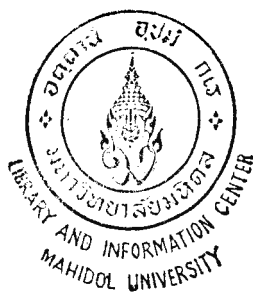


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**AN INVESTIGATION OF THE ORGANIZATION AND LINGUISTIC
FEATURES OF ONE GENRE: RESEARCH ARTICLE ABSTRACTS
IN THE FIELD OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING AND
TEACHING (ELLT)**

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จาก

บัณฑิตวิทยาลัย มหาวิทยาลัยมหิดล

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KEY WORDS : ABSTRACTS / ORGANIZATION / LINGUISTIC FEATURES / WRITING STRATEGIES

THANATE VONGVANIT: AN INVESTIGATION OF THE ORGANIZATION AND LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF ONE GENRE: RESEARCH ARTICLE ABSTRACTS IN THE FIELD OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING. THESIS ADVISOR: ASSOC. PROF. DR. BOOSAKORN VIJCHULATA, Ph.D. MICHAEL TREPIAK, M.A., 92 p. ISBN 974-665-430-6

The purpose of this research was to investigate the organization and linguistic features (writing strategies and tenses) of the research article abstracts in the field of ELLT (English Language Learning and Teaching). One hundred and fifty abstracts found in a wide variety of ELLT journals (e.g. System, RELC, and Foreign Language Annual) published between 1997-1998 were selected for analysis.

To investigate the organization of the ELLT abstracts, Bhatia (1993) and Santos (1996) were used as the criteria for this study. The writing strategies were analysed based on the work of Rosenberg (1989). Analysis of tenses and the manner in which writers employ tenses was based on Murcia (1983). All the data found were analyzed through the measures of frequency and percentage.

The results of the research indicated that most analysed abstracts were written with five moves: Background Information (B), Purpose (P), Method (M), Result (R), and Conclusion (C). Apart from these moves, there were two other moves found (the Acknowledgement move and the Commenting on Research Methodology move).

When considering the move ordering pattern, some of the abstracts (15.33%) were not written in the sequence (B→P→M→R→C) found by Bhatia (1993) and Santos (1996).

For the investigation of writing strategies, this study found that the writing strategy named 'Description' was used in every move. This research also revealed that each move employed more than one writing strategy.

Regarding the analysis of tenses, the study found that Simple Present and Simple Past were used in all the moves. Concerning the manner in which writers use the two tenses, present event/action or speech act (of Simple Present) and a definite single completed event/action in the past (of Simple Past) were found to be widely used in every move.

Further study should be carried out to investigate the organization and linguistic features of abstracts in other disciplines.

3936765 SCAL/M: สาขาวิชา: ภาษาศาสตร์ประยุกต์; ศศ.ม. (ภาษาศาสตร์ประยุกต์)

รหัส ว่องวานิช: การศึกษารูปแบบการเขียนและลักษณะทางภาษาศาสตร์ของบทความวารสารทางการวิจัยในสาขาการเรียนรู้และการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ (AN INVESTIGATION OF THE ORGANIZATION AND LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF ONE GENRE: RESEARCH ARTICLE ABSTRACTS IN THE FIELD OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNING AND TEACHING). คณะกรรมการควบคุมวิทยานิพนธ์: บุษกร วิชชุดตา, Ph.D. MICHAEL TREPIAK, M.A. 92 หน้า. ISBN 974-665-430-6

การวิจัยนี้มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อศึกษารูปแบบการเขียนและลักษณะทางภาษาศาสตร์(กลวิธีในการเขียนและวิธีการใช้กาล)ที่ใช้ในบทความของบทความวารสารทางการวิจัยของสาขาการเรียนรู้และการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ โดยใช้บทความที่พิมพ์ในปีพ.ศ 2540-2541 จำนวน150เรื่อง จากวารสารทางวิชาการที่มีชื่อแตกต่างกัน เช่น System RELC และ Foreign Language Annual

ในการศึกษาค้นคว้าผู้วิจัยใช้ทฤษฎีของ Bhatia (2536) และ Santos (2539) เพื่อศึกษารูปแบบการเขียนทฤษฎีของ Rosenberg (2532) เพื่อวิเคราะห์กลวิธีในการเขียน และทฤษฎีของ Murcia (2526) เพื่อวิเคราะห์เรื่องกาลและวิธีการใช้กาล

ผลจากการวิเคราะห์พบว่า รูปแบบการเขียนของบทความส่วนใหญ่ ประกอบด้วย5ส่วน คือ ข้อมูลที่เป็นภูมิหลัง วัตถุประสงค์การวิจัย วิธีการวิจัย ผลการวิจัย และ สรุปผลการวิจัย นอกจากนี้ทั้ง5ส่วนนี้แล้ว ผู้วิจัยยังพบรูปแบบการเขียนส่วนอื่นอีก2ส่วน คือ ในส่วนที่เป็นกิตติกรรมประกาศและในส่วนที่เป็นการวิจารณ์วิธีการวิจัย

ผลการวิเคราะห์ด้านการเขียนตามลำดับของแต่ละส่วนพบว่า รูปแบบการเขียนบางบทความ(จำนวน23 เรื่อง= 15.33%) ไม่ได้เขียนตามลำดับ (ข้อมูลที่เป็นภูมิหลัง→ วัตถุประสงค์การวิจัย→ วิธีการวิจัย→ ผลการวิจัย→ สรุปผลการวิจัย) ที่กล่าวไว้ในทฤษฎีของ Bhatia (2536) และ Santos (2539)

ผลจากการวิเคราะห์กลวิธีในการเขียนพบว่า กลวิธีในการเขียนแบบการบรรยาย(Description)ปรากฏในทุกขั้นตอนการเขียน นอกจากนี้ยังมีการใช้กลวิธีในการเขียนแบบอื่นๆมากกว่าหนึ่งกลวิธีในการเขียนของแต่ละขั้นตอนการเขียน

ผลการวิเคราะห์ด้านกาลพบว่า ปัจจุบันกาล(Simple Present) และ อดีตกาล(Simple Past)นิยมใช้มากที่สุดในทุกขั้นตอนการเขียน ผลการวิเคราะห์ด้านวิธีการใช้กาลของกาลที่กล่าวมาข้างต้นพบว่า การใช้กาลแบบเหตุการณ์/การแสดง หรือ การแสดงโดยใช้คำพูดที่เกิดขึ้นในปัจจุบัน(present event/action or speech act) ของปัจจุบันกาล(Simple Present) และ การใช้กาลแบบเหตุการณ์/การแสดงอย่างใดอย่างหนึ่งที่เกิดขึ้นแล้วโดยสมบูรณ์ในอดีต(a definite single completed event/action in the past) ของอดีตกาล(Simple Past) นิยมใช้ในทุกขั้นตอนการเขียน

การวิจัยในขั้นต่อไปควรเป็นการศึกษารูปแบบการเขียนและลักษณะทางภาษาศาสตร์ของบทความในสาขาอื่นๆ

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Rationale of the Study

Using a genre-based approach in the field of language teaching has been increasing, especially the area of teaching academic writing skills. This approach has its foundation throughout the work of Halliday (1985), which aims to raise learners' awareness of both the rhetorical organization and linguistic features closely associated with the genre.

Swales (1981) gives a general description of genre as a text or discourse type which is recognized by its users and its characteristic features of style or form. These characteristic features can be specified through stylistic and text-linguistic/discourse analysis, and/or by the particular function of texts belonging to the genre. Roseberry (1997) gives more specific definition of genre as "property of texts which allows them to be described as a sequence of segments or moves, which each move accomplishing some part of the overall communicative purpose of the text".

▼ A research article journal abstract is one type of genres. It is often published in English since English language, compared with other languages, is the most world wide used language in publication (Baldauf and Jurnudd, 1983; Garfield, 1983).

Most research article journals require the mentioned type of abstract. There is some evidence supporting this. First, research articles these days are prefaced by

English abstracts. Second, many journals often call for the English abstract together with a research article.

Writing abstracts seems to be not much a difficult task if the writers are native English writers. But for non-native English writers, problems in writing exist.

Most non-native English writers find that the English abstract writing is difficult since English is not their language. Bloor (1984 cited in Swales, 1990) agrees with this. In her needs analysis carried out at the University of Cordoba, southern Spain, she found that when learners were required to furnish journals with English abstracts, many did not feel up to this task and resorted to translation services available in the city. Moreover, non-native English writers have to know more what is suggested in abstract manuals (e.g. particular conventions: layout, form, style of their own discipline or overall length).

Researchers (Brown, 1983; Hall, 1994) suggest that this difficulty will be solved if a non-native writer has opportunity to write. Moreover, to provide research writers with the abstract organization that will help them to concisely organize and present their study, Bhatia (1993) and Swales (1990) investigate the organization of published English journal abstracts. They have found that an abstract normally consists of four moves: **Purpose, Method, Result, and Conclusion.**

However, to facilitate effective abstract writing for non-native writers, one way, in the researcher's view, is to examine the organization and linguistic features governed in any journal types as many as possible in the fields that those non-native writers are studying.

Of all fields, the field of ELLT (stands for English Language Learning and Teaching) is an important field which has been taught in many countries as well as in

Thailand. Eventhough the names of this field given in each academic setting are different (e.g. EFL, ESL, ELT or Applied Linguistics), the researcher believes that those academic settings have the same basic aim. That is, to enhance the abilities of students in four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing. The following is evidence supporting the importance of this field. That is, many educational institutions have provided this field and there is a large and increasing number of students who study in this discipline. Moreover, due to popularity of this field, a large number of research article journals related to this field have increased such as ELT, ESP, System or Applied Linguistics. In Thailand, various journals such as Thai TESOL Bulletin and SLLT are also in the ELLT field. And most of them, foreign and Thai journals call for an abstract together with a research article. However, there has been a few studies on particular characteristics of ELLT research article journal abstracts (Santos, 1996).

To minimize the deficiency and to obtain the valid information about the organization and linguistic features of ELLT research article journal abstracts, the researcher wanted to explore the organization and linguistic features of abstracts found in a number of ELLT journals.

1.2 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the organization and linguistic features of ELLT abstracts in the following ways: First, to determine the moves of ELLT abstracts on the ground of Bhatia's (1993) and Santos's (1996) with an intention to know whether the ELLT abstract move follow the same moves as stated in their research. This step also examined whether there were some new moves that differed from the research of Bhatia and Santos or not. If so, what were the new moves? Second, to study the move ordering pattern (move structure) of ELLT abstracts with an aim to know whether there were moves variation found in pattern. Third, to explore the writing strategies as suggested by Rosenberg (1989). Fourth, to examine the numbers and types of verb tenses used in each move based on Murcia (1983). The following were the specific research questions that this study aimed to explore.

1. Did the move occurrence found in the selected ELLT abstracts differ from that found in the research of Bhatia and Santos?
2. With respect to move ordering pattern (move structure), did move variation occur in the selected ELLT abstracts?
3. What writing strategies were employed in each move of the selected ELLT abstracts?
4. What were the tenses found to govern each move in the selected abstracts and how each tense was used in each move?

1.3 Significance of the Study

It is anticipated that the findings of this research will serve as an information source which will be helpful in the following ways:

1. ELLT teachers and researchers may obtain the accurate picture on how information is typically organized in the research paper abstract of this field.
2. Research writers in this field may find that the result of this study will be helpful for writing their research abstracts.

1.4 Scope and Limitations of the Study

This research was limited in the following ways:

1. The ELLT journals used in this study were ELT, Foreign Language Annual (FLN), Issues in Applied Linguistics (IPL), RELC and System. All were drawn up from the library of Mahidol University at Phayathai campus.
2. There was a lack of certain volumes, numbers and years since the mentioned journals were compiled from only one place (see reasons in **Chapter Three**).
3. All abstracts found in the mentioned journals written from 1997 and 1998 were analysed because they were the most recent abstracts when the researcher was conducting the present research. The content in the abstracts (e.g. curriculum design, teaching methods, and testing) found in other journals published in other years was not different from that in these abstracts published between 1997 and 1998.
4. The analysis of organization of ELLT abstracts was on the ground of Bhatia (1993) and Santos (1996).
5. The study of writing strategies was based on Rosenberg (1989).

6. The analysis of tenses (types and uses) was based on Murcia (1983).

1.5 Basic Assumptions

The results from the analysis conducted on the organization and linguistic features (writing strategies and tenses) of the abstracts in the two journals named **RELC** and **Foreign Language Annuals** published from 1997 to 1998 showed that there was no difference in each year. Therefore, it can be assumed that the results to be found in the abstracts of other journals published in 1997 and 1998 will not be different.

1.6 Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined as follows:

1. **Move** is defined as a segment of an article abstract. Each move demonstrates a particular intention or purpose while contributing to the overall communicative purpose of the text (Swales, 1990).
2. **Bhatia's Move Theory** refers to the following moves: introducing **Purpose**, describing **Methodology**, summarizing **Result** and presenting **Conclusion** discovered by Bhatia (1993).
3. **Santos's Five-Move pattern** is the abstract moves explored by Santos (1996).

They are defined as follows:

Move 1 motivates the readers to examine the research by setting the general field or topic and stating the shortcomings of previous studies (or giving **Background Information**). This is the one which is added from Bhatia.

Move 2 introduces the research by either making a descriptive statement of the article's main focus or by presenting its purpose.

Move 3 describes the study design.

Move 4 states the major findings.

Move 5 advances the significance of the research by either drawing conclusions or offering recommendations.

4. **Writing strategies** refer to the techniques writers use to present their ideas to suit their purposes when writing each move in the abstract (e.g. giving statistics, quotation or description). Based on Rosenberg (1989), description is the writing strategy which the writer vividly describes something (e.g. place or equipment) so that the reader can form a mental image of it. In this study, '**something**' also means information or detail the writers describe in each move.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

This chapter is divided into 6 parts: types of English abstracts, moves in English abstracts, writing strategies, previous research in writing strategies, tenses, and the uses of tenses proposed by Murcia (1983).

2.1 Types of English Abstracts

Generally, English abstracts can be separated into two types: indicative or descriptive and informative abstracts (Eisenberg, 1982; Day, 1988; and Huckin and Olsen, 1991). Moreover, Swales and Feak (1994) offer two major approaches to write abstracts. The first approach is the “result-driven” abstract writing (concentrating on the research findings and what might be concluded from them). The second approach is “a research paper summary” writing (the approach that the writers has summarized each section of the research such as purposes, methods, findings, conclusions and discussion). In both cases, the abstracts can be either informative or indicative.

Indicative or descriptive abstracts are most often found in review papers, reference reports, government reports or in literature. They are designed to indicate the content of the paper and their primary function is to serve as a table of contents.

Informative abstracts usually include Problem, Method, Result and Conclusion. In medical science, they are ‘structured abstracts’ (Ad Hoc Working Group, 1987;

Huth, 1987; Mulrow, 1987; and Taddio et al, 1994). This name is given because the contents of the abstracts are laid out under specific headings such as Purpose, Subjects, Methodology, Intervention, Results, and Conclusion. The informative abstract has three functions. The first is to give readers an idea of what the article as a whole is about to assist them in deciding whether or not to read it. The second function is to serve as a text itself but in a precise version to guide readers to determine whether the subject matter is related to their interests. The third function is to provide a helpful preview so as to prepare readers for the main details to come when reading the whole article. In addition, According to Swales and Feak (1994), the following are also informative.

- A conference abstract, which is written to determine whether or not an author will be accepted for the conference program.

- An abstract journal abstract, which is often used in special conventions and is written by professional abstractors.

- A research paper abstract, which is placed in research and based on a text that has already been written. This is 'non-structured abstract or traditional abstract' in medical science view since it is written without headings and simply summarizes the content of the whole article (Ad Hoc Working Group, 1987; Huth, 1987; Mulrow, 1987; and Taddio et al, 1994).

2.2 Moves in English Abstracts

Based on Bhatia (1993) research on abstracts in a wide range of fields, an English abstract normally consists of four moves: introducing the **Purpose**, describing the **Methodology**, summarizing the **Result**, and presenting the **Conclusion**. This pattern is also accepted by many researchers (Day, 1988; Maher, 1990; Phantama, 2000; and Swales, 1990).

Move One: Introducing the Purpose. This move gives a precise indication of the author's intention, thesis or hypothesis which forms the basis of the research being reported. It may also include the goals or objectives of research or the problem that the author wishes to tackle.

Move Two: Describing the Methodology. In this move, the author gives a good indication of the experimental design, including information on the data, procedures or method(s) used and, if necessary, the scope of the research being reported.

Move Three: Summarizing the Results. The author mentions his observations and findings and also suggests solutions to the problem.

Move Four: Presenting the Conclusions. This move is meant to interpret results and draw inferences. It typically includes some indication of the implications and applications of the present findings.

According to the moves mentioned, it can be concluded that different moves serve different purposes.

To prove whether Bhatia' pattern can be used in the applied linguistic field, Santos (1996) investigates the organization of 94 published English abstracts selected from the three journals named Language Learning, Applied Linguistics, and TESOL

Quarterly in the year 1990 to 1992. He has found that apart from the four moves proposed by Bhatia (1993), there is one new move called 'Situating the Research or **Background Information of the Study**'. All five moves discovered by Santos are shown below.

The Five Move

Move I: Situating the Research

Submove 1A - Situating current knowledge

and/or

Submove 1B- Citing previous research

and/or

Submove 1C- Extended previous research

and/or

Submove 2- Stating the problem

Move 2: Presenting the Research

Submove 1A- Indicating main features

and/or

Submove 1B- Indicating main purpose

and/or

Submove 2- Hypothesis raising

Move 3: Describing the methodology

Move 4: Summarizing the results

Move 5: Discussing the research**Submove 1- Drawing conclusions****and/or****Submove 2- Giving recommendations**

Considering the detail inserted to each move, 'Indicating main features' (submove1A of Move2) and 'Giving recommendations' (submove2 of Move5) of Santos (1996) are the other information found when compared with Bhatia (1993). The first submove (Indicating main features) has the function in describing type of research being studied (e.g. study, investigation, examination, analysis or survey). The second submove (Giving recommendations) outlines suggestions for future practice or investigation.

Because of a word limiting of many journal articles that authors can not exceed when writing abstracts, writers, therefore, have to shorten abstracts. Weissburg and Buker (1990) recommends that writers may eliminate or combine information as shown in the box below.

Order of Information Elements in Reduced Abstracts

P+M = purpose and method of the study

R= results

C= conclusions and recommendations*

* optional

2.3 Writing Strategies

Normally, the classification of writing strategies proposed by each writer is different. According to Forte (1985), writing strategies namely example, comparison and contrast, cause and effect, process, classification, and definition are often used in most writing. Writing strategies found in Adler (1988) are narration, description, illustration, process, cause and effect, comparison and contrast, classification, and definition. Rosenberg (1989), on the other hand, elaborates more by dividing writing strategies into two types: major and secondary writing strategies. The former are called “major” because they are the most often used writing strategies. The latter are called “secondary” as they are additional strategies available to writers when developing their ideas. The two types of writing strategies are discussed in detail below.

Major writing strategies

According to Rosenberg (1989), there are ten writing strategies that he calls “major” writing strategies. These are Analysis, Argumentation, Cause and Effect, Classification, Comparison and Contrast, Definition, Description, Exemplification, Narration and Process. These strategies are also organizational devices; that is, an entire article might be organized within a framework of comparison and contrast or cause and effect. Rosenberg (1989) also states that even though there is one writing strategy often predominates in an article, a writer generally uses more than one writing strategy and many of these strategies tend to be overlapped. For instance, writers comparing two public figures might describe them, and explain why they make certain decisions. Thus, the entire article might be written with analysis, comparison and

contrast, and description writing strategies. The following are the ten types of strategies with explanation proposed by Rosenberg (1989) as shown below.

Strategy	Explanation
Analysis	The writer takes something apart (e.g., an issue, a book, an event in history, an article or book someone else has written, a process, etc.), examining the different parts of its separately and seeing how the parts relate to each other.

Strategy	Explanation
Argumentation	The writer takes a strong position on an issue (often a controversial issue) and provides supporting evidence and logical reasons to defend that position.
Cause and Effect	The writer explains what caused something and/or traces the effects or consequences or results of something.
Classification	The writer sorts or groups things according to certain categories.
Comparison and Contrast	The writer compares and contrasts two or more things, noting similarities and differences.
Definition	The writer explains or defines what a word or a phrase or an idea means.
Description	The writer vividly describes something (e.g. place or tool) so that the reader can form a mental image of it.
Exemplification	The writer explains or defines or analyzes something by giving specific examples.
Narration	The writer tells a story to illustrate a point or examine an issue.

Strategy	Explanation
Process	The writer describes a process, step by step. This becomes an analysis when, in addition to describing the process, the writer also explains the significance of some of the steps of the process or analyzes the relationship of one step to another.

Secondary writing strategies

The following table is writing strategies Rosenberg (1989) calls “secondary”. They are additional strategies available to writers while they are developing their ideas. These strategies are often used within the framework of one of the major strategies listed in the preceding chart. For example, if a writer chooses a cause and effect organizational pattern for his/her essay, he/she may also introduce a personal experience or dialogue to strengthen a point or catch his/her reader’s attention. All of the secondary writing strategies are demonstrated below.

Strategy	Explanation
Anticipating criticism	The writer states the criticisms that he or she expects some readers might make and then answers these criticism.

Strategy	Explanation
Asking a question	<p>Anticipating that a reader might be confused or have a question, the writer might raise the question and then follow it with an answer.</p> <p>Or: the writer uses this strategy to focus the reader's attention on a point which the writer believes is important. Having raised this question, the writer can then supply what he or she believes is the right answer.</p>
Diagrams and pictures	<p>The writer uses illustrations in a text (photographs, diagrams, charts, and tables) to explain, summarize, or amplify the written material.</p>
Dialogue	<p>The writer directly quotes conversation to liven up an article. A writer with a sensitive ear for the way people talk adds color to the text and makes it seem more real.</p>
Figurative language	<p>The writer develops an idea by using metaphors, similes, and analogies to create a picture in the reader's mind.</p>
Historical data	<p>To develop an idea or support an article, the writer refers to events or people from the past.</p>

Strategy	Explanation
Humor	If the purpose of an entire text is to amuse and entertain, humor is appropriate. However, even in a serious text, a writer may use humor to vary the tone, make a point, or hold the reader's attention.
Hyperbole	The writer exaggerates to heighten or intensify an idea. Used effectively, hyperbole does not deceive readers; rather, it emphasizes the writer's point.
Personal experience	The writer describes an event in his or her own life to clarify or support a point or to keep the reader's attention.
Quotation	To support a point and/or liven up a text, the writer introduces a quote from some other source.
Reference to authority	To add weight to a paper, the writer refers to some other source or expert, either quoting directly, paraphrasing, or simply mentioning that other authority.
Repetition	For emphasis or to make sure the reader notices and absorbs an idea, the writer may repeat something several times.

Strategy	Explanation
Rhetorical question	A question asked for effect; the writer does not expect an answer. Usually, the answer does not have to be stated because it is obvious.
Statistics	The writer uses statistics to summarize and emphasize information that supports his or her work.

Unfortunately, there is no research in writing strategies on research article abstracts. The following section describes writing strategies found in essays through the work of Roseberry (1997).

2.4 Previous Research in Writing Strategies

Roseberry (1997) has investigated the strategies employed in each move of the introductions and endings of 40 essays. These essays were extracted from a wide range of sources including feature articles from newspapers, magazines, illustrative case studies from management textbooks, encyclopedia entries, short essays in travel books and atlases, compilation of essays in books and academic essays written by native speakers.

In the introductions and endings of the essays, the moves that Roseberry has found are different and each has specific functions. For the introductions, they consist of introduction to the topic, narrowing the focus (NF), and stating the central idea (CI). The functions of the mentioned moves are to introduce the topic, to prepare the readers for the more specific proposition contained in the central idea, and to make clear to the

audience a central idea which can be discussed in reasonable depth and to show how committed the writer is to the truth of the proposition respectively. For the endings of the selected essays, the found moves are commitment to the central idea and expansion. Their purposes are to allow the author to show commitment to the central idea after presenting arguments for and/or against in the “body” of the essay and to relate the main idea to a wider context respectively. The results of his study are presented below.

Strategies used in introduction

Moves	Strategies Used
Introduction to the Topic (IT)	Make a general statement (58%) Give an example (10%) Give a general historical perspective (8%) Make a prediction (8%) Give a general definition (6%) Ask a general question (2%) Give statistics (2%) Give a list (2%) Give a quote (2%)
Narrowing the Focus (NF)	Give specific facts, statistics, examples, historical background, justification, classification, the next item in a set, or specific background information (55%) Explain or give reasons for the IT move (13%) Introduce a problem (7%)

Moves	Strategies Used
	<p>Contrast with the past by describing the present (4%)</p> <p>Predict or speculate about the future (4%)</p> <p>Ask a question about the IT move (2%)</p> <p>Choose an item from a set (2%)</p> <p>Answer a WH-question (2%)</p> <p>Make a related statement (2%)</p> <p>Give a description (2%)</p> <p>Give more general background information (2%)</p> <p>Give a general principle or an example (2%)</p>
<p>Stating the Central Idea (CI)</p>	<p>State a fact (including general and specific statements) (70%)</p> <p>State a problem (10%)</p> <p>State or refer to a solution to a problem (7.5%)</p> <p>Provide a Preview of the essay structure (5%)</p> <p>Ask a question (55%)</p> <p>Ask a question and provide an answer (2.5%)</p> <p>Describe a problem and a solution (2.5%)</p> <p>Give a definition (2.5%)</p> <p>Offer a historical perspective (2.5%)</p>

Strategies used in the endings of essays

Moves	Strategies Used
Commitment to the Central Idea	<p>Evaluate (42%)</p> <p>State or reaffirm the Central Idea (13%)</p> <p>Other strategies are used less frequently</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - State personal opinion or reaction to the Central Idea - Make prediction - State a solution to a problem mentioned in the Central Idea - Admonish - Show the consequences - Identify a greater benefit - Present a problem related to the Central Idea - List and evaluate techniques and solutions related to the problem stated in the Central Idea - Speculate on and list problems relating to the solution mentioned in the Central Idea - Refine the Central Idea - Sum up and evaluate - Update the Central Idea

Moves	Strategies Used
Expansion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Make a subjective evaluation plus reasons or explanation - Identify greater problems - Analyze by narrating a personal response - Give consequences of the problem - Give reasoned support for the evaluation - Offer an alternative or make a suggestion - Evaluate the Central Idea move - List possible problems resulting from the Commitment to the Central Idea move - Compare present problem with the results of a similar problem in the past - Give a historical perspective which explains the situation by contrasting it with the present prediction - Make a prediction - Show future directions

2.5 Tenses

Although Day (1988) and McCarthy (1994) report that a whole abstract is characterized by the use of the past tense, many researchers (e.g. Malcolm, 1987; Heslot, 1982 and James, 1984b [cited in Swales, 1990]) argue that there are other tenses used (Simple Present and Present Perfect).

In EST writing, a number of researchers have studied the functions of these tenses (e.g. Lackstorm et al., 1973; Trimble, 1985; and Huckin and Olsen, 1991). They report that the present perfect and present tense are used to indicate that the research being reviewed is relevant to the current experiment, whereas the past tense is used in reviewing quantitative results of past literature that are non-supportive of the experiment. Moreover, the present tense is also used to express generalizations, that is, general statements which do not specify a particular time frame. Besides, EST authors write in the past tense when informing their readers of how the information was gathered, what was found, and to describe the equipment used for this recent experiment. Meyer (1992), based on the analysis of Medical English abstracts, mentions that the tenses and functions found are the same as those mentioned.

In addition, Phantama (2000) reports that there are other functions used of the tenses mentioned. That is, the present tense is used to make reference to established knowledge, and to state the implications of the study and needs for further study.

The present perfect is employed in reporting past literature which emphasizes upon a certain degree of disagreement with previous research findings. Also, it is used to report established knowledge with mention of authors' names, introduce a topic of discourse and summarize what has been presented in the report.

As for the past tense, it is used to report greater generality of findings than the past, to describe the likely significant of the results being reported, and to report reference to a specific event.

Weissburg and Buker (1990), in addition, propose another idea emphasizing that tense usage in abstract is governed by each section of the abstract itself. The verb tenses used in each move proposed by Weissburg and Buker (1990) are as follows.

Abstract: Verb Tenses

B: Background Information [Present tense]

P: Purpose [Past tense/ Present Perfect tense]

M: Methodology [Past tense]

R: Results [Past tense]

C: Conclusions [Present tense]

Many researchers (Barber, 1988; Gunawardena, 1989; and Meyer, 1992) state that the grammatical rules governing tense usage in general English and those in EST are clearly different. The uses of tenses on the ground of Murcia (1983), thus, are used in this research since the ELLT abstracts are general English.

2.6 Usage of Tenses

According to Murcia (1983), there are twelve tenses and each has many uses.

The details of each tense are shown below.

Tenses	Uses
Simple Present	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Habitual actions in the present b) General timeless truths c) Expresses future (when a scheduled event is involved, usually with future time adverbial) d) Present event/action or speech act e) Conversational historical present (used to refer to past events in narration)
Present Progressive (or Continuous)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) Event/action in progress b) Temporary activity (action will end and therefore lacks the permanence of the Simple present tense) c) Repetition or iteration in a series of similar ongoing actions d) Express future (when event is planned; usually with future time adverbial) e) Emotional comment on present habit (usually co-occurring with always or forever)

Tenses	Uses
Simple Past	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) A definite single completed event/action in the past b) Habitual or repeated action/event in the past (suggests that some change in this habit/event has taken place) c) An event with duration that applied in the past with the implication that it no longer applied in the present d) Past conditional or imaginative events in the subordinate clause.
Past Progressive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) An action in progress at a specific point of time in the past b) Past action (simultaneous with some other event) c) Repetition or iteration in some ongoing past action

Tenses	Uses
Simple Future (here just with will)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) An action to take place at some definite future time b) A future habitual action or future state c) A situation that may occur in the present and will occur in the future but with some future termination in sight
Future Progressive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) An action that will be in progress at a specific time in the near future b) Duration of some specific future action
Present Perfect	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) A situation that began in the past and that continues into the present b) A past experience with current relevance c) A very recently completed action d) An action that went on over time in the past and that is completed with the moment of speech
Present Perfect Progressive	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> a) A situation or habit that began in the past (recent or distant) and that continues up to the present b) The incompleteness of an action in progress
Past Perfect	An action completed in the past prior to some

Tenses	Uses
	other past event
Past Perfect Progressive	a) An action or habit taking place over a period of time in the past prior to some other past event. b) A past action that is in progress gets interrupted by another past action.
Future Perfect	a) A future action that will be completed prior to a specific future time b) A state or action that will be completed in the future prior to some other future time or event (near or distant)
Future Perfect Progressive	Durative or habitual action that is taking place in the present and that will continue into the future up until or through a specific future time

In conclusion, according to Bhatia (1993), Santos (1996), and Swales (1990), different moves serve different purposes and thus require different linguistic features to realize those purposes. Of all linguistic features, tenses with their usage, and writing strategies are two important factors any writer have to best select to express their information in each move. However, research on what tenses with their usage, and writing strategies found in every move of an ELLT abstract has never been conducted.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the data selection, procedure of the study, validity of the study, reliability of the study, and statistical devices.

3.1 Data Selection

Prior to collecting the data, many libraries in the universities (e.g. Chulalongkorn, Prasanmitr, and Silpakorn) were surveyed to find names of journals including volumes, years, and numbers related to the English Language Learning and Teaching field. It was found that those found in the mentioned libraries were likely the same as those found in the library of Mahidol University at Phayathai campus. After that, the names of journals related to the English language learning and teaching discipline were drawn from the library of Mahidol University at Phayathai campus. Then, they were classified into types of the English language learning and teaching field: ESL, EFL, ELT, SLA or Applied Linguistics. In order to group them into the correct types, the researcher selected only journals that have these names found in the covers or the content of each journal. Next, only the journals which have English abstracts were selected. Thus, nine journals, namely, **Applied Linguistics**, **ELT**, **Foreign Language Annuals**, **Issues in Applied Linguistics**, **Language Learning**, **RELC**, **Reading in a Foreign Language**, **TESOL Quarterly** and **System** were met the mentioned criterion.

The content of these journals focuses on curriculum design, teaching methods, and any topic that are relevant to English Language Learning and Teaching field. All research articles published in these journals are contributed by researchers both in government and private institutes. There are also research articles contributed by students who are pursuing their courses of study at universities.

However, the journals named **Applied Linguistics**, **Language Learning** and **TESOL Quarterly** were already examined by Santos (1996). Thus, they were excluded in this study. The remained unexplored journals which were examined in this study were **ELT**, **Foreign Language Annual**, **Issues in Applied Linguistics**, **Reading in a Foreign Language**, **RELC** and **System**.

All the abstracts published from 1997 to 1998 in the journals named **ELT**, **Foreign Language Annual**, **Issues in Applied Linguistics**, **RELC**, and **System** were drawn for the study of their organization and linguistic features. The abstracts of the journal named **Reading in a Foreign Language** were excluded since the publishing years of this journal found in the library were below 1997.

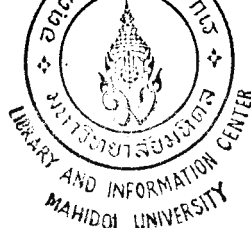
In order to ensure the validity in the content of the abstracts (i.e. the organization and linguistic features) of the journals published in 1997 to 1998, the two journals named **Foreign Language Annuals** and **RELC** were examined. It was found that the abstracts in both journals did not show much difference in terms of the organization and linguistic features. That is, they used the same types of **move**, **writing strategies** and **tenses** as those found in the abstracts from the other two journals (see **Appendix A**). Table 1 presents the total abstracts of each journal used in this study.

Table 1: Subjects of the study**(Number of abstracts from 1997-1998 and percentage from the five journals)**

Names of Journal	No. of abstracts in each year (1997-1998) and percentage				Total	%
	1997	%	1998	%		
ELT	27	18	-	-	27	18
Foreign Language Annual	28	18.66	28	18.66	56	37.33
Issues in Applied Linguistics	9	6	-	-	9	6
RELC	14	9.33	7	4.66	21	14
System	37	24.66	-	-	37	24.66
TOTAL	115	76.65	35	23.32	150	100

3.2 Procedure of the Study

First, each abstract obtained from the mentioned journals was identified to find the frequency of the move types on the ground of Bhatia (1993) and Santos (1996). According to Bhatia, an abstract consists of four moves: introducing **Purpose**, describing **Methodology**, summarizing **Result** and presenting **Conclusion**. Contrary to Bhatia, Santos found that an abstract consisted of five moves: **Background Information** (the new move when compared with Bhatia's), **Purpose**, **Method**, **Result**, and **Conclusion**. Moreover, this step included finding out whether there were



some new moves that differed from what Bhatia and Santos found in ELLT abstracts. If they were, what the new different moves were.

Second, the move ordering pattern of ELLT abstracts was explored.

Third, the writing strategies chosen by the writers to do the moves were examined according to the explanation of each writing strategy proposed by Rosenberg (1989). In addition, this step examined whether there were other writing strategies that differed from those proposed by Rosenberg. If they were, what writing strategies were.

Fourth, the type of verb tenses and ways of each tense employed based on Murcia (1983) were distinguished across each move.

Fifth, all information (the moves, move ordering pattern, writing strategies, and tenses) obtained was listed in the table form. (See **Appendix B**)

Finally, the data of the study were analyzed and discussed.

3.3 Validity of the Study

In this study, validity can be specifically explained as the extent to which an instrument is measuring what it is intended to measure. Therefore, the choice of categories and content units must be appropriate so that inferences drawn from the findings will be valid.

For a descriptive study, content validity is judged to be sufficient (Isaac, 1977; Hatch, 1982). Since content validity represents samples of the subject matter content, it should be adequate in the sample amount and should correspond to the content of the subjects. This study aims to investigate the organization and linguistic features of ELLT abstracts. Hence, it is essential to demonstrate that the content in this study is research article abstracts in the ELLT field. Moreover, the content validity can be

checked from the objectives of each journal specified for its target readers who are language teachers, students, administrators and any person involved in ELLT field.

3.4 Reliability of the Study

To ascertain the reliability of this study, the following steps were followed:

All analysed abstracts, first, were given to Miss Napaporn Thongnoi and Miss Somprattana Rattakul, two English instructors at the Department of Western Languages, Faculty of Liberal Arts, Prince of Songkhla University and Silpakorn University respectively to check the accuracy of them.

Then, to avoid mistakes from examining, the abstracts that all examiners agreed that they had to be checked again were proved by a native speaker of English, a lecturer at Mahidol University. They were abstracts 22, 33, 34, 38, 40, 44, 50, 51, 54, 65, 69, 72, 88, 105, 109, 131, 134, and 140 (See names of abstracts in **Appendix C**).

5 Statistical Devices

The statistical devices that were applied in this study were frequency and percentage.

After completing each analyzed unit in the form of quantitative tables (**Appendix B**), the collected frequency of the moves, strategies and tenses were changed to percentage by using the following formulas:

$$\text{Percentage of each move} = \frac{\text{Number of occurrences of that move}}{\text{Total number of abstracts}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Percentage of each strategy} = \frac{\text{Number of occurrences of that strategy}}{\text{Total number of abstracts}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Percentage of each tense} = \frac{\text{Number of occurrences of that tense}}{\text{Total number of abstracts}} \times 100$$

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

This chapter presented the results of the analysis of organization and linguistic features (writing strategies and tenses: types and ways writers use) of research article abstracts in the selected journals of the field of English Language Learning and Teaching (ELLT) in accordance with the research questions proposed in Chapter One.

4.1 Finding One

Research Question One: Did the move occurrence found in the selected ELLT abstracts differ from that found in the research of Bhatia and Santos?

To answer this question, all selected abstracts were analysed to find the organization (moves) following the frameworks of Bhatia (1993) and Santos (1996). The findings are shown in Table 2 with the descriptive statistics of frequency and percentage.

Table 2: Frequency and percentage of move occurrence from 150 abstracts

Moves	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
1. Background information (B)	93	62.00
2. Purpose (P)	115	76.66
3. Method (M)	86	57.33
4. Result (R)	83	55.33
5. Conclusion (C)	73	48.66
Others		
6. Giving acknowledgement	1	0.66
7. Commenting on research methodology	1	0.66

According to Table 2, seven moves were found from the analyzed 150 abstracts. Five from seven moves found [**Background Information (B)**, **Purpose (P)**, **Method(M)**, **Result (R)**, and **Conclusion(C)**] were the same as those found by Santos (1996). The other two new moves found were **Giving Acknowledgement** and **Commenting on Research Methodology** moves.

Table 2 also illustrates that the **Purpose** move obtained the highest percentage (76.66%) while the two new moves obtained the lowest percentage (0.66%).

The examples of the two new moves found in this study are shown in the following abstracts: the first abstract shows the move of **Giving Acknowledgement** (in the last sentence) and the second abstract shows the move of **Commenting on Research Methodology** (in the last sentence).

This paper examines the English used by teacher trainees, both in their classroom pedagogy and in their written journals. We compared our trainees' language with what they had to say about their own pupils' work. At the same time, we looked at the trainees' language from the viewpoint of exonormative standards expected of them, that is, in Singapore. Standard British English is used as the norm. The purpose was to see how far these forms have become established. The analysis shows that the teachers consistently and systematically used language displaying syntactic features that differ from an exonormative standard. A comparison of the trainees' language with their comments on their pupils' work shows that there is partial awareness of an exonormative standard. The analysis indicates that a subset of syntactic constructions is likely to become established in Singapore. Further, some of these features are being explicitly taught in the English language classroom. Teachers' use of these forms in the classroom could be considered as a trend toward their establishment. It may be argued that with more extensive use, there is potential for the spread of these forms.

A preliminary version of this paper was presented at the Second International Conference on World English held in Nagoya, Japan, May 25-29, 1995. We would like to thank Robert Hvitfeldt for his valuable comments.

(from abstract no. 50 [see Appendix C])

In this journal, Tinkham (1993) in two experiments found that learning words grouped in semantic sets interferes with the learning of the words. Tinkham found that if learners are given words which share a common superordinate concept (such as words for clothes) in list form, they are learned slower than words which do not have a common superordinate concept. This finding suggests that we should not give wordlists to our learners which have words that come from the same semantic set, but should be asking them to learn words semantically unrelated to each other. The present study, a close replication of Tinkham's, used Japanese words paired with artificial words and found a main effect against learning semantically related words at the same time, replicating Tinkham's findings. It can be tentatively concluded from these two papers that presenting students with wordlists of new words in semantic clusters, rather than in unrelated word groups, can interfere with learning. **Following a discussion of the research design and some of its limitations, there is some comment on current research methodology.**

(from abstract no. 131 [see Appendix C])

4.2 Finding Two

Research Question Two: With respect to move ordering pattern (move structure), did move variation occur in the selected ELLT abstracts?

To answer this question, the move ordering of each abstract was examined. It was found that 23 abstracts (15.33%) out of 150 were not written according to the regular ordering pattern of moves (**B→P→M→R→C**) as stated in the research of Bhatia (1993) and Santos (1996). Table 3 illustrates the occurrence of irregular ordering pattern structures of moves (move variation) found in each abstract number (see names of abstracts in Appendix C).

Table 3: Occurrence of move variation

Abstract Number	Move Structure
6	P→C→M
29	P→R→M
33	P1→B→P2→M→R
34	P1→B→P2→R
36	P→B→R
38	B→P→M1→R1→M2→C→M3→R2
40	P→M1→C→R1→M2→R2
44	P1→M→R→P2
50	P→M1→M2→P(of M2)→R→C→B→Giving acknowledgement
51	P→B→M→R
54	P→M1→R→M2
64	M→C→R
65	P→M→R1→C→R2

Table 3: Occurrence of move variation (continued)

Abstract Number	Move Structure
69	P→M1→C1→M2→R→C2
72	P→M→B→C
79	B→R→M
82	B→M→P
88	P→B→M
105	B→M1→P→M2→R
109	B→R1→M→R2
125	P1→M→C→P2
134	P→M→R→B
140	P→B

Abbreviation

B: Background Information

R: Result

P: Purpose

C: Conclusion

M: Method

1,2,3: Number of Occurrence

4.3 Finding Three

Research Question Three: What writing strategies were employed in each move of the selected ELLT abstracts?

To answer this question, all writing strategies were counted in each move under the framework of Rosenberg (1989) [see type and explanation of each writing strategy in Chapter Two]. Number of occurrence of each writing strategy found in each move is shown in Tables 4-10.

Table 4: Frequency and percentage of writing strategies found in **Background Information move**

Writing Strategies	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Description	88	58.66
Comparison-Contrast	8	5.33
Reference to Authority	7	4.66
Asking Questions	3	2.00
Cause-Effect	6	4.00
Argumentation	1	0.66
Exemplification	3	2.00
Definition	1	0.66
Quotation	1	0.66
Other: Using bold letters (some words)	1	0.66
Total	119	79.29

The bold-lettered words emphasize important words.

Table 4 shows that the Description strategy was employed most (58.66%). The next most commonly writing strategies found, ranging from high to low percent, were Comparison-Contrast (5.33%), Reference to Authority (4.66%), Cause-Effect (4%), Asking Questions and Exemplification (2%). The last were Argumentation, Definition, Quotation, Using bold letters (some words)(0.66%). An example of the abstract which uses bold letters in the **Background Information** move is shown in sentence 3 (next page).

(1) The study reported here focuses on the need to provide ESL and EFL learners with preparatory training in order to ensure more effective communicative interaction during group work carried out in the language classroom. (2) The underlying assumption is that appropriate classroom organization and detailed task definition, although imperative, are not always sufficient for achieving successful non-native language interaction. (3) One way to improve the quality of communicative interaction in the classroom is to increase students' use of **Modified-Interaction** and **Social-Interaction Strategies**. (4) The object of this paper is to show how training in such strategies improves interaction in small groups. (5) Thirty-four students in two eleventh-grade classes in a comprehensive high school in Israel participated in this study. (6) The classes were randomly designated as an experimental group and a control group. (7) Both groups were involved in similar cooperative group-work activities as part of their English instruction, but the experimental group underwent special training in the **Skilled Use of Modified-Interaction** and **Social-Interaction Strategies**. (8) Each group was video-taped before the six-week experimental and again at the end of this period. (9) The findings, based on descriptive statistics, indicate that as a result of the training in the skilled use of interaction strategies the experimental group used significantly more Modified-Interaction and Social-Interaction Strategies than the control group. (10) The increased use of interaction strategies improved students' communicative interaction in small groups.

(from abstract no. 127 [see Appendix C])

Table 5: Frequency and percentage of writing strategies found in **Purpose** move

Writing Strategies	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Description	110	73.33
Reference to Authority	4	2.66
Asking Questions	5	3.33
Exemplification	2	1.33
Comparison-Contrast	2	1.33
Argumentation	3	2.00
Definition	3	2.00
Total	129	85.98

It was found that writing strategies employed in the **Purpose** move were respectively as follows: Description (73.33%), Asking Questions (3.33%), Reference to Authority (2.66%), Argumentation and Definition (2%), Exemplification and Comparison-Contrast (1.33%). Table 5 shows the mentioned results.

Table 6: Frequency and percentage of writing strategies found in **Method** move

Writing Strategies	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Description	78	52.00
Classification	2	1.33
Personal Experience	2	1.33
Definition	1	0.66
Argumentation	2	1.33
Reference to Authority	6	4.00
Statistic	2	1.33
Exemplification	2	1.33
Comparison-Contrast	16	10.66
Asking Questions	1	0.66
Other: Using bold letters (some words)	1	0.66
Total	113	75.29

The bold-lettered words emphasize important words.

Regarding the **Method** move, it was found that Description (52%) was the highest followed by the percentage of Comparison-Contrast (10.66%). And the least percentage (0.66%) was found in Definition, Asking Questions, and Using bold letters

[see using bold letters found in this move in the abstract below (in sentence 7)]. The results are shown in Table 6.

(1) The study reported here focuses on the need to provide ESL and EFL learners with preparatory training in order to ensure more effective communicative interaction during group work carried out in the language classroom. (2) The underlying assumption is that appropriate classroom organization and detailed task definition, although imperative, are not always sufficient for achieving successful non-native language interaction. (3) One way to improve the quality of communicative interaction in the classroom is to increase students' use of **Modified-Interaction** and **Social-Interaction Strategies**. (4) The object of this paper is to show how training in such strategies improves interaction in small groups. (5) Thirty-four students in two eleventh-grade classes in a comprehensive high school in Israel participated in this study. (6) The classes were randomly designated as an experimental group and a control group. (7) Both groups were involved in similar cooperative group-work activities as part of their English instruction, but the experimental group underwent special training in the **Skilled Use of Modified-Interaction** and **Social-Interaction Strategies**. (8) Each group was video-taped before the six-week experimental and again at the end of this period. (9) The findings, based on descriptive statistics, indicate that as a result of the training in the skilled use of interaction strategies the experimental group used significantly more **Modified-Interaction** and **Social-Interaction Strategies** than the control group. (10) The increased use of interaction strategies improved students' communicative interaction in small groups.

(from abstract no. 127 [see Appendix C])

Table 7: Frequency and percentage of writing strategies found in **Result** move

Writing Strategies	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Description	74	49.33
Argumentation	4	2.66
Reference to Authority	2	1.33
Definition	4	2.66
Comparison-Contrast	23	15.33
Cause-Effect	2	1.33
Exemplification	6	4.00
Statistic	8	5.33
Quotation	1	0.66
Total	124	82.63

Table 7 reveals that the top writing strategy used in the **Result** move was Description (49.33%). The other writing strategies employed, ranging from high to low percentage, were Comparison and Contrast (15.33%), Statistic (5.33%), Exemplification (4%), Argumentation and Definition (2.66%), Reference to Authority and Cause-Effect (1.33%), and Quotation (0.66%).

Table 8: Frequency and percentage of writing strategies found in **Conclusion** move

Writing Strategies	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Description	68	45.33
Argumentation	11	7.33
Comparison-Contrast	12	8.00
Exemplification	2	1.33
Reference to Authority	1	0.66
Personal Experience	1	0.66
Other: Capitalization of letters	1	0.66
Total	96	63.97

Words are capitalized to emphasize what the writer wants to recommend (in the **Conclusion/Recommendation** move).

In this move, **Recommendation** is included according to Santos's research (that this study based on).

For the **Conclusion** move, it was found that Description occurred most (45.33%). The next were Comparison-Contrast (8%), Argumentation (7.33%), and Exemplification (1.33%) while Reference to Authority, Personal Experience and Capitalizing every letter in a statement occurred least (0.66%). The abstract which employs the Capitalization strategy is shown in sentence 3 (see an example in the next page).

(1) This paper describes a substantial research project which looked at the effectiveness of different methods of improving the pronunciation of EFL learners, and evaluated the significance of instruction as one of the factors affecting the acquisition of L2 pronunciation. (2) Following quantitative and qualitative analysis, the research resulted in the following observations: (1) learners' L2 pronunciation did appear to improve; (2) the greatest improvement appeared to be in segmental features; (3) suprasegmental aspects had a greater effect on listeners; (4) improvement varied depending on individual learners, time of year within the course, and type of task; (5) successful acquisition of L2 pronunciation appeared to be affected by training, aptitude for oral mimicry and talkativeness. (3) In short, the proven positive effects of training and talkativeness should encourage educationalists to... KEEP THE STUDENTS TALKING!

(from abstract no. 148 [see Appendix C])

Table 9: Frequency and percentage of writing strategy found in **Acknowledgement** move

Writing Strategy	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Description	1	0.66
Total	1	0.66

As shown in Table 9, it was found that Description was the only writing strategy used with a very small percentage (0.66%) in **Acknowledgement** move.

Table 10: Frequency and percentage of writing strategy found in **Commenting on Research Methodology** move

Writing Strategy	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Description	1	0.66
Total	1	0.66

Table 10 reveals that there was only one writing strategy (Description) used in **Commenting on Reserch Methodology** move. Like the previous move, it occurred in a very small percentage (0.66%).

In conclusion, writing strategies both major and secondary were employed in most moves (see the explanation of each type of major and secondary writing strategies in Chapter II).

4.4 Finding Four

Research Question Four: What were the tenses found to govern each move in the selected abstracts and how each tense was used in each move?

To answer this question, the occurrence of each tense and the way it was employed was explored in each move of the abstract. Since the use of tenses was explained in Chapter Two, the followings identify only tenses and ways each tense used (see Tables 11-17). The sequence is the same as Chapter II.

Table 11: Frequency and percentage of tenses and ways that writers use found in**Background Information move**

Tenses	Ways that writers use	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Simple Present	b. General timeless truths	23	15.33
	d. Present event/action or speech act	57	38.00
Present Progressive (or Continuous)	a. Event/action in progress	9	6.00
Simple Past	a. A definite single completed event/ action in the past.	11	7.33
Simple Future (here just with <u>will</u>)	a. An action to take place at some definite future time	1	0.66
	b. A future habitual action or future state	1	0.66
Present Perfect	a. A situation that began in the past and that continues into the present	28	18.66
Total		136	86.64

Regarding the **Background Information** move, Table 11 indicates that Simple Present in d (Present event/action or speech act) was employed most (38%). The next tenses and their uses most commonly found, ranging from high to low percentage, were Present Perfect in a (18.66%), Simple Present in b (15.33%), Simple Past in a

(7.33%), Present Progressive in a (6%). The least used (0.66%) was found is Simple Future in a and in b (0.66%).

Table 12: Frequency and percentage of tenses and ways that writers use found in **Purpose move**

Tenses	Ways that writers use	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Simple Present	d. Present event/action or speech act	101	67.33
Simple Past	a. A definite single completed event/action in the past	15	10.00
Simple Future (here just with <u>will</u>)	a. An action to take place at some definite future time	6	4.00
Present Perfect	a. A situation that began in the past and that continues into the present.	1	0.66
Total		123	82.39

On the **Purpose move**, as shown in Table 12, Simple Present in d was used most (67.33%). The others were used as follows: Simple Past in a (10%), Simple Future in a (4%), and Present Perfect in a (0.66%).

Table 13: Frequency and percentage of tenses and ways that writers use found in**Method move**

Tenses	Ways that writers use	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Simple Present	b. General timeless truths	3	2.00
	d. Present event/action or speech act	45	30.00
Simple Past	a. A definite single completed event/action in the past.	44	29.33
Total		92	61.33

Table 13 indicates that Simple Present in d was used most (30%) followed by Simple Past in a (29.33%) and Simple Present in b (2%) in the **Method** move.

Table 14: Frequency and percentage of tenses and ways that writers use found in**Result move**

Tenses	Ways that writers use	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Simple Present	b. General timeless truths	1	0.66
	d. Present event/action or speech act	63	42.00
Present Progressive (or Continuous)	a. Event/action in progress	1	0.66
Simple Past	a. A definite single completed event/action in the past.	34	22.66
	d. Past conditional or imaginative events in the subordinate clause.	1	0.66
Simple Future (here just with <u>will</u>)	a. An action to take place at some definite future time	2	1.33
Present Perfect	a. A situation that began in the past and that continues into the present.	2	1.33
Total		104	69.30

In the **Result** move, as shown in Table 14, Simple Present in **d** was found most (42%), followed by Simple Past in **a** (22.66%), Simple Future in **a** and Present Perfect in **a** (1.33%), and Simple Present in **b**, Present Progressive in **a** and Simple Past in **d** (0.66%).

Table 15: Frequency and percentage of tenses and ways that writers use found in**Conclusion move**

Tenses	Ways that writers use	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Simple Present	b. General timeless truths	2	1.33
	d. Present event/action or speech act	67	44.66
Simple Past	a. A definite single completed event/action in the past.	9	6.00
Simple Future (here just with <u>will</u>)	a. An action to take place at some definite future time	2	1.33
Present Perfect	a. A situation that began in the past and that continues into the present.	2	1.33
Total		82	54.65

It was found that, as shown in Table 15, Simple Present in **d** occurred most (44.66%). The next was Simple Past in **a** (6%) while Simple Present in **b**, Simple Future in **a**, and Present Perfect in **a** occurred least (1.33%).

Table 16: Frequency and percentage of tense and way that writers use found in**Acknowledgement move**

Tense	Way that writers use	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Simple Past	A definite single completed event/action in the past.	1	0.66
Total		1	0.66

In the **Acknowledgement** move, as shown in Table 16, Simple Past in a was found to be the only tense used (0.66%).

Table 17: Frequency and percentage of tense and way writers use found in**Commenting on Research Methodology move**

Tense	Way writers use	No. of Occurrence (f)	%
Simple Present	d. Present event/action or speech act	1	0.66
Total		1	0.66

Table 17 reveals that there was one tense used in this move. It was Simple Present in d (0.66%).

In sum, according to Tables 11-17, Simple Present in d (Present event/action or speech act) and Simple Past in a (A definite single completed event/action in the past)

were most often employed in every move. However, there were other tenses and their ways utilized in each move such as Present Progressive (or Continuous) in a (Event/action in progress) in the **Background Information** move or Simple Future (here just with will) in a (An action to take place at some definite future time) in the **Purpose** move.



CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

In the previous chapter, the findings of the organization and linguistic features (writing strategies and tenses) found were described. This chapter presents a discussion of the findings and implications of the study.

5.1 Discussion of Finding One The results of the present study revealed that most selected research article journal abstracts followed the moves as described by Santos (1996). Each abstract contains five moves: **Background Information, Purpose, Method, Result, and Conclusion.**

In scientific fields, some researchers (Maher, 1990; Swales, 1990) also agree that the moves in abstracts are like what Bhatia (1993) states. In my opinion, the **Background Information** move is omitted since the writers perhaps think that it is not quite crucial to write in the abstract. That is, their readers may read this part in the introduction of an article if that abstract contains interesting information.

Furthermore, **Giving Acknowledgement and Commenting on Research Methodology** moves are also found in some of the analysed abstracts in this study. Swales (1994) has found these two moves in the articles that he examined.

The reasons of having two new moves (**Giving Acknowledgement and Commenting on Research Methodology** moves) in the abstracts can be explained as followed. First, the **Giving Acknowledgement** move has become a part of some

abstracts because the writers want to show readers that he/she is a member of a community and can get benefit from that membership (Swales, 1994). In my opinion, this part is included because the writers want to thank the persons who help in their research. Second, most writers include the commentary move (**Commenting on Research Methodology**) because they fear that their readers might have questions concerning about the studies. This is agreeable to what Swales (1990) says that authors include commentary because they are aware of their audiences. They can anticipate that their readers may be thinking, “why did they use this method rather than that one?” or “Isn’t this result rather strange?”

Also interestingly, the **Giving Acknowledgement** and **Commenting on Research Methodology** moves are two additional moves found when compared with the moves found by Santos (1996). In the researcher’s view, the different findings occur because more types and more numbers of research article journal abstracts are analysed than the previous research investigated by Santos (1996).

Based on the findings of this study and those of Santos (1996), the researcher finds that **Purpose** move is most employed [76.66% in this study and 98.93% in Santos (1996)]. This move is used more often than other moves because if this move is not included in an abstract, readers may not know the author’s intention, goals, or objectives of research.

In this study, most moves found (**Background Information, Purpose, Method, and Result**) do not merge with other moves within the same sentence. This may be the reason why the frequency of occurrence of each move is lower than it should be.

5.2 Discussion of Finding Two Finding Two revealed that some selected abstracts do not follow the move order (B→P→M→R→C) as found by Bhatia (1993) and Santos (1996).

Unlike the combination of moves recommended by Weissburg and Buker (1990), the abstracts in this finding lacked some moves (e.g. the abstract number 6th lacked the **Background Information** move and the **Result** move). The possible reason to answer this phenomenon may be because the abstracts that Weissburg and Buker (1990) analysed were compiled from a wide variety of fields and most of them followed the same pattern as Weissburg and Buker (1990).

Concerning with the irregular move ordering pattern, this phenomenon exists in Santos's work. That is, the **Method** move appears before the **Purpose** move (M→P). But there is only small proportion since the total number of abstracts analysed is lesser when compared with the number of abstracts in this research. Therefore, it can be said that the more type and more number of research article journal abstracts are studied, the greater variation tends to occur.

Furthermore, the occurrence of irregular move ordering pattern can be explained with other two reasons. The first one may come from the writer's style as suggested in Cremmins (1982), some writers may place findings early in the topic sentence. Gopnik (1972) has also recommended to place general statements last (both cited in Swales, 1990). The second possible reason may be that some abstracts have several purposes or results. Thus, a specific conclusion is applied to suit each purpose or result or conclusions are left last until all the purposes or results are mentioned first.

5.3 Discussion of Finding Three According to the Finding Three, the top most writing strategy among 26 writing strategies that the abstract writers employed actively in every move was 'Description'.

Normally, when writing details in each move, abstract writers try as much as possible to make readers understand what they are writing about. To serve the mentioned purpose, 'Description' is therefore used since it is the writing strategy that describes something (as stated in Chapter I, '**something**' also refers to information in each move) so that the readers can understand it clearly. These are reasons why 'Description' is most employed.

Apart from 'Description', the researcher also finds other employed writing strategies in each move (e.g. 'Comparison and Contrast' and 'Quotation'). These results are parallel with Rosenberg (1989), which claims that there are certain strategies writers can use again and again to clarify their ideas; while one strategy is often dominant in one article, other writing strategies can also be used.

5.4 Discussion of Finding Four Findings Four showed that tenses which were actively used were Simple Present and Simple Past.

According to Meyer (1992), the **Purpose** and **Result** moves tend to be characterized by Past Tense. However, in this study, the findings revealed that the **Purpose** and **Result** moves employed Simple Present. The reasons are as followed.

For the **Purpose** move, Simple Present is used instead of Simple Past because writers want to refer to *the type of text* (the article that each abstract is drawn). On the other hand, if writers choose to refer to *type of investigation—experiment, investigation, study, survey, etc.*, they will use Simple Past (Swales, 1990; Weissburg

and Buker, 1990). The following are examples of the **Purpose** move extracted from abstracts using Simple Present and Simple Past respectively according to the mentioned statement.

This article *examines* an in-service training session developed for use in the state sector in Thailand which aims to help teachers to cope to term with some of the problems found in large classes.

(from abstract no. 8 [see Appendix C])

The purpose of this study *was* to investigate the effect of the teacher's reading aloud on the reading comprehension of EFL students reading a story.

(from abstract no. 26 [see Appendix C])

Regarding the **Result** move, the present tense is used instead of the past tense when there is a comparison between results from one study to the other studies. This is also supported by Swales (1990) saying that writers employ the present tense when the comparison between results occurs.

Concerning the ways that writers employ found in the tenses (Simple Present and Simple Past), present event/action or speech act (of Simple Present) and a definite single completed event/action in the past (of Simple Past) were employed most. Using the stated way of Simple Present, in the researcher's view, can be said that writers want to show that their research is still current (e.g. in the **Background Information** move). On the contrary, writers use the mentioned way of Simple Past because they have completed their research (e.g. in the **Method** move).

Compared to written abstracts in science and medical fields, there are three tenses employed (Simple Present, Simple Past and Present Perfect) (Meyer, 1992; Phantama, 2000).

The use of Simple Past found in the present study is in agreement with Meyer (1992) and Phantama (2000). This tense is used to retell the what, why, how as well as the results of the new investigation. It occurs in the **Purpose** (when reference is made to the activities carried out), **Method** and **Result** moves.

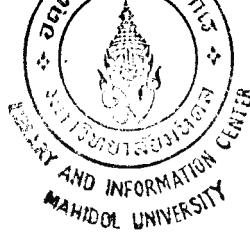
Furthermore, the use of Simple Past does not merely refer to what Murcia (1983) says. That is, a definite single completed event/action in the past, habitual or repeated action/event in the past (suggests that some change in this habit/event has taken place), an event with duration that applied in the past with the implication that is no longer applied in the present, and past conditional or imaginative events in the subordinate clause. The use of Simple Past as in the results of Phantama (2000) and Wingard (1981) is also employed in the events/actions followed. First, it is used to make statements about the likely significance of the findings obtained from the research (in the **Result** move). Second, it is employed to refer to specific events, actions, or process that occurred during an experiment or study (in the **Method** move).

As for Simple Present, the use of it does not only refer to what Murcia (1983) says, which are, habitual actions in the present, general timeless truths, express future (when a scheduled event is involved, usually with future time adverbial), present event/action or speech act, and conversational historical present (used to refer to past events in narration). It is also employed to emphasize the relevance of the study being described and to express the most important findings of the research to be generalization and universality in the **Conclusion** move (Meyer, 1992; Phantama, 2000).

According to Murcia (1983), Present Perfect is associated with time orientation and with time indicators. However, in medical English abstracts, time indicators do not make reference to exact publication dates (as Gunawardena (1989) found in scholar papers), but rather vaguely point to some earlier time (e.g., lately, previously, so later). Moreover, the results from Phantama (2000) show more functions of Present Perfect than those reported by Meyer (1992). That is, Present Perfect can be used to report past literature, to describe established knowledge with the mention of the author's name, to introduce a topic of discourse, and to summarize what has been presented in the report.

5.5 Implications from the Study

The results of this study give some insights into how to teach and how to write an ELLT abstract. Move analysis from this study can be used as a baseline for English teachers to teach abstract writing and for academicians to write ELLT abstracts for their research articles in the ELLT field.



CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION

This chapter presents a summary of the study and recommendations for further studies.

6.1 Summary of the Study

This study was conducted on the consideration that the research on the organization and linguistic features found in research article journal abstracts of English Language Learning and Teaching (ELLT) field or those related to this field is rare.

The purpose of the study was to investigate the organization and linguistic features (writing strategies and tenses) found in research article journal abstracts in the field of English Language Learning and Teaching (ELLT).

The study aimed at answering the following research questions:

1. Did the move occurrence found in the selected ELLT abstracts differ from that found in the research of Bhatia and Santos?
2. With respect to move ordering pattern (move structure), did move variation occur in the selected ELLT abstracts?
3. What writing strategies were employed in each move of the selected ELLT abstracts?
4. What were the tenses found to govern each move in the selected abstracts and how each tense was used in each move?

The data in this study were abstracts (150 abstracts) published in **ELT, Foreign Language Annuals, Issues in Applied Linguistics, RELC, and System** during 1997-1998. They all were collected from the library of Mahidol University at Phayathai campus.

The findings of the study can be summarized as follows:

1. There were 7 moves found in the analyzed abstracts: **Background Information, Purpose, Method, Result, Conclusion, Giving Acknowledgement, and Commenting on Research Methodology**. They all differed in degree of occurrence. The **Purpose** move occurred most (115= 76.66%). **Giving Acknowledgement** and **Commenting on Research Methodology** occurred least (1= 0.66%).
2. There were 23 abstracts (15.33% out of 150 abstracts) which did not follow the move ordering pattern (B→P→M→R→C).
3. Besides Rosenberg's writing strategies, two new writing strategies were found. They were 'Using bold letters (some words)' and 'Capitalization of letters'. The first one was used in the **Background Information** move (0.66%) and the **Method** move (1.33%) whereas the latter was employed in the **Conclusion** move (0.66%).
4. There were two tenses (Simple Present in **d** (present event/action or speech act) and Simple Past in **a** (a definite single completed event/action in the past) which were mostly employed in the abstracts. Apart from these, other types and ways that writers use tenses were found in each move (e.g. Present Progressive/Continuous in **a** (event/action in progress) (6%), Simple Future in **a** (an action to take place at some definite future time) and in **b** (a future habitual action or future

state) (0.66%), and Present Perfect in a (a situation that began in the past and that continues into the present) (18.66%) in the **Background Information** move.

To conclude, based on the results of the study, it is evident that an ELLT abstract contains several moves like an abstract of other fields. Different moves serve different purposes and thus require different linguistic features (i.e. tenses and writing strategies) to realize those purposes. Moreover, certain move ordering patterns found to be irregular are also evident that move sequencing/ ordering is one of the interesting feature found in genre analysis of the ELLT abstracts.

6.2 Recommendations for Further Studies

1. In this study, only linguistic features of tenses and writing strategies were analyzed; therefore, investigation of other linguistic features (e.g. cohesion, phrases or sentence types) occurring in ELLT abstracts could be conducted.
2. The organization of abstracts from other fields of research article journals could be studied.

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Appendix A

The organization and linguistic features (writing strategies and tenses) of abstracts found in the journals named RELC and FLA in 1997 and 1998

This appendix illustrates the organization and linguistic features (writing strategies and tenses) of abstracts found in the journals named **RELC** and **Foreign Language Annuals (FLA)** in 1997 and 1998. Tables **A**, **B** and **C** below show the organization and linguistic features found in the abstracts of **RELC** [the total amount of abstracts was 14 in 1997 and 7 in 1998]. And tables **D**, **E** and **F** present the organization and linguistic features found in the abstracts of **Foreign Language Annuals (FLA)** [the total amount of abstracts was 28 in both years].

Table A: Organization

Moves	Percentage of use in 1997	Percentage of use in 1998
Background information	50.00	42.85
Purpose	92.85	100.00
Method	64.28	71.42
Result	78.57	71.42
Conclusion	71.42	42.85
Other		
- Giving acknowledgement	7.14	0

Table B: Writing strategies (presented only writing strategies found)

Writing Strategies	Percentage of use in 1997	Percentage of use in 1998
Argumentation	14.28	0
Cause and effect	7.14	0
Comparison – contrast	42.85	28.57
Definition	7.14	0
Description	100.00	100.00
Exemplification	21.42	14.28
Asking a question	7.14	0
Quotation	0	14.28
Reference to authority	14.28	28.57
Statistic	7.14	28.57

Table C: Tenses and their usage (presented only tenses found)

Tenses	Usage	Percentage of use in 1997	Percentage of use in 1998
Simple present	b) General timeless truths	7.14	0
	d) Present event/action or speech act	100.00	100.00
Present progressive (or Continuous)	b) Temporary activity (action will end and therefore lacks the permanence of the Simple present tense)	14.28	0
Simple past	a) A definite single completed event/action in the past	64.28	42.85
Present perfect	a) A situation that began in the past and that continues into the present	21.42	14.28

The sequence in Usage is the same as Chapter II

Table D: Organization

Moves	Percentage of use in 1997	Percentage of use in 1998
Background information	64.28	67.85
Purpose	78.57	64.28
Method	71.42	57.14
Result	64.28	39.28
Conclusion	64.28	35.71

Table E: Writing strategies (presented only writing strategies found)

Writing Strategies	Percentage of use in 1997	Percentage of use in 1998
Argumentation	7.14	10.71
Cause and effect	3.57	3.57
Comparison-contrast	46.42	21.42
Definition	7.14	0
Description	100.00	100.00
Exemplification	10.71	10.71
Asking a question	3.57	3.57
Reference to authority	3.57	21.42
Statistic	3.57	3.57

Table F: Tenses and their usage (presented only tenses found)

Tenses	Usage	Percentage of use in 1997	Percentage of use in 1998
Simple present	b) General timeless truths	10.71	21.42
	d) Present event/action or speech act	100.00	100.00
Present progressive (or Continuous)	a) Event/action in progress	3.57	7.14
Simple past	a) A definite single completed event/action in the past	50.00	35.71
	d) Past conditional or imaginative events in the subordinate clause	3.57	0
Simple future (here just with will)	a) An action to take place at some definite future time	7.14	7.14
Present perfect	a) A situation that began in the past and that continues into the present	21.42	25.00

The sequence in Usage is the same as Chapter II

Appendix B

Form of table used in this study

Moves	Occurrence of moves		Strategies	Tense	
	Yes	No		Type	Way writer use
Background Information					
Purpose					
Method					
Result					
Conclusion					
Others					

Move ordering	<input type="checkbox"/> followed	<input type="checkbox"/> not followed
----------------------	--	--

Appendix C

Abstracts analysed

1. Rosemary, S. (1997). Transforming language classes into bounded groups. ELT Journal, 51 (1),3
2. Michael, H. (1997). Self-assessment of language learning in formal settings. ELT Journal, 51(1),12
3. Ardith, J. (1997). Teaching the universals of politeness. ELT Journal, 51(1),21
4. Fred, C. (1997). Seeking consensus in coursebook evaluation. ELT Journal, 51(1),29
5. Rod, E. (1997). The empirical evaluation of language teaching materials. ELT Journal, 51(1),36
6. James, K. (1997). Role of pathways in self-access centres. ELT Journal, 51(1),48
7. Geoff, T. (1997). Training teachers to ask questions. ELT Journal, 51(2), 99
8. David, H. (1997). Helping teachers to cope with large classes. ELT Journal, 51(2). 106
9. Charles, C. (1997). Raising the pedagogic status of discourse intonation teaching. ELT Journal, 51(2), 117
10. Chrissie, B. (1997). Learning to write by writing to learn: a group-work approach. ELT Journal, 51(2),126
11. Green, E. (1997). Developing discussion skills in the ESL classroom. ELT Journal, 51 (2), 135
12. Matthew, P. (1997). The effect of authentic materials on the motivation of EFL learners. ELT Journal, 51(2), 144

13. Walter, P. (1997). The role of context in the presentation of grammar. ELT Journal, 51 (3), 201
14. Tom, H. (1997). Exploring data-driven language awareness. ELT Journal, 51(3), 217
15. Guy, C. (1997). Language play, language learning. ELT Journal, 51(3), 224
16. Stephen, B. (1997). Roles for a teacher educator in context-sensitive teacher education. ELT Journal, 51(3), 232
17. Edit, H. (1997). Reflections on the purpose of methodology training. ELT Journal, 51 (3), 242
18. Corony, E. (1997). Selecting candidates for teacher training courses. ELT Journal, 51 (3), 251
19. Tony, L. (1997). Nudge, nudge: teacher interventions in task-based learner talk. ELT Journal, 51(4), 317
20. Scott, T. (1997). Reformulation and reconstruction: tasks that promote 'noticing'. ELT Journal, 51(4), 326
21. Paul, S. (1997). Combining form and meaning. ELT Journal, 51(4), 336
22. Lynne, C. (1997). The task as a unit for teacher development. ELT Journal, 51(4), 351
23. Deignan, A. (1997). Teaching English metaphors using cross-linguistic awareness-raising activities. ELT Journal, 51(4), 352
24. Christine, G. (1997). Metacognitive awareness and second language listeners. ELT Journal, 51(4), 361
25. Craig, W. (1997). IELTS: global implications of curriculum and materials design. ELT Journal, 51(4), 370

26. Aly, A. (1997). The effect of the teacher's reading aloud on the reading comprehension of EFL students. ELT Journal, 51(1), 43
27. Susan, H. (1997). Grammar and vocabulary: showing the connections. ELT Journal, 51(3), 208
28. Andrew, R. (1997). Some standard uses of "What about"-prefaced interrogatives in the broadcast news interview. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 8(1), 3
29. Patricia, B. (1997). Creating social identities through doctrina narratives. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 8(1), 27
30. Adrienne, L. (1997). Heteroglossia and the construction of Asian American identities. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 8(1), 47
31. Mardi, K. (1997). Demonstrating reciprocity: knowledge displays as a resource for the unaddressed participant. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 8(2), 85
32. Ruey, J. (1997). Transforming participation frameworks in multi-party Mandarin conversation: the use of discourse particles and body behavior. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 8(2), 97
33. Carmen, T. (1997). Instruction receipt in face-to-face interaction. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 8(2), 101
34. Fazila, B. (1997). Mueve language Almohada! Levante language Cara! (Move the pillow. Lift your head) An analysis of correction talk in Mexican and Central American parent child interaction. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 8(2), 111
35. Joanne, L. (1997). Connecting language and literacy learning: first graders learning to write in a whole language classroom. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 8(2), 147

36. John, T. (1997). "Tell me legally, tell me legally": linguistic hegemony in real time. Issues in Applied Linguistics, 8(2), 163
37. Rani, R. (1997). Sensitizing learners towards a more productive classroom participation: an 'exploratory' approach. RELC Journal, 28(1), 1
38. Matthew, P. (1997). A useful and popular lesson? Comparing students working in pairs and threes in the ESL classroom. RELC Journal, 28(1), 12
39. Gregory, H. (1997). Returning full circle: a survey of EFL syllabus designs for the new millennium. RELC Journal, 28(1), 50
40. Christopher, F. (1997). Competing criteria in the comprehensibility of interlanguage texts: order of information versus discourse miscues. RELC Journal, 28(1), 70
41. Yu-Ying, C. (1997). Requests on E-mail: a cross-cultural comparison. RELC Journal, 28(1), 121
42. Richard, W. (1997). Textual patterns in teachers' eliciting. RELC Journal, 28(2), 1
43. Mohd, S. (1997). Elaboration as a text-processing strategy: a meta-analytic review. RELC Journal, 28(2), 15
44. Robert, H. (1997). The TOEFL and its imitators: analysing the TOEFL and evaluating TOEFL-prep texts. RELC Journal, 28(2), 23
45. Steve, T. (1997). Accent and second language listening comprehension. RELC Journal, 28(2), 54
46. Lynne, F. (1997). Interpersonal strategies: investigating interlanguage corpora. RELC Journal, 28(2), 72

47. Batia, L. (1997). Memorizing new words: does teaching have anything to do with it? RELC Journal, 28(2), 89
48. Anthony, B. (1997). Mixed capacities in EFL/ESL: clarifying the issues. RELC Journal, 28(2), 109
49. Martha, C. (1997). The teaching of English-as-a-second-language writing in the Asia-Pacific region: a cross-country comparison. RELC Journal, 28(1), 120
50. Vinithamani, S. (1997). Teacher input in Singapore English classrooms. RELC Journal, 28(1), 129
51. Chandra, R. (1998). The relationship between vernacular language study and academic English proficiency in Fiji. RELC Journal, 29(2), 138
52. Mick, R. (1998). Orthographic knowledge, phonological awareness and the teaching of English: an analysis of word dictation errors in English of Malaysian secondary school pupils. RELC Journal, 29(2), 1
53. Ho Mian, L. (1998). This is chickenfits: the effect of pronunciation on writing. RELC Journal, 29(2), 22
54. Thomas, H. (1998). Problems of thematisation in student writing. RELC Journal, 29(2), 35
55. David, N. (1998). Strategy training in the language classroom: an empirical investigation. RELC Journal, 29(2), 56
56. Bambang, S. (1998). A learning strategy profile of Indonesian elementary school students. RELC Journal, 29(2), 82

57. Dennis, T. (1998). Testing an L2 reading strategy programme. RELJ Journal, 29(2), 128
58. Carmen, L. (1997). Students take flight with Daedalus: learning Spanish in a networked classroom. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(1), 5
59. Giannina, D. (1997). Foreign languages and cross-cultural knowledge: a survey of their importance as perceived by human resources departments of Ohio's international businesses. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(1), 13
60. Elizabeth, M. (1997). Reading with a purpose: communicative reading tasks for the foreign language classroom. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(1), 21
61. James, N. (1997). Computers and L2 reading: student performance, student attitudes. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(1), 32
62. Joan, H. (1997). Grammar instruction for writing skills: do students perceive grammar as useful? Foreign Language Annuals, 30(1), 41
63. Ryu, K. (1997). Referential strategy training for second language reading comprehension of Japanese texts. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(1), 50
64. Tomoko, W. (1997). Interviews with Japanese FLES students: descriptive analysis. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(1), 67
65. Jing-mei, C. (1997). A comparison of two-multiple choice test formats for assessing English structure competence. Foreign Language Annuals. 30(1), 74
66. Janine, O. (1997). Past-institute connections: implication and outcomes of a diffusion-based electronic mail instructional model. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(1), 109

67. Dinah, D. (1997). Using film to build writing proficiency in a second-year language class. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(1), 122
68. Terry, L. (1997). Enhancing beginning language courses through content-enriched instruction. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(2), 5
69. Noriko, N. (1997). The effectiveness of computer-assisted metalinguistic instruction: a case study in Japanese. Foreign Language Annuals30(2), 11
70. Barbara, C. (1997). Authentic materials and Mexican immersion: a professional development programme combining pedagogy, language and culture. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(2), 28
71. Gi-Pyo, P. (1997). Language learning strategies and English proficiency in Korean university students. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(2), 28
72. Suzanne, Q. (1997). Field dependence/independence in second language acquisition and implications for educators and instructional designers. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(2), 33
73. Xiaohong, W. (1997). Motivation and language learning with students of Chinese. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(2), 41
74. Anne, G. (1997). A beginner's guide to the internet in the foreign language classroom with a focus on the world wide web. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(2), 54
75. Robert, L. (1997). Group work in not busy work: maximizing success of group work in the L2 classroom. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(2), 65
76. Laurens, V. (1997). The comprehension strategies of second language (French) listeners: a descriptive study. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(3), 6

77. Peter, R. (1997). Language-learning strategies for learners of Japanese: investigating ethnicity. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(3), 13
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79. Peter, M. (1997). Pair teaching in preservice teacher education. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(3), 29
80. Robert, K. (1997). Etymology in a course on the history of the German language. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(3), 37
81. Wei, H. (1997). Multimedia computer-assisted reading in business Chinese. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(3), 44
82. Yasuko, I. (1997). Attrition and performance in Japanese language courses: a study of articulation between the high school and university levels. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(3), 55
83. Hezi, B. (1997). The sociocultural message of language textbooks: Arabic in the Israeli setting. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(3), 62
84. Donna, R. (1997). The experimental course: an alternative to study abroad for nontraditional students. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(3), 74
85. Lina, L. (1997). Using internet tools as an enhancement of C2 teaching and learning. Foreign Language Annuals, 30(3), 82
86. Daniel, S. (1998). Culture, culture and "culture" in foreign language teaching. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 105

87. Sarah, J. (1998). Building connections to culture: a student-centered approach. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 114
88. Eileen, N. (1998). Role reversal: the problems of a Spanish-speaking Anglo teaching Spanish to English dominant Puerto Rican children. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 121
89. Hiran, H. (1998). Authorizing the foreign language student. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 136
90. Etsuko, T. (1998). Language development in social interaction: a longitudinal study of a Japanese FLES programme from a Vygotskyan approach. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 147
91. James, R. (1998). Language skill levels, textual modes, and the rating process. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 159
92. Pardee, L. (1998). Keeping the optic constant: a framework of principles for writing and specifying the AEL definitions of language abilities. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 174
93. Zena, T. (1998). Successful teaching strategies: findings from a case study of middle school African Americans learning Arabic. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 181
94. Theresa, A. (1998). Cross-cultural pragmatics-building in analysis of communication across cultures and languages: examples from Japanese. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 194
95. Carolyn, L. (1998). Back to the future: a look at present textbooks and past recommendations. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 201

96. Wei, H. (1998). Politeness strategies in Chinese business correspondence and their teaching applications. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 211
97. Jeremy, D. (1998). Taking foreign languages in high school. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(3), 219
98. Sharon, W. (1998). Study abroad from the participants' perspective: a challenge to common beliefs. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(1), 7
99. Terry, A. (1998). Providing access: foreign language learners and genre theory. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(1), 12
100. Eileen, W. (1998). Teaching Spanish through distance education: implications of a pilot study. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(1), 17
101. Anita, J. (1998). Listening comprehension anxiety: students' reported sources and solutions. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(1), 22
102. John, F. (1998). Modern languages in the American college curriculum: the coming of age. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(1), 29
103. Chuanren, K. (1998). Effects of language background on the learning of Chinese characters among foreign language students. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(1), 34
104. Joel, W. (1998). Meeting standards for foreign language learning with world wide web activities. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(1), 43
105. Elizabeth, A. (1998). A study on cultural awareness through commercials and writing. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(1), 52
106. Olenka, S.E. (1998). Planning for writing instruction in a middle-years immersions/partial immersion setting. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(2), 5

107. Jane, E. (1998). Examining the relationship between L2 listening research, pedagogical theory, and practice. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(2), 11
108. Carol, M. (1998). L2 reading: an update on relevant L1 research. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(2), 17
109. Richard, C. (1998). A language-focused needs analysis for ESL-speaking nursing students in class and clinic. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(2), 22
110. Stella, H. (1998). Autonomy at any price? Issues and concerns from a British HE perspective. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(2), 27
111. Tej, B. (1998). Instruction and exposure: how do they contribute to second language acquisition? Foreign Language Annuals, 31(2), 34
112. Diana, F. (1998). Intrinsic and extrinsic factors that contribute to the difficulty of learning false cognates. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(2), 43
113. Thomas, C. (1998). Teaching idioms. Foreign Language Annuals, 31(2), 51
114. Noel, W. (1997). A learner-based design model for interactive multimedia language learning packages. System, 25(1), 1
115. Hemard, D.P. (1997). Design principles and guidelines for authoring hypermedia language learning applications. System, 25(1), 9
116. Mark, P. (1997). Language teaching and networking. System, 25(1), 29
117. Paul, B. (1997). A comparative study of the effects of the use of multimedia on listening comprehension. System, 25(1), 39
118. Donna, H. (1997). Low-tech laser learning: can less be more? System, 25(1), 55

119. Zoltan, D. (1997). Group dynamics and foreign language teaching. System, 25(1), 65
120. Joseph, B. (1997). The use of mixed-code in Hong Kong English language teaching. System, 25(1), 83
121. Beniko, M. (1997). Extensive reading in English as a foreign language. System, 25(1), 91
122. Rodney, H. (1997). Beyond "listen and repeat": pronunciation teaching materials and theories of second language acquisition. System, 25(2), 103
123. Colin, J. (1997). The long and bumpy road to multi-media: hi-tech experiments in teaching a professional genre at distance. System, 25(2), 157
124. Kamyin, W. (1997). Teacher's grammar on the electronic highway: design criteria for TeleGram. System, 25(2), 169
125. Garold, M. (1997). Re-thinking second language instruction, autonomy and technology: a manifesto. System, 25(2), 185
126. Marianne, N. (1997). Need we sacrifice accuracy for fluency? System, 25(2), 197
127. Kel, B. (1997). The skilled use of interaction strategies: creating a framework for improved small-group communicative interaction in the language classroom. System, 25(2), 203
128. Peter, M. (1997). The English article system: acquisition, function, and pedagogy. System, 25(2), 215
129. Mike, S. (1997). PC analysis of key words-and key key words. System, 25(2), 233.

130. Rod, E. (1997). Bugs and birds: children's acquisition of second language vocabulary through interaction. System, 25(2), 247
131. Robert, W. (1997). The negative effects of learning words in semantic sets: a replication. System, 25(2), 259
132. Anthony, B. (1997). In what ways do we want EFL coursebooks to differ? System, 25(2), 275
133. Tom, C. (1997). Is there any measurable learning from hands-concordancing? System, 25(2), 301
134. Kim, H. (1997). Use of an expert system to predict language success. System, 25(2), 317
135. Paul, G. (1997). The role of video media in listening assessment. System, 25(2), 335
136. David, B. (1997). Learning by listening to language learners. System, 25(3), 347
137. Batia, L. (1997). Bilingualised dictionaries: how learners really use them? System, 25(3), 361
138. Ngar-Fun, L. (1997). Why do many students appear reluctant to participate in classroom learning discourse? System, 25(3), 371
139. Tony, L. (1997). Life in the slow lane: observations of a limited L2 listener. System, 25(3), 385
140. Guariento, W.A.(1997). Innovation management issues raised by a distance-learning project in Eritrea: can such projects be successfully transplanted from one developing country to another? System, 25(3), 347

141. Adrian, H. (1997). The politics of participation in international English language education. System, 25(3), 409
142. Alister, C. (1997). Learning to do research on language teaching and learning: graduate apprenticeships. System, 25(3), 425
143. Icy, L. (1997). ESL learners' performance in error correction in writing: some implications for teaching. System, 25(3), 465
144. Alex, H. (1997). An investigation of the functions, strategies, and linguistic features of the introductions and conclusions of essays. System, 25(3), 479
145. Glenn, F. (1997). Text difficulty and accessibility: reading formulae and expert judgement. System, 25(3), 497
146. Noriko, N. (1997). An experimental comparison of deductive and inductive feedback generated by a simple parser. System, 25(3), 515
147. Francine, C. (1997). What do we mean by fluency? System, 25(3), 535
148. Helen, K. (1997). Keep them talking! A project for improving students' L2 pronunciation. System, 25(3), 545
149. Jeyalaxmy, A. (1997). Can learner strategy instruction succeed? The case of higher order questions and elaborated responses. System, 25(4), 561
150. Valerie, A. (1997). Reflection in action: increasing teacher awareness of the learning needs of specific socio-cultural groups. System, 25(4), 571

Appendix D

Abstract samples

1.

Although reading aloud receives considerable emphasis in English as a first language, it is traditionally discouraged by EFL teachers and methodology specialists. Reading aloud, in fact, is particularly important for EFL learners at the early stage of learning. Beginning readers tend to read word by word. Reading aloud helps them read larger semantic units rather than focusing on graphic cues. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of the teacher's reading aloud on the reading comprehension of EFL students reading a story. Seventy-five students participated in the study. The experimental group had a story read aloud to them by the teacher, whereas the control group read the story silently. Two dependent measures were used: a multiple-choice test and a story frame test. Results showed that the experimental group outperformed the control group on both measures. This indicated that reading aloud by the teacher may have a significant positive effect on learners' reading comprehension.

(From *ELT Journal* no. 26 [see Appendix C])

2.

The current political atmosphere surrounding literacy education in the United States pits whole language and phonics-only instruction against each other. Whole language teachers, already besieged by parents and district administrators clamoring for evidence of rising standardized test scores, are coming under increasing public pressure to abandon meaning-based language arts curricula in favor of basic-skills instruction. Using ethnographic methodology, the study from which data for this article are drawn examines how local language arts pedagogy is instantiated in classrooms. In particular, this project focuses on documenting how teachers use an ecology of social practices to form a comprehensive literacy curriculum. The analysis will show how one first grade teacher creates a context for learning in which the whole and parts of text are in dialogic relation. By gaining an understanding of current practice, this study may help teachers construct literacy curricula that more effectively addresses the tension they have experienced within language arts pedagogy. By understanding the practices of real teachers, we will be in a better position to enter the public debate over the strengths and weaknesses of both whole language and phonics pedagogies by providing evidence of how teachers merge process and skills in their classrooms.

(From *Issues in Applied Linguistics* journal no. 35 [see Appendix C])

3.

This paper discusses some of the difficulties associated with using standardised reading tests in assessing students' use of reading strategies for expository text in short-term intervention programmes. Alternative approaches can be used, including identifying omitted structural material, unscrambling texts, and identifying and correcting illogical texts. Such testing approaches help to illustrate transfer "across tasks with the same underlying structure but different surface formats" (from the original intervention study) (Brown, Armbruster, and Baker 1986:69).

(From **RELC** journal no. 57 [see Appendix C])

4.

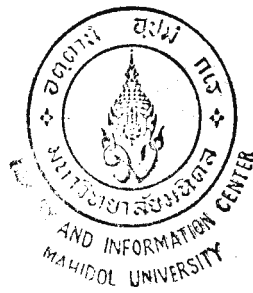
In the traditional foreign language curriculum, content-based instruction (CBI) is postponed until at least the second year of study when, it is perceived, learners have the necessary linguistic repertoire with which to begin to deal with content. The author's analysis of L2 first-year college-level Spanish textbooks reveals that, in general, little cultural or real-world information is provided to beginning learners. The purpose of this paper is to describe a variation of CBI for beginning-level language learners called content-enriched instruction (CEI). In CEI an emphasis is placed on cultural and real-world information. Vocabulary, grammar, and content are integrated to reflect a specific theme or converge to represent a specific topic. Learners use Spanish to acquire new information and to relate new content knowledge to their own lives. All new information is designed to meet appropriate linguistic, cognitive, and affective needs of the learners. To illustrate the uses and benefits of CEI, the author describes a unit lesson plan for six class periods and offers suggestions on how to implement CEI.

(From **Foreign Language Annuals** journal no. 68 [see Appendix C])

5.

This paper describes a substantial research project which looked at the effectiveness of different methods of improving the pronunciation of EFL learners, and evaluated the significance of instruction as one of the factors affecting the acquisition of L2 pronunciation. Following quantitative and qualitative analysis, the research resulted in the following observations: (1) learners' L2 pronunciation did appear to improve; (2) the greatest improvement appeared to be in segmental features; (3) suprasegmental aspects had a greater effect on listeners; (4) improvement varied depending on individual learners, time of year within the course, and type of task; (5) successful acquisition of L2 pronunciation appeared to be affected by training, aptitude for oral mimicry and talkativeness. In short, the proven positive effects of training and talkativeness should encourage educationalists to... **KEEP THE STUDENTS TALKING!**

(From **System** journal no. 148 [see Appendix C])



BIOGRAPHY

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POSITION & OFFICE	1998-Present, Mahidol University, Position: Teaching Assistant