EMPLOYING A GLOSS IN ENGLISH AND PERSIAN ACADEMIC WRITING: EXEMPLIFYING AND REFORMULATING IN APPLIED LINGUISTICS RESEARCH ARTICLES

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ABSTRACT

This paper considers the ways of interactions between writers and readers in general, and small acts of reformulation and exemplification as aspects that play crucial role in mediating the relationship between what writers intend to argue and their discourse communities in particular. Known as 'code glosses' in the metadiscourse literature, these devices not only contribute to the construction of effective, well-organized articles, but may also guide the reader to organize, interpret, and evaluate the information given. Adopting an analytic perspective, the study focuses on examining different aspects of academic written discourse of a large corpus of applied linguistics research articles to explore how professional academic writers monitor their texts for readers to restate information or provide examples as they construct their arguments. In this paper, the analysis of three types of texts has been undertaken, drawing upon data from English texts written by native speakers of English, English texts written by Iranians (as non-natives of English), and Persian texts written by Iranians. Results suggest that academic writings of these groups differ in their rhetorical strategies using code glosses according to their respective mother tongues, demonstrating the significant function of elaboration in academic discourse. The implications of the findings for language learning are also discussed.

Keywords: elaboration, exemplification, metadiscourse, code glosses.

INTRODUCTION

In the practices of teaching and learning foreign languages, for several centuries written language was regarded as being primary; and literature was viewed as an example of linguistic excellence, which was mediated through it. The elucidation and teaching of rules of language, accordingly, was restricted to written texts. In the last two decades, however, interest in the written language has been extended to almost all kinds of writing which are dealt with in the field of teaching foreign languages as well.

Hyland (2000) suggests that "the written genres of the academy have attracted increasing attention from fields as diverse as philosophy, sociology of sciences, history, rhetoric, and applied linguistics" (p. 2). To clarify the motives of shifting interest to academic writing, he provides us with two reasons: a) from a
theoretical perspective, this trend has been prompted by the very fact that it is the writing which produces different characteristics of various disciplines; and texts are usually considered to manifest the way of constructing and negotiating of knowledge in each discipline; b) from a pedagogical perspective, he points out that what attracts attention to academic writing is that writing is one of the principal responsibilities of academics. University instructors publish articles, books and research notes; they correspond with colleagues by e-mail; they submit applications for conferences; and they develop a field of interest in order to exchange their knowledge with other scholars and academic communities as in conferences, seminars, etc. In fact academic centers all over the world are usually related to one another through academic communication and cooperation systems. The knowledge produced through effective research in one institute is exchanged within the members of different academic communities in order to broaden the boundaries of knowledge and to inform them of the latest findings and developments; and this is done, mainly by means of academic writings.

Widdowson( 1984) views written texts as a set of directions for leading an interaction. In his views, meaning is not restricted in text; it is a function of the discourse that is formed from the text by interactive processes. The text, therefore, is the product of the writer’s efforts, actual and noticeable on the page, but it has to be reconverted into the interactive process of discourse before meaning can be realized.

Although no one can overlook the importance of writing in academic life, students of EFL will especially find it significant and a more demanding task to master than the other skills. This argument will be confirmed more clearly by considering the fact that even writing in L1 is not very easy for the majority of native speakers of any language. Comprehensive instruction, consequently, in writing and having practice with different genres is important for L1 students and crucial for L2 learners. This is in general possible through providing students with the appropriate language to talk about texts and by bringing patterns and rules of the text to their conscious awareness. Yet, what adds to the complexity of this issue is the fact that writing needs a threshold level of L2 proficiency. Writing, being a literacy skill, differs from other skills and demands a different kind of treatment. Since writing calls for the activation of mental processes in creating meaning, not all of those who learn to write can produce texts of high quality; and since the instruction of this important key to success in academic life does not receive the due attention in Iran, only few of the Iranian students are able to create meaning as they would like to.

It should also be mentioned that writing is a discovery process. It includes discovering ideas, discovering how to organize these ideas, and discovering what the writer wants to put across to his/her reader. Therefore, conscious awareness of the rules and conventions that govern, for example scholarly communication, is a prerequisite for both effectual written and oral processing of academic discourse. Not all of what a writer does is definitely revealed on paper; consequently explicating a writer’s behavior is problematic not only for laymen but also for scholars. However, although analyzing how a text is created seems quite an elaborate task, a set of practical research techniques have been developed to account for the writing process. One aspect of such language awareness is metadiscourse awareness which specifically refers to "self-reflective
linguistic material referring to the evolving text and to the writer and imagined reader of that text" (Hyland & Tse, 2004), or as Swales in his book Genre Analysis suggests, metadiscourse is "writing about the evolving text rather than referring to the subject matter" (1990, p. 188).

The present study addresses one crucial metadiscourse sub-type known as code glosses which help to guide the reader through the text and help readers get the point of ideational material (Hyland, 2004) while contributing to create coherent prose. Widdowson (2007, p. 46) argues that "cohesive devices link parts of the texts together so that new content is understood in relation to the context that has been established in the reader's mind by what has been said before", however, he adds that they are only aids to understanding; therefore, their effectiveness depends on the extent that they enable readers to construct meaning that makes contextual sense to them, and enable them to drive a coherent discourse from it.

One responsibility of the writers is, therefore, creating explanations for experiences in the scientific world. Surprisingly little, nevertheless, has been written about elaboration, and clarification, even fewer studies have treated this issue in English vs. Persian. The purpose of this article is, consequently, to raise awareness of this dilemma in Persian and English applied linguistics articles, and to make suggestions for developing successful academic writing. The English texts written by native speakers of English, English texts written by Iranians and Persian texts written by Iranians will therefore be compared as to theirs use of code glosses. Consequently, this textual study takes text linguistic variables into account and takes its material from two different writing cultures and two languages. First, a brief look at the nature of these acts is presented.

METADISCOURSE, ELABORATION AND CODEGLOSSES

Metadiscourse has been defined variously as an author’s presence in a text, writing about writing (Williams, 1981) and text that comments on the primary subject matter text. Avon Crismore describes it as "the rhetorical act of discoursing about the spoken or written discourse" (1984a, p. 66) or "what they inject into the text besides the content" (1985a, p. 6), and argues that its purpose is to "direct rather than inform the readers" (Crismore, 1984b, p. 280). She recommends that metadiscourse has two major types according (1993) which are textual and interpersonal, each with its own list of subtypes such as textual logical connectives, interpretive code glosses, and interpersonal such as hedges, attitude markers, and reader commentaries. Some examples of metadiscourse are: first of all, second, hopefully, dear reader, it seems as if, to give an example, etc.

Other than organizing the text and making it more integrated and coherent, the use of such features helps the authors display their approach toward the subject matter, to express their personalities, and to interact with the readers, making the text friendly. Some of the major metadiscourse taxonomies that have developed are as follows: Beauvais’s metadiscourse taxonomy (1989), Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen’s taxonomy (1993), Hyland’s taxonomy (1998 and 1999), Vande Kopple’s revised taxonomy (2002), and Hyland’s revised taxonomy (2004). In addition, there are some notable studies which are as follows: Crismore (1984b), Crismore (1990), Cismore, Markkanen, and Stenffensen (1993), Mauranen (1993a), Cheng and Steffensen (1996), Valero-Garces (1996), Hyland and Tse (2004), and Rahimpour (2006).
According to Bruce (1981) when such devices including code glosses are added to a written text, readers become more involved and active as they read. This involvement then results in enhanced understanding of both writers and content. In other words, authors distinguish where their readers will require help in clarifying concepts, or where providing related examples are necessary and support them by propositional expansion and elaboration. Thus, Urano (1998) found that "the mean reading time in the elaborated condition was significantly shorter than in the baseline condition, indicating that lexical elaboration facilitated L2 reading comprehension" (p. 8). Authors also apply devices which create conjunction, and these devices constitute cohesive bonds between sections of the text. One of the three types of these devices according to Halliday (1994) is elaboration which is made by apposition and is either expository such as in other words or exemplifying like for example. He further argues that in contrast to cases where a secondary unit introduces something new to the previous unit, and broadens its meaning, the second clause does not add a new constituent, but restates the unit which is already there, make it clear, and simplify it. Hamilton also defines elaboration as any enrichment of information which clarifies the relationship between "information to-be-learnt" and related information, i.e. a learner's previous information and experience or continguously presented information (1997, p. 299). Further, he claims that elaboration increases the richness and redundancy with which we encode the set propositions related to a specific memory episode. Accordingly, elaboration can be seen as an approach through whose application a text can be modified for easier comprehension not by removing complex structures and low-frequent vocabularies as simplification does, but by adding redundant information to the text through the use of different techniques. Also Yano, et al. (1994) argues that "the technique of elaboration, including parenthetical expansion of key terms and concepts in the original text, provides the reader with a "second look" at those terms and concepts and consequently increase the chance the inferencing about them can be stimulated in the reading process" (p. 213).

Devices such as namely, for example, and that is connect clauses, convey meanings and provide cohesive, rather than structural linking through which authors "project themselves into their discourse to signal their attitude toward both the content and the audience of the text" (Swales, 1990, p. 156). They are indicated by punctuation, with the second component enclosed between brackets, dashes or commas.

More specifically, Lautamatti (1978) classified devices such as to illustrate the point, and for example as illocution markers and defines them as materials used to make explicit the illocutionary force of the statement concerned; that is whether it is a description, a claim, a hypothetical statement, etc. Later, Vande Kopple (1985) made distinction between illocutionary markers and code glosses identifying code glosses as those features which help the reader understand the meaning of a part of the text; that is, they do not contribute to the propositional content of the text but help define and interpret it. Also Hyland (1998 and 1999) provided a metadiscourse taxonomy in which code glosses provide additional information to assist interpretation and ensure the writer's intention in understood by explaining, comparing or expanding what has been said. In 2002 Vande Kopple revised his metadiscourse taxonomy and defined code glosses as those devices which help the reader understand the intended meanings of the
elements in the texts such as what I mean to say is, and roughly speaking. Finally, Hyland (2004) identified code glosses as interactive resources which contribute to "guide the reader through the text" (p. 139) and argued that code glosses help readers grasp meanings of ideational material. These examples from the research articles corpus demonstrate this type of rhetorical work:

1. An important concept has emerged from these studies, namely equivalence or tertium comparationis. (the article written by a native speaker of English)

The informants' verbal protocols were informative to some extent. They, however, did not provide adequate date, that is, to validate the assumptions for the deletion of these lexical items. (the article written by non-native speaker of English)

As can be seen, using these features facilitates the reader's comprehension of the text, and allows him/her to rebuild the author's writing plan.

As indicated earlier, although the interest in metadiscourse has led to a considerable literature devoted to describing rhetorical resources, unfortunately few research studies have dealt with code glosses in written texts and the effects on readers (e.g. Hyland, 2007), and none have addressed the use of these devices in Persian. The present study, therefore, addresses this neglected issue in Persian and English applied linguistics articles.

REFORMULATION AND EXEMPLIFICATION

Prose discourse can be considered on a continuum where writers and readers move from simple unconnected statements of 'position' placed in informative materials like most textbooks to connected series of 'composition' and finally to 'exposition' where a connected text is noticeably planned and monitored by the writer's personality (Nash, 1980). To facilitate to create expository texts, writers have a responsibility to acquire a plan for those features that indicate the organization to the reader, and attitudinal signs (Marshall & Glock, 1979). Accordingly, code glosses are involved in clarification of this communicative purpose of the writers. Hyland (2007) represents two broad sub-functions of this purpose: reformulations and exemplifications.

Reformulation

Hyland (2007) describes reformulation as a discourse objective "whereby the second unit is a restatement or elaboration of the first in different words, to present it from a different point of view and to reinforce the message". In academic texts, these devices are often indicated parenthetically or lexically by what he calls "reformulation markers" (p. 269). For example:
2. As Schiffrin pointed out "whereas the basic syntactic unit of a narrative is a clause with temporal juncture". That is, the criterion that distinguishes lists from narratives …  

(the article written by a native speaker of English)

Some of the elements vital to the acceptability of traditional letters are optional for electronic correspondence. This means that the format of letters is no longer so much conventionally determined.  

(the article written by non-native speaker of English)

Regarding the above examples, reformulations in writing must be discussed as determined plans displaying the author's attempt to express particular concepts, or attain particular rhetorical effects in order to re-elaborate a notion to increase reader's comprehensibility.

Furthermore, reformulation takes a variety of meanings. They either expand the original, by explanation or implication, which are called expansions or reduce it by paraphrase or specification which are reductions (Hyland, 2007).

Expansions, as a result, restate a concept by presenting an explanation which is called explanation or by drawing an implication from it which is called implication to expand the reader's comprehensibility.

Reductions serve to restrict the extent of interpretation by either paraphrase or specification. These two forms of reductions refer to restate an idea to give a summary and to add details respectively.

Exemplification

Hyland (2007) explains exemplification as "a communication process through which meaning is clarified or supported by a second unit which illustrates the first by citing an example" (p. 270). These devices can be signaled usually by parentheses. To demonstrate these kinds of devices, providing the examples below from research article corpus is necessary.

3. Some form of attentional focus was provided. For example, in many instances the teacher first repeated the student's erroneous utterance.

(the article written by a native speaker of English)

They may be used independently or as a combination e.g. in instant modification and elaboration may be applied individually...

(the article written by a non-native speaker of English)

As it can be seen, reformulation and exemplification are not simple discourse functions but complex rhetorical classes which include a variety of meanings.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

In order to elucidate the research questions which motivated this study, the following important issues in foreign language writing were
provided. They are: Do language and/or culture affect the rhetorical conventions of academic writing? More specifically, is a person’s use of code glosses affected by their language / culture?

Accordingly, the present study is due to be conducted in order to answer the following questions as persuasively and precisely as possible.

The first question is:

Is there any significant difference between the type of code glosses employed by Iranians and native speakers of English in their research articles about applied linguistics written in Persian and in English respectively?

The second question is:

Is there any significant difference between the type of code glosses employed by Iranians and native speakers of English in their research articles about applied linguistics written in English?

The third question is:

Is there any significant difference between the type of code glosses employed by Iranians in their research articles about applied linguistics written in Persian and in English?

In accordance with the research questions posed above, the present study is a design with the intention of examining the following null hypotheses at the probability level of 0.05.

There is no significant difference between the type of code glosses employed by Iranians and native speakers of English in their research articles about applied linguistics written in Persian and in English respectively.

The second hypothesis is that:

There is no significant difference between the type of code glosses employed by Iranians and native speakers of English in their research articles about applied linguistics written in English.

And the third hypothesis is that:

There is no significant difference between the type of code glosses employed by Iranians in their research articles about applied linguistics written in Persian and in English.

**METHOD**

**Corpus**

The basis of this study is on a research article corpus of 90 published papers. In choosing the sample research articles, the following criteria were taken into account. First, all English writers were assumed to be native speakers of English as far as it could be inferred from their names, affiliations, and occasionally biographical notes attached to the articles, and their command of English. Second, in selecting articles there was an attempt to choose those articles written by experts of this field, i.e. the professors of applied linguistics. Therefore, special care was taken to include as many different professors of the field as possible, which could have been impossible if the articles were selected randomly. Third,
in order to cover a variety of academic journals, the text corpus of research articles were selected from different leading journals in applied linguistics. Fourth, since it was important that the Persian texts and the native and non-native English texts used in this study be comparable, an effort was made to select articles with similar or at least comparable length. In order to achieve this aim, word counts were carried out. A corpus of one thousand words from the discussion section of each article was selected. Hence, the corpus of 90000 words was prepared.

Considering the above-mentioned criteria, the corpus collected for this study, consisted of ninety articles which were written by native speakers of each language (30 per each group) and non-native speakers of English (Iranian).

Procedure
The present study undertakes different processes and takes a range of phases. As mentioned previously, text selection was the first phase of the study, in which the articles were selected according to above-mentioned criteria. Since discussion and introduction sections of the articles are the most rhetorical parts (Mauranen, 1993b), and introduction sections were much shorter than the discussions, and therefore could not provide enough data, the discussion section were analyzed for the types and amounts of code glosses used by the writers.

In the second step, the texts were carefully read word by word in order to identify and locate the specific features which could potentially act as elaborations. All cases were examined in context to ensure their functions as either reformulations or exemplifications. Then, to identify the possible differences between the discussion sections of English and Persian applied linguistics research articles, the text were compared and analyzed.

The next step was determining the reliability of the analysis which is "demonstrating that the data collection procedures can be repeated with the same results" (Connor & Mauranen, 1999, p. 50). To consider the inter-rater reliability, a sample of 45 articles (15 from each group) was extracted out of the corpus and was analyzed by an MA holder of TEFL who was familiar with metadiscourse analysis. The results were correlated with those of the researcher. The resulting correlation was an estimate of the inter-rater reliability of the judgments made by the researcher and the rater. Furthermore, a sample of 45 articles (15 from each group) was extracted out of the corpus and was analyzed by the researcher two weeks after the first rating. A correlation was calculated between frequency of moves and steps on two occasions. The resulting correlation was an estimate of the intra-rater reliability of the judgments being made by the researcher on two different occasions.

Data analysis
This study aimed to investigate whether there is any statistically significant difference in the use of code glosses of the authors of discussion sections of English and Persian applied linguistics research articles. Hatch and Farhady (1981) suggest that "we are often content with describing frequencies in terms of proportions, percents, rates, and ratios. However, when we have a definite hypothesis which we wish to test, we must then test that hypothesis using inferential statistics. The Chi-square is one test which allows us to do this; it is a
test especially designed for nominal data” (p. 165). Chi-squares, therefore, were run as the appropriate nonparametric statistical test. The Chi-squares were required to examine the differences in the following condition: to determine the differences of code glosses frequency and amount across the corpus.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION
This section is the presentation of the data related to different stages of the study mentioned in the proceeding section.

In order to compare the amount of code glosses employed by Iranians and native speakers of English in writing research articles on applied linguistics in Persian and in English respectively, the first chi-square test was run. The summary of the results of this chi-square has been demonstrated in Table 1.

Table 1. Results of Chi-Square Tests of Native English and Iranian Scholars’ Use of Code Glosses in English and Persian Respectively

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<th></th>
<th>Value</th>
<th>df</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$x^2$</td>
<td>15.020(a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.05</td>
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<td>n</td>
<td>1355</td>
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As the results show, the value of observed chi-square ($x^2=15.20$) was significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=0.05$) with degrees of freedom of 4 (df=4) indicating that there is a significant difference between these two groups in their use of code glosses. The different usage of code glosses between these two groups is best shown by a chart bar, as displayed in Figure 1.

![Bar graph for native English and Iranian Scholars' use of Code glosses in English and Persian respectively](image)

Figure 1. Bar graph for native English and Iranian Scholars' use of Code glosses in English and Persian respectively
As Figure 1 shows, there is a significant difference between the use of code glosses in these two groups. The findings clearly indicate that Iranians who write in Persian have used far more code glosses (35.4%) than the native speakers of English (19.9%), and that exemplifications were employed significantly more than reformulations in both groups underlying the importance of elucidating propositions through illustrative items.

The second chi-square test was run to compare the amount of code glosses used by Iranians and native speakers of English in writing research articles on applied linguistics in English. The summary of the results of this chi-square has been demonstrated in Table 2.

Table 2. Results of Chi-Square Tests of Native English and Non-native (Iranian) Scholars’ Use of Code Glosses in English

<table>
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<th>Value</th>
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<tr>
<td>$x^2$</td>
<td>29.048(a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.01</td>
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<td>n</td>
<td>1630</td>
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Here, we see that the value of observed chi-square ($x^2= 29.04$) was significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=.01$) with degrees of freedom of 4 (df=4) indicating that there is a significant difference between these two groups in their use of code glosses. The different usage of code glosses between these two groups is best shown by a chart bar, as displayed in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Bar graph for Native English and non-native English (Iranian) use of code glosses in English

As shown in Figure 2, non-native (Iranians) speakers of English have used more code glosses (27.1%) than native speakers of English (19.9%), and exemplifications were used more than reformulations in both groups. In other
words, there was a significant difference between the amount of code glosses employed by Iranians and native speakers of English in writing their research articles on applied linguistics in English.

Another chi-square test was run to compare the amount of code glosses used by Iranians in writing research articles on applied linguistics in English and in Persian. A results summary of the chi-square test is provided in Table 3.

Table 3. Results of Chi-Square Tests of Iranian Scholars' Use of Code Glosses in Persian and English Respectively

<table>
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<th>Value</th>
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<th>p</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$x^2$</td>
<td>43.720(a)</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.00</td>
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<tr>
<td>n</td>
<td>1661</td>
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The results of the research shown in the table indicate that the value of observed chi-square ($x^2 = 43.72$) was significant at $\alpha$ level ($\alpha=.00$) with degree of freedom of 4 (df=4) indicating that Iranians' use of code glosses in their Persian writings are significantly different from their English writings. The different usage of code glosses between these two groups is best shown by a chart bar, as displayed in Figure 3.

A point of further interest is that Iranians have used far more code glosses (35.4%) in their Persian articles than in their English ones (27.1%), and exemplifications were used more frequently than reformulations in both groups.

Regarding code glosses, we saw that native speakers of Persian used significantly more code glosses than native speakers of English. Non-natives, on the other hand, were somewhere in between native speakers of Persian and
English. Obviously, the most important reason for a person’s referring to code glosses is that one would normally expect to be given definitions and exemplifications in the text so that s/he could understand the concepts with more ease. Besides, writers must identify rhetorical expectations and argument preferences of their readers to create a text which is both understandable and persuasive, and they can achieve this goal by employing those devices which present a reformulation or cases of what they have said. Using such devices is a central element of the ways concepts are negotiated in academic writing and represent authors’ decisions of the effects they are having on their readers.

Another point worthy of attention is that in order to avoid subjectivity in the analysis, taking care of the reliability was important. As it was mentioned earlier, two kinds of reliability (i.e. intra-rater and inter-rater) were investigated. To investigate the intra-rater reliability, a sample of 45 articles was extracted out of the corpus and was analyzed by the researcher two weeks after the first rating. The results of Spearman rank-order correlation indicated that there was 82 percent correlation between the researcher’s two counting of code glosses. Similarly, to count the inter-rater reliability, a sample of 45 articles was randomly extracted and was analyzed by an MA holder of TEFL, who was familiar with code glosses. The results of her analysis were correlated with those of the researcher. The results of Spearman rank-order correlations indicated that there was 78 percent correlation between the frequency of code glosses by the researcher and the second rater.

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

It has been shown in this paper that elaboration is a complex and essential rhetorical function in academic writing.

Analysis of the corpus of the present study indicated that writers of all three groups used code glosses in their writings. This finding can prove the universality nature of code glosses. Iranians (as both native speakers of Persian and non-native speakers of English) employed more code glosses than Native speakers of English. Comparing both groups of Iranians, we can observe that code glosses were used more when Iranians wrote in Persian. Code glosses are important since they play crucial roles in mediating the relationship between what writers intend to argue and their discourse communities. The results of the present study have obvious importance in increasing students’ awareness of the way native speakers of English organize their writings.

The skill of employing elaboration, including code glosses, appears to provide the readers with a second look at key terms and ideas in the text and accordingly increases the possibility that understanding can be stimulated in the reading process. The results of the present study, therefore, proposes that code glosses in the text serve to give semantic details important for foreign language readers to make inferences about the texts they read. These devices also improve comprehension and provide learners with the rich linguistic form they require for further language learning.

Teaching metadiscourse, including code glosses, directly to foreign language learners will improve the quality of their writing. According to Cheng and Steffensen (1996) writing effectively and monitoring special styles of writing are not intrinsic characteristics of foreing language learners. This is also true for the native speakers of any language. The results of the present study, therefore, have
obvious importance in increasing students’ awareness of the way native speakers of English organize their writing.

It should also be mentioned that the finding of this study, will help novice writers benefit not just from process-oriented practices in producing texts but also from guided investigation of how texts work. Teachers can also provide sample texts for their students and ask them to count code glosses they find and discuss them in the class. It is even possible for the students to ask their teachers about their own writing practices. These feedback discussions are very useful to be utilized by the learners. This kind of analysis of the texts is a useful means for the teachers to help students control over their writing practices. Since metadiscourse shows the way writers present themselves in the text, students’ analysis of the texts organization in their own writings and published articles plays an important role for learning about appropriate ways of conveying appropriate attitude and engaging with readers.

SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study was just limited to discussion section of applied linguistics research articles which is only one genre among a huge body of genres students require to know directly in order to be able to write practically. Other research writing such as reports, dissertations, term papers, lectures, and proposals in different fields seem to be untouched in Iranian context. Also different parts of the research articles such as introductions can also be explored.

Furthermore, the present study did not consider the gender factor which can be an interesting issue for other researchers. The question in subsequent studies could specifically be whether there would be differences between males and females in their use of code glosses in their writings.

REFERENCES


