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## **Introductions in Research Papers: Genre Analysis of Academic Writing**

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The purpose of the present study was to reveal cultural and linguistic differences in writing for the purpose of enhancing the pedagogy of writing instruction for English language learners. This study addressed the similarities and differences in research article introductions written by Korean writers and those written by native English-speaking writers with regard to rhetorical patterns and citations. Secondly, Korean and English-speaking discourse community members' views on writing conventions and styles in this genre were explored via interviews. Twenty research article introductions were selected from two journals in the field of ESL/EFL education. This study seeks to inform writing teachers who may wish to develop a better understanding of the different rhetorical styles preferred by members of various cultures so that they can advise their students accordingly.

### **I. INTRODUCTION**

English is the predominant medium for communication in scientific publications. Due to the increasing recognition of English as the language of scholarship, many non-native English-speaking writers may prefer to publish their research findings in journals whose language of publication is English. Use of English for this purpose may lead not only to better access to the literature but also to an enhanced reputation in the academic community. Thus, the number of research papers in English written by non-native English-speaking writers will likely continue to grow in the future. As a result, there is a need for English language learners to acquire appropriate writing skills to participate in this international community and also for writing teachers to provide appropriate instruction.

Non-native English students in higher educational contexts may face complex writing tasks outside the classroom, both academically and professionally. In order to provide more effective writing instruction to these students, the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) genre approach has become a major influence on current practices in the teaching of second or

foreign language writing. ESP genre approaches attempt to identify the commonly used rhetorical structure and linguistic features of academic or professional genres. Analyzing typical linguistic or pragmatic features such as forms of citation of a specific genre can be of great value in language teaching and learning. This can provide writing teachers and students with useful and relevant information concerning how a genre is constructed in a particular context; how it can be used by the members of the discourse community. Teachers can use these approaches to help students understand the academic or professional discourse community which they wish to enter. This can possibly provide “shortcuts to the successful processing and producing of written texts” (Johns, 2003, p. 196).

## II. BACKGROUND

### 1. Definition of Genre

Traditionally, genre has been viewed as a way of classifying texts with common features (e.g., novel, poem, or essay). Widely discussed text types in academic or professional settings include research articles, grant proposals, promotional letters, or job applications. New ways of looking at genre have emerged in the field of teaching English for Specific Purposes (ESP). Genre is viewed not as a tool for classifying texts types but as a dynamic activity in social contexts. The key characteristic feature of a genre is communicative purpose (e.g., Bhatia, 1993; Hyon, 1996; Johns, 1997; Swales, 1990).

Swales (1990) presents a comprehensive review of genre in his book, *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. He claims that:

“A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content, and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourses community.” (p. 58)

This definition shows that genre is not simply a type of text but rather is dependent on

social or communicative purposes in which expert members of a discourse community achieve their communicative purposes. For Swales, communicative purpose between writers and readers is set up in particular contexts. Thus, the study of genres needs to explore the rationale behind discourse conventions. The rationale of a genre provides a prototypical structure. This prototypical structure can be identified by the expert members of the community, and the rules and conventions of a genre can be exploited by them in order to achieve their own communicative purposes. The definition of genre is likely to serve “as a useful framework for describing the functional nature of texts as well as textual variation across contexts” (Hyon, 1997, p. 66).

## 2. Genre Analysis

According to Swales (1990), texts are conventionally constructed with a series of moves that serve functions for both a writer and discourse community. The focus of genre analysis is on a prototypical rhetorical structure and the linguistic components of an academic or professional genre. In doing genre analysis, Bhatia (1993) provides explicit steps in order to analyze a genre (p. 18): Placing the given genre-text in a situational context; Surveying existing literature; Refining the situational/contextual analysis; Selecting corpus; Studying the institutional context; Levels of linguistic analysis; and Specialist information in genre analysis.

In doing genre analysis, the specialist information is crucial for selecting and interpreting the data or clarifying the schematic structure of genres. To ensure the validity of the interpretation of the data analysis, it is crucial to require input from specialists or expert members in the disciplines to interpret and explain the rationale underlying the genres (Anthony, 1999; Bhatia, 1993). One cautionary note, however, has been made by Swales (1990); “over-reliance on specialist informants may invite the opposite danger of analysts believing all that they hear” (p. 129). Certainly, it is important to note that specialist informants have an important role to play in the description, analysis and clarification of genres, but we need to be cautious in terms of how to select an appropriate specialist informant.

Although the work of genre analysis has had a profound influence on the field of L2 writing in higher educational contexts, some critics contend that genre analysis may lead to “uncritical reproduction of discipline” (Luke, 1996, p. 314). However, the emphasis on the study of prototypical features of texts is *pattern seeking*, not necessarily *pattern imposing* (Hart, 1986, cited in Bhatia, 1993). More explicitly, Hammond and Macken-Horarik (1999) point out that “learning about genres does not preclude critical analysis but, rather, that control of the linguistic resources associated with the study of genres provides a necessary basis for analysis and critique of texts” (p. 531). Teaching specific rhetorical structures or particular features of the texts can possibly assist students to write more rhetorically effective academic research texts.

### 3. Swales' Create A Research Space (CARS) Model

The most influential research in genre analysis has been conducted by Swales (1990). According to him, research articles as a genre are “complexly distanced reconstructions of research activities,” rather than “simple narratives of investigations” (Swales, 1990, p. 175). Of all the parts of the research article, the introduction has been the most commonly studied academic genre because not only is it considered to be the most problematic for both native English writers as well as non-native English writers (Flowerdew, 1999; Shi, 2002), but also in writing an introduction, writers have “an unnerving wealth of options” and they need to make decisions about “the amount and type of background knowledge to be included” (Swales, 1990, p. 138). A detailed analysis of a research article introduction identifies a series of communicative actions, or *moves*. The focus of move analysis is on a global rhetorical structure and the linguistic components signaling transitions between moves. Swales (1990) offers the Create a Research Space (CARS) model, consisting of Move 1 (establishing a research territory), Move 2 (establishing a niche), and Move 3 (occupying the niche). Each move serves the communicative purpose of the article introduction.

In Move 1, the writer establishes the significance of the field by claiming the importance of a given topic, by making topical generalizations, or by reviewing the items relevant for the study. In Move 2, the writer establishes a niche by indicating a gap or posing a question. Swales (1990) suggests that Move 2 is the key move in introductions because it is the ‘hinge’ that possibly connects what has been done to what the present research is about. In Move 3, the writer turns the niche established into the research space that justifies the present study. This move can be completed by outlining purposes or presenting the research findings. The model is as follows (Swales, 1990, p. 141):

**TABLE 1**  
**CARS Model in Research Article Introductions**

Move	Step
Move 1: Establishing a research territory	Step1 Claiming centrality (and/or)
	Step2 Making topic generalization (and/or)
	Step3 Reviewing items of previous research
Move 2: Establishing a niche	Step1a Counter-Claiming (or)
	Step1b Indicating a gap (or)
	Step1c Question-raising (or)
	Step1d Continuing a tradition
Move 3: Occupying the niche	Step1a Outlining purposes (or)
	Step1b Announcing present research (and/or)
	Step2 Announcing principal findings (and/or)
	Step3 Indicating RA structure

\**Note.* A niche is “context where a particular piece of research makes particularly good sense” (Swales & Feak, 1994, p. 175). RA indicates research articles.

In Swales' (1990) genre analysis, the classifications are made on the basis of linguistic items which are very helpful to identify each move or step. Some typical linguistics exponents are as follows (pp. 144-160):

Move 1 (Establishing a territory)

- (a) Recently, there has been a spate of *interest* in how to...
- (b) The study of ... has become an *important* aspect of...
- (c) *Many* investigators have recently turned to...
- (d) There is now *much evidence* to support the hypothesis that...

Move 2 (Establishing a niche)

- (a) However, the previously mentioned methods *suffer from some limitation* ...
- (b) The ... method eliminates man of these limitations by ..., *but* it can treat only...
- (c) *A question remains* whether...
- (d) Although considerable research has been done on ..., much *less* is known as to...

Move 3 (Occupying the niche)

- (a) The main *purpose* of the experiment reported here was...
- (b) The *present* work extends the use of the last model...
- (c) We have *organized the rest of this paper* in the following way....
- (d) *This paper* hopes to show that...

Since Swales' (1981, 1990) work on move analysis, there has been considerable interest in using the model to examine research articles (e.g., Anthony, 1999; Brett, 1994; Clyne, 1987; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Duszak, 1994; Graetz, 1985; Martín, 2003; Samraj, 2002). Of all the parts of the research paper, the introduction is considered to be the most problematic in writing research papers (Flowerdew, 1999; Shi, 2002). Some cross-cultural genre studies of research article introductions suggest that Move 2 (establishing a niche) is quite uncommon in Swedish (Fredrickson & Swales, 1994), in Malay (Ahmad, 1997), or in Thai (Jogthong, 2001).

For instance, Fredrickson and Swales (1994) examine 26 research article introductions published by Swedish scholars in an academic journal on the modern Swedish language. They report that only 14 articles have all three moves identified in the CARS model. Twelve research articles have one move or more missing; 9 out of 12 do not have Move 2. They speculate that there may be no competition for creating a research space in a small discourse community. Similarly, Ahmad (1997) in her study of research articles in Malay notes that Move 2 was quite uncommon in her corpus. She points out that the lack of fierce competition for research space results in a rhetorical structure that may be seen as evasive

and diffident. Duszak (1994) compares and contrasts the rhetorical strategies adopted by Polish and English writers in 40 articles from various established academic sources in Poland and the United States. She reports that the main difference between the two languages lay in Move 3; her Polish texts tend to understate and marginalize the occupying-a-nitch move as an avoidance strategy, and Polish writers are prone to announce their Move 3 indirectly.

The present study is designed to examine the rhetorical structures and the use of citations in research articles introductions preferred by Korean writers and native English writers, which are considered to be important features and can be a great challenge to non-native English-speaking writers. Although the appropriate use of citation in academic texts has been considered an important practice in academic writing, little has been written about its rhetorical functions or about varying citation behaviors across languages and cultures. In addition, this study explores how members of a discourse community describe their own and other's rhetorical patterns and the use of citations. The research questions for the study are as follows: (1) How similar and different are research article introductions written by Korean writers in Korea and those written by native English writers from English-speaking countries with regard to rhetorical patterns and the use of citations in their research article introductions?; (2) How do Korean and English-speaking discourse community members describe their own and others' rhetorical structure and the use of citations in research article introductions?

### III. METHOD

#### 1. Data and Data Collection

The primary data for this study consist of twenty research article introductions from five recent issues (1999-2003) of two prestigious journals in the field of ESL/EFL education, *English Teaching* from Korea and *TESOL Quarterly* from the United States: 10 Korean introductions by native Korean and English-speaking writers respectively. Due to possible discipline-specific writing variations across disciplines (Crookes, 1986; Taylor & Chen, 1991), only one discipline was chosen. The research article was chosen as a genre because the research paper genre is the most common genre written in academic discourse and is regarded as an important genre that enhances the advance of knowledge in the community. The selected articles were categorized into data-based reports or non-data based reports (see Table 2). This distinction was based on Lewin, Fine and Young's (2001) description. A research text is a data-based report of empirical research and a non-research text is a report of theoretical issues on the basis of prior literature, rather than empirical data.

**TABLE 2**  
**Total Number of Research Articles**

Genres/Journal	English Teaching	TESOL Quarterly
Research texts	68 (84%)	60 (72%)
Non-research texts	13 (16%)	23 (28%)
Total No.	81	83

The selected research articles were further categorized as quantitative, qualitative, or mixed:

**TABLE 3**  
**Methodological Orientation of *English Teaching* and *TESOL Quarterly***

Genres/Journal	English Teaching	TESOL Quarterly
Research texts	68 (84%)	60 (72%)
Quantitative	57 (71%)	25 (30%)
Qualitative	5 ( 6%)	27 (33%)
Mixed	6 ( 7%)	8 ( 9%)
Non-research texts	13 (16%)	23 (28%)
Total No.	81	83

In order to control for the methodological orientation of the data, qualitative studies were excluded because 57 out of 81 Korean research articles obtained from *English Teaching* were quantitative research texts and only five were qualitative studies. Another reason for this exclusion was that Swales' (1990) CARS model was originally developed from studying experimental research. In the case of the data drawn from *TESOL Quarterly*, it seemed to be unclear whether a particular writer was a native speaker of English or not. For this reason, an email was sent to each writer directly and to ask them to identify whether or not they were native English-speaking writers.

To have a better understanding of the preferred rhetorical patterns and styles in research article introductions, phone interviews/e-mail correspondences with experienced academic writers in the field of ESL/EFL were carried out (Anthony, 1999; Tarone, Dwyer & Icke, 1981). I obtained email addresses supplied by the journals and invited the writers to participate in my study. Three Korean scholars and five native English-speaking scholars accepted the invitation and responded to interview questions via e-mails. For further discussion, a phone interview was conducted with one Korean scholar and three native English-speaking scholars. The purpose of the interviews was to examine the discourse community members' views on appropriate rhetorical patterns and writing styles in research article introductions, and to get more insights into their own and others' perceptions of writing research article introductions in their discourse communities.

## 2. Data Analysis

For the analysis of rhetorical structure of research article introductions, Swales' (1990) CARS model was used. The category, value of the study, in Move 3 was added to the analysis as an additional step because this often appeared in the introductions of the research articles (Sun Lee, 2001). In analyzing the data, the classifications were made on the basis of linguistic items suggested by Swales. The unit of coding was mainly the sentence.

The use of citations in introductions was analyzed based on Bloch and Chi's (1995) and Jacoby's (1987) framework. Bloch and Chi (1995) categorize three different functions of citations used in research articles: Background, Support, or Critical. The only problem of this category was that the distinction between the Background and Support was blurred because citations that are used to provide background are likely to support a writer's argument. Thus, for this study, the two categories, Background and Support, were combined as Support. Support Citations are used to provide background information including definitions or to support the argument the writer is making, whereas Critical Citations are used to support points of disagreement or to indicate a gap. This study also observed a writer's stance toward the previous studies cited in the research article introductions, using Jacoby's (1987) proposed six positions as a tool for analyzing the various types of citations to previous research:

**TABLE 4**  
**The Evaluation/Originality Cline of Research Publication**

Evaluation of Predecessors	Claim for Originality
Previous research is <i>wrong</i> .	My research is completely original—doesn't link up with any tradition (may not be published).
Previous research is <i>mostly wrong</i> .	My research is highly original—quite different from what has gone before.
Previous research is <i>somewhat wrong</i> .	My research both fits in with tradition and departs from it in important ways.
Previous research is <i>not wrong</i> , but it has <i>missed ignored some things</i> .	My research fills in the gaps left by previous research.
Previous research is <i>essentially right, but can be extended</i> .	My research is an extension of a well-established tradition.
Previous research is <i>right and flawless</i> .	My research is not original (and may not be published), but it replicates/lends support to previous research.

For the second research question, the interview data was examined in relation to the two issues: rhetorical patterns and the use of citations in academic texts. Responses to the interviews were examined to identify similarities and differences in expert members' views on appropriate writing conventions and styles in each discourse community.

In order to overcome limitations of the researcher's subjectivity in analyzing data

(Crookes, 1986), and to ensure the validity of the interpretation of the data analysis, the results were discussed for consistency with an academic writing instructor who obtained a master’s degree in ESL education and uses the Swales’ (1990) CARS (Create A Research Space) model when teaching academic writing to non-native English writers. For the 10 Korean research articles, the results were checked with two raters: one Korean language instructor and one graduate student in the field of education. The results to be presented were based on those agreements.

#### IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of move analysis of research articles (hereafter RA) introductions are analyzed as follows: Korean RA introductions written by Korean writers (Table 5) and English RA introductions written by native English-speaking writers (Table 6). As shown in Table 5, nine out of ten Korean introductions contained all three moves; five of these introductions showed a linear move structure (Move 1-2-3), while the other four introductions showed a recursive structure.

**TABLE 5**  
**Rhetorical Structure of Korean Introductions Written by Korean Writers**

<b>Text No.</b>	<b>Author(s)’s Name</b>	<b>Move Structure</b>	<b>No. of words</b>	<b>No. of sentences</b>	<b>No. of paragraph</b>
ET1	Hong, Jin-ok (1999)	1-2-3	422	20	3
ET2	Yu, Jay-myung (1999)	1-2-1-2-1-2-1-3	696	34	6
ET3	Chung, Gill-jeong, Min, Chan-kyoo & Park, Mae-ran (1999)	1-2-3	145	4	1
ET4	Shin, Dong-il & Cho, Dong-wan (2000)	1-2-3	263	9	4
ET5	Kim, Young-suh (2000)	1-2-3	357	15	2
ET6	Yoo, Kyung-yeon & Lee, Chung-hyun (2002)	1-2-1-2-3	447	22	4
ET7	Lee, Ki-myung (2002)	1-2-3	296	16	3
ET8	Park, Young-ye (2003)	1-3	435	17	4
ET9	Lee, Jeong-won & Cho, Min-chul (2003)	1-2-1-3	255	8	3
ET10	Lee, Jae-hee (2003)	1-2-1-2-3	270	12	4
Average			358.5	15.7	3.4

\*Note. ET indicates *English Teaching* journal articles.

In the case of English introductions written by native English-speaking writers, nine out of ten introductions contained three moves; five of these introductions followed the

archetypical Move 1-2-3 structure; the other four introductions showed a cyclical pattern.

**TABLE 6**  
**Rhetorical Structure of English Introductions Written**  
**by Native English-Speaking Writers**

<b>Text No.</b>	<b>Author(s)'s Name</b>	<b>Move Structure</b>	<b>No. of words</b>	<b>No. of sentences</b>	<b>No. of paragraph</b>
TQ1	Collins et al. (1999)	1-2-3	442	12	3
TQ2	Chamberlin (2000)	1-2-3	300	11	2
TQ3	Gorsuch (2000)	3	144	4	1
TQ4	Youngs & Youngs (2001)	1-2-3-2-3	470	11	3
TQ5	Pickering (2001)	1-2-1-2-3	438	13	3
TQ6	Littlemore (2001)	1-2-3	522	15	3
TQ7	Biber <i>et al.</i> (2002)	1-2-3-1-2-3	389	14	3
TQ8	Turner & Upshur (2002)	1-2-1-2-3	279	10	2
TQ9	Kennedy (2003)	1-2-3	714	18	5
TQ10	Flowerdew (2003)	1-2-3	156	4	1
Average			385.4	11.2	2.6

\*Note. TQ indicates *TESOL Quarterly* journal articles

Overall, all three moves appeared in most introductions (18 out of 20 introductions) and the rhetorical structure of the introductions selected in this study seemed to fit the CARS model suggested by Swales (1990), although moves were repeated in some cases, as in 1-2-1-2-3. This cyclical pattern can be explained by a delayed introduction of the specific topic to be reported; authors in these introductions often began by introducing the broad research area such as listening comprehension or vocabulary learning in general terms, and then pointed out the needs for research in the current situation or a gap within the research area. Next, the authors introduced a narrow, specific topic such as learning strategies instruction for listening comprehension. Although most introductions selected for the present study contained all moves and conformed to the CARS model (either linear or recursive patterns), the preferred strategies in each move appeared to be different.

## 1. Rhetorical Structure and Citations in Introductions

### 1) Move 1: Establishing a Research Territory

Research article introductions often begin by establishing the significance of the research topic to “appeal to the discourse community whereby members are asked to accept that the research about to be reported is part of a lively, significant or well-established research area” (Swales, 1990, p. 144). Various strategies can be employed to accomplish the goal: showing

that the research area is important, central, interesting, or problematic; making a more general statement about knowledge or phenomena; or introducing and reviewing items of previous research in the area to support the claim that further research is needed. Table 7 shows the number of research article introductions which contain the three moves and their constituent steps.

In Korean introductions, the most preferred strategies in establishing a research territory were (a) making a general statement about current situations or knowledge in relation to foreign language education in Korea; and (b) claiming the importance of the research topic by referring to problematic situations such as negative aspects of current educational practices, rather than specifying that the research topic is part of an active research field.

The field of education seeks to reform with the changes of the times, and due to the development of technology along with the information era of 21<sup>st</sup> century and, there have been remarkable changes in education, especially in the field of English language education. Among various changes, two things are noticeable. One is a change in theory. The other one is a change in practical perspective. [ET3: S1-4]<sup>1</sup>

**TABLE 7**  
**Number of RAIs which Contain Three Moves and Constituent Steps**

Moves	Korean RAIs from English Teaching	English RAIs form TESOL Quarterly
MOVE 1		
-Claim centrality		
Importance in research	3	6
Importance in situations	6	4
-Topic generalization	8	2
-Reviewing previous research	9	6
MOVE 2		
-Indicating a gap in research	3	8
-Needs/desire for research <sup>2</sup>	7	4
-Raising questions	2	2
-Reviewing previous research	5	2
MOVE 3		
-Goal and nature of the study	10	10
-Value of the study	7	7
-Structure of the paper	1	0
-Reviewing previous research	0	1

\*Note. An introduction can contain more than one step and the number includes the repeated steps. This table is adopted from Samraj's (2002) study. RAI indicates research article introductions.

<sup>1</sup> Parenthesis includes information on the name of journal: ET (*English Teaching*) and TQ (*TESOL Quarterly*); the article number and sentence numbers of excerpt.

<sup>2</sup> An additional step, "needs/desires for the research," was added as a means of realizing Move 2, which was not included in Swales' model, but frequently appeared in the present study.

In order to establish the significance of the topic being discussed, native English speaking writers (8 out of 10) claimed that the research topic is important and that it represents a lively active research area. Positive lexical items were used to show the central claims such as *importance* or *significance*. This typical initial introduction was usually communicated in one or two sentences. Some linguistic components that signal Move 1 in the introductions are as follows:

Theory and practice suggest that the ability to acquire, produce, and interpret metaphors in the target language is important for language learning (e.g., Cameron & Low, 1999). Showing the significance of metaphor for comprehension and acquisition of vocabulary, Hoffman (1983) pointed out that ... [TQ6: S1-2]

As far as reviewing previous studies is concerned, most introductions included references in Move 1. One thing that Swales' model did not address was the location of the review of previous studies; Swales (1990) expected that the items of relevant literature would occur in Move 1. Some studies (e.g., Crookes, 1986; Samraj, 2002) have pointed to a cyclical pattern in introductions with instances of literature reviews followed by Move 2 or Move 3. In a similar vein, the current study found that reviewing items of relevant literature could occur in any part of the introduction (Move 2 or Move 3). Five Korean introductions included previous research in Move 2 and one English introduction included references to previous research in Move 3.

## 2) Move 2: Establishing a Niche

Move 2 is the key move in introductions because it is the turning point that connects what has been done (Move 1) to what the present research is about (Move 3). This move is also crucial in giving a rationale of the research to be reported. Move 2 of a research article introduction involves establishing a niche for the present research by using various strategies: by indicating a gap in the previous research; by raising questions; or by extending previous knowledge in some way (Swales, 1990). Among these, the most common strategy to establish a niche was to indicate a gap within the research area (e.g., Lopez, 1982; Swales, 1990).

However, some studies (e.g., Ahmad, 1997; Fredrickson & Swales, 1994; Jogthong, 2001) have suggested that indicating a gap is quite uncommon in research articles, especially those written in languages other than English, such as Swedish, Malay, or Thai. Other studies such as Sun Lee (2001) have reported that indicating a gap is common in research articles, but the gap tends to be indicated in the real world or the current situation,

rather than in the prior research. In a study of Korean research articles by Sun Lee (2001), it was found that Move 2 was present in Korean data, but the approach was different. This variation, which she calls *WM2* (weak version of Move 2), was used for establishing a niche for the study based on the educational situation of Korea, rather than on gaps in previous research. In a genre analysis of research article introductions from *Wildlife Behavior*, Samraj (2002) suggests that writers of *Wildlife Behavior* research article introductions establish a niche by pointing out a gap in earlier research, and also maintain the needs for their research through what she calls “*positive justification*” (p. 9). According to her, writers in the discipline tend to provide positive reasons for conducting the research.

In this study, Move 2 was clearly present in most introductions.

Most writers in this study seemed to favor (a) establishing a niche by pointing out a gap in earlier research or in the current situation; and (b) expressing the need for the research. In particular, the second step, the need for the research, frequently appeared in Korean introductions of Korean writers (7 out of 10). These writers tended to establish a niche by expressing the need for research as an ideal way of solving the current problems in foreign language education in Korea, rather than gaps in earlier research. As shown in the following examples, Korean writers stressed what should be done to alleviate the problems in the situation. The typical linguistic components in Korean introductions were ‘시급한 실정이다’ (urgent situation to investigate...), or ‘..할 필요가 있다’ (there is a need to investigate...):

Although many high schools (teachers) have made constant efforts and spent great amount of time for improving students’ listening skills, there has been little improvement on their listening skills, and thus it is urgent to conduct systematic research for effective teaching of listening comprehension. [ET9]

The most commonly used strategy to establish a niche in English introductions written by native English-speaking writers was reporting a lack of research by simply pointing out the insufficiency or the absence of research on the topic in the area of study. Out of 10 English introductions, 8 introductions indicated a gap in existing research. Some examples are as follows:

Despite the enthusiasm about and dedication to these practices, the field has largely overlooked the need for an understanding of the communicative context of ESL supervision. In particular, little is known about the dynamics of the teacher-supervisor relationship that serves as a foundation for effective professional development. [TQ2]

Our effort to describe and, more importantly, to identify predictors of teachers' attitudes is relatively rare. Within the extensive literature on ESL, comparatively little research has focused on ESL in mainstream classrooms (references given); even less research has specifically described mainstream teachers' attitudes toward ESL students (references given); and we found only two articles (both based on the same survey) that examined possible predictors of mainstream teachers' attitudes... [TQ4]

### 3) Move 3: Occupying the Niche

As a final move, the function of Move 3 is “to turn the niche established in Move 2 into the research space that justifies the present article” (Swales, 1990, p. 159). The crucial component in Move 3 is to make a statement of the purpose of the study. It may also include the announcement of principal findings, the overall structure of the research, or the value of the study. Some researchers have suggested disciplinary variations and cross-cultural differences: authors in the field of physics often announce principal findings in Move 3 (Swales & Najjar, 1987); writers in the field of software engineering include an evaluation of research (Anthony, 1999); Polish introductions tend to provide less information about the present research (Duszak, 1994); and Malay writers present the purpose of the study with a short and vague statement (Ahmad, 1997).

In this study, the most common strategy in Move 3 was announcing the goals of the study or implications of the research:

Therefore, this study is to investigate how the 7<sup>th</sup> English curriculum has been implemented in elementary schools... [ET8]

The purpose of this article is to explore aspects of how one group of degree adverbs—amplifiers—form collocations with other words in the British National Corpus (BNC), one of the largest and more representative corpora of a single variety of English currently available. [TQ9]

Another crucial component was to state the value of the study, for example, its practical applications for teachers. The emphasis in Move 3 was placed on the value of the research, rather than what the researchers are going to do in the study. Seven out of ten Korean introductions in this study reported that the research being presented has practical implications as a main purpose of the research and that the research can serve as a basis or foreground for a future study. Given the problematic situation, Korean scholars seemed to feel it necessary to conduct research to provide solid guidelines that teachers can

potentially use in their classrooms. Some examples are as follows:

The purpose of the study is to develop criteria of assessment that teachers can use in order to diagnose English achievement levels of elementary school students..., and the results of the study can be benefits from preventing problems... [ET10]

Similar to Korean introductions, native English-speaking writers in this study ended the text by reporting the value of the study (7 out of 10). This was stated very briefly or vaguely as shown in the following examples:

We wish to contribute to this effort by reexamining previously studied predictors and examining the importance of new predictors ... [TQ4]

In the hope of laying the groundwork for ultimately understanding and addressing metaphoric competence better in the ESOL classroom, the research reported in this article looks at whether metaphoric competence is a unitary concept... [TQ6]

This realization of the step is clearly discipline-dependent and journal-dependent. Two journals (i.e., *English Teaching* and *TESOL Quarterly*) selected for this study are concerned with language teaching in the field of ESL/EFL education. The intended audience includes not only researchers but also practitioners such as teachers or materials developers. Therefore, the crucial component in Move 3 is to provide practical implications that ESL/EFL professionals can apply in their own classrooms.

#### 4) Use of Citations

The review of previous research in a research article introduction is important; in fact, some minimal reference to previous research is obligatory in order to establish a rationale for a research topic. In writing a research article introduction, a writer needs to show what has been found so far, and acknowledge the researcher(s) by name, and possibly to take a stance towards the findings (Jacoby, 1987; Swales, 1990).

Korean introductions contained a small number of references; six out of ten introductions included less than four references; one had no references. Of ten English introductions from *TESOL Quarterly*, eight introductions included previous work; four of these had less than six references and the other four had more than ten references and two introductions contained no references. The total number of references in English

introductions (104) was higher than the number of references in Korean introductions (68).

Regarding the forms of citing previous work, Swales (1990) makes a distinction between *integral* and *non-integral* forms of citation. An *integral* citation (sentence (a)) is one including the name of the researcher in the actual citation as an element of the sentence, which may be used to draw attention to the cited researchers, whereas a *non-integral* citation (sentence (b)) shows the name of the researcher either in parenthesis or elsewhere, which may be used to highlight the author's argument (examples from Swales, 1990, p. 149):

(a) Brie (1988) showed that the moon is made of cheese.

(b) Previous research has shown that the moon is made of cheese (Brie, 1988).

As shown in the following Table, a non-integral form of citation was used more frequently than an integral form of citation in all introductions (78% in Korean and 84% in English from *TQ*). Six out of eight introductions from *TQ* contained zero or one integral citation. Most references occurred at sentence-final position as shown in the example:

Considerable research has been done in the 5-month massed program, and it has been found successful in terms of students' development of basic communication skills in English both at the end of their intensive course and in the long term (Dussault, 1997; Lightbown & Spada, 1991, 1994), students' attitudes towards learning English (Spada & Lightbown, 1989), ... [TQ1]

**TABLE 8**  
Number of Integral and Non-integral Citations Occurred in the Introduction Sections

No.	IC	NIC	TC	No.	IC	NIC	TC
ET1	2	1	3	TQ1	0	6	6
ET2	3	22	25	TQ2	0	3	3
ET3	0	3	3	TQ3	0	6	6
ET4	2	2	4	TQ4	0	39	39
ET5	2	9	11	TQ5	1	23	24
ET6	0	6	6	TQ6	4	10	14
ET7	3	1	4	TQ7	0	2	2
ET8	3	6	9	TQ8	0	0	0
ET9	0	2	2	TQ9	12	0	12
ET10	0	1	1	TQ10	0	0	0
Total(%)	15(22)	53(78)	68	Total(%)	17(16)	89(84)	106

\*Note. IC indicates integral form of citation; NIC indicates non-integral form of citation; TC indicates total number of citations. The total number of references included repeats.

Thus, a writer who wishes to publish a research study for the selected journals (*English Teaching* and *TESOL Quarterly*) may need to avoid an integral citation when writing the introduction section. A non-integral form of citation appears to be more acceptable in both journals.

Regardless of using integral or non-integral forms of citation, the purpose of the inclusion may function differently. Citations can be used to support the argument an author is making by providing background information (Bloch & Chi, 1995), or to indicate a gap in previous research (Swales, 1990). At the same time, a writer can take ‘a strongly critical stance’<sup>3</sup> towards previous studies by reporting that previous research can be wrong or partially wrong. A writer also can take ‘a mildly critical stance’ by reporting that previous research may not be wrong but it has missed some important thing, indicating that the present research fills in the gaps left by previous research. Finally, a writer can take ‘a supportive stance’ by reporting that previous research is basically right and indicates that the present research supports previous research as an extension of a well-established tradition (Jacoby, 1987).

In the study, the purpose of the citations in Korean introductions was often to support the argument that the writers were making. These writers tend to take a supportive stance by reporting that previous research is basically right and the present research supports earlier research as an extension of an established tradition (six Korean introductions). As shown in the example of ET2, when introducing previous researchers, the writer stated that the researchers have proposed the importance of using authentic language when developing materials. And he took a supportive stance by indicating that the study being reported is to lend support to the previous research:

Therefore, previous research proposes to use authentic language when developing materials (Cathcart, 1989; Holmes, 1988; Price, 1989; Scotton & Bernsten, 1988). Thus, it is necessary to compare languages used by native English speakers in the real world and languages contained in textbooks.  
[ET2]

In contrast to Korean introductions, the results of English introductions (seven from *TQ*) showed that authors were likely to take a slightly critical stance toward previous research by indicating that the previous research has missed something important. The writers in the following examples introduced what has been done in the past and then pointed out a gap in earlier research.

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<sup>3</sup> Jacoby (1987) categorized six types of stance that a writer may take when evaluating previous study and presenting a degree of originality of the research. I grouped them into three categories (a strongly critical stance, a mildly critical stance, and a supportive stance) based on the level of criticism.

The need to create a meaningful learning experience for teachers has directed attention to theories and models of supervision that encourage reflection through methods such as peer mentoring, coaching, and portfolio development, to name just a few (Holten & Brinton, 1995; Johnson, 1996; Nolan, 1991). Despite the enthusiasm about and dedication to these practices, the field has largely overlooked the need for an understanding of the communicative context of ESL supervision. [TQ1]

Although the citing writers pointed out the gaps left by previous studies, they attempted to avoid direct criticisms of specific researchers with evaluative terms, rather simply reporting that the previous research has missed something important and the present research to be reported will occupy the gap.

## 2. Discourse Community Members' Views on Writing Conventions

In addition to the rhetorical structure and citations in introductions of the research articles, this study attempts to explore Korean and English-speaking discourse community<sup>4</sup> members' views on writing conventions and styles in this genre via interviews. From email correspondence and interviews with the members, it was found that both Korean scholars and native English-speaking scholars in this study shared much in common, notably the purpose of the introduction section and the obligatory inclusion of citations:

In the introduction, I first describe the process of development in the research area or current situations related to the research topic. Certainly, I present relevant references of previous studies. And I explain how my study makes a step forward in the field with a description of validity of the study theoretically and practically. After that, I present hypotheses or research questions. [Kim<sup>5</sup>, Korean scholar]

I expect the introduction to clearly show what the issues are, why the research is being undertaken (Move 1), where it fits into other current work in the field (Move 2), and a pointer to what the article will show (Move 3). [Johnson, Native English-speaking scholar]

One thing to be noted was that the Korean scholar writing an introduction for a journal,

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<sup>4</sup> Discourse Community is defined as "sociorhetorical networks that form in order to work towards sets of common goals" (Swales, 1990, p. 9).

<sup>5</sup> Pseudonyms were used to protect potential privacy.

*English Teaching*, showed great interests and commitment to local research activity. As shown in the following remarks, she would first situate her research in the current local situations in Korea and then possibly located the research within the broad research field.

In order to highlight the necessity of the study, I often situate the study (in the introduction section) from two aspects. Firstly, why do certain issues become problematic in current situations? And; why is it urgent to examine the problem(s)? Secondly, are there any research studies that attempt to solve the problem(s) within the field? If so, summarize them briefly and indicate what we are missing... After that, I present what I am going to do at the end of the introduction. [Kim, Korean scholar]

On the other hand, the English-speaking scholar stated that a writer needs to be clear where the research to be reported stands within the field, which can possibly be accomplished by indicating a gap within the field (Swales, 1990).

An introduction should first situate the research study in the literature that the author wants to be identified with. It is an introduction to the literature and whether there is a gap... [Walker, Native English-speaking scholar]

Regarding the citations, both Korean and native English-speaking scholars in this study considered it obligatory to include references in the introduction section as shown in the following comments:

I think references are obligatory because the shortcomings of them make it meaningful and significant to conduct the study. ... [Choi, Korean scholar]

Because I attempt to begin by setting my work in the context of work done by other scholars I normally find it essential to cite or refer to their work.... [Cohen, Native English-speaking scholar]

The rationale of including references in the introduction by the Korean scholar in this study was to justify the research by presenting previous related studies. On the other hand, for a native English-speaking scholar in this study, previous studies can be presented to indicate a gap which the research to be reported will occupy.

I introduce references in a research article introduction. In order to justify my study, it is necessary and effective to survey previous relevant studies. And

although I can discuss the shortcomings in the literature, I often summarize what has been done and describe how my study can advance the field. [Lee, Korean scholar]

I'd prefer to survey the state of the art, and then point out gaps that can be addressed by the current paper. [Johnson, Native English-speaking scholar]

As discussed in the previous section, a relatively small number of references were included in Korean introductions. This can be explained by lack of resources and limited access to the literature (Taylor & Chen, 1991). It seems to be challenging for the writers to obtain what they wish to include in their research.

There were no articles available (in Korea) that I was looking for ... very important ones (directly related to the research). I could find some general references...but... It would be ideal to have important sources when writing a research article... but hard to find what I need, (specifically relevant to the research in Korea)... [Kim, Korean scholar]

Generally, both Korean scholars and native English-speaking scholars in this study appeared to share much in common in terms of the nature of the introduction section and the obligatory inclusion of citations. A difference observed was that Korean scholars in this study attempted to situate their study in current circumstances, whereas native English speaking writers attempted to situate the study within the field.

## V. CONCLUSION

The present study was to investigate cultural and linguistic differences in academic research article introductions written by Korean writers and native English-speaking writers, and to explore the rationale behind the writing conventions via interviews with discourse community members in the field of ESL/EFL education. The results indicated that Swales' (1990) move structure effectively explained the rhetorical pattern of the introduction section of the research articles analyzed in this study. In comparing the two groups, an evident difference was observed in preference of moves. Korean writers appeared to favor making general statements about current problematic situations as a beginning strategy and to express the needs for the research as an ideal way of solving the problematic situations, whereas native English-speaking writers attempted to situate the research within the field, and highlighted the importance of the research topic as an

opening strategy, and often indicated a gap in the research area. A possible reason for Korean writers to focus on immediate national needs is that there may be no need for the writers to be competitive about situating their work within a research context. Instead, there is a great need for the research to meet urgent local needs, aiming at local practitioners or researchers of the national academic community. Concerning the use of citations, a strongly critical stance towards previous study is often avoided by academic writers in this study, which may give an impression of being too arrogant or too assertive.

Evidently, further studies for the analysis of research articles should be extended to other sections of the texts such as the discussion or results sections. This genre-specific research can serve as guidelines in the development of academic literacy practices, especially in the development of writing manuals for academic purposes or professional purposes. Activities can be drawn from a comparison and contrast between a research article from a journal and one from a different journal (Swales & Feak, 2004). Students can be asked to bring research texts in their own fields and asked to analyze the typical rhetorical structure of a genre on the basis of the CARS model and the use of citations in the genre. Students from different disciplines could encourage developing an awareness of the different writing conventions and styles between their own disciplines and other disciplines. However, it is possible to mislead students into believing that the prototypical structure of the discourse is a fixed rhetorical form. We need to encourage students to look at a genre in many ways: why writers use certain linguistic features; what strategies writers choose to achieve their communicative goals (Bhatia, 1993); and how and why genres differ across disciplines or cultures. We also need to encourage students to explore what different strategies they can use to write more rhetorically effective research texts.

The present study is a very limited study restricted to a single discipline with a small amount of data. Further research should be extended to other genres such as grant proposals, laboratory reports, or conference abstracts and should be extended to other fields to see how other disciplines vary in the genre. This study attempted to reach an agreement through negotiation with raters as well as interviews with discourse members in the communities in order to ensure the validity of the interpretation of the data analysis. Although this study seeks to explore probabilities rather than certainties, it should be noted that subjectivity may be undermined in the process of analyzing the written data in the study.

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