b) however, characterising 'academic areas'[8] rather than disciplines, in terms of three criteria; their level of concern for a single paradigm (designated hard v soft); pure v applied focus; and life v non-life systems.

Kuhn (1996:176) in his highly influential *Structure of scientific revolutions* identifies paradigms as central to what is described as a disciplinary matrix, this matrix being "a common possession of the practitioners of a particular discipline". According to Kuhn, this disciplinary matrix or paradigm consists of symbolic generalisations, shared beliefs, and shared values. However, Kuhn also refers to paradigms as shared exemplars, an inconsistency which Kuhn has acknowledged, and which has been pointed out as damaging to his theories of revolutionary science (for example, Shapere, 1964; Buchdahl 1965, both cited in Losee, 2001:200). This inconsistency also complicates identification of the nature of disciplines and

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[8] Only a single use of the term 'discipline' was identified in Biglan's two papers with frequent use of the term 'academic area(s)'.

the disciplinary matrix. Kuhn also acknowledges circularity in his claim that "a paradigm is what the members of a scientific community share *and* conversely a scientific community consists of men who share a paradigm." Stating that "this one [circularity] presents real difficulties" (Kuhn, 1996:176). Interestingly Kuhn restricts his notion of paradigm-based disciplinarity to the sciences, excluding arts, humanities and the social sciences of which the business field studied in this thesis research is generally considered to be a component.

Beyond Kuhn, though overlapping in some respects, descriptions have been presented which view disciplines as bodies built on conceptual belief, methodologies and objectives (Toulmin, 1972 cited in Becher, 1989) and in terms of social groupings with common traditions, community networks and values (Whitley 1976, 1984, cited in Becher, 1989; King and Brownell, 1966). Disciplinary beliefs, values and practices, are recognised by Becher as visible through language.

While there has been significant discussion about the nature and characteristics of disciplines, the literature shows apparent inconsistencies with regard to the areas of study designated as constituting disciplines. Disciplines referred to in Becher's (1989) study of academic 'tribes and territories' include law, economics, biology, history, chemistry, engineering and mathematics. Overlapping with Becher, Moses's (1990) disciplinary research on scholarship in higher education refers to disciplines of chemistry, engineering, English and law, while King and Wolfe (1987), investigating faculty reputations, based their research in disciplines designated English, French, geography, political science and sociology.

Kuhn, while describing the disciplinary matrix, does not use the term discipline instead describing different levels of community ranging from the community of natural scientists to

a lower level exemplified by physicists, and chemists (which appears equivalent to the disciplinary level of the above authors), a further sub-group level of organic chemists, solid state high-energy physicists, radio astronomers (possibly equivalent to sub-disciplines), and at the lowest level highly specialist communities which have access to draft manuscripts, special conferences, formal and informal communication networks.

Also engaging in disciplinary designation, and showing some consistency with the researchers above, the linguistic researchers working on the BAWE corpus (2008) identify their corpus texts as existing in disciplines including archaeology, business, psychology, chemistry, law, sociology, biology, history and computer science.   Each of these disciplines is designated as forming a component of a larger disciplinary group, for example business and law forming part of the social science disciplinary grouping.

Also based in linguistics research, Hanania and Ahktar (1985), investigating rhetorical functions and verb forms in science writing refer to biology, chemistry and physics as fields, with no use of the term discipline identified. Swales *et al.,* (1998), investigating disciplinary variation in the use of imperatives, identify linguistics and history as disciplines, but also identify as disciplines what might be considered more specific entities such as statistics, literary criticism and political science.

Hyland (2004b) identifies disciplines generally in terms of lower level entities, designating molecular biology[9], marketing, applied linguistics, magnetic physics, electrical and mechanical engineering as disciplines, though also including sociology and philosophy, which

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[9] There are differences in designations applied by Hyland (2004) to his corpus of 'molecular biology' research papers, with several tables (for example p.26- 29) using the term *biology,* the preface (p. xi) using the term *molecular biology*, while appendix 1 refers to these same papers as *cell biology* papers. It is considered here that these designations are not sustainable as equivalent.

would seem to represent broader categories. Samraj (2002) in research described in section 3.2.2.1, describes relatively narrow areas of wildlife behaviour and conservation biology as disciplines. Ozturk's (2007) research, also described in section 3.2.2.1, clearly recognises applied linguistics as a discipline, but identifies second language acquisition and second language writing research as representing component sub-disciplines. Reflecting this sub-disciplinary delineation, Shaw (2007) argues that articles in sociolingustics, transformational grammar and second language acquisition are likely to be different in discourse and structure, making it unwise to "lump them together" as part of a linguistics disciplinary grouping.

Overall, no credible source was identified in this research presenting a broadly accepted and uncontested field, disciplinary and sub-disciplinary classifications. In the absence of such a broadly agreed designation, association of language characteristics with a particular level of specialist discourse community was considered problematic and open to challenge. In an effort to provide a basis for efforts to link linguistic features to different specialist categories, it was decided to consider broad areas such as business and social sciences as fields or areas. More specific entities such as marketing, and applied linguistics are considered as disciplines, while more narrow specialisms exemplified by second language acquisition, or the business situated 'relationship marketing', are considered to constitute sub-disciplines, equated by Becher to specialisms (1989, 1990)[10].

Focusing on these sub-disciplines or specialisms, Becher (1990) describes them as constituting communities in their own right, notably pointing out that "their nature and characteristics are too important to be ignored in any serious study of academic cultures".

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[10] Becher discusses semantic differences between these terminologies in his 1990 paper, identifying substantial overlap between the two terms but with the latter having stronger socio-cultural connotations.

Exemplar sub-disciplines or specialisms mentioned by Becher include optics (physics), physical, human and historical geography (geography) jurisprudence (law), political economy (economics) and psychoanalysis as well as industrial, social and developmental psychology (psychology). Becher argues that these component entities may form counter cultures against their overarching discipline, may differ in significant ways from their parent discipline, and may also have significant commonalities with sub-disciplines and specialisms existing in other disciplines. This argument is of importance in terms of linguistic characteristics as it suggests there may be significant differences between characteristics of texts at the disciplinary and sub-disciplinary or specialism level.

Bearing in mind the notions put forward by Becher and considering further the relationship between language, discipline and sub-discipline, a link between sub-discipline and linguistic variation can be seen not only in Ozturk's (2007) sub-disciplinary applied linguistics research, but also in the research of MacDonald (1994) who identified differences in sentence subject use in new historic literary criticism, which were not generalisable to other forms of literary criticism. Further, if Samraj's (2002) designated disciplines are considered as sub-disciplines within the disciplines of biology or environmental sciences, which seems a viable alternative classification, then these differences could be interpreted as sub-discipline rather than discipline dependent.

The existence of sub-disciplinary entities does not mean however that disciplinary variation may not exist as well, determined through linguistic comparison of disciplinary aggregations of sub-disciplinary text classes, or through comparison of disciplinary texts existing in their own right (for example there may exist disciplines within which no sub-disciplines can be

identified, or further, disciplinary genre forms may be entirely distinct from sub-disciplinary forms).

Overall, rather than considering the notion of genre to be solely grounded in a cross-disciplinary academic discourse community as in the approach of Swales, taking into account identified disciplinary and sub-disciplinary differences and the clear potential for further sub-disciplinary and sub-disciplinary differences to be identified, it would seem most appropriate and relevant to situate genres within constructs of disciplinary, sub-disciplinary and in addition where relevant even lower level specialism-based discourse communities, as supported by specific contexts, sample texts and other data. Further, genres might also be seen as embedded in broad fields such as business or social sciences. Overall, in this thesis, genres are seen as classifiable in terms of field-based, disciplinary, sub-disciplinary and sub-disciplinary specialism based genres.

Moving away from the equivalence of specialism and sub-discipline presented by Becher, the notion of specialism is considered in this thesis as a broader term, encompassing all mentioned categories, with field, disciplinary, sub-disciplinary, and sub-disciplinary specialism genres all considered as specialist genres, though operating at different levels. This approach accommodates these specialisms as separate but related entities within the pedagogical context, but also allows for significant variation in terms of language at different levels of specialism, as suggested by Becher.

Interestingly it is noted that in terms of academic research it is generally within the sub-disciplinary framework that each of the characteristics of Swales' discourse communities including specific lexis, common public goals and mechanisms of intercommunication

amongst members can clearly be seen to apply, and to a significantly greater extent than would appear to be the case at the academic discourse or disciplinary community level. It is further noted that while many of the genre families identified in the BAWE (2008) corpus research, for example the *critique* and *case study*, are presented as cross-disciplinary in nature, a substantial number of the genres identified, for example *financial report*, *teaching evaluation* and *building design*, are strongly tied to disciplines or sub-disciplines, thereby providing further evidence for the importance of the notions of discipline, sub-discipline and sub-disciplinary specialism in relation to pedagogical texts, and further supporting a link between the case reports studied in this thesis and these notions.

3.2.3 Comparable rhetorical structure and action

Within Swales's definition of genre, communicative purpose shapes the schematic structure of genres. If this is the case, then individual genres must exhibit comparable, or more accurately 'similar', rhetorical action expressed through rhetorical structure, thereby making the nature of this component rhetorical structure itself a defining criterion for genre identification and delineation.

In practice, this notion of comparable rhetorical structure has proven an important point of focus in genre study, as illustrated by Swales's research into the rhetorical structure of research article introductions (Swales, 1981, 1990). The posited presence of comparable rhetorical structure in research articles across disciplines, put forward in the original and then modified CARS structures appears to have contributed somewhat, if not substantially, to the consideration of the research article as a genre.

Since Swales's initial research, rhetorical analysis based on the notions of moves, sub-moves, steps and strategies has become widely practised (for example Hopkins & Dudley-Evans

1988; Thompson 1993; Bhatia, 1993 & 1997; Nwogu, 1997, Holmes, 1997 & 2001; Henry & Roseberry 1998; Anthony, 1999; Peacock, 2002; Samraj, 2002). According to Bhatia such move structure analyses have become the most popular aspect of applied genre analysis (Bhatia, 2001).

As was mentioned however, in the discussion of discourse community and genre, the proposition that the rhetorical structure of research articles is consistent or comparable across genres has been challenged by Al-Ali and Holme (1999). Nevertheless, as also discussed in the previous section, Swales (2004) claims that this notion of comparable structure, at least in terms of the CARS introduction rhetorical moves, has been generally supported by researchers in the field.

The recent proposed division of research articles into four separate genres (Swales 2004:213) indicates however, that with regard to overall text structure, the research article category may not be consistent enough in terms of communicative purpose or rhetorical structure to constitute a genre. It is unclear whether the CARS introduction model is taken as still applicable to RAs, or whether this model is now seen as applying only to certain of the newly defined component genres. On the one hand it would appear that the CARS move model may still be seen as applicable, since Swales (2004:226) states that the tripartite introduction model has become prototypical in many research journals. On the other hand, while the description of these new genre entities appears to show that two of these genres, the short review article and review paper, lack introduction sections, the nature and comparability of introduction sections with regard to theoretical and empirical data-based genres is not discussed.

Biber (1988), distinguishing the notions of genres as defined on the basis of external criteria, and 'text types' as linguistically defined, argues that different genres may demonstrate similar linguistic patterns and further that texts within the same genre may demonstrate differing linguistic patterns.   Such a view of genre is considered inconsistent with the notion of genre as generally accepted within the ESP framework and as represented in this thesis, with genres being here defined in terms of both similar linguistic and external properties. While text types such as problem-solution, description, hypothetical-real and general to specific may appear in different genres (Paltridge, 1996), it is inconsistent with the ESP and thesis notion of genre that such linguistic dissimilarity could exist within a single genre. The notion of text type, while providing important insights into text patterns is further seen as having less explanatory power in comparison to move structure analysis.

Overall, the popularity of rhetorical move-based analyses together with the importance of comparable rhetorical structure in the definition of genres within the ESP genre framework, provides support for the analysis of business case reports and options component rhetorical structure.   The nature of moves and their component rhetorical realisations are discussed in section 3.3.2 below, within the context of approaches to genre analysis.

3.2.4 Content, form, structure and style

The Swalesian definition of genre states that communicative purpose places constraints on content, structure and style, and that genres have similar patterns of structure, style, content and audience.   Expanding on this point Swales adds that the genre rationale "establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning and form" (Swales 1990:52), a point similar to that of Bhatia who adds the notions of intent and functional value to the elements constrained.

The notion of structure, in rhetorical terms, has already been addressed in section 3.2.3. In terms of audience, business case reports, as discussed in chapter 2, are considered to be directed at the lecturer audience, despite the apparently common requirement for the adoption of roles in task rubrics. It is unclear what Swales is referring to in terms of content, but as this could not reasonably relate to topic specific content, it is assumed that this must refer to the notion of generalised functional content, interpreted here as overlapping with the notion of rhetorical content already discussed.

Style can be a complex notion to define. In this thesis research it is seen as significantly located in the conventions of the field, relating to core notions of formality and informality embedded in the relationship between student and assessor, as in Halliday's (1978) concept of tenor, adopted in register analysis. Style is also understood as reflected in dichotomies such as personal and impersonal, direct and indirect, professional and technical, being influenced by choice of lexis, use or non-use of personal pronouns, nominalisation and use of 'it-phrases', choices made between active or passive voice, as well as in text format and layout. Style can also be seen as represented through citation patterns, extent of qualification and hedging, as well as features relating to sentence structure such as ellipsis. Business case reports in this thesis are analysed in terms of a range of these stylistic features.

3.3 Genre analysis: approaches and procedures

3.3.1 Broad approaches and procedures

A number of researchers in the ESP school have put forward approaches and procedures relating to how genre analyses should be conducted. Askehave and Swales (2001) suggest two approaches to genre analysis, one text-driven, the other context driven (ethnographically based), in which determination of communicative purpose is a goal of the analysis rather than

being specified at an initial stage. As the current thesis research involves a significant focus on text analysis, only the text-based approach is described here (figure 7). In this textual approach, the description of purpose at the outset is considered as provisional, with a re-purposing stage following analyses of structure, style, content and context.

Figure 7. Text-driven procedure for genre analysis (Askehave & Swales, 2001)

1.   Structure + style + content + 'purpose'
↓
2.   'genre'
↓
3.   context
↓
4.   repurposing the genre
↓
5.   reviewing genre status
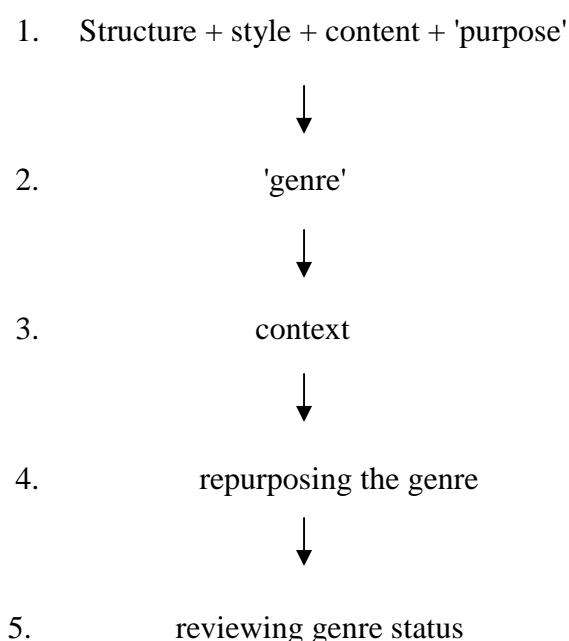
Other ESP genre studies have used approaches largely built around textual analyses, these analyses being grounded in the situational context and assigned communicative purpose of the text. For example, Hyland's (1990) analysis of the rhetorical structure of the argumentative essay in the writing of Papua New Guinea high school students is situated within the text purpose of persuading the reader of the correctness of a proposition. Text elements were allocated purposes based on qualitative interpretation of the text within the frame of this persuasion purpose.

Kanoksilapatham's (2005) analysis of rhetorical structure in biochemistry RAs focused on text-based move analysis, but incorporated confirmation of move descriptions by a

disciplinary specialist. Kwan (2006), studying the literature review in PhD theses, describes the determination of communicative purpose as a crucial first step in identification of a move structure, as each move must contribute to the fulfilment of that function.

Proposing a more detailed set of procedures for the analysis of unfamiliar genres, Bhatia (1993:22-36) identifies seven possible steps, dependent on the specific focus and purpose of the investigation as well as the researcher's prior knowledge. Many of these steps are not primarily focused on text analysis, with steps 1 to 5 involving: (1) 'concretising' representative genre-texts in their situational context based on prior situational and specialist background knowledge as well as text clues; (2) examining relevant literature including advice guides, analysing similar genres and course manuals; (3) defining genre participants, their relationships and goals, as well as researching the community in which the discourse takes place, identifying the surrounding network of texts and examining the relationship between the text and its real context; (4) selecting a distinguishable genre or sub-genre of texts based on communicative purposes, situational contexts, distinctive textual characteristics or a combination of these facets, and (5) investigation of the institutional context, particularly the genre system and conventions constraining language use in the field.

In Bhatia's scheme, the sixth stage involves linguistic study of the texts, focusing on analysis of lexico-grammatical features such as verb forms, clause types and aspects of style; analysis of text patterning, involving the tactical use of language to realise specific values or functions, and finally structural interpretation of the genre through move analysis. The final stage of Bhatia's approach involves consultation with subject specialists in order to further concretise the analysis.

The approach adopted to genre analysis in this thesis, was influenced by the text-based approach of Askehave and Swales (2001) as well as linguistic aspects of Bhatia's (1993) approach, and is presented and discussed in section 3.4 of this chapter.

3.3.2 Rhetorical analysis: Moves, sub-moves, strategies and steps

Moves are the building blocks of overall communicative structure and therefore are of key relevance to the genre analysis of case reports conducted in this thesis research. This view of moves as rhetorical building blocks is also reflected in the work of Bhatia (2002:84-85), who describes moves as "rhetorical instruments that realise a sub-set of communicative purposes associated with a genre". These rhetorical moves are themselves realised through the use of sub-moves, steps and strategies, dependent on the terminology selected and the nature of the move realisation. The application of the notion of rhetorical moves is exemplified in Swales's well-known CARS move structure for RA introduction sections (1990:141).

In a description of the nature of moves, Swales is reported as describing these rhetorical elements as constituting text segments identifiable by particular linguistic clues, which allow for a specific function within a text to be met and which almost always signal the content of particular discourse within a genre (Swales, 1981 cited in Crossley 2007)[11]. More recently, Swales (2004:228-229) has reformulated his description of the notion of move, describing the move as "a term of art" and as a discoursal and rhetorical unit performing a coherent communicative function. Swales goes on to state that the identification and setting of move

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[11]Crossley (2007) attempted to characterise genre moves in job application letters in terms of Bahktin's chronotopes (1981, cited in Crossley, 2007), elements of language referring to time and space. He found that each move had its own unique 'primary spatio-temporal perspective', which contributed to the shaping of the move and the position of boundaries between moves. However, as Crossley acknowledges, this study is somewhat limited as it deals with only a single genre within which it might be argued that spatio-temporal relations might be expected to feature more significantly than in other genres.

boundaries is established by a "mixed bag of criteria" which produce "defensible action criteria" and which is essentially bottom-up in nature.

Reflecting the notion of a mixed bag of criteria, Nwogu (1991) defined the move as a text segment made up of a bundle of linguistic features, with moves characterised by lexical meanings, propositional meanings, and illocutionary forces, which give a text segment uniform orientation and signal the content of the discourse within the segment. Each move is taken to embody a number of constituent elements or sub-moves which constitute information in the move. For Nwogu, moves and their constituent elements are determined partly by inferencing from context, but mostly by reference to specific linguistic clues in the discourse.

By contrast with Swales and Nwogu, while acknowledging that there is often some correlation with linguistic forms, Bhatia argues that function (presumably rhetorical function), rather than form is the primary criterion for assigning discourse values to particular moves (Bhatia 1993:87).

Supporting this more functional top-down view of move determination, Paltridge (1994) and Crookes (1986) point out that Swales's initial textual boundaries, are based on content rather than linguistically determined. Paltridge also argues that definitions of structural elements are often determined 'intuitively', concluding therefore that the boundaries are cognitively rather than linguistically determined. Paltridge also points out that Swales in his initial analysis had not critically examined the basis for the identification of the moves and steps, which were postulated as underpinning generic structure.

Crookes (1986), in similar vein, commented that Swales's criteria for definition of structural elements are unclear and notably points out that the initial Swales research article corpus upon which the CARS introduction model was based, was not representative of research articles in general, but focused in particular on articles containing reports of previous research.   In addition, as Swales himself recognised, the original CARS research also lacked empirical validation through rater analysis. Crookes (1986) conducted a validation procedure based on scientific journal texts and tentatively concluded that there was evidence for a Swalesian four move structure, although even this tentative conclusion required the procedural exclusion of articles not conforming to the Swalesian structure. Only 20% of the articles selected for the final validation possessed all four of the originally proposed CARS moves.

Bhatia (1993:19) sees the notion of cognitive determination of move boundaries as representative of psychological factors, which genre analysts have underplayed in determining the stages of texts. Using such a cognitive approach to the determination of generic structure "reveals the cognitive structures, typical of particular areas of enquiry".   Paltridge concludes that textual sub-divisions and boundaries need to be defined on cognitive grounds, based on 'convention', 'appropriacy' and 'content', rather than based on linguistic features.

With regard to move realisation, Swales, in his seminal description of the move structure of research article introductions, described sub-segments of text below the level of the move, using the term 'steps', representing different stages, both optional and obligatory in the realisation of the superordinate move.

Bhatia (2001) argues that Swales's steps incorporate two different types of rhetorical item. As an illustration, Bhatia points out that Swales's research article introduction move 3,

'occupying the niche' contains both rhetorical strategies, and steps or stages realising part of the rhetorical move. Bhatia prefers to formally distinguish these types of structural element, using the term 'stage' to describe obligatory and frequently interlinked components of a rhetorical move, but using the term 'strategy' to refer to distinct and separate optional strategic elements involved in the realisation of a move. Stages or separate strategic rhetorical devices at a level below the move are referred to by Bhatia and other authors (for example Henry & Roseberry, 1998) as sub-moves. The terminology proposed by Bhatia is used in the current thesis research for the reasons stated by Bhatia, but also as it is considered that the term sub-move better represents the fact that moves and sub-moves are qualitatively similar entities operating at distinct levels, whereas use of the terminology 'step' is seen as implying a qualitative difference between steps and moves which is not considered to be the case.

While move-based analysis of rhetorical structure is widely applied, certain genres have been described as not susceptible to this type of analysis. Dudley-Evans (2002) describes the key 'academic essay' genre as an example of this type of text, citing research by Kusel (1992) and comments of Horowitz (1986) to argue that the extent of variation across disciplines and within disciplines among subject lecturers means that rhetorical move analysis is not applicable. While Hyland (1990) presented a rhetorical structure for the academic essay, Dudley-Evans describes this model as "rather limited" and "based on intuition" rather than on "detailed study of a suitable corpus of essays". In addition to Dudley-Evans's comments about the academic essay, Bhatia (1993:116-117) argues that linear move-based analysis is not applicable to complex legislative writing, producing an incomplete cognitive structural description.

In this thesis, initial move analysis of the case reports and options focused components, suggested that these structural elements would be susceptible to move structure analysis, and therefore such an analysis was conducted. It was decided to adopt a functionally based approach to the determination of move and sub-move identities, operating within the context of the posited communicative purpose of the case reports. The identity and bounds of these functional rhetorical elements were determined intuitively and cognitively through meaning-based interpretation of text content, rather than through any overt focus on linguistic structures. This approach to identification of text move and sub-move identification, advocated by Paltridge (1994) and Bhatia (1993:13), appears consistent with general practice within the field, and also avoids the circularity and incongruity involved in the use of lower level features such as vocabulary and grammatical items as move determinants, which render superfluous subsequent move characterisation in terms of lower level features.

3.4. Summary and discussion

Within the influential ESP genre school, genres have been defined primarily in relation to similarities in communicative purpose(s), rhetorical structure and discourse community. This approach has contributed to the establishment of cross-disciplinary genre categories such as the empirical research paper, PhD thesis and Masters dissertation. In addition to these cross-disciplinary categories, student written texts have also been classified on a cross-disciplinary basis within genre family categories (BAWE, 2008).

The cross-disciplinary nature of the notion of genre, defined through Swales's genre characteristics, has been challenged particularly on the grounds of linguistic variation between disciplinary texts. The notion of discourse community, relevant to the cross-disciplinary issue, has also been subject to criticism, with the notion of a broad cross-disciplinary academic

community being shown as difficult to sustain due, amongst other factors, to observed linguistic and content variation, as well as lack of shared participatory mechanisms.

Given the fact that disciplinary and sub-disciplinary entities form the major structural and intellectual divisions within the university environment, the fact that there is identified significant variation in language between disciplines as well as evidence of such variation between sub-disciplines within those disciplines, and further given that disciplines and sub-disciplines shape the environments within which many linguistic specialist pedagogues are required to support learning, it seems reasonable to conclude that these specialist entities are key framing notions relevant to academic genre. While Becher's (1990) arguments in relation to the nature of sub-disciplines suggest that it is within these entities that core linguistic differences present themselves, in this thesis disciplinary and other specialist entities are also considered as defining genres.

In this chapter, the key notion of communicative purpose has been shown to be contestable in terms of its role as a privileged criterion for genre determination. Nevertheless, the concept of communicative purpose is accepted as remaining important as a contributory determinant of genre identity, and as providing the basis for rhetorical move analysis.

For the purposes of this thesis, informed by the preceding discussion, and in order to meet the criticism of lack of definition, communicative purpose in regard to genre, is defined here as a concept which describes:

> *the role(s) of a typified rhetorical action in relation to its desired effect on (a) specified target audience(s). This role is specifiable at different levels, is determined through a process of ethnographic and linguistic research, and is interpretable through the different perspectives of researchers.*

This definition uses Miller's (1994) notion of genre as a typified rhetorical action and explicitly mentions the intended effect on the audience as a critical factor in determination of communicative purpose. This intended effect describes a collective notion of intention or purpose, established by research into the situation and participants in the action, as well as by linguistic analysis. The researcher perspective is seen as playing a crucial role in establishing purposes with, for example, a critical as against a more standard pedagogical perspective, leading to the determination of different but simultaneously valid purposes. Communicative purpose in these terms is seen as a characteristic of genres, variable in formulation dependent on level of abstraction and researcher perspective.

In regard to genre analysis in the current thesis research, the analytical approach shown in figure 8 was adopted. This incorporates elements of the broad text-focused approach of Askehave and Swales (2001), with linguistic analysis reflecting Bhatia's stage 6, however, an initial stage is included in the process incorporating the hypothesising of a genre, which is open to confirmation or disconfirmation through the analytical process. The procedure also incorporates identification of component categories and other sources of variability within the hypothesised genre, since such variability might skew analysis, leading to unnecessary genre disconfirmation or difficulties in identifying core genre characteristics.

Text analysis is core to the procedure described, however specific stages of the analytical process, in particular initial identification of the selected genre to analyse, are dependent on broader contextual information.

Figure 8. Approach to genre analysis adopted in the thesis research

Identification of hypothesised genre (text category for analysis)

↓

Identification of sources of variability and potential component genres

↓

Preliminary analysis of sample texts (structural, content, style, lexis)

↓

Hypothesis of communicative purposes of overall genre and component genres

↓

Structural and rhetorical move analysis of genre texts

↓

Analysis of style and lexico-grammatical text features

↓

Review and detailing of communicative purposes

↓

Confirmation of genre identity(ies) and genre characteristics

With regard to communicative purpose determination, it is noted that this is dependent on both broader contextual and text-based information. This aligns with the original ESP genre definitional framework (Swales, 1981, 1990), in which determination of communicative purpose, and therefore genre identification, in practice requires linguistic analysis including determination of rhetorical structure.

Within the Swalesian ESP framework, it is noted that communicative purpose is said to place constraints on structure, content, style and form. In practical terms, it is clear that within the above framework and that proposed by Askehave and Swales (2001), it is in fact linguistic and structural analysis which is constraining communicative purpose and genre. As a consequence the relationship between genre and communicative purpose

becomes circular and mutually dependent. Therefore the statement that communicative purpose constrains content, structure, style and form comprises an unfalsifiable proposition representing an unacceptable academic research proposition (Popper 1963).

This observation does not imply that communicative purpose and the stated linguistic features are unworthy of investigation. Nevertheless, considering the difficulties in determining communicative purpose and the practice of basing this purpose determination in textual features, within this thesis it is the presence of a consistent overall pattern of features based on structure, style, lexis, grammar as well as communicative purpose within a text category, which is seen as determining genre identity[12].

Further, based on the discussion in this chapter, the notion of academic genre within this thesis is defined as representing:

> *a category of texts realising a typified rhetorical action, operating within a particular academic specialism (field, disciplinary, sub-disciplinary or sub-disciplinary specialism), often identifiable by a common or similar category label and containing high levels of similarity, taking into account social and communicative purpose, rhetorical structure, lexis, grammar, and style.*

It is anticipated from this definition that text category labels within academic specialisms will often provide an indication of similarities in terms of rhetorical structure and communicative purpose in genre categories.

The adoption of a specialism-based approach to identification of genres is seen as having pedagogical benefits, facilitating the study of genres within specialist teaching and learning contexts. Placing basal levels of genre within the disciplinary, sub-disciplinary or sub-

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[12] While this may be seen as a rather imprecise basis for classification of genres, specific genres can be characterised in more precise terms. Moreover, such an approach reflects the fuzziness of classification categories as illustrated in the work of Rosch (1973).

disciplinary specialism frame disallows, or requires substantial qualification of the teaching of general models such as the CARS introductory model, in contexts where these general models are inaccurate or under-determining, and requires teachers and researchers to investigate real instances of writing produced within the relevant specialism.

While it is accepted that common rhetorical patterns are likely to have developed from antecedent rhetorical forms, and that shared rhetorical patterns exist beyond the disciplinary and sub-disciplinary level, it is considered that more wide ranging levels of similarity need to be represented in terms of more inclusive genre categories, described as cross-disciplinary field-based genres or field-based genre families, the notion of family emphasising the presence of both similarities and differences between component text genres.

Finally in this chapter, it is noted that the research in this thesis is described as operating within an ESP genre framework. While defining elements of ESP genre theory have been questioned, nevertheless, key elements of ESP genre theory remain as important within the analysis conducted, namely the notions of communicative purpose, rhetorical structure determination, and a focus on form and style. Further the research is located within the specialist business discipline, an ESP relevant context. Overall it is considered justified to retain the label of ESP genre analysis as descriptive of the analytical approach adopted in this thesis.

Chapter 4 - Genre Pedagogy: Model Texts and Exemplars

4.1 Introduction

In order to underpin the case report genre learning experiments conducted as part of the thesis research, this chapter examines the literature relating to genre-based pedagogies, focusing in particular on the role of model texts which are core learning vehicles within these pedagogies. Model texts are also considered in broader learning contexts as a means of evaluating their contribution to learning both within and beyond genre-based approaches.

While US new rhetoric genre approaches have largely avoided focusing on pedagogical issues, such pedagogical application has substantially motivated research in the Australian and ESP genre schools, resulting in the widespread application of genre-based approaches to the writing of school-based texts in the Australian school system, and application of ESP genre theory to the teaching and learning of a variety of genres in higher education and specialist occupational environments.

While the Australian context represents a substantial locus for the application of genre-based pedagogies, with core procedures such as the curriculum cycle incorporating the use of model texts (Callaghan & Rothery, 1988; Hammond, 1990; Callaghan, Knapp & Noble, 1993), consistent with the EAP context of case report writing and the approach to genre analysis adopted within the thesis research, this chapter focuses on the use of genre pedagogy and model texts as pedagogical vehicles within the ESP genre school.

4.2 Writing pedagogy in the ESP genre school

Illustrating the pedagogical applications of ESP genre theory, a number of authors have produced pedagogical guides which are significantly or entirely grounded in this framework

(Weissberg & Buker, 1996; Paltridge, 2001; Swales & Feak, 2004), while a variety of researchers have published papers incorporating pedagogical proposals, reporting pedagogical applications or evaluating teaching approaches grounded in the ESP genre school (for example Flowerdew, 1993; Henry & Roseberry, 1998; Badger & White, 2000; Cheng, 2007).

Efforts to develop genre knowledge have varied in terms of the extent to which learning and teaching are focused on development of knowledge of specific genres, referred to as 'narrow angle approaches' or whether broader genre knowledge and awareness is pursued through a more 'wide angle' approach.

4.2.1 Focusing on specific genres: Narrow angle approaches

Dudley-Evans (1997) describes narrow angle genre approaches as involving a number of steps. Initially target genre model texts are presented and rhetorical structure analysed. There then follow exercises involving identification and use of various genre language components. Finally learners construct texts within the genre. These approaches reflect product-oriented approaches to the teaching of writing, which contrast with process approaches in their focus on structure, lexis and grammar, with learning seen as involving imitation (Pincas, 1983)[13].

Illustrating such genre-specific learning approaches, Bhatia (1993:181-193) developed a range of pedagogical materials to support the writing of different professional genres. Units of teaching material are based on particular genres, consisting of a head text representing a standard or model text of the genre divided into the main rhetorical moves or steps. The model and head text are accompanied by several head worksheets providing activities and exercises based on the initial head text and genre, giving practice in identifying and assigning

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[13]Process approaches to writing development tend to focus on activities such as pre-writing, producing drafts, revision and editing of texts (Tribble,1996:39) rather than focusing on the product text.

discourse structure and linguistic realisations of rhetorical moves. Description and explanation of genre or sub-genre communicative purpose are also provided.

A further example of such a genre-specific approach is Henry and Roseberry's (1998) evaluation of a genre-based approach to teaching and learning within an EAP setting, which focused on developing learner's abilities to write tourist information brochures using rhetorical analysis and other activities based around model tourist information texts.

4.2.2 Raising genre awareness and rhetorical consciousness: Wide angle approaches

Criticising the narrow angle product-based approaches, Flowerdew (1993) argues that these are inappropriate, in particular for courses aimed at general professional communication where students are required to master a range of genres, but also for courses focused on specific genres, since such specific genres are variable and not susceptible to rule-based descriptions. Flowerdew argues for a 'wide angle' educational approach to genre teaching, which focuses on the process of learning about and participating in genres, the identification of genre differences, and development of genre awareness[14].

To support such teaching, Flowerdew proposed six activity types aimed at highlighting the interaction between context and text, namely: (1) using the results of genre analysis, (2) metacommunicating about genres, (3) genre analysis by learners, (4) concordancing, (5) on-line genre analysis and (6) translation based on sample genre exemplars.

Reflecting Flowerdew's approach, a number of other researchers advocate developing a broad knowledge of genre as a holistic concept rather than knowledge of individual genres, with

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[14]The term 'process' here is not used in the same sense as in the context of process writing in footnote 13. Flowerdew's approach involves exploration and analysis of product texts.

pedagogical practice involving exploration of genres and genre sets as well as reflecting on writing practices (for example Hyland, 2003; Cheng, 2007).

Cheng (2007), following the approach of Johns (1997), adopted what is described as a 'discovery-based' approach to teaching and learning genre in graduate classes, consisting of four main stages. Firstly students were exposed to non-academic genres as a means of identifying generic organisation, as well as move structures and grammar and lexical features of genres. These foci were combined with awareness raising regarding participant roles and genre purpose. The second stage focused on RA introductions, with the third focusing on methods, discussion and conclusion sections in RAs. For this third element of the programme students were required to collect five RAs from their own research field in order to develop greater awareness of genre conventions in this field. Finally learners studied some academic related genres including manuscript submission letters and job application letters.   The objective of this teaching was to enable students to develop their understanding of discourse conventions both within their own fields and more generally.

Dudley-Evans (1995) describes what are referred to as common core and specific approaches to the teaching of academic writing. While the specific approach focuses solely on specific tasks and genres, the common core approach reflects the approaches of Cheng and Flowerdew in aiming to build more general rhetorical consciousness, a process based on study of thesis and research article organisational patterns and their rationales, exercises focusing on linguistic realisation of these patterns through move structures and other language elements, and conversion of this developed consciousness into learner's own written products.

4.2.3 A process-genre approach

Badger and White (2000) propose a pedagogical approach which combines genre and process approaches to writing. Proposed procedures lead students from a starting point of situational factors and text purpose, through a process of planning and drafting to the generation of a final text. In this approach the 'genre expert' teacher acts as a facilitator, aiding learner progress by providing knowledge of input and skills. These authors do not explicitly mention the use of text models in genre study, though state that teachers require sets of relevant text corpora, and that students might investigate elements of these texts.

4.3. Model texts and genre exemplars in genre writing pedagogy

Whether a narrow or wide angle approach to genre learning is adopted, the use of model texts is fundamental to genre learning. In addition to the widespread practical application of genre model texts in both narrow and wide angled genre learning approaches, overt support for their use comes from Flowerdew (2003) who, pointing out that many native speakers use the writings of others to support their writing in unfamiliar genres, calls for an acknowledgement of the ability to seek out models as part of developing genre awareness.

Flowerdew argues that this model-based skill should be "brought out of the closet" rather than remaining "a secret activity not acknowledged by teachers". These comments point to a widely held negative view of model texts and modelling, derived from an association with discredited behaviourist teaching methodology, learning by imitation, and what have been seen as narrow, product-focused language learning approaches. However, the use of model texts in genre writing pedagogy suggests a clear value in model text incorporating learning procedures.

4.3.1 Definitions of models and exemplars

Understanding the role of model texts in genre learning requires a knowledge of the nature of models. Therefore this section focuses on defining such texts and in addition the related term, exemplar, also used to refer to texts within the context of genre teaching and learning. The researcher or practitioner choice of terminology is of some importance as it reflects beliefs about the process of teaching and learning, and the role of texts in these processes.

The term exemplar was not defined in the standard dictionaries of linguistics or other sources consulted in this research, however the use of this term in language pedagogy appears to reflect a view that there are many possible realisations of a genre or text type, of which the exemplar is a single instance. As a consequence, rather than representing a single goal or standard to emulate, a meaning commonly associated with the notion of model, the exemplar, while illustrating important language principles, is seen as something which should not be copied too rigidly.

The more widely used term 'model', adopted in much of the relevant research, was defined in a number of dictionaries and other sources. Crystal (1991), and Richards *et al.,* (1994) define language models in similar terms, the former stating that models are "someone or something used as an exemplar of high achievement", and the latter as "someone or something used as a standard or goal by the learner". The notion of models is expanded in the Richards *et al.,* definition through the statement that some language teaching approaches require teachers to supply models which learners must imitate.

The association of models with imitation is reflected in the definition provided by Stratton and Hayes (1998) operating within the context of psychology. They describe modelling as:

providing an example which can be imitated, such that the imitator is able to learn new styles of behaviour..............

Nevertheless, there are contrasting views of how learning occurs from modelling, as illustrated by the comments of the social psychologist Statt (1998), who states that with regard to children's behavioural development, learning from models "goes further than copying or imitating", with children able to "generalise from the model's behaviour to a wide range of similar behaviours of their own invention". Such a view of the complexity of learning from models accords with the social cognitive view of learning put forward by the influential social psychologist Bandura (1986).

In Charney and Coulson's (1994) investigation of the role of models in genre learning, the authors define a written model as:

a text written by specific writers in a specific situation that is subsequently reused to exemplify a genre that generalises over writers in such situations.

This definition is considered to maintain the requirement for achievement models and models as goals and standards, since presumably poor models would not be used as exemplars. Interestingly in their research however, Charney and Coulson refer to 'good models', 'poor models', and 'low quality models', these descriptions seeming to contrast with the notion of models as representing high achievement.

Werner (1989) distinguishes models and examples, the former in his view, being a representation of a type, abstract and general in nature, with the latter being seen as a particular manifestation of a type. As an illustration, he states that there may exist a single model of a good newsletter but many examples particular to a given situation. For Werner,

writing difficulties with model texts occur when learners are unable to distinguish the model features from the features of the single example instantiation of the model.

4.3.2 Evaluations of writing pedagogy and model text usage in ESP genre-based teaching and learning

Despite the widespread use of model text incorporating ESP genre-based approaches to learning, surprisingly little research has been published which evaluates the effectiveness of either these ESP genre-based approaches or of model texts as components. Indeed, Cheng (2006, 2007), has recently criticised both the extent of evaluative genre research and the validity of the research conducted.

The main genre evaluative experimental work is that of Henry and Roseberry (1998) and relies heavily on the use of model texts. These researchers found that genre-based learning procedures incorporating use of model texts, improved the writing of tourist information brochures by a cohort of second language learners. This improvement was observed in terms of the effect that student texts had on the motivation of readers and in terms of a measure of 'texture', but not to a statistically significant degree in terms of rhetorical move structure. Overall, the authors concluded that a teaching approach focusing on rhetorical organisation *can* be successful in an EAP/ESP situation with reasonably advanced learners.

Cheng (2007) criticised this Henry and Roseberry research on the grounds that the evaluation was restricted to pre- and post-test data, that writing samples and analyses of these samples were not provided, that it is unclear whether the ability to transfer rhetorical features and other genre knowledge as measured in this study is a goal of ESP genre-based instruction, and further on the grounds that tourist information brochures are not characteristic of academic tasks required either within the discipline concerned or in a broader university environment.

Cheng's own study of the development of genre knowledge and deployment of generic features involved a case study of a Chinese PhD student aiming to generate research papers in his own field. Following the discovery approach to genre described in section 4.2.2 above, Cheng found that the PhD student used rhetorical features encountered in the course programme in his own writing, and used rhetorical considerations, particularly anticipated responses from readers, in the deployment of these features. Cheng concluded that not only should genre teaching aim at developing awareness of different genres, but it should also aim to develop student awareness of genre as a concept embodying rhetorical considerations which motivate deployment of generic features.

As a case study focusing on a single student, Cheng's study is clearly limited. Moreover, while the student concerned is described as typical in some respects, the student was actually selected for particular study on the grounds of 'many unique characteristics' including higher level of commitment to the relevant programme, eagerness to develop his written academic English, attentiveness in class and turning homework in on time. While this particular student may have developed genre awareness and incorporated genre features, it needs to be noted that this research does not consider the progress or participation of the other 21 students in the class.

Charney and Carlson's model text genre learning research (1995) focused on identifying what psychology students (presumably native speakers though this is not specified), learnt from model texts of methods sections which had themselves been generated by other psychology students.   It was found that when compared to students seeing no model text, those students seeing model texts had better organised writing containing more of the relevant propositions encountered in 'good' model texts. However, a higher level of incorrect propositions were

incorporated if students viewed a poor model. The authors concluded that use of models influences content of text and text organisation, although organisation, in this research, based outside of the Swalesian ESP framework, did not refer to rhetorical move structure. Students supplied with three 'good' model texts were found to perform as well as those who received a mix of good and bad model texts, indicating that students were, to some extent, discerning in their use of model texts.

Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) evaluated genre approaches by surveying teacher's attitudes to genre in a multicultural workshop. Participants expressed some positive views about genre-based approaches to teaching, seeing them as empowering, and enabling, promoting flexible thinking and allowing access to discourse communities. Participants also saw these approaches as leading to greater creativity, being liberating and facilitating reflection. Concerns, however, were expressed about prescriptivism and dryness of genre approaches, which according to some participants could be too text-centred.

4.3.3 Evaluation of model texts and exemplar usage in other English language pedagogical contexts

Much of the research related to the use of model texts and exemplars has been conducted with regard to prose modelling on English literature and composition programmes, mainly in the United States. Within this prose modelling context, Beireiter and Scandamalia (1984) investigated what school grade and graduate learners could acquire from single exposures to three types of text model. They found that with all text types, despite the absence of explication relating to text form and structure, students demonstrated 'some pick-up' of rhetorical knowledge evidenced through the analysis of post-test parallel texts. Students also showed developed abilities to identify key features of text types.

The extent of rhetorical development was dependent on the text type to which students were exposed, with restaurant reviews and concrete fiction (an invented genre), proving more easy to reproduce than suspense fiction. A further finding was that development appeared to be focused on discrete elements while more complex or global characteristics tended to be overlooked. This was consistent with the findings of Gowda (1983, cited in Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1984) who reported that students tend to use isolated expressions from model texts when performing parallel tasks.

Stolarek (1994) found that combining the use of model texts with other treatments led to enhanced writing performance compared with the use of model texts on their own. Focusing on prose modelling using a similar form to the concrete fiction genre (referred to as chosisme), she investigated written production under a number of conditions in which model texts were or were not used. It was found that students produced texts which related most closely to the generic form when use of a model text was combined with description of the form, as well as explication which related description of the form to the model text supplied. Use of a model text on its own led to much lower correspondence with the generic form. Stolarek concluded that despite instructor concerns, modelling is an effective method of teaching prose forms, with the most effective modelling occurring when instructors clearly understand what is to be modelled and when the model clearly exemplifies those characteristics.

Further evidence for the benefit of using model texts to support writing development comes from the work of Smagorinsky (1992) who provided groups of students (again presumably native speakers) with model texts of a specific definitional form, used in combination with one of three different treatments: model text study only, model text plus general composition

instruction or model text plus task-specific instruction. Smagorinsky then used pre- and post-test think aloud protocols to measure changes in student performance with respect to two alternative criteria, critical thinking (determined in terms of generation of criteria describing the concepts being defined) and purposeful composing (determined in terms of students' ability to link generalisations to supporting evidence).

Results showed significantly enhanced performance in the two instructed treatment groups in terms of critical thinking but little or no improvement with respect to this characteristic in the model text only group. Task-specific instruction resulted in significantly higher performance in terms of purposeful composing by the instructed groups. The poorer performance of the model texts only group was attributed to the need for procedural knowledge for writing development, which could not be accessed through a text model.

As a consequence of this research, Smagorinsky suggested that use of model texts on their own, is insufficient to improve writing and needs to be combined with experience in general composition procedures. It should be noted that this experimental work used only six student subjects and therefore is open to criticism on the basis of small sample size.

While there is evidence that the use of model texts can be effective in teaching composition to native speaker students, Hillocks (1984, 1987), having conducted a meta-study of experimental research on composition teaching, found that the exclusive use of model texts in combination with naming, identification or evaluation procedures resulted in lower improvements in writing quality than when other instructional techniques were used, particularly those in which students engaged in questioning approaches to their own writing and the writing of others, or focused on writing strategy development and inquiry. This lower

level of improvement was attributed to the absence of process teaching in model text based instruction. Improvement in writing through inquiry approaches occurred at more than twice the level of improvement observed in model-based approaches, however Hillocks also concluded that available research did not allow for discrimination between the different types of model text used and the ways in which these model texts were used.

4.4 Summary and discussion

Genre-based pedagogies within the field of ESP, have adopted either narrow angle approaches focusing on the development of knowledge with respect to specific genres, or wide-angled approaches focusing on the development of broader generic and rhetorical awareness as a route to facilitating broader application of the rhetorical principles of genre. Both wide angled and narrow approaches incorporate the use of genre exemplars or model texts, which are generally analysed in terms of rhetorical move structure and other language features.

The experimental work in this thesis adopted a narrow angled approach in order to support and evaluate the development of second language learner capacity to generate options and alternatives moves identified in business case report assignments. However, such a narrow angle approach was also seen as a means of generating broader linguistic and rhetorical competence, through providing experience of rhetorical analysis and deployment of generic and rhetorical features.

While there was considered to be validity in a wide angle approach in an appropriate context, it was judged that focusing on the development of broader rhetorical awareness would require a large investment of time, a commodity in short supply on an intensive pre-sessional programme. Further, the comparison of what would be different unfamiliar genres within the business discipline, was also seen as problematic and the option of presenting genres such as

wedding invitations and job application letters, as in the research of Cheng, was seen as endangering programme credibility within the context of a discipline and task-specific course. In addition, the weight of evidence presented in the Cheng (2007) research was not considered substantial enough to support such a broad approach within the pre-sessional business context, although it is recognised that Cheng's approach could have value in an appropriate context.

Bearing in mind the definition and discussion of model texts and exemplars in this chapter, samples texts used in genre learning experiments are referred to as model texts rather than exemplars. This decision is made on the grounds that the texts used in learning experiments are selected as high standard genre examples from which generic principles can be learned, thus reflecting the more linguistic definitions provided. In addition however, students experienced multiple models as part of the experimental research conducted in this thesis, and it is considered consistent with modelling that there can be diverse high achievement model texts. There is therefore no requirement to refer to such multiple model texts as exemplars.

Further, modelling, consistent with views of model-based learning from sources in the more recent psychology literature, is not seen as involving the 'mindless' imitation of a single model text. The term exemplar is seen as designed to avoid such an implication, however, given the range of mechanisms involved in learning from model texts, such a distinction is seen as unnecessary. Paltridge (2001:71) describes the use of multiple models in genre learning procedures, illustrating the fact that this view of model texts is not unusual. The notion of multiple models therefore incorporates the concept of the exemplar text. Consistent with the argument of Werner, it is considered that, for example, a model rhetorical structure, can exist within a range of exemplars or model texts. In line with arguments presented in

regard to learning from model texts, it is seen as entirely possible for the teacher to act as a guide, facilitating the exploration of genre models, without the requirement for the rule-based, authoritarian teaching associated with behaviourist model text utilising approaches. In accord with the description of Statt (1998) it is seen as highly likely that learners will extend their learning based on their experiences with model texts, often outside of the language classroom context.

A final reason for the use of model text terminology is that, regardless of the view of the teacher or practitioner, learners are likely to use a range of innate learning processes for genre development, which might be considered to involve, at least in part, imitation of the supplied text. While a teacher or researcher may present a text as an exemplar, attempting to portray a text as neutral in terms of quality and one of many possible realisations, learners may still be prone to treat that exemplar as an achievement model, signified through its provision by the teacher, a language expert, and therefore at least in some respects, consider the exemplar worthy of imitation.

The literature overall supports the efficacy of using model texts as learning vehicles, nevertheless, the research from Hillocks strongly supports the notion of enquiry as being an effective means of developing writing ability. Other researchers comment on the need to combine model text usage with explanation and other approaches. Procedures aimed at promoting genre writing capacities applied in the genre learning experiments in this thesis, rather than simply involving the presentation of model texts, incorporate principles of analysis and enquiry by student subjects. This 'discovery approach' is considered to be an important element of effective learning, enhancing the efficacy of model text usage for genre learning.

The combination of enquiry, analysis and model text usage leads to an expectancy of genre learning, and serves to further justify the experimental genre learning research.

The genre learning experiments described in chapter 7 of this thesis aimed to evaluate the extent to which genre learning would occur through the adopted genre learning procedures based in model texts. However, these studies also investigate the role of explicit instruction in genre learning.

The role of instruction is of interest since Freedman (1993a,b) has argued that explicit teaching of genres is largely unnecessary, strongly criticising in particular, efforts to teach children story and other school-based genres. Freedman argues that such genres can be learned without the need for rhetorical analysis and the presentation of move structures and linguistic realisations. However, others (for example Fahnestock, 1993; Williams & Colomb, 1993) have argued that such explicit teaching is a necessity for the development of effective language skills. While model texts are used widely in formal genre teaching and learning, it was hoped that experimental data gathered in this study, deriving from directed and undirected model text study, would serve to further inform the debate regarding the role of explicit instruction.

Evaluation of the development of rhetorical and genre learning with regard to the options and alternatives elements of business case reports, including evaluation with and without explicit instruction, required the identification, and rhetorical and linguistic analysis of the options and alternatives elements themselves. The following chapter 5 of this thesis focuses on the characterisation of the thesis case report corpus, incorporating identification of the relevant options and alternatives components, while chapter 6 deals with the characterisation of the

options and alternatives components themselves. Chapter 7 presents the genre learning experiments including experimental results.

Chapter 5 - Business Case Report Characterisation

5.1 Introduction

This chapter provides a broad textual characterisation of the small corpus of business case reports collected for this thesis research, in order to add to the low level of textual data as well as the ethnographic information presented in previous case writing research (Freedman *et al.,* 1994; Freedman & Adam 1996; Forman & Rymer, 1999a,b).

The approach to case report characterisation adopted follows that described in chapter 3 of this thesis, with analysis of the hypothesised business case report genre incorporating the initial stages of the text-based genre characterisation approach of Askehave and Swales (2001), and comprising structural and move-based analysis combined with identification of stylistic, content and lexico-grammatical text features.

In line with the selected approach, having hypothesised the existence of a business case report genre, sub-corpus text categories were identified for study, representing likely sources of genre variability, particularly marketing examination and marketing management continuous assessment report categories as well as native and non-native speaker texts. Analysis of NS and NNS differences was seen as supporting the identification of potential areas of linguistic challenge for NNS students, while analysis of the specialism-assessment type category would inform text and component genre classification based in business specialisms as well as providing information regarding the influence of assessment type on case report writing.

In order to evaluate the generalisability of the thesis corpus case report characterisation, thesis case report characteristics were also compared with those of business case reports identified

from the BAWE corpus (2008) originating from varying business specialisms.

5.2. Corpus design and construction

It was initially aimed that the thesis case report corpus should incorporate a range of business case reports written within different business specialisms at the relevant university research site, with case reports covering a range of different tasks and written in both continuous assessment and examination contexts [15]. Such a systematic and wide-ranging corpus would have provided data enabling comparison across the range of business specialisms at the research site.   However, in practice, such a range of business case reports could not be obtained from the target business school, and therefore the corpus of business case reports was generated based on more limited specific case report samples that were obtainable and available, deriving solely from the specialisms of marketing and marketing management. The thesis case report corpus comprising these texts was designated BCR-1.

Reports were requested and supplied, in which students had achieved marks of more than 60% or an equivalent grade B or above, since it was considered likely that such samples would contain structural and linguistic features appropriate for effective realisation of case tasks, while at the same time providing sufficient samples to be representative of effective case report writing.

Overall, 53 anonymised reports were obtained, each produced by a different writer and generated in two academic years (2000-2001 and 2001-2002), with the corpus comprising approximately 125,000 words. Texts were individually coded and labelled (appendix A).

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[15] While desirable in terms of establishing a corpus representative of all UK business case report writing, obtaining business case reports from beyond the single selected research site for the thesis corpus was considered problematic and impractical within the constraints of this research. BAWE corpus business case reports served as samples for analysis from the wider UK academic business context.

Table 1 shows key data for these reports. All texts derived from two modules, namely marketing management, and e-commerce and marketing, taken within a Masters level marketing course. Marketing management module reports derived from two continuous assessment tasks and were written during the first few months of the relevant programme being produced over a period of several weeks. Marketing examination case reports were written as part of a three hour seen examination in which students were also required to write two essays[16] [17]. The case report accounted for 60% of the examination mark.

Table 1. Breakdown of case report samples in the BCR-1 thesis corpus.

Course programme	Module	Business case	Writing context	NS samples	NNS samples	Total reports	Word counts	
MSc Marketing	Marketing Management	Baxter	continuous assessment	12	13	25	NS	37,201
							NNS	38,995
MSc Marketing	Marketing Management	Pepcid	continuous assessment	2	1	3	NS	7,085
							NNS	2,528
MSc Marketing	Marketing Strategy and E-Commerce	Darling Chocolate	seen, timed examination	8	17	25	NS	14,356
							NNS	25,189
				22	31	53	All NS	58,642
							All NNS	66,712
							All Reports	125,354

While it would have been preferable to have obtained higher numbers of marketing and marketing management case reports based on varying tasks, it did not prove possible to collect such additional samples. The absence of distinct text categories for comparison, separable solely by a single variable, either assessment type, business specialism or task, added complexity to the identification of factors underlying observed text variation.

Anonymised samples were supplied in NS-NNS categories by the business school provider, no specific nationalities being designated in order to enhance confidentiality. However, as

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[16] Continuous assessment and examination tasks were easily distinguishable, the former being word-processed and the latter handwritten.

[17] While the module was titled e-commerce and marketing, the examination case reports related solely to marketing with no reference to e-commerce.

indicated by informants, a significant majority of NNS course attendees originated from the People's Republic of China (PRC) and it was considered likely that the majority of NNS samples were written by PRC students.

A marketing essay reference corpus (ESM-1) was also constructed for the purpose of comparing marketing essays and marketing case reports. The ESM-1 corpus consisted of 17 NS examination essays accompanying case reports, written by eight NS writers and comprised 14,500 words.

Continuous assessment task texts were electronically scanned and word documents generated which, following editing for scanning errors and removal of identifying text, were then converted to text files. Handwritten examination texts were directly typed into text files. Tabulated text was not included in text files, however diagrammatic text was included in these files.

Data associated with sample texts in the case of continuous assessment reports included handwritten summary lecturer comments written on separate mark sheets, while lecturer comments were identified in margins, between lines of text, and as summary end of text comments in the case of examination samples.

In line with good practice and legal requirements, individual permissions from students were sought via the business school, however, due to the historic nature of the reports supplied, obtaining such permissions did not prove feasible. Within the terms of good practice and the relevant legal framework, as such texts were not being, and could not be used for individual student evaluation or any other purpose related to the individual student, since texts had been

anonymised and would be disposed of at the end of the research, it was advised that it would be legitimate to use these samples in this study, including storage of data on computers for analysis, until the completion of the case report research.

5.3 Analytical procedures

This section describes in more detail procedures adopted to support the adopted analytical approach described in chapter 3.

5.3.1 Determination of contextual information: Case report background and course data

The existence of a business case report genre as well as the communicative purposes of the genre, were hypothesised based in situational and contextual information derived from business qualified informants, and were also supported by preliminary text analyses.

In particular with regard to contextual information, supporting genre hypothesis and communicative purpose determination, the lecturer leading the two Masters modules was consulted to obtain background information on business case report writing, identify assessment criteria and to determine advice given regarding case report writing. Limited data was obtained concerning course content, and other assignments encountered by the relevant learners. Comment was also sought during the course of the research from academic business lecturers on a range of issues relating to case report writing. Broad information regarding the business school and its component programmes was obtained through prospecti, the school website and departmental visits.

5.3.2 Identification and designation of broad rhetorical moves

Representing the fifth stage of genre analysis shown in chapter 3, figure 8, rhetorical characterisation was framed within hypothesised communicative purposes of the putative business case report genre category. Within this frame, rhetorical structure determination was

grounded in the functional and meaning-based approach of Paltridge (1994) and Bhatia (1993:13) implemented through grouping of functionally related report structural components into broad rhetorical moves. Classification of structural components into broad rhetorical move structures was also influenced by geographical positioning of titled structural components within case report texts.

Such grouping of report structural components was considered necessary as initial analysis demonstrated the presence of multiple, explicitly titled, structural components, which, if each structural category was considered as a rhetorical move, would produce a rhetorical structure that was overly complex, confusing and unwieldy. Such an unwieldy structure was considered in conflict with a desire to develop a clear and parsimonious rhetorical structure with pedagogical utility.

Initial rhetorical move designation was based in identification of structural components from both marketing management continuous assessment and marketing examination case report sub-corpora. Due to the variety of structures encountered in learner writing, and to reduce the potential for erroneous or outlier structures to overly influence rhetorical structure designation, the decision was made that recognition of a structural element as a key rhetorical move component, either overall or within the marketing or marketing management sub-corpus categories would require its identification in 10% of the relevant category samples.

Detailed descriptions of the nature of particular moves identified and their component structural elements are provided in section 5.4.7 .

5.3.3 Identification and designation of rhetorical move component structural elements

The identification of rhetorical move structural components was necessary to underpin the designation of broad rhetorical moves. To support this identification and rhetorical move formulation, a detailed initial structural analysis was conducted, focused on identifying and quantifying the occurrence of explicitly titled components. Once this structural analysis had been completed, titled components could be analysed in more detail in terms of the rhetorical functions supported, enabling preliminary rhetorical move designation and formulation and allocation of structural components to particular rhetorical moves.

Identification of text titles and sub-titles for component report structures was generally unproblematic, these being distinguishable through a range of formatting features including spacing, numerical or alpha-numeric designation, underlines, italicisation or capitalisation. Nevertheless, even before allocation into rhetorical move categories, designation of these structural elements[18] in terms of both the nomenclature of structural categories as well as the description of these structural elements, for a number of reasons was not a straightforward procedure and involved resolution of a range of issues.

Creating initial difficulties, in addition to the overtly titled sections, it was clear that there were untitled text segments in significant numbers of samples which appeared to have similar, if not identical, characteristics to titled text elements found in other text samples. For example, untitled text elements having strong similarities to introduction sections were found in some examination case reports. It was considered that a full description of case report structure required identification and enumeration of such untitled segments. Therefore, where

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[18] In this thesis, the terms section and sub-section are used to refer to titled structural elements of text. The term segment is used to refer to untitled text elements. The term structural element is used as a generic term incorporating segments and titled sections and sub-sections untitled. Both segments and sections/sub-sections may overlap or be co-terminous with rhetorical moves or sub-moves. Moves represent functional rhetorical categories. The broad rhetorical moves in this chapter incorporate varying structural elements.

practical, detailed analyses of specific titled structural components were conducted to provide a basis for the structural designation of untitled segments[19].

Also generating complexity in the analysis were observed mismatches of titled sections with anticipated content. A common example was an apparent confusion over the nature of executive summaries and introduction structural elements. The published literature is very limited with regard to executive summaries, and there is no literature on introductions within case reports. Nevertheless, based on expectations in the more general academic writing literature and specific research conducted to resolve this problem (detailed above), distinct linguistic and content features of these two initial position structural elements were identified. As a consequence it was apparent that a significant number of students used the executive summary title to front introduction-like texts.

Where potential mismatches of title and text content were identified, structural sections were allocated to the type indicated by the student assigned title. This allocation was made on the grounds that the student's intention was interpreted as being that of generating a text segment of the type shown in the title, and that this research should present the student's perception of the structural realisation, rather than that of the researcher. However accompanying notes are provided in such cases. Throughout this data analysis, where student errors are considered to be present, the student data is reported without correction but with accompanying notes and comment.

Another important difficulty with regard to classification and counting of structural elements arose from the variable form in which specific analytical or other structural elements were

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[19] Where insufficient data was available to support characterisation of titled structural components or structural elements were considered as not core to the case reports, more cursory qualitative analyses were conducted.

expressed. For example, a standard tool in business analysis, SWOT, the acronym standing for strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats, appeared in manifestations including SWO and OT. Each of these manifestations is included in this analysis under the category of SWOT structural elements.

Difficulties in designation and structural classification also arose in two further areas, firstly, the use of titles dealing with more than one major function, for example *Options and Recommendations*. The decision was made to consider such titles under both relevant structural categories *i.e.* in the example, the section would be counted as both an options and a recommendations structural element.

The second further area of difficulty related to the wide variability of titling around specific structural and functional areas. A sample issue was whether a section titled *Options Analysis* should be categorised with one titled *Possible Solutions*. While the titles might suggest similar content, certainty with regard to such a co-classification would only be achievable through detailed analysis of content based on a wider range of samples than was available in this corpus. In practice therefore, this issue of synonymy of titles was dealt with on a case-by-case basis, with similarity of titles and, where considered valuable, qualitative interpretation, being used to resolve these categorisation problems.

5.3.4 Content analysis

Supporting stage 5 of the analytical process, qualitative interpretative analysis of functional content was required for identification of rhetorical moves within the overall reports including within the targeted options and alternatives elements analysed in detail in chapter 6, as well as for confirmation of structural designations and content mismatch identification. Where

possible, practical judgements with regard to qualitative interpretation of text were confirmed by consultation with either relevant literature sources or with linguistics professionals.

5.3.5 Style and form-based analysis

Case reports were examined for a number of core stylistic and lower level linguistic features, including extent and nature of citation, frequency of lexical items, grammatical features such as voice, verb form, nominalisation, ellipsis, use of personal pronouns, as well as elements relating to formatting and presentation, such as listing devices, diagrams, symbols, figures and tables. These features were considered of particular interest in terms of report characterisation and in relation to comparator academic texts such as case reports from other disciplines and essay texts.

Where considered practical and of value, item counts were made with regard to specific linguistic features. With regard to individual item frequencies, text files were generated and frequencies determined using Wordsmith Tools version 3.0 (Scott, 1996). Frequencies of items in different corpus categories were compared using the log likelihood statistic (G^2) mediated through either the keywords comparator tool in Wordsmith 3.0 or a web-based log likelihood calculator (available at http://ucrel.lancs.ac.uk/llwizard.html). The Wordsmith keywords function was also used to identify items occurring at significantly different frequencies between corpus categories, as well as for report comparison with the ESM-1 essay corpus. For comparative analysis, in order to both facilitate selectivity and identify those items occurring at significantly different frequencies, the keywords data function was applied at varying significance levels from $p < 0.00001$ (the default setting on Wordsmith 3.0) to $p < 0.01$.

Non-parametric Mann-Whitney tests, as well as t-tests and factorial ANOVA where appropriate, were conducted to confirm log likelihood based assertions of significant difference, since, while log likelihood calculations were considered useful in terms of identifying statistically significant differences between corpora, this statistical function does not take account of distribution of items between individual corpus texts, nor does it weigh contributions of text components in relation to their size within that corpus. Such unbalanced contributions within corpora and sub-corpora analysed were considered capable of contributing towards unjustified assertion of significant differences, an effect which might be exacerbated in a small corpus such as that under investigation in this research.

In many cases, eyeballing of data plots and Levene test analysis indicated data distributions by text within corpora and sub-corpora were non-normal requiring Mann-Whitney analysis of comparative distributions. Where normal distribution applied, t-tests were conducted. For summative comparisons in which sub-corpora frequency data were combined and normal distribution applied, factorial ANOVA (two-way) was used to identify significant differences and interaction effects[20]. Mann-Whitney, t-test and factorial ANOVA calculations were implemented using the SPSS 14.0 program. Significant difference was taken at the generally accepted level within the field of linguistics, at $p < 0.05$.

5.4. Findings

5.4.1 Analysis of case report tasks

Analysis of tasks provides insights into text communicative purposes as well as serving to anticipate possible text structure and content. As shown in table 1 above, BCR-1 corpus case reports were generated in response to three different tasks. Two of the tasks, accounting for 50

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[20] Factorial ANOVA could not be applied to most item comparisons as this test assumes normal distributions which, based on Levene's test, in most cases were not present. No non-parametric alternative to factorial ANOVA is available.

of the 53 business case texts, are shown in appendix B. Task information explicitly mentioned the requirement for a *report,* evidencing the existence of texts categorisable as business case reports. Information relating to the third case task (PepCid) was not available, though analysis of the three Pepcid case reports identified the case task as focusing on the development of a pharmaceutical product launch strategy in a competitive market environment.

The main Baxter marketing management continuous assessment task accounts for 28 report texts and is based on the Baxter A case (Vendermerwe & Taishoff, 1997). The report task centres around the development of a strategy through which Baxter Renal Division can win back share in the renal market, having previously suffered a series of business setbacks.

The examination task (accounting for 25 report texts) is based in the Darling Chocolate case (Starov *et al.,* 1998) and focuses on the provision of advice and development of a marketing strategy for the case company, Darling Chocolate, on entry into a new market, In this seen examination, students received the case materials but not the task, several weeks before the examination itself.

Notably, in the examination task there is an overtly stated requirement for student writers to act in the guise of a consultant preparing a report for consultancy partners, whereas the Baxter continuous assessment task requires no explicit writer role. The framing of the examination case task would seem to allow for slightly different interpretations of task audience, either formulation of a draft report to the case company, (to be later transmitted to the case company), or as a document advising the consultancy partners on what advice should be offered to the case company. Issues of author roles and report purpose are discussed further in sections 5.4.8.10 and 5.5 of the current chapter.

A further notable feature is the contrasting tone of the task rubrics. While the Baxter marketing management task has a serious, business-like tone, the Darling Chocolate task provides caricature names for the consultancy company and consultant. Such a light tone may be intended to signify to students that, given the examination conditions and the educational context, a 'real' workplace business report is not required and cannot be delivered. However other rationales might be provided for such an approach, for example relaxing students by 'lightening' the atmosphere of a fraught examination.

Whereas the examination task provides a clear statement of what is expected of students as a framework for the required marketing strategy, namely use of the 3 Ps, product, price and promotion, as well as distribution channels, and in terms of the requirement to consider strategic options, no such outline is provided with regard to the continuous assessment task. Nevertheless course documents provided, relating to case preparation, suggested a structural framework incorporating: (1) SWOT analysis (2) target market analysis (3) problem definition (4) options analysis (5) recommendation[21].

Despite the suggested structure, it was clear from preliminary analysis that Baxter continuous assessment reports incorporated a range of additional structural elements, such as introductions and executive summaries. Further, elements of the suggested structure were sometimes omitted from student samples. There were also many additional variations on the suggested structure, involving for example the combination of component elements (for example the already mentioned options and recommendations components) and the subsuming of specific elements within broader analytical tools, exemplified by incorporation

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[21] The particular documents supplied were dated more than two years subsequent to the Baxter task submission with document text relating to an International Marketing module encountered later in the course programme.

of target market analysis within the STP (segmentation, targeting, positioning) tool. This level of variation was considered to support detailed analysis of the marketing management continuous assessment report structure.

5.4.2 Departmental advice relating to case report writing

Business school documentation was obtained relating to programme structure and course content. However the sole documentation obtained relating specifically to case report writing at the business school research site, comprised the structural advice relating to the continuous assessment report structure as described above (p.88).

5.4.3 Case report assessment criteria

Generic assessment scales were applied to both of the main case tasks, with specific criteria, as determined from lecturer written assessment summaries and interview comments, relating to quality of recommendations, analysis, argument, presentation and report structure.

5.4.4 Contextual analysis

The business case reports in this study were generated within the context of a large and leading UK business school. Postgraduates at this business school follow a range of programmes including MBA, MSc and MA courses based in specialisms including accounting and finance, marketing and human resource management. Students on the MSc marketing programme, within which the case reports were generated, took a range of course modules focusing on marketing, but also dealing with related business subjects.

A feature of the MSc Marketing programme and the business school was the high levels of international students on the programme, as evidenced by the high number of NNS report samples (58% of the corpus), with most of these NNS students, as stated in section 5.2, originating from East Asia, in particular the People's Republic of China.

The business school had set an English language entry requirement for NNS students at an IELTS equivalent of 6.5. In order to achieve this level, some of the students on the marketing programme may have attended a non-business pre-sessional English language programme, incorporating a focus on developing academic writing skills[22]. Students may also have had access to some in-sessional English language support classes, however, no information was identifiable regarding the existence, extent and nature of English language support received.

The case method was a significant feature of the teaching approach on the marketing programme, as evidenced in discussions with the programme leader and by the incorporation of case report tasks for assessment. The Harvard method (see p.8) was not used, and while cases were discussed in class, this discussion was described by a lecturer informant as less confrontational than the typical US Harvard approach.

5.4.5 Communicative purpose

Adopting elements of the Askehave and Swales (2001) genre analysis approach described in chapter 3, requires an initial hypothesising of the communicative purpose of the genre. Despite the stated requirement in the examination task for learners to adopt a consultancy role, considering the research and arguments of Freedman *et al.,* case reports texts are seen as epistemic, being involved in supporting knowledge generation and development (Freedman *et al.,* 1994) and also providing a locus for demonstration of knowledge. Core communicative purposes are seen as concerned with persuasion with regard to learner competence, the key audience being the lecturer(s), rather than a hypothetical business audience.

Taking into account the definition of communicative purpose presented in chapter 3 of this thesis, focusing on the intended effect of the report on the reader, the educational context and

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[22] No specialised business pre-sessional existed in the years when these NNS students entered their marketing programme

the epistemic nature of the case report texts, as well as the operational definition of business case reports as well as the assessment criteria identified relating to the writing of these case reports, it is proposed as an initial hypothesis that the communicative purposes of the case reports analysed in this study should be taken, in broad terms, as being those of persuasion of the lecturer reader that the writer has knowledge of, understands and can apply core marketing or marketing management related concepts as taught during course programmes, and can analyse marketing and marketing management related situations generating appropriate, logically justified and effective advice for action presented in an appropriate academic business style and format. These purposes in themselves may be realisations of the broader communicative purpose of persuading the lecturer of a learner's potential for competence at an appropriate level within the relevant specialist field.

Following analysis and characterisation of the case reports, the communicative purpose of the case reports is considered in further detail in the discussion section of this chapter.

5.4.6 Report lengths

The text length for the Baxter marketing management continuous assessment reports was set at 3,000 words, and these texts, with some exceptions, approximated to this length, as shown by token counts using Wordsmith tools.   Marketing examination case reports were noticeably shorter, averaging 1582 words in length, however, NNS examination texts were nearly 20% shorter than NS texts, averaging 1481 words as against 1,817 words for NS texts. Whereas 50% of NS examination samples contained more than 2000 words, only a single NNS sample (6%) breached this level.   It seems reasonable to consider this difference in lengths to be attributable to the linguistic challenges faced by NNS writers rather than cognitive task challenges, however additional research would be required to confirm this explanation.

5.4.7 Rhetorical move analysis and structural element categorisation

Determination of rhetorical move structure required initial identification of case report structural elements. Analysis of the corpus case reports identified a range of explicitly titled as well as untitled structural element components, with variation in frequency and occurrence between the marketing management continuous assessment and marketing examination case reports (figure 9, page 93). Structural elements identified as occurring in both sub-corpus text categories included executive summaries, introductions, the SWOT analytical component, STP, options analysis and recommendations sections. However, marketing management continuous assessment texts contained problem definition sections and appendices and references which were not present in marketing examination texts, while the marketing examination texts contained a range of sections not found in the marketing management texts, namely assumptions, Porter's five forces, PEST, competitor analysis, marketing mix (4Ps), monitoring and control, evaluation and implementation.

A market entry mode structural element was identified in a number of examination samples. For reasons described in section 5.4.7.7 below, these elements are not included in the analysis of structural elements and were not permitted to influence the broad rhetorical move structure proposed in this section .

Having identified the structural elements present in the marketing management continuous assessment reports and the marketing examination reports, these structural elements were analysed in order to generate broader rhetorical moves as described in section 5.3.2. .

This analysis identified the presence of six broad rhetorical moves incorporating varying structural elements (figure 9). Three of these moves, the orientation, situation analysis and advisory moves were found in all case report samples and were designated as obligatory.

Figure 9. Broad rhetorical moves and structural elements in business case report categories[23]

Rhetorical move designation	Major structural category components	
	Marketing examination case reports	**Marketing management continuous assessment case reports**
Move 1 Orientation	Titles and title page Transmission element Executive summary Introduction Objectives Assumptions	Titles and title page Executive summary Contents Introduction Objectives
Move 2. Situation Analysis	SWOT Porter's five forces PEST Competitor Analysis	Target Market Analysis/STP SWOT Problem definition
Move 3. Options and alternatives	Options analysis	Options analysis
Move 4. Advisory	STP Marketing mix (4Ps) / Marketing strategy Implementation Monitoring and Control Evaluation Recommendations	STP Recommendations
Move 5. Summary and consolidation	Conclusions	Conclusions
Move 6. Supplementary supporting information	xxxxxxx	Appendices References/Bibliography

Other moves were designated as optional, with the options and alternatives move occurring in 47% of reports overall, but in only 12% of marketing examination reports; the summary and consolidation move found in 30% of reports, with similar distribution between marketing examination and marketing management reports (though much more frequent in NNS texts); and supplementary information moves only occurring in marketing management continuous assessment reports (at a frequency of 21% in this category).

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[23] As stated in section 5.3.2, a 10% frequency of occurrence within a sub-corpus category was required for designation of a structural element as an accepted rhetorical move realisation.

Notably the STP (segmentation, targeting, positioning) category of structural element, largely represented by the target market analysis element in marketing management case reports, was identified as realising both situation analysis and advisory moves in the marketing management continuous assessment reports, dependent on the particular report analysed. In the examination case reports, STP structural elements in all reports supported an advisory function.

While individual structural elements were designated as expressing a single rhetorical function overall, component clauses, and in some cases larger text components, could express different rhetorical functions within that overall broad rhetorical context. For example, recommendations elements within the advisory move in some cases contained consideration of options for implementation; other advisory elements contained content related to situation analysis. The allocation of structural elements to rhetorical moves is based however on what is judged as the core rhetorical function of the structural element.

Sections with combined functional titles, such as the options and recommendations sections found in samples C2I and C2H, were seen as straddling more than one rhetorical move. Such sections are considered to comprise separate and distinct moves, and are included within counts for both component rhetorical functions.

A further issue arose with regard to the allocation of problem definition elements to the analytical category. Such problem definition might be viewed as a separate move within the generic structure, however on the grounds that identifying and describing a problem would seem to involve analytical processes, and the fact that the majority of problem identification elements in the samples (though not all), were closely connected in terms of content and

location to previous analytical components such as SWOT, it was considered on balance that this structural element should comprise part of the analytical move.

The rationale for the designation of individual broad moves and descriptions of their component structural elements are now discussed in more detail. Moves and structural components within moves are presented, as far as possible, in order of occurrence in the reports. Tabulated breakdowns of structural element categories including frequencies, broken down by speaker-type and specialism-assessment and task context, including details of text titles, are provided in appendix C.

5.4.7.1 Orientation move

This move provides orientation of the lecturer reader to the content, structure, process and context of the report, as well as underpinning strategy development. Through this orientation the writer provides an initial representation to the lecturer of their understanding of core relevant concepts and the roles and interrelationships of these concepts within strategy development.

Titles and title pages

With minor exception, all marketing management continuous assessment samples possessed separate title pages containing the report title, student anonymous code, and word length, with some writers including the name of the lecturer responsible for setting the assignment. In marketing examination samples, all answer booklets contained a front sheet including anonymous codes, number(s) of each exam question answered, module and examination paper title and date of the examination. Many report answers extended over more than one answer booklet with information duplicated on the different front sheets. Task titles were not generally included at the beginning of examination reports, though task numbers were given.

Transmission structural elements

Transmission structural elements were found in 13% of case reports, but only in NNS texts and in only a single continuous assessment text (appendix C, table 1). Transmission elements were located at the beginning of case reports, prior to contents pages, executive summaries and introductions, and most frequently comprised a fax header (figure 10), in some instances accompanied by a very brief description of the report content.

Figure 10. Sample transmission text (sample E2D)

_____

From : John Peabody GrumpFuttock. marketing consultant

To :   Fiddler and Smart , Senior Partners

Date : 10, Jan, 2002

Title : Recommend marketing strategy for the development of Darling Chocolate

_____

The absence of transmission elements in the 22 NS samples combined with the relatively low level of occurrence in NNS texts (23%), suggests that the transmission element, is not a necessary requirement for task and communicative purpose fulfilment.

Given the main hypothesised communicative purpose of these case reports as stated in section 5.4.5, together with the assertion that the reports are educational and epistemic in purpose, and therefore not to be seen as full simulations of workplace reports, the inclusion of such transmission elements appears largely superfluous, representing inefficient time and word usage within assessment tasks. The NS-NNS difference in deployment, in particular in marketing examination reports where an explicit consultancy role is specified, suggests a possibility of different perceptions of this roleplay between NS and some NNS writers

Contents structural elements

Contents elements enable initial reader orientation, providing demonstration of logical and clear report structure, the presence of required text content, as well as knowledge of text convention[24]. However, contents elements were clearly optional, being found in 39% of continuous assessment cases but only 8% of examination cases (appendix C, table 2). In a time-limited examination it would seem inefficient practice to generate a contents element, especially given the probable absence of time for later revision in the light of actual text generated. Notably, more NNS continuous assessment samples contained contents sections (57%) than NS samples (21%), which may indicate NNS adoption of a more formal report model[25] or different perceptions of the necessity for these elements, given document length.

In marketing management continuous assessment texts, where present, contents elements always appeared on a separate page, with page numbers generally provided for different sections and sub-sections. In the two examination case reports where contents elements were identified, no page numbers were given, with one contents element untitled and the other labelled *index*.

Executive summary structural elements

Executive summaries occurred early in case reports following report titles but prior to contents elements where these occurred. Executive summaries were all explicitly titled, occurring in 45% of samples overall, 16 out of 28 marketing management continuous assessment samples (57%) but only 8 out of 25 marketing examination samples (32%:

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[24] Case reports in this study are considered generally too small (continuous assessment reports ranged from 6 to 23 pages including appendices) to require contents elements having a main purpose or key role of facilitating reader selection of text components for specific attention, as might be the case in a textbook or other extensive document.

[25] In Yeung's (2007) study of workplace business reports, no reference is made to either transmission or contents elements. The former may be viewed as external to the actual report text.

appendix C, table 3) with no noteworthy frequency difference discernible between NS and NNS reports.

While executive summaries in almost all cases occurred at the beginnings of reports, two such summaries (samples C1D, C1E) were positioned at the ends of reports in which the first section was titled 'abstract', this title being more characteristic of summaries in research-based academic texts. These abstracts were classified within the executive summary category.

Initial qualitative analysis of the executive summary texts suggested that a number of these texts did not contain content and features that would normally be considered as those of executive summaries. These particular executive summary texts appeared to be more characteristic of introduction sections.

In order to investigate this observation, relevant literature was sought and some additional research conducted. Published and peer-reviewed research in the linguistics literature relating to executive summaries and their content and structure could not be identified. However, using information from two business communication books (Kupsh, 1996; Thill & Bovee, 1998), but mainly a review conducted of university writing advice websites, together with the researcher's own linguistic analysis of executive summaries in a sample business journal[26], core common content areas of 'standard' executive summaries were identified as being statements of purpose, key findings, and recommendations or conclusions. In some executive summaries, content areas might also include methodology, problem definition and the provision of some background information. Beyond these content area characteristics, according to a number of sources consulted, the executive summary was stated as needing to

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[26] The Journal of European Finance

be a self-contained, complete text summarising a report, comprehensible independently of the report itself.

Based on the core content areas identified (table 2), positions of text in the overall report, and the notion of independence, none of the NS executive summary samples found in continuous assessment samples could be considered 'true' executive summaries. Problematic areas with these NS executive summary samples were the absence of specific recommendations (in all but 1 sample) and the use of prospective *will* or *shall* in reference to description of report content, breaching the requirement for the independence of the executive summary, these modals expressing the expectation that the reader will proceed to or is in the process of reading the report text. However seven of these eight NS texts possessed some characteristics of executive summaries and were considered as hybrid executive summary-introduction structures.

Table 2. Key content areas identified in titled case report executive summaries

Content Area	NS. no. of texts (10)	% NS. executive summaries	NNS. no. of texts (14)	%NNS executive summaries	Total no. of texts (24)	% tot. executive summary samples
Purpose/Aims	1	10	4 (2)	29	5	21
Recommendations	2 (1)	20	10 (2)	71	12	50
Background (including problem description)	5 (1)	50	9 (3)	64	14	58
Methodology/Approach	4	40	4 (2)	29	8	33
Report content overview	7 (2)	70	7 (4)	50	8	63
Options	0	0	1	7	1	4

The bracketed figure is the number of examination texts containing the relevant content area

Interestingly, in contrast to NS texts, taking the same classificatory criteria, six of the eight NNS continuous assessment texts were judged to be true executive summaries with only two considered to be hybrid structures.

With respect to examination case reports, only two could be identified as true executive summaries (1 NS and 1 NNS), with only one of the other six examination executive summary samples containing recommendations. Three of these texts were judged to be 'introductions', two as hybrid texts and one sample as 'unclassifiable' on the grounds of content diversity, and difficulties in interpreting content.

Having identified the relevant content areas of the true executive summaries, it is proposed that case report executive summaries provide orientation to the report process, content, context and recommendations of the case report, as well as, through the fact of their deployment and content, demonstrating knowledge of report structural convention.

Focusing more detailed analysis on the 'true' executive summaries showed that the average length of these texts in continuous assessment samples (all NNS) was 297 words with texts ranging from 131 to 648 words. The predominant verb forms were present simple (50% of verb forms used), and modal verbs (36%). Active verb forms constituted 81% of all verb forms. Notably frequent sentence subjects referred, in various forms, to the company, the study and the report.

Introduction structural elements

The introduction category of structural elements incorporates text elements introducing the whole case report, excluding introductory texts within other structural report components. Text structures belonging to this introduction category were found in both continuous assessment and examination report texts (appendix C, table 4)[27].

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[27] Writers also produced structural elements titled 'Preface'[27] (sample C2D) and 'Background' (sample C2J), which are included within this introductions category on the basis of overlapping content areas and degree of synonymy. Bhatia (2004:68) describes prefaces as book sections, the purpose of which is to outline the general purpose of the book, often indicating steps leading to the preparation of the book.

Introductions category elements were frequent in the continuous assessment case studies (75%) and less common in the examination cases (40%). This lower level is attributed to time pressure in examinations, heightening the urgency for the writer to deal with priority persuasion-related communicative purposes, especially given the provision of core orientation information in task and case materials. NNS continuous assessment texts contained a higher proportion of introduction category elements (86% of texts) compared to NS equivalents (64%).

Content areas identified in the titled introduction elements, used for the identification of untitled introductions, are shown in table 3. These content areas can be seen as generally supporting the report communicative purposes, for example through orientation to the structure, goals and content of the report thereby providing the lecturer with an overview of learner knowledge, understanding and capacity for appropriate argument and logic.

While some text structures entitled executive summary were classified as introduction or hybrid introduction-executive summary texts, few introductions could be considered to be executive summaries. Not only were summaries of recommendations generally absent, but 13 of the 18 introduction titled structural elements contained prospective *will* in reference to report content or approach, indicating that they were not complete, independent texts as would be required for an executive summary. Only five of the texts containing titled introductions also possessed a titled executive summary, possibly reflecting uncertainty about the rhetorical distinctions between these two elements.

Combining analysis of NS and NNS titled samples, introduction sections averaged 162 words in length with no noticeable NS-NNS difference. Active voice predominated over passive

Table 3. Content areas identified in titled case report introductions

Content Area	NS. (no. of texts) (total = 6)	% NS. introductions	NNS. (no. of texts) (total = 12)	% NNS introductions	Total (no. of texts) (total = 18)	% total introduction texts
Company/market background	5	83	4	33	9	50
Stating relevant business principles	1	17	1	9	2	11
Overview of report structure/content/approach	6 (1)	100	10(1)	83	16	88
Summary of options/ recommendations	2	33	1(1)	9	3	17
Affirmation statement[28]	1	17	1	9	2	11
Report purpose statement	2(1)	33	6(1)	50	8	44
Urgency statement	0	0	1	9	1	6
Question raising	0	0	1	9	1	6

The bracketed figure is the number of examination texts containing the relevant content area.

voice, occurring at approximately 80% active to 20% passive forms. The most frequent verb form was, as in the executive summaries, the present simple form (40% of NNS verb forms: 28% NS verb forms) however, also noticeably frequent were past simple forms (10% NNS, 19% NS) associated with the provision of background information, and the modal *will* (19% of NNS verb forms, 18% NS) associated with the overview of report content, structure and approach. Similar to executive summaries, frequent sentence subjects referred, in various forms, to the company involved in the case and the report, however, notably, six NNS samples contained examples of first person pronouns *I* and *we* as sentence subjects (10.4 occurrences per 1,000 words). Only two personal pronouns as subject (1.7 occurrences per 1,000 words) were identified in NS samples (sample E1B). Use of personal pronouns is discussed further with regard to the case reports as a whole in section 5.4.8.10 of this chapter.

Objectives elements

Objective elements are concerned with the objectives of the company strategy, rather than the objectives or purposes of the case report found in introductions. Objective elements provide a foundation for strategy development, thereby providing orientation to the reader. While on some occasions located between introduction and analytical elements, objectives elements

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[28] Affirmation statements explicitly commend the solutions or approach put forward in the report.

were also sometimes located close to the advisory move, in particular marketing strategy (4Ps) structural elements. Nevertheless, due to the clear orientation function, objective elements are classified as part of the orientation move.

Through setting realistic objectives and through the necessity of relating strategy to objectives, the objectives elements provide a further site through which the lecturer reader can evaluate the capacities of the student in terms of logic and argument within a business context.

Objective structural elements were optional, occurring in 43% of samples, almost exclusively in the marketing examination case reports (in 80% of these reports) with slightly higher frequency in NNS texts (appendix C, table 5). These elements tended to be short, averaging 55 words in examination samples, with one titled section comprising a single sentence. The higher occurrence level in marketing examination tasks is considered most likely to lie in specialism-based conventions for marketing plan reports.

In business terms, objectives largely focused on increasing market share and brand awareness. These objectives were usually expressed following minimal 'lead in' text, through the use of 'to' often in elided bulleted or numbered lists, linked to verbs including *achieve*, *build-up*, *break-even*, *increase*, *identify*. In exceptional cases, the modal *would* was used, as in for example.. '*the marketing objective would be ....*' (sample E2G).

Assumptions structural elements

Where present, assumptions elements serve to underpin the strategies proposed in the case report, establishing a firmer orientation to, and basis for the overall argument presented within the report, and providing potentially key information for the lecturer reader with regard to

evaluation of the logic and argument within the text, as well as demonstrating the understanding of important parameters affecting strategy development.

Segments of text explicitly titled assumptions were only found in marketing examination case reports (24% of these reports, appendix C, table 6). An additional three untitled assumptions segments were identified in NNS marketing examination cases, making a total examinations samples occurrence of 36%. As with objectives elements, the level of assumptions elements in the marketing examination reports is considered as related to the specialism-based nature of marketing reports, however, this may also be related to the unstable case situation (subject to currency rate changes, political changes) in which assumptions may need to be stated, as in figure 11, in order to justify the strategy.

Figure 11. Sample assumptions section (sample E1F)

Assumptions

The proposed strategies will be based on certain assumptions, as dynamic environmental conditions and unpredictable competitor actions render strategy formulation an imperfect art.

(1) Government stability will remain. No extra customs tariffs will be enforced.

(2) Inflation stays at a similar rate which influences spending patterns.

(3) Domestic competitors continue to follow a differentiation strategy, emphasising their brand image.

Assumptions structural elements averaged 36 words, ranging from 13 to 63 words, and were somewhat variable in position, generally occurring in the earlier stages of reports, and always prior to discussion and presentation of marketing strategy. Numbered lists of component assumptions were prominent.

Assumptions in all cases referred to underlying strategy formulation, incorporating both internal company and external business environmental factors, notably the availability of sufficient funds to implement marketing strategies and stability of exchange rates and government. Notable in terms of linguistic features was occurrence of the modal *will* at a frequency of 30 occurrences per thousand words[29].

5.4.7.2 Situation analysis move

Analysis of the business situation in the case is one of the key foci of case teaching and learning with the effectiveness of analysis comprising a central parameter for assessment and representing a key route to achievement of report communicative purpose.

This analysis may require students to identify, for example, key problems facing a company, and key factors impinging on company performance. The analytical move provides an important locus for student writers to demonstrate their knowledge and understanding of analytical tools and their capacity for analysis, both through selection of the appropriate tools[30] and effective application of these tools within the case context. The situation analytical move further presents information and in some cases incorporates conclusions or advisory comments based in the analysis, which underpin the decisions made in the advisory move.

A number of different analytical business tools were applied in the case report assignments, focusing on both the internal company environment and the external business environment. Explicit titles relating to internal and external analysis were identified in 13% of samples. In 21% of reports, these analytical tools occurred within the framework of sections titled

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[29] Text levels overall were low (less than 500 words) however use of *will* was observed across a number of assumptions text samples.

[30] The term 'tool' emphasises the identity of entities such as SWOT, PEST and other report components as practical analytical business focused frameworks rather than their identity as simply structural text-based components of the case report.

environmental scanning, situation analysis, industry overview or variants of these titles (appendix C, table 7).

Individual analytical tools applied within these different categories were identified under more than one of these headings. All situation analysis titled structural elements, with the exception of a single NS continuous assessment sample (sample C1G), included the SWOT analytical tool with two of seven incorporating PEST analysis. One situation analysis element incorporated the Porter's five forces analysis tool. Structural elements with the title industry analysis or industry overview, all included Porter's five forces analysis, but not SWOT, while both industry overview samples incorporated the PEST analysis tool.

SWOT structural elements

SWOT is a tool, widely used both in the workplace and within business education programmes, for analysis of the internal and external business environment. As stated in section 5.3.3, use of this tool involves analysis of company strengths and weaknesses (internal situation audit), and analysis of environmental opportunities and threats (external situation audit).

SWOT sections were divided into component parts (S,W,O,T) with italicised, capitalised or emboldened titles signalled through bulleted, numbered, or alphabetised lists. In a number of SWOT sections there were further content-related bulleted or numbered points within each component part, consisting of from a few words up to a paragraph in length.

Considering the data from all of the pedagogical case reports, SWOT category elements were the most frequently used analytical components, being found in 75% of reports (appendix C,

table 8). In most SWOT texts, all SWOT component elements were present (38/40 SWOT category texts), however in two samples, only two elements were present (SW or OT).

No notable differences in the frequency of SWOT category usage could be identified between NS and NNS samples. SWOT structural elements were clearly more frequent in the continuous assessment case reports (100% of samples) compared to the examination reports (52%). This variability would seem to be task and specialism related, the marketing management continuous assessment task being predicated on difficulties internal and external to the company, with the examination marketing strategy case requiring development of a marketing plan in a new market, with no identifiable internal company problems and therefore weaknesses required for resolution, with opportunity embedded in the task. In line with the hypothesised communicative purposes of case reports, the selection of the appropriate analytical tools serves as a means for the writer to demonstrate their business relevant knowledge and skills.

SWOT sections averaged 627 words in marketing management continuous assessment samples with NS reports tending to have greater length than NNS reports.   Examination SWOT sections were on average substantially shorter (127 words). There were also differences in length between the different component SWOT elements in the continuous assessment samples, with the largest components being strengths and weaknesses.

Verb form frequencies varied between the different SWOT components in NS continuous assessment reports (table 4). Present simple and past simple forms were most frequent in strengths, weaknesses and threats components, while present simple and modal verb forms were most common in opportunities elements.

Table 4. Verb form distribution within SWOT structural elements in NS marketing management continuous assessment case reports

% total verb form occurrences	Strengths	Weaknesses	Opportunities	Threats
Pres.simple	54	41	43	44
All modals[1]	8	12	43	14
can	(3)	(6)	(9)	(3)
could	(0)	(2)	(9)	(2)
would	(2)	(1)	(8)	(2)
will	(1)	(1)	(10)	(3)
must	(2)	(0)	(3)	(1)
should	(0)	(1)	(2)	(1)
have to	(0)	(0)	(2)	(1)
may	(0)	(1)	(0)	(1)
Pres perf. simple	8	12	3	10
Past simple	25	28	6	18
Past perf Simple	3	5	1	5
Pres.continuous	1	1	3	8

[1] *have to*, though a semi modal, is included in these counts due to its modal meaning and report prevalence.

In the NNS continuous assessment samples, past simple forms were generally more prominent than in NS samples, occurring at similar levels to present simple forms in all NNS SWOT components.

Strengths and weaknesses elements tended to focus on generalisations about company performance, often including reference to current status, past failure or success:

> *- No coordination of effort – too focused on selling and budgets react to changes in the market. Many people in the division had ideas but not pulled into a cohesive strategy.*
>
> (sample C1E: weaknesses)

> *Baxter is the market leader with new product innovations, for example the CAPD and APD.*
>
> (sample C1A: strengths)

The presence of high levels of modal verbs in opportunities sections is related to the description of possible options for action and anticipated futures:

> *Although the company is already educating doctors, nurses and existing patients, they could also target people in the "at risk" categories.*
>
> (sample C1C: opportunities)

8) More stringent drink-driving laws means fewer road accidents and therefore less donor organs available. The number of kidney transplants will consequently decrease and patients will stay on PD or HD treatments for longer.

<div align="right">(sample C1K: opportunities)</div>

In threats elements, modal verbs, though present at higher frequencies compared to occurrences in strengths and weaknesses components, were found at lower than anticipated levels given that these elements might be expected to focus on possible future threats. Instead threats texts had a strong focus on description of threats through reference to past events, current trends and general statements of fact, as in the following samples:

d. Declining PD penetration in the UK

Between 1994-1996 there was a 6.5% decrease in the percentage of PD penetration in the UK. The declining utilisation of PD as a treatment is due to the fact that hemodialysis (HD) treatment is cheaper. Although UK take-on and treatment rates are increasing, the rate of increase is falling dramatically.

<div align="right">(sample C1A: threats)</div>

1) Baxter continues to loose more contracts on price.

<div align="right">(sample C1K: threats)</div>

Porter's five forces structural elements

Porter's five forces (Porter, 1980 cited in Johnson & Scholes, 2002) is a tool for analysis of the competitive elements of the business environment, incorporating analysis of the threat of new entrants, competitor rivalry, bargaining power of suppliers, threat of substitutes, and bargaining power of customers. As with other analytical tools, the deployment of this tool provides a demonstration to the lecturer of knowledge of the relevant analytical tool, enabling demonstration of tool application.

Porter's five forces structural elements containing all of the stated components were identified in both continuous assessment (7% of samples, both from the Pepcid case) and examination

samples (36%) (appendix C, table 9). This differential frequency is interpreted as stemming from the external environment focus of the marketing examination case. The use of the Porter's tool for analysis of the external business environment in the small number of Pepcid continuous assessment cases, where competitors are of key importance, but not the Baxter continuous assessment case, where competitors appears less of a factor, is taken as further evidence for the task-specific deployment of this tool. No notable frequency differences were identified between NS and NNS Porter's deployment.

Porter's structural elements varied substantially in length and format. Two samples were more than 500 hundred words in length (samples E1F, E1C) whereas in other samples (E1B, CP1A) Porter's diagrams of the form shown below were identified:

Figure 12. Sample Porter's five forces diagram (sample E1B)

New Entrants
- Darling Chocolate must overcome barriers to entry including
: strong presence of existing competitors, economics of scale & high initial financial outlay

Suppliers Bargaining

Power

- quite low
- fluctuating
  supply of cocoa beans

Competitive arena
- well-established local companies
- proliferation of foreign rivals

Buyer bargaining Power
- High and rising
- saturated market
- high choice

Substitutes
- candies, sweets
- gifts around holiday periods
  & Mother's Day

In samples where there was significant text, modal verbs, in particular *will* were prominent, with present simple verb forms also frequent.

PEST structural elements

PEST (political, economic, social and technological) is a further tool for analysis of the

business environment (Johnson & Scholes, 2002). This tool, on some occasions presented within the context of environmental or external analysis, focuses on broad aspects of the business environment, not covered explicitly by other analytical tools. Where the PEST tool was deployed, with a single exception, all components of the tool were present in the text as sub-components within the overall PEST analysis.

No PEST structural elements were observed in marketing management continuous assessment reports, while PEST sections were found in seven of the examination reports (28%) with no noteworthy difference determinable between NS and NNS samples (appendix C, table 10). As with Porter's five forces, it seems reasonable to consider that deployment of this tool is task-dependent, based in the external environment focus of the task, although specialism dependence cannot be ruled out. Broader PEST factors would seem highly relevant to the examination case expansion into a new and unstable foreign market, and less relevant to the context of the more stable UK environment of the Baxter marketing management continuous assessment case.

PEST elements ranged in length from 29 to 288 words, with PEST sub-sections frequently containing bulleted lists of points with several verbless sentences identified. The most frequent verb forms were present simple with some modal verbs observed.

Competitor analysis structural elements

While analysis of the competitive environment is fundamental to Porter's five forces analysis, a number of reports (15%) contained titled structural elements, serving similar communicative purpose, but aside from Porter's analysis, relating more explicitly to competitor company analysis (appendix C, table 11). Two samples, C1F, C1E contained both Porter's and competitor analysis sections. Competitor analysis elements were substantially more frequent

in marketing examination case reports (25%) compared to marketing management continuous assessment reports (7%) with no notable differences between NS and NNS sample frequencies discernible.

Texts varied in length from 73 to 399 words with an average length of 125 words. In 5 of the 8 samples, consideration of each different competitor company, provided the basis for sub-division within these sections. Broad comments relating to the overall competitive situation were also identified in several samples.

Verb forms were generally mixed, with present simple forms predominant, however in the lengthiest text (sample CP1A) past simple forms were most frequent. As in other structural report elements, active voice comprised a significant majority of verb forms.

Target market analysis/STP structural elements

In 52% of Baxter marketing management continuous assessment texts where target market and STP structural elements were identified, these components were considered to focus largely on identifying and analysing the case company's current segmentation, target market or positioning strategy (appendix C, table 12). In marketing examination samples, STP elements, in 95% of uses, were judged as supporting the broad advisory rhetorical move (discussed below).

Through the process of analysis using these STP components, learners provide evidence both of their knowledge of the STP tool and its application, demonstrate analytical capacities and, through identification of market segments and potential target markets, lay the basis for proposed marketing strategies in the advisory move. However it was not uncommon, even in these generally current situation focused text elements, to find advisory comment relating to

preferred target markets and positioning strategy based in the analysis, indicating in these cases, a multi-functional STP identity.

No identifiable difference in frequency of deployment of the analytical STP components was found between NS and NNS writers. These target market and STP structural elements in marketing management continuous assessment case report comprised on average 210 words[31]. Verb forms were variable with present simple verb forms predominating, but noticeable levels of modal verbs, in particular *can*.

Problem definition structural elements

In cases based on problem situations, precise definition of key problems is clearly important in convincing the lecturer reader of the learner's relevant analytical skills and in underpinning logical argument leading to appropriate advice. However, while the Baxter case was problem based, the Darling Chocolate examination case, based around strategy development in a new market, was not grounded in a problem situation. Reflecting this, problem identification segments were found only in the Baxter marketing management continuous assessment samples (71% of these reports, appendix C, table 13). No notable difference was found in terms of frequency of these structural elements between NS and NNS reports.

Interestingly, a number of NS and NNS writers did not restrict their problem discussion simply to defining the problem but suggested broad routes to problem solution or characterised the solution of the problem as a challenge.

All problem definition category texts were in the range 50-300 words, with the exception of a single 975 word NS sample. Considering solely samples within the 50-300 word length

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[31] This average figure excludes sample C1L considered as an outlier, in which STP formed the basic framework for the whole report constituting more than 2000 of the 3000 words written.

range, verb forms were diverse, though present simple forms were prominent (38% NS v 37% NNS) as were present progressive forms (25% NS, but only 7% NNS). In the NS samples, there were no uses of past simple forms, with present perfect and modal verbs occurring at broadly similar frequencies. However, in the NNS samples, past simple formed 20% of verb uses and past perfect approximately 7%.

The differences in verb form usage between NS and NNS samples may indicate that NS writers were more likely than NNS writers to base their problem description in the context of current or recent events. However this difference might also represent a lack of facility amongst some NNS writers with regard to the use of present perfect and continuous verb forms for problem identification and description.

In terms of formatting, problem sections tended to be written in continuous text, although in some samples points were numbered and short bulleted lists of points were used.

5.4.7.3 Options and alternatives move

The options and alternatives move fulfils the communicative purposes of the case report by demonstrating to the lecturer reader student capacity for generating possible solutions that are reasonable in conception, justifiable and potentially effective in the case situation (and also discounting inappropriate options), thereby showing creative thinking and logically underpinning strategies in the advisory move.

The variously titled structural elements in this category were identified in 47% of case report samples (appendix C, table 14), occurring in 79% of continuous assessment reports but only 12% of examination reports. It is unclear whether this difference arises from the specific task, particular specialism, or even assessment context. The most common title for options and

alternatives sections was Options Analysis (58% of category titles). Options were also considered within the context of the marketing mix, (4Ps) framework in three examinations samples, and also in Market Entry Mode elements. No noteworthy difference between frequencies and titling of NS and NNS samples was discernible. Rhetorical aspects of options and alternatives sections, together with other linguistic features are analysed in depth in chapter 6 of this thesis.

5.4.7.4 Advisory move

The provision of specific, effective and appropriate advice constitutes the culmination of the logical processes and rhetorical sequences within the case report. The lecturer audience must see the advice proposed as valid and stemming logically from the preceding report discussions and, where necessary, stemming from argument within the advisory move structural elements themselves. Through providing this effective and valid argument the writer can achieve the hypothesised persuasive communicative purposes of the report.

In these advisory elements, report writers make recommendations, but also propose or suggest strategies, or state that certain actions are critical and absolute necessities. The term 'advisory' is seen as incorporating the range of 'weights' accorded to proposals for actions, as mediated through differing language elements. Yeung (2007) describes the verb 'suggest', found in workplace business reports, as being equivalent to the verb 'recommend'. In this thesis, these verbs, their lemmas, as well as other relevant lexis, are not seen as equivalent but as indicating varying strengths of advice. The advice presented within the case reports is provided within a range of structural elements.

STP structural elements

As well as being deployed in the analytical component of the case reports, the STP tool is

used, particularly within the marketing examination case reports, as a framework for the provision of advice regarding component market segmentation, targeting and positioning strategies (appendix C, table 15). In 95% of marketing examination STP category structural elements, the STP components focused almost entirely on the provision of advice. However in sample E1C, STP is framed within the context of strategy options, and solely presents STP options with no specific advice identifiable. Sample E1B incorporates analysis of segments, followed by consideration of options with regard to targeting and positioning, and a subsequent STP-internal recommendations sub-section. Notably, where the full STP tool is deployed, this tends to precede marketing mix and recommendations elements.

Where the full STP framework is used, there is identification and consideration of different segmentation strategies with a particular approach to market segmentation advised. This leads to designation of specific segments of the market to target, and proposals regarding how the company should position itself within that market. As with the analytical move incarnation of this structural element, deployment of STP demonstrates knowledge of the STP tool, but in the advisory move deployment demonstrates the capacity for providing appropriate and effective advice within the relevant context.

Complete STP structural elements in marketing examination sample advisory examination samples were generally shorter than the analytical move STP equivalents found in continuous assessment samples, averaging 158 words in length. Modal verbs were present in some, but not all of these STP elements with present simple forms prominent.

As with STP structural elements in the analytical move, no differences in frequencies or types of STP element deployed were apparent when comparing NS and NNS writers.

Marketing strategy/marketing mix structural elements

Marketing strategy and marketing mix components both incorporated text relating to marketing strategy development, although marketing strategy represented a broader concept with these elements incorporating in some reports, additional advisory components such as STP (see above). In some reports, the marketing mix, (often referred to as the 4P's of product, price, promotion, place) was present as the major sub-component of a marketing strategy element, while in other cases the marketing mix title itself served as the overall framework for dealing with marketing strategy.

Structural elements in the marketing mix/marketing strategy category were found in 24 of the 25 marketing examination case report samples but only two of the 28 marketing management continuous assessment samples, both NNS (appendix C, table 16). This difference is attributed to differences in task requirements and realisation, originating in the case report specialism with the marketing case requiring marketing mix dependent marketing strategy development, which is not required in the marketing management case task (discussed further in section 5.5.3.1 of this chapter). Marketing strategy and marketing mix elements constituted substantial elements of the examination case report texts, comprising from 25% to 75% of words in these case report texts.

All marketing mix texts were sub-divided into sub-sections representing the 4Ps components, although in some texts, all NNS, the 3Ps of product, price and promotion(as stated in the task rubric) were deployed (appendix C, table 17). Five examination NNS samples contained the term 'distribution' a variant on 'place' mentioned in the task rubric. In contrast to the NNS

examination samples, all eight NS samples contained all of the 4Ps elements[32]. A single writer (sample E1C), framed marketing strategy discussion within the context of different product categories. In this text, promotional, price and place strategies were developed in turn for particular types of product.

Marketing mix elements, in the vast majority of cases, focused on provision of advice with justification. Such texts are exemplified in figure 13a,b below. However, five of the 24 samples included a focus on options for action, although options discussion was generally minimal (figure 13c). In one exceptional sample, E1G, a significant portion of text dealt with options for action within the 4Ps framework, with options consideration followed by recommendations for action. Titled sub-sections within some 4Ps elements explicitly focused on both justifications for advice given, and on implementation of advised strategies, an element also identified in some samples outside of the marketing mix framework.

Figure 13a Sample 4P text showing direct recommendation (sample E1C)

> *Product*
>
> *- initially launch 'Karl' box*
> *- Conduct 'benefit structure analysis' on other brands to isolate customer preferences. Launch other products in line with these results.*
> *- without-filling chocolate bars face less competition.*

Figure 13b Sample 4P text showing justification and recommendation (sample E2C)

> *2. Invest heavily on R & D of chocolates with fillings. Since, according to customer satisfaction ratings, there is less products are meeting customer expectation. Therefore there is opportunity for growth in improving such products.*

---

[32]This is an interesting observation in the sense that only 3 P's were stated as required in the task rubric, since the place (St. Petersburg) had already been established. This point is illustrated by comments made by the marker on report papers. It may be that a justification for the use of place could be provided through more specific focus on place in terms of the outlets within St. Petersburg, through which products might be distributed.

Figure 13c Sample 4P text showing options consideration, justification and recommendation (sample E2D)

Product

Darling has two options for its product strategy. One is market most kinds of its products into s.p. market at the same time. Another is first promote the most popular items (based in current European sales) in the s.p. market.

This latter option is highly recommended. One reason is to reduce the rtisk. Because Darling is relatively unknown to S.P. customers, promoting many kinds of its products together it too risky.....

In terms of component language, the marketing mix structural elements were somewhat varied with present simple verb forms and modal verbs such as *would* and *should* prominent in some texts. Bare infinitive verb forms in elided sentences were frequently found in some samples at initial position in bulleted lists of recommendations e.g. *position Karl Bar as healthy quality bar* (Sample E1G), *consider boxes with future expansion* (sample C1D), *cooperate with book-store* (Sample E2Q).

Text formatting varied. In some texts the 4Ps elements contained a significant amount of continuous text, however in many samples, the 4Ps sub-section elements were sub-divided and visually fragmented through bulleted and numbered lists.

The promotions element of the marketing mix was frequently divided into sub-component structural elements relating to *advertising* and *budgeting.* In some cases, advertising and promotions elements appeared coterminous. Overall, advertising elements were found in more than 90% of examination reports and were frequently divided into different types of media, usually TV, newspapers and radio, with justifications provided for advice relating to use of each media and overall advertising strategy.

Advertising elements were also closely associated with elements specifying promotional budgets, these sometimes being presented in tabular form incorporating calculations and specifying allocation of budgets to specific media, and specific timescales and actions within those media. However, figures were also included in more paragraph-sentence and other formats:

> *Budget : Aiming for 3% of the market which is 3% of 72,000,000 and that is sales forecast of $2,160,000m revenue. We will allocate a 15% of our cashflow to advertising and promotion. That is 15% at $2,160,000 = $324,000 budget for advertising for first year.*
>
> <div align="right">(sample E2F)</div>

> *Television :-*
> *$70,000*
> ⟶   *Spent on 60-second commercials at prime time of St. Petersburg channel 5.*
> - *large exposure*
> - *visual image for consumers to identify with*
> - *seen to support local media*
>
> <div align="right">(sample E1E)</div>

Recommendations structural elements

While advice is often provided through frameworks such as the marketing mix (4Ps) and STP in the marketing examination case reports, in a small number of marketing reports, these structures were contained within wide ranging explicit recommendations structural elements while in other reports, particularly NS, additional separate recommendations elements supplementary to marketing mix and other advisory components were identified (appendix C, table 18). In contrast to marketing examination reports, however recommendations sections provided the main advisory structural context in marketing management continuous assessment reports appearing in 78% of samples.

In these continuous assessment samples, recommendations elements varied in length from 129 words to an exceptional 2397 words, with an average length of 698 words. In terms of structure, recommendations sections were variously sub-divided, either into explicit sub-

sections relating to specific recommendations (such as samples C1H, C2D, C2K) or untitled paragraphs often relating to single recommendations (samples C2C, C2B).

Recommendations selected were strongly linked to actions considered in the options and alternatives move. For example, in samples C1G, C2D, C1D, C2C, amongst others, the recommendations section incorporates selected actions discussed in the options and alternatives elements, though sample C1D incorporates recommendations not previously discussed. The link between the options and recommendations sections is illustrated in the following recommendations texts:

> *From the list of options listed above, we should take a little of all of them in formulating a viable option for Baxter problem.*
>
> (sample C2J)

> *The best strategy for Baxter would be to pursue a combination of strategies detailed above,.....*
>
> (sample C1D)

Options–recommendation relationships are not always stated as explicitly as in the above texts. Notably sample C2H adopts a different strategy, rejecting all actions from the options analysis section and instead introducing entirely different actions in the recommendations section.

Recommendations elements were not restricted in terms of content to stating specific recommendations, but also included a strong focus on justification of recommendations, and their implementation. Further, 50% of the NS continuous assessment samples contained statements regarding what companies in the case should not do.

Predominant verb forms identified were present simple and modal verbs. Notably frequent

modals were *will, should* and *can,* with active verb forms significantly predominating over passive forms.

Implementation structural elements

A small number of implementation titled structural elements dealing with implementation of recommendations, proposals or strategies (appendix C, table 19) were found only in the NNS examination reports. These elements were short in length (a maximum of 101 words) with three of the five identified samples using bulleted lists and one text incorporating an implementation schedule in the form of a table. These structural elements were invariably located towards the end of case reports following statements of advised strategies.

Three of the implementation elements provided timescales for action, while two gave information relating to budgets and costing. Sample E2F proposed an organisational structure for strategy implementation. Use of the modal verbs *should* and *can* was noticeable in these text elements.

Monitoring and control structural elements

Structural elements relating to the monitoring and control of strategies and actions were only observed in examination reports, occurring at low frequency overall (8% of all samples). Linked to the implementation of advised actions, and bolstering arguments regarding the value of the advised actions, these structural elements focused on describing measures for ensuring that actions were implemented and carried out in the required manner as well as focusing on the monitoring of progress. In three of the four titled structural 'control' elements, other functional elements were identified in the title (appendix C, table 20).

Evaluation structural elements

These elements presented approaches for evaluating the progress of strategy implementation,

as with the implementation and monitoring moves, reinforcing the advised strategies or actions. Text components with titles incorporating the term 'evaluation' were identified in six reports, 5 NNS and 1 NS, and in only one continuous assessment report (sample C2D) but five examination samples (appendix C, table 21). Five out of six evaluation titles contained the term evaluation in combination with other titles.

5.4.7.5 Summary and consolidation move

This low frequency optional move, realised through conclusions and conclusion-related structural elements (appendix C, table 22), was found more frequently in NNS samples (39%) than NS samples (18%), at notably different levels in marketing management continuous assessment samples (50% NNS v 7% NS) though at similar levels in marketing examination reports. The low frequency of this move overall is seen as signifying that this move is non-essential in case reports.

The low level of consolidation elements parallels the findings of Yeung (2007) with regard to workplace business reports, wherein only four conclusion sections were identified in the corpus of 22 business workplace reports. The positioning of conclusion sections following recommendations sections also parallels Yeung's analysis of workplace reports.

Analysis of content in titled case report conclusion sections showed that these sections tended to deal with general statements and principles consolidating previously given advice, rather than presenting previously unstated advice:

> *So Baxter must continuously work to increase internal efficiency in order to be able to support its customers with cost-efficient products.*
>
> (sample C2C)

This concludes the report; it is hoped that such a strategy, if implemented as detailed, would enable the most effective and efficient launch of DC's products into the St. Petersburg market.

<div align="right">(sample C1G)</div>

Writers provided exhortations to action and included statements relating to the company's general prospects for the future. Summary evaluatory comments were also made, as in the following example in which the conclusion consisted solely of these words:

very risky entry because environmental factors

<div align="right">(sample E1A)</div>

Considering the different content areas, the main purpose of this move appears to be that of consolidating the key advisory elements of the report by identifying, reformulating, and emphasising for the lecturer reader, the core of the advice already provided, such that the lecturer reader is clear about the nature of what is advised in the report. A further purpose may also be to provide a clear signal that the reader has reached the end of the report.

It was noted that in two recommendations sections (samples C1A and C1F), final paragraphs containing conclusion signalling lexis were present, suggesting that consolidation elements relating to the whole report might be incorporated by some writers in recommendations sections.

The most frequent verb forms identified in consolidation-conclusion elements were modal verbs and present simple verb forms. Conclusions structural elements were in all cases written in sentence or paragraph form and did not contain bulleted lists.

5.4.7.6 Supplementary supporting information move

The provision of supplementary supporting information in order to support arguments and advice in the case report text, and thereby supporting lecturer evaluation, was not a common move in the corpus case reports, occurring in 15% of samples. Where present this information was provided through appendices and reference lists or bibliographies. Unsurprisingly, no supplementary supporting information moves were found in the examination texts. Appendices were found in 18% of continuous assessment texts, and reference lists or bibliographies in 11% as detailed in appendix C, tables 23 and 24. The supplementary information in appendices normally comprised tables of data and graphical or diagrammatic information.

5.4.7.7. Further move categorisation and structural issues

Low frequency structural elements

A wide range of structural sections considered conceptually distinct as case report structural elements, occurred at low frequencies (two or less occurrences) as shown in table 5.

Market entry mode (MEM) structural elements

MEM structural elements were identified in 11 of the 25 examination case reports (38% NS, 65% NNS samples). These sections combined option discussion and the provision of entry mode advice. However, it is clear that the inclusion of MEM elements was not a requirement or even desirable in the case reports as evidenced by task analysis, but more significantly through examiner comments located in the margins of MEM texts:

> *These options* [MEM options] *are identified in the text. You have to focus not on the market entry but just use it as a reference point for developing the marketing strategy. You could have summed up this page in one sentence.*
>
> (sample C2L)

Table 5. Low frequency titled sections in case reports

Section title	Move	Frequency	Sample code
Mission	1	2	E2F, E2L
The 4 'A's	2	1	E1B
The 7 'O's	2	1	C2I
Factors for success	1	1	E2C
Sales promotion	4	1	E2D
Sales forecasting	4	1	E2E
Market potential	2	1	E2E
Russian market	2	1	E1F
Market attractiveness	2	1	E2E
Vision	1	1	C2F
Trends	2	1	E2P
Overview of products and services	2	1	C2F
Product launch	4	1	CP2L
Redefining the case	1	1	C2I
The marketing process	1	1	C2I
Analysing the case	2	1	C2I
Business-to-business marketing	2	1	C2I
Definition of Markets	1	1	C1F

> *You are not asked to discuss that. Just mention it as a reference point for Mark.*
> *mix strategies.*
>
> (sample C2C)

As MEM elements were inconsistent in structure with other structural elements and not relevant to the task, these MEM elements were not allowed to influence the overall rhetorical move structure.

Alternative structural frames

Approximately 10% of writers, rather than using the titles of standard business tools or function based titles such as recommendations or options, adopted different approaches to text structuring, using for example rhetorical questions as the frame for report structure. Two report texts were entirely structured around rhetorical questions (samples E1B, C2G); one text had a substantial component structured in terms of such questions (CP2B), and two other samples contained a small number of structural elements with question form titles (C1L, E1B).

Title questions varied with some mentioning the case company by name, for example "Where are Darling Chocolate now?", "Where do Darling Chocolate want to be in five years?", "How do Darling achieve this?" (sample E1B) and other titles more general in scope, for example "What's going on?" , "Where are we now?" "What went wrong?" "What can we do?" "Why is this the best choice?" (sample C2G).

These approaches to text structuring were clearly considered acceptable by lecturers as these samples received marks of greater than 60%. Content analysis shows equivalence and overlap between these sections and the functional moves identified in the other 90% of texts. For example, "What can we do?" is clearly an advisory move, while "Where are we now?" overlaps with the situation analysis move. "What went wrong?" is equivalent to problem definition, comprising an element of analysis. "Where do Darling Chocolate want to be in 5 years time?" is a form of objectives element.

One writer (sample E2H) structured their case report into elements titled Strategy 1, Strategy 2 and Strategy 3 with each structural element containing analysis, options and advisory moves.

5.4.7.8 Rhetorical moves as proportions of total case reports

Analysis of text samples from marketing management continuous assessment and marketing case reports showed clear differences in the contribution in terms of words of different rhetorical moves to the overall case report texts (figures 14a & b). Distributions were broadly similar in NS and NNS samples though in NNS marketing examination samples, the analytical move comprised a lower proportion of words (14%) and advisory elements higher levels of words (73%) compared to NS samples (33% and 61% respectively).

Figure 14a. Proportion of text in examination marketing case reports contributed by different rhetorical moves (combined NS and NNS data: % total words)[33]
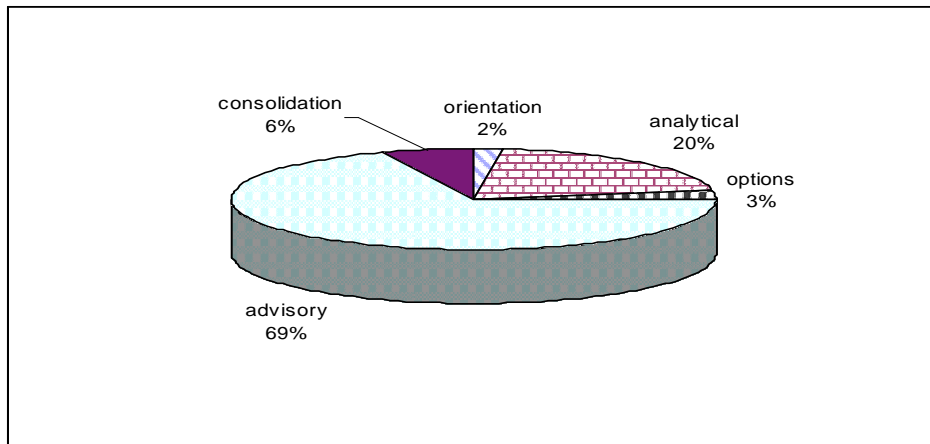
Figure 14b. Proportion of text in continuous assessment marketing management case reports contributed by different rhetorical moves (combined NS and NNS data: % total words)
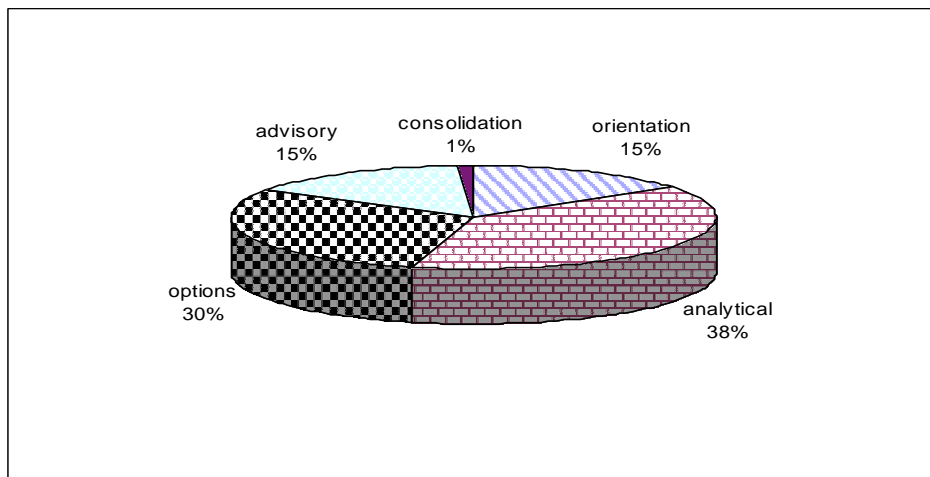
The orientation move clearly comprises a smaller proportion of texts in examination case reports, a phenomenon considered characteristic of time-limited examination writing where there is greater value in proceeding directly to an answer, with topic orientation being provided in task rubrics[34]. The differences in contributions of advisory, options and analytical moves within the different text categories are considered to originate in task differences which

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[33]Total word counts exclude supplementary supporting information appendices and bibliographies. The inclusion of these conceptually supplementary figure/table and list focused components was considered to have the potential to distort the overall picture regarding the contributions of individual moves to the overall report.

[34] Executive summaries, classified in the orientation move, as already noted were also generally absent from examination reports.

themselves are likely to be reflective of differing marketing management and marketing specialism foci.

The varying proportional contributions of the different rhetorical moves, in addition to the varying move frequencies in the different case report task categories serves to emphasise the significant differences between the case report realisations within the framework of similar broad rhetorical structure.

5.4.8 Stylistic and form-focused analysis

Having identified key structural features of the BCR-1 corpus case reports and some of the linguistics features of the rhetorical and structural components, in line with the approach depicted in figure 8 (p.57), the current section presents further description of the stylistic and lexico-grammatical properties of the thesis case report texts.

5.4.8.1 Format and layout

The most noticeable formatting and layout feature of the case report texts was their division into multiple titled sections and sub-sections, as well as further lower levels of structure. This division contrasts significantly with the continuous text layout generally associated with pedagogical essay writing.

In addition to these divisions and sub-divisions, the reports in both marketing management continuous assessment and marketing examination reports contained frequent bulleted lists of points, which were encapsulated in single words, sentences or paragraphs. These provide an additional element of fragmentation to the case report texts (figures 15a & b).

Figure 15a. Numbered list of points illustrating visual fragmentation of text

Strategy available:
1. Enter the St. Petersburg market with milk chocolate.
2. Develop new products, such as black chocolate which might more suit the taste of Russian customers
3. Do not enter Russian market, but develop old market segments

(Sample E2Q)

Figure 15b. Bulleted list of points illustrating visual fragmentation of text

ECONOMIC

* custom barriers – particularly a problem for considering importing products into Russia

* fluctuating exchange rates are identified as a problem but as in the case of political instability are difficult to

  predict with certainty

therefore important to be fully aware of the potential problem this could cause.

(Sample E2A)
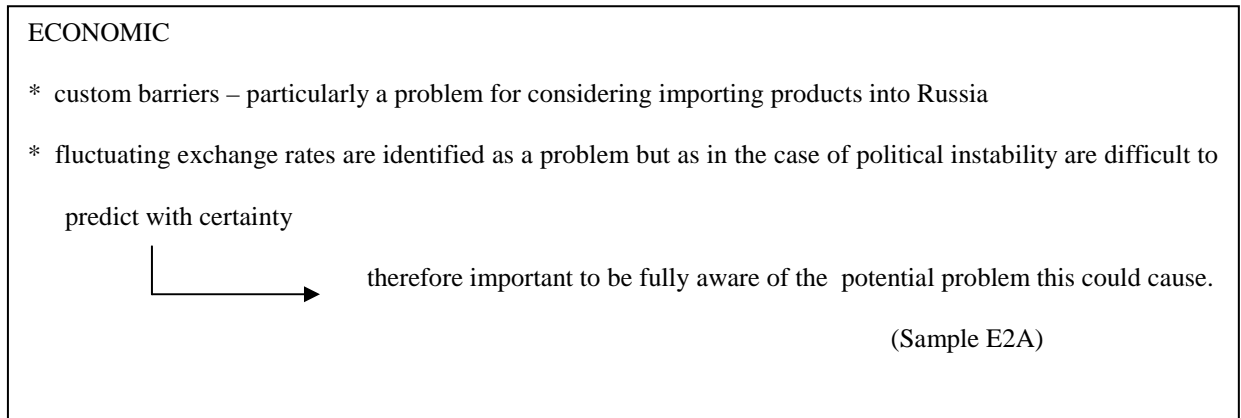
The use of bulleted and numbered points of information under specific headings serves to clearly group individual points within concept areas, making information more accessible, avoiding unnecessary language repetition, and making writing more concise, a desired report feature mentioned by business academics in the case literature (see chapter 2).

It should be noted however, that there are frequent lengthy paragraphs within many of the samples, with a small number of samples (for example E1H, E1G, E2K) having very few textual divisions and therefore large blocks of paragraph-formatted text.

Continuous assessment texts were all word-processed, generally single-spaced and appeared in a number of different fonts. In contrast, examination reports were handwritten in examination answer books with a range of spacings used throughout texts.

Additional noteworthy formatting elements were the fax layout (or in one case letter layout) of transmission elements identified at the beginning of several examination case texts (see figure 10) as well as the presence of diagrams and tables, discussed more fully in section 5.4.8.3 .

5.4.8.2 Ellipsis

A range of items may be elided in report sentences, including verb forms, particles and sentence subjects. While observed to some extent in continuous assessment cases, this elision was particularly prevalent in the examination case reports (figures 16a & b), though it did not predominate even in these texts.

Figure 16a. Elided text in sample E1C

Price
    - competitor oriented – going rate pricing compared to other milk chocolate bars
      and dark chocolate products

Figure 16b. Elided text in sample E2P

Reason: Avoid the risk of fragmentation and product cannibalisation – simplify
         promotion, strategy and logistic -

The greater tendency to elision in examination tasks compared to continuous assessment tasks seems certain to be connected to the time-pressure aspect of the examination. Case report writing seems to allow the use of elision, which under examination time pressure becomes more extensive.

5.4.8.3 Diagrams, charts and graphs

Figures, including charts, graphs and diagrams, were found in 53% of business case reports at approximately equal levels in examination and continuous assessment tasks. However, their use was more common in NNS samples with approximately two thirds of NNS writers using these as opposed to approximately one third of NS writers.   While confirmatory data from other case report text corpora would be desirable, if this difference is taken as being real and

significant, the greater use of such figures might be hypothesised as enabling NNS writers to avoid use of complex and challenging sentence-based language.

Types of figure included perceptual maps (figure 17), Porter's five forces diagrams (figure 12 above), pie charts showing market share (samples CP2L, CP1A), graphs and charts illustrating for example demographic data (sample E1C) a strategy timeline (sample C1F) as well as a range of other figure types.

These diagrams and figures serve the purpose of demonstrating knowledge and understanding of the application of business tools, providing clear and brief illustration to the lecturer reader. They also act as evidential sources to support analysis and advice, enabling rapid provision of

Figure 17. Perceptual map from a case report (perceptions of value for money for different competitors – sample E2G)

Price

Krupskaya
        *   * Red October
    * Azart * Darling

                                    Quality
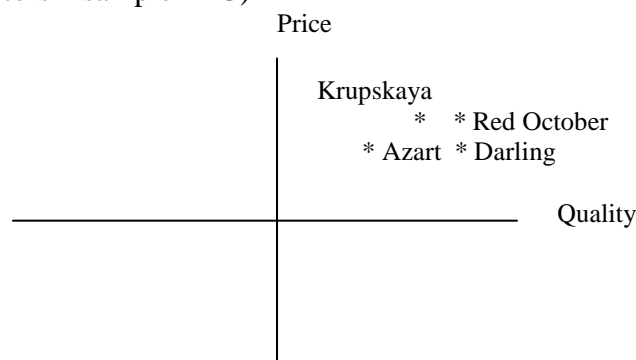
information in timed examination contexts, clear representation of complex data, and reducing the informational contribution from text, a useful feature in word-length limited assignments.

5.4.8.4 Use of symbols

In some examination texts it was not uncommon for writers to use symbols integrated with text. The symbol '+' was frequently used to indicate 'and' (for example, samples E1D, E1E); dashes and arrows were used to indicate connections or logical flow between texts, or cause and effect relationships; $\approx$ was used in text to signify approximately (sample E1D). Slashes were also used to mark connections, similarities, lists of items or alternative choices.

Numerical digits frequently represented numbers rather than use of full spellings. Use of symbols occurred at much lower frequency in continuous assessment reports suggesting that for the most part it was examination time pressure that was motivating symbol usage.

5.4.8.5 Abbreviations

A range of abbreviations were used by writers in the case reports. Standard abbreviations included *PEST*, *SWOT* and *STP* representing the relevant analytical tools (see above), with *4(3)Ps* in various forms used to represent the marketing mix. *DC* was used in a number of examination reports to refer to the company Darling Chocolate, being used twice as frequently in NS than NNS exam samples, suggesting another feature which may reflect the greater roleplaying and formal focus of the NNS writers. Other abbreviations included *St.* in Saint Petersburg, *TV* for television, *R & D* for Research and Development, *JV* for Joint Venture, and *PLC* for Product Life Cycle.

The abbreviation *etc*. frowned on in academic writing pedagogy, was found in several different NNS examination case reports (13 uses at 0.5 occurrences per 1,000 words) although only a single occurrence was identified in NS case reports. This usage of *etc*. in NNS samples is considered an error.

5.4.8.6 Citation and reference

Citation of sources is generally presented as a standard component of academic writing, required in essay and dissertation or thesis writing, as well as academic research-based articles and a range of other academic texts. However in the BCR-1 corpus, literature citation was a rarity, in-text citation being identified in only one continuous assessment (sample C2M) report in which multiple-citation was present, though three continuous assessment texts contained a reference list or bibliography. Only five of the 25 examination case reports

contained citations, and even in these cases, at an average of less than two citations per report text, with no reference list or bibliography provided. Where present, citations were in author-date form, were generally non-integral, generally referring to textbooks rather than research papers.

The absence of literature citation in these reports may be accounted for by the academic convention that citation is not required for generally known facts or information, a category in which, for example, the business tools SWOT and the marketing mix which are core to the case reports, may be considered to lie. Further, if the reports are seen by lecturers as simulations of workplace business reports, the case reports may need to parallel these texts, within which literature citation has not been reported.

Rather than the research literature, the common reference point for case reports is the business case itself. In general, case information was reported without explicit reference to the case, however on some occasions explicit reference is made to figures or tables in the case materials, providing a firmer and more explicit backing for specific claims, as in the following examples:

> *- only a small proportion of the population were affluent, and chocolate was considered a low priority purchase (see table 1).*
>
> (sample E1C)

> *Baxter Renal Division had enjoyed success as "the world's largest supplier of medical products and services" (p.2)*
>
> (sample C1B)

5.4.8.7 Lexical characteristics

The most frequent lexical items in the NS and NNS continuous assessment reports were small grammar words (for example *the, to, of, and, in, is)*. Also prominent in these reports was the

medical terminology derived from the Baxter case (items such as *renal, treatment, patients)* together with forms related to the key company name *(Baxter, Baxter's).* In the Darling Chocolate examination case reports, in addition to small grammar words, lexis referring to the company, and lexis relevant to the confectionery case topic, such as *chocolate, bars, boxes* and *candies* was prominent.

Business lexis

Specialist lexis considered as characteristic of the business specialism was also frequent with many such items appearing in the top 50 most frequent items (tables 6 and 7). Five lexical items, *market, product, products, strategy* and *company* were common to both marketing and marketing management top 50 lexical item frequency lists.

Differences in item frequencies within the specialism-assessment corpus categories are apparent between NS and NNS corpus components. In the continuous assessment samples the terms *economic* and *buyers*, largely stemming from the key business notion of *economic*

Table 6 Business lexis in the top 50 frequent items in the marketing management continuous assessment reports

	All continuous assessment samples		NS continuous assessment samples		NNS continuous assessment samples	
Word[35]	Frequency (position)	% words	Frequency (position)	% Words	Frequency	% Words
market	891 (10)	1.04	425 (12)	0.96	466 (8)	1.12
products	464 (23)	0.54	205 (26)	0.46	259 (22)	0.62
buyers	440 (25)	0.51	163 (37)	0.37	277 (20)	0.67
company	369 (34)	0.43	176 (33)	0.40	193(30)	0.46
economic	359 (36)	0.42	130 (45)	0.29	229 (25)	0.55
price	327 (38)	0.38	134 (42)	0.30	193 (31)	0.46
product	317 (39)	0.37	130 (46)	0.29	187 (32)	0.45
competitors	247 (47)	0.29	99 (56)	0.22	148 (41)	0.36
strategy	245 (48)	0.29	131 (48)	0.30	114 (53)	0.27

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[35] Counts do not include other forms of the specific items listed and represent all uses of identified items.

Table 7 Business lexis in the top 50 frequent items in the marketing examination reports

Word[36]	All samples		NS examination samples		NNS examination samples	
	Freq	% words	Frequency (position)	% Words	Frequency (position)	% Words
market	491	1.24	155 (11)	1.08	336 (10)	1.33
product	307	0.78	124 (16)	0.86	183 (15)	0.73
products	245	0.62	133 (12)	0.93	112 (27)	0.44
price	209	0.53	48 (38)	0.33	161 (19)	0.64
company	164	0.41	61 (30)	0.42	103 (30)	0.41
quality	162	0.41	71 (24)	0.49	91 (35)	0.36
strategy	142	0.36	37 (53)	0.26	115 (26)	0.46
advertising	139	0.35	49 (36)	0.34	90 (36)	0.36
brand	125	0.32	33 (59)	0.23	92 (33)	0.37
consumers	108	0.27	44 (42)	0.31	64 (50)	0.25

buyers in the Baxter case task, occur at notably higher frequencies in the NNS corpus compared to the NS corpus (significant at $p < 0.00001$ through the log likelihood test). The noun *price* occurs both in the examination and continuous assessment categories at notably higher levels in NNS samples in comparison to NS reports (significant at $p < 0.000001$).

Data on the distribution of lexical items between different individual reports is not presented here, however, if log likelihood figures are accepted as representing real differences in the use of these items by NS and NNS writers, one possible explanation for these differences may lie in the suggestion of a more limited lexical resource available to NNS writers, such that elegant repetition or reference devices are deployed to a lesser extent than with NS writers.

Applying the keywords tool from Wordsmith 3.0 for comparison of NS and NNS marketing examination reports at a level of $p < 0.000001$, identified that the business-relevant lexical items, *benefits, area, number* and *staff* were present at significantly higher levels in NS samples. In the NNS sub-corpus business lexical items found at significantly higher levels were *price, promotion*, *local*, *customers* and *marketing*, the first two items being associated with the 4Ps tool deployed in the marketing examination cases. Similarly in the marketing

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[36] Counts do not include other forms of the specific words listed and represent all uses of identified items.

management continuous assessment reports, using the same parameters, the business relevant items *benefits, need, areas* were significantly more frequent in NS reports with *customers, prices, economic, buyers* and *services* more frequent in NNS samples.

Comparing across task specialisms, the business lexical items *price, product* and *promotion* were notably higher in frequency in the marketing examination case reports, undoubtedly related to their deployment in the 4Ps element.

Metaphor

The use of metaphorical phrasing, and on occasion idioms, was found throughout the business case reports (figure 18). While a complete and systematic analysis was not conducted incorporating evaluation of metaphorical density, common metaphorical noun phrases identified included *target market*, *barriers to entry*, *erosion of market share*, *product launch*, *product portfolio*, *price war*, *supply chain*, *market segments*, *distribution channel*, *price cutting* with related verb phrases discussing *targeting market segments*, *cutting prices* and *segmenting the market*.

Both NS and NNS writers used metaphor with no apparent frequency difference identified between speaker types (though occasionally NNS metaphors seemed unconventional) or specialisms. There was clearly variation between individual writers with some writers significantly more inclined to use metaphorical phrasings (C2G contained many examples).

While the range of metaphorical images is varied, a number of metaphors appear to relate to war and conflict (for example *trigger a price war*, *price as an offensive weapon*; a policy can

Figure 18. Metaphorical and idiomatic language in the BCR-1 case report corpus

Metaphor/Idiom	Report sample
…balancing the books	C1A
..a handful of accounts	C1H
The company has a mission to… be a pioneer	C1H
…once the service procedure has been revolutionised	C1H
…competitive edge	C1K
The report…suggests an avenue….	C1L
The Baxter name is in the public eye	C1L
…flooding the market	CP1B
Instead of sitting back and waiting for …..	C1H
..too expensive for the economic buyers to take on board	C1C
…will create an additional revenue stream	CP1A
….to sift through to the root of the problem	C1B
The choice essentially boils down to….	E1G
…the run-up to the Christmas period	E1G
….build a brand image	E1E
…how to split the pie	E2O
…growing at an explosive rate	C2C
The market is experiencing a constant evolution	C2J
.. minor player in the market	C2E
….shoot themselves in the foot	C2G
…..to get one foot in	C2G
Tailored programmes	C1E
A brand umbrella	E1E
A captive audience	E1E
The Russian market offers rays of light to Darling Chocolate	E2G
product lines	E2A
brand cannibalisation	E2A
..at the helm of the UK business	C2G
…a flat budget	C2G
The uppish and bullish ra-ra sales force	C2G
..and the hurdles Baxter Renal Division is facing	C2H
The tables had turned	C1E
A finger in every pie	C1F

act as a deterrent; a product is *revolutionary*; complacency has *invaded the company*; the company has been *hit badly*; a reaction is *hostile* and markets are *targeted*). This conflict metaphor is seen as reflecting a highly competitive 'male' and 'macho', cultural environment often associated with areas of the business world. Such an interpretation reflects data provided by Forman & Rymer (1999b) in the US context, in which interviewed students refer to the masculinism and adversarialism in case write-ups, referring to class "rough and tumble", and

"hard-hitting", "unnecessarily aggressive even antagonistic", "macho…management samurai type" teaching styles. While it is not considered that the UK context is significantly characterised by such an aggressive style of instruction, there may be a residual level of such masculinism in this context, further evidenced by strong, assertive statements, such as those discussed below.

Intensification: Strong and extreme lexis

A tendency was identified in the case reports to use strong or extreme lexis expressing high levels of degree, intensity or extent of phenomena. A number of examples of strong and extreme statements incorporating this lexis are presented in figure 19. The 'strength' or 'extremity' of the phenomenon is often indicated through choice of adjective (*fierce, furious, profound, gaping, drastic),* but also through nouns such as *disaster* or verbs such as *dictate*. Preliminary analysis suggests that such language was more prominent in NNS samples.

Hedges and boosters

Frequencies of key hedges and boosters[37] (excluding modal verbs considered below) are shown in table 8. The selected items are assumed to act as hedges and boosters in each usage within the report context. Concordance lines were not analysed for confirmation, as it seemed reasonable to assume the selected items would perform, within the context of these texts, their designated epistemic functions.

Application of the log likelihood statistic identified statistically significant differences in specific individual hedges and booster frequencies between NS-NNS text categories. However, confirmatory Mann-Whitney analysis, identified no significant differences in NS-NNS deployment.

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[37] Designations of hedges and boosters follow those of Hyland and Milton (1997).

Figure 19. 'Strong' and 'extreme' statements/lexis in BCR-1 corpus case reports

Phrasing	Sample
It would be <u>scandalous</u> to think that procurement decisions were not informed by medical decisions	C1K
…<u>drastic</u> change…	E2G
<u>It is vital that</u> …..	E2G
This is an <u>aggressive</u> objective	CP2L
A <u>revolutionary</u> product	CP2L
<u>High impact</u> launch	CP2L
Healthcare costs are growing at an <u>explosive</u> rate	C2C
The balance of power had swung <u>dramatically</u>	C2A
..<u>fierce</u> competition	C2A
…<u>intensively</u> promoted	C1B
….focusing their sales efforts on the <u>wrong</u> people	C2C
<u>dictate</u> the market	C2A
Employees should <u>relish</u> this task	C1H
… <u>furious</u> competition	C2F
….a <u>profound</u> threat	C2F
….the <u>gaping</u> difference	C2F
…a financial <u>disaster</u>..	C2C
…<u>paramount</u> importance…	C1A
…<u>an onslaught of</u> prescription heritage claims..	CP2L
..<u>total</u> control of the marketing process….	E2A
……<u>hostile</u> reaction….	E2E
It would be <u>foolish</u> to ……..	E1G

While modal verbs are considered as key hedges and boosters (for example Hyland, 2004b :90), considering solely the data from table 8, there appears to be no evidence that NNS writers are more inclined to make stronger statements using more boosters than NS writers in the case reports. The frequency data instead suggests higher levels of use of both hedges and boosters by NS writers compared to NNS writers. Such a conclusion would contrast with the essay-based analysis of qualification and certainty (Allison, 1995; Hyland & Milton, 1997), which suggests a tendency to overstatement in NNS writing[38].

The data in table 8 also suggests a lower level of hedging and higher levels of boosters in the marketing essays compared to the case reports. Due to sample size, in particular with regard to the ESM-1 essay corpus, this data needs to be treated with caution, however, the

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[38] It is noted that the data in regard to strong and extreme lexis in the preceding section would however tend to support this claim.

Table 8. Frequencies of selected hedges and boosters in BCR-1 corpus samples and the comparator NS ESM-1 marketing essay corpus

Item	NS cont. Raw freq. (occ./1,000 words)	NNS cont. Raw freq. (occ./1,000 words)	NS exam Raw freq. (occ./1,000 words)	NNS exam Raw freq. (occ./1,000 words)	Essay corpus Raw freq. (occ./1,000 words)
Hedges					
appear	8 (0.2)	0	3 (0.2)	3 (0.1)	0
approximate	7 (0.2)	1	2 (0.1)	3 (0.1)	0
general	22 (0.5)	30 (0.6)	6 (0.4)	5 (0.2)	2 (0.2)
indicate	7 (0.2)	5 (0.1)	4(0.2)	6 (0.2)	7 (0.8)
likely	24 (0.5)	12 (0.3)	5 (0.3)	5 (0.2)	3 (0.4)
maybe	1	6 (0.1)	0	3 (0.1)	0
perhaps	11 (0.2)	4	0	1	0
possible	55 (1.3)	27 (0.7)	21 (1.4)	20 (0.8)	7 (0.8)
probable	5 (0.1)	5 (0.1)	0	6 (0.2)	2 (0.2)
seem	11(0.2)	6 (0.1)	1	12 (0.5)	0
suggest	9 (0.2)	29 (0.7)	14 (0.9)	21 (0.8)	7 (0.8)
suppose	0	1	1	1	0
tend	2	7 (0.1)	1	0	1
uncertain	0	1	6 (0.4)	5 (0.2)	0
Total selected hedges	162(3.7)	134 (3.0)	64 (4.4)	91(3.6)	29 (3.4)
Boosters					
always	14 (0.3)	21 (0.5)	2 (0.1)	5 (0.2)	9 (1.1)
certain	18 (0.4)	12 (0.3)	6 (0.3)	4 (0.2)	0[39]
clear	11 (0.2)	18 (0.4)	1	2	5 (0.5)
definite	4	4	0	4 (0.2)	0
essential	7 (0.2)	2	1	0	4 (0.4)
obvious	18 (0.4)	6 (0.1)	1	1	0
in fact	4	7 (0.1)	0	1	0
inevitable	11 (0.2)	0	0	0	0
no doubt	1	1	0	0	0
of course	3	5	0	2	0
show	18 (0.4)	29 (0.6)	8 (0.5)	1	9 (1.1)
sure	10 (0.2)	6 (0.2)	19(1.0)	16 (0.8)	0
undeniable	0	0	0	0	0
Total selected boosters	119 (2.7)	101(2.3)	38 (2.6)	36 (1.4)	27 (3.1)

implication, were this observation to be confirmed, is that the specialist grounding of marketing essay writing influences the deployment of hedges and boosters. This raises a possibility that the commonly adopted generic pedagogical advice to NNS students, which emphasises hedging in academic writing, may to some extent be inaccurate in regard to marketing, and potentially other specialist areas. Nevertheless the data analysed does not

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[39] Concordance line analysis showed that *certain* was used on 6 occasions to refer to something specific e.g. 'certain frameworks'

include all hedges and boosters, and in particular excludes the key modal verbs as hedges and boosters. However the data certainly demonstrates the use of a range of both hedges and boosters in marketing and marketing management case reports and marketing essays.

Colloquial language

Much of the metaphorical and idiomatic language described above is commonly associated with colloquial language. Other elements of more colloquial language were also identified in these texts.   For example, in examination samples, a number of writers used the more colloquial term *roughly* in place of the more formal *approximately* when referring to numerical data (for example, sample E2K). The various forms of the word *good* seemed to be widely used in particular the superlative *best.*

5.4.8.8 Overview of verb form and voice

An impressionistic overview of structural sections combined with more detailed analysis of SWOT and options and alternatives sections (the latter detailed in chapter 6) evidenced the prominence of present simple and modal verb forms in the case reports, with a range of other verb forms also present. Verb form frequencies appeared to vary significantly between different structural elements as well as within sub-components of these elements, as shown by frequencies and distribution of verb forms within the NS SWOT structural elements (table 4).

Overall it was clear that active verb forms predominated in the case reports. For example, passive voice constituted 13% of verb forms in SWOT continuous assessment structural elements and approximately 10% of verb forms in options and alternative move continuous assessment samples.   Nevertheless, variation was observed between different writers with a small number of writers using significantly more passive structures.   No notable differences

were observed in the levels of active and passive voice deployment between NS and NNS writers or between specialisms.

5.4.8.9 Modal verbs (incorporating the semi-modal *have to*)

Modal verbs form important components of the business case reports in the corpus, occurring at approximately 26 occurrences per thousand words, with five modal verbs, namely *will, would, could, can* and *should* appearing in the top 50 most frequent items overall. The following sub-sections compare frequency levels of modal verbs in different components of the case report corpus (tables 9 & 10). Explanations for observed variation are considered in the summary and discussion section of this chapter.

Modal verb frequencies in NS and NNS case report samples

As can be seen from table 9, in marketing management continuous assessment reports, NS report texts contained higher levels of all modal verbs combined, compared to NNS texts (28.7 v 23.8 occurrences per 1,000 words) significant at $p < 0.0001$, as determined by log likelihood analysis. In examination reports (table 10) a similar NS – NNS combined modals difference was also observed (29.9 v 24.4 occurrences per 1,000 words) significant at $p < 0.01$. However both Mann-Whitney analysis and t-test data, identified no significant difference at $p < 0.05$ between NS and NNS total modal verb deployment in either specialist category.

With regard to individual modal verbs, while a range of differences in NS-NNS deployment were identified using the log likelihood statistic, applying Mann-Whitney analysis and, where assumptions of normality were supported, t-tests, to the NS-NNS marketing management continuous assessment comparison, significant differences in deployment were identified only for the modal *would* (at $p < 0.01$).

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Table 9. Frequency of modal verbs in marketing management continuous assessment case reports

Modal Verb	All continuous assessment samples		NS continuous assessment samples		NNS continuous assessment samples		Essay reference corpus	
	Frequency	/1,000 words	Frequency	/1,000 words	Frequency	/1,000 words	Frequency	/1,000 words
will	481	5.6	310	7.0	171	4.1	30	3.6
could	397	4.6	196	4.4	201	4.8	15	1.8
would	371	4.3	253	5.7	118	2.8	9	1.1
can	349	4.1	165	3.7	184	4.4	80	9.5
should	270	3.1	142	3.2	128	3.1	15	1.8
may	120	1.4	74	1.7	46	1.1	27	3.2
must	118	1.4	58	1.3	60	1.4	16	1.9
might	45	0.5	7	0.2	38	0.9	0	0
have to[41]	118	1.4	67	1.5	51	1.2	3	0.4
Total	2269	26.4	1272	28.7	997	23.8	195	23.4

Table 10 Frequency of modal verbs in marketing examination case reports

Modal Verb	All examination assessment samples		NS examination assessment samples		NNS examination assessment samples	
	Frequency	/1,000 words	Frequency	/1,000 words	Frequency	/1000 words
will	336	8.5	127	8.8	209	8.3
could	74	1.9	39	2.7	35	1.4
would	98	2.5	41	2.9	57	2.3
can	220	5.6	64	4.5	156	6.2
should	162	4.1	69	4.8	93	3.7
may	73	1.8	43	3.0	30	1.2
must	41	1.0	30	2.1	11	0.4
might	7	0.2	0	0	7	0.3
have to[14]	27	0.7	13	1.1	14	0.6
Total	1038	26.3	426	29.9	612	24.4

Significantly higher levels of *could, may* and *must* deployment in the NNS examination samples were also identified ($p < 0.05$, $p < 0.05$, $p < 0.01$, respectively). Factorial ANOVA confirmed significant differences in *would* levels according to speaker type and specialism-assessment type category though identified no significant interaction effect between specialism-assessment category and speaker type.

Comparisons of modal frequencies in specialism-assessment categories

Comparing the NS marketing management continuous assessment and the NS marketing

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[41] All forms (have to, has to, had to)

examination sub-corpora, no significant difference was identified in total modal verb deployment, nor was any significant difference identified in combined modal frequencies between the parallel NNS sub-corpora.

As with NS-NNS comparison of individual modal frequencies, while log likelihood analysis suggested a number of specialism-assessment category based differences, Mann-Whitney analysis showed only *would* ($p < 0.01$) occurring at significantly higher frequency in the NS marketing management reports compared to the NS marketing reports, with no modal verbs more frequent in the NS marketing texts. The modal verbs *would, could, have to* and *must* were more frequent in the NNS marketing management reports (all significant at $p < 0.05$) and again no modal verbs were identified as deployed more frequently in NNS examination marketing reports. Factorial ANOVA analysis based on all samples confirmed both *would* and *have to* deployment as specialism-assessment type category dependent[42].

The identification of *would* as more frequent in the NNS marketing management reports compared to the NNS marketing reports may seem unexpected considering the *would* frequency data in tables 9 and 10, however, the Mann Whitney significance figure can be understood through analysis of individual report frequencies, with seven NNS marketing reports displaying no *would* usage, while all marketing management continuous assessment reports contained some level of usage.

Interestingly there were notable differences in individual modal frequencies between the NS examination case report sub-corpus and the NS essay comparator corpus, with Mann-Whitney

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[42] Factorial ANOVA was not valid with other calculations due to non-normality of distribution.

analysis showing both *will* and *would* as significantly more frequent in the NS examination report sub-corpus with *can* more frequent in the essay texts (all significant at $p < 0.05$).

Modal verb distribution by broad rhetorical move and structural elements

The distribution of modal verbs among the different rhetorical moves varied dependent on the specialism-assessment type category (figure 20). In marketing management continuous assessment reports almost 50% of modal verbs were found in the options and alternatives move, whereas in the marketing examination reports, modal verbs were found mostly in the advisory move. These observations to some extent reflect the proportions of case report text accounted for by the different rhetorical moves (see figures 14a & b, p.128).

Figure 20. Distributions of all modal verbs by broad rhetorical move in specialism-assessment category texts

(a) Marketing management continuous assessment category
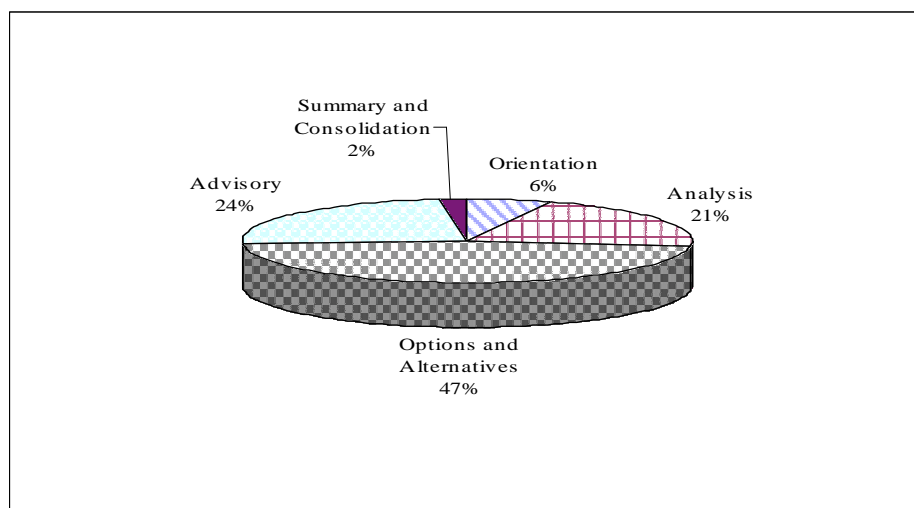
(a) Marketing examination category
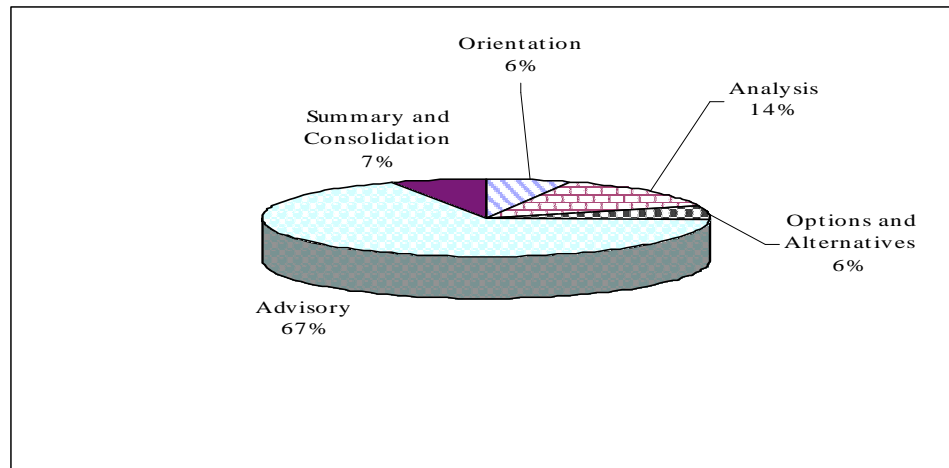
Considering the frequencies of individual modal verb deployment in the various key structural elements (figure 20), it is notable that in this combined NS-NNS and marketing management-marketing data there are, overall, high levels of *will* in introduction and executive summary structural elements, although in the latter case, as has already been discussed in section 5.4.7.1, this may be due to mistaken conceptualisation of executive summaries as introductions.

The hypothetical modals, *could* and *would* are clearly more frequent in options analysis category structural elements while the stronger, real modals, *will, should, can* appear more frequent in the 4Ps, recommendations and STP (advisory) components of the advisory move.

With regard to figure 21, it is important to recognise that the division of the overall corpus into its structural components means that the resultant modal verb frequency counts are based in relatively low text and word frequencies (for example the recommendations figure is based on 19 texts comprising 8,500 words, while the conclusions figure is determined based on 10

Figure 21. Individual modal verb frequencies in major case report structural elements (marketing and marketing management case reports - NS & NNS combined)
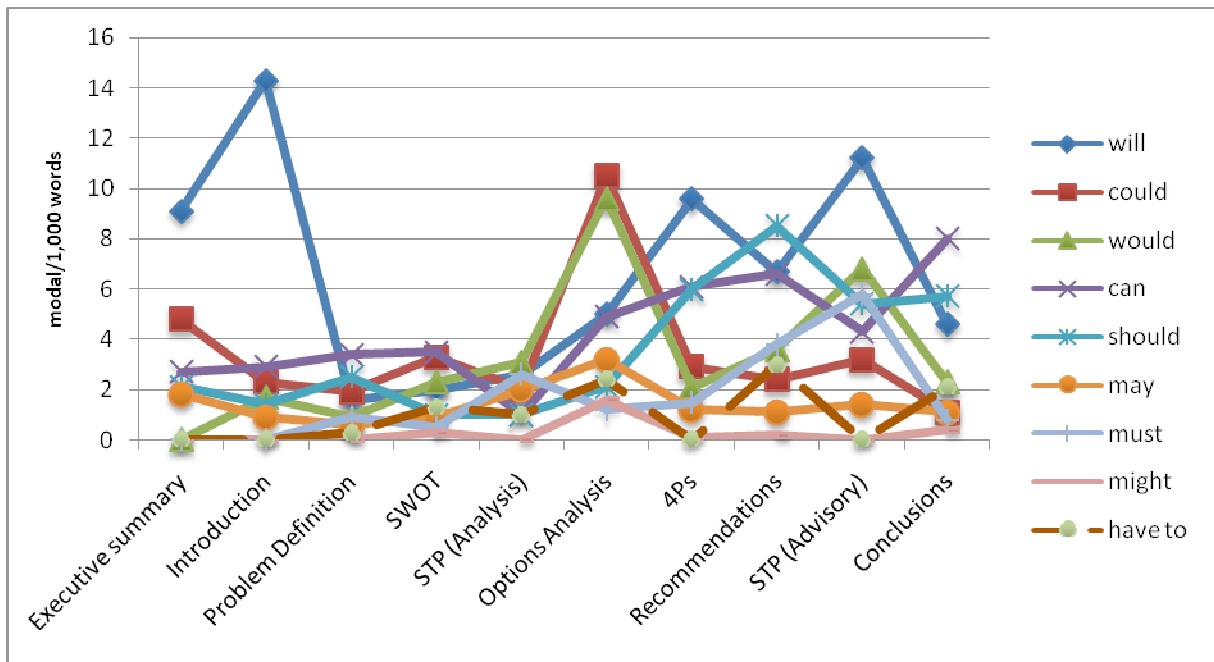
conclusion texts comprising approximately 2,600 words). A much larger corpus in terms of text number would be required in order to achieve statistical certainty in regard to interpretations generated and therefore this data needs to be treated with some caution. It is noted that with regard to the shorter texts such as the marketing text assumptions structural elements averaging 36 words per text, it would be extremely difficult to generate a large corpus in terms of word frequency.

Figures 22 – 29, show frequencies of individual modal verbs in different case report structural elements by speaker type. The modal verbs *should, can,* and *must* occur at higher frequencies in NNS advisory structural elements in comparison to NS samples, although the modal *will* was more prevalent in NS advisory elements. The data also shows that the modal *would* occurs at much higher frequencies in NS options analysis category structural elements in comparison to NNS texts, as does the modal *may*. The stronger, assertive modals, *should, can,*

must and *will* appear at higher frequencies in the NNS options sections than the NS sections.

These options and alternatives move-based text differences are discussed in chapter 6.

Figures 22 – 29 Modal verb frequencies in key NS/NNS structural elements

Figure 22 Deployment of modal verb *would* in business case report sections	Figure 23 Deployment of modal verb *could* in business case report sections
Figure 24 Deployment of modal verb *can* in business case report sections	Figure 25 Deployment of modal verb *will* in business case report sections
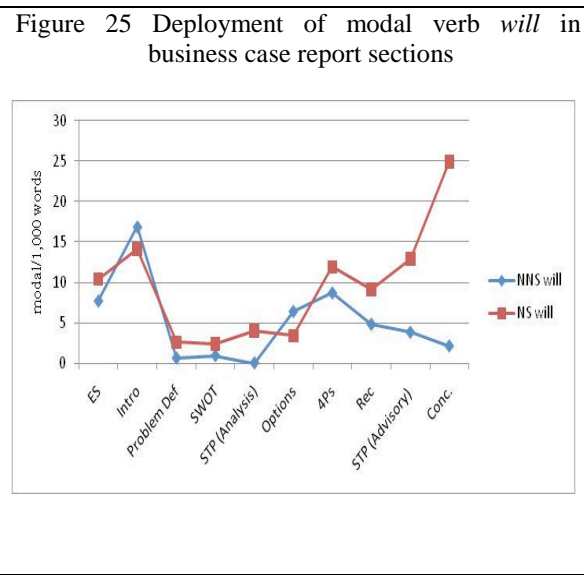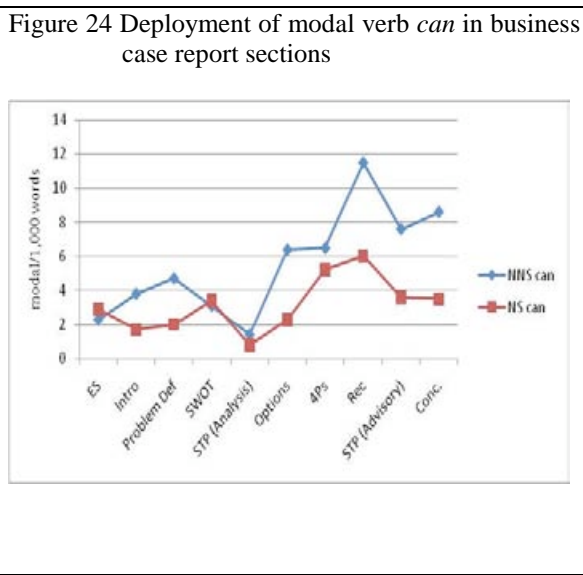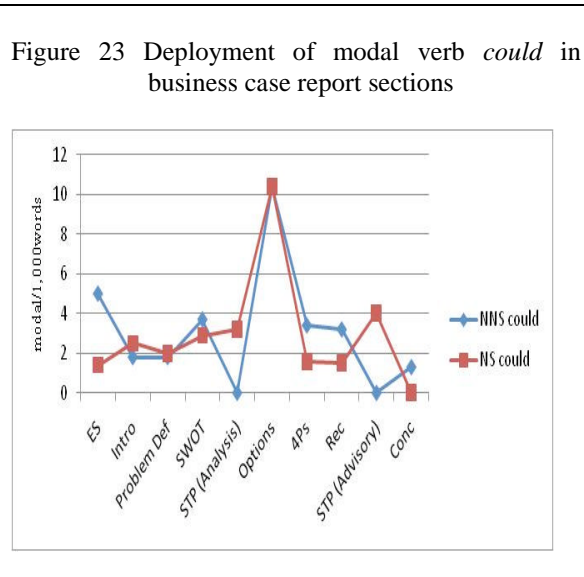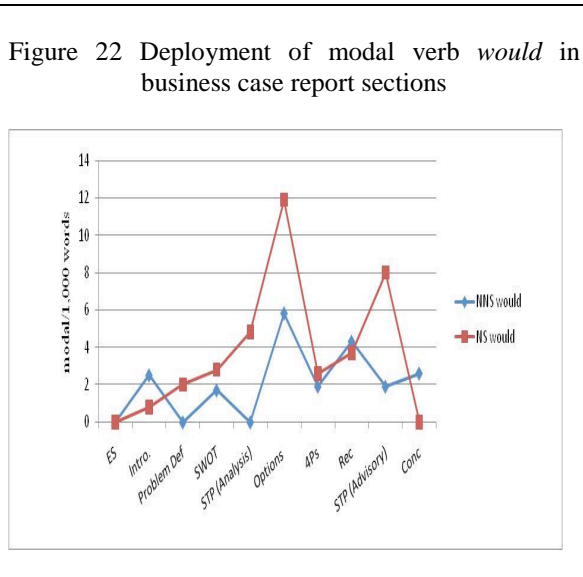
Figure 26 Deployment of modal verb *must* in business case report sections	Figure 27 Deployment of modal verb *may* in business case report sections
Figure 28 Deployment of modal verb *should* in business case report sections	Figure 29 Deployment of semi-modal verb *have to* in business case report sections
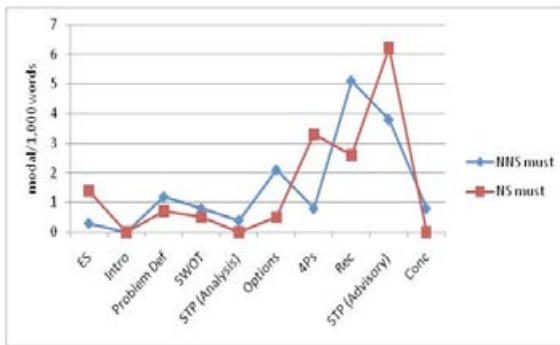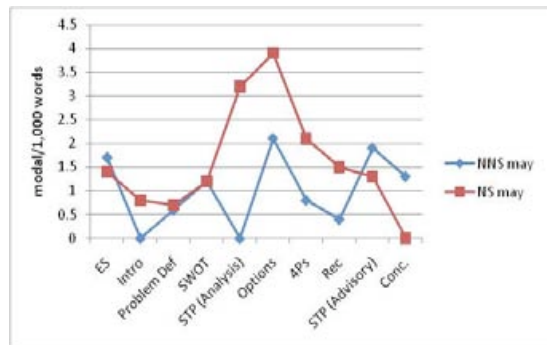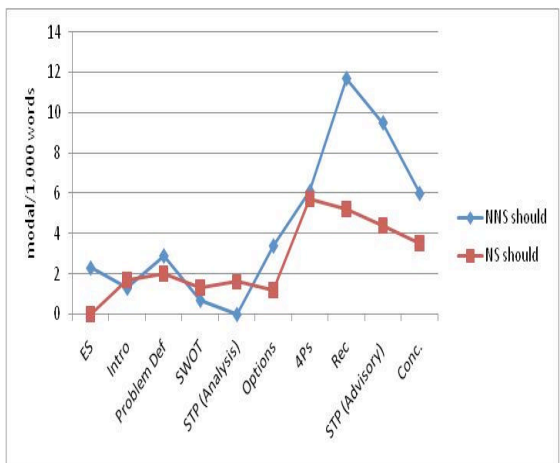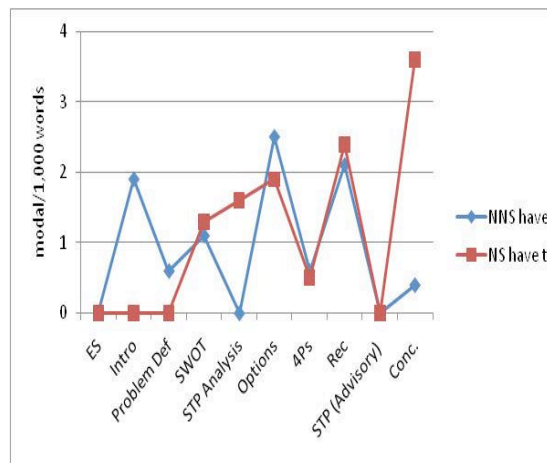
5.7.8.10 Author presence and author evacuation

Author presence may be overtly signalled in texts through the use of personal pronouns, while mechanisms for the evacuation of the author from the text include the use of nominalised phrases and empty subject 'it' phrases. All of these elements were identified in the business case reports.

Personal Pronouns

Personal pronoun deployment appeared related to speaker type and task formulation. In NS marketing examination samples, there were four uses of first person personal pronouns (0.3

occurrences per 1,000 words - all uses of *our*), whereas in NNS examination samples 228 uses of *we* and *our* were identified (9.1 occurrences per 1,000 words), and 29 uses of *I* (1.2 occurrences per 1,000 words). Log likelihood analysis identified *we* and *our* as significantly more frequent in NNS examination texts compared to NS examination texts ($p < 0.000001$)[43]. Mann-Whitney U analysis confirmed these differences as statistically significant at $p < 0.001$.

First person pronoun usage in marketing management continuous assessment reports was notably different, with 44 uses of *I* (1.1 occurrences per 1,000 words) and 23 uses of *we* (0.5) in NS reports and 46 uses of *I* (0.8) and 24 uses of *we* (1.0) in NNS reports.

One explanation for the different first person pronoun use between the different tasks, consistent with other sources of evidence in this chapter, is that NNS writers took a more literal interpretation of the roleplay situation in the marketing examination case, adopting the role of the consultant, markedly and particularly where the consultancy role was specified in the examination task rubric. Notably, in the continuous assessment corpus, where no such role was specified[44], while there were NS-NNS differences in personal pronoun use, these were not pronounced.

Supporting such an argument is the higher level of the third person plural pronoun *they* used in reference to the case company, Darling Chocolate, in the NS examination reports in comparison to the NNS reports (0.5 v 0.1 occurrences per thousand words). The use of this pronoun in reference to the case company, as determined by analysis of concordance lines, is

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[43] In one continuous assessment task in which the writer had used first person singular pronouns, the lecturer made written evaluation comments that this was not appropriate for the report task.

[44] Although the Pepcid task rubric was not available, this was certainly the case in the Baxter reports accounting for 90% of these texts.

generally indicative of student-lecturer dialogue about the company, and would not be appropriate for consultant dialogue with the company itself. The NS speakers appear therefore to focus more on the lecturer audience, acting more in the student role than that of consultant, the converse being the case for NNS students. Such an NS-NNS difference in *they* deployment was not observed in the continuous assessment reports.

Use of first person pronouns (*I, my, we, our, us*) also clearly varied between different structural elements of NNS case reports, only a single example being identified in SWOT sections, two uses in problem definition sections, but 22 instances identified in introductory elements and 50 in both the options analysis and recommendations category structural elements.

Analysis of concordance lines showed that common collocations with *we* in right position in NNS reports were the modals *will* (15 of 155 *we* occurrences)*, can* (13), *would* (8), and advisory words such as *suggest* (11), *propose* (10), and *recommend* (6). This data provides evidence of the association of *we* in these NNS samples with the provision of advice. The use of *I* in NNS samples is also associated with modals, in particular *would* (4 of 17 uses) and *will* (2 uses), with advisory *propose* (4) and *recommend* (2) also observed as collocations.

Comparison with the NS essay reference corpus, showed that first person pronouns were significantly more frequent in the case reports occurring at 0.2 occurrences per 1,000 words in the examination essay ESM-1 corpus, but at a frequency of 2.1 in the NS continuous assessment samples and 0.8 in NS examination samples. Surprisingly, the ESM-1 corpus contained examples of second person pronouns *you*, *your*, *yours* at a frequency of 1.9 occurrences per 1,000 words, while these pronouns were rare in report samples.

Nouns, noun phrases and nominalisation

The use of impersonal nouns and noun phrases in subject theme positions of sentences appeared a common feature of the business case reports. While showing significant diversity, the most common nouns and noun phrases referred to either the company, a company component or some entity associated with the company, including employees or policies and actions. Other common nouns and noun phrases included metadiscoursal references to the content of the report with 'the report' as sentence theme, or references to the purpose of the report.

Nominalisation refers to a tendency in certain forms of writing, particularly professional and academic writing, to use nouns and noun phrases in preference to verb forms. The use of nominalisation adds impersonality and objectivity to writing which is generally a requirement of professional genres.

Common nominalised forms included nouns such as *marketing, promotion, competition, relationship, development* and *distribution*. In many cases, nominalised forms comprised elements of complex noun phrases being found in titles as in the following examples:

Re-launch of the renal division's products
(sample C2J)

Summary of the marketing audit
(sample E2B)

In addition to the impersonality and objectivity conveyed by these nominalised terms, as Yeung (2007) points out, the use of these nominalised forms can be said to express a degree of expert knowledge, enhancing the professional image of the student writer.

It-phrases

It-based phrases in the form *it +to be + adjective/past participle,* such as *it is important that,* and *it is suggested that,* were common features of both NS and NNS reports. The range of these it-phrases was diverse, with more than 25 different it-phrases found in a total of 50 such phrases in NNS examination texts. While five examples of *it is recommended that,* a key advisory phrasing, were identified in NS examination samples, only a single example was identified in NNS exam texts. 44 it-phrases were identified in the NS examination texts (approximately 14,000 words), compared to the 50 identified in the NNS examination cases (25,000 words), most likely reflecting the higher level of NNS personal pronoun use in these examination texts. It-phrases were also common in NS and NNS continuous assessment reports.

5.4.7.11 Other NS-NNS grammatical and lexical differences

Comparison of item frequencies in NS and NNS marketing management continuous assessment texts using the wordsmith tools keyword function set at p values from $p < 0.01$ to $p < 0.000001$, suggested a number of possible differences between the different speaker categories in addition to those already discussed. Items of particular interest more frequent in NS texts included the words *overall, this, be,* and *within* (all identified at $p < 0.000001$), and *is, of* and *these* ($p < 0.0001$). Occurring at higher frequency in NNS texts were *its, according* ($p < 0.000001$), as well as *besides* ($p < 0.001$).

While detailed concordance analyses were not conducted, differences in frequencies of *this,* and *these* are considered likely to relate to underuse of these items as cohesive devices by NNS speakers. The higher level of use of *besides* in NNS samples is attributed to NNS

writers using this marker inappropriately as a general marker of addition[45].   It seems

reasonable to associate the use of *overall* with consolidation of arguments and evidence, with

NNS writers perhaps not deploying this lexical item for this purpose. Collocation analysis

indicates that the high level of statistical significance relating to the item *be* in NS marketing

management continuous assessment samples is linked to the use of this item with the range of

modals in phrasings such as *would be + participle* (127 collocations NS, 40 collocations

NNS) and *will be + participle* (103 collocations NS, 54 collocations NNS).

In the marketing examination case corpus at the $p < 0.000001$ level, comparing NS and NNS

samples, the only significantly frequent word not considered elsewhere in this chapter was

since acting in almost all cases as a marker of logical connection, with 49 uses in the NNS

samples but only a single use in the NS samples. No similar difference was identified in

marketing management continuous assessment samples. The reason for the extent of

difference observed with regard to *since,* between the NS and NNS marketing examination

reports is unclear and requires further study.

Comparison of marketing reports with marketing management reports showed significantly

higher levels of the items *option* and *problem* in marketing management reports at $p < 0.000001$. Further, log likelihood comparison of the NS marketing examination case reports

with NS examination essays at $p < 0.000001$ identified no items occurring at statistically

higher frequency in the case reports which were not task related or business lexis, but did

identify *example* and the indefinite article *a* as significantly more frequent in the essay texts.

Adjusting the stringency level to $p < 0.01$ identified more than 180 other items showing

statistically different frequencies between these text categories.

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[45] *besides* is appropriately used for adding points within the context of reinforcing argument (Yeung, 2007).

5.4.9 Analysis of BAWE corpus case reports

The release of the British Academic Written English corpus in early 2008, five and a half years after the commencement of this thesis study, provided a useful source of comparative case report characterisation data. This corpus contains 31 texts classified as business discipline-based case studies on the basis of common purpose, disciplinary origin and incorporation of recommendations elements. In the first instance, as an initial assumption, these case studies were considered to be equivalent to business case reports due to the presence of the advisory recommendations element and the case study designation. BAWE case reports, analysed in this chapter as determined through modular origins provided in supporting documentation, derived significantly from marketing, project management, and accounting and finance.

Based on similarities in case companies and case situations in BAWE case reports, it is assumed here that case reports analysed were generated based on supplied case materials rather than student led research and therefore represent case reports as defined in chapter 1. However, it is considered likely that realisations of these learner research-based case reports and case reports based on provided case materials would be similar to a high degree, though systematic research would be necessary to establish this.

While a detailed and complete study of these BAWE case reports is not provided here, these reports were considered important in terms of establishing the generalisability of the BCR-1 corpus analysis, and therefore a preliminary study of structural and other features of the small number of BAWE reports is presented.

5.4.9.1 Marketing case report analysis

The four BAWE marketing case reports identified are all NS reports from undergraduate year 2, approximately 3000 words long, and generated as continuous assessment reports on

marketing modules[46]. While these reports clearly comprise a low number, they do provide an initial point of comparison adding to the overall picture of marketing report characteristics and acting as a possible source of negative evidence. Report characteristics, particularly subject matter, with all reports dealing with 'sonite' and 'vodite' products, suggest that these BAWE reports originated from a single university site.

Initial report analysis suggested that tasks explicitly required roleplay in a similar manner to the BCR-1 marketing examination case reports, since title pages stated these reports were for the attention of the chief executive officer of the relevant company.

The four BAWE marketing case reports were found to share broad rhetorical move structures identified in the thesis case reports, containing orientation, situation analysis and advisory moves as well as the optional summary and consolidation, and supplementary information moves (table 11). No options and alternatives moves were identified in the four marketing reports.

All BAWE marketing reports additionally contained a section in which the student writer reflects on what they have learnt during the process of dealing with the business case. This section is considered to realise a further optional move within marketing case reports and a potential move in business case reports in general. The presence of this reflective move further illustrates the somewhat incongruous nature of case reports in terms of audience, in that two reports are marked FAO the CEO, a simulant reader, yet the reports contain reflective elements which are clearly focused on establishing the extent of learning for the case study

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[46] BAWE corpus samples examined here are 0165b, 0169c, 0193a, 0237b. Five marketing case reports within the designated business discipline area were identified in the BAWE corpus, but one report, for technical reasons, was not accessible and therefore could not be analysed. Three additional marketing case studies, two generated in engineering (0424a, 0210d) and one from publishing (3023b) are not considered in this analysis.

Table 11 Moves and structural realisations in BAWE marketing case reports[48]

Broad move	Structural realisation	Frequency (% of reports)	Broad Move	Structural réalisation	Frequency (% of reports)
Orientation	Title element	100	Options and alternatives		0
	Transmission element[49]	50	Advisory	Marketing mix/4Ps	100
	List of figures/tables	25	Summary and consolidation	Conclusion	100
	Introduction	75	Learning and evaluation		100
Analysis	Situation/ analysis	100	Supplementary supporting information	Appendix	100
	SWOT	75		References/ Bibliography	100
	Ansoff matrix	25			
	BCG matrix	25			
	Product-life cycle	25			
	Competitor analysis	50			
	Distribution	25			
	Segmentation and positioning	25			

lecturer or assessor[50]. Nevertheless this reflection move is entirely consistent with realising the persuasive communicative purpose of the business case reports described in thesis section 5.4.5 .

In terms of rhetorical move realisations in these BAWE marketing reports, an additional orientation element is also identified, namely, *lists of figures and tables*. In the situation analysis move, there is no use of PEST, Porter's five forces or problem definition, but previously unidentified realizations, the BCG matrix, product life cycle analysis and the

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[48] The table should be read in sequence of moves through orientation, analysis, options and alternatives, advisory to supplementary supporting information

[49] "FAO the Chief Executive Officer" is considered as a minimal transmission element.

[50] In a discussion with an academic business informant, the informant stated that rather than representing a roleplay, formulating questions and tasks in terms of roles was a way of adding context. This informant would not, in these tasks, expect the students to adopt the role supplied in the question.

Ansoff matrix occur. The single STP category structure (segmentation and positioning, in 0237b) focuses solely on current situation analysis. The absence of a problem definition section in the BAWE marketing reports is considered of significance and supports a suggestion that marketing cases may not follow the problem-solution pattern which has been posited elsewhere for business case reports (for example, Forman & Rymer, 1999a).

In the BAWE marketing report advisory moves there are no titled recommendations sections, nor STP sections. Surprisingly, within advisory sections of two reports, SWOT structural elements associated with situation analysis are identified, the marketing elements themselves being preceded by a separate situation analysis component. Due to the commonly recognised analytical nature of the SWOT tool, these elements are considered as misplaced as a result of writer error.

All four BAWE marketing case reports have bibliographies, two of these being lengthy (averaging around 15 sources), with reports incorporating a moderate amount of citation realised through a footnoting system. Sources cited are generally textbooks rather than journals, but notably and unexpectedly include websites such as http://marketingterms.com/dictionary, www.marketingteacher.com, and www.quickmba.com.

The higher level of citations observed in BAWE reports in comparison to thesis case reports may be partially attributable to the different university levels of the reports, with undergraduates possibly having a greater requirement to demonstrate explicit knowledge of the literature in comparison to postgraduates. However the sample size is small and other factors such as lecturer and departmental style and preference may affect citation levels.

In terms of format, lexis and style, there was significant overlap identified between the BAWE and thesis reports. As with the BCR-1 reports, the BAWE reports were divided into sections and sub-sections incorporating bulleted and numbered lists.   Eight of the ten business words identified in the top 50 most frequent lexical items in the NS examination reports from the BCR-1 corpus (*market, product, price, company, strategy, products, advertising, brand*) occurred in the top 50 in the BAWE marketing reports, with notable additional business terms frequent in the BAWE corpus being *sales, share, segment(s), growth* and *retail*. *Market* was the most frequent word in both BAWE and thesis samples.

As with the BCR-1 reports, all BAWE marketing reports were written in formal, professional style with personal pronoun frequencies low (*I* and *we* occurred at 0 and 1.1 occurrences per 1,000 words respectively, though all uses of *I* were in text 0169c) and similar, given the small sample base, to levels reported for BCR-1 samples. Specific counts were not conducted, however there appeared to be high levels of impersonal 'it' forms, noun phrases and nominalizations in the BAWE samples.

Modal verbs were substantially less frequent than in thesis marketing reports (15.7 occurrences per 1,000 words in the BAWE samples. Metaphorical uses also appeared less frequent. The most common modals in the small BAWE marketing report corpus were *should* (5.6 uses per 1,000 words), *will* (3.2) and *can* (2.2) associated with advisory elements and more real situations, with these same modal verbs being the most common in the BCR-1 NS marketing examination reports (table 10 above).

Differences in modal verb frequency between BAWE and thesis marketing reports may arise in part from differences in the balance of rhetorical moves or from varying task and writing

situations (continuous assessment v examination). Analysis of sample segments from each report showed that overall, as with the BCR-1 reports, active verb forms were predominant (87%) with present simple being the most common verb form.

Overall, the level of similarity between these BAWE marketing reports and the thesis marketing corpus reports, particularly in terms of rhetorical structure and structural realisation, but also in regard to other features, is seen as supporting the existence of a category of texts definable as marketing case reports.

5.4.9.2 Project management case report analysis

Six project management case reports[51] from the BAWE corpus were identified, all written on project management modules. These texts were analysed as a means of comparing reports across business specialisms. As with marketing case reports, the six project management cases (one NNS, five NS) all appeared to tackle the same business case task, dealing with a project relating to reorganisation in an insurance company and development of internet communications. All reports were designated as third year undergraduate reports and were continuous assessment reports but, in contrast to the vast majority of marketing reports (thesis and BAWE corpus), text showed single-spaced formatting.

As with the marketing cases, a roleplay element is signified, with title pages describing reports as written by a group leader/project leader or manager, stated as 'authorised by the operations manager' and circulated to the board of directors, and also marked confidential or highly confidential. Nevertheless, impressionistic analysis suggests diversity, with some reports overtly directed at the lecturer reader, with others showing greater focus on the simulant audience.

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[51] BAWE corpus texts 0152d, 0165c, 0169e, 0193d, 0200f, 0234a

Titled sections appear standard between reports, being highly similar or identical to the structure in figure 30.

Figure 30. Sample project management case report structure (BAWE sample 0200f)

Introduction,
The Key Project Stakeholders
The Project Aims and Objectives
Important Project Risks and Risk Management Strategies
The Project Implementation Strategy
A Recommended System for Planning and Control of Progress
Conclusion
Annex
Bibliography

Analyzing the project management texts in terms of the moves proposed for thesis case reports, while core rhetorical moves are present, there are a number of multifunctional structural elements. For example, while the introduction is clearly an orientation component, the stakeholder structure is considered to incorporate orientation and situation analysis, through identification of stakeholders and analysis of their needs and interests, but also incorporates advisory comments relating to meeting stakeholders needs. Project aims and objectives, contrasting with marketing reports, are extensive in several project management reports, and are considered as orientation elements underpinning implementation strategies.

Optional project implementation strategies are not presented within these reports and therefore there are no options and alternatives moves. Risk identification and risk management always occur in the same title, with risk identification considered to comprise situation analysis and risk management providing advice[52]. 'Project Implementation Strategy' structure and 'A Recommended System for Planning and Control of Progress' elements comprise advisory move components.

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[52] The notion of risk identification can be seen as having parallels with the identification of threats in SWOT analysis.

The optional moves of summary and consolidation (Conclusion), and supplementary supporting information (Bibliography) are also identifiable. The Annex section identified in four of the six reports represents the reflective move identified in the BAWE marketing case reports discussed in the thesis section above. Notably, none of these project management reports have executive summaries.

Citation in project management reports was rare with few citations present in the four reports where bibliographies were found. As with the BAWE and thesis reports, citations and bibliographies refer in almost all cases to textbooks, with no research papers cited.

Project management reports were visually fragmented with many sections and sub-sections as well as bulleted and numbered lists. As with the thesis and BAWE marketing reports diagrams and tables are present, however, these are heavily based in the cognitive domain of project management and substantially different from those in BCR-1 reports.

The formal, impersonal and professional style of other case reports was adopted, however, personal pronoun use was higher than was generally the case with marketing reports (*I* was found at 2.7 occurrences per 1,000 words distributed across 5 of the 6 texts, *we* 1.0 use per 1,000 words) with these pronouns concentrated in the annex comprising the reflective learning component. In other areas of the texts, impersonality through nouns, noun phrases, it-phrases and nominalizations is prominent.

Project management specialism specific language is frequent. The lexical component of the project management reports appears entirely different from the marketing case reports with

none of the top 10 business lexical items from the BAWE marketing or BCR-1 texts appearing in the top 50 most frequent items in the project management reports.

With regard to modal verbs, however, the most frequent modal verbs are, as in the BAWE marketing case reports, *will* (10.2 occurrences per 1,000 words), should (6.2) and can (3.8) with *must* present at 1.9 occurrences per 1,000 words. As with other case reports, analysis of sample segments from each report showed a predominance of active verb forms (92%) with present simple the most common verb form.

5.4.9.3 Management accounting case report analysis

The BAWE corpus also contains six management accountancy continuous assessment case reports (four NS, two NNS), of around 2000 words in length[53]. These reports were generated on several different degree programmes, and respond to three different cases, with one task (3 reports) presenting recommendations based in evaluation of provided company expansion options.

In terms of rhetorical structure, orientation moves are found in all of these case reports as are advisory and summary and consolidation moves (exemplified in figure 31 below). Situation analysis moves are identified in 0289e, 0076c and 0155c, 0289e incorporating situational financial analysis through a range of financial tools, but also the PEST and Five Forces tools identified in BCR-1 marketing reports, while 0076c and 0155c incorporate SWOT and competitor analysis components. In five of the six reports, financial analysis is conducted on pre-determined options or actions and not on 'situations'. There was no requirement in these five reports to generate options for action, and therefore no options and alternatives moves required.

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[53] BAWE corpus texts 0076c, 0155c, 0200e, 0225b, 0237c, 0289e

Two reports contained an additional structural element linked to methodology, in which the analytical financial tool itself was critiqued prior to application. These sections are interpreted as representing an additional methodology move.

Titled recommendations sections were found only in the three options analysis case reports, recommendation involving summary evaluation and selection of an option for action. Five of the six reports had titled conclusions sections. In contrast to BCR-1 reports, in two management accountancy reports, conclusions provided core advisory comment as well as consolidation, making these conclusions multi-functional and part of both advisory and summary and consolidation moves. Five reports contained appendices and three bibliographies, representing the supplementary supporting information move, though no in-text citation was identified in any report.

Figure 31. Sample management accounting structure (BAWE sample 0225b)

> *Executive summary*
> *Introduction*
> *A critique of NPV*
> *Decision making and NPV analysis*
> *Recommendation*
> *Conclusion*
> *Bibliography*

As with the marketing and project management case reports, the management accounting reports are fragmented, divided into sections and sub-sections and contain bulleted and numbered lists. Diagrams and tables are not present in the main body of most of these reports, but instead are found in appendices. Three reports used single-spaced text.

Only two of the most frequent business lexical items from the thesis marketing case reports, namely *product* and *market*, appeared in the top 50 most frequent lexical items in the

management accounting reports, while *project* from the project management reports featured in this list. This would again suggest that there is substantial difference in key lexis between business specialisms.

Modal verbs occurred at 21.5 occurrences per 1,000 words in these reports, the most frequent being *will* (6.2 occurrences per 1,000 words), *should* (4.0), *would* (3.9), *may* (3.9) and *can* (3.0). The relatively high levels of the modal verbs *would* and *may* in comparison to BAWE project management and marketing cases may stem from the options consideration in those BAWE management accounting reports where options are provided. As with BAWE corpus samples, the modal *might* was identified at notably higher frequency in NNS reports.

Style was, as with other case reports, generally impersonal and professional. First person pronouns occurred at low levels (*we* at 0.8 uses per 1,000 words; *I* at 1.1). High levels of the abbreviation *i.e.* (0.5 per thousand words) were identified, the same level as in the project management reports, and far higher than in the BAWE marketing case reports (0 uses).

5.5. Summary and discussion

Having analysed case report rhetorical structure and linguistic characteristics, this section brings together the characterisation data in order to identify general case report characteristics and area of dissimilarity within case report categories. This coalescence of data is aimed at supporting the re-purposing of communicative purposes and confirming and establishing case report genre identities, comprising the final stages of the genre analysis process (figure 8, p.57). Comparisons are also made between pedagogical business case reports and academic essays as well as workplace business reports.

5.5.1 Core characteristics of business case reports

The data presented in this chapter suggests that business case report characteristics are variable dependent on factors such as speaker type, form of assessment, specialism and task-related features. Nevertheless, the data also suggests several shared case report features.

5.5.1.1 Case report broad rhetorical structure

Business case reports in the BCR-1 corpus exhibit common broad rhetorical features, with orientation, situation analysis and advisory rhetorical moves being obligatory, and options and alternatives, summary and consolidation, and supplementary supporting information moves, being optional. This rhetorical move model is supported by the BAWE marketing report data, which however suggests an additional optional reflection move.

Both project management and management accountancy reports demonstrate obligatory orientation, analytical and advisory components, although project management reports contain structural element realisations comprising more than one function and also contain a methodology move. Further, analysis in management accountancy reports does not in all cases involve situation analysis.

An overall generalised rhetorical move structure based in both thesis and BAWE report data is shown in figure 32. Considering this model in relation to the linguistics focused business case report literature, overlap can be identified with the explicit moves in the MBA management case write-ups described by Forman and Rymer (chapter 2, p.13), such as 'making logical recommendations', 'demonstrating analytical skills' and 'proposing and analysing alternative solutions'. However, Forman and Rymer make no mention of an orientation move, although this may be attributed in part to the fact that these write-ups were a single page in length, making a complex orientation move somewhat superfluous (considering

lecturer familiarity with the case). The sample text appended to the Forman and Rymer (1999a) paper incorporates a title, which would be considered an orientation element (albeit a minimal move) in the thesis research.

Figure 32. Broad rhetorical move structure for business case reports

Orientation (obligatory)

↓

Methodology (optional)

↓

Analysis (obligatory)

↓

Options and alternatives (optional)

↓

Advisory (obligatory)

↓

Summary and consolidation (optional)

↓

Reflection (optional)

↓

Supplementary supporting information (optional)
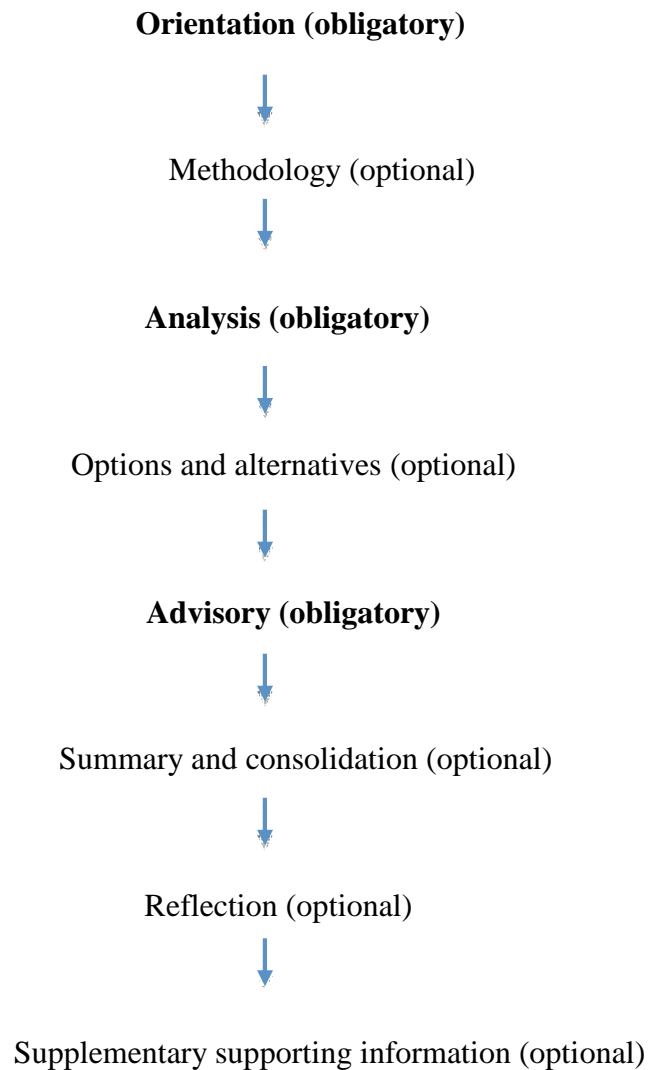
Forman and Rymer's move description (figure 1, p.13) differs from the thesis model in that it does not portray a sequence of moves. While acknowledging the presence of some multifunctional rhetorical components which might account for a non-sequential model, such a sequence is seen as being the general overall pattern within the thesis and BAWE case

reports. It is noted with regard to the Forman and Rymer model that is challenging to distinguish actions described from the stated moves themselves.

The core rhetorical moves identified within the current thesis are also consistent with those identified by Freedman *et al.,* (1994) in financial case reports, where analysis and recommendation are reported components, as well as executive summaries, comprising an element of orientation[54].

Comparison of the generalised rhetorical structure model with the structural models described by academics in the business discipline (chapter 2) shows both similarities and differences. Gist's (1972) model seems limited, not accounting for non-problem-based case reports, and lacks sufficient detail to enable detailed comparison. Mauffette-Leender *et al's* (1997) model (chapter 2, figure 3) significantly matches the broad thesis rhetorical structure description with orientation, analysis, options and alternatives and advisory moves identifiable, as well as the supplementary supporting information move (realised through *exhibits*). Easton's five case report structures (chapter 2, figure 2) are all considered to overlap with the proposed case report model, with structures 4 & 5 following the basic move structure, but with structural sub-titles and titles representing what have been described above as alternative approaches to structuring. Interestingly, the additional BAWE corpus reflection and methodology moves are not mentioned in any academic business focused case report source.

5.5.1.2 Broad rhetorical move realisation

The similarity and variability of rhetorical move realisations in terms of structural elements across different report types is illustrated by the BCR-1 corpus move realisations shown in table 12 considered in combination with the BAWE marketing report realisations (table 11).

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[54]Analytical, options and alternatives and advisory moves can be identified in the requirements of MBA managing organisational behaviour reports described by Raymond and Parks (2002). Student texts were not analysed and it seems reasonable to consider that actual texts would have contained orientation moves.

Table 12. Frequencies of BCR-1 corpus structural elements (% case reports by task and assessment type)

Broad move	Structural realisation category	Continuous asessment task 1 (Baxter)	Continuous assessment task 2 (Pepcid)	Examination task (Darling Chocolate)
Orientation	Title element	100	100	100
	Transmission element[55]	4	0	24
	Executive summary	54	67	28
	Contents	32	67	8
	Introduction	73	67	40
	Objectives	4	66	80
	Assumptions	0	0	36
Situation analysis	SWOT	100	67	52
	Competitor analysis	4	33	24
	Porter's five forces	0	67	44
	PEST	0	0	28
	Problem definition	72	33	0
	STP (analytical)	39	0	0
Options and alternatives	Options analysis	79	33	12
Advisory	Marketing mix/strategy (4Ps)	8	33	96
	STP (advisory)[56]	48	0	72
	Recommendations	80	67	32
	Implementation	0	0	16
	Control	0	0	16
	Evaluation	4	0	25
Summary and consolidation	Conclusion	32	33	28
Supplementary supporting information	Appendix	16	33	0
	References/Bibliography	4	67	0

In terms of the orientation move, common realisations identified across thesis and BAWE corpus reports include title elements and introductions. Objectives components were common but only identified in marketing and project management reports (though substantially different in characteristics) while executive summaries were identified in all report specialisms with the exception of project management reports.

Problem definition structural elements were only identified in marketing management reports, contradicting literature reports of problem-solution structures as key in case reports (for

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[55] All NNS

[56] This STP advisory percentage, as in other relevant counts, excludes the two STP components which deal with options. A 10% level of occurrences within a specialist-assessment category was set at the outset of this chapter as the basis for allocating recognising structural elements as components of a move. However, it seems clear that STP and its components can exist within a range of functional contexts.

example, Forman & Rymer, 1999a). Recommendations structural elements, conclusions as well as appendices and bibliographies, were found across report specialisms, though recommendations structural elements were only identified at low frequency in marketing case reports. Appendices and bibliographies occurred across specialisms but only in continuous assessment reports. Variation in analytical move realisations was substantial across case report types, although SWOT analyses were identified in marketing, marketing management and management accounting reports. Variability in rhetorical realisation is discussed in relation to specialism, speaker type and other factors in sections 5.5.2 to 5.5.4 below.

5.5.1.3 Style and form

In terms of format, case reports in the thesis and BAWE business corpora, whether continuous assessment or examination generated, have been shown in this chapter to be fragmented in nature, containing sections and sub-sections with bulleted and numbered lists being frequent features.

The low levels of literature citation generally identified distinguish business case reports from standard notions of academic writing, with the vast majority of BCR-1 corpus reports having no literature citation, though with a more mixed picture in the BAWE reports, citation levels in this small sample of reports appearing dependent on business specialism and possibly level of study (for example undergraduate v postgraduate).

In thesis marketing and marketing management case reports, the general absence or low levels of citation may be largely explained by the fact that these reports use commonly used tools and frameworks, not requiring citation, or may be viewed by lecturers as practically based simulations of action-focused workplace reports, in which citations are not found. The key

source of supporting information in thesis case reports is not the research literature, but the case materials.

While the BAWE corpus reports were not subject to detailed analysis in this respect, business writing within the BCR-1 corpus marketing and marketing management case reports was identified as generally assertive in nature, operating within an 'aggressive', male idiom, exemplified through the use of metaphor relating to war and conflict. Language use in thesis reports involved some use of strong or extreme lexis. Non-modal verb boosters occurred more frequently than comparable hedges, with analysis of modal verbs as boosters and hedges supporting comparatively higher levels of booster deployment.

The use of strong statements by thesis case report writers may serve a number of overlapping functions, including acting as effective persuasion within the particular academic business context (conforming to an assertive business culture) and facilitating a claim to community membership by reflecting the type of language used by lecturers themselves. Such statements may also act as routes to reader interest and attention.

The low levels of first person pronouns generally observed in both BCR-1 and BAWE reports, the use of nouns and noun phrases in sentence theme positions, nominalisation and the use of 'it' phrases reflect an impersonal, professional business case report style, characteristic of analytical exposition (Martin, 1989 cited in Yeung, 2007). However, reflective move texts in BAWE reports showed relatively higher levels of first person pronoun usage. Passive voice usage was not frequent in thesis case reports, constituting approximately 10% of verb forms in analysed sections. Lexis in all case reports is generally of academic and professional register, although on occasion colloquial lexis was identified. Business lexis

relevant to marketing was, unsurprisingly, a frequent feature of marketing management and marketing case reports, however, project management and management accounting reports contained fundamentally different specialism-dependent lexical content.

5.5.1.4 Author roles

A requirement to adopt a consultancy role appears a common though not universal component of business case report tasks. Writers in the thesis examination marketing assignments were required to act as consultants delivering a report to the managing director and company board of the consultancy company. Text elements identified in BAWE reports support the presence of requirements to act in explicit role in some assignment tasks. This requirement for explicit role adoption is consistent with claims in several literature sources (chapter 2). In the thesis marketing management task however, no such explicitly stated role was identified.

In general, in the thesis samples, writers, rather than adopting an explicit consultancy role, appeared to act in their 'real' role as students addressing a lecturer audience. This was considered to be evidenced through low levels of first person pronoun use, absence of superfluous transition elements and other features, which are considered in further detail in the following section within the context of NS and NNS report comparison.

5.5.2 Comparison of NS and NNS case reports

Identification of differences between NS and NNS writers was seen as a source of possible insights into those areas where NNS writers might need linguistic development. This comparison relies on the assumption of NS writing as representing a standard which, in general, NNS writers should aim to achieve. Such an assumption was not entirely supported by case report analysis, being particularly apparent in respect of executive summary writing,

where NNS executive summaries in the BCR-1 corpus were generally more conventionally structured than those of NS writers.

The current section summarises similarities and differences between the BCR-1 corpus NS and NNS reports, there being insufficient comparative data available from the BAWE reports. Pedagogical implications of the similarities and differences identified are considered in the discussion and conclusions chapter 8.

5.5.2.1 NS-NNS report rhetorical structure and structural realisation

Significant similarities were observed between NS and NNS thesis reports, in particular with regard to broad move structure and structural realisations of these moves. All NS and NNS samples contained orientation, situation analysis and advisory moves with the only move frequency difference considered noteworthy relating to the summary and consolidation move (39% NNS v 18% NS).

In terms of move realisations, use of SWOT in the analytical move of the Baxter marketing management reports, for example, and 4Ps sections in the advisory move of marketing examination reports, were common in both NS and NNS samples. Higher use of analytical Porter's Five Forces, PEST, and recommendations structures were observed in NS marketing examination case reports, while transmission elements were only identified in NNS samples.

5.5.2.2 NS –NNS report variation related to author roles

An important NS-NNS difference was the greater emphasis that NNS writers placed on the consultancy roleplay aspect of case report writing in response to the marketing examination task, which specified an explicit writer consultancy role. NS writers focused more on the epistemic text function and the lecturer audience. This difference was evidenced by high levels of first person pronoun use by NNS writers, the observation that more than 20% of

NNS but no NS writers used transmission elements, and the fact that NNS writers used lower levels of the company identifying pronoun *they* taken as generally signalling a student-lecturer (or possibly consultant-consultancy partner) rather than a consultant-company relationship[59]. In the marketing management task where no explicit role requirement was stated in the task rubric, NS-NNS differences in pronoun and transmission element features were not observed.

NS writers in examination reports also tended to abbreviate company names more frequently than NNS writers, possibly reflecting an NS conceptualisation of the report as requiring a lower level of formality than might be required in a workplace business report generated by consultants.

While it seems clear that in the examination marketing case many NS writers appeared to place greater emphasis on dialogue with the lecturer in comparison to NNS writers, there is insufficient evidence to suggest that by emphasising this roleplay, NNS students harmed their performance. The 17 NNS examination texts in this study achieved marks of more than 60%, a significant majority of these containing use of personal pronouns associated with the consultancy roleplay   It seems reasonable to suggest that relevant assessment goals are being achieved whichever emphasis is adopted, however a more concrete conclusion would require analysis of samples of all grades and percentages. At the most, the 'unnecessary' but short transmission elements would serve as a distraction from achieving relevant purposes, and represent inefficient use of limited time.

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[59]   Although use of this pronoun could be considered as directed at the consultancy partners mentioned as audience in the case task, given the epistemic nature of the texts it seems more likely that the lecturer is seen as the audience.

5.5.2.3 NS-NNS text levels in examination reports

As reported in section 5.4.6 of this chapter, NS writers produced significantly more text in the examination reports than NNS writers. This lower level of text production in examination writing suggests that examinations, as opposed to continuous assessment tasks, may disadvantage NNS students in terms of assessing their subject-specific abilities as, other abilities being assumed equal, linguistic challenges would appear to be resulting in lower levels of text, and possibly, as a consequence, lower levels of examination performance.

5.5.2.4 NS-NNS modal verb usage

While few statistically significant differences were identified between NS and NNS users in terms of individual modal deployment or overall, NS writers were found to use significantly higher levels of *would* compared to NNS writers, though statistically significant difference was not identified in marketing examination texts.

These observations are attributed in part to the high level of options and alternative moves in marketing management continuous assessment reports compared to marketing examination reports, and the higher frequencies of *would* in the NS options and alternative move compared to the NNS equivalent (figure 22). This difference is also seen as linked to the clausal function roles supported by *would.* These clausal functions are analysed in thesis chapter 6.

With regard to other modal verbs, *could, may* and *must,* were found to be deployed significantly more frequently by NS writers compared to NNS writers in the marketing examination case reports. The differences in *could* and *may* frequencies might be attributed to a preference for modal verbs expressing higher levels of certainty by NNS writers (Hu *et al.*, 1982, Hyland & Milton, 1997), however, the fact that such a significant difference was not

observed in comparison of NS and NNS marketing management continuous assessment reports indicates the likely influence of rhetorical or clausal functions on these modal levels[60].

Possible explanations for the higher NS deployment of the certainty modal *must*, an observation inconsistent with a 'modal strength' explanation, are considered most likely to lie in the higher levels of *must* in NS 4Ps advisory structural elements (figure 26) and greater NS use of this modal as an epistemic marker supporting specific clausal functions (described further in chapter 6).

5.5.2.5 NS-NNS deployment of hedges and boosters

The analysis of hedge and booster frequencies in section 5.4.8.7 which excludes modal verb realisations of the hedging and boosting functions, suggests that both of these marker types are used at slightly higher frequencies by NS writers compared to NNS writers. This observation is supported by examination of the *could, may* and *must* modal verb frequencies discussed in section 5.5.2.4 above and the modal verb frequencies presented in tables 9 and 10 of this chapter, where higher levels of modal verbs considered as boosters and hedges are also observed in NS reports[61].

These observations can be contrasted with the qualification and certainty related literature which suggests comparatively higher levels of qualification in NS writing compared to NNS writing, though not higher levels of boosting, which is considered characteristic of NNS

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[60] However, *could* and *may* deployment still occurred at slightly higher levels in NS marketing management case reports compared to NNS (6.1 occurrences per thousand words NS v 5.9 for NNS). Further, considering all NS and NNS samples, *could* and *may* occurred at higher frequency in NS compared to NNS samples (6.0 occurrences per thousand words NS v 4.6 for NNS).

[61] Deriving from tables 9 and 10, in addition to the data for the key modal hedges *could* and *may* shown in footnote 60, which illustrate the higher level of these hedging modal verbs in NS case report samples, combining frequency data for the key certainty (booster) modal verbs *will, must,* and *should,* shows a level of 12.6 occurrences per thousand words for all NS reports and 8.7 for NNS. Higher levels of these booster modal verbs are found in both marketing management continuous assessment and marketing examination reports.

writing (Allison, 1982, Hyland & Milton, 1997). However, the published research in this area is based in essay writing (and in the case of Hyland and Milton, in school leaver rather than university essays) rather than case report writing. Further, concordance analyses were not conducted to confirm the functions performed by thesis modal verbs. It is likely that in some instances these modals were not performing a qualification or certainty function. Overall, however it appears that NS writers are modifying their statements more frequently than NNS writers with both qualification and boosting markers.

5.5.2.6 Other NS-NNS report features

In terms of other grammatical items, NNS writers made less use of definite pronouns linked to cohesion, *this*, and *these* as well as *be, is, of* and *within* but used *its* at higher levels than NS writers (see section 5.4.7.11). In the marketing examination samples, lower levels of *it-phrases* were identified in NNS samples, a feature which may be linked to the increased use of personal pronouns in these reports. However, in the continuous assessment reports, levels of it-phrase were also notably lower in NNS samples.

As noted in section 5.4.8, while there were similarities in lexis deployed by NS and NNS writers, a number of lexical frequency differences were also observed, in particular relating to the marketing items *price, promotion, customers and marketing* and the more grammatical items *according,* and *besides*, found at higher levels in NNS samples. Business related items including *benefits*, *area*, *number* and *staff,* were found at higher levels in NS reports, as was the summary and consolidation marker *overall*.

Diagrams and tables were also found to be twice as common in NNS samples than NS samples. These diagrams would provide a means by which NNS writers can provide clear

explanation and avoid time-consuming and challenging text generation in business case reports.

No notable differences in addition to those regarding modal verb deployment were identified in relation to verb forms, and use of active or passive voice nor were differences in the extent of ellipsis or citation identified between NS and NNS report samples.

5.5.3 Comparison of case reports by specialism and task

Thesis case report samples originated from a single MSc marketing programme but derived from two modules, marketing management, and e-commerce and marketing, and three tasks (table 1 in this chapter). Marketing and marketing management were considered to constitute separate but related business specialisms, a contention evidenced by comments from two business academics who identified marketing management as existing as a sub-discipline within the marketing discipline. The existence of these two related but distinct entities was also supported by analysis of core programme texts which provide related but distinct definitions for marketing management and marketing (Kotler *et al*., 2005, Kotler *et al.,* 2009). BAWE corpus reports derived from the specialisms of marketing, project management and management accounting.

The linking of variable case report characteristics to particular business specialisms was not a straightforward process. Within both thesis and BAWE corpus texts, report variation might be attributed to speaker type, task and other variables, each comprising potential confounding factors, with BCR-1 corpus variability also attributable to form of assessment. Given the possible confounding influences on specialism-grounded analysis of text variability, interpretation was required when linking variation to different variables. Specialism and task-

based variable based differences are considered in this section while assessment-form based variability is discussed in section 5.5.4 below.

5.5.3.1 Specialism and task-based variation in rhetorical move structure and move realisation

Comparing the BCR-1 corpus report data from the two thesis business specialism-assessment type categories demonstrates substantial differences in the levels of rhetorical components, a number of which are considered embedded in specialism (table 13).

Table 13. Percentage frequencies of rhetorical moves in BCR-1 corpus reports by specialism

Broad rhetorical move	Marketing management (%)	Marketing (%)
Orientation	100	100
Situation analysis	100	100
Options and alternatives	79	12
Advisory	100	100
Summary and consolidation	32	28
Supplementary supporting information	21	0

Clearly the options and alternatives move and supplementary information moves are more frequent in the Baxter marketing management reports. In terms of extent, as shown in figures 13a and b, the analytical move in the marketing management case reports is also notably more extensive than in the marketing case reports with the advisory move is more extensive in the marketing reports. In regard to optional move frequencies in the BAWE corpus case report texts, the data sample within each specialist category is too small within each specialist

category to enable comparison, although the data showed no options and alternatives moves in the BAWE specialist areas[62].

In terms of variability in structural realisation of moves, as can be seen from table 12, the marketing mix (4Ps) realisation of the advisory move, as well as the Porter's five forces and PEST tools realisation of the analytical move, were substantially more common in the thesis marketing examination reports compared to the thesis marketing management reports, with recommendations structures more common in the marketing management reports, while problem definition, realising part of the analytical move, was not identified in the marketing case reports.

In addition, within the BCR-1 corpus, objectives elements and assumptions elements occurred at substantially higher frequencies in the orientation move of the marketing case reports compared to the marketing management reports and BAWE specialism reports, while executive summaries were more frequent in the marketing management case reports[63]. STP, in its overall analytical form was only identified in the marketing management continuous assessment reports and BAWE marketing examination reports, occurring in its advisory form in the marketing examination case reports.

Further, in the BAWE marketing report, structural element realisation of the analytical move, while sharing commonalities including realisations such as SWOT and competitor analysis, was noticeably different from that in the corpus marketing examination reports incorporating Ansoff's matrix, BCG and Product Life Cycle, these differences considered to most likely

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[62] Considering move frequencies in the three Pepcid marketing management continuous assessment reports, the data sample is of insufficient size to draw general conclusions about the rhetorical structure of these texts as specialist marketing management texts, though all of the six thesis corpus moves are clearly present across these samples.

[63] This is attributed to the assessment type rather than task or specialism.

originate in task differences. The small sample of BAWE reports from project management and management accounting showed major differences from each other and from marketing and marketing management case reports in terms of structural realisation of the analytical move, while exhibiting more generalised move realising sections such as introductions, recommendations and appendices, although project management reports did not have executive summaries.

The key question in this section however, regards to what extent observed rhetorical move and realisation differences should be attributed to specialism or task. It is proposed here that, considering marketing management and marketing reports from the BCR-1 corpus data (but also supported by the BAWE marketing report data), deployment of the advisory move realised through 4Ps-marketing mix structural elements is characteristic of marketing case reports and less characteristic of marketing management case reports, and similarly, recommendations structural elements are more generally characteristic of marketing management case reports.

In support of this assertion, in addition to the BCR-1 corpus data and BAWE marketing case data, it is noted that in the core marketing textbook *Principles of Marketing* (Kotler *et al.,* 2005), more than 350 pages are dedicated to the 4Ps marketing mix, while in the parallel textbook *Marketing Management* (Kotler *et al.,* 2009), only minor attention, in the form of a disparate five pages, is paid to the marketing mix and its components. This difference in emphasis seems highly likely to be reflected in the observed 4Ps deployment variation between marketing and marketing management case reports. The data sample for the Pepcid case is however, not entirely consistent with this interpretation, nevertheless, as already

stated, the Pepcid sample size is small (only three case reports) and therefore cannot be used to support significant structural generalisations.

It is also considered likely that the development of marketing strategies in marketing case tasks based around the 4Ps does not generally require problem definition, and further, that options and alternatives consideration, at least in terms of the presence of distinct structural elements and moves, is in practical terms difficult to implement within the context of 4Ps based marketing strategy development. Writers in the examination marketing cases, though instructed in the task rubric to present consideration of options did not generally do this. This absence of consideration is attributed to the difficulty in marrying options analysis and the 4Ps[64].

It would seem possible that the higher level of options and alternatives moves in marketing management reports is linked to specialism, although this is considered as a tentative possibility at this stage requiring additional data for confirmation. Lecturer preference for options consideration may also influence the frequency of the options move.

In the absence of a broad range of case report samples based in varying case tasks within each specialism, it is difficult to attribute variation in report rhetorical structure and move realisation to specific case tasks, even though it would seem likely that variable task formulation within the same specialist context can lead to differences in deployment of moves and move realisations.

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[64] This phenomenon may also have been contributed to by the examination situation, in which examinees may be more focused on generating correct solutions than considering options which they may have to discard.

5.5.3.2 Specialism and task-based lexical variation

Lexical variation seen as linked to specialism includes lexis tied to structural elements which are more frequent in particular specialist case reports. For example the lexical items *promotion, 4Ps,* and *marketing mix* are more frequent in marketing case reports, this higher frequency interpreted as originating in the presence of these items in the 4Ps marketing mix structural elements found at high frequency in the marketing case reports, but at much lower frequency in marketing management reports and absent from project management and management accounting reports. The lexical items *options* and *problem* were found at higher frequencies in marketing management reports compared to marketing and other reports due to their presence in the high frequency marketing management options and problem definition structural elements. The lexical item *stakeholder* is clearly integral to stakeholder analysis sections in project management case reports, as is NPV to NPV related structural elements in the management accounting reports.

Comparing across the BAWE and BCR-1 corpus specialisms, lexical differences appear profound between project management, management accounting and the two marketing based specialisms, with this lexis substantially differentiating these specialist texts. As presented in the discussion of lexis in project management and management accounting, few of the top 50 business lexical items identified in the marketing and marketing management case reports were found in project management and management accountancy reports.

With regard to clear task-based differences, as would be expected, topic-dependent lexis was observed in the different BCR-1 corpus tasks. Pharmaceutical products and systems were mentioned in the Baxter pharmaceutical marketing management case as against lexis relating to chocolate products and the confectionery market in the Darling marketing strategy case.

Different geographical locations were mentioned in these two different case reports originating in the differing case data.

5.5.3.3 Task formulation and personal pronoun use

As discussed in section 5.5.2.2, first person pronoun use amongst NNS thesis report writers appeared to be influenced by whether the task rubric specified a requirement for the adoption of a consultancy role, substantially higher personal pronoun frequencies being identified in the role-specifying marketing case, compared to the marketing management continuous assessment task where no such role was required.

5.5.3.4 Modal verb deployment, task and specialism

Specialism-dependent variation in modal verb deployment consequent on variable rhetorical structure and move realisation has been identified for the BCR-1 corpus reports in this chapter. The low frequency of options and alternative moves in the marketing specialism reports seems certain to be a contributory factor to the significantly lower frequencies of usage, compared to the marketing management reports, of the modals *would* and *could*. As shown in table 12, the options and alternatives move was frequent, and also extensive (figures 14b) in marketing management reports with high frequencies of *would* and *could* occurrence identified in options and alternatives moves (figures 22 and 23). Similarly the modals *will, can* and *should,* associated with the advisory move are more frequent in the marketing case reports in which the advisory move, through the 4Ps framework, is more extensive than in the marketing management case reports (figures 14a & b).

The overall higher frequency of the 'certainty' modal verbs *must* and *have to* in NNS marketing management continuous assessment texts compared to NNS marketing reports was

unexpected in terms of a specialism and rhetorical move based explanation, as the proportion of advisory text is higher in the marketing examination samples, and therefore there would be an expectation that levels of these modals, associated with the assertiveness and certainty required for such advisory function, would be deployed more frequently in the marketing reports. Higher levels of recommendations structural elements are found in the marketing management case reports, and if use of *must* and *have to* is associated with recommendations based advice in NNS samples in particular, but not advice mediated through the 4Ps, as perhaps is suggested by figure 26 in this chapter for *must*, then the prevalence of 4Ps elements in the examination samples, provides a possible explanation of the NNS differences in *must* deployment between the different specialism based tasks.

The higher frequencies of the modal verbs *would* and *may* observed in management accounting case reports in comparison to BAWE project management and marketing reports may arise from options consideration in three of the BAWE management accounting reports, where options are provided, nevertheless this variation may be more closely tied to the particular task rather than the relevant specialism.

Overall, the evidence presented supports the existence of specialism-based variation in case report language and structure. Nevertheless it is also noted that the comparison between reports in the different specialisms is based on data from a limited number of BAWE and thesis tasks and reports . A more extensive corpus covering a wider range of tasks, levels and other factors within the different specialisms would be necessary to confirm the extent of specialism and task-based differences.

5.5.4 Comparison of case reports by assessment type

Based in the BCR-1 corpus report data, in addition to variation in format and layout (section 5.4.8.1), exemplified by bulleted and numbered lists in examination case reports with higher levels of continuous text in continuous assessment reports, a number of other text differences can be ascribed to assessment type.

Perhaps unsurprisingly, significant differences in case report word length were identified between examination and continuous assessment reports with the former significantly shorter due to examination time constraints. As already discussed in section 5.5.3.1, supplementary supporting information moves (realised through bibliographies and appendices) were absent from examination case reports with these moves clearly inappropriate or impossible to apply in examination conditions. For similar reasons, absent in almost all examination texts were contents pages, present at substantially higher frequencies in continuous assessment reports.

Executive summary texts occurred at higher levels in continuous assessment samples (58%) compared to examination samples (28%). Since executive summaries would contain information repeated in the main report text, the value of including such summaries within time constrained examinations would seem questionable, even though such texts may be conventional in report writing.

In terms of other differences based in assessment type, the use of higher levels of bulleted, short point lists in the examination texts was linked to a notably higher frequency of grammatical elision in the examination tasks. Further differences identified related to the use of symbols such as +, or arrows, dashes, with these again being more frequent in the examination time-pressured tasks.

Overall, differences in specific case report features can clearly be linked to assessment form. This is an observation which impinges on the description and definition of genres, and therefore will be mentioned further in the final section of this thesis.

5.5.5 Comparison of marketing essays and marketing case reports

Analysis of NS marketing essays and NS marketing case reports revealed a number of clear linguistic differences. Examination essays were written in continuous text while, case reports were fragmented with frequent sections, sub-sections and bulleted and numbered lists. Essay texts were, in almost all cases devoid of diagrams and tables, while these were frequent in case report texts.

A systematic rhetorical analysis of the NS marketing essay texts was not carried out, however these texts clearly did not follow a pattern of sequential rhetorical moves in the same manner as the case report texts. Unsurprisingly, no situational contextualisation was provided in essay task rubrics, nor was any requirement for roleplay identifiable in essay task rubrics.

While overall use of modal verbs did not occur at significantly different levels between these text classes, *will* was identified at higher frequencies in the marketing examination case report texts, while both *can* and *would* were significantly more prevalent ($p < 0.05$) in the essay texts. These observed differences require further investigation, however preliminary analysis suggested that, in contrast to the case report functions identified, in the essay texts *can* was associated with statements of general truth.

No statistically significant differences in use of hedges and boosters was identified between essays and case reports. The fact that boosters appeared at slightly higher levels compared to

hedges in the examination texts was unexpected, since it was anticipated that essays would contain more qualification, with higher levels of hedging and lower levels of boosters. One explanation for the high levels of boosters in marketing essays could be that an assertive voice is a characteristic of the marketing specialism, where the necessity to engage in promotion may mitigate against the development of a more qualified approach to opinion giving as might be found in other academic specialisms.

5.5.6 Pedagogical business case reports and workplace business reports

The purpose of pedagogical business case reports has been described as epistemic, with these texts seen as not constituting useful preparation for workplace report writing (Freedman *et al.,* 1994, Freedman & Adam, 1996). However, academics in the business specialism describe pedagogical texts as being simulations (for example Maufette-Leenders *et al.,* 1997). This section compares linguistics features of pedagogical business case reports and workplace business reports in order to further examine the extent to which case reports can be seen as useful simulations, and to establish the extent of difference and similarity between these report types.

5.5.6.1 Comparison of rhetorical structure

The functionally based move structure proposed for the pedagogical business case reports shows both similarities and differences with the workplace business report model proposed by Yeung (2007) (chapter 2, p.19 - 20).

As with most pedagogical report types described in this chapter, Yeung's workplace reports contained executive summaries, introductions and statements of objectives, all of this content being consistent with the pedagogical report orientation move. Further, approximately a third of Yeung's reports contained titled recommendations sections, comprising an equivalent to

the pedagogical report advisory move[65]. All but two of the remainder of Yeung's workplace reports contained recommendations, however these were seemingly situated within multifunctional topical sections. Such a difference indicates significant variability within Yeung's business report corpus.

Focusing on these topical sections, Yeung describes these as variable but frequently containing three step move cycles of findings, conclusion/interpretation then recommendations. The findings move is described as involving data presentation. Findings are interpreted in this thesis as being equivalent to the analysis function described in the thesis rhetorical model, in which data, for example generated through SWOT or other analytical tools, is presented. However, the key analytical tools of SWOT, STP category (analytical), PEST, and Porter's Five forces deployed in the thesis pedagogical corpus reports, as well as the SWOT and other tools such as the Ansoff and BCG matrices identified in BAWE marketing reports, are to all intents and purposes, single function analytical (findings) structural elements generally containing no interpretation or recommendation. The use of these single function analytical structural elements rather than multifunctional topic based sections indicates a significant point of difference between the pedagogical BCR-1 corpus and workplace business reports.

While component structural elements in pedagogical reports have been found to largely fulfil single specific rhetorical functions and moves, structural elements in the pedagogical business case reports in this study did, in a number of cases contain variable functional content (for example, 4Ps elements on a small number of occasions containing options discussion as well as recommendations and the BAWE stakeholder structural components containing

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[65] 19 workplace reports contained clear recommendations, though it is unclear in which structural contexts these recommendations appeared. Other advisory-focused structures may have been deployed.

orientation, analysis and advisory comment). Further, the STP framework was found to support both advisory and situation analytical functions in pedagogical reports, both in separate reports but also within individual STP sections where recommendations could be made. Nevertheless, the broad functional rhetorical model is considered as most generally valid considering the structural data overall, in which analytical and other data is generally generated in separate report components from those providing advice and recommendation.

Interestingly, Yeung states the presence of the multi-functional topic-based elements accounts for the absence of discussion sections in workplace reports and the frequent absence of conclusion sections (identified in only 18% of workplace reports). However, in the pedagogical business case reports, generally lacking such multi-functional topical sections, conclusions structural elements occurred in only approximately 30% of samples. This suggests that rather than being a consequence of multi-functional topic-based components, the low level of conclusions elements may reflect a requirement in both text type categories to focus on advice and recommendations, with less of a requirement for consolidating conclusion sections.

Further contrasting with Yeung's description of workplace reports, the pedagogical case reports lack the discussion of general models or principles of practice and application found in the workplace reports, nor are there surveys of best practice in other companies conducted in order to underpin the advice provided in the case report. Instead analytical tools, studied during the course programme, are employed to identify key ideas and information relevant to supporting the advisory function.

A further observation comparing the case and workplace report structures is that no equivalent

element or function to the pedagogical report options and alternatives analysis is referred to in the Yeung research, nor are any transmission elements mentioned. Such transmission elements may have been considered non-integral to the report and therefore text external within the Yeung research The lack of mention of other structural elements may be due to their absence or lack of pre-eminence in the small workplace report corpus studied.

While it seems that some workplace reports include some text devoted to methodology employed for investigations, with one of Yeung's 22 business reports containing a single page methodology section, methodology elements were not prominent features of these workplace reports and were only identified in two management accounting case reports in this thesis study.

Given the lack of movement from general principles to findings in the pedagogical business case reports, the pedagogical business case reports analysed in this thesis do not appear to reflect the funnel-based structure proposed by Yeung (2007) for workplace business reports (chapter 2, p.19). In contrast to Yeung's model, business case reports seems narrow in focus throughout, representing if anything, a tubular structure of constant metaphorical breadth, moving from narrow analysis of the particular case situation, to advice focusing narrowly on the particular case.

Differences in rhetorical text structuring and realisation between workplace and pedagogical case reports may derive from the different communicative purposes of these texts, the pedagogical reports requiring clear demonstration of specific knowledge and skills to the lecturer assessor, with the workplace reports grounded in facilitating decision making based in

practical concerns.   However, given the small size yet wide range of Yeung's corpus, differences might also be grounded in business specialism or other report features[66].

5.5.6.2 Comparison by author presence and author evacuation

Workplace business reports are described by Yeung as professional in style being, to a great extent impersonal and also objective in nature, representing writing described as analytical exposition. This description largely accords with the description presented in this chapter for the pedagogical case reports.

More specifically, considering firstly author presence through use of personal pronouns Yeung describes *I* and *we* as occurring infrequently, and where present being located in methodology related components. When present in the pedagogical case reports, these subjective personal pronouns are identified as most frequent in introductions, options and alternatives, and recommendations elements.

Nominalisation is used as a means of expressing impersonality and objectivity in the workplace reports in the Yeung corpus "to a greater or lesser extent". This nominalisation is also present in the thesis case reports. Passive voice, identified as constituting approximately 10% of verb forms in the pedagogical case reports is also used for expressing this impersonality.

5.5.7 Pedagogical business case report communicative purpose

One of the final stages in the approach to case report analysis described in this thesis involves

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[66] For example, Yeung's report descriptions suggest no report involving a marketing plan was studied, and no distinction is made between business specialisms. Yeung's report corpus also includes reports described as review reports, problem-solving reports, market reports and feasibility reports, all designated as supporting different purposes.

revisiting hypothesised communicative purposes in order to refine or confirm these purposes. It was hypothesised in section 5.4.5 of this chapter that the communicative purposes of the case report texts in this study be framed in terms of persuasion of the lecturer reader of the student's competence with regard to a range of specialism related knowledge, skills and abilities. In broad terms, it is considered that the initially hypothesised communicative purposes are largely supported by the investigations in this chapter. With regard to the BCR-1 corpus case reports, relevant marketing and marketing management-related knowledge and capacities are displayed through use of analytical and advisory tools and frameworks, and logical arguments are deployed through options and alternatives, as well as other means to support advised strategies, this demonstration and display serving to support lecturer judgements of learner capabilities.

Detailing the elements of communicative purpose into individual statements and developing them somewhat further based on the analysis in this chapter, the communicative purposes of these texts in specific regard to the marketing management and marketing case reports are considered to be persuasion of the lecturer as to learners' realisation of:

(1) acceptable or higher levels of marketing and marketing management-related knowledge and understanding.

(2) acceptable or higher levels of ability to analyse realistic marketing and marketing management situations for information and principles relevant to the development of effective marketing and marketing management-related strategies.

(3) acceptable or higher levels of ability to apply marketing and marketing management related principles in context, involving in particular, operation of action-related processes including the generation of action plans and the

development of solutions to problems in the context of realistic but simulated business situations.

(4) acceptable or higher levels of ability to justify opinions and actions, logical argument and practical thinking within marketing and marketing management-related contexts.

(5) acceptable or higher levels of ability to present and structure a report in a manner consistent with business report writing standards and conventions[67].

The learner's goal is to demonstrate and display these capacities to the satisfaction of the lecturer readers. It is noted that these communicative purposes align with both the assessment criteria described in section 5.4.3, and with the learner-stated purposes described by Freedman *et al.,* 1994).

With the possible exception of (5)[68], it is considered that all of these purposes, must be fulfilled for a pedagogical marketing or marketing management case report to be fully realised. Parallel communicative purposes are likely to case reports across the specialisms. While the reports examined in the corpus were all summative assessment assignments, formative report assignments are considered to retain the same communicative purposes. These statements of communicative purpose are likely to be relevant to the range of business specialisms, including those described in the BAWE case reports.

An important point of consideration is the notion of case reports as epistemic texts involved in the process of knowledge development, as proposed by Freedman *et al.,* (1994). It is

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[67] This purpose incorporates the style components described in this chapter.
[68] One exceptional marketing examination text contained no titled sections or sub-sections, being written in continuous text throughout yet still achieved a high mark, indicating, at least in the examination context that explicit structuring was not an absolute necessity in the eyes of the lecturer markers.

undoubtedly a purpose of case report writing that student writers develop knowledge and learn through performing the case report task. However the process of learning through case report writing is considered as a social rather than a communicative case report purpose.

5.5.8 Business case report genre identification

In line with the final stage of the approach adopted to genre analysis shown in figure 8, based in the data presented in this chapter, the question arises as to whether the marketing, marketing management, management accounting and project management case reports analysed in this chapter constitute a single genre, separate specialist genres, whether the term genre should be applied to a broader disciplinary class of business case reports, or whether in fact an even broader cross-disciplinary class of case reports or case texts should apply.

While it might seem clear, especially given the specialism based definition of genre provided in thesis chapter 3, as well as the data presented in this chapter, that there are similarities in the communicative purpose, rhetorical, stylistic, lexical and grammatical characteristics of the marketing and marketing management and other case reports examined in this thesis, which might support the notion of these texts comprising a single genre, nevertheless, significant differences are also suggested by the data (including variable optional move frequencies and variable realisation of rhetorical moves) which have been linked in this discussion section to the specialism-based identity of the relevant texts. This specialism-dependent variability in marketing and marketing management pedagogical case reports is seen as supporting the existence of separate marketing and marketing management specialism-based genres, with both of these genres also comprising components of a broader business specialism genre.

Following a similar argument, based in differences in rhetorical move deployment and

realisation as well as lexical features, the project management and management accounting texts are also seen as comprising separate specialism based genre categories within the broader business genre specialism.

The marketing management, marketing, management accounting and project management specialist genres are all seen as existing within a broader business case report genre. The notion of specialist pedagogical business genres is considered further in the final chapter of this thesis.

While basing genre identities within community specialisms appears to be supported by the data in this chapter, it seems reasonable to consider that occurrence of linguistic variation originates in other factors. For example, texts variability may derive from student level (year of study), institutional and programme culture (more academic or more practically focused) and individual lecturer preference (reflective learning, encouraging specific thinking or analytical processes, differing views on the value of specific business frameworks). Nevertheless, specialism-based influences at different levels would appear to have a major effect on the characteristics of case report texts.

5.5.9 Pedagogical business case reports and other business case study tasks

As a final element of this chapter, additional tasks based on business cases are considered in order to highlight the distinction of business case reports from other business case texts, clarify issues regarding case study text and task nomenclature, and further position these texts and tasks within the context of business programme tasks and assessment.

Figures 33 and 34 show other forms of examination case question identified at two further

higher education institutions, in which rubrics focus on marketing and management[69]. Clearly the initial task (figure 33), would appear to overlap in terms of component elements with the case reports analysed in this chapter, with analysis, options discussion and advisory elements required. However as no cohesive and complete text is generated from these elements, this is not considered to constitute a case report task. The task in figure 34, also involves analysis of a business case but requires no advisory element, nor is the analysis directed at the production of such advice. The task reflects more of a discursive critical essay than a business case report, fitting the genre described as 'critique' within the BAWE classification system.

Figure 33. Sample case-based non-report task 1 (multi-component)

1. From the information in the case, outline a rough SWOT analysis for Filofax.
2. What options for growth are opened to [company] ? Which would you favour in order for Filofax to better capitalise on its opportunities and overcome its threats.
3. In view of the increasing competition from personal organisers what competitive positioning would you recommend for Filofax in the UK ? Suggest how you would implement it.

Figure 34. Sample case-based non-report task 2 (critique)

Question 1
Critically evaluate the marketing strategy introduced by the National Bicycle Industrial Company. To what extent can the strategy be considered as being driven by a clear understanding of the firm's critical success factors?

Within the BAWE genre classification, the term case study appears to be used to describe a genre family incorporating texts referred to in this study as business case reports. Discussions with business academics and consideration of the variation in text types derived from case

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[69] The tasks in figure 33 and 34 are reproduced with permission of the University of Aston Business School and Durham University Business School (DBS) respectively.

materials suggests that the term case study appears, within the business field, to be however, a generic term applicable to both the process of case investigation and the range of text types generated in response to cases. While this informant data needs to be gathered more systematically than was the case in this thesis research, it suggests a classification of case response texts which incorporates the range of case responses within a broader notion of case studies as presented in figure 35 below.

Figure 35. The relationship between case studies, reports, critiques and exercises

Case studies → Case reports → Business case reports / Medical case reports / Social work case reports

Case studies → Case critiques

Case studies → Case-based exercises
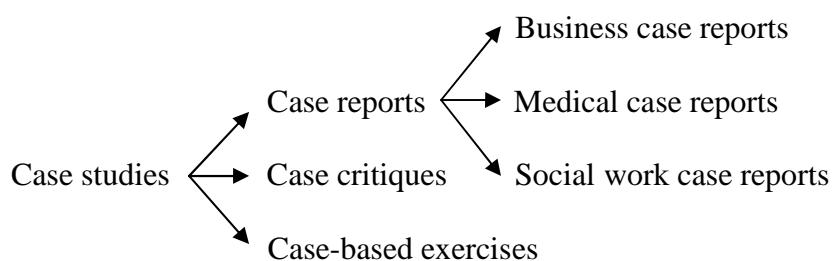
Considering the terminology of *case write-up* used by Forman and Rymer (1999a,b), these texts are seen as a specific type of case report, possessing the key differentiating characteristic of being considerably shorter (single page) than those case reports studied in this research. Core features are considered to be similar between these text categories, with all obligatory moves likely to be present but attenuated in the single page reports[70].   It is not clear how widespread this particular single page case report might be within US or UK institutions. The requirement for a single page report may be limited to the single institution studied by these researchers, or maybe a limited form of report realisation.

In terms of nomenclature, overall it is considered that the case reports, case write-ups and case studies described in the ethnographic linguistics literature (Freedman et al., 1994; Freedman & Adam, 1996; Forman & Rymer, 1999a,b) can all be considered as case report texts, while the

[70] Analysis of the move structure in the case report appended to Forman & Rymer, 1999a, demonstrates clear orientation, situation analytical, and advisory moves.

term case study could be applied to both the process of case study and the broad range of texts arising from academic study of business cases.

5.8 Final chapter summary

This chapter has attempted a broad textual characterisation of a corpus of business case reports deriving from the specialisms of marketing and marketing management. Structural and stylistic analyses have been carried out, communicative purposes, move structures and structural realisations of these moves have been proposed for this case report genre. The thesis case report corpus texts have been compared with business case reports from the BAWE corpus collection, originating from three specialisms. Native speaker and non-native speaker reports have also been compared and case report differences also interpreted in relation to task and writing situation. Comparison has also been made between pedagogical case reports and workplace reports as well as with marketing essays.

Having examined the broad features of the business case reports in the corpus, this thesis now focuses on a more detailed and in-depth examination of the options and alternatives move of the BCR-1 corpus business case report texts.

Chapter 6 - Characterisation of the Options and Alternatives Move

6.1. Introduction

Due to observed non-native speaker difficulties with discussion of options in written texts, the observed prevalence of the options and alternatives move within the thesis case report corpus (shown in chapter 5) and the common reference to consideration of options and alternatives in the literature (see chapter 2), this move was subject to detailed characterisation. This chapter presents the results of this characterisation, in particular proposing a component generic move and sub-move structure operating within the broader options and alternatives move, as well as providing linguistic analysis of this move and its identified component moves and sub-moves. A particular point of linguistic study is an analysis of modal verbs and their roles and functions within the options and alternatives move. Comparisons are made in relation to a range of component linguistic features between NS and NNS options writing.

6.2. Generic structure determination

Proposed purposes for the options and alternatives move, set within the overall communicative purposes of the business case reports, have been described in section 5.4.7.3 . These purposes frame determination of the component generic structure and the ascribed purposes of the component moves and sub-moves. Recognising the validity of Bhatia's identification of different types of move-realising steps (chapter 3, p.52 - 53), the term sub-move is used, rather than the term step, to describe rhetorical realisations at the level below that of the move.

The approach to move and sub-move identification follows the top-down functional and intuitive, meaning-based approach used for broad rhetorical move identification in chapter 5. However, with regard to the options and alternatives move, this process involved additional

complexities. In particular, having identified possible rhetorical components of the options and alternatives move, decisions were required as to whether such elements should be characterised as moves or sub-moves, thereby introducing the issue of level of rhetorical move, which was not addressed (at least explicitly) in the development of the broad rhetorical move structure for the overall case reports. Further, in addition to identifying rhetorical moves and sub-moves, the sub-moves also needed to be grouped together to constitute overall moves.

Move designation was also influenced by geographical proximity of particular rhetorical functions within the texts. An illustration of this relates to statements of purpose, which were in almost all cases located in the same grammatical sentence as option statements. As a consequence of this geographical relationship, combined with the desire for a parsimonious move structure with explanatory value, it was decided to subsume these functions (together with others) under a broader 'orientation to the option' move. The coalescence and grouping of smaller rhetorical elements into larger rhetorical moves resulted in the designation of those smaller component units as sub-moves.

It became apparent during this analysis that sub-moves themselves could be further sub-divided into sub-sub-moves and beyond. No published move structure could be identified describing a move structure to such depth, however it was decided that analysis should proceed to the level of depth encouraged by the data, this depth of analysis being seen as providing potential insights into cognitive and rhetorical aspects of text organisation.

6.3. Modal verb analysis, categorisation and terminology

Modal verbs constitute a class of auxiliary verbs which express speaker attitudes to what is

being communicated, however the precise delineation of this class of verbs is based more formally on several grammatical attributes (Coates, 1983; Palmer, 1990).

Initial analyses of pre-sessional student writing had shown that appropriate deployment of modal verbs in options discussion was challenging for some NNS writers. In order to identify specific areas of difficulty, modal verb usage was analysed to compare use by NS and NNS writers and in order to support an understanding of modal verb roles in the options and alternatives move. To support these goals an appropriate analytical framework for analysis of modal verb usage was required.

In addition to broad functional designations such as ability, possibility and necessity, modal verbs have been defined in terms of a range of three main meaning-based categories, *epistemic, deontic* and *dynamic* (Lyons, 1977; Coates, 1983; Palmer, 1990). The deontic and dynamic categories are not referred to in this chapter, the former being excluded in favour of Coates's (1983:20–21) contention that deontic modality is best seen in terms of non-epistemic root modality, with the latter dynamic modality describing non-subjective, factual meanings (Perkins, 1983:34; Palmer,1990:36) not identified in the options and alternatives move.

The meaning-based category referred to most frequently in this chapter is that of epistemic modality, which relates to the expression of levels of speaker commitment to the truth of propositions under discussion (Lyons,1977:277), although the definition is broadened within the research of Coates (1983:18) to refer to assumptions and assessments of possibilities more generally.

Rather than the meaning-based categories focused in the modal verbs themselves, however,

the notion of clausal functions is used as the key basis for analysing modal verb roles in the options and alternatives move. A range of clausal functions have been described by Thompson (2001, 2000) and Viel (2002). Additional clausal functions are described in this chapter, being described in more specific terms than those used by Thompson and Viel. For example, while for Thompson (2001) the modal *would* may be contained within a clause expressing prediction, in this thesis analysis, the prediction function is further specified in terms of whether that prediction is focused in hypothetical future, or hypothetical past consequences grounded in past action or inaction. The rationale for adopting more specific designation is to provide additional differential capacity within clausal function categorisation.

Finally, with regard to modal analytical frameworks, modal verbs are analysed in this chapter within the context of the generic moves and sub-moves within which they occur. Modal verbs are therefore linked to rhetorical functions expressed within the options and alternatives move.

6.4 Samples used in the analysis

The options samples analysed in this chapter are listed in table 14. 23 samples in total contributed to the analysis, 20 continuous assessment text samples (9 NS and 11 NNS), all from the Baxter marketing management continuous assessment case reports, and three marketing examination case report samples (2 NS and 1 NNS). Text elements combining options and recommendations (CP2L, C2I) were excluded from the analysis due to complexities in identifying functional boundaries.

Due to the low level of marketing examination cases containing options elements, no separate generic move-based analysis of this sample category is presented in this section. Where

relevant, the structural and linguistic properties of the small number of examination elements are considered in conjunction with the analysis focusing on the more prevalent continuous assessment samples. Text excerpts from examination samples are also, where applicable, used as evidence to support the overall generic move and sub-move model.

Table 14. Origins and designation of samples contributing to the characterisation of the options and alternatives move.

Sample designation	Title (if any)	Continuous assessment (C) / Examination (E)	NS/NNS
Sample C1A	Options Analysis	C	NS
Sample C1B	Options Analysis	C	NS
Sample C1C	Options Analysis	C	NS
Sample C1E	Options Analysis	C	NS
Sample C1F	Options Analysis	C	NS
Sample C1G	Options Analysis	C	NS
Sample C2A	Options Analysis	C	NNS
Sample C2B	Options Analysis	C	NNS
Sample C2C	Options Analysis	C	NNS
Sample C2D	Options Analysis	C	NNS
Sample C2E	Options Analysis	C	NNS
Sample C2G	Options Analysis	C	NNS
Sample C2J	Options Analysis	C	NNS
Sample E1D	Options Analysis	E	NS
Sample E2B	Options Analysis	E	NNS
Sample C1D	Optional Strategies	C	NS
Sample C1J	Possible Solutions and Evaluation of Effectiveness	C	NS
Sample C1I	Untitled	C	NS
Sample C2F	Options – Market Share or Profit	C	NNS
Sample C2K	Possible Causes of Action	C	NNS
Sample C2M	Strategy Options	C	NNS
Sample C2N	Alternative Suggestions for Baxter's Problem	C	NNS
Sample E1C	Strategy Options	E	NS

Designation of sample codes : C = continuous assessment, E = examination, 1 = NS and 2 = NNS

In order to account for potential differences in linguistic content of structural sections indicated by differing titles, where appropriate, linguistic analyses were conducted in the context of two categories, namely options analysis titled sections (comprising 15 of the 23 samples) and alternative/untitled sections (comprising the remaining 8). High levels of linguistic similarity were identified between these categories.

6.5. Results of options and alternatives rhetorical move analysis

6.5.1 Number of words in options and alternatives moves

Counts of words in options and alternatives moves suggested variation in word length dependent on speaker type and the linked factors of assessment, specialism and task. Notably the NS continuous assessment samples, contained more words than the NNS samples and were of more consistent length as indicated by lower standard deviations (table 15).

Table 15. Number of words in options and alternatives moves by speaker type, assessment type and title category

Sample Type	No. of samples	Ave. length (words)	Standard deviation
Continuous Assessment			
NS cont OA titled	6	1086	128
NNS cont OA titled	7	758	402
NS cont alt.titled/ untitled	3	918	179
NNS cont alt. titled/ untitled	4	735	231
NS/NNS OA titled	13	875	353
NS/NNS alt titled/ untitled	7	813	211
All NS OA cont. (titled + untitled)	9	1,030	154
All NNS OA cont. (titled + untitled)	11	694	374
All OA cont.	20	876	306
Examination Samples			
NS ex. OA titled	1	376	NA
NNS ex. OA titled	1	531	NA
NS ex alt/untitled	1	124	NA
All OA ex.titled	2	454	78
All NS ex. OA	2	250	126
All OA ex.	3	344	167

OA in this table stands for Options Analysis referring to case report sections with this specific title. All other titles are classified as *alt.* = 'alternative titles'. e*x.* = examination

Continuous assessment options and alternative moves from the marketing management case were on average substantially longer than the equivalent examination moves. Within the continuous assessment samples, options and alternatives moves, where present, comprised on average approximately a third of the entire case report, indicating a substantial role in these assignments. Overall the options and alternatives move text comprised 17,931 words, 9,770 words from NS samples and 8161 from NNS samples.

6.5.2 Overview of rhetorical move structure

The rhetorical move structure for the options and alternatives move determined in this study, is shown in figure 36. A core feature of the proposed move structure, discussed in more detail in subsequent sections in this chapter, is the cyclic nature of the model. As shown in the figure, following an optional orientation to the whole options and alternatives move (move 1), different options are discussed in sub-sections (or rarely in sub-segments), comprising a series of moves (moves 2–5). These sub-sections, which usually, but not always, deal with single options, start with an obligatory orientation to the specific option(s) under discussion, which may be followed by a justificatory move, then a feasibility move and finally (and at high frequency) by the provision of evaluatory information relating to the option(s).

Each of the moves within the generic structure is realised through a range of sub-moves, with a level of sub-sub-moves also identified in some cases, realising different sub-moves. The same series of moves is available for each sub-section within the options and alternatives move, and therefore the options and alternatives move can be seen as containing a repeating cycle comprising moves 2–5. Where more than one option is considered within a single sub-section, the cycle of moves 2-5 is repeated. Individual move structures are discussed in sections 6.5.3 and 6.5.7 below.

6.5.3 Move 1: Orientation to options analysis

Orientation components were identified in 43% of options and alternative moves (table 16), located subsequent to the options section title or, where no section title existed, at the start of the options text segment. Orientation moves within continuous assessment reports varied in length from approximately 20 words to 135 words. In the examination reports, orientation text was minimal.

Figure 36. Proposed generic structure for the options and alternatives move
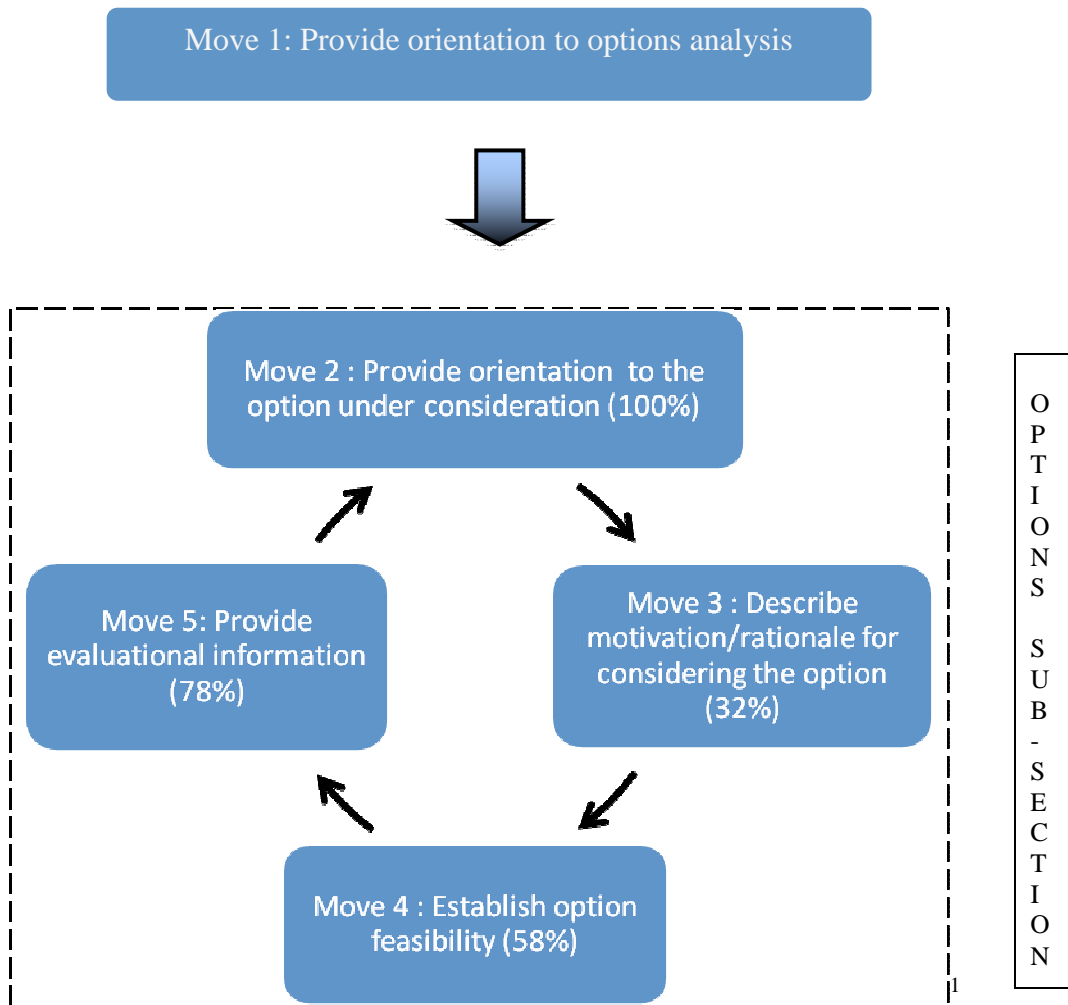
Note 1 : figures in brackets represent the % occurrence of moves in total possible options sub-sections/segments, 100% representing an obligatory move.

Note 2 : The depicted move cycle repeats between sub-sections which focus on different options for action, but also repeats within single sub-sections in which more than one option is considered

Table 16. Frequency of orientation elements in the options and alternatives moves

Sample category	NS OA titled (6)	NNS OA titled (7)	NS OA Alt/Unt. (3)	NNS OA Alt/Unt.(4)	NS Ex All.(2)	NNS Ex All (1)	Total All types (23)
Frequency of orientation element	3	3	1	2	1	0	10
% of type	50%	43%	33%	50%	50%	0%	43%

Note : OA refers to options analysis titled sections

While orientation text in the continuous assessment OA moves was rhetorically complex, in contrast, within examination samples, orientation moves consisted simply of short references to the level or number of options. The range of different functional areas identified in these orientation elements are shown in table 17.

Table 17. Content areas in move 1: Orientation to options analysis

Content element	Frequency NS cont. samples (4)	Frequency NNS cont. samples (5)	Frequency NS ex. samples (1)	Frequency NNS ex. samples (0)	Total sample frequency (10)
Level/number of options	3	3	1	0	8
Purpose of options analysis	2	2	0	0	4
Process and approach	1	2	0	0	3
Structural contextualisation	0	2	0	0	2
Inter-option relationships	1	0	0	0	1
Problem statement	1	0	0	0	1
Historical contextualisation	1	0	0	0	1
Rhetorical question	0	1	0	0	1

The most common orientation components involved statements of the level or number of options dealt with in the OA move, which in some cases were linked to purpose statements:

> *There are a number of options open to Baxter.…*
>
> (sample C1E)

> *There are many options available to Baxter's Renal Division to put them back on the growth track.*
>
> (sample C1G)

Orientation moves also focused on the processes and approaches (including pre-requisites) that were required for development of successful strategies as in the following relatively complex orientation text:

> *It is important to state that before any kind of strategy is considered, Baxter needs to carry out research on its competitors. This is in order to discover exactly what kind of competitive factors they are to confront, such as price and product benefits (basically the 4 P's). By this method, hopefully Baxter will be able to understand why Fresenius and Gambro's products have been preferred for the accounts they have lost, and consequently be able to compare these findings with their own company SWOT analysis.*
>
> <div align="right">(sample C1B)</div>

Two orientation texts, amongst other functions, incorporated positioning of the options analysis within the general sequence of analysis as in the following example:

> *Having conducted an analysis of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats, the following list provides possible courses of action Baxter can implement to increase sales of peritoneal dialysis treatment given the changes in the customer and competitive environment.*
>
> <div align="right">(sample C2E)</div>

Apart from a link between option levels and purpose content areas, there was little significant frequency of co-occurrence of different content elements, with functional content diverse and individual functional elements infrequent. As a consequence, no sufficiently robust sub-move structure could be derived for these orientation elements. Based on the content areas identified, the broad purpose of this non-obligatory move is interpreted as being the orientation of the lecturer reader to the process and content of the options and alternatives move.

6.5.4 Overview of option-specific sub-components in the options and alternatives move

Options and alternatives texts contained on average approximately five sub-sections or sub-segments, with each sub-component generally analysing and discussing a single option, though in some cases focusing on two related options. The presence of structural sub-sections

was signalled through explicit option-focused titles, with sub-segments identified through in-text signals.

While similar levels of option focused sub-components were observed in NS and NNS options and alternatives moves, greater variability in levels of these components was observed in the NNS continuous assessment samples compared to the equivalent NS samples.

In examination samples, significant analysis and discussion of options in the context of sub-sections or segments, was identified in two examination options texts; in the other examination sample, options for action were simply stated without analysis.

Specific sub-sections were in a number of cases explicitly divided into smaller structural components, in particular relating to the advantages and disadvantages of following a particular option.

6.5.5 Generic move structure in option specific sub-sections and sub-segments

Analysis of options texts written by NS and NNS writers showed that there were significantly consistent patterns in terms of options sub-section/segment move structure. Based on this analysis, the generic move structure model as shown in figure 37, incorporating four moves and a range of sub-moves within each move, was determined for these sub-components. The model does not show sub-sub-moves that were identified, however, these are presented along with the basis for delineation of moves and sub-moves in subsequent sections of this chapter.

Within the move structure model, the pattern of moves identified is variable, with only move 2 being established as obligatory. However, a highly frequent element of the structure is some

Figure 37. Four move structure in options and alternatives sub-sections and sub-segments

Move 2: Orientation of the reader to the option under consideration by:

[71]Sub-Move 1: Identifying the option topic area
Sub-Move 2 : Stating the option(s) under consideration
Sub-Move 3 : Stating the purpose of the option
Sub-Move 4 : Exemplifying the option
Sub-Move 5 : Stating requirements and conditions for option
      selection/success
Sub-Move 6 : Providing a summary evaluation of the option

Move 3: Establishing the motivation/rationale for option consideration by:

Sub-Move 1 : Focusing attention on the relevance of the topic area
Sub-Move 2: Describing unsuccessful/problematic strategies
Sub-Move 3 : Relating the option to problems/strengths within the company
      and/or opportunities/changes in the business environment

Move 4: Establishing the feasibility of the option by:

Sub-Move 1: Orientation of the reader to (a) possible implementation
      strategy(ies)
Sub-Move 2 : Establishing the motivation/rationale for consideration
      of the implementation option
Sub-Move 3 : Establishing the feasibility of the implementation option
Sub-Move 4 : Providing evaluative information about the implementation
      option

Move 5: Presenting evaluational information about the option by:

Sub-Move 1 : stating the arguments for and against the option
or
Sub-Move 2 : summary evaluation with arguments for and/or against the
      option

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[71] Move 2 sub-moves 1 and 2 are bracketed, as the presence of sub-move 1 is always succeeded by move 2 sub-move 2, though move 2 sub-move 2 does not require a preceding move 1 sub-move 1.

form of evaluative move or sub-move, such rhetorical actions being observed in 78% of option specific sub-sections and segments in move 5, but also in move 2 sub-move 6 (2 % of sub-sections/segments) and within move 4 sub-move 4 (21%) relating to evaluation of implementation options[72].

As mentioned in section 6.5.2, a key feature of the proposed sub-section/sub-segment model is the fact that it is cyclic. However cycles are not restricted to the cycling of moves in different sub-sections and segments. In addition, as can be seen from figure 37, cycling of sub-moves may occur within the feasibility move 4, and further, where more than one option is considered within a sub-section/segment, move cycling will be applied to each option. Rhetorical cycling also occurs within the sub-sub-moves identified.

The only sub-moves which can be seen as separate alternative rhetorical strategies, as described by Bhatia (2001:81), are sub-moves 1 and 2, found in move 5. Otherwise, sub-moves tend to form optional components within each overall rhetorical move, with only the option statement sub-move found in move 2, or implementation strategy statement in move 4, being obligatory within their specific move contexts. With regard to move 3, while different motivations may be provided within the defined sub-moves, these sub-moves are not exclusive alternative motivations.

Prototypical examples of the move structure are shown in figures 38 and 40. These examples are discussed below.

6.5.5.1 Prototypical four-move sub-section sample 1: Native speaker continuous assessment sample A (C1A) sub-section 1

Sample C1A sub-section 1 (figure 38) contains all four of the sub-section based moves

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[72] These figures sum to more than 100%, accounted for by the fact that statements relating to evaluation may occur in separate moves in the generic structure.

proposed in the generic structure model (figure 37). The text begins with a move 2, orientation of the reader to the option under consideration, using the option title, *cutting prices and profit margins*. This title statement represents move 2 sub-move 2, stating the option. As in many student samples, interpretation is involved in establishing the move and fitting text to move. In this specific case in regard to the title, and looking further at the move 2 text, cutting profit margins would seem to be a consequence of cutting prices, rather than a preferred strategy option in itself, although the reduction in profit margins could clearly be seen as a natural consequence of cutting prices.

Figure 38. Prototypical sub-section text showing all sub-section generic moves (sample C1A sub-section 1)

Move 2: Orientation of the reader to the option under consideration	**i) Cut prices and profit margins** [SM2] In order for Baxter to regain its competitive edge [SM3] prices of their fluid bags would need to be reduced by 4% per bag. [SM5]
Move 3: Establishing the motivation /rationale for option consideration	Cutting prices addresses the needs of a price sensitive market and the needs of the budget conscious economic buyers. [SM3]
Move 4: Establishing the feasibility of the option:	Reducing costs of fluid bags would inevitably lower the Renal Division's profit margins, as their main revenue is from bags. APD bags use 50% more solution and bigger bags than CAPD. [SM2] It may therefore be necessary to concentrate on increasing sales of CAPD treatment [SM1]. Budgets would need to be tightened throughout the division to make up the shortfall in profits.[SM1 Recycled] Such areas may include spending on education and training, investment in research and logistics. In terms of education, tightening the cost and amount of staff time involved in extra training, is one option. Furthermore investment in research and product innovation could continue outside the UK thereby taking up less of a tight budget. Lastly reassessment of the costs and efficiency of distribution and logistics, indicates that decreasing the use of courier companies (in emergencies) could make cuts. By decentralising warehousing, truck drivers' time and distances are reduced and there would be less need for emergency courier companies, as warehouses would be nearer the destination. [SM3]
Move 5 : Presenting evaluational information about the option	Advantages: (1) Ability to compete in a price sensitive market. (2) Win back the lost contracts and increase

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	market share. (3) Increase efficiency with cost savings and reorganisation. • Increase the rate of patient take-on, therefore helping to offset a reduction in profit margins. Disadvantages: • Decreasing the size of bags and solution content, results in decreasing the quality of Baxter products. Safety risks, infection and increased strain on the peritoneum membrane, could increase in probably. • Emphasis on CAPD treatment ignores the lifestyle benefits associated with APD night-time treatment. • Training and education ensures maximum benefits of the treatment and minimum problems/risks. IT also helps keep healthcare professionals up-to-date with new products and improved efficiency. • Cutting investment in research and development would effect the brand image of Baxters a leading edge, innovative company. • By re-positioning Baxter as a low cost alternative, its image of product superiority may be lost. • Decentralising warehousing would involve a high initial set-up cost. [SM1]

To some degree this options sub-section is representative of the range of interpretative challenges when analysing the student writing samples, since logically the desired option is surely not to cut profit margins but to cut prices with the aim of benefiting the company, thereby generating higher profits in the longer term. Overall, however, it seems a reasonable interpretation, on balance, to consider this title to represent the stating of the option move.

Having stated the option under consideration, there follows a statement of purpose (SM3) representing the purpose of the option in terms of its effect on the company, and following this, a statement which is interpreted as a pre-requisite or requirement for option success (SM5). This text element could also be seen as representing the option itself or as a part of option implementation. However the use of the verb *need* suggests a requirement or pre-

requisite. The geographical placement of this statement in the text argues for inclusion of this statement within the orientation move rather than within the feasibility move 4.

This first text move is followed by a move 3, providing the motivation/rationale for considering the option, or in other words, a statement of why the option is worthy of consideration. In the case of sample C1A sub-section 1, the option is stated as worthy of consideration because it meets the needs of a price sensitive market and the economic buyers, thereby falling within sub-move 3 relating to motivational factors resting in the business environment.

A substantial text element, constituting move 4, then focuses on the implementation of the price cutting strategy, with a significant emphasis on cost cutting strategies. In the first part of this implementation text, motivation/rationale is given for switching sales to a different (by implication) more cost effective and profitable product, this motivation representing sub-move 2. This is then followed by the statement of the implementation option (changing to CAPD bags), which falls within sub-move 1. Further implementation options are then given (recycling of sub-move 1) with further details of how each implementation option should be put into practice. The sequence of motivation for the implementation strategy, followed by the implementation strategy itself, is uncommon, though is identified in a small number of other samples.

The implementation option 'tightening budgets', could be seen as representing a requirement for the success of the option, but is geographically situated after the option statement and the rationale for pursuing the option, as well as being subsequent to a first option implementation strategy and the motivation for considering that implementation strategy. Rather than being

seen therefore as a prerequisite for option success, it is interpreted in this case, as representing a description of what is required for successful implementation of the option, the positioning of this statement being taken as indicating this to be move 4 implementation rather than move 1 orientation.

In addition to illustrating sub-move cycling, this move 4 implementation element also illustrates the fact that further levels below that of sub-move, namely sub-sub-moves, can be identified as present in the generic structure. Within the implementation option of 'tightening budgets' lies further consideration of where the tightening budgets should occur (education and training, investment and logistics), presenting in these cases sub-sub-moves describing implementation of the 'tightening budget' implementation option (figure 39). Indeed under SSM4 (sub-sub-move 4), the text could be further seen as comprising a further SSSM1 move (sub-sub-sub-move), as "by decentralising warehousing" for example, represents a route or implementation option leading to the reduction of the use of courier companies stated as an implementation option in SSM1.

The final element of the text in sample C1A lists the arguments for and against the option, stated in terms of advantages and disadvantages, a common pattern in these texts, which constitutes move 5 sub-move 1. No overall summary opinion or evaluation of the option is provided.

6.5.5.2 Prototypical four-move sample 2 : Non-native speaker continuous assessment sample C2A sub-section 2

In sample C2A sub-section 2 (figure 40), as in sample C1A sub-section 1, the sub-section text starts with a statement of the option under consideration in the form of the sub-section title

Figure 39. Illustration of sub-sub-moves in move 4 sub-move 1 (sample C1A sub-section 1)

	Column 1	Column 2	Column 3
Move 4 Establish Feasibility of the Option			
Sub-Move 1 By orientation of the reader to the implementation option	*Budgets would need to be tightened throughout the division to make up the shortfall in profits*		
Sub-Move2 By establishing the motivation/rationale for consideration of the implementation option			
Sub-Move 3 By establishing the feasibility of the implementation option		*Furthermore investment in research and product innovation could continue outside the UK*	*Lastly reassessment of the costs and efficiency of distribution and logistics, indicates that decreasing the use of courier companies (in emergencies)*
Sub-Sub Move1 By orientation of the reader to option(s) for implementing the implementation option	*Such areas may include spending on education and training, investment in research and logistics. In terms of education, tightening the cost and amount of staff time involved in extra training, is one option.......*		
Sub-Sub Move 2 By establishing the motivation/rationale for consideration of the implementation strategy for implementing the implementation option			
Sub-Sub Move 3 By establishing the feasibility of the option for implementing the implementation option			
Sub-Sub Move 4 By providing evaluative information about the option for implementing the implementation option		*thereby taking up less of a tight budget*	*could make cuts. By decentralising warehousing, truck drivers' time and distances are reduced and there would be less need for emergency courier companies, as ware houses would be nearer the destination.*
Sub-Move 4 By providing evaluative information about the implementation option			

Text in this figure should be read from top to bottom in the first column 1, followed by top to bottom readings of subsequent columns

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Figure 40. Prototypical sub-section text and move structure containing all 4 moves (sample C2A sub-section 2)

Move 2: Orientation of the reader to the option under consideration (OB)	**Renal Failure Campaign** Baxter Renal Division could have campaigns across the UK on the symptoms of renal failure [SM2] to aware the people of this disease [SM3]
Move 3: Establishing the motivation /rationale for option consideration	since 50% of this disease sufferers only found out that they encounter kidney problems at a very late stage.[SM3]
Move 4: Establishing the feasibility of the option	This campaign should also provide information to the people on the place they can get treatment and kind of treatment available in the market. [SM1]
Move 5: Presenting evaluational information about the option	If they knew that they are suffering from renal failure, they will get advice from renal consultants in the hospitals, as people are more health conscious nowadays. Then, there will be more renal patients for there are many potential renal failure patients in the UK. Therefore, more treatment services will be needed and more fluid bags and solution will be needed in the market. Baxter would have a good chance to sell its products. However, the economics buyer might not necessarily buy from Baxter as they want to balance the account and Baxter's products are known to be more expensive. If so, it does not only make its situation worse, but also provide opportunity for its competitors to conquer the market. [SM1]

and an elaborated first sentence (move 2, sub-move 2) which incorporates a statement of purpose (move 2, sub-move 3).

Move 3 clearly justifies consideration of the option through identifying the fact that there is a lack of awareness of renal illness which the publicity campaign could reduce (sub-move 3). The third move refers to feasibility/implementation through provision of details of how the renal failure campaign should be put into practice (move 4, sub-move 2). An alternative interpretation of this element of text could be that it provides a more detailed description of the option, however since the actual option is stated as being that of organising a renal failure awareness campaign about symptoms, it seems more logical to include the details of this campaign as relating to feasibility and implementation.

As in sample C1A sub-section 1, the text ends with the arguments for and against the option (move 5, sub-move 1) with no summary evaluatory opinion, however in this sample, rather

than a list of advantages and disadvantages, arguments in favour of and against the option are presented within continuous text.

Overall frequencies of move and sub-move occurrence are discussed below in section 6.5.6., however, while C1A sub-section 1 and C2A sub-section 2 contain all of the sub-section moves, the co-occurrence of these four sub-section moves was observed in only 14% of sub-sections, with no notable frequency differences identifiable between NS and NNS texts.

6.5.5.3 Generic structure of an examination sample option specific sub-section: Sample E1D

Sub-section/sub-segment move structures in the three marketing strategy examination samples were less complex than those found in continuous assessment texts, with lower levels of text overall (table 15 above) and generally fewer moves and sub-moves. In addition, a tendency was observed, contrasting with continuous assessment samples, to include summary evaluative decisions within the options and alternatives moves, however, the 3 examinations options texts were all additionally followed by separate recommendations sections.

Figure 41 demonstrates text and generic structure for sample E1D consisting of two moves. However in this E1D sample, options were also presented within the context of figures and tables (shown in figure 44 below), considered to reflect the examination requirement to present data in a condensed and time-efficient manner.

Figure 41 Text and moves/sub-moves in an examination text sample (E1D sub-section 5)

Move	Text
Move 2 : Orientation to options under consideration	5.5 long term a factory or retail outlet would be beneficial. [SM1/SM5]
Move 5: Presenting evaluational information about the option	Vertical integration of the company would provide increased cost control + greater control over operations [SM1]

6.5.5.4 Sub-sections addressing more than one option

A number of options and alternatives sub-sections deal with more than one option (for example C1F, E1C, E2B). Example move structures with sub-section text in which two options are discussed are shown in figures 42 and 43. In these sample types, one option is discussed through the relevant move analysis elements, then the second option discussed through the same or a similar move sequence.

In figure 42, related but opposing options are stated in the sub-section title. The first option is then restated. Move 5 evaluation follows with argument presented only in positive terms. The section then recycles back to the second title option (move 1) followed by evaluational information relating to option 2. The second clause in the statement of option 2 "acting in

Figure 42. 'Two options' sub-section move pattern (sample C1F sub-section 4)

Move 2: Orientation of the reader to the option(s) under consideration	Focus on specific, most profitable area vs broad based approach Baxter could look to research in their strongest area or the area allowing greatest profitability and focus upon the market [SM2] (for example the CAPD market). [SM4]
Move 5: Presenting evaluational information about option 1	By specialising in one particular area it would be able to establish itself as an undisputed leader with more resources and inputs than others.[SM1]
Move 2: Orientation of the reader to the option(s) under consideration	Otherwise Baxter could look to establish a broad based approach acting in each stage of the renal lifecycle producing each type of machine. [SM2]
Move 5 : Presenting evaluational information about option 2	This would make Baxter a company with interests in the whole industry and expertise from one area may be able to complement others. Also the patient may get an attachment to Baxter. A broader approach can allow greater economies of scale, scope etc. and also leave the companies options open for the future = a finger in every pie! [SM1]

each stage of the renal lifecycle producing each type of machine" could be seen as a specific implementation of the broad-based option, however, use of the term 'otherwise'" places this

statement in direct opposition to option 1 and therefore it is considered as an elaborated option 2 statement.

Sub-sections incorporating more than one option were common in the small sample of examination options structural elements. Figure 43 demonstrates such a pattern for sample E1B, while Figure 44 illustrates the presentation of three options relating to strategic alliances in the form of a table, which acts a means of condensing the information.

The text in figure 44 may seem at first glance incompatible with the generic move model proposed, however in fact the first column can be seen as representing a move 1 sub-move 2 statement of option (forming a strategic alliance with the stated company) while the remaining four columns can be seen as representing evaluative information informing decisions about each strategic alliance options (move 5 sub-move 1), although outcome comments with regard to Azart and Red October ('using each other's technology…', 'can

Figure 43. 'Two-options' sub-section move pattern (sample E1B sub-section 2)

Move 2: Orientation of the reader to the option(s) under consideration	3.2.2 Targeting [SM1] Darling Chocolate can choose to target some (one or two) or all of the three segments. [SM2]
Move 4: Feasibility of the option	It can use differentiated strategy provide different offering [SM1] to meet different segment's needs and wants) [SM2].
Move 5: Presenting evaluational information about the option	The advantage is this can maximise its market potential. But this also means it is facing an overall competition from all other brands. And that also needs huge resources and marketing support, which is rather risky.[SM1]
Move 2: Orientation of the reader to the option(s) under consideration	Alternatively Darling Chocolate can choose to serve the heavy user and/or the modest user segment(s). [SM2]
Move 5: Presenting evaluational information about the option	This can concentrate its sources & capabilities and reduce potential competition. Moreover, although accounting for smaller percentage of the population these two segments represent the greatest profitability.[SM1]

Figure 44. A multi-option examination options text sub-section (sample E1D sub-section 3)

Company	Benefit	Loss	Outcome	Liklihood[73]
Krupskaya	- technology - consumer research - in St. Petersburg	- loyal consumers - solid brand	- may not agree as well-established + could lose reputation if working with imports	moderate
Azart	-occupy niche so little competition - in St. Petersburg - they want new technology	- small segment - may not have equipment to produce large volumes of chocolate	- could work together and expand using each others technology + product knowledge	quite high
Red October	- large company - network of affiliate companies + organisations	- based in Moscow - lack of knowledge of St. Petersburg Market potential	- could happen and Red October can expand into Europe + Darling has access to extensive Russian network	high

expand into Europe') can be interpreted as relating to implementation and therefore the feasibility move 4.

6.5.5.5 Some problem samples and solutions

Allocation of text elements to moves and sub-moves was a complex and interpretative task requiring a range of meaning-based judgements. While in many cases there was little problem in allocating texts to moves, not all judgements were entirely clear cut or unequivocal. There were, for example, apparent inconsistencies and inaccuracies in the student writing samples, leading to a requirement for fine judgements regarding the relationships between text, moves and sub-moves.

In sample C2B sub-section 3 (figure 45), the option appears to be that of reducing production costs, constituting a move 2 sub-move 2. The section moves on to a clear move 3 sub-move 3, justifying consideration of the option of reducing production costs by citing the drop in

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[73] Original misspelling

Figure 45 Sample problem text and move structure (sample C2B sub-section 3)

Move 2 Orientation of the reader to the option(s) under consideration	Reduce production costs [SM2]
Move 3 Establishing the motivation /rationale for option consideration	Since Baxter are suffering a loss in market share, it is inevitable that this will negatively affect profits. [SM3]
Move 4 Orientation of the reader to the option(s) under consideration	One possible solution to this problem would be to form a joint venture with one of the competitors in the market.[SM1]
Move 5: Evaluation of the option	• Advantages Such a venture would involve combining the particular strengths of the two companies thus transforming a potential threat into a profitable opportunity. For example, perhaps Fresenius and Gambro can afford to offer lower prices because their production is more efficient. Baxter could obviously benefit from this, whilst one of these companies could benefit from Baxter's long history of innovation and quality, for example. New companies, such as Gambro will not have the same established reputation as Baxter. By forming such a venture, production costs would be reduced, without Baxter having the expense of lengthy research into how to make their production more efficient and profitable. This makes sense in that all the competitors will presumably be manufacturing similar products or services. Distribution could also be merged, alleviating Baxter's problems with the use of couriers. Furthermore Baxter would be better able to monitor that particular competitor's progress and strategies. • Disadvantages The only apparent disadvantage with this option is that buyers could see Baxter as embarking on a policy of "selling out". Obviously Baxter would also be sharing areas of expertise which had taken years of labour and expenditure to develop, but this should be balanced out by the advantages offered by the other company.

profit levels and loss of market share. The move determination problem arises with the statement 'one possible solution…' as this could be interpreted as one way of implementing reduction in production costs, constituting a feasibility move 4. However, on the grounds that this is the only production cost reduction strategy discussed and evaluated, the option dealt with is considered to be reducing production costs by forming a joint venture company.

An example of another type of problem that arose is illustrated by the statement of option in sample C1C sub-section 1, which is described as <u>developing new or exciting treatments</u>, whereas the component text in the sub-section refers to new or <u>existing</u> treatments. In this case, it was decided that the option title had been misstated in error and that developing existing treatments was the option under consideration.

6.5.5.6 An outlier sample

The options and alternatives move in sample C2M was excluded from the finer analysis relating to options genre move structure. The theoretical nature of this text with its focus on criteria for, as well as the process for option selection, taken together with the incorporation of significant literature citation, but omission of statements of specific options for action, meant that this sample was substantially inconsistent in terms of structure and other facets, from all other options samples. Nevertheless, this writer achieved a 60% plus mark on this assignment, illustrating the fact that this approach was considered valid by the lecturer markers.

6.5.6 Move frequency and section length in options-focused sub-sections/sub-segments

On average, continuous assessment options samples contained 2.70 moves per sub-section, with NS samples averaging 2.91 moves per sub-section in comparison to 2.53 moves per sub-section/segment in NNS samples.

Individual moves varied in frequency with move 2, the only obligatory move (found in all sub-sections), and moves 3, 4, and 5 occurring at overall frequencies of 32%, 58% and 78% respectively. The most frequent sub-moves were 2.2, stating the option, sub-move 3.3, justifying the option through reference to the internal or external environment, sub-move 4.1, the implementation option orientation, and the evaluation move 5.1 (figure 46).

Figure 46. Percentage of options sub-sections/segments containing individual move.sub-moves
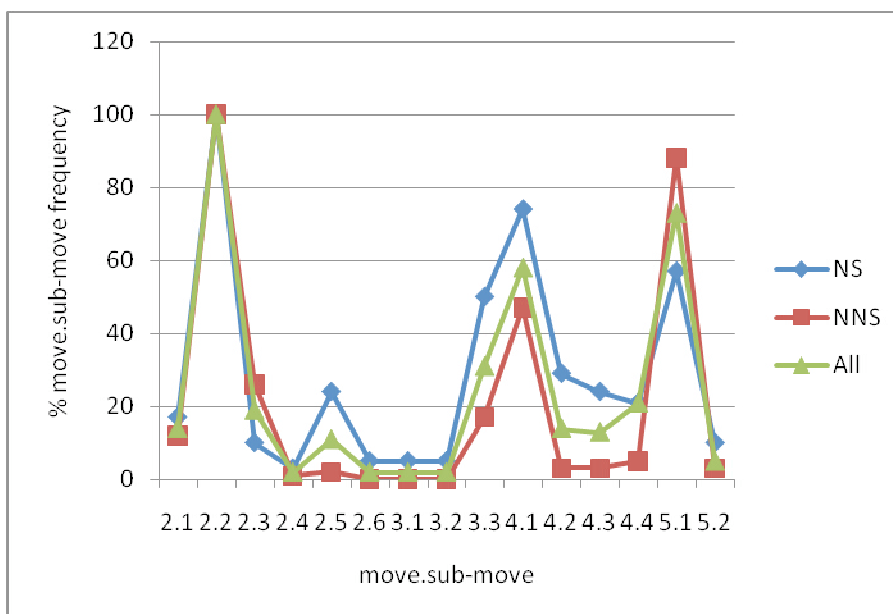
Some notable differences in particular move and sub-move frequencies were observed between NS and NNS writers. The largest move frequency difference related to move 3, found in 52% of NS samples but only 17% in NNS samples. Move 4 was also more frequent in NS sub-sections (74%) compared to NNS sub-sections/segments (47%) with a notable feature here being the fact that NS samples contained, in addition to the obligatory feasibility sub-move 1, the range of other sub-moves (20 - 30% occurrence for sub-moves 3 to 5) whereas the NNS move 4 texts were largely limited to move 4 sub-move 1.

Contrasting with the observations for moves 3 and 4, in NNS samples move 5 was more common than in NS samples (91% NNS against 67% NS sub-sections/segments) with move 5 sub-move 1 also more frequent (88% NNS against 57% NS sub-sections/segments). In comparison to NNS samples, evaluational information appeared much more frequently in the NS move 4 sub-move 4 implementation option evaluational sub-move (21% NS against 5% NNS sub-sections/segments).

A further NS-NNS difference was observed in terms of move 2 sub-moves, with move 2 sub-move 5 (pre-requisites and conditions) occurring in 26% of NS but only 2% of NNS sub-sections, while the purpose sub-move 3, within move 2 was found in 26% of NNS sub-sections but only 10% of NS sub-sections.

In the small number of examination samples, a mix of moves was identified with the orientation to the option move 2, being most frequent. A higher proportion of sub-move 5.2 was observed than in the continuous assessment samples. Nevertheless, the sample size is too small to legitimise conclusions based on these observations.

Focusing on text levels in the different moves, most text in the NS component of the corpus was identified in moves 4 and 5 (approximately 38% in both) but over 56% of text was identified in NNS move 5 sub-move 1 and approximately 24% NNS text in move 4 (figure 47).

Figure 47. Distribution of options and alternatives text (% total words) by move.sub-move
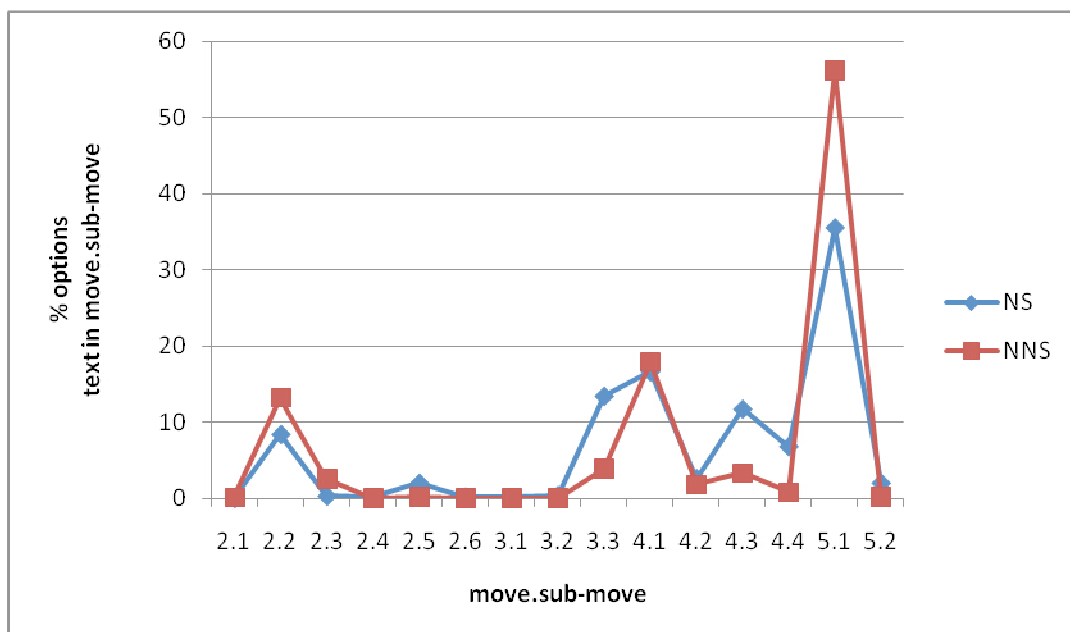
6.5.7 Sub-section move definition, rationale and realisation

Having discussed move and sub-move frequencies within the options sub-sections/sub-segments and provided examples of move structures, this section focuses in more detail on the rationale for delineation of moves and sub-moves, and their linguistic realisations. It should be noted that key business related lexis, as identified in chapter 5, occurred throughout the different option moves and sub-moves.

6.5.7.1 Move 2: Orientation of the reader to the option under consideration

As shown in figure 37, this move consists of 6 sub-moves performing a range of orientation functions. While it was considered that identification of the option through sub-moves 1 and 2 could be classified as a separate 'option identification' move, it was considered more appropriate to include sub-moves 1 and 2 within a more inclusive orientation move, since such option identification was seen as a key element of orientation and further, this option identification was tightly linked geographically, generally in the same grammatical sentence, to other orientation elements such as option purpose and option exemplification. In addition, the desire to present a parsimonious generic structure required the coalescence of different functions where supportable, into broader rhetorical moves.

Realisation of sub-moves 1 and 2: orientation by identification of the option

Identification of the option may involve both an optional sub-move 1 designating the option topic area and an obligatory sub-move 2, stating the specific option(s) under consideration. Sample C2D sub-section 1 shown below, illustrates the use of sub-move 1 in combination with sub-move 2. In this sample, the topic area of price is stated together with a sub-move 2 providing the specific option of lowering the cost of renal products. In this example text, both a referring statement and the purpose statement precede the option statement:

> ***Price*** [SM 1]
> *As suggested at the end of the report, Baxter, to win back old accounts* [SM3]
> *could lower the cost of renal products in the UK.* [SM2]
>
> (sample C2D sub-section 1)

In sample C2B sub-section 4 below, sub-move 1 occurs again with the topic area of promotion identified. In this case, the specific option is stated in elided form in a title and then elaborated in an extended sentence, incorporating the option purpose.

> ***Promotion*** [SM1]
> *Free Sample and Discount*
> *Baxter could offer buyers free sample of new product or discount, next time when buyers purchase an amount of products* [SM2] *to feel loyalty to Baxter.*[SM3]
>
> (sample C2B sub-section 4)

In most samples there is no option topic statement. Options are simply stated in a title, often followed by an elaborated option statement as in sample C2B sub-section 4 above and in the following sample texts:

> ***Build Relationships with 'Economic Buyers':***
> *Baxter needs to build relationships with the 'economic buyers' ....*
>
> (sample C1G sub-section 2)

> ***3.2.2 Targeting***
> *Darling Chocolate can choose to target some (one or two) or all of the three segments.*
>
> (sample E2B sub-section 2)

Titles stating the options or option topic area varied in grammatical form, with the most frequent forms being single word and nominalised noun phrases (*Diagnosis* in sample C1H), *Product and line expansion and differentiation* (sample C1D) as well as verb phrase statements (as in C1G sub-section 2 *Build relationships with 'economic buyers', Promote high quality* sample C1B sub-section 2).

Where individual sub-sections/segments dealt with more than a single option, options relating

to a particular theme in the sub-section title might be juxtaposed (e.g. *Reduce prices v maintain price and reinforce quality*, C2F sub-section 2) or placing what the author considers to be related items together e.g. **Focus on new type of economic buyer and improve sales strategy** (sample C1F sub-section 1). As described in 6.5.5.4, where two options are included in the options analysis sub-section, the options are dealt with sequentially with similar patterns of moves often being repeated for each option, including the sub-move 2 option statement.

In terms of notable lexis, high frequencies of words referring to the case companies (*Baxter* in continuous assessment samples (30.7 occurrences per 1,000 words), *Darling Chocolate* in examination samples (32.6), *company* (4.0) were identified with the word *option* occurring at 8 occurrences per 1,000 words. Other noteworthy verbs in terms of frequency include *focus*, *improve (*both present at 4 occurrences per thousand words) *promote, reduce* and *increase* (present at 3.3).

The modal verbs, *could, can* and *should* are also relatively common in sub-move 2. The modal verb *could* occurs at high frequency in both NS and NNS OA sub-move 2, and in 21 out of 26 uses, this modal collocates with the company in the case, as shown in the examples above in C2B sub-section 4 and C2D sub-section 1. The modal *can* is also used in several NNS samples (though only 1 NS sample) for stating the option as shown in the text sample E2B sub-section 2 above, and the verb form of the lexeme *need(s)* is also used to state the option, being used on five occasions for this purpose in NS and NNS samples (sample C1G sub-section 2 above).

There were four uses of *should* to state options in move 1 sub-move 2 in NNS continuous

assessment samples:

> *Some of non-sales department should be unified.*
>
> > (sample C2B sub-section 5)

, though only one use in NS samples.

The differences between NS and NNS modal use in sub-move 2, while based on a small data sample, suggests NNS speakers may use the advisory modal *should* in this move where the possibility modal *could,* would be a more appropriate choice. Similarly, *can* expresses a more real (less hypothetical) possibility than is required in sub-move 2 option proposal, in which the optional action exists within a hypothetical, unreal situation, requiring the use of the modal *could*.

Another lexical item used to introduce the option is the lexeme, *option* which realises the option statement in three identified ways in the NS samples. In the first type of statement the lexeme is associated with *would* as shown in the first example below from sample C1E. In the second type, (sample C1C sub-section 1 below), found in 8 NS and 20 NNS samples *option* is used as part of a title. In the third type it is found in association with the verb 'to be' (found only in sample C1J sub-section 2).

> *A third option would be to leave the prices as they were*
>
> > (sample C1E sub-section 3)

> *Option 1: Develop new or exciting treatments.*
>
> > (sample C1C sub-section 1)

> *The second option is to revert back to HD ……..*
>
> > (sample C1J sub-section 2)

In terms of verb form frequencies within sub-move 2.2, present simple forms made up 70% of

verb forms in NS samples, and modal verbs 30%, whereas in NNS samples, modals comprised 52% of verbs and present simple forms 46%.

Realisation of sub-move 3: Orientation by stating the purpose of the option

The statement of purpose occurred in 18% of sub-sections in continuous assessment options analysis sub-sections/segments, with a higher frequency occurrence in NNS OA sub-sections/segments (25% of samples) compared with NS equivalents (13%). The close linkage between option and purpose statements are shown in the following samples:

> *The company also needs to develop its existing treatments* [SM1] *to show obvious benefits to the economic buyer* [SM2]
>
> (sample C1C sub-section 1)

> *They could either cut prices* [SM1] *in order to be competitive in their fluid bags,*[SM2]….
>
> (sample C2K sub-section 1)

These purpose statements follow the options statements, however in a number of cases, the purpose statement precedes the option statement (see sample text p.37 above). The most frequently used marker to express purpose is 'to', identified in 75% of the NNS purpose statements (table 18).

Table 18. Purpose markers in options and alternatives move 2.sub-move 3

Marker	NS	NNS	Total
so that	0	2	2
in order to	2	2	4
to	2	12	14

Realisation of sub-move 4: Orientation by exemplification of the option

This infrequent sub-move, identified in only three sub-sections/segments, involves exemplification of the option under consideration and is shown in figure 42 above. In all cases identified, this sub-move uses the phrase 'for example'. The purpose of this sub-move is seen as further clarifying the nature of the option under consideration. While this sub-move could

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be seen as relevant to implementation, its geographical positioning, close to the option statement, but distant from the implementation move, is seen as evidencing an orientation function.

Realisation of sub-move 5: Orientation by stating conditions/ requirements for option selection/success

The requirements and conditions move 1 sub-move 5 was identified in 24% of NS OA sub-sections compared to only 2% of NNS sub-sections/segments. These requirements and conditions for either option selection or success, were expressed by reference to description of actions concurrent with the option action, and description of pre-requisite actions.

(a) Concurrent actions/co-requisites for option selection

This category refers to actions required at the same time as the proposed option is implemented:

> *While improving the companies infrastructure, attention should be given to improving the morale of staff*
> (sample C1F sub-section 7)

> *With a large effort to improve Baxter's operations internally and externally, the company may wish to re-establish its image through rebranding………..*
> (sample C1F sub-section 6)

(b) Pre-requisites for option selection or success

This category of the sub-move is exemplified by the following examples:

> *Once having improved the infrastructure, focus and sales teams, Baxter could intensively target the lost accounts with special offers……..*
> (sample C1F sub-section 3)

> *As a last resort, Baxter may choose to abandon the renal market entirely.*
> (sample C1F sub-section 8)

> *In order for Baxter to regain its competitive edge* [SM3] *prices of their fluid bags would need to be reduced by 4% per bag.*
> (sample C1A sub-section 1)

A further formulation which is considered to fall in this category is the following statement:

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Baxter realises some risk taking is necessary to stay ahead.

<div align="right">(sample C1I sub-section 1)</div>

This statement, while linguistically distinct from the other examples given, appears to represent a broad pre-requisite for company success.

The following general form, time referentials appear to be of significance for the concurrent action and pre-requisite elements:

Once having done…….. [action X], [action Y] could be done,

…while doing [action X], [action Y] could be done….,

With….. [action X], [action Y] may/could be done.).

Also characteristic of this sub-move are modal verbs, which occurred in 9 of the 11 sample sub-move texts, the most common being the modal verbs *would,* occurring five times in the samples, four of these in NS samples, and *could* occurring on two occasions, both in NS texts.

Realisation of sub-move 6: Orientation by summary evaluation of the option

This final move 2 sub-move was identified in two NS continuous assessment samples, in both cases providing a negative evaluation involving explicit rejection of the option:

Clearly this passive approach would have few advantages and would do nothing to reverse the unfavourable trend.

<div align="right">(sample C1E sub-section 1)</div>

Baxter could lower the cost of renal products in the UK. I would not suggest this for a number of reasons.

<div align="right">(sample C1D sub-section 1)</div>

The frequency of occurrence of this sub-move is too low to enable generalised conclusions regarding evaluation or language form. However, positive summary evaluation would be equivalent to recommendation, characteristic of advisory structural elements rather than

options and possibilities elements, and therefore such positive evaluation is considered unlikely as part of this evaluatory sub-move.

6.5.7.2 Move 3: Establishing the motivation/rationale for option consideration

The motivation/rationale move, found in 32% of sub-sections/segments (52% NS, 17% NNS), represents a new phase of option consideration. In addition to the change in cognitive focus, such a view is supported by the observation that no samples were identified where this rhetorical function occurred in the same grammatical sentence as option orientation move 2. Nevertheless, while move 3 almost always followed move 2, in a small number of cases, move 3 was found prior to the option orientation move.

While three rationale sub-moves were identified, by far the most frequent justifications for option consideration arose from problems identified internally in the company or arising in the external business environment. Efforts at separating these areas into separate moves proved unsuccessful, as it was often not possible to disentangle internal and external environmental factors within texts. Therefore these areas are conflated into a single sub-move.

Realisation of sub-move 1: Motivation for option consideration by highlighting the relevance/importance of the option or option topic area

This sub-move was identified in only 2 sub-sections, comprising 2% of the total sub-sections. and is exemplified in sample C1F sub-section 2:

> *Price, as mentioned earlier, is a critically important area of Baxter's offering,*
> (sample C1F sub-section 2)

Realisation of sub-move 2: Motivation for option consideration by focusing on alternative unsuccessful or problematic strategies

Another infrequent sub-move, also identified in 2% of sub-sections, used the problematic

nature of alternative options to support the argument for consideration of the option under discussion as in:

> *The treatments CAPD and APD have already provided this option, but they are currently too expensive for "economic buyers " to take on board.*
>
> <div align="right">(sample C1C sub-section 4)</div>

> *Both the other recommendations have their limitations……*
>
> <div align="right">(sample C1I sub-section 4)</div>

While in the second example the term *recommendations* is used where the term option might seem more appropriate, the limitations of these other recommendations serve to enhance the motivation for consideration of the particular option under discussion.

Realisation of sub-move 3: Motivation by reference to factors in the internal or external business environment

This was the most frequently identified sub-move within move 3, being found in 31% of continuous assessment OA sub-sections/segments (50% NS, 17% NNS). When present, sub-move 3 was often a significant text element in terms of length within the move and sub-section, comprising in some instances a single complex sentence but more frequently several sentences. Examples of sub-move realisations are shown below, classed in terms of their relation to the internal and external environment.

(a) Motivation deriving primarily from the external business environment

> *Cutting prices addresses the needs of a price sensitive market and the needs of the budget conscious economic buyers.*
>
> <div align="right">(sample C1A sub-section 1)</div>

> *The under 16 market represents a large proportion of the St. Petersburg population and therefore a potential target.*

(b) Motivation with a primary focus on internal company factors

> *Our distribution channels are very slow and inefficient.*
>
> <div align="right">(sample C2J sub-section 3)</div>

<div align="center">237</div>

(c) Motivation from both within the company and the external environment

> *Baxter had always been at the forefront of new innovations and developments that have kept them ahead of competitors. However, because the company has not had an innovation for a long time the competitors have been able to catch up and it is definitely time for a new innovation.*
>
> (sample C1C sub-section 1)

While generally the case, motivations do not derive solely from problems such as poor distribution channels (sample C2J sub-section 3) or needing to meet the needs of budget conscious customers (sample C1A sub-section 1). In other instances, motivation for option consideration is derived from opportunities in the market (sample C1A sub-section 3).

Notable lexis aside from that generally characteristic of the case reports included specific 'problem' lexis with lemmas of *fail* (3.4 occurrences per 1,000 words in NS samples) and *loss* (4) occurring at notably high frequencies within the sub-move. Other problem related and negative connotation lexis was also found at lower frequencies including *problem, discrepancy, expensive, inefficient, despondency, damaging, usurped, dwindled.*

The modals *would, may, could,* and *must* were identified in this options sub-move, but only in NS samples. The modal *would* appears to support a range of clausal functions, in particular predicting future problems:

> *PD products may also suffer because research and development costs would have to be shared between PD and HD development*
>
> (sample C1G sub-section 2)

> *if this were to be realised then costs would be too high for the NHS.*
>
> (sample C1F sub-section 3)

Most instances of *must* appeared to be epistemic, relating to logical deduction, as in for example the contention that :

Gambro and Fresenius [Baxter's competitors] *must be offering their products or services at a lower price to those of Baxter.*

(sample C1B sub-section 1)

The uses of the different modal verbs are discussed in more detail in section 6.5.8.3 of this chapter.

The predominant verb form in move 3 sub-move 3 was the present simple, comprising 40% of verb forms in NS samples. Modal verbs comprised 28% of verb forms, past simple forms 15%, with a range of other forms making up the remainder.

Markers of logical consequence, were noticeable in this sub-move with *since (*2.7 occurrences per thousand words*), because* (0.63) *due to* (0.18), *therefore* (0.18), occurring in both NS and NNS sub-move samples.

6.5.7.3 Move 4: Establishing the feasibility of the option

This move, found in 58% of all continuous assessment sample sub-sections/segments, (67% NS samples, 52% NNS), describes possible implementations of the option under consideration, demonstrating to the report reader that the writer has thought through the practicalities of the option, with the consequence that the option is seen as feasible and therefore a more convincing possibility for adoption.

Four sub-moves are identified within this move. Interestingly the pattern of sub-moves mirrors the overall move structure of the options sub-sections/segments themselves. As can be seen from figure 48, both consideration of the option itself, and consideration of the implementation option, contain functional components relating to orientation, motivation and rationale for action consideration, feasibility and evaluation.

Figure 48. Parallels between overall options and alternatives sub-section move structure and sub-move structure within the implementation move

Move 4 Feasibility of the option: sub-moves	Options sub-section moves
Orientation to the implementation strategy under consideration	Orientation to the move under consideration
Motivation/rationale for considering the option implementation strategy	Motivation/Rationale for considering the option
Feasibility of the implementation strategy	Feasibility of the option
Evaluational information about the implementation strategy	Evaluational information about the option

In the same manner in which the options analysis sections discuss a range of options, within move 4 several implementation strategies can be discussed, with the individual sub-moves applied to one implementation option and then the next.

A complete example of a move 4 text with component implementation options and sub-moves is shown in figure 49 below. The option discussed in the section relates to achieving earlier diagnosis. In the initial stage of this move 4 text, an implementation option is put forward within sub-move 1, referring to how information should be disseminated, and this is followed by a further sub-move 1 which proposes the idea of company visits.

In this example text, a negative sub-move 4 evaluation is provided for the implementation option of visiting GPs. This is not a summary rejection of the implementation option itself, but rather an argument against the action, and therefore is not part of sub-move 1 sub-sub-move 6 (summary evaluation of the implementation option which would parallel the overall options structure). Different sub-move 3 statements then follow, each providing details about the implementation of the implementation option through description of the content of the educational information and the precise nature of the information that should be communicated as a part of this option implementation. Somewhat out of sequence with what

Figure 49 Sample move 4 text with sub-moves (sample C1G sub-section 1) [Option: Educating GP's and renal practitioners about early diagnosis]

Sub-Move	Text
1	This can be done by providing them with leaflets and books which contain the relevant information.
1	Also, if necessary, people from the company could visit GP offices and advise them about the disease,
4	But this could be expensive for the company.
3	This educational information could also encourage the use of urine sticks to test for renal disease. GP's need to be aware that early diagnosis is important. They need to realise that renal insufficiency is a growing problem, and that early diagnosis is essential.[74] Baxter needs to inform them that patients have a higher chance of survival, that early diagnosis can improve people's lifestyles by offering them the opportunity to use PD treatment, it saves money by reducing the number of 'acute chronic' cases and can also help to indicate other diseases
2	Earlier diagnosis will increase Baxter's potential market but will not directly affect demand for PD products.
3	Therefore Baxter needs to inform GP's about the benefits of PD over HD treatment.[75] This information could then be passed onto patients to help create demand for PD

might be logically expected, a sub-move 2 follows, justifying the consideration of the subsequent implementation option, with the writer recycling to a further sub-move 3, providing further details of the implementation of the implementation option.

Multi sub-move complexity incorporating recycling of sub-moves and a range of sub-sub-moves (cycling of sub-sub-moves was shown in figure 39, p.217) was characteristic of NS move 4 text, with frequent presentation of different implementation strategies, rationales for these strategies and evaluatory information.

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[74] This text refers to the content of the educational information provided to GPs in particular with respect to urine sticks and therefore is concerned with the implementation of the implementation option.
[75] The implementation option here is that of providing information to GPs about the benefits of PD over HD.

Realisation of sub-move 1 – Orientation to the implementation option

The rhetorical function of this sub-move parallels that of the orientation to the option(s) move but focuses on orientation to the implementation option(s). This sub-move was an obligatory component within move 4.

The move 4 sub-move 1 orientation function can be broken down into further sub-sub-moves, as shown in figures 50 and 51. All of the sub-move samples contained SSM 1, the statement of implementation strategy whereas the purpose sub-sub-move, SSM 2 was identified in only 10 of the 54 move 3 containing sub-sections (19%). Other sub-sub-moves, paralleling the sub-moves found in the option orientation move 1 were not identified.

Figure 50. Move 4 sub-move 1: Orientation to the implementation strategy (sample C2B sub-section 3)

Sub-sub move	Text
SSM 1 By stating the option implementation Strategy	Posters and leaflet in pharmacies and hospitals or the advertising on web site could be useful
SSM 2 By stating the purpose of the implementation strategy	to educate people and doctors.

Figure 51. Move 4 sub-move 1: Orientation to the implementation strategy (sample C1F sub-section 5)

Sub-sub move	Text
SSM 1 By stating the option implementation strategy	These groups [those susceptible to renal problems] can therefore be targeted
SSM 2 By stating the purpose of the implementation strategy	to gradually increase demand and improve their well-being.

The orientation to the implementation option is realised using a range of linguistic devices. As in move 2 sub-move 2, statement of the option, the modal verbs *can* and *could* are used, as well as exponents of the type *one option available is... / one possible option would be ……. .*

Purpose was generally realised through the *to* marker. Modal verbs were the predominant verb form in this sub-move, constituting 61% of total verb forms with present simple forms comprising 35%. However, notable differences in frequencies of usage of different modal verbs between NS and NNS users were identified. These differences are quantified and discussed in detail in section 6.5.8.3 below. The particle/preposition *by,* associated with the description of how actions are achieved, occurred at notably high frequency (6.1 occurrences per 1,000 words), but at higher levels in NS samples (8.4).

Realisation of sub-move 2: Establishing the motivation/rationale for consideration of the implementation option

This sub-move, functionally parallel to move 3, occurred at a low frequency of 14% (29% NS sub-sections/segments; 7% NNS). The sub-move was realised through multiple sentences, single sentences, and simple clauses as in the following samples:

> *The marketing manager could also work more closely with health professionals in the cardiovascular department in hospitals[SM1] as this is also known to increase the likelihood of renal problems[SM2].*
>
> (sample C1A sub-section 3)

> *Key groups of people are identifiable as being at higher risk of renal disease than others. These are sufferers of other diseases, members of ethnic groups, older people and individuals with family histories of renal problems [SM2]. These groups can therefore be targeted to gradually increase demand and improve their well-being [SM1].*
>
> (sample C1E sub-section 5)

Lexical characteristics and grammatical (verb form) patterns of usage were difficult to identify in this sub-move, due to the overall low word frequency (343 words in total) and the variety of sub-move realisations.

Realisation of sub-move 3: Establishing the feasibility of the implementation option

This sub-move was identified in 13% of marketing management continuous assessment sub-

sections/segments, (17% NS samples; 3% NNS). As with the option feasibility move 4, this sub-move provides additional evidence to the reader about feasibility, but in this case with regard to the implementation option rather than the option itself.

The text from sample C2G below illustrates the presence of sub-sub-moves within sub-move 3. In this sample, following the proposal in sub-move 1 of implementation of communication via an internet site (text not shown), the provision of a chatroom within the website is proposed in sub-move 3 to show the feasibility of the implementation option. Evaluational information is then provided about the chatroom option (parallel in function to a move 5 sub-move 1 or move 4 sub-move 4).

> *This internet site could also provide a chatroom where patients could chat to other renal sufferers [SM3]. This could help promote PD treatment and increase demand from consumers, this demand could then be passed onto the 'economic buyers' of medical products. [SM4]*
>
> (sample C2G sub-section 2)

The most noticeable language feature in sub-move 4.3, is the frequent use of modal verbs, particularly the modal *could*, found in all six sub-move samples generated by NNS writers, although other modals such as *would*, *can*, and *should* (1 sub-section) were also identified in the NS samples.

No specific patterns in terms of business and topic-focused lexis were identified in this sub-move, however, as with move 4 sub-move 1, the particles *by* and *through* used for describing how actions can be achieved, were frequent (5.5 and 3.1 occurrences per 1,000 words respectively) with higher levels of the former in NS compared to NNS samples. Finally with regard to this sub-move, 73% of verb forms were modal verbs with 16% present simple and the remainder past simple forms.

Realisation of sub-move 4: Providing evaluative information about the implementation option

This sub-move parallels the function of move 5 in the overall options analysis, providing arguments for and/or against the discussed implementation strategy as opposed to the overall option. However while sub-section move 5 is often clearly structured into titled advantages and disadvantages sections, such explicit structuring was not observed in move 4 sub-move 4.

Move 4 sub-move 4 was identified in 10% of continuous assessment marketing management sub-sections, occurring in seven NS sub-sections (17%) and three NNS sub-sections (5%). The level of text was low.

In several options sub-sections, the provision of evaluative information regarding the implementation option seemed to be present in place of evaluative information about the option itself, with only the implementation option being evaluated, and no actual evaluation of the option stated in move 2 sub-move 2. Figure 52 demonstrates a move 4 for an option sub-section where the option discussed was stated as *Product and Line Expansion and Differentiation.* No evaluation of the option was provided, however evaluation of the implementation option 'encouraging the use of APD systems over CAPD systems' can be identified.

Modal verbs were identified as prominent in sub-move 4, with differences in modal use between NS and NNS samples being observed, the modal *would* being identified at 27.1 occurrences per thousand words in NS samples but no uses being identified in NNS texts. Similar substantial differences were observed for the modals *may* and *could*.

Figure 52. Illustration of move 4.sub-move 4 implementation option evaluation (option: *Product and Line Expansion and Differentiation*).

Sub-move	Text
1	First of all it could increase bag usage by encouraging the use of APD systems over CAPD systems,
2	which uses fifty percent more solution.
3	This system could be promoted for those that it would really benefit, children, and those that worked every day.
4	However these are small segments. Further more if Baxter was to try and produce APD bags for all segment, perhaps stopping production of standard CAPD bags, the economic buyers may opt for the increased use of HD or buy a rivals CAPD bags.

6.5.4.3.4   Move 5: Providing evaluative information about the option

Move 5 presents option evaluation, either in the form of arguments for and against the option, comprising sub-move 1, or, in a small number of cases, by combining argument with summative evaluation of the option, comprising sub-move 2.

This move contains the highest levels of text of all the moves in both NS and NNS samples (figure 47) with more than 50% of NNS text found in move 5, and was identified in 78% of marketing management continuous assessment options sub-sections (91% NNS sub-sections/segments; 57% NS), being the second most common move in the broader options and alternatives move.

Realisation of sub-move 1: Stating arguments for and against the option without summary evaluation

Move 5 sub-move 1 was identified in 72% of all of the continuous assessment sub-sections,

(50% of NS sub-sections/segments; 88% NNS). Sub-move 1 was also identified in 90% of the examination sub-sections. Levels of text in sub-move 1 in continuous assessment samples could be substantial, on occasion constituting approximately 300 words.

Sub-move 1 provides evaluative information about the option for action, demonstrating the writer's evaluative capacities, but does not provide the reader with explicit opinions on whether the option should be accepted or rejected. In general, within move 5 sub-move 1 there is a balanced presentation of arguments for and against the option, often in the form of a list of advantages and disadvantages. Such texts are exemplified in figures 38 and 45 above. However, arguments in this sub-move may in some cases not be equally weighted, providing significant support for acceptance or rejection of the option, though incorporating no summative opinion. It may be argued in these cases that the writer is steering the lecturer reader towards a particular view of the option's acceptability.

In terms of linguistic realisation, as with a number of other sub-moves, modal verbs constituted the most frequent verb form (53%) with present simple forms also frequent (38%). The modals *could, would* and *will* occurred at 14.6, 9.8 and 8.2 occurrences per 1,000 words respectively in continuous assessment samples. These modals were generally used to support predictions, with varying degrees of certainty about the positive or negative consequences of an option as in the following examples:

> *Cutting investment in research and development would effect the brand image of Baxter, a leading edge, innovative company.*
> (sample C1A sub-section 1)

> *Baxter could obviously benefit from this, whilst one of these companies could benefit from Baxter's long history of innovation and quality, ..*
> (sample C2B sub-section 3)

The functions of these different modal verbs in relation to move 5 sub-move 1, are discussed in section 6.5.8.3 of this chapter.

Notable lexical frequencies in this sub-move include the relatively high frequency of conditional 'if' (5.9 occurrences per 1,000 words) and the implementation related preposition 'by' (5.2).

Realisation of sub-move 2: Stating arguments for and/or against the option with summary evaluation

This sub-move was found in only 5% of continuous assessment sub-sections and in a single examination OA text. The sub-move is characterised by overt and usually negative evaluation of the option under consideration, combined with arguments supporting this evaluation.

While it might appear logical to suggest two moves within move 5, a first involving evaluational information and the second involving a summary evaluation, in practice, where summative evaluation is present, argument is distinct in tone and character compared to the more neutral evaluation in sub-move 1 where no summative evaluation is presented. It was considered that separate argument and evaluation moves would not sufficiently reflect these differences in the character of evaluative information observed. The tone and language characteristic of sub-move 2 are visible in the following continuous assessment samples in which all summary evaluations were negative:

> *Therefore this is an undesirable strategy and not really the right attitude although it is an option worth noting.*
>
> (sample C1F sub-section 7)

> *In short this option does nothing to dispel the weaknesses, relying on Baxter's strengths alone to keep it afloat. These strengths were beginning to lose their relevance as quality, range, technology and innovation were not relevant to the new power holders, the economic buyers. In the meantime the competition would take advantage of the opportunities available and the level of P1 penetration would continue to fall.*
>
> (sample C1E sub-section 1)

It is noteworthy that in these examples the summary evaluation precedes the arguments regarding the options.

There was only a single NNS example of move 5 sub-move 2, and therefore for this sub-move, NS v NNS comparison was not considered viable. Lexical items were few in the NS samples with *would* (5 uses: 29.4 occurrences per 1,000 words), and *option* (3 uses: 17.6 occurrences per thousand words) considered to be of possible importance.

In the single examination move 5 sub-move 2 sample, a positive evaluation of an option is presented.

> *Darling should therefore use a differentiated strategy. Darling can focus on quality and innovation, especially through developments in packaging.*
> (sample E1D sub-section 2)

Clearly such positive summary evaluation would seem similar to recommending the option, and so would be expected in an advisory section rather than the options move. In fact, this options decision is followed by a mid-report recommendations section in which the recommendation of a differentiated strategy is repeated. This unnecessary repetition may be seen as indicating an erroneous conception of the options and alternatives move in this sample.

6.5.8 Lexical and grammatical features of the options analysis structural elements
6.5.8.1 Lexical analysis
Frequencies of business lexical items in the options and alternative move were broadly similar to frequencies identified in whole texts, as shown in chapter 5, tables 6 and 7, with frequent

lexical items in the NS options elements being *market* (6 v 9.6 occurrences per 1,000 words whole case), *products* (5.6 v 4.6), *buyers* (5.1 v 3.7) and *price* (4.9 v 3.0).

Lexical frequencies for NS and NNS options move texts in continuous assessment reports were compared. At p < 0.000001, two items, namely *would* and *this* were identified as significantly more frequent in the NS samples, and two items, *our* and *customers,* identified as more frequent in the NNS samples. Further investigation showed that all instances of *our* occurred in a single NNS sample (C2J) and therefore this observed difference was not considered of generalised significance.

At p < 0.0001 additional statistically significant items identified as more frequent in NS samples were *as, improve* and *approach* while additional items identified as more frequent in NNS OA texts were *might, can, we, its* and *must*.

6.5.8.2 Verb forms

Counts of verb forms in the options and alternatives moves are shown in table 19. By far the most prominent verb forms were simple present forms (40% of all verb forms uses) and modals (50%). Patterns of verb form use were broadly similar between NS and NNS samples (NS: modals 49%, present simple 41%, NNS: modals 51%, present simple 38%). Active voice verb forms constituted approximately 90% of verb form uses in both NS and NNS samples.

Frequencies of different verb forms varied between moves and sub-moves as shown for key moves.sub-moves in figure 53. Distributions of different verb forms within moves and sub-moves did not vary substantially between NS and NNS samples, with the exception of move 2

Table 19. Verb form frequencies in the options and alternatives move

Verb Form	NS Cont. Raw freq (% verb forms)	NNS Cont. Raw freq (% verb forms)	NS Ex. Raw freq (% verb forms)	NNS Ex Raw freq (% verb forms)	Overall Total Raw freq (% verb forms)
Simple present	304(41)	237 (39)	14 (44)	26 (63)	581 (41)
Simple past	40 (5)	39 (6)	0	2 (6)	81 (6)
Present perfect simple	16 (2)	13 (2)	2 (6)	0	31 (2)
Past perfect	8 (1)	4 (1)	0	0	12 (1)
Present progressive	11 (1)	8 (1)	0	0	19 (1)
Past progressive	4 (1)	1 (0)	0	0	5 (0)
Pres. perf. progressive	1 (0)	0 (0)	0	0	1 (0)
Modals	365 (49)	301 (50)	16 (50)	13 (31)	695 (49)
TOTAL VERB FORMS	749	603	32	41	1425
Passive Form.	72 (10)	50 (8)	5 (16)	6 (15)	133 (9)
Active Form.	677 (90)	553 (92)	27 (84)	35 (85)	1292 (91)

sub-move 2 where the overall verb form frequencies were relatively low (approximately 10% of total verb forms).

Figure 53. Relative frequencies of verb forms by key move.sub-move in the options and alternatives move
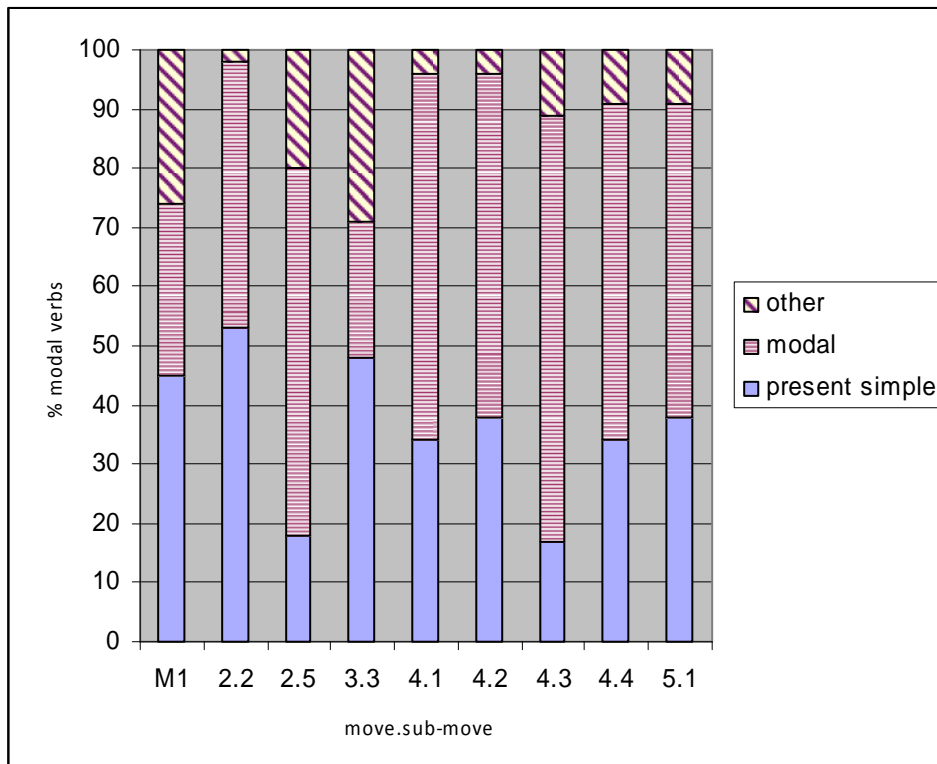
Note : To support the validity of counts, sub-moves analysed were the most frequent sub-moves and contained more than 2% of total option sub-section text. M1 refers to move 1, for which sub-moves are not identified (see section 6.5.3).

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Modal verbs were proportionally most frequent in the implementation move 4 and evaluation moves 5 where they predominate over present simple forms. The present simple predominates over modal verbs in moves 2.2 and 3.3. The higher level of present simple forms in sub-move 2.2, may be accounted for by the frequent title statements incorporating this verb form as part of option identification. The motivation and rationale for considering an option in sub-move 3.3 may involve description of the current market or company situation involving reference to past situations, and therefore the present simple is used to a greater extent together with a mix of other verb forms.

6.5.8.3 Modal verb frequencies and functions

Modal verb frequencies

Overall frequencies of the different modal verbs in NS and NNS continuous assessment options elements, as determined through Wordsmith tools analysis, are shown in table 20 below. Log likelihood values (G^2) are provided together with determined significance levels for NS – NNS comparisons, conducted using two-tailed tests.

While significant differences were identified in comparisons between NS and NNS comparisons using the log likelihood test, application of the Mann-Whitney U statistic identified no significant difference between NS and NNS samples in regard to modal deployment with regard to any of the modal verbs, or with calculations involving the combined modal totals in NS and NNS categories. This lack of determined significance is attributed to the low number of sample texts in the different categories, which reduces the likelihood of determinable significant differences through the Mann-Whitney test. For the purpose of comparisons in this chapter, log likelihood is therefore used as the main statistical determinant, though as already has been discussed in chapter 6, this statistic does not take into

account variation between samples within the sub-corpora analysed and therefore inferences need to be drawn with some caution.

Table 20. Modal verb frequency in NS and NNS marketing management continuous assessment options and alternatives moves

Modal	Total occurrences /1,000 words)	NS modal occurrences /1,000 words)	NNS modal occurrences /1,000 words	G^2 (log likelihood)	Sig. Level
could (incl.could/not)	173 (10.0)	105 (11.2)	67 (8.8)	2.43	p>0.05
could not	4 (0.2)	2 (0.2)	2 (0.3)		
would (incl.would not)	168 (9.9)	125 (13.4)	43 (5.6)	27.06	p<0.0001
wouldn't/ not	10 (0.6)	8 (0.9)	2 (0.3)		
will ((incl. will not)	84 (4.9)	36 (3.9)	48 (6.3)	-5.05	p<0.05
will not	8 (0.5)	2 (0.2)	6 (0.8)		
can (incl. cannot)	74 (4.3)	22 (2.4)	52 (6.9)	-19.43	p<0.0001
cannot	4 (0.2)	2 (0.2)	2 (0.3)		
may (incl. 'may not')	54 (3.2)	40 (4.3)	14 (1.8)	8.30	p<0.01
may not	3 (0.2)	2 (0.2)	1 (0.1)		
should (incl. should/not)	38 (2.2)	12 (1.3)	26 (3.4)	-8.54	p<0.01
should not	1 (0.1)	0 (0.00)	1 (0.1)		
have to (all forms)	30 (1.8)	15 (1.5)	15 (2.0)	-0.31	p>0.05
might (incl might not)	29 (1.7)	4 (0.4)	25 (3.3))	-21.53	p<0.0001
might not	13 (0.8)	1 (0.1)	12 (1.1)		
must	27 (1.6)	5 (0.5)	22 (2.9)	-15.32	p<0.0001
ought	1 (0.1)	1 (0.1)	0 (0.00)		
Total modals	678 (39.8)	365 (39.2)	313 (41.0)	-0.44	p>0.05

Considering the data in table 20, and taking a level of p < 0.05 as a level for rejection of the nul hypothesis of no difference in frequency between NS and NNS samples, the modal verbs *may* and *would* occur at statistically significant higher levels in NS compared to NNS samples as determined through the log likelihood test. In contrast the modal verbs *should, will, must, might* and *can* all occurred at statistically significant higher frequency in NNS samples compared to NS samples. The table shows that non-native speakers used slightly higher frequencies of modal verbs in the OA elements, however this is not a statistically significant difference.

Distribution of modal verbs in the options and alternatives move

Figures 54 and 55, show modal verb distribution patterns in NS and NNS samples by move

and sub-move in terms of frequency of occurrence of the different modal verbs[76]. It is apparent that the overall distribution profile of modals in the NNS samples is comparatively simple relative to the NS profile, with NNS modal verbs concentrated in move.sub-moves 2.2, 4.1 and 4.1, whereas in the NS samples, modal verbs are found in these same sub-moves but also at high levels in move.sub-moves 3.3 and 4.3 .

Figure 54. Distribution of modal verbs by move.sub-move in NS options and alternatives moves
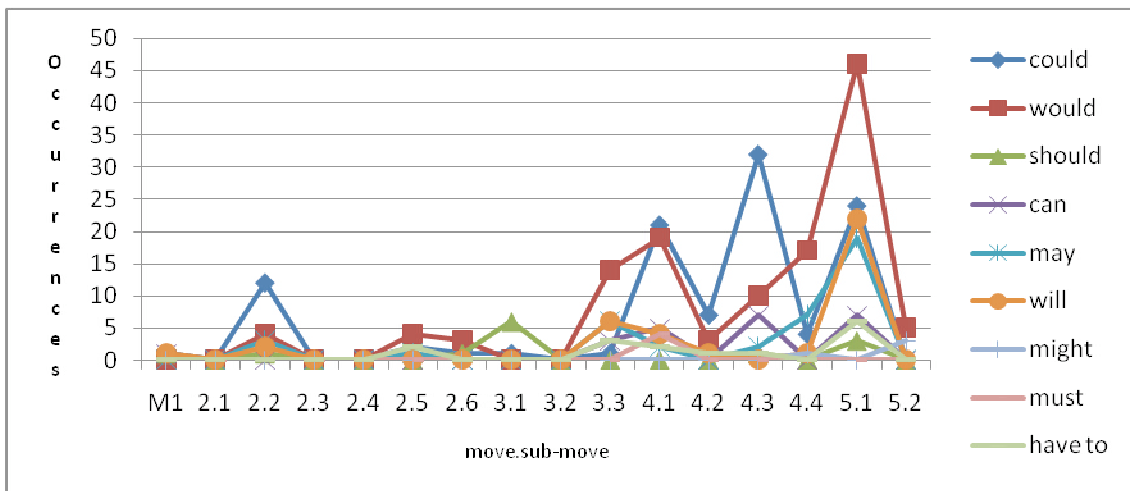
Figure 55 Distribution of modal verbs by move.sub-move in NNS options and alternatives moves
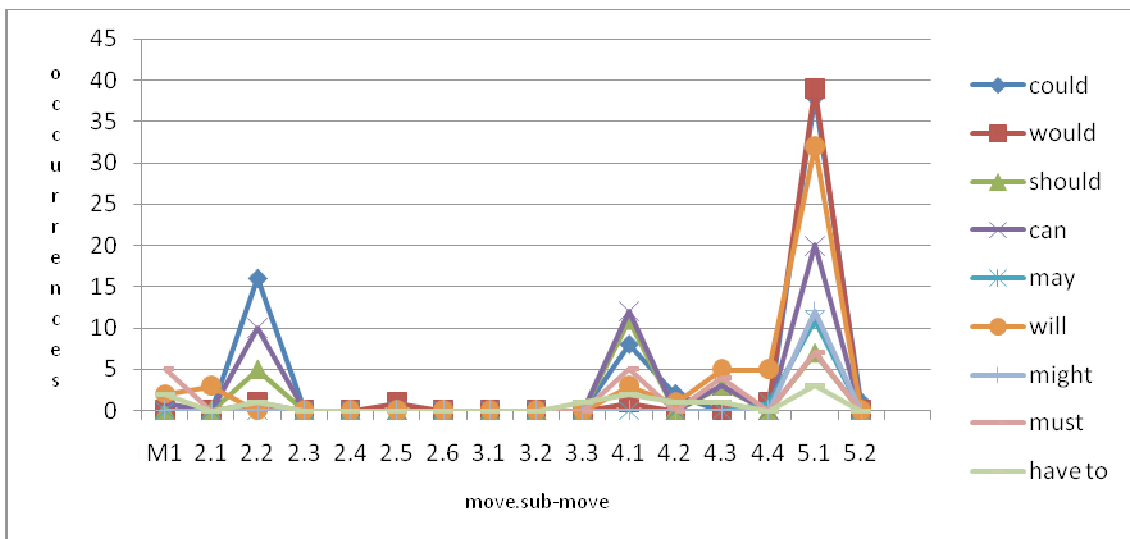
Note : In both figures, M1 is move 1 for which, there was a insufficient consistent data to enable clear and appropriate formulation of sub-moves (see section 6.5.3).

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[76] It should be noted that figures for occurrences between these graphs are not directly comparable, due to varying levels of text between NS and NNS options samples (NNS text comprised 81% of NS word level).

Overall it is clear that there are higher levels of total modal verb occurrence in NS move 4, and in particular NS move 4.3 relative to the equivalent NNS moves and sub-moves, however, it seems highly probable that these differences are related to the higher levels of text and sub-move deployment in NS samples (shown in figures 46 and 47) rather than differential modal usage within the moves, since the total modal frequencies in NS and NNS sub-moves 4.1 are identical at 41 occurrences per 1,000 words, and further, total modal verb deployment in NS sub-move 4.3 is 50 occurrences per 1,000 words and in the NNS equivalent 63 (though in this case all modal verbs derived from a single text).

Contrasting with this observation, while there was notably more text in NS move 3 sub-move 3 in comparison to the equivalent NNS structure, in this case, deployment of modal verbs in the NS sub-moves occurred at a level of 28.9 per 1,000 words in contrast to the NNS level of 5. While the text level from the NNS samples was low (only 226 words), these words derived nine sub-section texts, indicating what may be a real difference between the NS and NNS sub-move realisations, beyond simply the degree of elaboration.

Within move 5.1, the NNS writers used modal verbs at higher frequency in comparison to NS writers (54 v 34 occurrences per 1,000 words). This would seem to signify a further difference in modal usage between NS writers and NNS writers.

Focusing in on specific modal verbs within NS move 3, the most prominent modal verbs are *would* and *could,* with 49 uses of *would* in comparison to 2 uses in NNS move 3, and 64 uses of *could* in comparison to 10 in the NNS move. These differences are clearly substantial. In move 4 sub-move 1, these two modal verbs remain the most frequent in both NS and NNS samples, with occurrences and frequencies lower in the NNS samples, though not to the same

degree as with move 3.

What is also noticeable and significant in move 4 sub-move 1 is the higher levels of deployment, both in terms of occurrence and percentage frequency, of the more 'real' modals *will* and *can* in the NNS samples. In addition, the levels of the modal verbs *must* and *might* are notably higher in terms of percentage words and occurrence levels in the NNS samples, with all NNS deployment of the latter occurring in move 4.1.

The observed differences in total and individual modal deployment raise questions regarding whether it is cognitive and broad rhetorical factors that result in differing move and sub-move deployment between NS and NNS writers, or alternatively whether observed differences are the result of different levels of knowledge and facility in the utilisation of these modal verbs.

While it is clearly not possible, based simply on modal verb deployment data, to access the meanings intended by learners through their use of modal verbs, evidence regarding reasons for observed NS-NNS differences in modal verb deployment will be presented and discussed in the following section which focuses on modal functions expressed, and the clausal functions within which the different modal verbs are deployed.

Modal verb clausal functions

Going beyond the frequency data in the above graphs, concordance lines containing the different modal verbs were analysed in order to further understand the roles of modal verbs in the options and alternatives move[77].

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[77] As mentioned above, while clausal functions expressed are identified, it is not possible to determine with certainty whether the expression of these functional meanings represented the writer's intentions.

- Analysis of *could* functions

In terms of core meaning, the modal *could* can express possibility, ability, can be used for requests, as a counter-factual marker and as a past form of *can*. Within the options and alternatives move, the vast majority of uses related to possibility. No uses of *could* for the making of requests, as past of *can* or acting in a counter-factual sense, were identified in the options and possibilities elements. The type and frequencies of expression of each of the clausal functions supported by the modal verb *could* are shown in table 21.

Table 21. Functions of *could* containing clauses in NS and NNS continuous assessment options and alternatives moves

Clausal function	NS occurrences (% *could* uses)	NNS occurrences (% *could* uses)
proposing possible future action	60 (57)	35 (52)
stating possible future consequence (providing evaluative information)	42 (41)	24 (36)
direct evaluation of action	3 (3)	8 (12)
Total	105	67

The use of *could* for presentation of possible future actions was required for move 1 sub-move 2 (identifying the option), move 4 sub-move 1 and move 4 sub-move 3 (identifying the option implementation strategy and establishing the feasibility of the implementation option) and for the latter two sub-moves is illustrated by the following text samples:

> *However the education and information concerning the PD treatment could also be communicated to those who now have the majority of purchasing power*
> (sample C1A sub-section 2 move 4 sub-move 1)

> *Baxter could easily stress all the advantages that its products have over its competitor's products.*
> (sample C1I sub-section 2 move 4 sub-move 3)

The other major use of *could* was within clauses expressing possible consequences of actions as part of the provision of evaluative information:

…………by lowering prices they could probably squeeze the much smaller companies out of the market.
(sample C1I sub-section 1 move 5 sub-move 1)

The only apparent disadvantage of this is that buyers could see Baxter as embarking on a policy of selling out.
(sample C1B sub-section 3 move 5 sub-move 1)

A low frequency use of *could* was found in direct evaluative comments such as in the following move 3 sub-move 3:

However this could be an expensive option.
(sample C1G sub-section 2 move 4 sub-move 3)

While providing information characteristic of evaluative move 5 sub-move 1, at a clausal level, such statements are seen as providing more direct evaluation and do not incorporate a consequence in the same manner as the other consequential statements presented in this section.

Differences in raw frequencies between the different NS and NNS categories are considered attributable to a range of factors including in particular variable NS-NNS levels of rhetorical move and sub-move deployment. Other factors may be displacement of *could* by the related modal *can* among NNS writers, with different overall levels of NNS and NS options and alternatives text contributing to lower raw frequency.

- Analysis of *would* functions

The modal *would*, in broad terms expresses hypotheticality and also acts as a past form of *will* (Coates 1983:205). Other more specific functions include those of indirectness, expressing requests, and making suggestions. Frequencies of the different clausal functions supported by *would*, are shown in table 22 overleaf.

Table 22. Functions of *would* containing clauses in NS and NNS marketing management continuous assessment options and alternatives moves

Clausal Function	Occurrences NS (% *would* uses)	Occurrences NNS (% *would* uses)
proposing hypothetical future action for consideration	24 (19)	1 (2)
identifying hypothetical pre-/requisite action	15 (12)	3 (7)
identifying hypothetical future consequence	57 (46)	25 (58)
identifying hypothetical past action	2 (2)	0
identifying hypothetical past consequence	1 (1)	2 (5)
hypothetical question	2 (2)	3 (7)
direct evaluation of action	20 (16)	3 (7)
other	4 (3)	6 (14)
total	125	43

Within both NS and NNS options category sections, almost all uses involved expression of hypotheticality. However, the *other* category, in addition to uses of *would* that were considered difficult to interpret and classify, incorporates a small number of tentative uses of *would* in clauses expressing other functions.

The table indicates that there are some important differences between NS and NNS uses of *would* in terms of clausal functions supported. There are clearly far fewer uses of *would* in the NNS user category for the proposition of hypothetical future courses of action. Such clauses are in almost all cases located in moves 2.2, 4.1 and 4.3 in which options for action, option implementation strategies, and options for implementing the implementation strategy, are proposed. While sub-move 2.2 occurs at similar frequencies between NS and NNS samples, there are higher levels of sub-moves 4.1 and 4.3 in NS samples (figure 44) providing the rhetorical context for the higher frequency of the propositional clausal function. Examples of *would* in the context of future actions are provided below:

> *Other ways it could get back profitability would be to develop its line in xeno transplants*
>
> (sample C1D sub-section 4, move 4 sub-move 1)

A third option would be to leave the prices as they were and branch out into HD treatment ….

(sample C1E sub-section 3, move 2 sub-move 2)

Clearly there is also a higher raw frequency of *would* usage for the support of clauses expressing pre-requisite/requisite actions in NS options elements, these being generally found within move 2.sub-move 5 and move 4.sub-moves 1 and 3 (see section 6.5.7).

Table 22 also shows that there are more uses of *would* by NS writers for stating hypothetical consequences providing evaluative information and direct evaluation (exemplified in section 6.5.7). Possible reasons for these differences include rhetorical deployment variation between NS and NNS writers. The origins of this NS-NNS variability of *would* deployment is discussed in more detail in the summary and discussion section of this chapter.

Hypothetical past actions are demonstrated by the following example which provides support for an action by highlighting the ease of implementation:

This is not difficult as their name would already have been mentioned in conjunction with...

(sample C1J sub-section 4 move 5 sub-move 1)

Clausal contexts for the use of *would* in some cases involved direct evaluatory comment in which the author's summative view of the option is clear:

This passive approach would have few advantages.

(sample C1E sub-section 1 move 2 sub-move 6)

Overall the data presented here in regard to NS and NNS *would* usage levels is particularly interesting in the sense that differences in *would* deployment can be seen as related to frequency of clausal functions expressed as well as move.sub-move frequency. It is unclear

whether it is grammatical difficulties with expression of the *would* hypothetical function, or lack of awareness regarding the notion of hypotheticality, that lead to lower clausal function expression or move.sub-move frequencies, however the ratios of difference between the different NS and NNS clausal functions, suggest that cognitive factors associated with clausal and rhetorical functions, in addition to issues relating to the core hypotheticality meaning, are likely to be factors in NS-NNS *would* deployment variability. Assuming that some NNS learners are aware of the need to express hypotheticality but lack the language resources to express this meaning, a focus on the language for expression of such hypotheticality as well as on clausal and rhetorical functions expressed using *would,* would seem a valuable point of pedagogical focus.

A final point with regard to the modal *would* is that this modal has been described, at least in some uses, as being an epistemic modal expressing probability (Hyland & Milton, 1997; McEnery & Kifle, 2002). In regard to the consequences of the actions described in these case reports, it would seem more appropriate to describe *would* as expressing certainty in relation to consequences in hypothetical situations, with the related modal *will* expressing a similar function in situations seen by the writer as more 'real'.

- Analysis of *can* functions

This modal verb has been identified as expressing general possibility, ability, permission, request and as an epistemic element presenting the author's view of the level of truth of a proposition (Palmer 1979; Coates 1983). The distinction however between possibility functions of *can* and ability functions is a difficult one to draw. In this analysis the ability function is considered to be tied to private verbs such as *remember* and *understand* as

described by Coates (1983:91)[78]. No uses of *can* with the ability function defined in this sense were identified in NS or NNS options and alternatives moves. As can be seen from table 23, almost all uses of *can* in NS and NNS samples were identified as expressing the possibility function.

Table 23. Functions of modal *can* containing clauses in NS and NNS marketing management continuous assessment options and alternatives moves

Function	Occurrences NS (% *can* modals)	Occurrences NNS (% *can* modals)
proposing possible future action	13 (60)	30 (57)
stating possible consequence	9 (41)	19 (37)
direct evaluation of action	0	2 (4)
question	0	1 (2)
total	22	52

Statements of possible future actions mediated through *can,* as in the following examples, occurred more frequently in NNS samples in comparison to NS samples.

> *Baxter can differentiate their different kinds of customers*
> (sample C2J sub-section 5 move 2 sub-move 2)

> *Baxter can wait for the buyers to come and purchase…..*
> (sample C2A sub-section 7 move 2 sub-move 2)

With regard to statements of possible consequence utilising *can*, as with the modal *could,* these are used as argumentative support for or against a course of action, as in:

> *..early diagnosis can improve people's lifestyles by offering them...*
> (sample C1G sub-section 1 move 4 sub-move 3)

It has already been shown in table 20 that overall *can* usage in NNS options elements is significantly higher than in NS samples. It is clear from the clausal function data that this difference is reflected in both of the main clausal functions supported by *can*, with approximately twice the number of clauses of each function supported in NNS compared to NS samples. The contrasting lower level of use of the possibility expressing *could* in NNS

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[78] However Gisborne (2007) considers examples such as those shown in this section as somewhat ambiguous.

samples compared to NS samples, both for the option proposition function and the consequences function, suggests that NNS writers are using the more 'real' *can* for expressing possibility, when the more hypothetical and unreal situation of options discussion has a general requirement for the use of the more hypothetical *could*.

- Analysis of *will* functions

In the options samples, the major function of *will* is to express a high degree of certainty about possible consequences of actions in more likely and real situations thereby contrasting with the use of *would* which is seen as expressing a high level of certainty in hypothetical situations. The clausal functions supported by the use of *will* are shown in table 24.

Table 24. Functions of modal *will* containing clauses in NS and NNS marketing management
continuous assessment options and alternatives moves

Clausal Function	Occurrences NS (% *will* modals)	Occurrences NNS (% *will* modals)
proposing future action	1 (3)	5 (10)
stating predicted consequence	23 (64)	30 (63)
other prediction	9 (25)	6 (13)
direct evaluation of action	3 (9)	7 (14)
Total	36	48

Examples of the use of *will* in relation to predicted consequences include:

> *…..increased numbers of planned chronic cases and therefore PD take-on, will ultimately increase Baxter's take-on rates and profits*
> (sample C1A sub-section 3 move 5 sub-move 1)

> *However it [Baxter] will suffer from losing its accounts to competitors and losing market share in PD market*
> (sample C2D sub-section 2 move 5 sub-move 1)

Clearly related to future consequences but providing direct evaluations, w*ill* is also used as in the following example:

> *They will however bring long term success.*
> (sample C1C sub-section 1 move 5 sub-move 2)

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Uses of *will* relating to future actions in statements unrelated to consequence or evaluation were uncommon and are exemplified by the following:

> *Baxter will differentiate their products for these two segments of the market.*
> (sample C2J sub-section 5 move 4 sub-move 1)

Uses of certainty *will* and *would,* both in terms of frequency of modal verb occurrence and in terms of frequencies of the key clausal functions of action proposition and predicted consequences, show the same NS-NNS comparison pattern as possibility *can* and *could*, with the more real modal *will* more frequent in NNS options elements and clauses and the hypothetical *would* more common in the equivalent NS elements. No use of *will* was identified related to pre-requisites and conditions.

This data suggests that it is not only differential deployment of moves and sub-moves which contribute to NS-NNS differences in modal deployment, but also differences in either perceptions of the options consideration as hypothetical or real, or alternatively, the differential association of particular modal verbs with the hypothetical nature of the options move.

- Analysis of *may* functions

The modal *may* performs a range of functions including statement of possibility, permission seeking, and making suggestions (for example *we may as well go home*). With a single exception, in all cases (both NS and NNS texts), *may* expressed possibility, with most clausal contexts focusing on possible future actions (table 25).

Table 25. Functions of modal *may* containing clauses in NS and NNS marketing management continuous assessment options and alternatives moves

Clausal Function	Frequency NS (% *may* occurrences)	Frequency NNS (% *may* occurrences)
proposing possible future action	9 (23)	1 (7)
stating possible consequence	22 (55)	11 (79)
direct evaluation of action	4 (10)	1 (7)
other	5 (13)	1 (7)
Total	40	14

Possible future action statements are exemplified by the following:

> *It may therefore be necessary to concentrate on increasing the sales of CAPD*
> (sample C1A sub-section 1 move 4 sub-move 1)

> *The company may wish to re-establish its image through rebranding*
> (sample C1F sub-section 6 move 4 sub-move 1)

The most common use of *may* was in the statement of possible consequences as in the following examples:

> *A reduction in price ……. may also trigger an undesirable price war*
> (sample C1F sub-section 2 move 5 sub-move 1)

> *The only real advantage of cutting prices is that it may attract the new decision –makers*
> (sample C2B sub-section 1 move 5 sub-move 1)

Statements considered as evaluations of actions include the following examples:

> *However this may be difficult due to the cost of PD treatment.*
> (sample C1G sub-section 3 move 5 sub-move 1)

> *A disadvantage may be that this is of dubious legality.*
> (sample C1D sub-section 2 move 5 sub-move 1)

For all identified clausal functions, *may* occurs at higher frequencies in NS samples compared to NNS samples. While variation in NS-NNS rhetorical move deployment, particularly higher deployment of move 4, may account for some of the observed NS-NNS *may* deployment variability, the fact of higher *may* deployment for consideration of possible consequences, in NS move 5 compared to NNS move 5 (figures 54 and 55) suggests that

observed differences relate specifically to differential deployment of *may* to support the possible consequences function.

- Analysis of *must* functions

Must can act as both an epistemic device relating to propositional truth and as a non-epistemic device referring to necessity. In the options move, 5 NS uses of *must* were identified (four of which occurred in one sample), four of these being determined as epistemic uses with one indicating necessity, whereas all 22 NNS uses were of the necessity type.   The epistemic function is illustrated in the following texts:

> *If other companies are able to produce virtually the same items at lower cost,*
> *then Baxter must be able to do the same thing.*
> >   (sample C1J sub-section 2 move 2 sub-move 2)

> *…yet there must be some reason why Baxter's loyal customers have defected*
> >   (sample C1J sub-section 1 move 3 sub-move 3)

The necessity function in NNS options elements is illustrated by the following examples:

> *Patients must follow asceptic technique …*
> >   (sample C2B sub-section 2 move 4 sub-move 1)

> *A marketing research process must be conducted*
> >   (sample C2J sub-section 6 move 2 sub-move 2)

In terms of clausal functions, the data shows that a number of NNS clauses, as in sample C2J above, use *must* to state high necessity company actions. As options are being discussed, it would seem likely that high necessity statements in regard to company action would in general run counter to the requirements of an options section.

- Analysis of *might* functions

Quirk and Greenbaum (1983) describe *might* as performing a similar range of functions to *may,* although additionally the *might* modal verb may be used to present criticisms. In the 4 NS examples and 25 NNS uses of *might* in the options move, its function was in all cases to

express possibility, though interestingly there appeared to be a noteworthy link to the notion of criticism.

It was found that in 1 of the 4 NS occurrences and 8 of the 25 NNS samples, *might* appeared together with the negative *not*. In comparison, with the related modal *may*, 4 of the NS 40 were linked to *not* and only 1 of the 11 NNS *may* uses. In addition to this possible association with *not*, *might* also appeared to be connected in a more general sense to negative statements, since all NS and 80% of NNS examples of *might* usage were associated with arguments *against* adopting an option as in the following:

> *......it might be hard to persuade the hospitals to move back to PD treatments.*
> (sample C1C sub-section 4 move 5 sub-move 1)

> *The health authority might not like this idea.*
> (sample C2A sub-section 4 move 5 sub-move 1)

Negative meaning was also expressed in more complex fashion as in for example:

> *Price cutting can only be a short term strategy and might retain customers on a short term basis.   Such a lowering in the price might also affect product quality.*
> (sample C2C sub-section 1 move 5 sub-move 1)

 Although four uses of *might*, supported the proposal of options for action, at a clausal level it would seem that *might* generally supported statements of arguments against adoption of a particular optional action.

- Analysis of *should* functions

Should is well known as a marker indicating a high degree of necessity, involved in the expression of specific advice, as well as signifying general obligations and duties. It can also be used as an epistemic marker and as a more tentative form of shall. Its use was expected to be infrequent in the options category elements in comparison to recommendations sections, which were considered to be specifically advisory in function.

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In line with this expectation, *should* was identified at relatively low frequency in NS continuous assessment options moves (12 occurrences, 1.3 occurrences per 1,000 words), though at significantly higher frequencies in NNS samples (26 occurrences, 3.4 occurrences per 1,000 words).

In 25 of 26 NNS uses, and 5 of 12 NS, *should* was used to express a high level of necessity for action performance within an advisory clause context, as shown in the following examples:

> *Baxter should extend its market by promotion and advertising*
> (sample C2A sub-section 5 move 4 sub-move 1)

> *..they should consider a different courier company*
> (sample C1F sub-section 7 Move 4 sub-move 1)

The higher levels of use of *should* by NNS writers suggests that advice is being provided to a higher degree by these writers in the options move, in a manner which would be generally inconsistent with the purposes of the options move.

In the exceptional NNS and in 6 NS usages, *should* was used to express epistemic probability/likelihood as in the following example:

> *Baxter should be able to afford this considering the benefits it would bring.*
> (sample C1B sub-section 2 move 5 sub-move 1)

All of these epistemic uses of *should* were found in the evaluatory information move 4 sub-move 1. All NS epistemic uses of *should* provide positive evaluations of the option under consideration.

- Analysis of semi-modal *have to* functions

In the 9 NNS uses identified, *have to* acts as a marker expressing necessity with regard to

actions, as in for example:

> *We have to start creating the same customer relationship we had with clinical*
> *buyers.*
>
> (sample C2J sub-section 4 move 2 sub-move 2)

In contrast to the NNS samples in which only a single use of *have to* was collocated with the

modal *would,* in the native speaker samples 12 of the 15 *have to* uses were collocated in this

way:

> *The discount would have to be quite substantial …..*
>
> (sample C1I sub-segment 1 move 2 sub-move 4)

> *Finally Baxter would have to consider what effect the loss of profit …..would*
> *have on its shareholders.*
>
> (sample C1D sub-section 1 move 5 sub-move 1)

From these NS examples, it appears that a major function of this semi-modal in the options

category context is to express high necessity in hypothetically marked clauses, a function not

grammatically available for the high necessity modal *must*.

6.5.8.4 Other notable grammatical and lexical items in options sub-sections/sub-segments

Analysis of *need to*

With certain exceptional realisations, the verb *need* is generally not considered as a modal

verb since its generally expressed grammatical properties are inconsistent with the core

grammatical properties of modal verbs referred to in section 6.3 of this chapter. Nevertheless,

as Koester (2000) points out, *need to* can be said to express a modal meaning of necessity, in

a similar manner to *must* and *have to*. On account of this fact, together with the relatively high

frequency of *need* in the options move, uses of *need* are discussed in this section.

Lemmas of the collocation *need to* were found at 4.8 occurrences per 1,000 words (46 uses) in NS marketing management continuous assessment samples (distributed across five texts) but only 0.8 occurrences per 1,000 words (6 uses) in NNS samples. 24 of the 46 NS occurrences were found in a single sample, C1G, with the four other samples containing low levels of *need to*. The NS-NNS difference is statistically significant at a level of $p < 0.0001$.

In all cases where *need(s) to* occurred it was used to propose courses of action which are of high necessity as in the following sample:

> *Baxter needs to build relationships with General Practitioners (GP's) and other medical professionals.*
> (sample C1G sub-section 3 move 4 sub-move 1)

However, at a further level, *need to* clauses seem to perform a broader function. In the following examples the *need to* containing clause, while proposing a course of action also provides justification for considering, in the former case, the option of developing 'new and exciting treatments' and in the latter, argument for pursuing a promotional strategy.

> *Baxter needs to push the medical boundaries before its competitors do.*
> (sample C1C sub-section 1 move 3 sub-move 3)

> *Buyers may need to be reminded of these qualities.*
> (sample C1B sub-section 2 move 5 sub-move 1)

Need to was clearly a useful language tool for a number of NS writers, providing a further option for expressing a high level of necessity, though with perhaps slightly less commitment and force than the modal *must* and the semi-modal *have to*.

By + noun phrase* and *by + …ing

One of the most frequent items in both the NS and NNS options moves (NS 4.9 occurrences per 1,000 words, NNS 4.2), found in all NS samples, was the particle *by*. 48% of NS uses of *by* were identified in the implementation-feasibility move 4 (77% of these in sub-move 1, 23% in move 4 sub-move 4), with 41% of uses found in move 5 sub-move 1. In contrast only 25% of NNS uses occurred in move 4 with 58% in move 5.

Analysis of concordance lines showed that use of *by* was associated with proposing actions, particularly implementation action, with the structure by + ….ing used for stating these strategies, as in the first two examples below, and also for referring back to previously mentioned implementation strategies in evaluational moves, as in the third sample text:

> *…..this can be done by providing them with leaflet and books which contain relevant information.*
> (sample C1 G sub-section 1 move 4 sub-move 1)

> *Baxter could keep its prices by selling its bags in a package with the machine needed for PD treatment..*
> (sample C2A sub-section 2 move 2 sub-move 2)

> *By specialising in one particular area it would be able to establish itself as an undisputed leader with more resources...*
> (sample C1F sub-section 3 move 5 sub-move 1)

By was also used in options moves in association with nouns or noun phrases to refer to implementation options (although this was rare in the NNS samples with only one occurrence identified):

> *This can be remedied by a postal publicity campaign,…….*
> (sample C1J sub-section 1 move 5 sub-move 1)

> *Baxter should extend its market by promotion ….*
> (sample C2B sub-section 1 move 4 sub-move 1)

In other cases, 'by' was followed by an agent, (e.g. *by GPs by the other company, by the government, (is seen) by some*), by numerical information (*reduced by 4%)* or tied to a lexical item, as in *superseded by advances in cloning.*

Through + noun phrase, **and** ***through + ing***

Through was used in much the same manner as *by,* albeit at much lower frequency. 13 occurrences of *through* occurred in the NS continuous assessment options moves (1.4 occurrences per 1,000 words) with seven occurrences in the NNS samples (0.9 occurrences per 1,000 words). Examples of uses include:

> *…the company may wish to establish its image through re-branding*
> (sample C1F sub-section 7 move 2 sub-move 2)

> *This bond could be reinforced through the use of a 24 hour helpline*
> (sample C1E sub-section 3 move 4 sub-move 1)

Through was followed by either an *…ing* verb form or a noun or noun phrase.

Conditional *if*

There were a total of 61 uses of conditional *if* in the options moves, with a statistically significant higher frequency in NNS compared to NS samples (5.3 v 2.4 occurrences per 1,000 words). Conditional clauses both in NS and NNS samples used a mix of past simple and present simple verb forms though there were proportionately more past simple verb forms in the NS samples compared to the NNS (56% NS v 44% NNS). Results clauses, with a few exceptions, used a mix of modal verbs with *could* and *would* predominant in NNS samples (25% and 34% respectively) but *may* and *would* predominant in the NS samples (26% and 32%).   74% of NNS uses of *if* were found in move 5 sub-move 1 in comparison to 39% of NS uses, with other NS uses distributed at low levels around the various sub-moves. Conditional clauses were clearly not limited to conditions and pre-requisite related moves

and sub-moves, instead providing support for a range of different rhetorical meanings including providing evaluative information and rationales for option consideration.

6.6. Summary and discussion

6.6.1 Rhetorical structure of the options and alternatives move

In this chapter a framework generic structure has been put forward for the broad options and alternatives move identified in the case report corpus. As summarised in figure 37, the framework move structure consists of an orientation to options move 1, followed by a cyclic four move options analysis sub-section/segment move structure. The sole compulsory move in this structure is move 2, in which the option(s) for discussion is(are) identified, though some form of evaluation text in the context of moves or sub-moves, is found in more than 90% of samples.

The frequency of occurrence of non-obligatory moves has been shown to be related to speaker type, with NNS samples on average possessing lower levels of moves 3 and 4, but higher levels of evaluational move 5. As shown in section 6.5.6, NS options sub-section texts contained notably higher levels of moves on average and a wider range of moves and sub-moves compared to NNS samples.

The identified differences in move structure realisation between NS and NNS writers indicate the potential of a generic approach to options move teaching and learning. On the assumption that the additional moves and sub-moves employed more frequently by native speaker writers perform useful functions in terms of supporting the communicative purpose of the overall text, raising the awareness of NNS writers to the potential use of such moves and sub-moves, as well as their realisation, would seem a worthwhile pedagogical goal, given the references to options and alternatives analysis in the case report literature. The move structure

could also be informative to NS writers suggesting rhetorical approaches which may be adopted to reinforce options arguments, and as a consequence, final advice and recommendations.

While it would appear from table 15 that options moves were shorter in marketing examination compared to marketing management continuous assessment reports and that examination move structures might be less complex and developed overall, given the small number of examination samples, it is considered impossible to draw sustainable conclusions here regarding the relationship between specialism, task and situational factors, and the proposed generic structure.

A key feature of the options and alternatives move structure, as illustrated in figure 37 and figure 38 is the high degree of cycling of move and sub-move sequences within and between the options sub-section/segment moves and sub-moves.   Each option under consideration can be seen as subject to analysis through a varying but repeated available pattern of moves, which may operate within a sub-section/segment where more than one move is considered, or between sub-sections/segments considering different options.   Beyond this, cycling of sub-moves occurs within the move 4 feasibility move, in which different option implementation strategies are analysed, and further within move 4 sub-move 3 within which analysis of the implementation of implementation strategies occurs.   There is clearly the potential for further cycling at even deeper rhetorical levels.

The observed cycling of moves and sub-moves in the options and alternatives move is discussed in relation to the research literature in thesis chapter 8.

6.6.2 Modal verbs in the options and alternatives move

Modal verbs have been shown to occur at high frequency in the options and alternatives moves (39.8 occurrences per 1,000 words in the continuous assessment samples), contributing to core clausal and rhetorical functions. The rhetorical functions include the presentation of possible options for action, describing the means by which those options can be implemented, as well as the evaluation of those options.

It has also been shown that modal verbs are used at different frequencies and to some extent for different purposes by native and non-native speakers. At the level of raw frequency, using log likelihood analysis, it has been shown at high levels of statistical significance that the modal verbs *would,* and *may* occur more frequently in NS options samples in comparison to NNS samples, while the modal verbs *must, should, can, will* and *might* are more common in NNS samples[79].

Combining the frequency analysis with analysis of clausal functions shows that there is a tendency for NNS writers to use modal verbs indicating higher levels of necessity and certainty, *must, should, will* in the options move in comparison to NS writers. However, taking into account the clausal data, it is also considered that the higher levels of use of *can* and *will* by NNS writers are related to difficulties in expressing the basically hypothetical nature of the options and possibilities sections, which requires the more general use of the more hypothetical modals *could* and *would* rather than the more real meanings expressed by *will* and *can*. Options and alternatives moves require the establishment of a hypothetical context and act as a theoretical thinking space preliminary to the more real and actual decision-making, which is required in advisory structural elements. Therefore, the modals

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[79] While statistical significance is shown, the application of the Mann-Whitney test to a larger sample base would be required to enhance the level of certainty in regard to these claims of difference.

would and *could* are required to a greater degree than the modals *can* and *will*, which would be anticipated to be more prevalent in advisory elements (see section 6.6.3 below).

The frequency data shows that, with regard to the modal verb *could*, there is no statistically significant difference in frequency of use of this modal verb between NS and NNS speakers. Use of *could* is however more frequent in NS samples compared to NNS samples for the proposal of possible options and statement of consequences, while the related real modal *can* is used more frequently for expressing these functions in the NNS samples compared to the NS samples. A similar pattern of use of the real *will* in comparison to the hypothetical modal *would* is also observed for the expression of the evaluative function.

In addition to the hypothetical-real distinction, the frequency and distribution of uses of modal verbs and other items between NS and NNS writers also seems likely to be influenced by the frequency of deployment of component rhetorical moves within the options sub-sections-segments. The fact that, for example, the implementation of implementation strategy implementation move 4.sub-move 3 and the evaluational move 4.sub-move 4 are hardly used by NNS writers, but used by more than 20% of NS writers (figure 47), when taken in combination with the fact that the modal *would* seems to be a valuable element for realising these sub-moves, serves to, at least partially, account for the lower levels of *would* in the NNS options moves. However, the data also suggests that *would* is likely to be used to support a wider range of clausal functions in NS texts, particularly proposing actions and stating pre- and co-requisites for actions.

Other notable features from modal verb analysis in this chapter include the higher frequency of NNS use of *might* and the strong association of this modal verb with negative evaluations,

the higher use of epistemic *must* and *should* in NS samples compared to NNS, and the association of the semi-modal *have to* with *would* in NS samples but not NNS, with the resultant *would have to* collocation being linked to conditions and requisites.

6.6.3 Comparison of modal frequency and usage in options and alternatives moves and recommendations structural elements

Insight into the role and functions of modal verbs in the options and alternatives move can be derived from contrasting the frequency and use of modals in these options sections with their use in recommendations elements deriving from the same continuous assessment tasks.

From table 26 overleaf it can be seen that in NS samples, those modals more closely associated with high levels of probability, necessity and certainty, (including the more real modals), namely *should, will, must,* and *can,* occur at much higher frequencies in recommendations sections than in options and alternatives structural elements, whereas, by contrast, those modals expressing possibility or lower levels of possibility (and hypotheticality), namely *could, would,* and *may* occur at higher frequencies in the options category elements. The notable exception is with regard to the strong semi-modal *have to*. It seems reasonable to suggest that in this case the higher frequency in the options move may be associated with the use of this modal for stating requisites and conditions, which may not be required in the recommendations elements.

Summing the frequencies for the possibility and hypothetical modals, *could, may, might* and *would* shows total options move levels of 29.3 and recommendations levels of 5.6 occurrences per 1,000 words. The opposite picture is seen through summation of the more probable/certainty and real modals *can, will, must, have to* and *should* with total options levels of 9.6 but recommendations levels of 28 occurrences per 1,000 words.

Table 26. Modal verb frequencies in the NS marketing management options and alternatives move and recommendations structural elements

Modal	Options raw frequency (occurrences per 1,000 words).	Recommendations raw frequency. (occurrences per 1,000 words).
could	105 (11.2)	9 (1.5)
may	40 (4.3)	7 (1.2)
should (incl. should not)	12 (1.3)	40 (6.8)
will (incl. will not/won't)	36 (3.9)	69 (11.8)
would	125 (13.4)	17 (2.9)
might (incl. might not)	4 (0.4)	0
must (incl. must not)	5 (0.5)	14 (2.4)
have to / has to	15 (1.5)	7 (1.2)
ought	1 (0.1)	0
can (incl. cannot)	22 (2.4)	34 (5.8)
total modals	365 (39.2)	190 (32.4)

In broad terms this data highlights the role of the options and alternatives move in the more tentative analysis and discussion of possible courses of action and their evaluation, contrasting with the more certain presentation of strategies required of advisory recommendation elements. It is through the more tentative discussion in the options and possibilities move, that the lecturer reader can gain deeper insights into the processes and rationale through which the student writer generates and evaluates the overall advice provided.

Chapter 7 - Experiments in Genre Learning

7.1. Introduction

As described in chapter 4 of this thesis, there have been few studies that have explored or evaluated student performance in relation to genre-based teaching and learning. The single experimental study in the ESP genre literature relating to genre learning, conducted by Henry and Roseberry (1998), which was based in a non-standard tourist information brochure genre, provided some limited support for the efficacy of genre approaches demonstrating an increase, but not a statistically significant increase, in the use of genre moves.

In the absence of significant experimental data supporting genre-based approaches to learning, it was considered of potential value to conduct experimental studies aimed at identifying the extent to which generic features of the options and alternatives move could be learned. A further purpose of the investigation was to investigate how the model texts associated with much genre teaching, contribute to learning.

The options move was determined as focus of this study since, as evidenced by initial observations of pre-sessional student writing and as further evidenced in chapter 5, discussion of options seemed problematic for NNS writers. In particular the data in chapter 5 indicates that NNS writers used fewer moves and less complex move structures compared to NS writers, as well as tending to use stronger, more assertive modals, with fewer uses of hypothetical *would*. On the assumption that use of modals expressing hypotheticality and lower levels of certainty are desirable in options sections, and that higher levels of moves and more complex move structures are generally desirable, the options moves were considered to

provide a locus within which development of genre knowledge could potentially be demonstrated among NNS learners.

An additional objective of the experimentation was to examine and compare the value, as well as strengths and weaknesses, of directed and undirected approaches to the development of genre knowledge, the former directed approach involving tutor specification and direction of learners in terms of language focus, the latter undirected approach involving learner determination of the language learning focus. Such experimental work might shed some light on the debate with regard to whether genre features can or should be learnt with or without explicit teaching, a matter which, as described in chapter 4, has been an area of some controversy in the field of linguistics.

As a means of meeting the outlined experimental goals, this chapter therefore presents experimental work which examines the deployment of genre features of options moves by NNS learners before and after genre learning experiences. The extent of genre feature deployment is determined following encounters with model options analysis sub-section elements, with teaching and learning procedures either incorporating language focused directed learning, incorporating teacher instruction, or involving model text provision but otherwise undirected study[80].

While learning is a complex construct to define and investigate, changes observed in deployment of genre features between pre- and post-learning procedures are considered in this

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[80] In experimental work in this chapter, undirected study procedures involved learners completing a worksheet task in which they were asked to identify useful language features found in a model options analysis text in order to support their own options analysis writing. Clearly there is a sense in which this undirected study could be said to be to some extent directed, however, learners are able to identify language features of their choice without tutor direction in terms of specific language features. This type of study is therefore referred to undirected.

study as measures of changes in genre knowledge and therefore learning. Due to situational constraints, while recognised as desirable, investigation of the development of genre knowledge amongst the research participants through other non-empirical methods such as interviews, questionnaires, or protocol analysis, was not conducted.

7.2. Methods

7.2.1 Experimental overview

The core design of the research is quasi-experimental, involving pre-test, post-test assessment of genre feature deployment following directed and undirected encounters with genre models of options move texts. The generic features that were the prime focus of the study were modal verbs and options sub-section rhetorical moves.

In broad terms, participants in the study received a business case and generated options for action based on the case (figure 56). This led to an in-class session involving the writing of a pre-test options analysis text for which 30 minutes was provided. Following random allocation to different experimental groups, participants then engaged in either undirected or directed study of a genre model text, in the latter case through the use of worksheets focusing on either the frequency and use of modal verbs, or analysis of rhetorical move structure in the model text. Tutors clarified worksheet requirements and facilitated student to student discussion of worksheet tasks, providing informative feedback where necessary.

Worksheets used in both directed and undirected experiments are shown in Appendix D sections (a) – (c). Having studied the model text, participants then generated further options for action. In the case of modal verb focused experiments, this second business case was different from the first, whereas in the generic move focused experiments, the same case was

used throughout[82].   Participants then generated a further options analysis text, the post-test

options analysis text, for which again 30 minutes was provided.

The handwritten pre and post-test texts were converted to notepad files. For both modal verb

and rhetorical move focused experiments, texts were analysed for the frequency of modal

verbs and other lexical elements using Wordsmith Tools. All texts were also analysed for the

presence or absence of rhetorical moves, pre- and post-test.

Figure 56. Overview of experimental process

Business case A

Pre-test options analysis text production
(all participants)

Group 1

Undirected study
of case A genre model

Study of business case A/B

Post-test options analysis text
production

Group 2

Directed study of case A genre model
(modal verbs/rhetorical moves)

Study of business case A/B

Post-test options analysis text
production
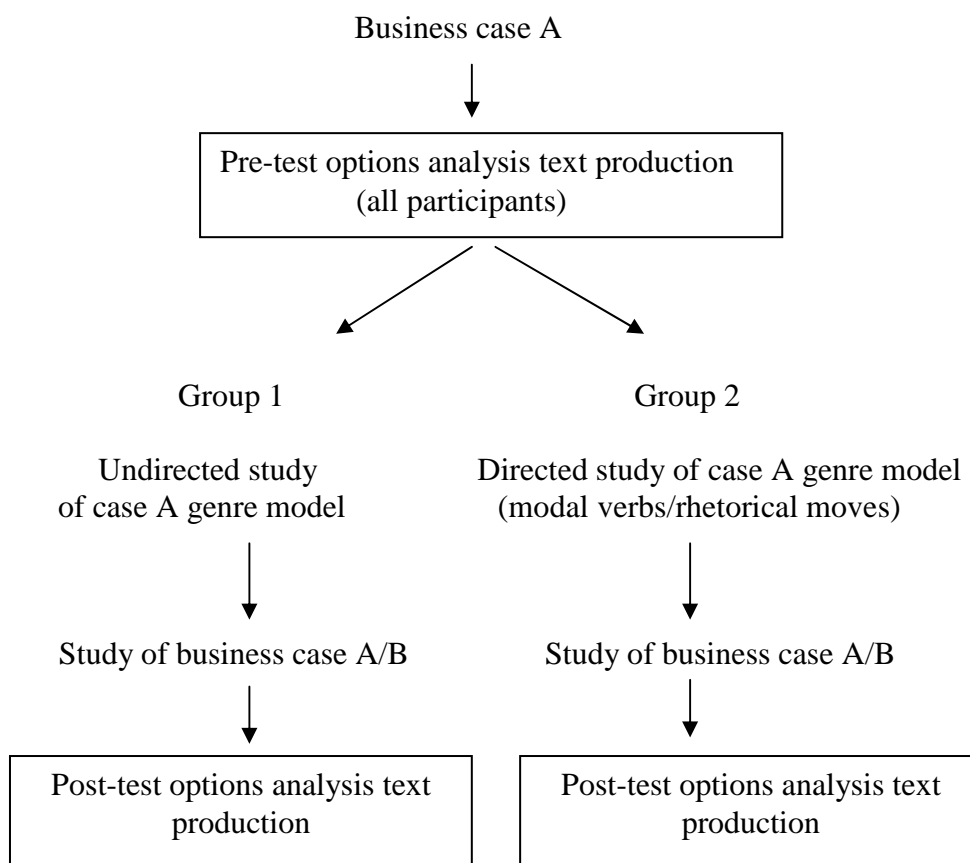
7.2.2 Subjects

Participants in this research were non-native speaker students studying on pre-sessional

business programmes at a UK university.   These students were aiming to join postgraduate

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[82] This was done to reduce the cognitive load on participants as generic move analysis was considered more
complex than the counting and analysis of modal verbs.

business programmes, particularly MBA programmes, and were required to achieve specific grades on their pre-sessional programmes in order to progress. Participant ages ranged from the early 20's up to around 30 years old.

All of these pre-sessional students had entered their preparatory programmes having achieved IELTS test scores of from 6.0 to 7.0 Course length for individual students was variable dependent on English language level on entry and therefore at the time of experimentation, participants had experienced different levels of pre-sessional language tuition.

Participants included in the experimental study were drawn from consecutive years of pre-sessional business study. This was necessary in order to achieve adequate numbers of participant responses to support experimental validity. A total of 27 participants were involved in modal verb usage experiments, while 28 participants took part in the genre move deployment experimentation. Aggregation of data across academic pre-sessional year groups was judged valid since in yearly cohorts, participants were selected for the pre-sessional programme through largely similar procedures, with similar selection criteria and identical language requirements, resulting in overall cohorts with similar balances of nationality, gender and first language.

7.2.3 Business cases

Business cases were required as contextualised stimuli for the generation of options for action and as a basis for options analysis writing. Cases used were taken from Marcouse (1992) with minor adaptations made to enhance relevance in one particular case. Specific business cases used in experimentation were selected on the basis of providing an appropriate level of linguistic challenge, provision of a relevant business context for action, relevance of subject matter in terms of the participant programmes, and on the basis of the extent of text

comprising the case (given the programme context, it would not be viable for participants to read text that was too extensive).

For experiments focusing on modal verb deployment two cases were used in the procedure, firstly Quality Circles and then, for the second part of the experiment, The Brooklyn Bank. For the move-focused experiments, the management-based furniture company case was used as the basis for options section writing for both parts of the experiment with participants required to write about different options in the second text. These cases were not focused on marketing or marketing management due to the unavailability of appropriate cases, nevertheless the relevance of the chosen cases to student goals and the previously reported prevalence of options consideration in the literature (chapter 2), supported the selection of the given cases.

7.2.4 Generation of genre model texts

Having selected business cases for study of appropriate length, cognitive and linguistic complexity, options and alternatives texts were then written by the researcher in response to the tasks and cases on which the experimental sessions were based. While such researcher written texts might be open to criticism on the grounds of a perceived lack of authenticity, it is considered that the options model texts generated represent authentic responses to the particular case tasks presented, these model texts closely matching the commonly identified options analysis genre patterns described in chapter 6 of the thesis.

During the process of model text generation, the focus of the options writing was on fulfilling the cognitive, rather than the linguistic requirements of the options analysis tasks. No conscious effort was made to incorporate particular moves or language structures, as it was considered that any focus on the inclusion of specific modal verbs or generic moves would

lead to unrealistic and artificial texts which would not fulfil the task requirements in so effective a fashion and could lead to a misleading model. It was considered that key language elements would arise through fulfilment of tasks.

Confirmatory judgements as to the efficacy and appropriacy of the model texts were obtained from relevant academic business sources. It is further noted in justification of the use of the researcher generated models that such texts have been used by other researchers, including in the study of writing development by Beireiter and Scardamalia (1984)[84].

Through the course of the experimentation, two model texts were used, one (appendix D, section (d)), based in the Quality Circles case, and the other, based in the furniture company case (appendix D, section (e)). As these options texts were not extensive and were founded in business cases used for initial introduction of business knowledge and principles, substantial specialised business knowledge was not required for the generation of options text responses.

As a consequence of the cognitive rather than language focus adopted, model sub-section texts did not in all cases demonstrate each of the moves available in options sub-sections, nor did they precisely represent the proportions of different modal verbs identified in the options analysis structural elements analysed in chapter 6 of this thesis. It was considered that this variation represented the reality of variation in options writing, the presence of multiple sub-

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[84] While thesis corpus options sections could be considered as more authentic responses to cases, due to experimental constraints, learners would not be able to study the lengthy and complex cases upon which the thesis corpus options sections were based. Linguistic study of these model texts without deeper, personal, meaning-based involvement and understanding of the task and model text case background, was viewed as having significant potential for detracting from learning, thereby providing significant potential for confounding the learning research.

sections in the model texts (multiple models) serving to demonstrate this variety of realisation.

Model texts of options sections amounted to four option sub-sections comprising a maximum of 718 words in the Quality Circles model text, used in the modal focused experiments, but only 259 words in the subsequent Old Elvet Furniture Company case. A balance was sought between the provision of an acceptable extent of data representative of options writing, and the cognitive load presented by higher text levels. A lower level of text was used in the later move-based model text experiments as it was perceived that move and sub-move analysis would require more cognitive effort than the modal verb counts and analysis required in directed learning modal verb focused experiments.

Experimental counts of moves, pre- and post-test were restricted to sub-section moves 2 to 5, as these moves could be analysed in terms of sub-move content. Further, focusing on these sub-section moves allowed consistency across experiments, since in the context of experimental procedures adopted, move 1 orientation to options analysis would not be repeated in the genre move learning experiments based on the furniture company case.

7.2.5 Statistical Analysis

While changes in modal or move deployment pre-test to post-test might be observed, it would be helpful if the degree of such changes could be established as statistically significant. The standard applicable test for such measurements is the t-test. Given the sample sizes in terms of participants and the requirement for normal distribution as an assumption of the t-test, it was essential to identify whether such normality of distribution existed in order to justify using this test.

Data representing pre-test/post-test changes in raw modal verb and move frequencies was therefore plotted graphically to evaluate whether normal distribution of data could be said to exist. Variances were also calculated to determine the extent to which data variances were consistent with the equal variance assumption of parametric tests. Further the Kolomogorov-Smirnoff test was applied with regard to modal verb frequencies in order to estimate normal distribution, and the Levine test of variance was used to determine the variance between different sample groups.

These analyses failed to support the presence of normal distributions of data. Therefore the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U parameter was used for independent between-groups analysis, and the Wilcoxon signed ranks test analysis used for dependent samples analysis, incorporating an adjustment for zero values (Hays, 1973 cited in Coolican 2004).

For evaluation of statistical significance where categorical data was involved, rather than the more frequently used chi-squared or log likelihood tests, in all cases, the Fisher exact test was used, due to the presence of low frequency items (frequency ≤ 5) in cross-tabulations.

SPSS Version 14 was used for the calculations of all test statistical parameters as described in Field (2005), though in some initial analyses, hand calculations were performed based on the procedures set out by Coolican (2004).

7.3 Results

7.3.1 Modal verb usage experiments

7.3.1.1 Changes in *could* and *would frequency* following encounters with generic model texts

In the modal verb experiments, 14 subjects received the model text without direction while 13 subjects received the model text together with the worksheet focusing on the modals *would*

and *could*. Frequencies of these modal verbs were determined pre-test from the initial options text and post-test after undirected or directed study of the model text.

The non-parametric Wilcoxon rank sign tests showed that there were increases in the level of *could* and *would* in the undirected experiments, although these frequencies were not statistically significant at a level of $p < 0.05$ as shown in table 27 ($T = 33$, $N = 14$ for *could*, $T = 22$, $N = 14$ for *would*). In contrast in the directed learning group where attention was focused through questions and tasks on these modal verbs, changes in the level of *could* and *would* occurred at statistically significant levels ($T = 1$, $N = 12$ for *could*, $T = 0$, $N = 12$ for *would*).

Table 27. p-values for undirected and directed deployment of modals *could* and *would*

p-value	Undirected	Directed
could	>0.05	<0.002
would	>0.05	<0.002

Comparing learning between the directed and undirected learning groups using the Mann-Whitney U statistic, produced U values of 33 and 36.50 for comparison of directed and undirected change in use of the modal *would* and *could* respectively and a level of statistical significance for difference at more than 99% (see table 28). The effect size (R) of above 0.5 for directed learning with both modal verbs represents a large effect, accounting for 25% of variance (Cohen 1988, 1992 cited in Field 2005:32).

Table 28. Comparison of undirected and directed learning of *would* and *could* modals using Mann-Whitney U

	Mann-Whitney U	p-value	Size effect (R)
would	33.00	0.004	-0.54
could	36.50	0.006	-0.52

Overall these analyses show that the directed learning experience resulted in significant increases in the use of the modals *would* and *could*, and further that these directed learning increases were also statistically significant higher changes compared to those in undirected learning experiments.

Clearly, observing an increase in the levels of *would* and *could* levels post learning experience in student writing samples does not necessarily indicate an improvement in the quality of the texts. No evaluation of the texts in terms of such overall quality was performed. However, in comparison to the levels of these modal verbs observed in chapter 6 options and alternatives texts amongst both NS and NNS samples, use of these modal verbs was comparatively low in initial pre-treatment student texts (see table 29 below). A statistically significant increase in levels of these modal verbs would indicate increased expression of the possibility and hypothetical meanings associated with the options texts.

While clearly a positive change in *would* and *could* levels was observed, as can be seen from table 29 and 30 below, the model text, while containing a level of *would, could* that was consistent with some NS options samples studied in chapter 6, contained a higher frequency of *would* and *could* usage than the overall NS user average of BCR-1 corpus options samples (*could* =11.2*, would* = 13.4 occurrences per 1,000 words). Therefore it might be argued that the model text overuses these modal verbs and that frequencies produced post-modelling were higher than would be desirable. It is considered however that there would be variation in levels of modal components within any model text generated and that the model text levels of these modal verbs lie within an acceptable level of variation.

7.3.1.2 Deployment of modals *could* and *would* by options rhetorical move pre- and post-test

Moving beyond frequency changes and focusing on the deployment of *could* and *would* modal verbs in terms of generic move context in the post-directed learning experiment texts[87], occurrences of *would* and *could* were found most frequently in move 5 of the options and alternative texts, expressing hypothetical consequences of actions with possibility or certainty. More than 90% of *would* uses in directed learning post treatment texts were found in this move and 70% of *could* uses post-test. The modal *could* was dispersed more widely, occurring largely in move 5.1, but also at notable frequency in move 2.2 for the proposal of options for action.

The uses of both of the modal verbs post treatment in the directed experiment correlate with the uses of these modals in the model text, in which the modal verb *would* was located solely in move 5.1, but *could* was located in moves 2.2 and move 5.1. It seems therefore that the writers in the directed learning experiments not only increased their frequency of modal use in their post-test writing, but also used modal verbs for the same rhetorical and clausal functions expressed in the model text.

Supporting this observation, considering the small number of pre-test uses observed in the directed experiments, uses of *could* (6 in total) all related to move 5.1, while uses of *would* (4 uses) were diverse, with a single use introducing options in move 2.2, two uses relating to option evaluation in move 5.1 and a further use relating to option implementation in move 4.1. Thus the diversity of functions supported by the modal *could* increased, while the diversity of rhetorical functions expressed by *would* actually decreased.

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[87] Deployment of the two modal verbs in undirected experiments is not considered here since no statistically significant increase in frequencies was identified.

Although these pre-test to post-test move deployment observations cannot be considered of statistical significance due to the small number of uses of the modal verbs, the data shows that the model text did not represent the full diversity of rhetorical uses of these modal verbs identified in the BCR-1 corpus data.

Overall, however, these observations are seen as demonstrating the influence exerted on modal verb deployment through the use of these model texts.

7.3.1.3 Other changes in language item usage pre- and post-test

Other modal verbs

While the focus of the directed learning worksheet was on the use of the modal verbs *would* and *could*, other changes in modal verb frequency were observed in post-test texts.

Table 29 identifies significant decreases in the frequency of use of the 'stronger' modals (more real and more certain modals) *will, can* and *should* following encounter with the model text, as well as major increases in the use of the previously discussed 'weaker' more hypothetical modal verbs, *could* and *would*. High levels of increase of these weaker modal

Table 29. Frequencies of modal verbs in directed learning experiments, pre- and post-test

Modal verb	Pre-test Raw frequency (occurrences per1,000 words)	Post-test Raw frequency (occurrences per1,000 words	Model text Raw frequency (occurrences per1,000 words
can	27 (10.2)	8 (2.6)	0
could	7 (2.6)	41 (13.2)	10 (13.8)
have to	4 (1.5)	0	0
may	8 (3.0)	7 (2.3)	1 (1.4)
might	5 (1.9)	16 (5.2)	2 (2.8)
must	0	0	0
should	18 (6.8)	7 (2.3)	0
will	10 (3.8)	4 (1.3)	1 (1.4)
would	4 (1.5)	80 (25.8)	18 (24.9)

Table 30. Frequencies of modal verbs in undirected learning experiments, pre- and post-treatment

Modal verb	Pre-test Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)	Post-test Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)	Model text Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)
can	25 (9.6)	32 (8.2)	0
could	4 (1.6)	18 (4.6)	10 (13.8)
have to	1 (0.4)	1 (0.3)	0
may	3 (1.2)	0	1 (1.4)
might	8 (3.1)	9 (2.3)	2 (2.8)
must	0	5 (1.3)	0
should	10 (3.8)	18 (4.6)	0
will	23 (8.9)	23 (5.9)	1 (1.4)
would	5 (1.9)	38 (9.7)	18 (24.9)

verbs were also observed in the undirected experiments (table 30) with small levels of decrease observed with *will* and *can* and a slight increase in levels of *should*.

Following encounters with the model text, it therefore seems that in both experiments these learners appear to be deploying the weaker and more hypothetical modal verbs at higher frequencies and the stronger more real modal verbs at lower frequencies. Post-test learners overall appear to be using modal verbs in a manner which can be seen as more appropriate for options analysis writing. These changes clearly reflect the character of the model text supplied. The model text can be said to be acting as both a model exemplifying those modal verbs used in an options analysis section, but also acting as negative evidence, through omission, providing evidence of what modal verbs would be inappropriate.

Changes in move frequencies pre- and post-test

Move frequency in samples increased following undirected but not modal directed study of the model text. In the undirected experiments, the number of moves increased from an average of 2.09 moves per options sub-section pre-test to 2.54 moves post test, whereas the move level remained static at around 2.3 moves per sample, pre- and post-test in the modal

directed experiments. Use of the Wilcoxon rank sums test shows that the change observed in the undirected samples is significant at the 95% level.

A possible explanation for the observed differences in undirected and directed experimental change is that those involved in the directed learning experiments were focused on developing use of modal verbs, whereas undirected learners, with no distracting focus provided, were able to direct their attention more widely, identifying the generic complexity or individual language elements supporting text complexity, and applying these elements and this observed complexity in their options text writing.

Changes in frequencies of other language items

Variation in frequencies of other language elements post-test were investigated as it was considered of value to identify other elements of generic knowledge that might have been gained by the experimental participants during the genre model text learning procedure. Items selected for analysis included first person pronouns, identified in chapter 6 as not being a requirement of options writing, as well as specific lexical phrases judged as expressing core options section meanings (table 31).

A key difference between the students' initial texts and the post treatments texts in the directed learning experiments was the decline in frequency of first person pronoun use, from 7.7 uses per 1,000 words to 0.3. Surprisingly, an increase in personal pronoun use was observed in the undirected experiment. Closer analysis showed that this increase was largely accounted for by a single outlier sample which contributed 27 of 33 occurrences of the personal pronoun (82% of *we* uses post-test in this sample, but no uses pre-test). Leaving aside this sample, there is evidence of a trend towards a lower level of first person personal

Table 31. Additional language item frequency variation pre-test/post-test in modal verb
focused experiments

Item	Model Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)	Undirected Learning		Directed Learning [focusing on moves]	
		Pre-test Raw frequency (occurrences/ 1,000 words)	Post-test Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)	Pre-test Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)	Post-test Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)
Personal/company reference					
we	0	9 (3.5)	33 (8.4)[1]	21 (7.9)	1 (0.3)
I	0	3 (1.2)	0	1 (0.4)	0
manager name (Sarah/Bill)	0	0	1 (0.3)	7 (2.6)	2 (0.6)
company	13 (18.0)	33 (12.7)	21 (5.4)	43 (16.3)	21 (6.7)
Lexical Phrases					
one disadvantage would be that	1 (1.4)	0	3 (0.8)	0	4 (1.3)
result in	3 (4.2)	0	0	0	2 (0.6)
would have the benefit of	1 (1.4)	0	1 (0.3)	0	3 (1.0)
it would also mean that	1 (1.4)	0	0	0	2 (0.6)
Other Lexis					
disadvantage	2 (2.8)	10 (3.8)	6 (1.5)	1 (0.4))	14 (4.5)
advantage	0	11 (4.2)	4 (1.0)	3 (1.2)	6 (1.9)

[1] 27 of these 33 occurrences were contributed by a single text sample.

pronouns post-test even in the undirected experiments. It should be noted that the model text

itself contained no personal pronouns.

The data in table 31 also strongly suggests that participants in the directed learning

experiment made use of lexical phrases from the model text, including phrases such as *one*

disadvantage would be that….., *would have the benefit of,* although frequency changes

observed were not large. The fact that this phenomenon seemed more frequent among the

directed learners than the undirected learners appears to contradict the attentional hypothesis

stated above in this section, however since three of the four lexical phrases shown in the table

contain the modal verb *would*, the focus of the directed worksheet study, these observations are not considered contradictory.

7.3.2 Move usage experiments

The move usage experiments involved 28 subjects divided into two equal size groups, one engaging in undirected study of the model text, and the other exposed to the same genre model text, but receiving a worksheet directing attention to the moves in options sections. Pre- and post treatment texts were analysed for the presence or absence of generic moves as well as other language features related to move realisation.

7.3.2.1 Changes in move frequency pre- and post-test

Changes in the levels of moves before and after the different learning experiences are shown in table 32. Using the Wilcoxon signed ranks test, the change observed in the directed moves experiment is found to be significant at $p < 0.05$ (N = 17, T = 0), with the total ranks in the directed samples showing positive increase in move frequency summing to 77. For the undirected experiment, change in move frequency is also significant at $p < 0.05$ (N = 18, T = 26)[88].

Table 32. Change in moves per options sub-section following directed and undirected genre model study

Treatment	Pre-test average moves per sub-section	Post-test average moves per sub-section	Change in average moves per sub-section
Directed	2.25	3.19	+ 0.94
Undirected	2.40	2.65	+ 0.25

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[88] It should be noted that without Hays adjustment, statistical significance at the standard $p < 0.05$ cut off is not observed with $p = 0.057$ (a 94.3% significance level)

Comparison between the two treatment groups was conducted using the Fisher exact test. This test did not demonstrate a statistically significant difference in terms of move frequency change between the directed and undirected learning cohorts.

The number of individual moves varies pre- and post–test as shown in tables 33 - 35 below, which present the number of users where the level of individual moves increased or remained the same[89]. Move 2 was present in all pre-test and post-test samples and is therefore not included in this analysis.

Table 33. No. of users gaining/not gaining move 3 following directed and undirected genre model study

	Directed	Undirected	Total
Move 3 no increase	2	5	7
Move 3 yes increase	5	3	8
Total	7	8	15

Table 34. No. of users gaining/not gaining move 4 following directed and undirected genre model study

	Directed	Undirected	Total
Move 4 no increase	1	6	7
Move 4 yes increase	7	5	12
Total	8	11	19

Table 35. No. of users gaining/not gaining move 4 following directed and undirected genre model study

	Directed	Undirected	Total
Move 5 no increase	0	0	0
Move 5 yes increase	2	1	3
Total	2	1	3

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[89] Where the *initial* user sections contained the requisite moves, these users were excluded from counts since no increase in use of the particular move was possible. Therefore total figures in columns do not sum to the total number of samples in directed (19), undirected (18) or total (37).

While tables 33 - 35 overall suggest higher levels of gain for each individual move through the directed learning procedure, the application of the Fisher exact test to each move change data set, did not demonstrate a significant difference at $p < 0.05$.

The lack of observed statistically significant difference between directed and undirected pre- to post-test move deployment is interesting and unexpected. This is likely to be due to some extent to the small sample sizes. However, while an increased level of overall move usage, as demonstrated through the Wilcoxon test, might be expected after directed tuition, such an increase might not be anticipated in the undirected study as the existence of rhetorical moves is not transparent. Since none of the participants had received any prior training on their university programmes in relation to analysis of rhetorical structure, it would be surprising if the undirected learners appreciated that they had deployed additional (or any) strategic 'moves' in their writing following study of the model text. It is interesting therefore to consider how the increase in move levels in both directed and undirected experiments was realised in linguistic terms.

In the undirected move based experiments, participants noted down features from the model text which they considered useful for their own writing. Analysis of participants' notes showed a strong tendency to identify collocated items, lexical phrases and individual lexical words. Frequently noted phrases included *one possibility open to the company is, while it might be possible to, it would be essential to, this could be achieved by*.

A number of phrases, or fragments containing the preposition *through* and *by + ing* were present in participant notes and these vocabulary elements are associated with the

implementation move, move 4, as is the lexical phrase, *this could be achieved by*, also identified in participant notes.

Analysis of the post-test undirected experiment participant texts demonstrated the more frequent presence of these move 4 lexical items in comparison to the pre-test texts (see table 38, p.298). It seems reasonable based on this evidence to suggest that the increased levels of move 4 observed in undirected experiments were related to the deployment of these items.

With regard to the undirected experiments it seems likely that the increased presence of moves may be seen as developing through the acquisition of lexis rather than through the more global and conscious recognition and deployment of rhetorical moves. Further investigation and experimentation would be required to confirm this. It is also possible to suggest that the fact that a significant number of learners studying the model, noticed their presence may indicate that these learners recognised a level of strategic significance in these linguistic items.

Similar note-based evidence to that in the undirected experiments was not available for directed learning experiments as attention was focused through worksheets on the identification of rhetorical moves. However, lower levels of change with regard to the move 3 lexical items such as *by + ing*, *could be achieved by* and *through,* all useful language items for describing the feasibility option (move 4), were identified in the post-test directed samples compared to both the pre-test and the equivalent undirected post-test samples (table 38), raising the question of how the increased levels of this move in the post-test samples was realised. These frequency observations were especially surprising when considered in

opposition to the frequency increases of these same items in the undirected samples, where the level of increase in the presence of move 4 was lower.

An explanation for this apparently paradoxical observation could lie in the use of pre-existing resources by the directed learners in the realisation of their moves. Analysis of the post-text samples generated by the directed learners shows that in the samples where the levels of moves increased, it appeared to be the case that moves were realised through largely pre-existing resources rather than through use of the lexical items in the model text. For example realisations of the implementation move 4 used the following phrasing:

> *Therefore it is very convenient first to pay the staff as a group, and then the staff themselves decide how much money each individual shoud[90] get.*
> (post-test move 4 sample A: directed move learning)

> *it is necessary to manufacture and sell these maximal profitability products by correct forecast. It is also important that the short stock of these profitable products will not be happened.*
> (post-test move 4 sample C: directed move learning)

In order to reduce the cognitive load and use time effectively, the language experiments conducted with the move-focused directed learning group, did not include a focus on the language used to realise the moves and, had such a focus been present, it is considered likely this would have increased the deployment of lexis from the model text for the realisation of these moves.

7.3.2.2 Modal verb deployment pre- and post-test

Changes in modal verb usage pre- and post-test in the tutor directed and undirected move-focused experiments are shown in tables 35 and 36. With regard to the undirected experiment, as in the results reported under the modal usage experiments, there were substantial increases in frequencies of the weaker modals *could* and *would*, and similar decreases in frequency of

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[90] student spelling

usage of the stronger modals *can* and *will*. In the directed learning samples, increases in the weaker modals were smaller in comparison to the undirected experiment, as were the declines in frequency of the stronger modals. Reasons for the differences observed between directed and undirected learning experiments are discussed in section 7.4.2 of this chapter.

Table 36 Frequencies of modal verbs in move–focused directed learning experiments, pre- and post-treatment (move-based experiment)

Modal verb	Pre-treatment Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)	Post-treatment Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)	Model text Raw frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)
can	9 (4.2)	16 (6.1)	0
could	11(5.1)	18(6.9)	7 (24.1)
have to	1 (0.5)	1 (0.5)	0
may	15 (7.0)	16 (6.1)	1 (3.4)
might	4(1.9)	8(3.0)	4 (13.7)
must	1 (0.5)	2 (0.8)	0
should	6 (2.8)	11 (4.2)	0
will	18 (8.4)	27 (10.3)	0
would	3(1.4)	10(3.8)	6 (20.6)

Table 37 Frequencies of modal verbs in undirected learning experiments, pre- and post-treatment (move-based experiment)

Modal verb	Pre-treatment Raw Frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)	Post-treatment Raw Frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)	Model text Raw Frequency (occurrences/1,000 words)
can	7 (10.2)	17 (8.0)	0
could	7(2.6)	17 (6.8)	7 (24.1)
have to	5 (1.9)	2 (0.8)	0
may	12 (4.5)	13 (5.2)	1 (3.4)
might	5(1.9)	15(6.0)	4 (13.7)
must	4 (1.5)	1 (0.4)	0
should	8 (3.0)	4 (1.6)	0
will	26 (9.8)	19 (7.6)	0
would	3(1.1)	20(8.0)	6 (20.6)

7.3.2.3 Frequency of other items pre- and post-test

In addition to the modal verb counts described above, frequencies of selected other items present in the model text were analysed pre-test and post-test as well as frequencies of selected language items found pre-test but not in the model text (table 38).

A number of interesting observations arise from the data. Though figures were low, as with the modal-based experiments there is a decline in levels of personal pronoun usage in both directed and undirected pre-test to post-test treatments. Also noteworthy was the large decline in both experiments, of the frequency of use of the terms 'advantage' and 'disadvantage', neither found in the model. Other items such as *possibility, problematic, contribute,* all found in the model text, increased in level pre-test to post-test in the undirected learning experiments, but at low levels, if at all in the directed experiment. The use of *by +ing* and *through,* associated with the implementation move 4 showed the same pattern of increase in the different experiments. As discussed in 7.3.2.1, this was considered surprising given the increase in levels of move 4 in the tutor directed experiments, however these additional moves appeared to be realised through use of participant's pre-existing language resources.

Table 38 also shows increases in the frequencies of a number of lexical phrases pre-test to post-test, with increases in almost all cases higher in the undirected experiment. This adds to the evidence from participant notes that lexical phrases from the model text are being identified and applied in the post-texts.

The identification and deployment of linguistic items following the encounters with the model texts in these experiments is considered within the context of the concepts of noticing and attention in the discussion section below.

Table 38 Frequencies of other language items pre-test and post–test (move-based experiment)

Item	Model	Undirected Learning		Directed Learning [focusing on moves]	
		Pre-test Raw frequency (occ./1,000 words)	Post-test Raw frequency (occ./1,000 words)	Pre-test Raw frequency (occ./1,000 words)	Post-test Raw frequency (occ./1,000 words)
Participants					
we	0(0.00)	6(2.3)	3(1.2)	2(0.9)	0(0.00)
I	0(0.00)	4(1.5)	1(0.4)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Manager name (Vine)	0(0.00)	10(3.8)	0 (0.00)	16(7.4)	17(6.5)
Company	1(3.4)	34(12.9)	35 (14.0)	42(19.6)	46(17.5)
Lexical Phrases					
one possibility open to	1(3.4)	0(0.00)	6(2.4)	0(0.00)	2(0.8)
could be achieved by	1 (3.4)	0(0.00)	3(1.2)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
could be expanded	1(3.4)	0(0.00)	4 (1.6)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
could be + participle	3(10.3)	1(0.4)	9(3.4)	0(0.00)	4(1.5)
it might be a xxx idea	1 (3.4)	0(0.00)	5(2.0)[96]	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
it would be essential to/that	1(3.4)	0(0.00)	5(2.0)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
result in	1 (3.4)	0(0.00)	3(1.2)	0(0.00)	1(0.4)
there is	1(3.4)	1(0.4)	7(2.8)	6(2.8)	2(0.8)
there is...risk..	1(3.4)	0(0.00)	4(1.6)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
would involve	1 (3.4)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
Other Items					
advantage	0(0.00)	6(2.3)	0(0.00)	3(1.4)	1(0.4)
by	2(6.8)	4(1.5)	17(6.8)	9(4.2)	10(3.8)
by + ing	1(3.4)	2(0.8)	6(2.4)	2(0.9)	2(0.8)
contribute	1(3.4)	1(0.4)	4(1.6)	0(0.00)	1(0.4)
disadvantage	0(0.00)	3(1.1)	0(0.00)	4(1.9)	1(0.4)
possibility	1(3.4)	1(0.4)	11(4.4)	0(0.00)	3(1.1)
problematic	1(3.4)	0(0.00)	5(2.0)	0(0.00)	0(0.00)
through	2(6.9)	1(0.4)	4(1.6)	2(0.9)	1(0.4)

7.3.3 Analysis of combined undirected learning data

The data with respect to learning experiments up to this point has looked at specific series of

experiments comparing directed learning and undirected learning for modal-focused and

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[96] The model contained the phrase "It might be a better idea". This occurred twice post-test with "It might be a good idea" occurring on 3 occasions.

rhetorical move focused experiments. Approximately equal levels of samples have been used in each of these experimental series and this maintains comparability between directed and undirected experiments. In fact, however, all undirected experiments, whether used in modals focused or move-focused experimental series are equivalent in terms of their use of the same experimental procedures (although model texts differed) and undirected learning focus. It was therefore decided to combine undirected experimental data, thereby producing a larger cohort of participants for analysis of changes in frequencies of modal verbs and move frequencies pre-test to post-test, which could enable identification of statistically significant differences not visible in smaller sample groups[97].

When all samples from undirected learning experiments are considered, constituting a total of 28 samples, while the distribution of modal and moves frequencies remains skewed, with regard to modal frequencies, the Wilcoxon signed ranks test shows that changes in level of *could* are significant at $p < 0.05$, pre-test to post-test ($T = 84$, $N = 27$), and also with *would* ($T = 53$, $N = 27$).

When move change data is combined from undirected experiments in the same manner as with the modal data, analysis shows significant increases in move deployment ($N = 30$, $T = 72$). Considering all undirected learning data, it is therefore clear that undirected learning resulted in a statistically significant increase in move frequency in these experiments.

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[97] The difference in focus of the directed experiments, with experiment procedures in one experiment focusing learner attention on modal verb changes pre-test to post-test, and in the other experiment on move changes pre-test to post-test means these modal and move features were significantly different in nature and therefore were not analysed to produce broader generalisations through combining the directed experimental data.

7.4 Summary and discussion

7.4.1 Genre learning

The data presented in this chapter clearly demonstrates that generic features of options and alternatives move elements can be learned in procedures involving provision and analysis of genre model texts, although the precise nature of learning appears dependent on the procedures adopted.

Features of genre model texts deployed by experimental participants post learning procedures include rhetorical moves, the modal verbs *could* and *would* associated with the hypotheticality and possibility nature of options structural elements, as well as deployment of lexical phrases and other lexical items.

Not only do learners deploy additional language elements identified in genre model texts, but following encounters with model texts, certain features less characteristic of options consideration and therefore not present in the model texts, such as first person pronouns, case participant names and stronger modals such as *will, should, can,* appear at lower frequencies after the genre model encounter. The genre learning experience therefore not only encourages the use of features required for options move realisation, but also provides negative evidence leading to lower level use of less appropriate features.

7.4.2 Undirected and directed learning

Undirected and directed learning produced different learning effects. In undirected procedures in which learners were required to identify any language elements that they considered might be useful for options writing, genre learning was evidenced through increased deployment of a wide range of language elements. Considering each individual

experimental undirected groups of learners, higher levels of deployment of model text lexical phrases, rhetorical moves, the modals *could* and *would* and other individual lexical items were all observed and declines in deployment post-learning of model text absent personal pronouns, case participant names and individual language items such as the words *advantage* and *disadvantage* were also identified. Further, considering all undirected learning experiments, undirected learning procedures were found to result in statistically significant changes in deployment of the modals *would* and *could*, as well as in deployment of rhetorical moves.

By contrast, in the directed experiments which focused on learning linked to deployment of the modal verbs *could* and *would,* or the learning of rhetorical moves, when compared with the undirected experiments, learning tended to be more restricted to those items that were the focus of the study, that is the specific modal verbs or the generic move structure, however there was evidence for decline in first person personal pronoun use, case participant naming, and increases in the levels of some lexical phrases,. With regard to the specific areas of directed focus, changes in usage of these items was statistically significant and occurred at higher levels than those identified in the undirected experiments.

Overall, the evidence presented in this chapter demonstrates that genre features can be learned through the provision of appropriate genre text models. The experimental data also shows that study of such models without explicit teacher direction towards specific language elements, resulted in an increase in rhetorical complexity and deployment of the modal verbs *could* and *would* at statistically significant levels and also resulted in changes in the levels of a range of generic and other linguistic features. Where tutors provide learning experiences with a specific focus, there appears to be a cost in that, while those features which are the focus of

learning may increase in deployment, other generic features present in model texts are not deployed to such an extent, if at all.

These observations can be attributed to the limited attentional resources available to learners (Schmidt, 1995; Batstone, 1996; Thornbury, 1997; Schmidt, 2001), which result in learners in directed study being less able to focus on linguistic features beyond those which are the focus of the directed session. By contrast, those learners in the undirected experiments, have the attentional resource available to identify a range of items which they consider to be of value in their writing.

While the modals *could* and *would* occurred at high frequency in the genre model texts supplied and were considered likely to be salient to learners, rhetorical moves are less salient. The deployment of moves at higher levels in these undirected experiments is attributed to the noticing of lexical phrases and other language features which realised the relevant moves, rather than conscious identification of strategic rhetorical functions by the learners.

These observations are of interest in the context of the debate on how genres are learned or should be taught, since as pointed out in chapter 4 of this thesis, Freedman (1993) has argued strongly that explicit teaching of genres is largely unnecessary without the need for analysis and presentation of move structures with realisations to learners, while others (for example, Williams & Colomb, 1993) emphasise the importance of explicit teaching in language skill development. In practice, model texts have continued as mainstays of genre teaching in the Australian and ESP genre schools.

The data in this chapter appears to support the notion that, to some significant extent, features of genres can be learned without explicit teacher directed focus on genre components. The use of the modal verbs *could* and *would* did increase in undirected learning experiments at statistically significant levels, as did move complexity and other generic language features, without the need for explicit learning focus on these items. Further in some sense the breadth of learning generated though the undirected learning experiment could be seen as potentially of greater benefit to the learners than the more restricted learning observed in directed experiments. It should be noted however, that while there was no specific language item focus in the undirected/undirected experiments, participants were focused in instructions provided, on learning.

These observations do not however rule out potential benefits of explicit teaching of generic features. The statistically significant increases in levels of rhetorical move and changes in modal verb deployment signify the value of explicit teaching of generic features. Further it might be argued that the development of strategic rhetorical consciousness among the writers engaged in genre move analysis, is itself a valuable educational goal, which has the potential to inform writing in the longer term, beyond the specific task encountered.

Overall considering the data, it seems reasonable to conclude that both explicit teaching and undirected study of genre exemplars are likely to be of benefit to learners. The combination of both approaches in pedagogy might appear an obvious conclusion, however, such an approach could result in imposing too great a cognitive load on learners. Implementation of any strategy related to teaching and leaning is likely to be influenced by a range of factors, nevertheless, it seems that learners would benefit from being taught both explicit genre

features and also being enabled to engage in their own, non-tutor directed study of genre models.

7.4.3 Model Texts in genre learning

The learning procedures presented in this chapter are built around study of model texts. The fact that the use of model texts as a key element of learning procedures in this chapter, has been shown to support genre learning, confirms the benefit of the use of model texts as an effective element of genre teaching and learning.

The data with regard to the undirected learning of genre through model texts is consistent with the findings of Bereiter and Scardamalia (1984) and Gowda (1983, cited in Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1984) reported in chapter 4 of the thesis, who found that development of writing skills following encounters with models proceeded through focus on discrete lower level language items with more complex global characteristics of text genres tending to be ignored. As mentioned above, the increase in move complexity in undirected experiments, move structure representing a more global text feature, is attributed to the deployment of such lower level language items.

To some extent the data can also be seen as consistent with the arguments of Stolarek (1984) and Smagorinsky (1996), that model text teaching and learning is enhanced through the provision of description and explanation of form, although it does not support Smagorinsky's contention that study of model texts on their own is insufficient to support writing development, since it seems certain that in the thesis experiments, learning took place in undirected experiments when students engaged in undirected study of model options texts, with no explanation or direction.

In terms of Hillock's meta-study (1986), emphasising the value of enquiry based learning over model text-based study, in the undirected experiments, participants were engaged in discovery of text features, while in the directed experiments, the model and its generic structure were the subject of tasks which encouraged active engagement with the model text. Hillocks acknowledges the fact that different approaches to the use of model texts were not distinguishable in the 1986 meta-study. Further, the precise method of usage of model texts is seen as a key element of successful use of model texts in the classroom, and therefore the lack of fine distinction in Hillock's study, as well as the limitation of Hillock's study to contexts which appear grounded in US prose composition, means that generalisations about the use of model texts based on this meta-study should be treated with some circumspection.

Flowerdew (2002) argues that genre teaching should not be product-oriented as genres vary. This is clearly a key issue and relates to concerns about imitation of model texts and modelling approaches mentioned in a number of publications (for example Kay & Dudley-Evans, 1998). While it is acknowledged that individual genres vary, the provision of multiple and variable model texts, mediation, explanation and enquiry or discovery-based activities focused on task and texts, and the development of awareness of writing processes (Badger & White, 2000) is considered to obviate against the thoughtless imitation of models, instead adding to the learner's store of knowledge about specific genres and genre in general.

Overall the evidence presented in this chapter together with the genre learning and broader literature suggests that model texts comprise a valuable asset in supporting the development of genre knowledge and the understanding of genre.

Chapter 8 - Discussion and Conclusions

The analysis of business case reports presented in this thesis has led to a description of these reports in terms of rhetorical structure as well as stylistic and lexico-grammatical features. This characterization was conducted with a view to enhancing understanding of the nature of case report writing and developing pedagogical practice with regard to business case report writing. Characterisation of the case report options and alternatives move has also been presented, since consideration of options had not been the subject of previous research, and further on the grounds that the writing of options analysis text elements appeared to provide challenges for non-native speaker writers.

In order to further understand the acquisition of genre knowledge and in particular the role of model texts in such learning, experiments and experimental data have been presented focusing on the writing of options and alternatives move structures by non-native speaker students, with learners using options and alternatives texts as language models. The data from these experiments supports the notion that model texts are valuable resources for genre learning, with learners deploying relevant model text features but with model texts also serving as sources of negative evidence.

Directed and undirected learning experiments based on the model texts suggest that both approaches have benefits in terms of genre knowledge acquisition. Undirected learning experiments resulted in a broader range of language elements being deployed in final options texts with directed learning experiments resulting in increased learner deployment of targeted modal verbs and rhetorical moves in final text products.

Based on the structural characterisation of business case reports reported in this thesis, this final chapter considers genre identification and classification with regard to business case reports and reviews the nature and classification of genres more generally in the light of the business case report research. Pedagogical implications of both the business case report characterisation and genre learning experiments are also considered in further depth. Suggestions are made for future research in regard to both the further characterisation of case reports in general and business case reports in particular, as well as in relation to the development of research in genre learning.

8.1 Business case reports and genre

It was proposed in chapter 3 of this thesis that academic genres should be considered as situated within a specialism-based framework incorporating fields, disciplines, sub-disciplines and where appropriate sub-disciplinary specialisms. It was further proposed that identification of text genres within academic study should be informed by similar category labels, communicative purpose, rhetorical structure, lexis, grammar, and style. This section brings together the arguments and evidence, including thesis data in particular, in regard to adopting a specialism-based framework for the classification of genres, and also argues that the notion of text genres, as conceived within the Swalesian ESP framework, requires the explicit labelling of genres in relation to the social community in which these genres operate.

The core of the argument for defining genres at a range of levels of specialism and in terms of different specialism types lies in the identification of variation in linguistic features at the disciplinary and sub-disciplinary levels. Given the analysis presented of the BCR-1 corpus and BAWE corpus business case reports, it has been proposed that distinct genres exist for case reports in the specialisms of marketing, project management, marketing management and

management accounting. The disciplinary and sub-disciplinary designation of these specialisms is discussed below.

In terms of linguistic features, the case reports in the identified specialisms are considered to form distinct genre categories partially on the basis of variable deployment of optional rhetorical moves, but most importantly and significantly on the basis of the varied specialism-based tools, frameworks and functional structural elements that have been found to be used for genre and rhetorical move realization, combined with the substantially different lexis used in the different specialist reports. These variable text features are considered to reflect significant differences in key concepts, conceptual approaches and cognitive orientation between the specialisms. All of these specialisms are seen as situated within the academic business field, representing distinct communities of research, communication and practice, which are reflected through these linguistic differences.

At a broad business field case report level, these case reports are argued to possess similar rhetorical structures, embodied in obligatory orientation, analytical and advisory moves, generally appearing in sequential order, though with realisation in some reports and specialisms occurring through multifunctional components. Despite this variability, it is argued that there is a business case report genre in which the identified disciplinary and sub-disciplinary category specialisms share these obligatory rhetorical features. With regard to the specialism of marketing management, a significant degree of lexical overlap has been identified with the related marketing specialism as well as similarities in terms of rhetorical structure and realisation.

A scheme depicting proposed specialism-based genre categories including the relationships

and linguistic variation between these genre categories, is shown in figure 57. This scheme attempts a designation of specialisms as fields, disciplines and sub-disciplines, however it is recognised that there does not appear to exist an authoritative and agreed disciplinary classification scheme within the academic community and therefore the designations are considered to some degree uncertain and open to challenge and change.

For this classification, marketing management and management accountancy are considered as sub-disciplines existing within the disciplines of marketing and accountancy[98]. These sub-disciplines are presented as associated more with marketing and accountancy than the management discipline on the grounds that, while marketing students may study marketing management, and accountancy students may study management accountancy, these study areas specifically involve application of management principles to the different marketing and accounting fields. There is therefore an identifiable community of learners which derives from marketing or accounting, but not management. Management students are considered unlikely to study management accountancy or marketing management, since these subjects are based in highly specialist knowledge and language, which extends far beyond the general management principles normally encountered by management students. Therefore, at a community level, the management discipline is seen as representing a more distant community from the two sub-disciplines compared to the parent marketing or accounting disciplines.

Illustrating the importance of specialism-based genre variation, the scheme presented aims to describe and to some extent explain linguistic similarity and difference across the different specialism classes, with, for example, common rhetorical patterns suggested as existing across different disciplines and sub-disciplines, however, the classification is influenced mainly by

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[98] Evidence for the sub-disciplinary identity of marketing management was presented in chapter 5, p.179

Figure 57. A proposed classification of case report texts in the business field

Cross disciplinary genre family (Global case report family)	Field specialism genre or field genre family (Field case report genre)	Disciplinary specialism genres	Sub-disciplinary specialism genres
Pedagogical case reports - texts based on case materials. - social purpose of (a) developing professional practice through study of a single exemplar (b) providing a vehicle through which the extent of such knowledge may be evaluated - communicative purpose : persuading lecturer of adequate or higher levels of knowledge/understanding, analytical skills, ability to apply in practice, justify actions, full reports characterised by the presence of obligatory orientation, analytical and advisory/ recommendations elements.	**Business case reports** - broad rhetorical structure of obligatory orientation, analytical and advisory moves (optional: options analysis, summary and methodology, consolidation, supplementary supporting information and reflective rhetorical moves). - high levels of explicit structure, fragmented layout incorporating sections, sub-sections, and generally numbered and bulleted lists - rhetorical moves may be realised through and/or incorporated within (multi-functional) disciplinary tools or frameworks. - impersonal professional style in all rhetorical moves (though first person personal pronouns are likely in optional reflective move where present). - low levels of citation - business disciplinary lexis	**Marketing case reports** - marketing lexis - tools and frameworks characteristic of the marketing sub-discipline (e.g. 4Ps, STP) - may be notable use of metaphorical language - noticeably high levels of certainty language (rhetorical move dependent)	**Marketing management case reports** - marketing management lexis - tools and frameworks characteristic of marketing management (**e.g.** SWOT) - may be notable use of metaphorical language
		Project management case reports - project management lexis - tools and frameworks characteristic of the project management discipline	-------------
		Accounting case reports - characterisation data not available	**Management accounting case reports** - management accountancy lexis - tools and frameworks characteristic of management accounting
		Management case reports - characterisation data not available	-------------
		Finance case reports - characterisation data not available	-------------

considerations of specialist community and their inter-relationships which are considered to be largely reflected through varying levels of similarity of language. Nevertheless, text categories to the right of the table are seen as in general possessing the rhetorical characteristics of those on the left hand side. That is, marketing case reports and project management reports should generally contain the features of business case reports which themselves exhibit the generalised features of pedagogical business case reports. Similarity of language between classes of texts, however, is not an absolute necessity for the classification scheme adopted, and further, considering the paucity of data available, the scheme is considered provisional in terms of its description of texts and relationships at this point in time. Notably, and arguing against such a clear and generalisable depiction of rhetorical similarities and differences, disciplinary and daughter sub-disciplinary texts, as is suggested by the arguments of Becher (1990), may in some cases be identified as lacking similar rhetorical and other linguistic features.

Support for the designation of genre identities at a range of specialist levels has already been cited in chapter 3 of this thesis. In particular Ozturk's (2007) demonstration of rhetorical variation within the discipline of applied linguistics (designated a discipline in Hyland (2004b)), between what are referred to as the sub-disciplines of second language acquisition and second language writing, supports the notion of sub-disciplinary genre variation and further suggests that while dealing with language at the disciplinary level may in some contexts be important, there is also important rhetorical variation at lower levels.

A contrasting approach to the notion of genres being tied to varying levels and types of specialism is that of, for example, Hyland (2002a, 2004b) and others such as Samraj (2002) who have focused their study of academic texts within the context of the discipline, suggesting

that it is at this disciplinary level where key linguistic variation is grounded. The thesis argument in relation to genre variation associated with different specialist levels may turn, to some degree, on different perceptions of the nature and classification of disciplines. Thus, for example, the marketing management and management accounting texts encountered in this research, might be defined as representing different paradigms and therefore separate disciplines rather than sub-disciplines, with marketing and accounting also being considered as disciplines. Similarly it might be possible to state that Ozturk's identification of second language acquisition and second language writing as sub-disciplines is incorrect and that these specialisms might be better classified as disciplines.

Such a discipline-based approach to text classification is clearly possible. Nevertheless, this approach does not portray relationships between the different specialisms or the perceived view of relationships mentioned by academic business professionals consulted in this thesis with regard to marketing management as a sub-discipline of marketing. Further, reference is made in a number business specialist texts to management accounting as a sub-discipline of accountancy (for example Beattie & Emmanuel, 2008)[99]. The notion of sub-discipline, applied by Becher (1989) within a range of disciplines, is also recognised in specialist areas as wide-ranging as economics and philosophy.

In addition there is undeniable incongruity in, for example, Samraj's (2002) classification of the relatively narrow specialisms of wildlife conservation and conservation biology as disciplines, when the wider literature shows designation of the far broader specialism of biology as a discipline (for example Becher, 1989). Rather than classifying the management accounting and marketing management case reports as disciplinary entities equivalent to

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[99] Although for example Mensah *et al.,* (2004) refer to 'managerial' accounting as a discipline.

marketing and accountancy, it seems rational and logical to recognise the parent-daughter and subsidiary relationship of accounting to management accounting and marketing to marketing management in a classificatory and analytical system. This same analysis is seen to apply to the designation of disciplines and sub-disciplines by Ozturk.

A point also following from the identification by Ozturk and others (chapter 3) of linguistic variation below the disciplinary level is the potentially misleading nature of linguistics research focused in the notion of discipline and generating disciplinary generalisations without reference to sub-discipline. As Shaw (2007) points out, it is necessary to take into account sample heterogeneity at the sub-discipline level in order to generate accurate descriptions of disciplinary texts.

A further classificatory question arises as to whether there are distinct texts identifiable as business case reports within the business case report genre which are not associated with any specific disciplinary or sub-disciplinary component, or whether the business case report genre simply exists as a collective term for a family of case report texts found within the distinct business disciplines, sub-disciplines and specialisms. For example, while marketing management may be a sub-discipline of marketing, marketing management reports can be seen as a distinct category from marketing reports, whereas neither of these case report types can be seen as distinct from a collective notion of business case reports both being members of such an overall category. Overall, it seems difficult to conceive of a business text or case report which does not exist within a particular subordinate specialism. Discussions with business informants suggest that the term *business*, is perceived as simply a collective term encompassing the range of business specialisms.

A similar point might be applied to the notion of the economics discipline. If economics can be divided into a range of sub-disciplines such as behavioural economics or environmental economics, then examining texts at the disciplinary level may refer solely to collective analysis of the texts from the different economics sub-disciplines. These arguments are relevant in pedagogical terms because it is argued, particularly by Hyland (for example, 2004b: 145-150) that pedagogical practice within EAP should not be based in a general model of academic English, but instead should be grounded in academic disciplines. The implication of the above argument in relation to sub-disciplines, is that research and pedagogy may, in some cases, need to look more deeply at the characteristics of sub-disciplinary (and possibly sub-disciplinary specialism) levels in order to serve the needs of learners. While business may be seen as a field-based collective term, economics appears to represent a collective disciplinary term encompassing the various economics sub-disciplines. The pedagogical implications of the identification of disciplinary and sub-disciplinary categories of text are discussed in section 8.3 below.

A further possible implication of the arguments regarding business as a field and economics as a discipline, acting as aggregative entities for component disciplines and sub-disciplines is that, rather than the discipline being the key location of genre variation, it is at the sub-disciplinary (or possibly sub-disciplinary specialism) level that key linguistic difference, in particular in regard to pedagogy, may be located. This argument is rejected as a broad generalisation, since it is considered that, for example, at the minimum, marketing is a recognised discipline and the BCR-1 data evidences the writing of identifiable, distinct case reports in this marketing discipline.

A further point must be mentioned in relation to business case reports and the notion of genre. It has been already been noted in this research that the nature of business case reports is likely to be influenced by factors beyond specialism, such as writing situation (examination or continuous assessment), speaker type, lecturer preferences and tasks set (see pages 196 -197). Within the context of the notion of genre as described here, definable at a range of specialism levels, variations arising from such influences, for example, variations in citation deriving from writing situation, are considered definable and classifiable within the overall genre-specialism scheme using the term varieties, with the notions of situational, institutional and instructor-based varieties being proposed as existing as varietal categories.

A further source of rhetorical variation is proposed by Ozturk (2007), who identifies a factor influencing the rhetorical characteristics of sub-disciplinary genres as being the established or emerging nature of a specialism. In this approach 'emerging' refers to lower level specialisms, the characteristics of which derive from more than one parent specialism, while by contrast, 'established' specialisms are based in more discrete and well-defined research and study foci (Hyland, 1999). While it is acknowledged that such factors affect rhetorical structure, it is considered here that basing a classificatory genre approach in a specialist context is more illuminatory and supportive of pedagogy.

Considering the proposed classification in figure 57, the value of this system incorporating designation of genre titles in relation to specialism, is considered to lie in the accommodation of text variation and similarity within the key variable of academic specialism, as well as lying in pedagogical relevance. The proposed scheme has the potential to accommodate all business disciplinary, sub-disciplinary and specialist areas, with descriptions of each genre category highlighting linguistic and other relations between designated categories. The scheme also

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provides a framework for comparing pedagogical and workplace texts, business texts and those from other fields and specialisms and serves to encourage research on text variation at levels beyond the discipline.

Overall, it is concluded that case report genre variation can be identified at a range of levels from business case report to disciplinary case reports to sub-disciplinary case reports. While a text category may be referred to as a case report, for linguistic research and pedagogical purposes it is considered valuable to designate genres as existing within different levels and types of specialism. These specialist genres are sustained by similar terminologies referring to classes of texts, the existence of communities of researchers and students operating within the specialisms, common mechanisms of communication within specialisms, similar cognitive tools and frameworks used within the specialisms, similar communicative purposes and, in particular, similar rhetorical, stylistic and lexicogrammatical features.

8.2 Move cycling in academic texts

While in terms of the broad rhetorical moves identified for the thesis case reports there is a fundamentally linear sequence of moves, figures 36 and 37 in chapter 6 show significant cycling of moves and sub-moves in the broad options and alternative move analysed in this thesis. Move and sub-move cycling occurred in consideration of different options in different sub-sections, related options occurring in the same sub-sections, within moves occurring within the consideration of specific options, within sub-moves realising moves, and even within the sub-moves themselves through sub-sub-moves. This phenomenon of cycling of moves and sub-moves is considered to be an important characteristic of these options sections and the notion of move and sub-move cycling is considered to have potential broader relevance and significance in relation to rhetorical and cognitive processes.

Move cycling has previously been identified in what are generally lengthy texts, for example in PhD thesis introductions (Bunton, 2005) as well as results and discussion sections in dissertations (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988). While Swales's (1981, 1990) initial models for the generic structure of research paper introductions were linear in format, a revised model incorporating move cycling has now been presented (Swales, 2004:230), taking into account more extended research article introductions.

In addition to the cycling observed in the thesis options moves, considering data from the 4Ps structural elements described in this thesis, in a very small number of examination case report a repeated cycle of options then recommendations statements was observed in marketing mix (4Ps) structural elements. This provides a further limited example of rhetorical cycling, reflecting to some degree, the topic-based 3 step cycling identified by Yeung (2007) in workplace reports.

Overall, cycling of rhetorical moves is considered likely to constitute a broadly occurring phenomenon in both academic and non-academic texts. If this is accepted, it is possible that focusing on the potential for cycling of rhetorical moves and sub-moves may open up a number of text categories, such as essay texts to move-based analyses. For Dudley-Evans (2002), the degree of variability of essays amongst the disciplines, and variability within single disciplines between different lecturer organised assignments, as demonstrated for example in the work of Kusel (1992), undermines the applicability of such rhetorical analysis. It is however considered possible that essays may operate through common repetitive cycles which might be conceived in terms of lower level rhetorical functions.

The use of rhetorical cycling can be seen as having clear benefit in terms of the requirement to deploy cognitive resources enabling the repetition of cognitive cycles rather than the invention of novel cognitive tools. The use of such move cycling seems to represent a parsimonious approach in terms of deployment of cognitive resources and rhetorical activity.

It may also be worth noting that, in a sense, text cycling may be seen as existing at an inter-textual level, with separate texts from the same organisation or within the same specialist academic grouping, demonstrating the same or similar rhetorical structures and realisations; in other words demonstrating inter-textual recycling. Such a view can be seen as simply representing a different perspective on the notion of genre, however from the perspective of both genre theory in general and the notion of text cycling, in the same manner in which it may serve as an intellectual parsimonious approach from the individual point of view to repeat cycles of rhetoric within a single text, the use of this social recycling of text patterns, to enable consistent rhetorical text structures, layouts and other text features, can be seen in a sense as socially parsimonious, aiding communication, but also averting the necessity for each writer to invent anew an appropriate rhetorical framework for communication.

8.3 Pedagogical implications of the thesis research

8.3.1 Implications of business case report analysis

With the thesis research being grounded in a pedagogical base and targeted at supporting the provision of more developed textual knowledge and more effective pedagogy for both an institution-specific cohort of non-native speaker students and the broader community of students entering academic business programmes, pedagogical implications are central to this research study.

8.3.1.1 Teaching to specialisms

A key implication of the specialism-based language differences identified in this research is

that despite broad similarities in case report rhetorical structure, it would be beneficial for those involved in the teaching of case report writing to be conversant with the different forms of business case report which learners studying in particular specialisms may be required to write and for learners engaging in case report writing to experience case reports within those specialisms.

Identified differences in case report move frequencies, move realisation, lexis, and style are considered crucial in relation to pedagogy between the specialisms, meaning that for example, teaching sub-disciplinary specialist genres such as project management case reports using a generalised business case report model, or through a marketing based model would be a challenging and difficult endeavour, at substantial risk of providing learners with misleading, or irrelevant information.

Considering the variation between what have been defined in this thesis as disciplinary and sub-disciplinary levels, it would similarly not be the ideal to present a case report model grounded in marketing to students specialising in marketing management, especially where a marketing management case report was available to illustrate case report writing in this specialist context.

These arguments in relation to teaching of specialism-based case report writing and pedagogy are clearly in line with those of Anthony (1999), discussed in chapter 3 of this thesis, who pointed out, within the context of the teaching of research paper writing in the discipline of software engineering, that teaching of a rigid generalised cross-disciplinary CARS research article introduction model was problematic for research writers in this area, as software engineering research articles contained text features divergent from this generalised CARS

model which would be essential in generating an effective software engineering research article text, and would be not be likely to be deployed by learners if the generalised CARS structure was presented as a rigid model.   The inappropriacy of a generalised CARS move structure as a rigid model for teaching research article introductions is also suggested by the previously discussed research of Samraj (2002) and Ozturk (2007).

The notion of specialism-based writing at the sub-disciplinary level has been raised in this thesis, placed in addition to, and in contrast to the discipline-focused approach of Hyland and others. While this notion may not seem to be a significant issue, as illustrated above through the comments of Shaw (2007) it is considered that failing to identify sub-disciplinary and other lower level differences could lead to difficulties in pedagogical practice.

Considering, for example, a programme aimed at supporting a cohort of NNS economics learners, if economics is characterised as a single disciplinary entity, pedagogy may assume that a single model of economics writing is appropriate and therefore not take account of the range of sub-disciplines such as economic behaviour, econometrics, environmental economics and political economy, which students may encounter and which are likely to entail language variation which is of key importance at the pedagogical level. Economics language learners in such a situation would benefit from exploring the range of sub-disciplinary texts rather than being presented with the impression of a single disciplinary writing model. Clearly such an argument would also apply to biology sub-disciplinary texts, as well as the marketing management and marketing case report texts discussed in this thesis. Reflecting this form of argument, Ozturk (2007) suggests that when teaching the writing of research article introductions, learners attention should be drawn to RA organisational patterns within sub-disciplines.

Overall therefore it is considered that the most effective and practical pedagogy in relation to case report writing (and in relation to other academic text genres) for identifiable cohorts of students engaging in disciplinary or sub-disciplinary specialism-based English language programmes, needs to be based in texts written in the relevant disciplinary, sub-disciplinary or even sub-disciplinary specialism level, with learners encountering the lexis, broad rhetorical moves and move realizations in terms of tools, frameworks and topic which are relevant to their specialisms. This specialism-based knowledge may well need supplementation by local knowledge relating to individual lecturer preferences and institutional preferences, as well as consideration of assessment form and task rubrics.

This ideal approach is somewhat complicated by the need in research terms, beyond the current thesis study, for the development of an even broader and deeper understanding and description of case report writing. In addition, in terms of pedagogical practice, problems arise from the limited supply of readily available business case tasks as well as reports available to programme leaders and tutors, and an even lower level of exemplars available which would be sufficiently accessible, both linguistically and conceptually, to non-native speaker learners at the pre-programme, pre-sessional level of study, where introductions to case report writing may be of greatest value.

A further complicating feature in terms of pedagogy is the likelihood in pre-sessional ESAP teaching of dealing with class cohorts of learners operating in a range of business disciplines or participating in business programmes incorporating a broad cross-disciplinary focus (such as MBA programmes). In such cases, it may be difficult to implement the more specialist form of language teaching in a comprehensive form covering all necessary disciplines and

sub-disciplines, with teachers in practice needing to balance a number of different factors in selection and delivery of learning experiences.

Rather than basing teaching within the context of the marketing and marketing management specialisms investigated in the text-analytical studies in this thesis, in the case of the experimental research conducted in thesis chapter 7, business cases were chosen for the target pre-sessional pre-MBA students on the basis of relevant specialism, but also on the grounds of availability and conceptual and linguistic accessibility. During the MBA programme which learners hoped to attend, these students would encounter tasks related to human resources management, general management, finance, corporate strategy and marketing specialisms amongst other more specialist areas. The chosen cases were relevant to the specialisms of general management and HRM. It is recognised that options and alternatives moves had not been identified in these specialisms, however, the general widespread identification of options and alternatives discussion in the linguistics and academic business literature was considered to justify the focus on these options and alternatives elements, with the approach adopted comprising a viable solution given the materials available, student language levels and background, and the overall teaching context.

More generally, it might be argued that requiring language tutors to teach at low levels of specialism such as the sub-disciplinary level would require those tutors to possess a level of sub-disciplinary knowledge which is beyond a reasonable realm of expectancy for such tutors. It is considered here that the development of an appropriate research base with regard to sub-disciplinary genres would facilitate such sub-disciplinary teaching, and that the developed expertise of programme coordinators and materials designers as well as tutors would provide the fine-tuned and focused teaching and learning which business students and business

language students require. Further it is argued that language learners are already encountering cases situated within sub-disciplinary contexts, however, this situatedness is often not highlighted in terms of genre teaching.

Overall, where learners can be divided into clear specialism-based groupings, it clearly makes sense to teach language directed towards those specialisms, and preferably at the lowest level of common specialism, be it discipline, sub-discipline or sub-disciplinary specialism. Where there are class cohorts containing learners with interests in a range of specialisms, then pedagogy may reasonably choose to focus on more generalised principles of academic writing, such as, for example, the use of citation in continuous assessment assignments or research write-ups, while highlighting and emphasising specialism-based variation and encouraging learners to identify and engage with texts in their own disciplines or sub-disciplines in relation to these principles. Clearly a rigid pedagogical model based on a generalised notion of academic writing which ignores specialism based differences is likely to mislead learners and even damage language performance in the specialist programme context.

8.3.1.2 Pedagogy and case report audience

A further pedagogical implication in terms of case report writing arising from the thesis research relates to the conception of audience in the case report tasks. It seems clear from the case report analysis in chapter 5, and the research by Forman and Rymer (1999a,b) and Freedman *et al.,* (1994), that the main audience in terms of the perception of business case report writers is the lecturer audience. While a task rubric may explicitly specify a roleplay and ask students to act in role, for example as consultant or manager, language tutors should note that literal application of an explicit role may lead to inefficiencies in terms of fulfilling report tasks, through the use of unnecessary text elements, and may also lead to inappropriate forms of address to the real lecturer case report audience.

At the local course level it is considered unlikely that a particular lecturer would require a strong roleplay focus incorporating what might be considered case report ephemera, such as transmission elements. This conclusion was supported in conversations with a business informant who argued that the mention of, for example, a consultancy role in a case report task, provided context, but did not require roleplay, with students being expected to write to the lecturer audience.

8.3.2 Pedagogy, native speaker and non-native speaker case report writing

This thesis research was motivated in part by the institutional, programme and language tutor driven requirement to support pre-sessional NNS students aiming to study on postgraduate business programmes at the target institution.

While it is recognized that the notion of the non-native speaker student encompasses a wide range of different speakers from differing first language backgrounds, and does not recognize the diversity of non-native speakers of English, nevertheless, approximately 80% of the student writing samples that were subject to analysis were written by South East Asian students, the significant majority of these being Mandarin first language speakers. Students involved in the experimental research were also predominantly first language speakers of Mandarin. Considering the largely common first language identity in terms of first language of these students, the claim that this research overall is of relevance to the South East Asian students who predominate on business programmes at UK universities, as well as being potentially relevant to other NNS students therefore seems justifiable.

Findings of relevance to these NNS students and considered of potential significance for the support of NNS students relate to a range of areas. Based on the overt adoption of consultancy roles by a significant number of NNS writers, realized for example through high

levels of personal pronoun use in a task where explicit roles were stated in the task rubric, it would seem valuable to consider notions of report audience with these NNS students, with the objective of directing student attention and writing towards the real lecturer audience. This pedagogical advice must be tempered however, by the low levels of textual data upon which this advice is based, and fact that there is insufficient evidence to state conclusively that the use of transmission elements and high levels of first person pronouns, indicating the marketing examination consultancy role, damaged student performance.

In terms of broad rhetorical move deployment and realisation, what appears most significant is the degree of similarity between NS and NNS reports. It would seem clear, that despite lacking native speaker English, the NNS learners were largely able to understand the broad rhetorical requirements of case report writing, at least in terms of the actual deployment of broad rhetorical moves and main structural realisations.

Nevertheless, while caution is required in generalising differences from the small BCR-1 corpus sample base, the observation that NNS writers were more likely to deploy consolidation and summary elements (conclusion structural elements) compared to NS writers, points to a role for consideration of the role of conclusions elements in case reports as a worthwhile pedagogical point of focus. Within the marketing context in particular, pedagogical consideration of the lower level of NNS use of recommendations structural elements and the relationship of such sections to the 4Ps marketing mix might be of value, as would consideration of the lower NNS levels of Porters five forces and PEST tools. More broadly across case reports, it would also be considered of some value to question the importance of transmission element deployment.

Differences in NS-NNS move deployment at a lower level of rhetorical structure, within the options and alternatives move, suggest a need for learning focusing on the options analysis rhetorical function. Moving towards the greater move structure complexity and range of moves and sub-moves deployed by NS writers, particularly those moves and sub-moves providing motivations and rationales for considering an option, and discussing option implementation in order to enhance the argument relating to a specific option, could benefit case report and options move quality, but also develop more general insights into the processes of argument and options consideration.

With regard to modal verb deployment, the tendency for NNS writers to deploy higher levels of the modal verbs *must, should, can,* and *will*, expressing certainty and relating to real situations, in the context of the options move, (summarised in chapter 6, p.272), suggests a need for an NNS pedagogical focus on the use of appropriate hypothetical and lower certainty modal verbs, in particular *would* to support this rhetorical function.

More specifically, with regard to modal verbs, however, it would be useful if NNS writers were supported in developing a greater awareness of the range of rhetorical and clausal functions supported by individual modal verbs. Of particular interest in this respect is the use of *would* to support, in various moves and sub-moves, a range of clausal functions, in particular, statement of optional actions, and stating pre-requisites/conditions for company actions, both found at high frequency in NS options texts in comparison to NNS texts (table 22, p.257). Supporting the development of such awareness would be of general benefit to learner writing, and could also reinforce rhetorical complexity through enhancing the deployment of *would* in the relevant clausal contexts. Similar learning focus with regard to

clausal and rhetorical functions supported by other modal verbs, including *may* and *could* would also be considered of value.

Finally with regard to modal verb pedagogy, the comparative modal deployment data in chapter 5, but particularly chapter 6 section 6.5.8.3, argues for providing tuition regarding the use of *must* and *should* for epistemic purposes. In addition it would be considered of benefit to draw the attention of NNS learners to the low levels of *might* deployment identified in NS case report writing, and the relatively high occurrence of the item *would have to* in NS compared to NNS writing.

A further issue relating to more general assessment for NNS writers in particular is the observation of lower levels of text generation by these students in examination writing. These lower levels of text generation, not observed in continuous assessment formats, could clearly serve to disadvantage NNS students in their assessments. This raises the issue of whether examination assessment is a fair means of cognitive and knowledge assessment given that NNS writers will be able to demonstrate less of what they may know in comparison to NS students. This is considered a complex argument, as less visible disadvantages faced by NNS students such as, for example, reading difficulties when researching continuous assessment reports, are also likely to affect levels of attainment.

8.3.3 Implications of genre learning experimentation

The fact that both undirected and directed learning experiments using model texts as vehicles for genre learning resulted in enhanced deployment of generic components (chapter 7) supports the practice of using model texts in genre learning pedagogies, and also suggests that both directed and undirected (undirected) study of genres have a role to play in the development of genre knowledge.

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A number of more specific conclusions are also suggested by the observations detailed and discussed in chapter 7. The diversity of genre feature deployment as well as non-deployment through negative evidence, observed in the undirected learning experiments, hints at the possibility that it may be achievable for learners to acquire genres and genre features, possibly to some significant extent or even in their entirety, without explicit language-focused instruction. In addition to the deployment of specific, more frequent, and perhaps more obvious components, such as the modal verb *would* in options and possibilities structural elements, less obvious features such as rhetorical moves may be learnt through the observed tendency of cohorts of learners in undirected experiments to identify lexical phrases and other lexis which realizes specific moves. A possible exception to this potential efficacy of undirected learning may be the features of intensifiers and hedges identified as invisible by Low (1996) and also Hyland (2000,2002b), framed within Low's Lexical Invisibility Hypothesis.

However, it is judged unlikely that learners engaging in unsupported genre study would fully acquire sufficient genre knowledge solely on the basis of the limited experience of model texts during the generally focused academic preparation programmes generally experienced, although the prevalence and mediation of appropriate model texts might support enhanced programme performance. However, in addition, specialism-based conceptual knowledge must be factor in genre learning, the importance of such specialist knowledge in genre acquisition having previously been demonstrated (Scott & Groom, 1999). Embedding in the learning environment of the specialism must be an important factor in academic genre learning, however experience and study of genre models[100] is considered likely to serve as a substantial aide to effective genre deployment.

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[100] Not all models need to comprise continuous text. For example a flow diagram illustrating rhetorical moves also represents a form of model which may be useful in explicit teaching.

The statement above that genre learning may occur without explicit genre instruction would seem to undermine the role of explicit genre teaching. However the thesis research demonstrated increased levels of deployment of rhetorical moves among NNS speakers when directed learning procedures were used to support genre learning in comparison to where undirected learning procedures were used. If instructors consider a feature to be of such key value in supporting genre deployment, and there is inadequate time available in which learners may engage in experiencing and learning such a key genre feature, such as a rhetorical pattern or structure, then it is considered likely to be of value to engage in the explicit teaching of that rhetorical pattern or structure. Such an argument would apply in particular to teaching NNS learners engaging in academic programmes, operating in a new, and unfamiliar performance culture, who may be faced with a larger burden of learning in regard to both cognitive and linguistic features of genres.

In order to support this genre learning, where learners lack such knowledge, programmes should aim to enable, as far as possible, cognitive and conceptual development allied to the relevant specialism (in effect language deployment and cognition being difficult to disentangle); programmes should provide multiple models of effective genre realization enabling undirected study but also providing mediation and direction where required to support learning of less visible language features such as generic structure. Teaching should also be supported by reference to genre purposes, in particular the students communicative purposes in terms of the persuasion function of the relevant business case reports and other relevant specialism-based academic genres, realised through demonstration and display of knowledge and abilities. This teaching should be combined with reference to notions of apprenticeship and the specialism as a cultural community of discourse and practice.

8.4 Research Limitations

8.4.1 Issues of corpus size and diversity

One of the key requirements for a corpus to be considered valid in terms of making broad generalisations about text characteristics is that it must be representative of those texts to which those generalisations are targeted (for example, Biber, 1993). While it can be argued that the corpus of marketing management and marketing case reports studied may be representative of relevant specialist reports at the institutional level, despite the consideration of the BAWE case reports in conjunction with the thesis case report analysis, the level and diversity of texts studied in this thesis must be considered small and institutionally narrow in origin, in relation to the broader picture of case report writing as takes place globally within academic institutions. Nevertheless, as has already been suggested through comparison with the US studies and academic business sources, broad similarities can be identified in regard to rhetorical and structural features in case reports from the small number of institutional contexts which have been studied.

An assertion of representativeness can also be supported by consideration of the extensive interrelation and intercommunication between business schools through movement of academics from one institution to another, through common educational contexts experienced by those academics, and through common syllabi and course materials between institutional programmes. Due to these relationships and likely commonalities, in reality, understanding the nature of case report writing within the 60 plus UK university institutions offering business programmes may not require detailed study of case report writing at each institution but may be built on a lesser sample size. However, it is not being argued here that the analysis of 50 case reports from a single institution is sufficient to support firm generalisations. Wider ranging study in terms of business case reports and other business assignments is certainly

required and therefore, an outline of additional research required to further investigate the analytical findings and conclusions presented in this thesis is presented in the following section.

8.4.2 Limitations in regard to rhetorical analysis

A further limitation of the current analytical research relates to the level of external confirmation of the rhetorical models and hypotheses put forward. Such external data, stemming from academics in the discipline or from confirmatory analyses by other linguists has been presented with respect to a small number of proposed generic structures (for example, Crookes, 1986; Kanoksilapatham, 2005), although in most rhetorical structure research, including the seminal research of Swales and Bhatia, external confirmatory data is not provided.

In the current research, while opinions have been sought from academics in university business schools, a greater contribution in terms of comments in regard to the proposed models would have been considered of value. Nevertheless, detailed comments proved difficult to obtain. Further, where comments were received, in some areas, such as the generic model for options and possibilities rhetorical elements, while the model was described as reasonable and insightful, it proved difficult for academics to comment critically on the model, since their own experience and interest in regard to such structural elements was not founded in rhetorical analysis.

External validity can stem from academics in the discipline, however validity of proposed generic structures can also be enhanced by external confirmation from other linguistic researchers. The work required to conduct such an external confirmation requires not only knowledge and understanding of genre-based theory and understanding of grammatical and

lexical principles of operation, but also a familiarity and understanding of the relevant sub-discipline and concepts expressed.   Due to the requirement for extensive training of such a co-worker in order to develop the required level of understanding, together with the complexity involved in interpretation of moves, the co-worker time and commitment and extent of decisions required, such linguistic confirmation was not obtained.   As with the vast majority of other rhetorical models developed in the field of linguistics, it is hoped that external validity will be obtained by the analysis and testing of rhetorical models by practitioners operating in the field of academic language teaching and research.

8.4.3 Limitations in experimental model-based research

With regard to the experimental research on learning of genre features, larger samples group sizes may have enabled greater certainty with regard to conclusions drawn, as well as leading to additional conclusions.   As has been mentioned in chapter 7, the fact that model texts were written by the thesis researcher may also be seen as a weakness in terms of this learning research, however it is considered that the writing of such models by the researcher was a necessity within the teaching context, and that even if there were perceived to be flaws in the model texts (although disciplinary informants felt these were effective options texts), this would not undermine the fundamental conclusions drawn, for example that learners were deploying genre move features and language elements found in the model text at higher levels post-test, than pre-test.

8.5 Future research

While the current thesis research has provided data and interpretation in regard to analysis of business case reports and genre learning, our knowledge of academic business writing is far from complete.   Further research is clearly required to develop and enhance understanding both of business case reports in the varying business specialisms, as well as other forms of

response to business case materials and case report writing beyond the academic business field.

It is hoped that in the future, the current research will be developed to undertake, in the first place, a thorough-going survey investigating the types and frequencies of both case-based tasks and types of case response, set in the wide range of business schools and in the range of disciplines in which case reports operate.   This would enable a broader picture of the use of business cases to be developed, and serve to support the targeting of more language-focused research on key case report texts in particular, as well as other important forms of business case response.

More developed understanding of business case report writing will involve the generation of a broader and significantly more substantial corpus of business case reports, based in texts from a variety of institutions, a variety of business disciplines and sub-disciplines and from the variety of teaching levels within these different institutions.   In addition to providing confirmatory data regarding the current thesis study, such a corpus would also serve to shed light on linguistic expectations and differences in linguistic realisation between undergraduate and postgraduate texts, as well as providing further data on NS-NNS differences, and the influence of task and writing situation, amongst other features on case report realisation.

Clearly it would be of interest to go beyond the business discipline to enable comparison with case reports from other non-business disciplines and sub-disciplines, although this would require substantial and wide-ranging further research.

Evidence of the extent of importance of sub-disciplinary and other variation within the business field could be derived from an analysis of more easily available research articles in

various business sub-disciplines, which would supplement some of the cross-disciplinary studies already conducted by Hyland (2004b). However, this may not provide sufficient or accurate information with regard to pedagogical texts, considering the varying purpose of the writing and the diversity of texts presented to learners during their academic programmes. However, more specifically, for example, comparison of research papers from marketing and marketing management focused papers and journals with those from finance may indicate a range of differences which might additionally serve to concretise the level and importance of disciplinary, sub-disciplinary differences and sub-disciplinary specialism-based differences.

In terms of genre learning, the thesis research would benefit from support from larger scale confirmatory studies within the context of other pedagogical specialist genres, although further confirmatory studies could be conducted within the context of other structural elements and rhetorical moves within the marketing case reports themselves.

It would also be interesting and of value to investigate to what extent analysis of rhetorical structures and single genres, can lead to broader strategic awareness in case report writing and the writing of other tasks. While Cheng (2008) has reported on the development of genre awareness in regard to research paper writing based on a single student case, pinpointing the broader development of strategic generic competence among a more significant cohort of learners would serve to further enhance the research base behind the widespread deployment of genre-based approaches to language learning.

8.6 Final concluding remarks

A key element of this thesis has been an effort to explore rhetorical text patterning and other text features within the category of pedagogical business case reports and some of its component specialisms. It is hoped that the identification of relevant business case report

features presented will support the teaching and learning of case report writing by all academic business writers, both native speaker and non-native speaker. While it is considered that the more broadly identified characteristics of business case reports in this thesis may occur widely in business case report texts, and that understanding, adopting and implementing common text patterns is likely to be of value to student writers, as Hyland (2004:145) has pointed out in reference to academic disciplines and pedagogy, text conventions may be in fact both 'subtle and complex', mitigating against the simplistic application of any set of rules in pedagogical practice.

Patterns identified in this thesis research are seen as evidential and informative, but requiring effective adaptation in accordance with task and situation at the local level, if learners are to be supported in achieving their academic goals. However, while Hyland (2004b:145) goes on to state that writing is "produced and mediated through writers' experiences of prior discourse", the reality for learners, particularly those from other more distant cultures, engaging in pre-programme study or involved in short master's level postgraduate programmes, is that experience of relevant and prior discourse is highly limited, and within the academic programme context largely unmediated. Therefore, pedagogical encounters with case report generic rhetorical patterns and text features, exemplified through the model texts (and particularly multiple models) commonly used in genre teaching, when presented in an exploratory and pattern-identification rather than a rule-based approach, and when also aimed at developing broader rhetorical and strategic awareness, are seen as valuable components in the pedagogical toolbox of the EAP and ESAP tutor and, most importantly, are considered to comprise an invaluable tool in supporting the academic success of student learners.

Appendix A

Case report texts used in the thesis study: Coding and descriptions

Sample code	Case	Assessment type	NS/NNS	Mark	Grade
C1A	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1B	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B+
C1C	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1D	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1E	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1F	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1G	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1H	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1I	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1J	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1K	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
C1L	Baxter	continuous	NS	X	B
CP1A	PepCid	continuous	NS	X	A
CP1B	PepCid	continuous	NS	X	A
C2A	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	B+
C2B	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	A
C2C	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	B
C2D	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	B
C2E	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	B
C2F	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	B
C2G	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	A
C2H	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	B
C2I	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	A
C2J	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	B
C2K	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	B
C2L	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	A
C2M	Baxter	continuous	NNS	X	B
C2PA	PepCid	continuous	NNS	X	B
E1A	Darling	examination	NS	73	X
E1B	Darling	examination	NS	72	X
E1C	Darling	examination	NS	87	X
E1D	Darling	examination	NS	73	X
E1E	Darling	examination	NS	68	X
E1F	Darling	examination	NS	73	X
E1G	Darling	examination	NS	80	X
E1H	Darling	examination	NS	73	X
E2A	Darling	examination	NNS	73	X
E2B	Darling	examination	NNS	73	X
E2C	Darling	examination	NNS	78	X
E2D	Darling	examination	NNS	67	X
E2E	Darling	examination	NNS	75	X
E2F	Darling	examination	NNS	75	X
E2G	Darling	examination	NNS	73	X
E2H	Darling	examination	NNS	73	X
E2I	Darling	examination	NNS	75	X
E2J	Darling	examination	NNS	70	X
E2K	Darling	examination	NNS	70	X
E2L	Darling	examination	NNS	70	X
E2M	Darling	examination	NNS	NA	X
E2N	Darling	examination	NNS	72	X
E2O	Darling	examination	NNS	70	X
E2P	Darling	examination	NNS	82	X
E2Q	Darling	examination	NNS	72	X

Appendix B

Case report tasks (Genre analysis)

(a) Baxter marketing management continuous assessment case task

Write a report in which you advise Baxter Renal Division on the most appropriate strategy in order to regain lost ground and improve its position in the renal market. You should discuss the main options available to Baxter Renal and make sure your recommendations are fully justified.

(3,000 words)

(b) Darling Chocolate examination case task

Part One:

ALL CANDIDATES TO ANSWER PART ONE

You are John Peabody GrumpFuttock Junior, a marketing consultant within the venture capitalist group, 'Riddle, Fiddler, Spittle and Smart'.

Mr Hansen from Darling Chocolate has asked the group to help him develop the **marketing** strategy of Darling Chocolate for the Russian market. Your task is to develop the marketing strategy of the company for St Petersburg in terms of product, price, promotion and distribution channels. To be able to do this, firstly you have to outline and compare the marketing strategy options that the management of Darling Chocolate have and select the most appropriate option in your view. Your report and marketing plan should be presented to the group's two senior partners, Fiddler and Smart.

From past experience, you are keenly aware that you will be rigorously questioned upon what actions Darling Chocolate should take, all of which have to be substantially justified.

(60% of marks)

Turn Over for Part Two

Appendix C

Structural categorisation and frequencies in case reports

Table 1. Frequency of case reports containing transmission category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [no. of reports/users]				Examination (25) [no. of reports/users]		Total number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Transmission elements	0	0	1	0	0	6	7
Total category texts	0	0	1	0	0	6	7
% category texts	0%	0%	8%	0%	0%	35%	13%

Table 2. Frequency of case reports containing contents category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description	Continuous assessment (28) [no. of reports/users]				Examination (25) [no. of reports/users]		Total number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Contents	2	1	7	1	0	0	11
Index	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Untitled list (segment)	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total category texts	2	1	7	1	1	1	13
% category texts	17%	50%	54%	100%	13%	6%	25%

Table 3. Frequency of case reports containing executive summary category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment case reports (28) [no. of reports/users]				Examination case reports (25) [no. of reports/users]		Total no. of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T(2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Executive summary	7 [1]	1	7	1	2 [2]	6	24
Abstract	2	0	0	0	0	0	(2)
Total category texts	7	1	7	1	2	6	24
% category texts	58%	50%	54%	100%	25%	35%	45%

[1] Samples C1D and C1E contained both an Abstract and an Executive Summary. These samples are counted only once in the total text counts. [2] Sample E1D contained the title Executive Summary but no text. This segment is not included as an Executive Summary in this table.

Table. 4 Frequency of case reports containing introductory structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Ongoing case studies (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination case reports (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2(2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Introduction	4	1	9	1	1	2	18
Introduction segment	4	0	0	0	2	5	11
Background	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Preface	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total category texts	8	1	11	1	3	7	31
% category texts	67%	50%	83%	100%	38%	41%	58%

Table 5 Frequency of case reports containing objectives category structural elements by speaker and task type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Objective(s)	1	1	0	1	3	5	11
Objective(s) segment	0	0	0	0	2	3	5
Marketing objectives	0	0	0	0	0	4	4
Marketing Objectives segment	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Challenges[1]	0	0	0	0	0	1^2	1^2
Main objective	0	0	0	0	0	1^1	1^1
Specific objectives	0	0	0	0	0	1^1	1^1
Where do DC want to be in 5 year's time?	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total category texts	1	1	0	1	6	14	23
% category texts	9%	50%	0%	50%	75%	82%	43%

Table 6 Frequency of case reports containing assumptions category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [no. of reports/users]				Examination (25) [no. of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2(2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Assumptions sections	0	0	0	0	2	4	6
Assumptions segments	0	0	0	0	0	3	3
Total category texts	0	0	0	0	2	7	9
% category texts	0%	0%	0%	0%	25%	41%	17%

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[1] Analysis of content showed that this section contained statement of objectives and was best classified in this category, although the title might equally imply a relationship to problem solving.

Table 7. Frequency of case reports containing titled situation analysis category titled elements[1]

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Situation analysis	1	0	0	0	0	3	4
Current situation analysis	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
A situation analysis of (Company)	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Industry overview	0	0	0	0	2	0	2
Industry analysis	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Environmental scanning	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total category texts	1	0	1	0	3	6	11
% category texts	9%	0%	8%	0%	38%	35%	21%

[1]All reports contained situation analysis, although explicit titles were often not present.

Table 8. Frequency of case reports containing SWOT category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [no. of reports/users]				Examination [no. of reports/users] (25)		No. of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
SWOT	9	1	13	1	3	10	37
(S)WOT[2]	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
SO	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
OT	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Total category texts	12	1	13	1	3	10	40
% category texts	100	50	100	100	38	59	75

[1]In this sample, WOT sections were explicitly titled, while S occurred untitled in a preceding introductory paragraph.

Table 9. Frequency of case reports containing Porter's five forces structural element by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28 [number of reports/users]				Examination [number of reports/users] (25)		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Porter's five forces	0	1	0	1	2	1	5
Porter's five forces segment	0	0	0	0	2	4	6
Total texts	0	1	0	1	4	5	11
% category texts	0	50	0	100	50	29	21

Table 10. Frequency of case reports containing PEST analytical category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
PEST	0	0	0	0	3	3[1]	6
PES segment	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total category Texts	0	0	0	0	3	4	7
% Total Texts	0	0	0	0	38%	24%	13%

[1] In one sample C2Q, PEST components are listed under External Environment – in another, C2P they are listed under ' trends'.

Table 11. Frequency of texts containing competitive analysis structural element by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Competition	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Competition and competitor's strategies	0	1	0	0	0	0	1
Competitor analysis	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Competitor auditing	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Main competitor analysis	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Competitors	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Total category texts	1	1	0	0	2	4	8
% category texts	9	50	0	0	25	24	15

Table 12. Target Analysis – STP Analytical

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Target market	4	0	5	0	0	0	9
STP	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Consumer profile - target market	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
SP	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Total category texts	4	0	7	0	1	0	12
% category texts	33	0	54	0	0	0	22

Table 13. Frequency of case reports containing problem definition category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous Assessment (28)[no. of reports/users]				Examination (25) [No. of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Problem definition	7	1	8	0	0	0	16
Major problems	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
The problem	1	0	1	0	0	0	2
Issue statement	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Total category texts	8	1	11	0	0	0	20
% category texts	67%	50%	78%	0	0	0	38%

Table 14. Frequency of case reports containing options analysis category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Options analysis	6	0	7	0	1	1	15
Optional strategies	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Options segment	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Strategy option(s) /	0	0	1	0	1	0	2
Options – Market share or profit	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Possible solutions and evaluation of effectiveness	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Possible causes/ [Courses] of action	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Alternative suggestions for Baxter's problem	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Other combined title	0	0	2	1	0	0	3
Total category texts	9	0	13	1	2	1	26
% category texts	75%	0%	93%	100%	25%	4%	49 %

Table 15 STP Advisory structural components by speaker and task type[1]

Structural element description/title		Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number. of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
		NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
		T1(12) (Bax)	T2(2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
STP	titled	1	0	1	0	2	6	10
	segment	0	0	0	0	2	1	3
Market segmentation/target group/position		0	0	1	0	0	0	1
ST	titled	0	0	0	0	1	2	3
ST	segment	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
TP		0	0	0	0	0	2	2
S	titled	1	0	2	0	1	0	4
	segment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Market segment		2	0	0	0	0	0	2
P	titled	0	0	0	0	1[1]	0	0
	segment	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Positioning strategy		1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Product positioning		0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Other positioning title		1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Overall total		6	0	4	0	7	12	29
% category texts		50%	0	57%	0	88%	71%	55%

Table 16. Frequency of case reports containing marketing mix/strategy structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description /title	Continuous Assessment (28) [no. of reports/users]				Examination (25) [no. of reports/users]		No. of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Marketing mix	0	0	0	0	1	6	7
Marketing mix proposal	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Marketing strategy	0	0	0	0	1	3	4
Marketing strategy proposal and recommendation	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
3Ps strategy	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
4Ps	0	0	2	0	0	1	3
Marketing mix segment	0	0	0	1	3	1	5
Marketing strategy segment	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Strategy	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Strategies segment	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Total category texts	0	0	2	1	7	17	27
% category texts	0%	0%	12%	100%	88%	100%	42%

Table 17. Frequency of case report 4Ps related structural components by speaker and task type[1]

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25)) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
4 'P' s	0	0	2	0	8[2]	5	15
4 'P's segment	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
DPSP	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
PDPP segment	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PDPP	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
PDP	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
PPD(ICS)	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
3 'P's	0	0	0	0	0	5	5
3 'P's segment	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total category texts	0	0	2[3]	1	8	17	28
% category texts	0%	0%	15%	100%	100%	100%	53%

4 'P's - Product, Price, Promotion, Place; DPSP - Distribution, Price, Servicing, Promotion; PDPP - Product, Distribution, Price, Promotion; 3 'P's - Product, Price, Promotion; PPD(ICS) - Product, Price, Distribution, Integrated Communication Strategy

[1] A number of these samples were grouped under marketing strategy/proposal rather than marketing mix (table 4)

[2] In Samples E1C and E1H, the 4 P's framework is used twice in different parts of the case.

Table 18. Frequency of case reports containing recommendation category structural category elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS(8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Recommendations	6	0	8	0	3	1	18
Recommend	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Future recommendations	1	0	0	0	1	0	2
Recommended marketing strategy	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Marketing strategy proposal and recommendation	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
[Combined title][1]	0	1	1	1	0	0	3
Recommended option	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Sub-Total	*7*	*1*	*10*	*1*	*4*	*4*	*27*
Preferred strategy	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Solutions	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
Total category texts	10	1	10	1	4	4	30
% category texts	83%	50%	77%	100%	50%	24%	57%

[1] Combined titles were Options Analysis, Recommendations and Strategies (C1 NS pep continuous sample A) , Recommendations and Conclusions (sample C2M) and Recommendations/Additional Options (sample C2 NNS pep continuous sample L).

Table 19. Frequency of case reports containing implementation category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users		Number of reports/ users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Implementation	0	0	0	0	0	2	2
Implementation and evaluation	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Implementation and timing	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Implementation and control	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total category texts	0	0	0	0	0	5	5
% category texts	0%	0%	0%	0%	0%	29%	9%

Table 20. Frequency of case reports containing monitoring and control category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Monitoring and control	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Monitoring and control of distributors	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Evaluation and control	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Control	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Implementation and control	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total category texts	0	0	0	0	1	3	4
% category texts	0%	0%	0%	0%	13%	17%	8%

Table 21. Frequency of case reports containing evaluation category structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous Assessment Case Studies (28) [no. of reports/users]				Examination Case Studies (25) [no. of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12)(Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Evaluation	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Evaluation and control	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
Implementation and evaluation	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Evaluation and conclusion	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Evaluating advertising effectiveness	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Feasibility test	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total category texts	0	0	1	0	1	4	6
% category texts	0%	0%	8%	0%	13%	24%	11%

Table 22 Frequency of case reports containing conclusion structural elements by speaker and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Conclusion	1	1	5	0	1	2	10
Conclusion segment	0	0	0	0	1	1	2
Recommendations and conclusion	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Findings and conclusion	0	0	1	0	0	0	1
Evaluation and conclusion	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Summary	0	0	0	0	0	1	1
Total category texts	1	1	7	0	2	5	16
% category texts	9%	50%	54%	0%	25%	29%	30%

Table 23. Frequency of case reports containing appendices category structural elements by speaker type and assessment type

Structural element description/title	Continuous assessment (28) [number of reports/users]				Examination (25) [number of reports/users]		Number of reports/users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
Appendix	1	1	3	0	0	0	5
Total category texts	1	1	3	0	0	0	5
% category texts	9%	50%	23%	0	0	0	9%

Table 24. Frequency of case reports containing references category structural elements by speaker type and assessment type

Element Description	Ongoing Case Studies (28) [number of users]				Examination Case Studies (25)		Number of users
	NS (14)		NNS (14)		NS (8)	NNS(17)	(53)
	T1(12) (Bax)	T2 (2) (Pep)	T1(13) (Bax)	T2(1) (Pep)	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxx	xxxxxxxx
References	0	0	0	1	0	0	1
Bibliography	0	1	1	0	0	0	2
Total Texts	0	1	1	1	0	0	3
% Total Texts	0%	50%	7%	100%	0%	0%	6%

Appendix D

(a) Modal verb focused worksheet (directed)

Model Study - Worksheet

A. Comprehension Questions

1. Identify what the author sees as the advantages and disadvantages of a 'Wait-and-see' posture.

Advantages	Disadvantages

2. In what two areas of the company does the author suggest that a phased expansion could initially occur?

3. How does the author suggest that the some manager's resentment of the Quality programme could be reduced?

4. What impression do you get of the author's feelings about the idea of terminating the Quality Circles programme?

B. Language Focus : Modality

1. Looking at Options 1-4. Count the number of times the following words/phrases are used.

Word	Count
could	
would	
can	
will	

2. The words 'could' and 'would' are used frequently in options analysis sections . What ideas do you think each of these words is generally expressing in these sections?

    (a) could   -

    (b) would   -

'will' and 'can' are much less frequent in options analysis sections.

3. Bearing in mind the idea(s) that 'could' and 'would' are expressing as described above, paraphrase the following:

    (a) The Quality Circles programme could be expanded.

     ·

    (b) Adopting a 'wait-and-see policy' would have the benefit of providing stronger justification for decisions relating to the Quality Circles programme.

(b) Genre move focused worksheet (directed)

Model Text Study - Worksheet 1
Old Elvet Furniture Company - A Business in Decline?

Reading Response Questions

1. This Options Analysis model (partial) presents two options for company action.

    (a) Which of these do feel it would be most important for the company to adopt?

2. What advantages and disadvantages does the writer identify for the option of abandoning the commission system?

Language Information and Language Analysis

1. When an option is discussed, the writer may discuss the option using the following language 'moves'.

Move	Description
Introduction / Orientation Move **The 'What'/'Which' move.**	• What option (s) is being considered? (often expressed through a title) • The purpose of the option is sometimes stated. • An opinion is sometimes given about the option, particularly if the option will be rejected.
Motivation Move **The 'Why' move**	• Why is the option is worth thinking about? (for example by relating the option to a problem from the business environment or inside the company)
Implementation Option **The 'How' Move**	• How can the option be carried out? How can the option be put into practice ?
Summary Move **The 'Advantages and Disadvantages' Move**	• Summarise the arguments for and against the option • A summary opinion is sometimes given about the option

If we take for example the first option "Identify New Opportunities in the Market", the text could be divided up as follows:

Move	Text
Introduction / Orientation Move **The 'What'/'Which' move**	1. Identify New Opportunities in the Market The business could be expanded through the identification of new opportunities in the market.
Motivation Move **The 'Why' move**	xxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxxx
Implementation Option **The 'How' move**	This could be achieved by use of market research conducted on either existing customers or by reaching new customers through small-scale street or survey-based market research. Employees (both sales staff and craftsmen) could be asked for their opinions about possible areas in the market where they believe new opportunities may be available and these employees could act as sources for new product development ideas.
Summary Move **The 'Advantages and Disadvantages' Move**	Small scale market research would involve some new investment and developing new products could also be expensive. It would be essential that market research questionnaires and responses are designed and interpreted correctly which might involve the use of expensive consultants. Staff might also wish to have some incentive for contributing their ideas.

Task

Using the segment titled "Abandon the Commission System", write in the appropriate text for each of the options analysis sections.

(see over the page)

Move	Text
Introductory/Orientation Move **'The 'What'/'Which' move**	
Motivation Move **'The 'Why' move**	
Implementation Option **The 'How' move**	
Summary Move **The 'Advantages and Disadvantages' move**	

(c) Undirected/self-directed study – Old Elvet case

<div align="center">

Model Text Study - Worksheet 2
Old Elvet Furniture Company

</div>

Reading Response Questions

1. This Options Analysis model (partial) presents two options for company action.

   (a) Which of these do feel it would be most important for the company to adopt? Why?

2. What advantages and disadvantages does the writer identify for the option of abandoning the commission system?

Model Text Study

The model text provided contains a large amount of useful language and demonstrates some useful principles of writing options analysis sections.

Study the partial model text and identify any useful language and options analysis features that you could use in the writing of your own Options Analysis sections. Write the features you identify in the box overleaf.

Useful Language and Features for Writing Options Analysis Sections

Philip Nathan 2005

(d) Model text : Modal learning experiments

Options Analysis – Quality Circles: Model Text

A range of options are available to the company and these are discussed below.

Option 1 Adopt a 'Wait-and-See' Posture

The Quality Circles programme has clearly met with some success already however there remain doubts about its efficacy. One option that is open to the company is therefore to maintain the Quality Circles programme in its current form and extent, but to gather further data on the programme before making any further decisions about its future. This would have the benefit of solidifying and providing stronger justification for any further decisions taken relevant to the programme. It would also mean that the company could be more certain about any decision that was taken at a future date. Expanding the scheme too rapidly might result in undesirable friction within the company and thus the additional time spent in assessing the programme would also provide more time to prepare for any extension of the scheme. Further the mechanism of introduction of the programme and its practice could be more fine-tuned.

A disadvantage of such a 'wait-and-see' policy would be that, as our competitors are involved in a continuous process of new product and service development in order to ensure their own success, delaying the introduction of Quality Circles might slow down our own innovation and quality development. This could enable our competitors to steal a march in the market, with the obvious medium and long term effect of reducing our own market share and profitability .

Option 2 A Phased Expansion

The Quality Circles programme could be expanded to specific areas of the company, based on either areas identified as those in which performance enhancement is seen as crucial, or alternatively where managers and workers would readily accept such a scheme.

Following this option would mean that the perceived benefits of the Quality Circles scheme could be targeted at areas of greatest need within the company and that on introduction of the scheme there would be less likelihood of friction and conflict. Implementation of the Quality Circles programme would be easier to justify due to willingness of staff to accept this scheme or through the obvious necessity of a changed course of action.

One disadvantage would be that the remaining areas of the company would not be able to benefit from Quality Circles until further extension of the programme was implemented. Further if there are doubts about the efficacy of the scheme, then expanding the scheme may result in no noticeable benefits.

Philip Nathan 2004

(e) Model text: Genre learning

Options Analysis Model Text (Partial)

The key problem that needs to be solved is the declining revenue and turnover of the company. This problem needs to be dealt with immediately. A number of options are available in order to reverse this trend.

1. Identify New Opportunities in the Market

The business could be expanded through the identification of new opportunities in the market. This could be achieved by use of market research conducted on either existing customers or by reaching new customers through small-scale street or survey-based market research. Employees (both sales staff and craftsmen) could be asked for their opinions about possible areas in the market where they believe new opportunities may be available and these employees could act as sources for new product development ideas. Small scale market research would involve some new investment and developing new products could also be expensive. It would be essential that market research questionnaires and responses are designed and interpreted correctly which might involve the use of expensive consultants. Staff might also wish to have some incentive for contributing their ideas.

2. Abandon the Commission System

One possibility open to the company is to abandon the commission system. Although top management believe this system is effective, and it is often intuitively believed that such systems are effective, the reality is often not so straightforward as intuition would suggest. Clearly the current commission system is problematic and is causing friction amongst the staff. While it might be possible to modify the scheme, it might be a better idea to abandon the scheme altogether and simply pay staff a fixed salary, using a range of other approaches to motivating staff rather than the carrot and stick approach. Abandoning the scheme could contribute towards a reduction in friction between the staff and could also result in an increase in sales. The costs of administering the commission system would also disappear. There is of course the risk that in the absence of the commission system, staff would not feel motivated to sell and turnover and profit would decline.

_____

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