

In the name of God



Faculty of Letters and Humanities

Department of English

**A Comparative Study of Research Article Discussion Sections of
Local and International Applied Linguistic Journals**

By:

Namdar Namdari

Supervisor: A. R. Jalilifar Ph.D.

Co-supervisor: A. M. Hayati Ph.D.

Reader: H. Shokouhi Ph.D.

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Table of contents

Contents	Page
Acknowledgments	vi
Abstract	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1 Preliminaries	1
1.2 Statement of the problem	3
1.3 Research question and hypothesis	4
1.4 Significance of the study	4
Chapter 2: Literature review	6
2.1 Introduction	6
2.2 Discourse community	6
2.3 The concept of genre	10
2.3.1 Genre and text types	10
2.3.2 Genre in ELT	11
2.3.2.1 The ESP perspective	12
2.3.2.2 The Sydney School	13
2.3.2.3 The New Rhetoric approach	13
2.3.3 Genre and context	14
2.3.4 Genre and culture	15
2.4 Genre analysis in research articles	15
2.4.1 Genre analysis of introduction sections	16
2.4.2 Genre analysis of method sections	18
2.4.3 Genre analysis of results sections	19
2.4.4 Genre analysis of discussion sections	20
Chapter 3: Methodology	25
3.1 Introduction	25
3.2 Materials	25
3.3 Instrument	26
3.4 Procedure	29

Chapter 4: Results and discussion		31
4.1 Introduction	31	
4.2 Statistical analysis		31
4.3 Move analysis of RA discussions		33
4.3.1 Move 1: Information move	33	
4.3.2 Moves 2 & 3: Statement of result & finding		35
4.3.3 Move 4: (Un)expected outcome		36
4.3.4 Move 5: Reference to previous research	38	
4.3.5 Move 6: Explanation		39
4.3.6 Move 7: Claim	41	
4.3.7 Move 8 & 9: Limitation & recommendation		43
4.4 Move cycles	46	
4.5 Improving the model		47
Chapter 5: Conclusion		49
5.1 Concluding remarks		49
5.2 Implications of the study		51
5.3 Limitations of the study and suggestions for further research		52
References		53
		Appendices

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<p>Abstract: Over the last few years, there has been a host of research on the generic structure of the research article (RA), and this has led to the establishment of genre based instruction in both EFL and ESL contexts. Along the same line, this thesis aimed to investigate the generic structure of the discussion sections of Applied Linguistic RAs published in a representative sample of local (Iranian) and international journals. The main purpose of this analysis was to identify move structure of RA discussions in the above mentioned discipline. The total corpus consisted of 80 RA discussions (40 from local and 40 from international journals). To analyze the texts, Dudley-Evans' (1994) model was employed. The findings demonstrated no major quantitative differences between the moves utilized in the two groups of RAs except for move 5 (<i>Reference to previous research</i>). The lower frequency of references in local RA discussions indicates that the writers of these RAs may not consider the significance of relating their findings to those reported in the previous research. The findings of the study suggest implications for Iranian RA writers to improve the generic structure of their RA discussions. Finally, a revised version of Dudley-Evans' (1994) model is introduced.</p>	

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Preliminaries

Genre analysis, as an approach to text analysis, has become crucial especially in the fields of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP). The term *genre* for the first time in ESP context appeared in an article that investigated the use of active and passive forms in astrophysics journal articles (Tarone, Dwyer, Gillette, and Icke, 1981, cited in Dudley-Evans, 1994, p. 219). Many scholars have defined the term genre so far, but it appears that the definition given by Swales (1990) is one of the most comprehensive ones. According to Swales (1990, p. 58), ever since the concept of genre was introduced, the notion of communicative purpose has been identified as a key criterion for assembling members of discourse community with their varied individual tastes. These members are not equal in the degree of responsibility for setting agendas and constituting the rationale for the genres of concern. Some of them are recognized as the expert members of the discourse community and are assigned to establish the conventions for the other members, i.e. the intended audience. These conventions, which can be characterized as the intended communicative purposes, gradually shape the schematic structures of the genre, and act both as imposing elements that restrict the members of the discourse community from stepping far outside the established norms, on the one hand, and as characterizing elements that consolidate the various individual tastes of the members. Besides, there are exemplars of a genre which can function just like the communicative purposes in exhibiting patterns of structure, style, content, and target audience.

It is inferred from this definition that a genre is a means of achieving a communicative goal that has evolved in response to particular rhetorical needs, and it changes in response to changes in those needs. Therefore, according to Dudley-Evans (1994), “the focus should be on the means by which a text realizes its communicative purpose rather than on establishing a system for the classifying of genres” (p. 219). This could be due to the transitory nature of genres and their mutual relationship with needs of the discourse community in which they exist.

The present work is situated within the first of the three main traditions introduced by Hyon (1996, pp. 695-697) in contemporary genre studies, namely ESP genre analysis, New Rhetoric Studies, and a distinctive Australian approach that draws extensively on Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL). ESP mostly deals with exploring the established conventions in certain genres regarding the style of presentation of content and the order of presentation of that content, and this focus, especially on text organization, remains very useful pedagogically. In addition, we are also interested in the role of genre within the discourse community that regularly uses it.

In recent years, there has been a myriad of studies conducted in the fields of EAP and ESP dealing with spoken and written materials to scrutinize and determine their micro-structures and macro-structures. Micro-structure refers to linguistic features and textual characteristics, such as the use of hedging, modality, and reporting verbs. On the other hand, macro-structure denotes patterns or major structures that characterize a text in a particular discourse community. In Swalesan paradigm, such macro-structures are called moves, and micro-structures are called steps used to realize moves. Mainly, for pedagogical reasons, this study will focus on the description and understanding of macro-structural organization in RAs published in local (Iranian) and international journals. In fact, so far, most of the studies conducted in the field of genre analysis have typically been concerned with RAs selected on the basis of their availability. This tendency among researchers toward RAs emanates from the importance of the RA as a scholarly activity and evidence of academic membership.

There is a continuing growth of native speaker (NS), non-native speaker (NNS) researchers, and graduate students trying to communicate their ideas and report the findings of their studies via publishing RAs in English. This growth, as stated by Peacock (2002, p. 480), has created a need to make these writers aware of discipline-specific aspects of academic writing. One of these facets is the communicative moves (Swales, 1990, 2004) that writers need to make to develop their main points and arguments. Due to this pressure, researchers began to examine the various parts of RAs including abstracts (Lorés, 2004; Van Bonn & Swales, 2007), introductions (Bhatia, 1997; Ozturk, 2007; Samraj, 2002 & 2008), literature reviews (Kwan, 2006),

methods (Lim, 2006), results and conclusions (Brett, 1994; Bunton, 2005; Ruiying & Allison, 2003; Williams, 1999), discussions (Holmes, 1997; Peacock, 2002), and citations (Petrić, 2007; Thompson, 2005). However, as Holmes (1997, p. 323) believes, research on the discussion section is limited compared to the introduction section of the research articles. There is, therefore, a pedagogical rationale for extending the genre analysis of RAs to their discussion sections. This study, thus, aims to investigate whether there are functional differences between the generic structures of discussion sections of RAs published in local and international journals in the discipline of Applied Linguistics.

1.2 Statement of the problem

The studies that have been conducted on the discussion section of RAs have shown that, due to its argumentative nature, the discussion section is the most problematic part of the RAs for research writers. These studies have focused on issues such as disciplinary (Holmes, 1997; Peacock, 2002), sub-disciplinary (Ruiying & Allison, 2003), and NS/NNS differences (Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2006) though many issues are yet to be resolved. For example, there are no fixed schemes regarding the move cycles that appear in this section. Most important of all, there are no studies focusing on the generic differences that might exist between the discussion section of Applied Linguistic RAs in Iranian and international journals.

As there are more and more students trying to publish their theses or dissertations in various national and international journals in the form of an RA, it seems that there is a need for studies comparing the generic structure of local and international RAs. It appears that this area of research has not been sufficiently investigated so far and there is a need for further research. It must be mentioned here that despite the similarities that might exist between the discussion sections in local and international RAs and the communicative functions they serve, they seem to be different because they are written for different target audiences; local RAs might be read only by a local community, while the other ones are addressing an international community. The generic structure of international RAs is mostly affected by the decisions taken by the journal gatekeepers who license publishing or announce rejecting an article. This might be in contrast to the more lenient approach taken by

English journals especially in non-English contexts. It must be said that the possible distinctiveness in communicative purposes of local and international RAs is sufficient to justify and validate the present study.

Up to now, studies comparing the generic structure of RA discussions published in Iranian and international journals within the realm of Applied Linguistics are seriously lacking. This study, accordingly, can play an important role in increasing the NNS English research writers' awareness of the generic differences that might exist between the RA discussion sections of local and international journals, thereby increasing their chances of publishing their articles in international journals. Therefore, the present study aims to investigate the generic structure of Applied Linguistic RAs published in local and international journals.

1.3 Research question and hypothesis

Based on the above arguments, this study addresses the following question:

What generic differences are found between the discussion sections of RAs published in local and international journals in Applied Linguistics?

H₀ There is no significant generic difference between the discussion sections of RAs published in local and international journals in Applied Linguistics.

1.4 Significance of the study

While much work since 1990 has analyzed communicative moves in introductions of RAs, much less has investigated the important discussion section, and agreement is still lacking on its move structure. Kanoksilapatham (2005, p. 283) argues that the discussion section has a twofold function which is contextualizing the reported study and relating it to the previous work in the field. Ruiying and Allison (2003, p. 366) claim that the discussion section is one of the crucial components of RAs used by authors to analyze their research findings and establish their importance. Moreover, there has been little investigation of rhetorical variations in local and international RAs. Swales (1990, p. 173), after providing a list of eight moves for the discussion section, notes that further work on discussion sections is much needed. Holmes (1997, p. 322) acknowledges that little research has looked at generic variations of discussion sections and calls for more research. Bitchener and

Basturkmen (2006, pp. 4-5) believe that most postgraduate students have a limited understanding of the function of the discussion section.

Many scholars believe that genre analysis could have important implications for language teaching, especially EAP. The strongest argument for genre analysis is that it provides input for important and popular courses on academic writing (Dudley-Evans , 1994; Nwogu, 1997; Paltridge, 1996). In fact, data of this kind are needed if academic reading and writing materials are to be developed that are sensitive to the structural features of academic texts and in particular to the ways in which such features vary according to the discipline. The results of this study also might reveal certain points regarding the idiosyncratic differences between the discussion section of local and international RAs. According to Kanoksilapatham (2005, p. 270), to facilitate reading and/or writing of scientific RAs, both native and non-native speakers of English need to be aware of the rhetorical organization conventionally used in their field of scientific interest.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter reviews the ESP approach to English RAs, particularly in the work of Swales (1990). Central to his view of RAs in the ESP tradition are two key notions: *discourse community* and *genre*. Discourse communities, according to Swales (1990), are “sociorhetorical networks that form in order to work towards a set of common goals” (p. 9). One of the characteristics of the members of a particular discourse community is their “familiarity with the particular genres that are used in the communicative furtherance of those set goals” (p. 9). Thus, in this view, genres belong to discourse communities. At the outset, this chapter tries to offer a definition of the notion of discourse community. Following this, the concept of genre in different approaches is reviewed. The chapter proceeds with an account of some genre analysis studies conducted in the realm of research articles. In the end, a number of studies on the rhetorical structure of discussion sections of research articles will be explained.

2.2 Discourse community

The notion of discourse community has gained increasing importance in recent research in academic writing as a means of understanding the nature of academic writing, particularly for novice research writers. Swales (1990, p. 24) specifies discourse communities as sociorhetorical networks, each consisting “a group of people who link up in order to pursue objectives that are prior to those of socialisation and solidarity”. According to Flowerdew (2000, p. 129), this is made possible “because they share similar educational and professional initiations, because they have absorbed the same technical literature and drawn many of the same lessons from it, because they share goals and professional judgments, and because their communication is full”. These features point to a discourse community as a group of people with similar backgrounds, expertise, and goals, who establish a particular form of communication in order to achieve their goals. This section discusses further the characteristics of the discourse community and marks the extent that research articles are products of academic discourse community activities.

Swales (1990, pp. 24-27) identifies the discourse community with six defining characteristics: common goals, participatory mechanism, information exchange, community specific genres, a highly specialized terminology, and a high general level of expertise. These criteria are discussed below.

1. *A discourse community has a broadly agreed set of common public goals.*

Firstly, a discourse community is identified with a “broadly agreed set of common public goals” (Swales, 1990, p. 24). These goals are public because they are open for anyone who wants to check them. Swales notes that these goals are normally general, however they may also be “high level or abstract” (p. 25). In the case of an academic community of research in a particular discipline, these goals can be traced in the objectives of the journal(s) published by that community. The goals are common because they are not identified by the subject matter or object of study, but by more common purposes that, for a research community, can be a common objective to exchange knowledge and information in particular research areas or disciplines. While Swales has defined these goals or purposes as collective, other researchers believe in a weaker connection, and maintain that common interests, rather than shared goals, are essential. For example, Barton (1994, cited in Hyland, 2006 p. 40) suggests that they can be loose-knit groups engaged in either the reception or production of texts, or both. He adds that discourse community refers to a group of academic or non-academic people who have shared texts and practices. In other words, discourse community can refer to the people who read a text or participate in a set of discourse practices by both reading and writing.

Hyland (2006, p. 41) presents the notion of a disciplinary community that suggests the members of a discourse community are “a relatively dispersed group of like-minded individuals”. On the other hand, Swales (1998, p. 26) has more recently opted for a narrower version in his idea of “place discourse community”. This draws the interest to those groups of individuals who commonly work together and have common goals, purposes, discourses, and histories.

2. *A discourse community has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members.*

The second characteristic is the participatory mechanism among the members of a particular discourse community. According to Swales (1990), this participation

can be formally identified by membership to an association, which may involve subscription to a society. Nevertheless, more importantly, membership to a discourse community is an active participation, including providing and receiving information and feedback. Flowerdew (2000, p. 136) notes that in a discourse community, for example, maintenance of membership of the particular disciplinary community is affirmed by the acceptance of their writing for publication. This shows that experienced researchers who have published widely also need to continue to reflect the beliefs, values, and conventions of the target discourse community in order to maintain their position. This nature of discourse community clearly shows that knowledge is a dynamic process, which, according to Flowerdew, is only valid “when activated within the discourse community” (p. 131).

3. *A discourse community uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback.*

The third characteristic of a discourse community is the mechanism of information exchange among its members. This mechanism may take several forms, such as meetings, correspondence, conversation, newsletter, and many others, all of which enable members to interact, receive, and respond to the same kind of information for the same purposes. Borg (2003, p. 399) suggests that this mechanism of communication is governed by institutional norms, which are themselves generated by the discourse community.

4. *A discourse community utilizes and hence processes one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims.*

The fourth characteristic of a discourse community is the specific genre(s) possessed by the community. According to Swales (1990, p. 26), a discourse community develops and maintains expectations that are “created by the genres that articulate the operation of the discourse community”. These expectations are expressed in terms of topics, forms, functions, positioning of discourse elements, and the role of the text in the operations of the discourse community. The aim of this fourth characteristic of discourse communities is to establish the status of the discourse community in relation to other communities.

5. *In addition to owing genres, a discourse community has acquired some specific lexis.*

The fifth characteristic of a discourse community is the highly specialized terminology that, according to Swales (1990, p. 26), is “driven by the requirements for efficient communication exchange between experts”. The common realizations of the specialized terminology are abbreviations and acronyms, which are the result of “the inbuilt dynamic towards an increasingly shared and specialized terminology” (p. 26). Since this specialized terminology is shared among the members of the discourse community, it is necessary for those who wish to become a member of the community to learn the specialized terminology, including the lexical items relevant to the topics or disciplines. In the case of research article writing, this disciplinary role is perhaps illustrated by the reviewers and editors, as the representatives of the community of readers in the first stage of publication, whose job is, among others, to examine whether the novice researchers display the knowledge of the specialized features of the discourse community in their papers.

6. A discourse community has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discursal expertise.

The last characteristic of a discourse community is the high general level of relevant content and discursal expertise of the members. According to Swales (1990), as memberships may change, the continuation of a discourse community is largely dependent on the ratio between the novice and expert members. Therefore, a dynamic discourse community will continuously recruit new members to maintain an ongoing level of discursal expertise.

The above discussion highlights the central role of a particular discourse community in shaping the product of communication among the members. However, it is worth mentioning that this product is the result of the interaction among the members of that discourse community, and the mere physical involvement of members would not be enough (Goffman, 1959, cited in Hyland, 2006). This idea also has been mentioned by Swales (1998, p. 110) as “textography of communities” and refers to the fact that the membership of individuals in a particular discourse community is conditioned by their active engagement in disciplinary discourses.

The products of a discourse community of researchers are scientific articles. The active involvement of the discourse community members in the production of articles is shown in the process of writing and rewriting prior to publication. To achieve

success in writing, novice writers have to learn the register that is required by the disciplinary community. In addition, as Paltridge (1996) notes, it is only when the writer positions his study in its introduction within the context of related scientific activity in the field that a paper is accepted for publication.

2.3 The concept of genre

The notion of genre has been discussed for a long time in a range of different areas, such as literature, sociology, folklore studies, linguistic anthropology, ethnography of speech, conversation analysis, rhetoric, literary theory, and linguistics. Some of these approaches, such as ethnography of communication, linguistic anthropology, and conversational analysis, focus their analysis mainly on oral genres. Others, such as rhetoric and literary theory, focus on the written genres. Genres are identified in relation to a number of aspects, including categories, functions, contexts, and structures. Different approaches emphasize different aspects, which may overlap or be quite different from each other. This section discusses the similarities and differences in approaches to these features.

2.3.1 Genre and text types

Genres are associated with categories of texts as either ideal types or actual forms (Swales, 1990, p. 34). As ideal types, genres are seen as a classificatory category, for categorizing individual texts into various groups, for example, secular or religious genres, literary genres, popular genres, and educational genres. In folklore studies, for example, stories are categorized into legend, myth or tale, based on their function, structure, theme, and historical factors. In literary theory, on the other hand, genres function as categories to classify literary text. These categories are “open ended” and “coded and keyed events set within social communicative processes which facilitate comprehension and composition” (Swales, 1990, p. 38). Literary texts are classified into genres such as poetry, novel, and drama, based on the medium, object, the manner in which the text is presented, its structure, and the effects on the audience. An important aspect of genres as ideal types is that they also allow for variations in the actual texts within a particular genre.

As forms, genres are seen to be part of an established tradition. Legends, in folklore studies, for example, are described as permanent genre, whose features do not change over time. However, in later development, some figures in folklore studies recognize the evolution of genres “as a necessary response to a changing world” (Swales, 1990, p. 35). Here, as Paltridge believes, genres may undergo change (1997, p. 65).

More recently, Lee (2001) draws a distinction between genre and text type that has significant implications for language learning. According to Lee, the term genre categorizes texts based on external criteria, while text types represent groupings of texts that are similar in linguistic form (internal criteria), irrespective of genre. As a result, the term genre describes types of activities, for example, prayers, sermons, songs, and poems, which regularly occur in a society, and are considered by the speech community as being of the same type. Text types, in contrast, represent groupings of texts that are similar in terms of co-occurrence of linguistic patterns. Lee found that the same genre could differ greatly in its linguistic characteristics. He also observed that different genres could be quite similar linguistically. Therefore, the terms genre and text type represent different, yet complementary, perspectives of texts.

2.3.2 Genre in ELT

Genres are identified according to their various functions that are highlighted differently in each disciplinary approach. The term genre was first introduced in the area of English for specific purposes in the early 1980s. The Australian work on genre dates back to a similar time and originates in the examination of children’s writing in Australian elementary school classrooms. Genre studies in composition studies in North America and what has been called the New Rhetoric have been influenced, in particular, by Miller’s 1984 seminal paper, “Genre as social action” (p. 151). This section discusses insights gained in different areas of ELT and their impacts on English language teaching.

2.3.2.1 The ESP perspective

The ESP perspective on genre has been influenced by the work in the New Rhetoric and, in particular, Miller's (1984) notion of genre as social action. In this view, a genre is defined not in terms of the substance or the form of discourse, but the action used to accomplish it. ESP genre analysis is also based largely on Swales' (1981, 1990, 2004) studies of the discourse structure and linguistic features of scientific research articles. These works have had a strong influence in the area of ESP especially in the teaching of graduate writing to ESL students (see Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

Genres that have been examined in Swalesean perspective include the introduction and results sections of research articles, the introduction and discussion sections of theses and dissertations, research article abstracts, job application and sales promotion letters, grant proposals, legislative documents, the graduate seminar, academic lectures, and lecture and poster session discussions at conferences. In this ESP perspective on genre analysis, discourse structures are most often described as series of moves, analyzed in terms of rhetorical purpose, content, and form. Many ESP genre studies have also examined linguistic aspects of genres as well.

ESP (and New Rhetoric) genre analysis argue that genres are not static but they rather change and evolve in response to changes in particular communicative needs. They also discuss the notion of prototypicality: the way in which properties such as communicative purpose, form, structure, and audience expectations operate to identify the extent to which a text is prototypical as an example of a particular genre (Swales, 1990, p. 64).

Hyon (1996, p. 695) regards many ESP genre studies particularly form-focused due, in part, to their connection with the teaching of English to non-native speakers and their inevitable attention to surface-level patterns of grammar and vocabulary. He also suggests that this focus on form may derive from the fact that most of the leading ESP teachers and researchers have a background in formal language study, rather than literary or rhetorical theory. For Swales (1990), the most important aspect of a genre is the communicative purpose, the key factor that leads researchers to decide whether a text is an instance of a particular genre or not. He has since, nevertheless, revised this view, saying that it is now obvious that genres may have multiple purposes, and these may be different for each of the participants involved.

As a result, communicative purpose cannot always be taken into account to decide which genre category a text belongs to (or not) (Askehave & Swales, 2001, p. 201).

2.3.2.2 The Sydney School

Australian genre work is based on the work of linguists living in Sydney such as Halliday (1994) and Hasan (Halliday & Hasan, 1989). The Australian view of genre draws for its model of description on the theory of language known as Systemic Functional Linguistics (Eggins, 2004; Halliday, 1994; Halliday & Hasan, 1989). According to Hyon (1996), Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) considers language primarily as a resource for making meaning rather than as a set of rules. The systemic component of systemic functional grammar derives from the fact that the grammar describes language as being made up of systems of choices. The functional dimension of systemic functional grammar aims to describe what language is doing in a particular context. Labels given to language features in systemic functional analyses are described in terms of what they are doing in functional, rather than, grammatical terms (pp. 696-697).

It is also believed that the register of a genre corresponds to the context of situation and is responsible for the language features of a text. Genres are, thus, described as being culture specific and as having particular purposes, stages, and linguistic features associated with them, the meanings of which need to be interpreted in relation to the cultural and social contexts in which they occur (Eggins, 2004, p. 69).

2.3.2.3 The New Rhetoric approach

The concept of genre has been given particular attention in North American first language (L₁) composition studies, rhetoric, and professional writing studies. Genre studies in the new rhetoric differ from ESP and systemic genre studies in that they have focused more on the relationship between text and context and the actions that genres fulfill within particular situations. Researchers of this standpoint, accordingly, have been less concerned with the analysis and teaching of formal textual features and more with understanding the social functions of genres and the contexts in which they are used (Hyon, 1996, pp. 695-696).

According to Hyon (1996, p. 696), the New Rhetoric approach describes a body of North American scholarship from a number of disciplines concerned with L₁ teaching, including rhetoric, composition studies, and professional writing. Scholars in New Rhetoric fields have used ethnographic rather than linguistic methods for analyzing texts, offering descriptions of academic and professional contexts surrounding genres, and the actions texts perform within these situations. The techniques that the scholars in this approach resort to range from participant observation, interviews, and document collection to investigation of the purpose of different genres.

2.3.3 Genre and context

The third aspect of genre is the role of context in creation and interpretation of genre, the description that varies from one approach to another. Context in linguistic approaches seems to show a discrepancy between ESP and SFL approaches. According to Swales (1990), context in the ESP approach seems to be related to a particular discourse community, whose members actively establish the common communicative goals and control the types of genres to be utilized to meet those goals. Context, therefore, is interpreted materially as a group of experts in a particular area of interests, who determine whether a text belongs to a particular genre. Context in the SFL approach, conversely, seems to be more abstract and is identified based on textual features. The SFL approach emphasizes that the meaning of a particular communicative event should be grounded in the context of culture and context of situation. The context of culture is represented by genre, while the immediate context of situation is represented by register (Eggins, 2004). Genre looks at recurring patterns (Miller, 1984, p. 156) and organizations that are involved in the text or speech, e.g. conversations, lectures, articles, etc. On the other hand, as stated by Hyon (1996, p. 607), register is characterized by three elements of field (the ongoing activity), tenor (participants' relationships), and mode (channel of communication).

2.3.4 Genre and culture

In the ethnography of speaking, particularly in the work of Bakhtin (1999), culture seems to include the immediate setting of a speech event, which is one of the elements in his framework of a speech event. Later, based on his framework (p. 124), the notion of culture is expanded to examine intercultural and inter-ethnic communication that plays an important role in identifying patterns of language use across cultures (see for example Miller, 1984). In the rhetorical approach, particularly new rhetoric, where genres are seen as strategies to respond to a particular social situation, culture refers to the social reality, which is the target of genre. With the influence of Bakhtin's (1999, p. 125) notion of the dialogic nature of text, genre is also said to shape the social context. He believes that, in order to be fully effective, genres must be flexible and dynamic, capable of modification according to the rhetorical demands of the culture in which they exist. Furthermore, Bakhtin's (1999) notion of the dialogical nature of text influences the role of culture in interpretation of a literary text. Culture, in this approach, seems to be applied to systems of meanings involving other texts, readers' criteria of judgment, and interpretation of particular texts and inter-textual relationships of both present and past.

2.4 Genre analysis in research articles

The dominance of English in various domains and the high proportion of academic textbooks and research articles being published in English, whether being intended for an internal English speaking community or an international one, have increased the need for non-native speakers of English to reach a high level of competence in this language. Moreover, as English become an avenue to prestigious forms of knowledge, this adds to the reinforcement of the position of English and its forms of culture and knowledge, and this can be felt in the education system (White, 2004). In view of that, this section discusses the generic structure of English RAs that are considered the main vehicle for scholarly communication and circulation of academic knowledge (Swales, 1990; Peacock, 2002). In this section, a brief review of the previous studies that have been conducted in this area is presented.

2.4.1 Genre analysis of the introduction sections