RHETORICAL STRUCTURE ANALYSIS OF THE INDONESIAN RESEARCH ARTICLES

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Except where it is otherwise acknowledged in the text,
this thesis represents the original work of the author.

SAFNIL
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This thesis discusses rhetorical features of Indonesian research articles (RAs) in three disciplinary areas: Economics, Education and Psychology. These were written by Indonesian speakers and published mainly in university-based scientific journals. The main focus of this thesis is on the examination of the patterns of communicative purposes or ‘Moves’ and their subsequent elements or ‘Steps’ of the introduction sections of these articles. The analyses include the examination of communicative purposes and persuasive values of the texts, linguistic resources used to materialise the communicative purposes and persuasions, and the cultural factors (ie. norms, beliefs and values) and scientific practices and academic writing conventions underlying the specific rhetorical features.

This study found that the macro rhetorical structure of the Indonesian RAs (ie. the Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion or IMRD pattern) is relatively similar to that of the English RAs except that, unlike in English RAs, the conclusion and suggestion section in the Indonesian RAs have a separate section. However, the communicative purposes and persuasions in the introduction sections in the two groups of the RAs (English and Indonesian) are relatively different. Differences are also found in the way that rhetorical works use the linguistic resources to materialise the communicative purposes and persuasions in the introduction sections of the two groups of RAs. Some of the rhetorical differences are because of the differences in the research
practices and scientific writing conventions in Indonesian and in English speaking countries, while others are because of cultural differences reflected in the two languages.

The pedagogical implication of this study is that the Indonesian RA genre needs to be explicitly taught to Indonesian students, particularly university students in order to give them more access to the content of Indonesian research, and to develop skills needed by Indonesian researchers and research writers. For this purpose, an appropriate approach needs to be developed; that is to teach the generic features of Indonesian RAs such as those in social sciences written in Bahasa Indonesia or Indonesian.
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<thead>
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<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BI</td>
<td>Bahasa Indonesia ‘Indonesian’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RA</td>
<td>Research Article</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PDK</td>
<td>Pendidikan dan Kebudayaan (Ministry of National Education of Indonesia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EDU</td>
<td>Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PSY</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DPP/SPP</td>
<td>Dana Pembiayaan Pendidikan/ Sumbangan Pembiayaan Pendidikan (literary means tuition fee)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OPF</td>
<td>Operasi Pemeliharaan dan Fasilitas ‘Maintenance and Facility Operation’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WB</td>
<td>World Bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMRD</td>
<td>Introduction Methods Results and Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMRDC</td>
<td>Introduction Methods Results and Discussion and Conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GSP</td>
<td>Generic Structure Potential</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS</td>
<td>Schematic Structure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESP</td>
<td>English for Specific Purposes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CARS</td>
<td>Create A Research Space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US/USA</td>
<td>The United States of America</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ESL</td>
<td>English for a Second Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EFL</td>
<td>English for a Foreign Language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IR</td>
<td>Integral Reporting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NIR</td>
<td>Non-integral Reporting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INR</td>
<td>Integral Non-reporting</td>
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<tr>
<td>NINR</td>
<td>Non-integral Non-reporting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prg</td>
<td>Paragraph</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td>Sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PJP</td>
<td>Problem Justifying Project</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>RQ</td>
<td>Research Question</td>
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<td>PJM</td>
<td>Project Justifying Model</td>
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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Bahasa Indonesia (Indonesian)

Since Indonesian independence on the 17th of August in 1945, shortly after the second
World War, Indonesian or Bahasa Indonesia (hereafter referred to as BI) has been
formally used as the national and official or state language in Indonesia. According to
Halim (1976), as a national language BI functions as: (1) a symbol of national pride, (2)
a national identity, (3) a unifying language and 4) a means of inter-regional and inter-
ethnic communication in Indonesia, while as a state language BI functions as: (1) an
official language for the government, (2) a means of instruction in schools, (3) a means
of communication among the local governments of Indonesia, and (4) a means of
developing culture, science and technology. In other words, since Indonesian
independence BI has obtained a multi-functional status in Indonesia.

Priyohutomo (1980) claims that Indonesian people have no problem with the use
of BI as a national and state language as there is no rival ethnic or foreign language
which could threaten the use of BI in Indonesia. This is because this language has been
used as a ‘lingua franca’ in the Indonesian archipelago for quite a long time and even
used as a political and educational language beside the Dutch during the Dutch
colonialism (Abas 1987). Therefore, since Indonesian independence the use of BI has
spread widely throughout the country and in a wide variety of contexts.
The use of BI for education at all levels has particularly facilitated and encouraged the use of BI as a means of communication among scholars in scientific contexts. Indonesian scholars or scientists, for example, have been using BI to write and publish scientific papers, books, essays, theses or dissertations, research reports and other kinds of scientific texts even before Indonesian became independence. These written language products are unlikely to be written and/or published in a local or regional language in Indonesia. However, the formal requirement for the use of BI as an academic language was not introduced until the second Indonesian Language Congress held in Jakarta in 1954 -- ten years after Indonesian independence was proclaimed (Puar 1980). Puar further claims that the congress produced three regulations concerning the role of BI as an academic language: (1) BI functions as a scientific language; (2) a conducive environment must be created so that the language can satisfy the needs of scientific communication; and (3) such an environment can only become possible as the result of a political decision. In other words, Indonesian language development must include an attempt to develop BI into a standard scientific language with a set of scientific language criteria.

1.2. Bahasa Indonesia in Scientific Communicative Events

Apart from being a language of education at all levels (primary, secondary and tertiary), BI has also become the only language used in scientific communicative events such as, seminars, conferences, discussions and congresses carried out by private professional organisations or by government institutions. It is very unlikely that these scientific gatherings at local, regional or national levels will be carried out in a local or ethnic language; and they are almost always done using BI as means of communication even if all the participants of the communicative events come from the same ethnic
group. The use of BI for such scientific gatherings is evidence that BI is capable of serving as a scientific language in spoken form for the Indonesian people.

BI is the only language commonly used in scientific publications, research reports, research grant proposals, journal articles, books, etc. Such scientific printed materials are again very unlikely to be published in a local or ethnic language, even if written for a particular ethnic group in Indonesia. In addition, BI is also the only language used to translate books or other materials printed in foreign languages; this is mainly done for educational purposes (Simatupang 1980). Translation projects, according to Simatupang, had begun even before the First-World-War, but the books translated into BI were mainly in the fields of language and the arts. Thus, although there are hundreds of local or ethnic languages spoken in Indonesia, BI is the only language commonly used for scientific communication (written and/or oral) by the Indonesians in Indonesia.

1.3. Bahasa Indonesia in Scientific Journal Articles

In Indonesia, as elsewhere, all scientists or researchers are encouraged to publish their scientific work in order to gain wider acknowledgment in the scientific community; therefore, a Research Article (hereafter referred to as RA) has become the standard product of the knowledge-manufacturing industries (Swales 1990). Like in other countries, scientific journals have become a major communication means for Indonesian scientists and scholars. In 1993, for example, there were about 181 scientific journals published in BI, mainly by universities throughout Indonesia in 35 different disciplinary areas (PDK 1993). The fields and the number of the journals in each field are shown in Table 1. The frequency of journal publication ranges from once to twelve times a year but the majority of the journals are published quarterly. Apart from these academic journals, there are other scholarly journals published by professional
organisations, such as by the Indonesian Psychiatric Organisation, the Indonesian Economic Association, etc.; and other government institutions such as the Indonesian Institute of Science, Ministry of Agriculture, Ministry of Education and Culture and Cooperative Ministry. The large number of scientific journals published in BI shows that there is a very large scientific discourse community in Indonesia made up of people who are actively participating in producing and processing RAs; this makes RAs an important scientific genre in BI.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Disciplinary Fields</th>
<th>Number of Journals</th>
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<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>Multi-disciplinary</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>30</td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>Sport</td>
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<td>4.</td>
<td>Environment</td>
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<td>5.</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>6.</td>
<td>Marine Biology</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>Anthropology</td>
<td>2</td>
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<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>Public Health</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>9.</td>
<td>Nutrition</td>
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<td>10.</td>
<td>Applied Technology</td>
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<td>11.</td>
<td>General Medical</td>
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<td>14.</td>
<td>Pharmacology</td>
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<td>15.</td>
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<td>18.</td>
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<td>19.</td>
<td>Computer and Information Technology</td>
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<td>Hard and Natural Sciences</td>
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<td>35.</td>
<td>Economics</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>181</td>
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</table>

Table 1: Scientific Journals Published in BI (From PDK 1993: 3)
As a large and important scientific genre in Indonesia, RAs published in BI should receive priority in development programs for BI. Studies of the rhetorical features of these texts in BI, for example, are necessary in order to determine the common features of the texts. This is because knowledge on the rhetorical features of RAs in BI, in any field, is important for developing shared background knowledge of schemata for members of academic communities. Shared schemata are important for effective communication among the discourse community members, for introducing the RA genre to the new members of the community, and for educational purposes.

The large number of scientific journals published in BI has become possible because of the rapid increase in the number of research projects carried out particularly by university lecturers in Indonesia (PDK 1993 and Rifai 1995). The increasing number of research projects is the result of an increase in the number and amount of research grants provided by the Indonesian government and other research sponsors, such as DPP/SPP, OPF and the World Bank (PDK 1993). The research funding institutions and the amount of funds allocated for research projects in the period of 1987/88 to 1990/1991 are presented in Figure 1.

DPP/SPP research grants, the biggest research fund in Indonesia, as shown in Figure 1, come from the tuition fees of university students, while OPF research grants come from annual university budgets. These two research grant schemes are usually allocated for small scale research projects carried out by newly recruited university lecturers. World Bank (WB) research grants, on the other hand, are allocated for larger scale research projects, such as projects for scientific and technology development or those supporting the country’s development programs. These research projects are normally carried out by more experienced or senior researchers (Lubis 1994).
1.4. Motivation for this Study

The main motivation for this study has come from a pedagogical concern particularly in the tertiary education. Indonesian university students need to read journal articles, especially RAs in BI as part of their reading work-load in tertiary education units, such as in preparing materials for writing essays or theses towards the end of their undergraduate program. If they are familiar with the rhetorical features of the Indonesian RAs, then they will be able to read and write academic texts more effectively and efficiently. According to Carrell (1983) and Crooks (1986), a knowledge of text schemata helps readers not only in comprehension but also in production of such texts. In other words, student readers’ prior knowledge (schemata) of the rhetorical features of Indonesian RAs will help them establish expectations about the RAs. For example, before they read these texts they already have expectation about what kinds of
information can be found in the texts, where they usually appear in the texts and what will be the sequence of the different types of information in the texts.

Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) illustrate that entering a specific discourse community is like entering a new culture; to develop a communicative competence in this particular type of discourse involves a mastery of ways of processing and producing the discourse. This is because scholarly or scientific texts published in scientific journals usually represent a distinct scientific community (see Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995). The journal editors set constraints and establish expectations based on a consensus about forms and styles which all writers must follow. This consensus may be different from the one made by other discourse communities and this will make forms and styles of RAs different from those of other scientific genres. Thus, since university students may not yet have been introduced to or exposed to RAs in their previous educational experience, they need to be introduced to the rhetorical features of RAs when entering the tertiary education system.

Another pedagogical motivation for this study comes from the needs of the large number of Indonesian students studying in English speaking countries. These students, particularly at post-graduate levels, are expected and encouraged to read journal articles in English as part of their course assignments or as preparation for their theses and for essay writing. If they are already familiar with the similarities and differences in the rhetorical features of the RAs in the two languages (English and Indonesian), they can make necessary adaptations to their reading strategies. With the appropriate strategies, their reading processes in the foreign language will be more successful.

From a language production point of view, this study has been motivated by the need for Indonesian researchers and scholars to publish their scientific work. These researchers and scholars are expected to publish their scientific work so that it can be implemented in practical terms (Rifai 1995); and only by publishing or circulating
scientific work to a wider audience, can it become economically beneficial (Republika 1999). For these purposes, Indonesian researchers and scholars need to be familiar with the rhetorical features of scientific articles, especially the RAs published in BI, because a knowledge of the rhetorical features of this particular text type will help researchers to produce texts acceptable to the Indonesian scientific discourse community in a particular field or discipline. However, since RA publication in Indonesia is still in its early stages, the rhetorical features of RA in BI may not yet be established (Rifai 1995). Therefore, according to Rifai, all aspects of scientific journal publication in BI, including the rhetorical features of RAs, should be examined in order to find the common rhetorical features of Indonesian RAs in any disciplinary field.

Yet another motivation for this study has come from a concern in regard to development programs for BI. Although language-related studies of BI have been done not only in Indonesia by Indonesian linguists but also outside Indonesia, such as in Europe, America and Australia by international linguists (Alieva, et al. 1991); these studies have mainly dealt with the basic linguistic aspects of BI, such as morphology and syntax (Kridalaksana 1996). Kridalaksana goes on to suggest that studies of BI should also go beyond the basic linguistic aspects of the language, and to focus on the use of the language in various contexts (ie. sociolinguistic aspects of BI), in order to discover the maximum internal potential of the language when used in various contexts and in various registers and genres.

Finally, discourse analytic studies are relatively new in Indonesia. They were introduced in the late 1970s or early 1980s by anthropologists, sociologists, and political scientists (Oetomo 1993). Consequently, there have been only a very small number of discourse-related studies ever carried out on BI and discourse analytic studies of BI seem to have been neglected (Soepomo 1985). According to Soepomo, the best way to begin a discourse study is to analyse written BI. This is done by examining specific
expressions, topical patterns and information structure characterising a particular genre. Moeliono (1988) suggests that language development programs should focus on written language because written texts are more permanent than are the spoken ones. Responding to Soepomo’s comments, this study is an attempt to fill in some of the gaps in our knowledge about the features of the RA genre in modern written Indonesian, with a particular focus on RAs that are in the social sciences.

1.5. The Aims of the Study

The main aim of this study is to examine the common rhetorical features and the communicative purposes of introduction sections of the Indonesian RAs in three different fields of discipline: Economics, Education and Psychology. These articles are published in Indonesian scientific journals and written by Indonesian. This study aims to address the following research questions:

1) What are the main sections and sub-sections commonly found in the Indonesian RAs in social sciences, and what are their communicative purposes?

2) What are the common rhetorical features (if there are any) in the introduction sections of the Indonesian RAs?

3) How do the introduction sections of Indonesian RAs in social sciences differ from and/or resemble those of the English RAs in terms of their rhetorical features and communicative purposes; and

4) From a cultural perspective, and from research and academic writing points of view why do such rhetorical differences and/or similarities occur?
1.6. Dissertation Outline

Chapter Two provides a review of relevant previous studies. This chapter will specifically discuss the concept of genre as a social communicative action or event as expressed by functional language theorists and analysts in the field of applied linguistics. The main objective of Chapter Two is to establish theoretical and practical concepts of genre and to use these concepts to examine research articles (RAs) as a genre in an academic context. Comparison between the notions of genre and register will also be discussed in this chapter. Relevant contrastive rhetorical studies of academic genres and also studies relevant to research articles will be reviewed, in order to establish an understanding of the rhetorical features of research articles (particularly the introduction sections of RAs).

Chapter Three will discuss the approach and methodology utilised in this study. First the corpus of the RAs used as the data for this study will be described and the reasons for the choice of the data will be discussed. Secondly, data analysis techniques will be discussed and exemplified. Third, a step-by-step research procedure will be detailed and the validity of the results will be discussed.

Chapter Four will describe the macro organisational structure of Indonesian RAs (Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussions and Conclusion sections or IMRDC) in the corpus for this study. This chapter will particularly discuss the rhetorical features and the communicative functions or purposes of the five main sections, Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion and Conclusion (IMRDC).

Chapter Five focuses on the application of one of the most widely used rhetorical analysis models (the CARS model) with Indonesian RA introductions. The main objective of this chapter is to evaluate the level of effectiveness and applicability of the CARS model for capturing the specific rhetorical features and communicative
purposes of introduction sections of Indonesian RAs. In this chapter, the similarities and differences between the rhetorical features and communicative purposes of Indonesian RA introductions and those of the English RA introductions will also be discussed.

Chapter Six is devoted to the development of an adapted rhetorical analysis model to account for the introduction sections of Indonesian RAs. The main objective of this chapter is to evaluate the level of effectiveness and applicability of this model for capturing the specific rhetorical features (eg. communicative purposes, persuasive values, etc.) in the introduction sections of the Indonesian RAs.

Chapter Seven will summarise the principle findings of the study. Possible pedagogical implications of the study will be suggested, especially in the area of teaching Indonesian and English RA writing to Indonesian university students and researchers, and including comprehension as well as for production purposes. In this final chapter, the limitations of the study will also be discussed, and suggestions for further study in relevant disciplinary areas will be made.
CHAPTER TWO

THE NOTIONS OF GENRE IN
APPLIED LINGUISTICS CONTEXTS

2. 1. Introduction
This chapter discusses the concept of genres as a social communicative action or event as proposed by functional language theorists or analysts in the field of applied linguistics. The main objective of this chapter is to establish the theoretical and practical concepts of genre and to use this concept to examine research articles (RAs) as an established genre in an academic or scientific context. Comparison between the notion of genre and register will also be discussed in this chapter and so will relevant contrastive rhetorical studies of academic or scientific genres. Studies relevant to research articles will be reviewed in order to establish an understanding of the rhetorical features of research articles, particularly the features found in the introduction section of RAs.

2. 2. Text and Context
Texts (spoken or written) can be simply defined as words used to communicate in a particular context (Schourup and Cauldwell 1995), but the concept of context and the relationship between text and context are more complex, and therefore, need detailed discussion. There have been many definitions of context suggested in order to discuss its inter-relationship with text. Kathpalia (1992), for example, suggests that contexts refer to both texts appearing before and after a particular text, to what goes beyond the
text, and to the total environment in which the text occurs. In other words, Kathpalia perceives context as linguistic and non-linguistic material directly or indirectly related to a particular text which is necessary for the comprehension and production processes of a particular text. Kathpalia (1992:69) goes on to claim,

Written or spoken texts do not exist in a vacuum environment but are anchored in a particular environment with its particular accompanying circumstances. These circumstances exert a certain influence upon the realisation of the texts at various levels and in varying degrees.

Kathpalia explains that some environmental features of texts may influence the textual form or features at the macro level (eg. the patterns of organisation of ideas in the text) while other features may influence it at the micro level (eg. syntactic and lexical features of the text).

Another attempt to define context from a text comprehension point of view has been made by Meinhof and Richardson (1994) who suggest that the meaning of a particular text is partly determined by the contextual environment within which the text is located. Meinhof and Richardson demonstrate that the same sentence may be interpreted or understood differently if it appears in different environments (eg. in a novel, in a textbook, or in newspaper). For Meinhof and Richardson, context can mean anything from a global social structure to immediate social situation or to the immediate textual environment of a text.

A definition of context from both production and comprehension perspectives is suggested by Johns (1997). She explains that context refers not only to the linguistic environment where a text exists, such as a textbook, novel or a journal, but also to non-linguistic or non-textual elements that contribute to the situations in which the production and comprehension of the text are accomplished. According to Johns, when someone speaks to a person, the spoken text produced and the events going on around him or her may affect the processes of speaking and/or listening; these are considered as
context. However, Johns reminds us that these events can be enormous in number and various in type and some of them might not be relevant for text interpretation or production. Therefore, for Johns, context only refers to the linguistic and non-linguistic elements that are necessary for both interactants to accomplish their communicative purpose through language.

Kress (1985:18) has described the nature of the relationship between text and context from a semiotic perspective, and says:

Texts arise in specific social situations and they are constructed with specific purposes by one or more speakers or writers. Meanings find their expression in text - though their origins of meanings are outside the text - and are negotiated (about) in texts, in concrete situations of social change. These social situations ... determine the form of the resulting text and from the conventionalised forms of such situations or occasions then ... a conventionalised forms of text arise.

According to Kress and Hodge (1979), the interaction between text and context is seen in the form of connection between language and society. Therefore, as Kress and Hodge suggest, any description of the linguistic form of a text is meaningless unless it brings together the broader social context or the social occasion of the text. Thus, without immediate and direct relations to the social context, the forms and functions of language cannot be fully explicable or interpretable.

In summary, from the above definitions and discussions of context and its inter-relationship with text several important points can be drawn:

1) Context refers both to the linguistic and non-linguistic elements in the environment of a particular text which are necessary for successful text production and comprehension processes;

2) Context refers only to the linguistic and non-linguistic elements in its environment which are necessary for the text to accomplish its communicative purpose;

3) Context affects the processes of text production and comprehension; in production processes, context partly determines the linguistic and non-linguistic forms of a particular text while in comprehension processes, context partly determines the meaning of the text; and
4) The meaning of text comes partly from context; therefore, the readers’ or listeners’ understanding of context is necessary for an accurate interpretation of text.

Two different kinds of non-linguistic contexts: context of situation and context of culture have been introduced by functional linguists in studies of text and context and their inter-relationship from text production and comprehension point of views. In the following section, the concept of these two types of context will be discussed.

2. 2. 1. Context of Situation and Context of Culture

It was the anthropologist Bronislaw Malinowski (1949) who first suggested a type of non-linguistic environment for a text called ‘Context of Situation’ referring to the direct environment of a particular text and ‘Context of Culture’ referring to the cultural history behind the participants and the kind of practices that the speakers are engaging in. In order to explain the emergence of the notion of context of situation and culture, Malinowski recounts a story about when he joined the people from the group of islands in South Pacific and the Trobriand islands in fishing expeditions. During the expeditions, Malinowski not only recorded the language used by the fishermen among themselves in their canoes and their communication with their colleagues on the shore, but also noted the events which happened during the conversation.

Malinowski (1949) found it difficult to interpret the fishermen’s recorded language (text) although he spoke the language, was acquainted with the grammar of the language and had information about the events going on during the expeditions. He illustrates the complexity of the fishermen’s language saying,

All the language used during such a pursuit is full of technical terms, short of references to surroundings, rapid indications of change - all based on customary types of behaviour, well known to the participants from personal experience. Each utterance is essentially bound up with the context of situation and with the aim of the pursuit, whether it be the short indications about the movements of the quarry, or references to statements about the surroundings, or the expression of feeling and passion inexorably bound up with behaviour, or words with
command, or correlation of action. The structure of all this linguistic material is inextricably mixed up with, and dependent upon, the course of the activity in which the utterances are embedded. The vocabulary, the meaning of the particular words used in their characteristic technicality is not less subordinate to action. For technical language, in matters of practical pursuit, acquires its meaning only through personal participation in this type of pursuit. It has to be learned, not through reflection but through action (pp: 311-312).

In other words, the recorded text is only part of the whole action of the fishing expedition, and the other part consists of all the events going on during the expedition. Malinowski, then, claims that language among the primitive or non-civilised people was not used as a reflection of thought but as the background of human activities and as a mode of human behaviour in practical matters. According to Malinowski (1935), the main function of language for these people was to play an active pragmatic part in human behaviour; for these people, language was one of the chief cultural forces and an addition to bodily activities. Therefore, as Malinowski suggests, in order to understand a text, such as the fishermen’s language, one needs to understand not only the events going on during the fishing expeditions (context of situation) but also the total cultural background adopted by the people (context of culture).

Halliday and Hasan (1985), agreeing with Malinowski, suggest that these two kinds of contexts: context of situation and context of culture are important in order to be able to successfully understand and interpret the meaning of a particular text as a manifestation of a particular action in a particular culture. However, Firth (1957) found Malinowski’s early work on context of situation not to be sufficiently general for a linguistic theory. According to Firth, Malinowski only studied the language used in a very specific and practical way in which vocal interchange is just part of the job of the work in hand, such as fishing, hunting, loading a truck, or the co-operative handling of tools and materials. Firth notes,

A great deal of conversation or discussion may also be in preparation for concerted or socially determined action. All the language in public
administration and government may be said to be the language of planning and regulation, the language of public guidance. The subsequent discussion of success or failure may be regarded both as phatic communion and as a situation in which something planned is either accomplished or ends in failure. (p: 30)

In other words, other uses of language, such as greeting, leave-taking and addressing, or language used in churches, law courts and offices are used as much for phatic communication or social interaction as they are to accomplish a particular intended purpose.

Firth (1957) developed the theoretical setting for a systemic description of the context of situation by extending Malinowski’s concept of context of situation, which, as he believes, could be used for the study of texts as part of a general linguistic theory. Firth’s theoretical setting includes four important features of the context:

1) The participants in the situation: these are the persons and personalities corresponding to what sociologists would regard as the statuses and roles of the participants;

2) The action of the participants which refer to what they are doing including both their verbal and non-verbal actions;

3) Other relevant features of the situation, which refer to the surrounding objects and events related to the text; and

4) The effects of the verbal action which refer to the changes brought about by what the participants in the situation had to say.

(From Halliday and Hasan 1985: 8)

Since this time, the study of the relationship between text and context has attracted a major interest among functional linguists and, consequently, there have been a number of other theories which have suggested further development of Malinowski’s concept of context of situation.

Dell Hymes, an American anthropologist, was another theorist who has also extended the concept of context of situation proposed by Malinowski. Hymes (1967),
for example, suggests that the context of situation of a particular text should be identified in terms of the following parameters:

- the form and content of the message,
- the setting or scene,
- the participants or personnel,
- the intention and effect of the communication,
- the key,
- the instrumentalities,
- the genres, and
- the norms of interaction and of interpretation.

(From Hymes 1967: 20-25)

However, according to Halliday and Hasan (1985), Hyme’s concept of context of situation is similar to the one developed by Firth. Hymes’ features of context of situation, as Halliday and Hasan further argue, can be used as a checklist or a taxonomy for ethnographers or linguists to develop a detailed account of the nature of a communicative event.

Halliday and Hasan (1985) themselves have also developed the concept of context of situation further and suggest three important features of the context: the field, tenor and mode. They say,

1) The **FIELD OF DISCOURSE** refers to what is happening, to the nature of the social action that is taking place: what is it that the participants are engaged in, in which the language figures as some essential component?

2) The **TENOR OF DISCOURSE** refers to who is taking part, to the nature of the participants, their status and roles; what kinds of role relationship obtain among the participants, including permanent and temporary relationships of one kind or another, both the type of speech role that they are taking on in the dialogue and the whole cluster of socially significant relationships in which they are involved?

3) The **MODE OF DISCOURSE** refers to what part the language is playing, what it is that the participants are expecting the language to do for them in that situation: the symbolic organisation of the text, the status that it has, and its function in the context, including the channel and also the rhetorical mode, what is being achieved by the text in terms of such categories as persuasive, expository, didactic, and the like.

(From Halliday and Hasan 1985:12).
Halliday and Hasan explain how the features of context of situation can be implemented and realised in real texts. They suggest, for example, the model in Figure 2 in order to show how the context of situation is actualised in the grammar or textual features of a particular text. The context of situation of a particular text (field, tenor and mode) in Halliday and Hasan’s view is mainly actualised through words which, at the same time, manifest the basic ideas of the text. However, as shown in Figure 2, the context of situation can also be realised by the grammatical features of the text such as transitivity, mood and modality, cohesive devices, types of clauses, and so on.

Halliday and Hasan also illustrate how the contextual features (field, tenor and mode) work in everyday situations. They say, when someone is about to join a conversation, he/she has to make predictions about the conversation in terms of field (ie., recognising what is going on), tenor (ie., recognising the personal relationships involved in the conversation), and mode (ie., recognising what is being achieved by means of language in the conversation). This needs to be done, according to Halliday and Hasan, in order for the person to quickly achieve success when engaging in the conversation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Situation</strong>: Feature of the context</th>
<th>Realised by</th>
<th><strong>Text</strong>: Functional components of semantic system</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Field of discourse (what is going on)</td>
<td>Experiential meanings (transitivity, naming, etc)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tenor of discourse (who are taking part)</td>
<td>Interpersonal meanings (mood, modality, person, etc.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mode of discourse (role assigned to language)</td>
<td>Textual meanings (theme, information, cohesive relations)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2: Relation of the text to the context of situation
(From Halliday and Hasan 1985:26)
Contextual features (field, tenor, and mode) may vary from one type of communicative event to another (Halliday and Hasan 1985). The contextual features of a casual conversation in a restaurant, for instance, will be different from those of a formal speech, such as a lecture or a sermon and this corresponds to the different features of the texts. This is because, as Halliday, MacIntosh, and Strevens (1964:87) claim, “Language varies as its function varies; it differs in different situation”. For this purpose, Halliday and Hasan (1985) suggest that the concept of a variety of a language is necessary when discussing the context-text variations in language use. For this purpose, Halliday and Hasan propose the concept of ‘register’.

### 2.2.2. The Notion of Register in Discourse Studies

According to Beaugrande (1993), the term ‘register’ was not used in early linguistic foundational works, such as those of linguists like Saussure, Sapir, and Bloomfield, and there was not even any term that could be considered roughly equivalent to the term register. Beaugrande claims that it was Michael Halliday together with his associates who developed the term register in functional linguistic analysis and who made it popular, although Halliday himself was not the first to use this term. According to Leckie-Tarry (1995), it was Read who used the term ‘register’ for the first time in 1956.

Halliday (1978) suggests that the purpose of the concept of register is to ‘uncover the general principles which govern the variation in situational types, so that we can begin to understand what situational factors determine what linguistic features’ (p:32). Halliday defines register as,

... the set of meanings, the configuration of semantic patterns, that are typically drawn upon under the specified conditions, along with the words and structures that are used in the realisation of these meanings. Register is determined by
what is taking place, who is taking part and what part the language is playing.
(p:28)

In other words, the theory of register aims to examine the relationship between language function, which is determined by situational or social factors, and language form. But surprisingly, as Beaugrande (1993) points out, because of the difficulties of identifying the controlling factors in the register, very little is known about the nature of the variation involved in register.

The central question in register studies, according to Beaugrande (1993), is how the concept of register can deal with the relationship between textual features and the abstract categories of speech situation. Beaugrande explains that, the original approach in text analysis was to define register directly in terms of lexico-grammatical features. This work typically uses the method of classifying and counting textual features. Similarly, according to Eggins and Martin (1997), the central concerns about the text-context relationship for register theorists are what dimensions of context matter to text and how context gets into text. However, as Beaugrande further suggests, studies of register should not only explain the linguistic textual features and their differences among texts but also be able to answer questions about which kinds of situational factors determine which kinds of selection from the linguistic systems.

Leckie-Tarry (1995) points out that Halliday, in his later approach to register, has extended the idea to include a discussion on the features of the text as the realisation of semantic patterns. For example, Halliday (1978:23) claims that “... [register] is the set of meanings, the configuration of semantic patterns, that are typically drawn upon under the specified conditions, along with the words and structures that are used in realisation of these meanings.” Similarly, according to Halliday and Hasan (1985), the relationship between grammar and semantics is natural rather than arbitrary and both are purely abstract systems of coding. However, several language functional theorists
such as Kress and Threadgold (1988), Bathia (1993), Leckie-Tarry (1995), Swales (1981) and Widdowson (1983), have found Halliday’s concept of ‘register’ not to be adequate for capturing the phenomena of text-context relationships, especially in a wider scope of context. For these theorists, Halliday’s register theory places too little weight on social processes and hence functional aspects of texts; it privileges linguistic features of texts over social contexts.

Bathia (1993) also criticises Halliday’s work, claiming that Halliday’s concept of register mainly focuses on the identification of statistically significant lexicogrammatical features of a linguistic variety. Such studies, according to Bathia, although interesting and useful for providing necessary empirical evidence about certain syntactic features of various varieties of languages, tell us very little about the values realised by these syntactic and lexical elements. Bathia goes further to claim that, these typical register studies tell us nothing whatsoever about varieties of texts or for what purpose linguistic features of a text are used: they fail to explain why a particular variety of text takes the form that it does.

Similar criticism has been expressed by Leckie-Tarry (1995) who claims that the register theorists tend to emphasise linguistic structure in theory; consequently, in practice, linguistic analysis tends to concentrate on text as a linguistic product rather than as a process. The outcome of this position, according to Leckie-Tarry, is the assumption of a primarily synoptic view of texts which ignores the probabilistic, dynamic aspects of their performance. According to Leckie-Tarry, in more recent times, discourse theorists have found the concept of ‘genre’ more effective in presenting the theoretical construct which intervenes between language function and language form.
2. 2. 3. The Notion of Genre

The term genre was traditionally used to refer to categories of literary texts. Johns (1997), for example, suggests that for many years students in literature classrooms have been assigned texts to read which have been referred to as novels, poems, or epics as examples of genres. However, according to Leckie-Tarry (1995), the emphasis of contemporary functional genre theorists is on the social and cultural aspects of genres as the generating factor of all communicative actions, including linguistic actions. Leckie-Tarry further suggests that the concept of genre offers an interaction between socio-cultural features and textual features; the socio-cultural features of a particular community in which a text is constructed and used affect the textual forms because of the constraints placed on them by the community members.

Leckie-Tarry (1995) points out that, the difference between the concept of register and the concept of genre rests on the position or the role of the communicative purpose of a particular text. In register, according to Leckie-Tarry, the communicative purpose of a particular text is recognised on the basis of its linguistic features, while in genre, the communicative purpose is an explicit or overt social communicative event, which becomes the main determining factor in generic classifications of texts.

The notion of genre, however, is also not free from theoretical problems. Paltridge (1997), for example, suggests that the notion of genre has been used in a range of different areas including folklore studies, linguistic anthropology, the ethnography of communication, conversational analysis, rhetoric, literacy theory, the sociology of language, and applied linguistics. Paltridge further explains that, there are many ways in which the approaches to the descriptions and definition of genres described in these particular areas overlap, and at times, ways in which they are quite different from each other. This is mainly because of the different goal of each of the approaches to genre
analysis, the differing theoretical positions and concerns underlying the various approaches. Aspects of genre where theoretical views can be similar or different from one approach to another, include the place of the structure of a text in the description and definition of genres, the relationship between genre and context, the relationship between genre and culture, and the relationship between genre and cognition.

2.2.4. Register or Genre

The concepts of register and genre as ways of examining the inter-relationship between text and context have raised a conflict among language function theorists. Halliday, for instance, uses the term genre alongside register to discuss the relationship between text and context. However, according to Leckie-Tarry (1995), Halliday perceives genre in a more limited sense; that is genre is a single characteristic of text or its organisational structure outside the linguistic system and not the essence of text as social process. As Leckie-Tarry further explains, in Halliday’s concept of genre, the relationship between register and genre is that register represents the important relationship between texts and their social processes while genre is a lower order concept contributing to register. In other words, for Halliday, the concept of register is higher on the scale or wider in scope than that of genre.

An attempt to resolve the apparent conflict in terminology and conceptualisation between register and genre among functional linguists has been made by Martin (1992). Martin perceives the two contextual concepts of register and genre in mutual relationship but distinguishes register from genre. Martin places register as a semiotic system intervening between genre (above) and language (below), where language is treated as part of register and register is part of genre. The position and relationship between genre and register are illustrated in Figure 3.
As can be seen in Figure 3, unlike Halliday, Martin places genre higher on the scale than register. However, Martin admits that the advantage of using both concepts (register and genre) is that instead of setting field, tenor, and mode variables for the whole of a particular text as in register theory, values can be adjusted from one stage to the next. In his own words, Martin (1992:495) says,

> Register can then itself be organised with respect to field, tenor and mode, reflecting meta-functional diversity in its expression form, leaving genre to concentrate on the integration of meanings engendered by field, tenor and mode as systematically related social processes.

In other words, Martin suggests a three-level procedure of text analysis: genre, register and language in which genre is realised through register while register is realised through language.

It is this type of genre-register relationship which is adopted by functional linguists who work on genre analysis in the field of English for Specific Purposes (ESP), such as Swales, Bathia, Johns and others. Johns (1997), for instance, claims that register refers to the predominance of particular lexical and grammatical features within a genre; it is one of the most important elements in what we might call ‘style’ or ‘text
conventions’ (p:33). Johns goes on to suggest that it is important to go beyond the linguistic performance of a text in discussing the concept of text and to consider how the vocabularies serve the values and communicative purposes of readers, writers and communities. For this reason Johns believes that the concept of genre is more appropriate than that of register in discussing the nature of the text-context relationship.

2. 3. Genre in the Field of Applied Linguistics

In the area of applied linguistics, genre studies are mainly carried out to examine written texts for educational purposes, particularly for the language teaching and learning enterprise (Paltridge 1997). Paltridge suggests that there are at least three different approaches taken by applied linguists in viewing the concept of genres: 1) the systemic-functional approach, 2) the new rhetoric approach, and 3) the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach. The systemic functional approach represents the concept of genre developed by functional linguists in the Sydney School of functional-systemic linguists, while the new rhetoric and ESP approaches represent the concept of genre developed by functional linguists in North America and the United Kingdom (Freedman and Medway 1994). Although these approaches have been developed for the same motivation, the views adopted on genre and the ways of classifying social communicative events or actions into a particular genre are relatively different. The most striking difference between these two traditions, according to Freedman and Medway, is that systemic linguists emphasise the static quality of genre while the North American functional linguists and the ESP theorists focus on the dynamic nature of genre.
2.3.1. Systemic-functional Approach to Genre

Paltridge (1997) explains that, the systemic-functional approach to genre, mainly based on the work of systemic functional linguists from the University of Sydney in Australia, such as Michael Halliday, Ruqaiya Hasan, James Martin and others, was initially developed in the early 1980s in response to the unsatisfactory results from the teaching of writing in Australian primary schools. At that time, the teaching of writing focussed mainly on narrative composition using process writing approaches. Genre analysis studies using the systemic-functional perspective on genre, therefore, have largely focussed on the analysis of factual instead of narrative texts, including recounts, procedures, reports, descriptions, explanations, and expositions.

Paltridge (1997) points out that, for the majority of the systemic genre analysts, the notion of genre refers to the context of situation or contextual configuration described as field, tenor and mode. These contextual features influence the patterns of texts, such as text structures and lexico-grammatical patterns of a particular text. This is because, as Whittaker and Rojo (1999) suggest, speakers or writers of a particular language know the recognised ways to get things done using the language in a specific situation, then they are more likely to make choices in the lexico-grammar of the language. So for systemic-functional linguists the relationship between texts and contexts is predictable.

Although Halliday has made the most significant contribution to the development of systemic linguistics, he has paid little attention to developing practical schemes for categorising texts in a particular environment of context (Kathpalia 1992). According to Kathpalia, this task has been taken by other systemic functional linguists who have developed at least two important approaches to genre theory within the view of systemics: Hasan’s Generic Structure Potential (GSP) and Martin’s Schematic Structure (SS).
2. 3. 1. 1. Generic Structure Potential (GSP) of Hasan

Generic Structure Potential (GSP) or the analysis of the range of textual structures available within a genre, developed by Hasan (1977), was the first approach to genre analysis based on systemic functional theory (Paltridge 1997). Paltridge explains that, in order to be able to carry out GSP analysis, one must specify the elements of a text which appear obligatory and those which appear optional in a particular genre, as well as the ordering of the elements in relation to each other including the possibility of recursion. According to Paltridge, the GSP analysis demonstrates what elements must occur; what elements can occur, where elements must occur; where elements can occur; and how often elements can occur.

Hasan (1977) suggests that the obligatory elements of a text, in the GSP concept, are considered genre specific as they define the genre to which a text belongs, while the optional elements are not. According to Kathpalia (1992), ‘... optional elements are typically associated with a particular social process type, they are not seen as essential in every realisation of that social process’ (p:41). Also, unlike the optional elements, the obligatory elements are used as criteria for deciding whether texts are complete or incomplete; the optional elements, on the other hands, are not considered as criteria for this (Hasan 1977). According to Hasan, if a particular text does not realise one or more of these elements (obligatory and optional elements), they may still be considered complete but may be classified as ‘brusque’, ‘businesslike’, ‘bald’, etc. Similarly, as the GSP approach also concerns the ordering and recursion of the generic elements, there are also some kinds of obligations in the sequencing of the generic elements. Hasan says,

...the degree of mobility varies from pairs to pairs of elements to other pairs of elements; a given element may have to occur in a fixed sequence vis a vis another specific element but not vis a vis some other(s). (p:239).
The permissible sequences of the obligatory elements are used as another criterion to determine the completeness and appropriateness of texts.

Hasan (1977) also introduces the notion of ‘actual structure’ to refer to the range of structural possibilities within a particular genre. The possible variations among text-types within the same genre can be explained by the occurrence and the order of optional elements in a particular text. Thus, according to the GSP approach, texts can be categorised into a particular genre on the basis of the occurrence of the obligatory elements and the quality of the texts is determined by their sequential patterns while members of a sub-genre are determined by the occurrence and order of optional elements.

Hasan’s work on text-typology is a significant and powerful system as it not only clarifies the relationship between texts and their contexts but also enables a classification of texts (Kathpalia 1992). However, some arguments against Hasan’s concepts of genre have been presented by other systemic linguists, such as Lemke, Martin and Ventola and others. Lemke (1992), for instance, claims that the schematic structure analysis of genre in Hasan's GSP model specifies only the relations of the occurrence and ordering of the obligatory text elements; it does not consider the meaning relations of the text elements and the non-linguistic elements outside of the genre. Therefore, according to Lemke, this system is incomplete for the purposes of social analysis of particular texts.

2.3.1.2. Martin’s Schematic Structure

Another important genre analysis scheme within the systemic functional theory is called Schematic Structure (SS) developed by Martin. Although this approach is considered to be an extension and at the same time a revision of Hasan’s GSP approach, it has some substantial differences in theory and practice (Kathpalia 1992). The major
difference between these two approaches is found in their views of genre and register and the position and relationship between these two concepts. For Martin (1992:505), genre is ‘a staged, goal oriented, social process realised through register’; therefore, unlike Hasan’s GSP approach, Martin in his SS approach proposes that text structures should be generated at the level of genre instead of at the level of register. Genre networks would thus be formulated on the basis of similarities and differences between text structures (schematic structures), which therefore define text types.

The common ground between the two approaches (Hasan’s GSP and Martin’s SS approaches) rests in the correlation between schematic structure and the choices of field, mode and tenor in which, both for Martin and Hasan, staging is affected by social context (Martin 1992). The difference between these two approaches, according to Martin, is that, while for Hasan, choices in field, tenor and mode are realised by schematic structure, for Martin schematic structure is realised through choices in these same components of register (field, tenor, and mode). In other words, Martin has inverted Hasan’s formulation of the relationship between generic elements and register.

Martin also develops a model for text analysis from the dynamic perspective of texts in order to capture the generic cultural choices of a society where the texts appear (Martin 1992). However, Martin’s model has its own limitations; for example, Martin does not specify the sequence of the important elements of a particular text (Kathpalia 1992). Also, according to Kathpalia, recursion of elements is not taken into account by this model and it does not consider fragments of communicative action where participants may follow only some parts of the events. In other words, as Kathpalia summarises, Martin’s schematic structure model is more complicated than the GSP system since every element of the communicative event must be negotiated by the interactants and, therefore, this system becomes less practical for the purposes of text analysis.
2.3.2. The New Rhetoric Approach on Genre

The traditional concept of rhetorical studies, such as the work of Kinneavy (1971), used a deductive approach in analysing genres; that is to classify discourses on pragmatic basis (Swales 1990). According to Kinneavy’s deductive concept, a discourse can be classified into a particular text-type according to which component in the communication process receives the primary focus. If the focus is on the sender, the discourse will be expressive; if on the receiver, persuasive; if on the linguistic form or code, it will be literary; and if the aim is to represent the realities of the world, it will be referential. However, as Swales (1990:42) points out, although this classification system is intellectually impressive and considerably powerful in discourse organization, “... the propensity for early categorization can lead to a failure to understand particular discourses in their own terms”. Swales illustrates that, following Kinneavy’s classification system, scientific papers such as RAs, will be a representative example of a referential discourse. However, according to Swales, the main focuses of scientific texts are not only to represent the realities of the world but also to argue, convince and persuade for acceptance.

Miller (1994) also criticises Kinneavy’s discourse classification system and suggests that such system neither represent the rhetorical action of discourse nor does it provide an open application. Miller claims that Kinneavy’s classifications of discourse (i.e. expressive, persuasive, literary and referential), particularly ‘in the fields of literature and composition are commonly based on formal rather than pragmatic elements’(p:27). According to Miller, Kinneavy has mixed up the aim and use of language where language process is believed to be capable of focusing attention only on one of its components (eg, sender, receiver, code or reality) rather than on a set of its components.
The new rhetoric approach, on the other hand, has taken a more inductive approach to genre; that is to consider context and to give genre a more central role (Swales 1990). Paltrridge (1997) points out that the concept of genre in the new rhetoric approach is used largely in the area of composition studies and professional communication in the United States and Canada, such as in the work of Miller (1984), Bazerman (1981 and 1984), Bizzell (1992), Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) and others. The focus of this approach is not on formal characteristics of texts in isolation but on the exploration of the socio-contextual aspects of genre, the aims of a particular action to be accomplished, and the ways these aspects might change through time (Paltridge 1997). Pieces of writing, for example, are not interpreted from their social context but, rather, seen as the author’s strategies for responding to a particular social situation; genres, therefore, not only respond to particular social contexts but also shape the contexts.

The above view of the text-context relationship leads to a dynamic approach to genre. For Miller (1994:36), for example, “...genres change, evolve and decay” and therefore they do not lend themselves to taxonomies. Miller proposes five features of genre as a social action in order to distinguish it from other kinds of social action:

1) Genre refers to a conventional category of discourse based in large scale typification of rhetorical meaningful action;

2) As a meaningful action, genre is interpretable by means of rules which occur at relatively high levels of the hierarchy;

3) Genre is a form at one particular level that is a fusion of lower level forms and characteristic substance;

4) Genre serves as the substance of forms at higher levels; and

5) A genre is a rhetorical means for mediating private intentions and social exigence.

(From Miller 1994:37)
Miller suggests three conditions in which a collection of or a potential collection of discourses or texts can fail to constitute a genre. First, they do not have significant substantive or formal similarities at the lower level of the hierarchy. Second, they do not have adequate consideration of all the elements in recurrent rhetorical situations. Finally, they do not have a pragmatic component because there is no way to understand the discourses as social communicative action.

2. 3. 2. 1. Five Main Features of Genre as a Social Action

Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) share this dynamic view of genre with Miller and develop a model that is applicable for the teaching of composition (Connor 1996). Connor explains that, for Berkenkotter and Huckin, genre is a form of situated cognition embedded in disciplinary activities and this work, although directed toward teachers and researchers in the first language writing, is more relevant for English as a Second Language (ESL) and contrastive rhetoric studies. According to this disciplinary-oriented concept of genres, writers acquire and strategically deploy genre knowledge as they participate in their field’s or profession’s knowledge-producing activities.

Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995:4) suggest five principles of genre which constitute their rhetorical framework:

1) Genres are dynamic rhetorical forms developed as responses to recurrent situations which change over time in response to user’s need;

2) Knowledge of genre is derived from participation in the communicative activities of daily and professional life;

3) This knowledge embraces form and content, including a sense of appropriate topics to write about;

4) Through participation in organisational and disciplinary genres, human constitutes social structure and reproduce these as they draw on genre rules while engaging in professional activities; and

5) Genre conventions signal the norms and ideologies of a discourse community.
Berkenkotter and Huckin also claim that failure in using this knowledge of genre will result in failure in producing or interpreting scientific texts.

With dynamism Berkenkotter and Huckin refer to the view that, genres change over time in response to their users’ cognitive needs. An example of this can be found in Berkenkotter and Huckin’s (1995) study of 350 scientific journal articles published between 1944 and 1989. In their study, Berkenkotter and Huckin found that the formal patterns of the articles have undergone significant changes over the period of 45 years. They found a tendency of announcing principle findings at the beginning the articles such as in the title, abstract, introduction, and section headings while the methods section became rhetorically simpler. Berkenkotter and Huckin suggest that the rhetorical features of this genre became more like those in newspaper articles and this is because the readers use similar reading strategies.

The second principle of genre in Berkenkotter and Huckin’s (1995) view is situatedness. According to this principle, genre knowledge is derived from participating in the communicative activities of a genre community. Knowledge of an academic genre, for example, involves understanding oral and written forms of appropriate communicative behaviours. This knowledge, rather than being explicitly taught, is usually transmitted through enculturation processes, as a result of exposure to the ways of speaking and writing in particular disciplinary communities. Berkenkotter and Huckin suggest that learning this particular genre knowledge would be similar to learning or acquiring a second language, requiring immersion into the culture and a lengthy period of apprenticeship and enculturation (cf. Freedman 1993).

The third feature of genre, the form and content relationship refers to the view that genre knowledge embraces both form and content; for example, what form is appropriate for a particular content for a particular purpose, situation and time. Recent studies of academic or scholarly discourse show how deeply content is implicated in
genre forms. The rhetorical structure of a particular genre is affected by the author’s perception of the level of the background knowledge of the potential readers. In journal articles, for example, the author’s assumptions about the knowledge of their readers would determine what kind of information and how much of it must be given in the introduction section of an article.

By the complex notion of ‘duality of structure’ (the fourth principle of genre), Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) refer to the view that although professional genres constitute social structures in professional, institutional, and organisational contexts, every author of a professional genre also has an individual structure as the result of creativity, freedom and individual intention and strategies. The concept of ‘duality of structure’ perceives social life as essentially recursive, and structure as both medium and outcome of the reproduction of practices. Although authors are free to use their own writing style, they have to comply with the constraints imposed by the community for a particular genre.

Finally genres are owned by a community; therefore, genres represent norms, values, and ideology adopted by a particular group of people to which the genre belongs. In academic cultures, for example, the genre of academic writing signals the academic norms, values, and ideologies available in a particular disciplinary area. Lecturers as readers and reviewers of student’s essays pass on, through textual practices, the beliefs and value systems available in the disciplinary cultures to their student writers. Another example of community ownership on genre is shown in the communication processes between journal article reviewers or editors and authors. Based on a particular set of conventions (specific values, norms, and ideologies) adopted by a particular journal, the reviewers or editors put constraints on any manuscript before they are accepted for publication.
In sum, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) locate genre in disciplinary and professional culture where humans as social actors learn, monitor, and reproduce the content and form of language they deem appropriate (Connor 1996). Connor suggests that Berkenkotter and Huckin’s approach to genre is unique in two ways: first, it locates genre in an academic environment which involves oral conversation, such as student-teacher discussion, conversation with colleagues, and peer responses; and second, genre knowledge also includes knowledge of content. This approach suggests that genre studies should also examine the processes whereby the students acquire genre knowledge.

2.3.2. Regularities in the Genre Production and Comprehension Processes

Although genres have been considered to be dynamic, they need to have regular features in order to have an established name and community (Pare and Smart 1994). Swales (1990) suggests that genres themselves are classes of communicative events which typically possess features of stability. In other words, categorising particular communicative events into a genre type should be based on the regular features of genre not only on form and function but also on the processes of producing and interpreting genres. Pare and Smart (1994) suggest four types of regularities necessary to ensure the stability of a particular genre: ‘regularity in textual features, in social roles, in composing processes, and in reading practices’ (p:146). Thus, the more regular the features of a particular genre, the more established the genre is; also the more frequently a particular genre is used by its community, the more established the genre is.

First, textual features of genres, such as their rhetorical organisation, generic components and their sequencing need to be regularised in order to meet reader’s expectation. Texts such as cover letters, memos, title pages, tables of content, abstracts, introductions, problem statements, summaries, analyses of options, recommendations,
conclusions of a thesis perform the same function, in the same order, again and again. Some communities attempt to ensure the standardisation of certain textual features by codifying structure, rhetorical moves, and/or style in manuals. Secondly, writers and readers of a particular discourse play different roles in the creation and use of particular texts. These roles often deal with what can and cannot be done and said by particular individuals, as well as how, where and to whom. In the case of journal articles, for example, the author, reviewers or editors, and readers play different roles; the regularity of the roles ensure the stability of the features of the genre. These communication roles also need to be regularised in order to produce a stable form of text.

From a production point of view, a particular genre can be identified by the regular ways or stages it is constructed. An example of regular text production processes can be found in the writing processes of a journal article. It normally starts with an initiating event (eg. choosing the topic or problem or asking questions), gathering relevant information, analysing information or data, individual writing and rewriting, collaborative activities (eg. brainstorming, co-writing, sharing of drafts among peers, reviewing, evaluating), and ends in the technology of production (eg. typing, word-processing, electronic mail). In other words, for Pare and Smart the processes of producing genres, such as RAs terminate when they have been accepted for publication.

A more detailed study of the processes of how a RA has been produced is reported by Myers (1985). Myers traced step-by-step processes of two biologists working in a laboratory carrying out experimental research who turned their research reports into RAs published in a scientific journal. Myers notes that it took a considerably long time before the RA was accepted for publication because several changes had to be made on the manuscript; the changes were made based on the result of intensive communication between the authors and their peers and with the journal
referees. This intensive communication (involving giving suggestions, comments, criticisms, arguments, denials, agreements, etc.), according to Myers, shows how social construction of genre works in reality. Myers illustrates that the biologists had lowered the level of their knowledge claims in the final version of their RA by using hedges in order to ‘move them away from fact-like status’ (p:623) in order to suit the journal writing conventions and to anticipate readers’ responds. In addition, according to Myers, the process of making knowledge claims does not stop at the published RAs but may go on when readers respond to what the authors have written. The biologists may also raise the level of their knowledge claims as they originally wished to make when they feel more confident and safe, such as when they present a paper in a local seminar or talk to their fellow students.

Finally, the stability of a particular genre will depend on the regular reading practices of the readers (Pare and Smart 1994). These include their regular ways in approaching the texts (eg. where, when, and why it is read), in negotiating their way through the text (eg. previewing the text, deciding what part/s of the text to read carefully, and what part(s) to skim), in constructing knowledge from the text, and in using the resulting knowledge (eg. to perform an action, to make a decision, or to produce a piece of writing). According to Pare and Smart, regular reading practices allow an organisation to replicate the activity of interpretation. They ensure that readers will take the appropriate stance, ask the right questions, draw the relevant implications, and thus make informed decisions; to a significant degree, they conventionalise the highly idiosyncratic act of reading. Pare and Smart further suggest that genres can be analysed in terms of their textual features, writing processes, reading practices and social roles in a discourse community. According to Pare and Smart, these features of genres can be used to know more about a particular genre on the perspective of their production and comprehension. These parameters can also be used to identify particular
communicative events into a particular genre or a sets of related genres or sub-genres. However, Pare and Smart do not suggest which parameter is the most dominant determinant of genres; they seem to give equal value to all of the parameters.

2.3.3. The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Approach on Genre

The final approach on genre is drawn from the work of applied linguists working in the area generally described as English for Specific Purposes (ESP), such as Swales, Bathia, Johns and others. Genre analysis studies in this tradition have typically focused on patterns of rhetorical organisation and genre-specific language features. Swales (1990), for example, claims that studies in genre analysis are different from the traditional register or sub-register analysis in the importance of communicative purposes within a communicative setting. According to Bathia (1997), genres are meant to serve the goals of specific discourse communities, and in so doing, they tend to establish relatively stable structural forms, and to some extent, even constrain the use of lexico-grammatical resources in expressing these forms.

2.3.3.1. Definition of Genre

The new rhetoricians are reluctant to suggest a detailed working definition of genre, as Miller (1994:73) notes, “I suspect, for example, that some definitions of speech community tend toward the taxonomic, since it is common linguistic behaviour that is being examined, not relational actions or structures.” However, as Connor (1996) claims, the working definition of genre suggested by Swales (1990) has been found useful by many genre analysts working in the area of applied linguistics and probably has become the best known. According to Swales, genre is,

... a class of communicative events, the members of which share some sets of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the
degree. These rationales shape the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both 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 realised, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community. The genre names inherited and produced by discourse communities and imported by others constitute valuable ethnographic communication, but typically need further validation.

(From Swales 1990: 58).

Before suggesting the above working definition of genre, Swales (1990:45-57) elaborates on the important overviews of genre and addresses the following frameworks in order to establish the parameters of genre:

1) A genre is a class of communicative events.

2) The principle criterial features that turns a collection of communicative events into a genre is some shared set of communicative purposes.

3) Exemplars or instances of genres vary in their prototypicality.

4) The rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their content, positioning, form and functional value.

5) These constraints are often exploited by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognised purposes.

First, genre is a recognisable communicative event in which language and/or paralanguage plays both significant and an indispensable role not only in terms of dominance but also on frequency. In other words, in order to qualify as a genre, a particular communicative event must be dominantly carried out using verbal language and the event must be relatively frequent. According to Swales, events where verbal language is minimal, such as physical exercises or driving will not qualify and neither will very infrequent communicative events, except when they are playing a prominent role in a particular culture to which the genre belongs.
Second, the shared set of communicative purposes of speech events, rather than the form or other determinants, is viewed as the most reliable and primary determinant of genre membership. Swales argues that, “...except for a few interesting and exceptional cases, genres are communicative vehicles for the achievement of goals” (p:46). This is in line with Bathia (1993), when he says that the communicative purposes is a relatively reliable criterion to identify a particular genre and distinguish it from other genres; shared set of communicative purposes also shapes the genre and gives it an internal structure. Similarly, Johns (1997) points out that in most situations, readers and writers use texts purposefully to communicate with each other, and therefore, genres have been categorised on the basis of the jobs they are said to accomplish. According to Swales (1990), communicative purpose is the only justifiable criterion to distinguish ‘the real thing from parody’ (p:47).

Although considered to be the privileged determinant of a genre, however, the purpose or set of purposes of a particular communicative event are not always easy to identify. Some speech activities may have multiple purposes such as ‘funeral oration’, ‘sales letters’, and ‘recipes’ (Johns 1997:24), while others may have ‘conflicting purposes’ such as written examinations for students (Swales 1990). To further complicate the matter, for literary speech events such as poems, songs, and other poetic genres, communicative purpose may not be the most suitable and reliable parameter. According to Swales, although these typical communicative events may have a set of communicative purposes, however, their important features are for ‘verbal pleasure’ because this is what people normally enjoy when listening to or reading them (p:47). Similarly, Johns (1997) suggests that genre analysts need to be very careful when attributing a single set of communicative purposes to texts, writers or readers because of the complex nature of purposes of communicative events.
Swales (1990) has also identified two supplementary criteria for determining the genre type of a communicative event apart from the purposes; he calls these additional determinants ‘definitional’ and ‘family resemblance’ (p:49). Of these two new parameters, the ‘definitional approach’ is more established and this concept has been used in dictionaries, glossaries, specialised technologies. With this criterion genre analysts are able to identify the members of a particular genre on the ground of shared characteristics or features. The ‘family resemblance’ approach or the cluster theory, on the other hand, is useful to help genre analysts categorising communicative events into a defined genre on the basis of ‘inter-relationship of somewhat a looser kind’ or ‘cluster theory or prototype’ (p:49). However, Swales argues that, these two supplementary criteria, apart from their strengths, have their own weaknesses; definition may not work well because of the difficulties in drawing the list of defining properties attributing to a particular object while cluster theory may be unsuccessful because of the overlapping properties of two different objects.

Fourthly, Swales (1990) suggests that the established members of a particular discourse community recognise the communicative goals of their community while the new or non-established members may be familiar with such goals with various levels of quality. The established members, in particular, are concerned with the defined characteristics of their genre and, based on the ‘rationale’ or the ‘underlying logic’, they implement constraints in categorising communicative events into genres. For Bathia (1993), this means that, although the writer has freedom in using linguistics resources, he must conform to certain standardised practices within the boundaries of a particular genre and any mismatch in the use of generic resources is considered odd by the members of the specialist community as well as by the good users of the language in general. In addition, knowing the ‘rationale’ or the ‘underlying logic’ behind a
particular type of communicative event, although it cannot guarantee a success in a communication, is crucial to determine the schematic structure of the genre and also constrains the lexical and syntactic choice.

Finally, it is the active or expert members of a particular discourse community who often give a generic name to a particular type of communicative event. The naming system or ‘nomenclature’ of communicative events, according to Swales, tends to follow a certain pattern, such as the use of pre-modifying nominal of purposes (eg. introductory lecture, qualifying exam, survey article, review session, and writing workshop) in the academic genre, the use of a purposive head-noun (eg. grant application, reprint request and course description), and those that indicates the occasion rather than the purpose (eg. final examination, plenary lecture, festschrift, faculty meeting or graduation address).

Swales (1990), however, suggests that genre analysts should seriously consider ‘insider meta-languages’ of a particular genre and not to rely entirely on its given name because names can be misleading; some names can be more ‘institutional rather than descriptive’ (p:55) and genre names tend to remain unchanged although some features of the particular communicative event have undergone substantial changes. On the contrary, there are communicative events, such as ‘Specific interest group’, ‘Haiku session’, and ‘The buzz-group lecture’ in which their names do not well represent their form and content. Swales is confident to claim that only those who have ever participated in these kinds of communicative events can tell what activities are involved in these events. Further, there are even genres without a name, such as a reading comprehension activity using ‘context-striped and task-oriented text analysis’ given to colleagues or graduate students working in pairs or small groups assigned to reach and share conclusions of short texts distributed among them (p:57).
2. 3. 3. 2. The Notion of Discourse Community

Although communicative purpose becomes the most determinant aspect of communicative events to categorise a particular genre, the most important aspect in establishing the purpose(s) of communicative events is probably the concept of ‘discourse community’. Swales (1990) notes, ‘... genre belongs to discourse communities, not to individuals, other kinds of grouping or to wider speech communities’ (p:9). The fact that Swales uses this term three times in his working definition of genre provide further evidence on the importance of this term and concept in genre study.

The importance of the concept of discourse community on genre is also addressed by Gunnarson (1993:165) when he says, ‘Genre patterns reflect norms and beliefs in the discourse community in which they are produced’. When these norms and beliefs change, textual patterns are also liable to change.’ Similarly, Johns (1997) suggests that the concept of ‘discourse community’ focuses on texts and language, the genres and lexis that enable members throughout the world to maintain their goals, regulate their membership, and communicate effectively with one another (p:51).

Swales (1990:24-27) lists six defining characteristics of a ‘discourse community’:

1. (it) has a broadly agreed set of common public goals;
2. (it) has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members;
3. (it) uses its participatory mechanisms primarily to provide information and feedback;
4. (it) utilises and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims;
5. (it) has acquired some specific lexis; and
6. (it) has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise.
First, a discourse community has common public goals as part of its formal or informal agreement among its members; these goals can be used to distinguish members from non-members of the community. Swales emphasises the word *public* in ‘public goals’ in order to distinguish discourse community from other kinds of organisations with hidden or confidential goals, such as commercial or political organisations. For Swales, the common goal is even more important than ‘shared object of study’ as the criteria for discourse community, “It is commonality of goal, not the shared object of study that is criterial, even if the former often subsumes the later (p:25)’.

Secondly, discourse community has specific systems of communication among its members; these can be in the forms of meetings, telecommunications, correspondence, newsletters, conversation and so forth. Swales (1990) points out that the need to have communication mechanisms among the members of the community is important in order to distinguish it from other organisations with the basis of social class, ethnic group, culture or religion. Participating in the communication is one of the evidences that someone is an active member of the community.

Thirdly, active participation in the chosen communication mechanism is a requirement to be a member of a discourse community; that is to have an information exchange among the members. According to Swales, this is even more important than formal registration or regularly paying the organisation fees. Johns (1997:56) suggests that a discourse community uses genres as the vehicle of communication to keep in touch among the members, to carry on discussion, to explore controversies, and to advance their aims. Genres are the representatives of the values, needs and practices of the community that produce them.

Discourse community members need to establish and continuously develop discoursal expectations. These expectations will become the rationales for the development of genre conventions; that is to signal the community’s norms,
epistemology, ideology, and social ontology (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995:21). This is for the purpose of establishing the status of a discourse community itself especially for the newly founded community so that they can be recognised by others as a specific discourse community or to distinguish it from other communities or organisations.

The members of a discourse community need to acquire and continuously acquire specific terms in the forms of general technical terms related to their genre type or the very specific ones used in their own community alone. The obvious rationale for this is for efficient communication exchange between community members. For example, Swales points to the use of abbreviations for a more efficient communication in a specific community which may puzzle outsiders. Another purpose of specialized terminology may be to promote the exclusiveness of the community in order to distinguish members from outsiders.

Finally, the members of a discourse community may continuously change; as Johns (1997) suggests, the depths of individual involvement and commitment in a community can, and often does, change over time because of their personal or natural reasons. However, as Swales suggests, the ratio between the expert members and the non-experts or novice members of a particular discourse community must be kept balanced in order to ensure the sustainability of the existence of the community.

2. 3. 4. The Concept of Genre Used in this Study

As discussed earlier, so far theories on genres have taken two different views: the static and dynamic quality. The emphasis on the static quality of genre is important for practical reasons because unless genres are static, then how they can be taught (Miller 1994). However, this concept has been found too simplistic by some functional linguists ignoring the realities of contestation and the fact that genres are themselves a site for struggle (Luke 1994). Luke explains that the systemic functional approach to
genre studies is geared to allow for enhanced individual agency in mainstream institutions rather than for significant social change. Emphasis on direct transmission of text-types leads to uncritical reproduction of the discipline and an inequitable society. As discussed earlier, Bathia (1993) also criticises the systemic functional scheme of genre because it places too much emphasis on the formal linguistic features of texts; these features fail to explain the communicative value conveyed in the text.

The emphasis on the dynamic quality of genre by the new rhetoricians, on the other hand, has made them avoid establishing a working definition of genre and genre classification or taxonomy because of the dynamic nature of genre. They even question the effectiveness of explicit teaching of genre features and knowledge unless it is carried out in the context of or in close proximity to authentic tasks involving the relevant discourse (Freedman 1994). For these theorists, genre knowledge can only be acquired like a second language in an authentic environment. However, the language teaching advocated and supported by people working in ESP is to promote consciousness-raising by discussing texts and offering to the best of our abilities prototypical examples of relevant genres (Swales 1990). If genre knowledge and skills are to be taught even in a very restricted environment and for a very specified purpose, a genre taxonomy is necessary. The ESP concept of genre, which has such a taxonomy, offers a solution. Since genre is defined primarily by its common communicative purposes; these purposes and the role of genre within its environment give rise to specific textual features (Freedman and Medway 1994).

Following Swales (1990), the key issues in the concept of genre adopted in this study are summarised in the following propositions:

a) Genre is a social communicative event or action which uses language (spoken and/or written) as the major means of communication.

b) Genre belongs to a particular discourse community in which the values, beliefs and norms adopted by the community influence textual features of
genre. This also implies that in order to classify communicative events, one needs to study, among other things, the discourse community who owns it.

c) Genre has a shared set of defined communicative purpose(s) and purpose is viewed as the most determinant parameter which shapes the rhetorical features of a particular genre.

d) The people involved in a particular communicative event may have different roles and they can always change their roles at any different time.

e) Genre is dynamic; the rhetorical features of a particular genre can change over time as people change and so do the ways they use language in social communication but the communicative purpose must be kept stable.

f) The active members of a particular genre are concerned with not only the rhetorical features of their genre but also the content or message conveyed in the genre. If a particular communicative event does not satisfy the necessary requirement to be categorised into a genre, then, these expert members reject it.

g) Because genre is a social communicative event, the rhetorical features as well as the content of a particular genre are affected by the social and cultural value adopted in a particular community.

h) The expert members of a particular genre often play the most influential role in giving a name to the genre. Genre names can be used as a preliminary guideline to analysing the features of a particular genres but genre analysts need to be aware of the genre names since they can be institutional rather than descriptional.

i) Although genre is dynamic in nature, it must be regular enough in terms of textual form, social roles of the genre community members, composing processes, and reading practices in order to establish a fixed name and community.

j) Genre theory does not only deal with the finished product but also with the genre making processes.

The main focus of this study is on the analysis of RA introductions written in Indonesian by Indonesian speakers using the RA introduction theory of Create-A-Research-Space (CARS) developed by Swales (1990). Swales perceives a RA introduction (particularly in English) and in the natural and hard-science disciplines as the author’s communication strategy in order to establish a convincing justification for conducting a scientific study. In order to achieve this goal, according to Swales, the authors need to establish several aspects of the study; these are the significance of the
research field, the position and importance of the research topic in the specified field, an existence of knowledge gap in the field, and how the present research can fill in the gap. The motivation for the choice of this particular concept of genre and the analysis model of RA introduction (the CARS) is because of the fact that, it has been widely used in similar genre studies and that it has had significant influence in the teaching and learning practices of RA genre (Ahmad 1997). The description of this concept (ie., the features of moves and steps) and how it works (ie. the identification of moves and steps in the RA introductions) will be discussed and illustrated in detail in chapter 5.

2.4. The Contrastive Rhetorical Theory of Genre

The main purpose of contrastive rhetorical studies on written texts is to find out whether or not people from two or more different cultures organise ideas in their academic prose differently. The other central attention in these studies is to find out whether or not cultural influences in written texts are transformed into the texts produced in a second or foreign language. These studies mainly have one pedagogical implication i.e., overcoming the problems found in L2 writing classrooms and has been dominated by the circumstances found in English language classrooms. Since the number of students from non-English countries pursuing advance studies in one of the English speaking countries has significantly increased during the past three decades (Ahmad 1997), English study programs for non-native speakers of English, especially for the academic purposes, have experienced significant growth.

Contrastive rhetorical studies, so far, have taken at least four different approaches: 1) comparing texts within the same genre but written in two or more different languages, 2) comparing texts within the same genre and language but written by two or more groups of writers from different first languages, 3) comparing texts in
the same genre and language but written by two or more groups of people from different disciplines, and 4) comparing English texts from different varieties of English.

2. 4. 1. Cross-cultural Studies of the Rhetorical Structures of Texts

The production of a written text is a social process, both in the sense that it represents the interaction between writers and readers and in the sense that the text plays a role in a particular social system (Halliday and Hasan 1985). Because social systems incorporate ideologies, the text is therefore written to be understood within the context of a particular ideology. The ideology within which a text is written constrain choices in discourse organisation, grammar and lexis (Hunston 1993). So, writers from different cultures or languages can potentially write texts with different rhetorical structures.

Studies of texts in the same genre written in two or more different languages and/or cultures mainly produce similar findings, which suggest that people in different languages or cultures organise ideas in written texts differently. The majority of these studies are, in fact, comparisons between English texts and non-English texts. Connor (1987), for example, compared argumentative essays written by students from England, Germany, the United States, and Finland in their respective first languages. She found some cross-cultural variations among the four groups of argumentative essays. For example, the sequence of situation, problem, solution, evaluation was not used as consistently in the Finnish and German students compositions as it was in the English and US student compositions.

Hinds’ (1983) cross-cultural comparative study on the organisational patterns of Japanese and English expository writing also produced a similar finding. He found that none of the organisational patterns of Japanese prose were acceptable in English scientific discourse. Similarly, Mauranen (1993) examined the rhetorical preferences of
Anglo-American and Finnish academic writers and found that Anglo-American academics tend to be more explicit, more reader oriented and personal. Finnish writers on the other hand favour implicit rhetorical strategies, using less meta-text and employing more impersonal styles.

Other similar findings have been found by Pandharapande (1983) on Marathi, Kachru (1983) on Hindi, Indrasutra (1988), Bickner and Peyasantiwong (1988) on Thai, and Duszak (1994) and Golebiowski (1997) on Polish. These studies suggest some kind of cultural (e.g. values, norms, and beliefs) influences on the texts written in the different languages. Golebiowski (1997:70) notes, “Writing is an expression of culture, and the native culture, in particular the educational system of the writer’s culture, influences his/her writing habits.” In academic culture, the scientific writing practices, such as argument styles, scientific prose, and attitude to knowledge and academia which affect the rhetorical structure of the academic texts can be different from one culture to another (Duszak 1994).

2. 4. 2. Comparative Rhetorical Studies Between L1 and L2 Texts

The cultural influences on organising ideas (rhetorical structures) in expository prose are believed to persist when users of these languages and cultures learn to write in a new language (Bathia 1993:37). For example, Couchman (1997) has reported that students who are non-native speakers of English in Australia still encounter problems with the conceptual nature of Australian academic writing, even after several semesters of intensive English studies in Australia. According to Couchman, these students still make elementary mistakes in using conjunctive elements in their English compositions; this illustrates the complex interaction of the profound cultural differences which these students exhibit, cultural differences which embrace language and approaches and attitudes to knowledge, learning and writing.
Studies of L2 texts (texts written by non-native speakers) particularly by learners of English have a long history. This form of cross-cultural study was pioneered by Kaplan (1966) when he analysed 600 paragraphs written in English by his ESL/EFL students from several different first language backgrounds. From this study he categorised five major distinct styles of paragraph development: linear, digressive, parallel, irrelevant and oriental. Kaplan also suggests the typical culture producing the different paragraph development models: linear (eg. English), digressive (eg. French, Italian and Spanish), parallel (eg. Arabic and Persian languages), irrelevant (eg. Russian and Slavic languages) and oriental (Japanese and Chinese and other East-Asian countries).

Although Kaplan’s pioneering study has been criticised for its ethnocentricity, descriptive looseness, lack of the distinction between etic and emic perspectives, naivety, and oversimplified claims (Ahmad 1997), it has triggered a major interest on the topic. Since that time a great number of similar studies have been carried out in order to prove or disprove Kaplan’s hypothesis. The major critics came from people who view writing processes as important as the written product, such as of Raimes (1991), when she claims that first language experience in writing does not always have a negative influence on second language writing. Similarly, problems in writing academic English prose are not only experienced by non-native speakers of English but also by native English speakers although with different types of writing problems. Couchman (1997), for instance, found that Australian students also fail to think through and understand ideas and then develop their own interpretation of them and lack the academic lexis to express ideas concisely.

A further criticism has been made of the practice of categorising unrelated cultures or languages under a regional umbrella such as oriental style. Kirkpatrick (1994), for example, has looked at rhetorical structures in essays translated from
Chinese and Japanese into English by Mainland Chinese and Japanese students respectively. His aim is to examine how much of the rhetorical structures of the essays in Chinese or Japanese and the ones in their English counterparts are different. He found that although they are categorised as oriental, students from Mainland China face less difficulty in adapting to English academic essay style than do Japanese students. This finding is in line with that of Hind (1983), who argues that it is a mistake to group unrelated languages or cultures under an umbrella such as ‘oriental’.

2.4.3 Cross-disciplinary Studies of the Rhetorical Structures of Texts

The third approach of contrastive rhetorical study is the comparison between two or more groups of texts in the same or different languages written by writers from different disciplinary fields. These studies are normally carried out in order to testify to Widdowson’s (1979) proposition on the rhetorical uniformity of scientific prose across languages and disciplines. However, people in different disciplinary areas may communicate differently, as if the discipline is a culture of its own. The different nature of their object of study (eg. hard and social sciences, medical, law and so on) and different working environment (eg. laboratories, library, classrooms, and so on) may have affected the ways of communication in the discourse community. These differences may also influence the ways they write scientific prose.

Some evidence in favour of this hypothesis has been found by Liddicoat (1997c) when he examined the rhetorical structure of two groups of texts from two different disciplines (Literature and Biology) in two different languages (French and Spanish). Instead of the cross-cultural differences, he found a difference in the degree of “digressiveness” in the two groups of texts; literary texts (texts of the culture) tended to be more digressive while the biology texts (scientific texts) tended to be more linear. Liddicoat argues that the texts of a culture are influenced by underlying cultural
patterns of writing while the scientific texts are reinforced by the academic practices adopted in an academic community of a particular discipline.

Swales (1990) provides the theoretical overview on the differences of the rhetorical styles in academic texts in different disciplinary areas. He says,

In those areas of knowledge variously described as ‘hard’, ‘exact’ or ‘physical’, consensus on objectives, ground-rules and points of departure has led to textual products with regularised macro structure and with rhetoric that follow identifiable role-models. In these fields, there is a perceivable inter-relationship between the RA as a peer group intellectual object, the abstract nominal style, and the presence of authorial intrusion mainly in contexts thought to need persuasive support, or to need some revelation of the authors individual cognitive processes (p:175).

Swales further claims that the rhetorical model in the hard sciences has been adopted by certain groups in social and behaviour sciences with different levels of success; people in social sciences and humanities, however, prefer to use more traditional models where the rhetorical structure of articles is similar to those in reviews and books.

2. 4. 4. Comparing English Texts from Different Varieties of English

Texts in the same language written by native speakers of the language have also been examined and compared in order to see if there are any differences in the text features. The main aim of this type of contrastive rhetorical studies is in order to see how writing instruction at schools in different countries is realised in actual texts.

One example of this study was carried out by Connor and Lauer (1988) when they examined argumentative essays written by high school students in three English speaking countries from USA, Britain and New Zealand. They found significant differences on the persuasive variables, such as the use of claim - data - warrant sequences. The frequency of this persuasive strategy in the USA students’ compositions is significantly lower than the one in the Britain and New Zealand students’ compositions. Also, the frequency of the persuasive appeals of rationality, credibility,
and effectiveness found in the USA students’ compositions are significantly lower than the one found in the Britain and New Zealand students’ composition.

2. 4. 5. Problems of Comparative Rhetorical Studies

Comparative rhetorical studies have been criticised for design flaws which include small sample size, mix of genres, and generalising from L2 data to L1 behaviour; perhaps even more damaging, these studies have been considered to be ethnocentric and to lack adequate levels of comparability (Connor 1996). Connor illustrates that the rhetorical structures in the Anglo-American texts, for example, have been considered by many rhetoricians as logical and more straightforward and have become the standard model of academic or scientific writing. However, according to Connor, the speakers of other languages may not consider the linearity in the English style effective or valuable, especially speakers of languages whose coherence patterns often differ from those of English. Similarly, Leki (1991) shows another example of dangerous stereotyping practice, such as the Japanese who have been stereotyped as having difficulties in democratic thinking, a conclusion drawn only from examples of their writing.

Another problem of comparative rhetorical study occurs when the data are written by people of different levels of writing proficiency. There are two different variables in contrastive studies which need to be controlled: writing proficiency and rhetorical structure. In order to investigate the differences in rhetorical structures, for instance, the texts to be examined must be in the same genre and written by writers of equal writing proficiency. Connor (1996) suggests that ‘contrastive rhetorician’ needs to be careful not to simply accumulate the results from the studies to form a model of writing style in a culture.
The majority of the comparative rhetorical studies analyse only the writing products (texts) while ignoring both the context and the writing processes (Leki, 1991). The result of this product-oriented study, according to Leki, is that the findings of the studies are prescriptive rather than descriptive. Leki further suggests that contrastive rhetorical researchers should view writing products as equally important as writing processes, and contexts as the view adopted in genre analysis studies. Also, to examine only text performance as writing product without considering the writing context can also be misleading. Connor (1996) points out that among scholars of academic writing, there is an increasing acknowledgment about the diversity in academic writing owing to sub-disciplinary and individual variation. Similarly, according to Swales (1990), unlike in hard sciences, people in social sciences and humanities prefer to use traditional models where the rhetorical structure of articles is similar to those in reviews and books. Connor suggests that when comparing texts in two or more different disciplines researchers must also consider the school of thought within the disciplines.
2.5. Research Articles as an Established Genre

One of the most important classes of communicative events in the academic or scientific community are research articles (henceforth RA) published in scientific journals. Swales (1990) suggests that researchers must socialise their research findings because a research project is not yet completed until the results are made available to the wider research community and the most effective way to do this is through publication. Also, publication is considered by many as the major route to tenure, promotion and research grants; RA is one effective media through which scholars and scientists communicate with each others and enhance their credibility. Therefore, capability in understanding and composing this genre and other similar genres is essential to professional success (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995).

RAs have a dynamic relationship with all other public research-process genres, such as abstracts, theses and dissertations, presentations, grant proposals, books and monographs, and RAs play the most central role (Swales 1990). In addition, apart from this crucial function, RAs are given special attention because of their significant quantity. Calculating the rough figures for RAs published annually in all disciplines and all languages, Swales suggests a number of about five million articles which implies a very large number of people are involved in the production and comprehension of this genre. Swales writes “... research articles are a gargantuan genre and, consequently, they have become the standard product of the knowledge-manufacturing industries” (p:95).

The set of communicative purposes or functions of RAs is already well established. Gilbert (1976) suggests that RAs have been used for a very long time to report a piece of research as well as to persuade readers that the research is worth
reading. Gilbert further explains that scientific community members evaluate ideas displayed in RAs; the authors, therefore, must also attempt to persuade the community to place a high value on his or her knowledge claims. This is because such high value would result in the acceptance of the knowledge claim as a fact; that is, as information which it would be difficult for other researchers to challenge (Hunston 1993). In other words, RAs must not only be informative but also persuasive in both content and form.

In respect of name, RAs follow the common practice in genre naming system or ‘nomenclature’ (to use Swales’ term). A new member to this discourse community will find little or no difficulty in determining what can be found in a RA. Johns (1997) suggests that a genre name is usually closely related to purposes or intentionality or the particular jobs they are said to accomplish, because in most situations, readers and writers use texts purposefully to communicate with others. Johns illustrates that a sales letter can be said to persuade readers to buy; a funeral oration is most often intended to honour the deceased; a recipe instructs the reader how to cook a dish. RAs reflect the features of the genre. i.e., the text (article) about particular research which has been completed.

RAs have become a central attention of academic genre analysts because in many disciplines the RAs are the main channel of scientific or scholarly communication (Holmes 1997). According to Swales (1990), scientists and scholars have been communicating via RAs at least for the last 300 years although the current rhetorical features of this genre have become very distinct from the traditional ones. Several rhetorical features of RAs which have gradually changed include article length, references, syntactic and lexical features, non-verbal materials, and organisation. These changes reflect the dynamic feature of a genre, as Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995:4) points out, “Genres change overtime in response to their users’ socio-cognitive needs”.
However, since the main communicative purpose of a genre remains unchanged so does its name.

The rhetorical features of RAs are relatively stable, at least at the macro structure level. For example, since 1930 although variations exist across disciplinary areas, RAs have been commonly divided into the macro sections of Introduction, Methods, Results and Discussion (IMRD) (Bazerman 1984). The relatively unchanged features of RAs occur partly because of the relatively consistent discourse community, who actively participate in the typical communicative event with a relatively fixed communicative purpose. However, as indicated earlier in this chapter, RA rhetorical patterns or formats may change if the norms and beliefs, adopted by the discourse community who produce and use it change (Gunnarson 1993), or if the ‘epistemology’ of a particular field of discipline changes (Burrough-Boesnisch 1999:297).

As discussed earlier in this chapter, there are several factors that may affect the rhetorical structures or features and styles of a genre (linguistic and non-linguistics features). In the case of RAs, the possible influencing factors in the processes of producing RAs are shown in Figure 4. These processes are influenced by two different factors: the internal factors or factors related to the writer (eg. writing skills and knowledge, knowledge on content, norms, belief and values adopted, and so on) and the external factors or factors outside the writer (eg. assistance from peer review, access to literary materials, and writing formats imposed by journals). Writers and readers should be familiar with this knowledge in order for a successful interaction. Johns (1997) suggests that when readers share all or some of the necessary knowledge involved in producing a particular genre with writers, their comprehension of the genre will be satisfactory and, similarly, when writers are familiar with this knowledge, they can communicate with readers effectively, i.e. by producing appropriate written texts.
2.5.1 Contrastive Rhetorical Studies on Research Articles

Rhetorical structures and styles of RAs may be different for RAs in different disciplinary areas and for RAs written in different languages because of several influential factors. These factors include the different writing styles of the authors, the writing conventions adopted by particular journals or different views and ethics in the academic practices in particular countries and cultures. For example, experts or experienced authors may assert more claims or propositions in their writing than do the novice authors; this is because expert or experienced authors are more confident and more credible while the new or novice authors are less confident and, therefore, have to heavily rely on citations or references. Swales (1990) suggests two different styles of scientific texts: reader-based prose and writer-based prose; both inexperienced and very
experienced writers may produce texts classified as writer-based prose for different reasons. As Swales (1990) notes:

As I write, I am aware that, whatever I do, what I write will be difficult for most readers. Because of what I am trying to achieve, this is unavoidable. This is why I must convince the readers that their efforts will be rewarded; I need to keep their faith that I am not making my text unnecessarily difficult. (p: 64)

In other words, the expert members of the academic community may deliberately exploit the journal writing conventions in order to achieve effectiveness and originality.

Contrastive rhetorical studies of scientific texts such as RAs have also been motivated by the strong hypothesis made by Widdowson (1979) on the homogeneity of scientific textual features regardless of the language and the field of discipline in which they are written. Widdowson insists that, with some possible individual stylistic variations among the authors, scientific texts have a common rhetorical structure because of the common procedures and concepts that all scientists have to go through in scientific investigation processes. He even likens ‘scientific inquiry’ as a ‘second culture’ which is free from the influence of the primary cultures of the scientific authors in whichever language and field of discipline they are from (p:51). In other words, for Widdowson, there is not any significant difference in the rhetorical structures of scientific texts, such as found in RAs, written in any language and in any field of discipline.

In order to prove or disprove Widdowson’s hypothesis, particularly about the rhetorical structures of the texts, there have been a substantial number of studies on all or some sections of RAs in one or several different disciplines and languages. The majority of the studies focus on the rhetorical structures (eg. moves and sub-moves or ideas development or organisation) of the text although a small number of them focus on the syntactic and lexical features or on other linguistic features of the texts. The list of the relevant studies will be discussed here is given in Table 2.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Author/Date</th>
<th>Area/s of Research</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Feature analysed</th>
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<tr>
<td>a)</td>
<td>The RA as a whole</td>
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<tr>
<td>b)</td>
<td>Introduction section</td>
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<td>c)</td>
<td>Discussion section</td>
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Table 2: Comparative Studies of Research Articles

As shown in Table 2, contrastive studies of RAs focus on either one particular section or on the entire text. Studies on the entire text of the RAs are carried out on the basis of the hypothesis suggesting that a RA contains a continuum of communicative elements from the introduction to the conclusion or from the beginning to the end of the text. The studies of the introduction sections of RAs, on the other hand, are motivated by the fact that the introduction is the most challenging part of a scientific article for writers and nearly all academic writers (novice as well as expert writers) admit to having more difficulty in writing it (Swales 1990; Gupta 1995 and Golebiowski 1998).
Comparative rhetorical studies of RAs mainly take two different approaches: 1) cross-cultural studies of the rhetorical structure or other linguistic features of RAs in a particular field of discipline written in two or more languages or 2) cross-disciplinary studies of the rhetorical structures or other linguistic features found in two or more groups of RAs of different disciplines. The cross-cultural studies have been dominated by examining the rhetorical structures of RAs in a particular language with the structures found in English RAs while the cross-discipline studies have been dominated by comparing the rhetorical structures of RAs in a particular field or discipline with the CARS move model of RA introduction found in the disciplines of hard and natural sciences.

2. 5. 1. 1. Cross-cultural Rhetorical Studies of RAs

Cross-cultural comparative studies of RA rhetorical structures are aimed at examining whether or not the rhetorical structures of RAs are universal as assumed by Widdowson (1979). The majority of these studies, however, have suggested cross-cultural differences on the rhetorical structures of RAs in a particular section or on the entire text of RAs. The differences can be on the frequency of the existence of a particular semantic unit or move, on the sequence of the moves or on the patterns of idea organization of the RAs.

Ahmad (1997), for example, examined the rhetorical structures of 62 research article introductions in a wide area of hard science journals in Malay such as chemistry, physics, geodesy, genetics, and fisheries. Following the Creating A Research Spaces (CARS) model developed mainly for English RA introductions by Swales (1990), she examined the consistency of the occurrence of the moves and steps. She found that,

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1 The Create a Research Space (CARS) model for RA introduction analysis suggested by Swales (1990) will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3 and 5.
although the examples of all the three semantic units of Moves suggested in the CARS model can be found in Malay RA introduction, one move (Move 2: establishing a niche) is absent in more than half of the Malay texts in her corpus. According to Ahmad, this is because the local scientific context in Malaysia, such as the scientific research practices and the journal publication practices, is different from that found in Anglophone countries. She also found that, unlike English RA introductions, the majority of the RA introductions in her corpus have a longer introduction; this is because the Malay authors consider preparing reader’s background knowledge very important in order to ensure successful comprehension.

Clyne (1987) compared two groups of RAs from different disciplines (Linguistics and Sociology) consisting of 17 RAs written in German by German speakers, 9 RAs written in English by German speakers, 26 RAs written in English by English speakers. Focussing on the coherence and the strategies used to achieve text quality, such as hierarchy, dynamicity, symmetry, and uniformity, Clyne found some differences between the two groups of texts. Clyne’s cultural interpretation on the coherence strategy differences is that the German texts may be perceived by the English speakers as having content digression or being less linear. Clyne suggests, it is important to raise the awareness of cultural differences in scientific texts at the international level and imperative for the international scientific community to appreciate and respect the cross-cultural rhetorical variants.

Clyne’s hypothesis is supported by Golebiowski’s (1997) study in which she found some cross-cultural rhetorical differences in her study. She examined the rhetorical structure of the introduction sections of research papers written by Polish scholars in English and Polish in the field of psychology. Following Clyne (1981 and 1987), she used an analytical model of rhetorical structure analysis and concludes that, unlike English RAs, content and form are not equally valued in the Polish intellectual
tradition; the evidence of possession of knowledge is considered far superior to the form in which it is conveyed. Presentation of content is the main focus of attention in Polish scholarly writing; that is, what is presented is more highly valued than how it is presented.

Yet another cross-cultural difference in the rhetorical patterns of scientific texts was found by Mauranen (1993). She compared 2 English RAs written by Anglo Americans and 2 Finnish RAs written by Finnish authors in Economics (Forestry economics and taxation). She found that the Anglo American authors use more metatext, or text about the text, in their Economic RAs than do the Finnish authors. Mauranen’s interpretation is that the Anglo American authors are more reader-oriented or have a more positive notion of politeness than do the Finnish authors and that Finnish authors show more negative kinds of politeness and a greater tendency towards implicitness in their articles. Mauranen suggests that there is no need for the Finnish economics authors to change their rhetorical styles when writing in Finnish, only when they write in English would they need to be aware of the rhetorical styles common in English economics RAs.

However, not all cross-cultural studies suggest some rhetorical differences in RAs across languages. Najjar’s (1989) study of research articles in agricultural science written in English and Arabic, for instance, shows sufficiently few and unimportant rhetorical differences. Similarly, Taylor and Chen (1991), compared the introduction sections of 31 papers in related fields: geophysics, metallurgy and mineral processing, materials science, and materials engineering with language and writer features: 11 in English written by English native speakers, 10 written in English by Chinese speakers, and 10 written in Chinese by Chinese speakers. They found that the four-move pattern of article introductions suggested by Swales (1984) is found in their data irrespective of the languages. However, they found the rhetorical differences between the papers in
different groups of disciplines, where the papers in geology do not consistently follow the expected order of moves (moves 1, 2, 3 and 4) irrespective of the language in which the papers are written or their source, while those in both metallurgy and mineral processing and materials science disciplines follow the expected move-order more consistently.

2. 5. 1. 2. Cross-disciplinary Comparative Studies of RAs

Cross-disciplinary comparative study of RA rhetorical structure is aimed at investigating the similarities or differences of rhetorical structures or other linguistic features of RAs written in two or more different fields of discipline. This type of genre study is important in order to consider whether or not RAs in two or more disciplines in a particular language can be classified into one genre. Like cross-cultural studies, cross-disciplinary studies have also suggested variations in the rhetorical structures and linguistic features of RAs in different fields of discipline. The rhetorical similarities between the RAs in different fields of discipline are often found on the macro structures, such as on the division of a RA into the IMRD and C sections while variations among them are often found in the micro structures (eg. the communicative units or sub-units or rhetorical strategies in a particular section of the RAs).

Crookes (1986) examined 96 RAs written in English in three different disciplines: hard sciences, biological/medical sciences, and social sciences. Using the ‘move structure’ analysis model developed by Swales (1981), he found that the move frequency and sequencing in the introduction section of RAs in hard sciences are similar to those found in biology and medical sciences but relatively different from those found in social sciences. Crookes claims that, RAs in the social sciences often have longer and more complex introductions. This finding is in line with Bazerman (1981) when he claims that academics in the social sciences and humanities, unlike
those in the hard sciences, have little consensus - given the greater likelihood that the potential readership will approach the text with widely varying schemata and from diverse methodological and ideological viewpoints.

Holmes (1997) has a similar finding when he examined the discussion sections of 30 RAs in three disciplines: History, Political Science and Sociology written in English by English native speakers. He found that the rhetorical structure of RAs in political science, although not identical, is similar to that found in sociology in terms of the schematic moves and communicative strategies, but it is different from that found in history. Holmes explains that as far as the discussion sections are concerned, unlike political science and sociology, RAs in the field of history normally do not have a cyclical structure and tend to be brief. According to Holmes, this is because, unlike in the humanities, research projects in social and hard sciences are becoming more bureaucratized in that their objectives are measured by reference to quantitative data, collaborative authorship and external financial support. However, as Holmes suggests, in order to determine whether or not humanities’ RAs, such as those in History, constitute a sub-genre of the social sciences and humanities, further comparative studies are necessary to examine RAs in philosophy and literary and cultural studies.

Another possible explanation on why the rhetorical features of texts in social sciences may be different from those in the humanities can be explained from the historical perspective. Wignell (1998), for example, points out that the field in what is now referred to as the social sciences, originally belonged to the discipline of humanities, and particularly to the discipline of moral philosophy. However, according to Wignell, since the mid-seventeenth century people began to use the discourse of physical sciences to discuss social sciences. Wignell, illustrates that, Thomas Hobbes in 1651 was the first theorist to draw the physical sciences into discussions of the social sciences and called his work ‘Civil Philosophy’ (p:301). Wignell further suggests that
although the discipline of civil philosophy began and ended with Hobbe’s work, the importation of the physical science discourse into social sciences continued as the political economic discipline emerged: this discipline is believed to be the ancestor of economics, sociology and the political sciences disciplinary areas. In other words, the use of the physical science discourse model in the disciplines of social sciences, such as economics, political science and sociology may have contributed to their rhetorical differences from those of humanities, such as history, literacy and cultural studies as suggested by Holmes (1997).

Rhetorical structures of RAs in the field of computer science is also found to be different from those in other fields of discipline. Posteguillo (1999) examined all sections (Introduction, Methods, Results, Discussion and Conclusion) in a corpus of 40 RAs in English written by international authors. He found that, unlike RAs in hard sciences and social sciences, the last section of the RAs in computer science is subtitled discussion/conclusions. Using Swales’ CARS model of RA introductions, he also found that Move 1 of Step 3 (review of previous research) although considered obligatory by Swales (1990), is not always used in his data. Posteguillo suggests that the absence of a review of previous research in his data is due to the relative newness of the discipline and the commercial orientation of the RAs in the discipline. Another interesting finding of this study, according to Posteguillo, is the presence of principle findings in the introduction section in the majority RAs causing this section to be subtitled introduction and results.

In the field of medical science, Nwogu (1997) examined all sections of 15 RAs written in English. Using Swales’s move analysis model, he found that RA introductions in medical science are similar to those in other disciplines except for the relatively low frequency of Move 1 (presenting background information). Nwogu also found that RAs in medical science consist of eleven different moves all together (nine
of them are compulsory and two are optional) with a number of sub-moves in each move characterized by different linguistic features. According to Nwogu, the eleven moves with their sub-moves constitute an internal ordering of information presented in the articles.

A cross-disciplinary study of RAs in a language other than English was carried out by Gunnarson (1993). She examined the entire texts of 90 scientific and popular science articles written in Swedish in three very different fields of disciplines: economics, medicine, and technology published in three periods: 1895-1905, 1935-1945, and 1975-1985. The purpose of this study is to examine the changes on the rhetorical structures of the RAs over time and to compare the rhetorical structures of the RAs among the three fields of discipline. Using the adapted text-pattern of the thematic and pragmatic analysis model proposed by Hoey (1983), the move analysis model of the introduction sections from Swales (1981) and the move analysis model of results and discussion section from Dudley-Evans (1986), Gunnarson concludes that scientific texts in Swedish have changed in terms of the rhetorical structures and the content of the RAs over time.

First, the RAs in all three disciplines have become more purely scientific; they, for example, have become more informative and more directed towards comprehension. Second, the Swedish scientific articles have shifted from German content-digressive type to an English straight one-perspective type. Third, several specific features of older articles, such as explicit references to the sender and readers and communicative illocutions to convince readers in particular ways have decreased in the modern articles. Fourth, in terms of writing conventions, the modern science articles have become more homogeneous in all three disciplines in their thematic macro structure. According to Gunnarson, this illustrates a greater genre convention awareness among the scientific authors in Swedish. Finally, the tendencies of the rhetorical changes are more likely to
occur in the scientific articles than in the popular science articles because of the education program in Sweden, where there is no education program or institution to teach students to be a popular science writers.

Similarly, Clyne (1987) found that German rhetorical style in mathematics and engineering texts resembles those in English academic texts but the rhetorical style in chemistry texts looks more like German; these texts are characterised by a greater freedom to bring in broader issues not directly related to the discussion at hand.

In summary, studies which suggest differences in the rhetorical structures of the RA genre across cultures and across disciplinary fields particularly on the micro rhetorical structures (semantic moves and sub-moves) are more dominant than those which have found similarities. These findings may imply that Widdowson’s hypothesis on the homogeneity of the rhetorical structure in scientific texts regardless of the language and discipline in which they are written has not been supported by empirical data. Swales (1990) writes,

… RAs are rarely simple narratives of scientistic investigations. Instead, they are complexly distanced reconstructions of research activities, at least part of this reconstructive process deriving from a need to anticipate and discountenance negative reactions to the knowledge claims being advanced (p:175).

Swales goes further to claim that different research and scientific environments require different communicative strategies; RA authors respond to the differences in order to win a place for publication or to satisfy their readers. The different communicative strategies will affect the rhetorical structures of the scientific texts, such as in RAs.

2. 5. 2. Comparative Studies on Linguistic Features of RAs
A considerable number of comparative studies on RAs, such as Swales (1981), Jacoby (1987), Liddicoat (1992 and 1997a), Hyland (1996), Curnow (1995), Vassileva (1997) and Ahmad (1997) have focused on the linguistic features of the scientific texts. The rationale behind these studies is in order to provide necessary empirical evidence to confirm or disprove some of the intuitive and impressionistic statements that we all tend to make about the high or low incidence of certain lexico-grammatical features of various genres (Bathia 1993:25). Similarly, Swales (1990) agrees with the need for the linguistic analysis of the RAs apart from the rhetorical analysis suggesting that since different sections of RAs perform different rhetorical functions, they require different linguistic resources to realise those functions. The Methods and Results sections of RAs, for example, have a much simpler lexico-grammatical constructions than do the Introduction and Discussion sections and this information is useful for pedagogical purposes.

One of the important linguistic aspects of scientific texts is the use of passive and active constructions; this aspect has been claimed to have an essential rhetorical function in scientific genres. Liddicoat (1992), for example, examined and compared the frequency and rhetorical functions of active and passive constructions found in six biology RAs and those found in four literary texts (novels) written in French by French speakers. Liddicoat found that, the active construction is used more frequently than the passive one in biology texts (scientific texts), while the passive construction is used more frequently in literary texts than those in the biology texts. Liddicoat, then, suggests seven different rhetorical functions of passive and active constructions in these two different genres (literary and scientific). Passive constructions are used to indicate that a standard procedure is followed, to refer to author’s individual future work, to cite the peripheral previous work, or to raise a particular topic, while the actives are used to
describe the procedure undertaken, to report and interpret the study results, to review
the essential previous studies, and to refer to the author’s own work in progress.

Curnow (1995) extended Liddicoat’s study when he examined five biology RAs
written in Spanish by Spanish speakers and compared the findings with those in English
astrophysics and French biology papers from previous studies. Curnow found several
differences in the three groups of RAs (Spanish, French and English) in their ways of
using active, passive and for French and Spanish \textit{se} -passive constructions. One of the
differences, according to Curnow, is in the different ways the authors have of
expressing whether a standard research procedure or an innovative one is being
followed; in English and French RAs, this distinction is dealt with between passive and
active constructions while in Spanish it is addressed using \textit{se}-passive and passive
constructions. Another important difference is in citation forms; French authors use
active for more relevant work and passive for less relevant work, English authors use
active for their own work and passive for other people’s work, while Spanish uses four
different citation forms: general information, peripheral information, supporting or
rejecting claims and using findings and interpretation for the current study. However,
Curnow does not classify which construction is used for which type of citation.

Ahmad (1997) examined the use of passive-active choices by the Malay authors in
Malay RAs. From her study on the result and discussion sections of 62 RAs in wide
variety of fields of discipline in hard and natural sciences written in Malay, Ahmad
found that the Malay authors use passive and active constructions for six different
purposes. Passive constructions are used for justifying differences in results or
interpretation, explaining limitations, difficulties or perplexities, offering suggestions
and recommendations for future work, and suggesting inconclusive results. Active
constructions, on the other hand, are used for highlighting major findings, for
comparing the present findings with those of previous research, and for suggesting conclusive results. According to Ahmad, her findings confirm those from previous works on Malay language which suggest that, Malay scientific writers generally prefer using passive constructions than the active forms in order to avoid the personal point of view.

Another important linguistic feature of texts is hedging, where its function in scientific texts has been found to be rhetorically essential. Swales (1990) points out that, hedges in scientific texts are communication strategies or rhetorical devices for projecting honesty, modesty and proper caution in self-reports, and for diplomatically creating research space. Similarly, Hyland (1996) suggests that hedges are significant communicative resource for academics because they both confirm the individual’s professional persona and represent a critical element in the rhetorical means of gaining acceptance of claims. According to Hyland, hedges allow writers to anticipate possible opposition to claims by expressing statements with precision, caution, and diplomatic difference with the views of colleagues. Hyland further suggests that hedges in scientific texts are the result of informational, rhetorical, and personal choices which cannot be fully understood in isolation from social and institutional contexts. In other words, for Hyland hedges are an essential feature of genre where their use is motivated by the discourse community, standard of knowledge, and textual representations of a particular genre.

The importance of hedging in scientific texts has also been advocated by Myers (1985). He claims that scientific writers are often required to decide the level of knowledge claims or denials that they wish to make in their scientific texts. According to Myers (1989), addressing claims or denials are potentially face-threatening particularly for new or inexperienced authors. In order to anticipate reader’s response or criticism, as Myers suggests, authors normally use particular communication
strategies, such as positive and negative politeness and hedging employing particular lexico-grammatical resources, such as modal verbs, passive constructions and pronouns.

Liddicoat (1997a) examined the use of hedging in ten RAs in each of four disciplines of Biology, Chemistry, Engineering and Medicine written in French. The main purpose of this study, however, was to see how French writers use modal verbs in their scientific texts. From this study, Liddicoat suggests three ways in which writers may use modal verbs to express knowledge claims in their scientific texts: pouvoir, devoir and falloir in which in terms of their level of certainty falloir is the highest in the scale while pouvoir is the lowest. The most interesting finding of this study, according to Liddicoat, is that French scientists prefer to use lower-level certainty modal verbs devoir and pouvoir in making knowledge claims while the strongest available modal is never used for this purpose.

One of the cross-cultural studies on the use of hedging in RAs was carried out by Vassileva (1997) when she examined RAs of three different groups (Bulgarian RAs written by Bulgarian speakers, English RAs written by Bulgarian speakers and English RAs by written English speakers). According to Vassileva, the similarities among the RAs are that, all of them use hedges irrespective of the languages which scatter through out the entire texts and the common forms of hedges are modal verbs, semi-auxiliaries, adjectives and adverbial phrases. However, according to Vassileva, Bulgarian and English authors have different preferences in the choice of linguistic devices for hedging; the English authors prefer using modal verbs and semi-auxiliaries while the Bulgarian authors are in favour of using adjective and adverbial phrases. Another difference is the distribution of the hedges in the three sections of the RAs (introduction, discussion and conclusion); the frequency of hedges in introduction and discussion sections in the English RAs is higher than those in Bulgarian RAs while in the conclusion section, the Bulgarian RAs have more hedges than the English RAs. In
addition, as far as the English RAs written by Bulgarian is concerned, as Vassileva suggests, there is a rhetorical native-language transfer in which the English RAs written by Bulgarian authors are more similar to those in Bulgarian than to the English.

Other linguistic features of a particular text which has attracted genre analysts’ attention is the use of lexical verbs; that is the ways authors use verbs in citing (directly or indirectly) the work of others in their scientific texts. Swales (1990), for example, has classified two different ways of citation commonly found in scientific texts: integral and non-integral and provides up to six different models in each of the classification. However a more important distinction is in fact between the use of reporting and non-reporting types of citation. According to Swales, the choice between reporting and non-reporting forms of citation has an important rhetorical function; that is to create a research space for the authors.

Swales (1981) himself examined the use of reporting and non-reporting types of citation in 16 biological and medical RAs written in English where he found the reporting/non-reporting ratio of 40-60 in the RAs. A similar ratio (46-54) was found by Ahmad (1997) in her Malay science RAs. However, Jacoby (1987), in her literary criticism RAs, found a ratio of 75-25 of reporting/non-reporting forms of citation. In other words, these studies show a significant difference in the ratio of reporting/non-reporting forms found in science and literary RAs in which the reporting type of citation is more common in the literary RAs than that in the sciences RAs. However, the trend in the contemporary scientific texts, shows a decrease in the use of reporting types of citation in the discipline of hard sciences (Bazerman, 1984), but the use of reporting types of citation will remain necessarily important because of its rhetorical function (Swales 1990). According to Swales, the use of the reporting forms of citation allows authors to signal early in their texts that a particular claim is considered substantial and will be reused later in the text.
In sum, the linguistic analyses of genres seems to continue on alongside the increasing popularity of rhetorical structure analyses because of several reasons. First, it is believed that different rhetorical purposes often utilise different linguistic resources. Gill and Whedbee (1997), for example, explain that if a particular text is considered to be rhetorically persuasive, rhetorical critics look at not only the rhetorical text structure but also the argument structure and metaphors because these features of the text create an effect of persuasiveness. Also, the information on the form-function correlations in genre studies can be extremely useful for pedagogical purposes, especially for the purposes of teaching and learning genres (Bathia 1993). Similarly, as Kamberelis (1999:402) notes, “Gaining understanding of and competency with the forms, functions, rhetorical possibilities, and typical occasions of use of different genres is an important part of learning how to write.” In other words, both the macro-structure and the linguistic realisations of a particular genres are important information about a particular text for the purposes of processing the text or producing similar texts or for teaching and learning of genres.

2.5.3. Research Article Introductions

The introduction section of RAs has become a focus of genre studies in the last few two decades because of the position, function, quantity and difficulties and complexities in producing and comprehending it. Swales and Najjar (1987) suggest:

Introductions to research articles or papers have become in the last few years an important proving ground for our current capacity to understand the process and product of specialised academic writing. The extensive case studies of Latour & Woolgar (1979), Knorr-Cetina (1981) and Gilbert & Mulkay (1984) provide solid evidence for the complexity of the compositional process at the introduction stage. All three studies show that writing an introduction to a research article is not simply a wrestling with words to fit the facts, but is strongly modulated by perceptions of the anticipated reaction of peer-colleagues. Knorr-Cetina’s analysis of the evolving draft of a single paper ... show(s) how the first draft’s bold announcement of a new method ultimately becomes the reporting of a comparative analysis; how the early exuberance of
the primary researchers turns into the careful understatement of a wider group; and how dangerous knowledge-claims are made safe as insurance against potential damage to the research laboratory’s reputation if difficulties subsequently emerge. (pp:175-176)

There are several possible causes why writing an introduction is problematic for not only novice or student writers but also for professional or experienced writers. Gupta (1995), for example, suggests that since an introduction is usually written last after the other sections have been completed, writers need to spell out the details of the experiment or argument given in the paper and retrace the logic of thought that come prior to it. Also, as Gupta further explains, the introduction represents the link between the audience and the writer’s work; introductions are successful in so far as they are able to bridge the gap between the intended reader’s knowledge base and the research paper. Gupta suggests that an analysis of the structure and linguistic features of introductions is needed in order to help us understand them and teach students how to frame introductions.

As part of a RA, an introduction section conveys sub-communicative purposes of the RA to which it belongs, ie. to introduce readers to the whole body of the article and to persuade them to accept that the research which has been completed is necessary and worthwhile, on the grounds that there are some gaps in knowledge on an important topic (Hunston 1994). Because of its position and communicative function, readers normally read the introduction section before reading the other sections of the RA. The success of RA introductions in sparking readers’ motivation or in achieving a persuasive quality will be an important determinant in whether or not readers will read the entire article. In other words, introduction sections play a crucial role in promoting the entire article to readers.
The rhetoric of introductions is important because they are the most challenging part of a scientific article to write and this section appears to be complex in terms of the variety of moves authors are compelled to employ in order to introduce and defend their point of view, identify their goals, as well as review, comment on, and evaluate their own and other contemporary research work (Golebiowski 1998). From the student writers’ point of view, as Gupta (1995) points out, some students may have been able to write the body of their papers or essays relatively successfully but are still unsuccessful in composing the introduction.

The rhetorical structures and the linguistics features of RA introductions are probably the most theoretically established, conventionalised and best analysed among the sections or parts of RAs, and in particular the RA introductions written in English (Golebiowski 1997). According to Golebiowski, previous studies on this topic allows genre analysts to examine the established model in RA introductions in languages other than English in order to see the level of its applicability or to see the cross-cultural similarities and differences on the rhetorical structures.
2. 6. Closing Remarks

Genre in this study is viewed as a dynamic communicative event, the features of which are established and modified by the active members of the scientific discourse community. However, although genres are dynamic, they are relatively regular in one of their dominant features -- their communicative purpose or sets of communicative purpose. Therefore, the communicative purpose(s) of the genre has been used as the predominant parameter in the identification of a particular genre out of communicative events.

The RA is one of the most important genres in the scientific context not only because of its function as the standard product in the knowledge-manufacturing industry but also because of the immense number of texts and discourse community members. This aspect of RAs has made scientific texts very important in pedagogical practices, particularly in the teaching and learning of a language for academic purposes. Another consequence is that studies on RAs have been the target of scrutiny in the field of applied linguistics, encouraged partly by the demand for a legitimate foundation of developing explicit teaching materials.
CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

The main purpose of this chapter is to discuss research methodology for the present study. First, the corpus or the data for this study will be described; then, the reasons for the choice of the RAs as the corpus of this study will be explained. Third, the data analysis techniques chosen for this study will be discussed and exemplified. Fourth, the step-by-step research procedures for analysing the data will be discussed and finally, the validity of the results of the data analysis will be discussed.

3.2. The Corpus of the Study

A total of 90 Indonesian RAs which form the data of the study were taken from 32 different scientific journals in three different fields of discipline with 30 RAs from each discipline: Economics (ECO), Education (EDU), and Psychology (PSY). The inclusion of a relatively large number of texts for genre analysis is important in order to achieve an accurate picture of the rhetorical features of a particular genre (Biber, et al. 1998). The choice of the three disciplinary areas of the RAs is aimed at representing Indonesian scientific discourse in the social sciences. This choice, however, is more for both practical and substantial reasons. I am more familiar with these three disciplinary areas than with other disciplines from my previous education and working experiences, and a knowledge of the RA genre in these three disciplines (Economics, Education and
Psychology) is very useful for my teaching in the Faculties of Economics and Education of Bengkulu University, Indonesia.

The description of the data chosen for this study is shown in Table 3. As shown in Table 3, the Indonesian RAs have been chosen mainly from university-based journals. This is because of the fact that the majority of scientific journals currently available in Indonesia are published by universities and institutes rather than by commercial publishers. In other words, the main purpose of these journals is more on providing a means of communication among Indonesian researchers and scholars and a media for socialising their research findings rather than on gaining financial profit.

Table 3 also indicates that for the purpose of ensuring the representativeness of the data, the journals from which the RAs have been chosen are from three different regions of Indonesia (Western, Central and Eastern Indonesia) except for the psychology RAs. This is because, universities and institutes in Indonesia are not equally well developed; it is generally the case that universities and institutes in Java island are older than those in Sumatera, Kalimantan (Borneo), Sulawesi (Celebes) and other larger islands in Indonesia and, therefore, they are better developed and higher in quality.

2. The detailed description of the data, such as titles, authors, dates of publication, volumes and numbers of the journals from which the RAs were taken will be given in list of sources (p:293).
3. The psychology journals are mainly published in central Indonesia (Java island) because of the fact that psychology faculties are only found in universities on the island of Java.
The RAs in the corpus for this study have been taken from recent publications. All of them were published from 1991 onward. This was done in order to obtain the most recent rhetorical features of the Indonesian RAs. Since scientific journal publication in Indonesia is still in its early stages and is growing as the result of the increase in the research funds provided by the Indonesian government, the rhetorical features of the articles published in journals may change over time and from one field of discipline to another.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>JOURNAL TITLES</th>
<th># RA</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>EDU.</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Forum Pendidikan IKIP Padang.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Jurnal Penelitian IKIP Medan.</td>
<td>5</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Forum Kependidikan FKIP Universitas Sriwijaya.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Jurnal Penelitian Kependidikan IKIP Malang.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Jurnal Ilmu Pendidikan IKIP Malang.</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Jurnal Pendidikan IKIP Manado.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Jurnal Pendidikan Universitas Tanjung Pura Pontianak.</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Aneka Widy STKIP Singaraja Bali.</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Jurnal Penelitian Universitas Mataram</td>
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<td>Jurnal Respons FKIP Universitas Mulawarman Samarinda.</td>
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<td>Widyasrama Majalah Ilmiah Universitas Dwijendra.</td>
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<td>PSY.</td>
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<tr>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total (n)</td>
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<tr>
<td>ECO.</td>
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<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Jurnal Penelitian Universitas Mataram.</td>
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<td>Majalah Ilmiah Universitas Udayana.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Jurnal Ekonomi dan Bisnis Indonesia.</td>
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<td>Jurnal Ekonomi dan Industri Indonesia.</td>
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<td>Jurnal Ekonomi dan Pembangunan LIPI Jakarta.</td>
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<td>Jurnal Ekonomi Fakultas Ekonomi Universitas Kristen Indonesia.</td>
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<td>Monmata, Jurnal Ilmiah Universitas Syiah Kuala.</td>
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<td>Jurnal Ekonomi Fakultas Ekonomi Universitas Riau.</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Total General (N)</td>
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<td>90</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: The source of the Indonesian RAs in the corpus for the study
All journals from which the data for this study were taken are monolingual journals: all RAs were published in BI and were written by the Indonesian speakers. Although the majority of Indonesian people are bi-lingual or even multi-lingual, the influence of the local languages on the ways the Indonesian speakers write scientific texts is very minimum and insignificant. This is because, as discussed in Chapter 1, scientific communicative events in Indonesia (written and/or oral) are very unlike done using one of the local languages. This is important in order to keep to a minimum the rhetorical influence from other languages on those of the Indonesian RAs. This is because, unlike in mono-lingual journals, journal editors or referees for bilingual journals (eg. English and Indonesian) may apply the same writing format or rhetorical style for manuscripts in both languages (whether it is English or Indonesian), at least in terms of their macro rhetorical structures. In other words, since one language may influence another language in a bilingual or multilingual context of communication, RAs from bilingual or multilingual journals may not represent the real rhetorical features of the Indonesian scientific texts.

4. The Indonesian speakers here refer to the Indonesian people who speak Bahasa Indonesia (BI) as either a first or a second language. Although there is an increasing number of Indonesian people who speak BI as a first language, for the majority of Indonesian people BI is still a second language which is formally learned at schools or informally acquired through using it in the community (cf. Nababan, 1991).
From the disciplinary area point of view, there are two types of journals in the data for this study: mono-disciplinary journals and multi-disciplinary journals. Mono-disciplinary journals, such as *Jurnal Pendidikan* ‘Educational Journal’, *Jurnal Penelitian Pendidikan* ‘Educational Research Journal’, *Jurnal Ekonomi dan Bisnis* ‘Journal of Economics and Business’, *Jurnal Agro Ekonomi* ‘Journal of Economic Agronomy’, and *Jurnal Psikologi Indonesia* ‘Journal of Indonesian Psychology’, contain RAs only from the same field of discipline as the journal title suggests. Multi-disciplinary journals, such as *Jurnal Penelitian Universitas Mataram* ‘Research Journal of Mataram University’, *Jurnal Penelitian Universitas Andalas* ‘Research Journal of Andalas University’, *Majalah Universitas Sriwijaya* ‘Sriwijaya University Journal’, and *Jurnal Ilmiah Universitas Jambi* ‘Scientific Journal of Jambi University’, on the other hand, contain RAs from several different disciplinary areas. Multi-disciplinary journals can also be referred to as institution-based journals because the title of the journals is given after the institutions which publish them rather than by the disciplinary field of the articles published in the journals.

Differences between RAs appearing in mono-disciplinary and multi-disciplinary journals and the possible influence of the journal type on the rhetorical features of RAs has not been included in this study. This is because it appears that, particularly in the Indonesian context, the type of journal does not have a significant effect on the rhetorical features of the RAs. Journal editors and referees, for instance, are usually chosen on the basis of their field of expertise and, therefore, they only review manuscripts in their own field. In other words, although the journal is a multi-disciplinary journal, the rhetorical features of the RAs published in the journal should
still follow those commonly used in the discipline of the RAs because they are written, read and reviewed by the people in the same field.

3.3 Data Analysis Techniques

The main purpose of this study is to examine the rhetorical structures or features and the communicative purposes of Indonesian RAs, particularly of their introduction sections, using a genre analysis approach to the study of scientific texts developed mainly for English RAs. In this study, ‘rhetorical feature’ refers to the organisation of ideas in a particular text, or segment of a text and the textual features of the text based on an analysis of the semantic or communicative units of the text. According to Coulthard and Brazil (1979), there are two important aspects of a unit analysis to consider in discourse analytic studies, ie ‘...what position or function it has in the structure of other larger units and what its own internal structure is’ (p: 7). The semantic unit (also often referred to as a communicative unit) of a text in the data analysis for this study is called a Move; a Move may consist of one or more subsequent elements called Steps. Thus, the types of the Steps, their position, their communicative functions and their sequence or order constitute the internal structure of a particular Move.

3.3.1 Definitions of a Move and a Step

Several operational definitions of a Move have been proposed particularly by applied linguists working in the area of English for Specific Purposes (ESP). For Holmes (1998), for example, a Move is a realisation of a specific overall communicative purpose through a variety of linguistic strategies, while Brett (1994) simply defines a Move as a communicative category. Similarly, Dudley-Evans (1986)
refers to a Move as ‘...a semantic unit which is related to the writer’s purpose’ (p:131).

According to Dudley-Evans, a Move lies between a sentence and a paragraph.

A more detailed definition of a Move, however, is given by Nwogu (1997) who says,

The term Move means a text segment made up of a bundle of linguistic features (lexical meanings, propositional meanings, illocutionary forces, etc.) which give the segment a uniform orientation and signal the content of discourse in it. Each move is taken to embody a number of constituent elements or slots which combine in identifiable ways to constitute information in the move. Moves and their constituent elements were determined partly by inferencing from context, but also by reference to linguistic clues in the discourse, ...(p:122)

Thus, for Nwogu, a Move is a segment of text which has a clear communicative purpose set by the writer for the readers; readers can identify the moves in a particular text by identifying their linguistic signals and/or by inferencing them from context. Nwogu (1991) further suggests that each Move may have a number of constituent elements which work together to realise the communicative purpose/s of the Move. Thus, for Nwogu, a constituent element of a Move is a lower order semantic unit below a Move in a text.

Following Nwogu, Holmes, Brett, Dudley-Evans, Swales and other applied linguists working in the area of ESP, in this study a Move is defined as,

A communicative unit of a text (eg. a clause or a set of clauses or a paragraph) which shows a clear indication of a specific identifiable communicative purpose, signalled by linguistic clues or inferred from specific information in the text. The communicative units or moves in a particular text together develop a set of communicative purposes relevant to the genre of the text.

The decision on whether or not a segment of a text, such as a clause(s) or a paragraph(s) can be classified as a Move depends on whether or not the segment has a distinct and identifiable communicative purpose or function.
In order to realise the communicative purpose of a particular Move, as mentioned above, RA authors normally need one or more constituent elements. For this study the constituent element of a Move is called a Step; a Move can consist of a single Step or a series of Steps. A Step is, then, defined as,

A segment of a text containing a particular form of ‘rhetorical work’ necessary for realising the communicative purpose of a Move. Steps are strategies for encoding communicative purposes. The Steps are mostly signalled by linguistic and discourse clues in the text or are inferenced from the context.

The decision whether or not a particular segment of a text can be classified as a Step depends on whether or not the segment contains distinct and identifiable rhetorical work necessary for realising the communicative purpose of a particular Move in the text. The examples of Moves and Steps from the Indonesian RA introductions in the corpus of this study, their textual features and their communicative purposes or functions will be given later in chapters 5 and 6.

3.3.2. The Identification of the Communicative Units (Moves and Steps)

It has long been recognised and suggested in discourse analytic studies that, an ability to identify the formal boundary of chunks or segments of discourse should reduce reliance on subjective, a priori specification of content in the segmentation of texts (Hatim 1997). Brown and Yule (1983) suggest that there often do exists ways of identifying the boundaries which set one chunk of discourse off from the rest, such as the use of fixed or formulaic expressions. This is because, as Brown and Yule suggest, speakers or writers normally provide explicit guidelines or clues to help readers or listeners understand what they write or speak. However, as Brown and Yule further suggest, when there are no such explicit clues or guidelines the discourse analysts are
often forced to depend on their inference about where one part of a conversation or segment of text ends and another one begins.

Dudley-Evans (1994) has also discussed the possible ways of identifying the boundary of the communicative units, such as the Moves and Steps in the Swales’ CARS model. He suggests that decisions about the identification of Moves and Steps are mostly made on the basis of linguistic clues, comprehension of the text and understanding of the expectations that both the general academic community and the particular discourse community have of the text. However, when the lexical clues are less obvious, according to Dudley-Evans, one needs to make use of one's understanding of the text itself and of the way that the genre is generally expressed; this is where a knowledge of the genre conventions may help both the readers and the text analysts to identify the boundary of the communicative units in a particular text.

A similar suggestion has been made by Nwogu (1991 and 1997), who says that communicative units, such as Moves and their constituent elements or Steps, can be identified partly by inferencing from the content of the texts, but mostly by relying on linguistic clues in the discourse. Among these linguistic clues, as Nwogu suggests, are fixed or formulaic expressions, specific lexical items and cohesive markers. In this study, both of the above techniques for determining the boundary of the semantic units of Moves and Steps (relying on the linguistic clues and inferencing from the context in the text) will be used. Several other discourse clues, such as sub-titles or sub-section titles and paragraphs will also be used in this study. This is because, although they do not explicitly signal the boundary of the communicative units in a text, these clues provide important information for understanding a particular segment of the scientific texts, such as the communicative purpose/s of the segments of the text.
3.3.2.1. The Use of Linguistic Clues in Text Analysis

The linguistic clues, such as fixed or formulaic expressions, specific lexical items and cohesive markers as often used in the English RAs (cf. Nwogu 1991 and 1997), are also found in the Indonesian RA introductions. The Indonesian authors, as the English authors, also use these linguistic clues to indicate segments of texts with specific communicative purposes or functions in the RA introductions. Below are the examples of some of the linguistic clues and an explanation on how they may signal the boundary of the communicative units in the Indonesian texts:

a) Fixed or formulaic expressions in a particular text may represent the content of the text or signal the rhetorical structure of the text (Moon 1994). According to Moon, in terms of the rhetorical structure, fixed expressions signal the communicative unit of a text segment in which they appear. In the Indonesian RA introductions, for example, a fixed expression is used to signal the beginning of a particular communicative unit as in the following example (The emphasis is added as underlined):

[Prg.7] Tujuan umum dari penelitian ini adalah untuk mengetahui apakah ada perbedaan sikap anak terhadap orang tua bila salah satu orang tuanya menderita skizofrenia kronik ... (PSY. 3)

The general aim of this study is to find out whether or not there is a difference in children’s attitude toward their parents when one of them suffer from chronic schizophrenic illness ...

In the above example, the fixed or formulaic expression Tujuan umum dari penelitian ini ... ‘The main objective of this study is ...’ introduces readers to the main purpose of the research project reported in the RA (PSY 3). Thus, by reading this formulaic expression readers or text analysts will be able to identify the communicative purpose or function of the text segment where it appears.
b) Particular lexical items may also signal explicitly the information contained in a Step or Move in a text (Nwogu 1997). In the Indonesian RAs, for example, a lexical item is used to signal a definition or classification of a key term as in the following example: (The emphasis is added as underlined):


Bronchial asthma constitutes a common respiratory disease which has multiple causes. Asthma is usually a long-term disease and asthma patients often suffer from relapses which decrease the quality of the patient’s life. Although the death toll from asthma is relatively low, when the asthma patients experience an asthma attack, normally called ‘mouse asthma status’, the patients’ life can be in danger.

The word merupakan (meaning literally ‘constitute’ or ‘make up’) underlined in the above example and other similar words in the Indonesian RAs, such as adalah ‘is’, didefinisikan ‘is defined’, dimaksudkan ‘is meant’, mengacu pada ‘refers to’ and berfungsi sebagai ‘function as’ are specific lexical items used to define or classify key terms in a particular text. In the above text, the defined key term is asma bronkial ‘bronchial asthma’ which is extensively discussed in the introduction section of the RA introduction (PSY. 4). The authors of PSY. 4 use this specific lexical item to define or classify a particular key term in order to prepare readers before reading the entire part of the text. Thus, readers’ knowledge of specific lexical items in the Indonesian RA introductions, as in the above example, should help them identify the communicative purpose of the text segment in which these lexical items are used.
c) Cohesive markers or devices are linguistic clues which function to relate linguistic items occurring in succession but are not related by other structural means to each other in the discourse (Nwogu 1997). In the Indonesian RAs, cohesive markers signal not only the discourse relations in a text but also the communicative units in the text. The following example illustrates the point under discussion (The emphasis is added as underlined):

\[ \text{Prg.6} \] *Berbeda dengan telaah keadilan dalam bidang ekonomi, dalam konteks sosial yang lebih luas keadilan komutatif (exchange) tidak begitu banyak dikaji. ... (PSY. 10)*

Unlike the investigation of justice in economics, commutative justice (exchange) in a wider social context is rarely studied ...

In the above example, the cohesive marker *berbeda dengan* ‘unlike’ indicates the contrary semantic relationship between the rhetorical work presented before paragraph 6 and the one in and after paragraph 6 of PSY.10. This discourse marker also indicates a particular communicative purpose or function of the text segment; it suggests a lack of scientific work in the field of *keadilan komutatif (exchange) dalam konteks sosial* ‘commutative justice (exchange) in social context’. Thus, the cohesive marker *berbeda dengan* ‘unlike’, in the above example, functions both as a discourse marker in the coherence pattern of the text and as a discourse clue in identifying the communicative unit in the text.

### 3.3.2.2. The Use of Other Kinds of Discourse Clues

Sub-titles or sub-section titles in an RA are very useful discourse clues or signals for identifying the semantic units in a particular text. This is because, these sub-titles often clearly signal the rhetorical work or the information contained in the text segment or section under the sub-title. In other words, the communicative purpose(s) or
function(s) of a text segment under a particular sub-title can be confirmed by the readers or analysts from an understanding of the given sub-titles.

Among the sub-titles or sub-section titles commonly found in the Indonesian RA introductions are *Perumusan Masalah* ‘Problem Statement’, *Tujuan Penelitian* ‘The Purpose of the Study’, *Hipotesis* ‘Hypothesis’ and *Manfaat Penelitian* ‘Benefits of the Study’. However, the text section under a particular sub-title such as *Latar Belakang Masalah* ‘Background to the Study’ and *Tinjauan Pustaka* ‘Literature Review’ can be classified into more than one communicative unit. This is where other linguistic clues or inferences from the content of the texts are necessary in order to identify the communicative units in the text.

A paragraph, as a rhetorical or logical unit of a text in which all sentences relate to the same purpose (cf. Australian Government Publishing Service 1988), is also a useful discourse clue in identifying the semantic units of a text, although there is no necessary connection between paragraphs and the semantic units (a Move or a Step) in the text. This is because paragraph is a often regarded ‘as a typographical device for punctuating units of thought larger than the thought conveyed by a single sentence’ (Corbett 1990:412). Thus, when a unit of thought conveyed in a particular paragraph has a distinctive communicative unit(s) of a Move and/or a Step, then the boundary of the paragraph signals the boundary of the communicative unit(s) at the same time.

### 3.3.2.3. Inferencing from the Content of the Text

The identification of the communicative units Moves and Steps, as mentioned earlier, is more difficult if there are no linguistic or discourse clues available to signal the boundary of the units. One possible technique to deal with this difficulty is by
inferencing from the content of the texts. This technique identifies a communicative unit by understanding the information contained in a particular part or segment of a text. In defining a key term, for example, the Indonesian authors may start by introducing the key term and then followed by specific lexical items, such as *merupakan* ‘constitute’, *ialah* ‘is’, *didefinisikan* ‘is defined’, *dimaksudkan* ‘is meant’, *diartikan* ‘is interpreted’, *melibatkan* ‘includes’, *mengacu kepada* ‘refers to’, and *berfungsi* ‘function’, but the end of the definition is usually not signalled by any particular linguistic clue. This is where the readers’ interpretation or inference of the text is necessary. The following example illustrates the case in question: (The emphasis is added as underlined)


READING constitutes a complex psychological process. Readers are trying to reconstruct messages contained in the text. The READING activity involves processing visual and non-visual information (Smith, 1985:12-13). Visual information deals with linguistic aspects while non-visual information with the readers’ knowledge. READING constitutes one of the important language abilities in developing knowledge. In education in general, the READING ability functions as a means of achieving the success of learning processes (Suhadi, 1976:33)


In developing the teaching of reading, an important factor that needs be considered is the choice of the reading materials. Nuttall’s (1985) opinion is that reading texts must be chosen based on their (1) readability, (2) content
suitability, and (3) exploitability. Similarly, Hafni (1981) claims that the readability of reading materials is the most important external factor of texts which affects reading comprehension processes. Therefore, the readability of texts is an important factor that needs to be considered in selecting reading materials. (EDU.9)

As seen in the above example, the authors of EDU.9 define the key term membaca ‘reading’ by introducing this term first which is then followed by a lexical item of merupakan ‘constitute’, melibatkan ‘includes’, and berfungsi ‘functions’. These are the common words used to define or classify a key term in Indonesian texts. However, there is not any specific linguistic or discourse clue which marks the end of the definition except that in this case, the definition takes the whole of paragraph 1. In paragraph 2, as seen in the above example, the authors of EDU.9 introduce another aspect of the RA introduction, that is the important aspects in the teaching of reading. In other words, the end of the definition is not signalled by a particular linguistic clue but rather identified by the readers’ interpretation on the rhetorical work contained in the text and its context.

3. 4. The Titles and Abstracts in the Indonesian RAs

Although they do not directly help identifying the communicative units in the texts, the titles, the list of key terms and the abstracts in the Indonesian RAs are important rhetorical clues to read in order to get a rough understanding of the scientific texts. The titles, for example, often contain important key terms which are later defined or classified, exemplified and elaborated in the introduction section of the RAs. Below is an example of a title in the Indonesian RAs (The emphasis is added as underlined):

“Prasangka Sosial Antara Kelompok Etnis Cina Dengan Kelompok Etnis Jawa (PSY. 28)”

“Social Prejudice Between the Chinese and Javanese Ethnic Groups”
The key term in the above title is *Prasangka Sosial* ‘Social prejudice’ and this key term is extensively defined and elaborated in the introduction section of the RA. The author, for example, discusses what social prejudice is, why it occurs, how it appears, and gradually develops it into a serious condition, and what the consequences of uncontrolled social prejudice is. Thus, understanding the title of the RAs is useful to figure out what are the key terms which will be later developed in the text.

Some Indonesian authors in the data for this study provide a list of key terms on the first page of their RA introductions. These key terms are usually defined, exemplified, and elaborated early in the introduction section in order to establish a shared schemata with their potential readers. The following example illustrates the point under discussion:

*Kata-kata kunci: persepsi, keterampilan komunikasi, pengungkapan diri.*

(appearing below the abstract of EDU.11)

Key terms: perception, communication skills, self-disclosure.

The title of EDU.11 is *Hubungan Persepsi Klien Tentang Konseling dan Keterampilan Komunikasi Konselor dalam Konseling dengan Pengungkapan Diri Klien* ‘The Relationship between the Client’s Perceptions of Counselling, the Counsellor’s Communication Skills and the Client’s Self-disclosure’. In paragraph 1 of EDU.11, the author immediately defines and discusses the term *pengungkapan diri* ‘self-disclosure’ and, later in paragraph 2, he introduces the term *persepsi* ‘perception’ and *keterampilan komunikasi* ‘communication skill’. The term perception is defined in paragraph 3 while the term communication skill is defined and elaborated in paragraphs 4 and 5. Thus, knowing the key terms in an RA introduction will help readers or analysts figure
out the topic of the research being reported, particularly for readers who are not familiar with the research field.

The abstract is also an important part of an RA; if written properly, it will contain ‘...a description or factual summary of the much longer report, and is meant to give the reader an exact and concise knowledge of the full article’ (Bathia 1993:78). Bathia further suggests that an abstract in an RA is normally written to briefly answer four important questions about the research being reported: what the authors investigated, how they did it, what they found out, and what their conclusions are. Thus, by reading the abstracts readers may get a rough understanding of the RAs before reading the entire part of the texts.

In the Indonesian RAs in the corpus for this study, the abstract is often translated into English. This is probably for the purpose of providing access to the research for English speakers. In some RAs, both the Indonesian and the English versions of the abstract are given while in some others only one version (the English or the Indonesian) is available. The following is an example of an abstract in the Indonesian RAs:

**Abstrak**

_Tujuan penelitian ini adalah untuk mengetahui kemampuan prediksi hasil tes UMPGSD yang dijadikan dasar seleksi di IKIP Malang terhadap prestasi belajar mahasiswa analisis data dengan tehnik regresi ganda menunjukan bahwa kelima kelima subtes dalam tes UMPGSD secara bersama mempunyai prediksi yang berarti terhadap IPK, meskipun bila prestasi belajar dipilah-pilah ke dalam kelompok mata kuliah ternyata hanya mempunyai prediksi yang berarti terhadap bidang studi. Diantara lima subtes dalam tes UMPGSD ternyata subtes Matematika mempunyai sumbangan paling besar. (EDU. 22)_

**Abstract**

The purpose of this study is to find out the predictive ability of the UMPGSD test (a university admittance test at IKIP Malang) on the student’s performance. The data were analysed using a double regression technique and the results show that all five sub-tests in the entrance test have a significant predictive ability on the student’s performance, particularly on the student’s results of the student’s major subjects. Among the five sub-tests in the entrance test, the sub-test Mathematics has the highest predictive ability.
The title of EDU.22 is *Kemampuan Prediksi Ujian Masuk Pendidikan Guru Sekolah Dasar (UMPGSD) di IKIP Malang* ‘The Predictive Ability of the PGSD University Admittance Test in IKIP Malang’. As seen in the above example, the abstract conveys important rhetorical work relating to the purpose, the methods, and findings of the study reported in the RA.

### 3.5 Data Analysis Procedures

The text analysis processes followed a step-by-step procedure. First, the titles, the abstracts and the key terms (if available) of the RAs were read in order to get a rough understanding about the research project reported in the RAs. Second, the entire text of the 90 RAs was read one by one to figure out the whole process of the research project reported in the RAs. The main focus of the text analysis at this stage is to identify the major sections found in the Indonesian RAs and their communicative purposes or functions.

The third stage of the text analysis focused on analysing the introduction section of the Indonesian RAs. The communicative units or Moves and their subsequent elements or Steps in the texts and their communicative purposes or functions were identified with the guidelines from the sub-titles or the sub-section titles, the linguistic and discourse clues and by inferencing from the context.
Reading the titles, the abstracts and the key terms to get a rough understanding of the text.

Reading the entire text of the Indonesian RAs to identify the main sections.

Reading the introduction section of the RAs to identify the linguistic and communicative units of Moves and Steps in the introduction sections of the Indonesian RAs.

Identifying the common rhetorical patterns in the Indonesian RA introductions.

Developing an acceptable model for the rhetorical pattern of the Indonesian RA.

Figure 5: The processes of identifying the common rhetorical patterns in the Introductions of Indonesian RAs

Finally, the text analysis process advanced to identifying the common rhetorical patterns in the Indonesian RA introductions. The main focus of text analysis at this final
The stage was to find out the common Steps and Moves found in the Indonesian RA introductions, their frequencies, their positions and sequence, and their communicative purposes or functions. These stages of the identification of the communicative units of Moves and Steps in the Indonesian RA introductions can be summarised as in Figure 5. The analysis procedures, as seen in Figure 5, go from top to bottom following the directions indicated by the lines and the arrows. However, although the analysis procedure may look linear, the identification of Moves and Steps in the data for this study is full of re-reading or re-analysis. As the broken lines and arrows show, re-reading or re-analysis of every part or segment of the RAs can happen anywhere in the analysis stages when necessary. In other words, re-readings or re-analysis of any part of the RAs were carried out until the identification of the communicative units of Moves and Steps are satisfactorily done.

3.6 Validation of the Data Analysis Results

The identification of the communicative units or moves and their subsequent elements or Steps, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, involves subjective judgement. This raises the question of the validity of the analysis. According to Dudley-Evans (1994) and Selinker (1979), there are at least two possible approaches for validating the identification of the Moves and Step: the use of field specialists and the use of independent raters. According to Bathia (1993), since field specialists are active members of a particular discourse community, they are more aware of the generic features in a particular discipline than people outside the community. In other words, according to Bathia, field specialists or informants can identify the communicative units more objectively than non-specialists.
Swales (1990), however, claims that working with field specialists can be very time-consuming and that it raises uncertainty when comparing RAs from different disciplines. According to Swales, although they seem to offer a solution for the potential subjectivity of the text analysis by genre analysts, discussions with field specialists are also ‘... subject to all subjective features of personality, allegiance, status and so on that this repertoire exhibits’ (p:129). In addition, as Swales further claims, although genre analysts working on their own may be in danger of misreading a particular RA, relying too much on information from a field-specialist may be equally dangerous (p:129). In other words, the field-specialists may know more about the information contained in a particular RA, but genre analysts may know more about how the information is organised in the RA. Thus, as Swales concludes, the role of subject specialists in RA genre analysis remains somewhat controversial at least for the present time. The inconsistency of field specialists perceptions on the features of scientific genre has also been addressed by Liddicoat (1997b). Liddicoat has shown a gap between perception about the features of good French scientific texts suggested by French scientists and those of actual French scientific texts.

One practical solution to the accuracy problem of the text analysis is the use of an inter-rater validity technique. Crookes (1986), for example, argues that the accuracy of text analysis, such as the identification of the communicative units of moves and steps, can be tested by: first, defining the moves and steps in a practical way so that independent raters can identify them, and second, confirming their decisions with a sufficiently high level of agreement. Crookes further suggests that, if the analysis model represents an accurate reflection of a particular text, then it should be possible to reach a high level of agreement.
In this study, all 90 RAs in the data for this study were double-checked by an independent rater but no inter-rater statistical agreement was calculated. The independent rater was an Indonesian who was a graduate student. The independent rater was, first, trained in what the communicative units are, and then, she was shown how to identify the communicative units in the Indonesian RA introductions using the linguistic and discourse clues, the sub-titles and inferencing from the context. Finally, she was asked to label all the Moves and Steps found in the 90 RA introductions. Any inter-rater disagreement on the identification of Moves and Steps in the texts was discussed in order to come to an agreement. The identification process was, therefore, moderated. Thus, although not completely objective, the identification of the communicative units in the data for this study was relatively valid for allowing accurate conclusions to be drawn in the analysis.

The research methodology used in this study is mainly descriptive, although the frequency of the Moves and Steps found in the Indonesian RA introductions as the data for this study was also calculated. The use of linguistic and discourse clues, and the use of an independent rater in the identification of the Moves and Steps are independent procedures which help to ensure the validity of the analysis results.
CHAPTER FOUR

THE MACRO ORGANISATIONAL STRUCTURE OF THE INDONESIAN RESEARCH ARTICLES

4.1. Introduction

This chapter mainly focuses on the macro organisational structure of the whole text of the Indonesian Research Articles (RAs) chosen for the corpus of this study. The main purpose of this chapter is to examine in the Indonesian RAs the occurrence of the main sections commonly found in English RAs: Introduction, Method, Result and Discussion (IMRD) and their communicative purposes. Section 2 will review and discuss the main sections commonly found in English scientific articles, particularly in Indonesian RAs in the fields of hard and natural sciences, and the social sciences and humanities. Section 3 focuses on the overall organisational structure of the Indonesian RAs by examining whether or not the main sections commonly found in English RAs occur in the Indonesian RAs in the corpus of this study, and section 4 discusses and illustrates the variations of labels or subheadings used for the main sections in the Indonesian RAs. Section 5 will look at the communicative purposes of the main sections commonly found in the Indonesian RAs and the last section in this chapter (section 6) will discuss the function of the labelled sections as discourse markers from the readers’ perspective, and discourse boundary markers from the point of view of RA genre analysts. Comparison of the features of English RAs will be made throughout the discussion in order to examine the similarities and differences between the English rhetorical structure of RAs and the Indonesian rhetorical structure in the same genre at the macro organisational level.
4.2. The Common Sections in the English Research Articles

One of the pioneering studies on the overall structure of RAs in English was carried out by Bazerman (1984) when he examined the evolution of macro organisational structure of English scientific articles in physics published in Physical Review in the twentieth century. He discovered that before 1950, only about half (50%) of the articles in his corpus were formally divided into titled sections while from 1950 up to 1980, almost all articles in his corpus were divided into titled sections. He also found that before 1930, RAs ended with a description of results with no discussion and conclusion as if the results could stand alone and were complete in their meaning. This is, according to Bazerman, a clear indication that scientific articles at that period of time focused more on presenting facts rather than on claiming issues. Bazerman further suggests that only since then, have the focus of scientific articles gradually changed from just presenting facts to a certain degree of arguing for new knowledge claims. While Bazerman does not speculate why such evolution on the organisational structure of RAs took place (the more frequent use of IMRD sections), it may have resulted from the increasing complexity of the article's rhetorical or organisational structure when they are used to argue for new knowledge claims or against already established claims.

Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) extended Bazeman's exploratory study by analysing 350 journal articles in physics, biology and general science covering the time period of 1944 to 1989. Like Bazerman's study, the purpose of Berkenkotter and Huckin's study was also to examine the type of evolution which took place within that period of time which might have also characterised the features of the scientific community viewed from the organisational structure of the scientific articles. They discovered that features of scientific articles have considerably changed particularly in terms of their organisational structure. According to Berkenkotter and Huckin, the texts' structural changes are the result of changes in the content of the articles, where science has become both increasingly specialised and becoming more influenced by the information explosion while readers have less time to read. In other words, as form often follows function there is pressure to change the form to better accommodate the changing function of the scientific article such as the modification of their genre conventions,
such as to better accommodate the needs of specialist readers and readers with very limited
time to read. The most noticeable changes, according Berkenkotter and Huckin, are the
foregrounding of the most important findings of research to promote news value, more
informative titles, more frequent and standardised abstracts, more frequent informative
subheadings, greatly de-emphasised methods section, and less prominent background
information.

From a prescriptive point of view of text structural patterns, segmenting RAs with a
title for each section has become a standardised practice in Anglo-American scientific writing
(Day 1979). This, according to Berkenkotter & Hunckin (1995:31) "...reflects the chronology
of idealised Baconian scientific procedure or narrative of science”. In other words, in the field
of natural sciences and hard sciences, segmenting scientific articles into several smaller sections
has become a specific rhetorical feature put into practice for a long time. The question is
whether such segmenting also occurs in scientific articles in the fields of social sciences and
humanities.

Although the rhetorical studies examining the overall structure of RAs in English have
looked at predominantly RAs in hard and natural sciences (Holmes 1997), a few studies have
focused on RAs in social sciences and humanities. Swales (1988), for example, examined the
organisational structures of RAs published in TESOL Quarterly in the 1970s and 1980s. He
reported that the article sub-sectioning commonly found in scientific articles in the discipline of
natural and hard sciences was also common in the rhetorical framework of language related
articles published in TESOL Quarterly.

Another genre study of RAs in the field of social sciences was carried out by Brett
(1994), when he examined the overall organisational structure of 20 sociology RAs written in
English. Brett found that IMRD sections are also common in social science RAs such as those
in sociology, although not as standardised as those found in the natural sciences. Brett also
discovered that the authors of the RAs in his corpus use a wide variety of labels for the IMRD
sections. Brett illustrates that introduction sections can be unlabelled or may have a sub-
heading of introduction, theoretical perspective, models, or recent research. Similarly,
the methods section can be labelled as methods, data and method, methodology, data and
management, research setting or research strategy. A similar pattern is found in the results and discussion sections, which can be labelled results, findings, analysis and results, and data and analysis. The interesting finding from Brett's corpus is that the conclusion and summary sections may have subheadings of their own instead of becoming an integral part of the discussion section as commonly found in natural and hard science RAs.

A similar study in a language other than English reveals similar results as reported by Ahmad (1997). Ahmad found that the IMRD sections are also very common in her Malay RAs data although there are variations in their patterns or formats, particularly on the results and discussion sections. Ahmad illustrates that, 18 out of 60 RAs (30%) in her data have a separate section for the results while the other 42 RAs (70%) have a combined format of results and discussion sections. Ahmad, further claims that, the methods section in her Malay RAs appears to be the most non-standardised section. For example, according to Ahmad, this section is given various names or sub-titles by the Malay authors, such as Bahan dan Kaedah ‘Materials and Methods’, Kaedah ‘Methods’, Eksperimen ‘Experiment’, Tatacara/Carakerja Amali ‘Experimental Procedures’, Metodologi ‘Methodology’, Pencerapan Data ‘Data Collection’, or Peralatan dan Kaedah Pengukuran ‘Equipment and Methods of Measurement’. Ahmad also speculates that the absence of the standardised format in the overall structure of her Malay RAs is due to the fact that the journals, from which the RAs were taken, are institutionally based and multi-discipline while the journal editors do not seem to impose on the article contributors a particular article format for publishing in the journals.

To sum up, the need to break down a scientific article into several titled or non-titled sections appears to help facilitate the comprehension process from the readers' perspective. However, from the writers' point of view the RA appears to be a continuous text (Swales 1990:117). In other words, writers seem to view the RA as an unbreakable unit of text in which a scientific investigation which has been completed is reported; the segmented format is chosen to assist readers to be able to trace the flow of arguments in the text.

The rationale for such sub-sectioning seems to be that, the comprehension task becomes easier and less demanding when the complex and various communicative purposes
of a RA are broken down into several manageable sections with specific communicative purposes and sub-headings or sub-titles. In other words, the sub-sectioning of the RAs can be seen as a communication strategy used by writers to achieve successful communication or to avoid communication breakdown with potential readers.

4.3. The Organisational Structure of the Indonesian RAs

Analysis of whole Indonesian RAs reveals that the organisational structure of the texts consistently follows the sequence of Introduction - Method - Result - Discussion (IMRD). This is also the sequence commonly found in English RAs. The majority of the Indonesian RAs in this study also have an additional section: conclusions and suggestions placed at the very end of the text. The distribution of the main sections commonly found in the Indonesian RAs in this study is summarised in Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sections</th>
<th>RA Disciplines</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECO n=30</td>
<td>EDU n=30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results &amp; Discussion</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Combined</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Separated</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion &amp; Suggestions</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Combined</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-Separated</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4: The distribution of the Main Sections in the Indonesian Research Articles

As shown in Table 4, all 90 RAs (100 %) in the three different disciplines (Education, Economics and Psychology) have the sections introduction, method, results and discussion (IMRD) with the possible addition of a separate conclusion and suggestions. This evidence shows that the Indonesian RA writers consistently follow the IMRD format of RAs commonly found in English RAs as reported by Swales (1988), Brett (1994), and in the Malay RAs as
reported by Ahmad (1997). In other words, the Indonesian RA authors are aware of the four standard sections of RAs common to the RA writing format in the international journals.

Cross-disciplinary variation in the Indonesian RAs, as seen in Table 4, appears in the section of results and discussion; this section in the Indonesian RAs can have a combined format of Results-Discussion format or a separate format with two different subheadings (Results and Discussion). Also, there is a contrast particularly between the ECO. and the PSY. RAs in terms of the frequency of the combined or separate format of the results and discussion sections. As indicated in Table 4, the majority of the ECO RAs (27 out of 30 or 90%) have a combined format while the majority of the PSY RAs (25 out of 30 or 83%) have a separate format. Further discussion on this topic will be given later in this chapter.

The unique feature in the Indonesian RAs is the occurrence of a separate section for conclusion and suggestion with a sub-title. As shown in Table 4 above, 76 out of 90 RAs (84%) have a separate section for conclusions and suggestions while in the other 14 RAs, the concluding statements and suggestions are given at the end of the results and discussion section. In terms of the format of the conclusion and suggestion, the Indonesian RAs are relatively different from one discipline to the other, as shown in Table 4, the majority of the EDU and ECO RAs have a separated conclusion and suggestion section while only 18 out of 30 (60%) of the PSY RAs adopt this format. In addition, the conclusion and suggestion section in the Indonesian RAs can have two different formats; they can be combined into one section or separated into two sub-sections with two different sub-titles. Further discussion on this topic will be given later in this chapter.

The next section will discuss the use of a number of different labels or subheadings for the main sections in the Indonesian RAs and the most frequent labels or subheading used for each section. This section will also look at why such a wide variety of section labels or subheadings occur in the Indonesian RAs in the corpus of this study from the perspective of the journal editing committee and the editing process. An analysis will also be done on the content features of "notes" for article contributors, particularly on the organisational format of the article chosen for a particular journal.
4.4. The Use of Various Labels for IMRDC Sections

With the exception of the introduction section in a few RAs, all sections (methods, results and discussion and conclusion and suggestion sections) in the Indonesian RAs are labelled with a subheading. In addition, in a number of RAs even the smaller segments (for example, segments in an introduction section) are also labelled. In English RAs, the use of a label for the main sections is also rapidly increasing in frequency. As Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) found, the frequency of informative subheadings in international RA journals in the discipline of hard sciences has increased by over 4 times within 15 years (from 1974 to 1989), especially for the results and discussion sections. According to Berkenkotter and Huckin, the subheadings or labels are used to signal specific and important procedures and research results for the readers. From the perspective of the use of labels for the main sections in RAs, the Indonesian RAs in this study resemble their English counterparts.

As is common in English RAs in the fields of sciences and social sciences (Swales 1990 and Holmes 1997), the use of subheadings or labels for the IMRDC sections in the Indonesian RAs, is not standardised, especially the methods and results and discussion sections. The methods section, for instance, has five different possible labels with the dominant label being *Metode Penelitian* ‘Research Method’. The other possible labels are *Metode* ‘Methods’, *Cara Penelitian* ‘Research Procedure’, *Bahan dan Cara* ‘Materials and Procedure’, *Rancangan dan Pelaksanaan Penelitian* ‘Design and Research Implementation’, *Subjek dan Metode* ‘Research Subjects and Methods’, and *Metode Estimasi* ‘Estimation Methods’. Similarly, the Results and Discussion section is also not standardised with the most frequent used label being *Hasil Penelitian dan Pembahasan* ‘Research Results and Discussion’. The other possible labels are *Hasil Penelitian* ‘Research Results’, *Model dan Analisis* ‘Technique of Data Analysis’, and *Hasil dan Diskusi* ‘Results and Discussion’. However, the labelling system for the other two sections: introduction and conclusion and suggestion appears to be more standardised. The introduction section can be with or without the label *Pendahuluan* ‘Introduction’, while the Conclusion and Suggestion section can be labelled *Kesimpulan* or *Simpulan* ‘Conclusion’ or *Kesimpulan dan Saran* ‘Conclusion and recommendation’.
One possible explanation for the various labels used for the main sections in the Indonesian RAs (the IMRDC sections) appears to be due to the lack of, or even the absence of explicit editorial directions, or instructions, or preferred formats for the articles, particularly in the university based journals. In other words, the university-based journals (UBJ) may not have explicitly advised their RA contributors to follow a particular set of scientific article formats in the "Notes to the Contributors". For example, the "Notes to Contributors" printed in the inside back cover of *Jurnal Psikologi Indonesia* ‘Indonesian Psychology Journal’ (The emphasis is added as underlined):


This can be translated into English as:

The Indonesian Psychology Journal is published biannually by the Association of Indonesian Psychologists and the interested group. The publisher receives research and popular articles on Psychology which discuss the development of psychology in Indonesia. The articles received will be evaluated and considered for publication by the editorial committee. Therefore, the editorial committee members have a right to accept, reject or to make necessary revisions to the articles. The articles should be 15 - 25 pages long with typed double space and include the article summary in Indonesian and bibliography.

As can be seen in the above example, the publisher or the editorial committee members do not provide a particular organisational structure or format of a RA for article contributors to follow. Writers are free to choose any format they are in favour of (including the use of various labels for the main sections of the article) as long as the article is 15 to 25 pages long, double-space typed and includes a summary in Indonesian and a bibliography.

A similar style of ‘Notes To Contributors’ is found in an Indonesian social science research journal *Jurnal Ilmu-Ilmu Sosial (JIIS)* ‘Social Sciences Journal’ published by ‘Universitas Indonesia’ in Jakarta (The emphasis is added as underlined):

*Redaksi menerima sumbangan tulisan dari berbagai pihak terutama dari para staf pengajar di perguruan tinggi untuk mengisi jurnal ini. Pengiriman naskah...*
The publisher accepts articles from various groups of people especially from university teaching staff to be published in this journal. The articles for this journal must be 25-40 pages long typed double spaced on A4 size paper and sent to Publisher Committee of Jurnal Ilmu-Ilmu Sosial (JIIS), building PAU-IS-UI, Universitas Indonesia campus in Depok 16424. Editorial committee have right to shorten or revise the article without changing its content.

As in the psychology journal, as discussed above, the notes to the contributors in the social sciences journal in the above example also contain a very simple direction. It only describes the acceptable length of the article, the size of the paper, and the typing format although, as indicated in the above example, editors have right to change the format or style of the manuscript. However, it seems that the content of an article is more important for the Indonesian journal editors or reviewers than the format or style of the article itself. Therefore, they allow the use of various sub-titles or labels for the IMRDC sections of the RAs published in their journals.

The English journals in the same disciplinary areas, on the other hand, often impose a particular article organization or writing format and style on the contributors or authors for publication in the journals. Below is an example of part of the “Instructions To Authors” printed on the last page of the Journal of Social Psychology published by Heldref Publications in Washington, DC, a division of the Helen Dwight Reid Educational Foundation:


As seen in the above example, the English journal (the Journal of Social Psychology), unlike the Indonesian journals, imposes particular conventions of article organization format and writing style used in and known by a particular discourse community (the American Psychological Association). These conventions may include the format or style of RA rhetorical organisation, such as the article sections and the names or the titles for the sections.
Some English journals advise potential manuscript or article contributors to follow the article format and writing style used in the recent issue of the journal. Below is an example of ‘Notes To Contributors’ taken from Cambridge Journal of Economics published by Oxford University Press on behalf of the Cambridge Political Economy Society (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**Layout**

All copies must be typed in Journal style (see a recent issue) on one side only of the paper (preferably A4), double spaced (including footnotes and references), with a margin of at least 1.5” on the left hand side. ... (Printed inside the back cover of the journal).

As seen in the above example, the journal publisher advises article or manuscript contributors to follow the article format and the writing style used in a recent issue of the journal. By looking at the articles published in recent issues of the journal, potential authors or contributors will have a clear idea how an article in the journal is commonly organised and written, including what sections an article should have and what the acceptable names or titles for the sections should be. Thus, contributors to the journal need to follow the guideline in order to satisfy the criteria for an article to be acceptable for publication in the journal, at least from the perspective of the article organisation.

Indonesian Editorial committees, although playing a prime role in deciding the format of the RAs, also do not work effectively. This has been acknowledged by the committee of Indonesian scientific journals evaluation from the Ministry of Education and Culture of Indonesian (PDK 1993). In their study, they found that many University Based Journals (UBJ) in Indonesia have a non-professional editing committee; in fact many of the editing committee members were "ex officio" positions held by the head of a university or institute, who have no real commitment to the quality of the journals. As a result, articles from the contributors often do not undergo any editing process.

Yet another possible cause of the absence or the minimal form of the editing process may be due to the lack of articles contributed to the journals. PDK (1997/1998), for example, found that the main problem of scientific journal publication in Indonesia was obtaining adequate number of articles. The lack of articles contributed to the publisher has put pressure on the editing committee to catch up with the publishing schedule in order to sustain the
journal. This may also have put pressure on the editing committee not to bother editing or revising the articles at all.

4. 5. The Communicative Purposes of the Main Sections (IMRD) of the RAs

Research Articles, as other types of writing, is a one-way communication process between writers and their readers or the audience. In RAs, writers normally have a set of communicative purposes in writing an article realised not only through the lexical choice and syntactical construction but also through the text’s organisational pattern of the article. Day (1996) provides an illustration for the importance of such communicative purposes from the writers' point of view when she says that a professional writer when asked to write a few thousand words will ask him/herself, "A few thousand words about what? A few thousand words for whom? A few thousand words to achieve which objective?" (p:19). Thus, in order to achieve a successful communication, according to Day, readers, or the audience have to be able to comprehend the specific purposes conveyed in the text.

Research Articles, as discussed earlier, are commonly structured into several titled sections (IMRD) for the benefits of the readers; that is to ease the comprehension process in order to facilitate successful communication. Golebiowski (1998:74) suggests, "...the division into sections facilitates the process of reading and assists the readers' search for information relevant to their interest." Each section conveys a set of related messages commonly marked by sub-headings or labels to foreground the messages conveyed in the section of the RA. In addition, the communicative purposes of the section or parts of the sections can be interpreted or understood from the meaning of the phrases of sentences constructing the section or even subsection. In other words, the different messages in a particular section are expressed through sentences and/or paragraphs constructing the section.

One of the main communicative purposes of the RA is to persuade readers or the discourse community members to accept that the article is important, reliable, interesting and, therefore, is worth reading (Hunston 1994). Hunston suggests that RAs aim to persuade the academic community ‘to accept the new knowledge claims and to adjust its network of consensual knowledge in order to accommodate those claims - potentially a radical and face
threatening operation’ (p:192). She further claims that where an experiment is involved, the persuasion takes place by evaluating the experiment and its results as superior to rival knowledge claims. Since a RA is commonly broken down into several sections, so too are their communicative purposes: each section of the RA carries out part of the overall work of persuasion of the RA. The communicative purposes and the persuasive value of each section in the English RAs, as suggested by Hunston, is summarised in Figure 6. Hunston further explains that in order for the RA to be convincingly persuasive, the persuasion must be highly explicit and avoid the attitudinal language normally associated with interpersonal meaning.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Persuades the reader that ...</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduction</td>
<td>the research undertaken is necessary and worthwhile, on the grounds that there exists some gaps in knowledge on a topic which is important.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Methods</td>
<td>the research was done well, the subjects represented the groups they were intended to represent and the experimental method avoided distortion.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>the statistical packages used were useful and informative.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>the results make sense and fit with other examples of research, leading to a consistent body of knowledge.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 6: Communicative Purposes and Persuasive Values of RA Sections
(From Hunston 1994:193)

As seen in Figure 6, each section of RAs (IMRD sections) has a specific communicative purpose and persuasive value which is different from one section to another. Thus, the success of achieving communicative purposes and persuasive values of a RA, from the RA authors’ point of view, depends on the success of achieving the communicative purpose and persuasive value of each section of the RAs.

4.5.1. Introduction Section

Among discourse analytic studies of a specific part of RAs, the introduction section has received the most frequent attention from RA genre analysts. As discussed in Chapter 2, there have been a relatively large number of studies on the introduction section of RAs, such as Swales (1981, 1984, 1988 and 1990), Taylor and Chen (1991), Duszak (1994), Ahmad (1997), and Golebiowski (1998). Therefore, there has been a substantial body of literature on the organisational structure of introduction section of English RAs. Golebiowski (1998) suggests two reasons for the favourite choice of introduction section among RA genre analysts; first, the rhetoric of introduction is important because they are the most challenging and difficult part of scientific prose to write, partly because of the aim to attract readers’ interest for the
article. Secondly, the introduction section in fact has had a more prescribed and conventionalised structure and has been better analysed by applied linguists who have so far examined articles written by English-speaking writers.

From the view of the writing process, the unique structure of and the challenging work of writing an introduction section has also been addressed by Oshima and Hogue (1991). They write,

...the overall structure of an introduction is like a funnel with the most general information at the beginning and gradually narrowing in level of generality until it ends with the specific research question that will be tracked in the body of the paper (p:78).

A potential problem particularly for students or unexperienced writers, according to Oshima and Hogue, is the choice of ‘end-points in this funnel’; they may begin with information that is too general or they may become too specific towards the end of the introduction, such as jumping into the details of the paper.

In English RA writing conventions, the main objective of the introduction section is to create a research space while the amount of materials needed to create such a space depends on several factors such as the nature of the competition for research project and publication in a particular area of discipline and region, the size and importance of the research issue, and the writer's reputation (Swales 1990:142). These factors will affect the organisational structure as well as the length of the introduction section. According to Swales, the main communicative purpose of an introduction section can be broken down into three different sub-purposes: these are to establish the research field, to establish the research space, and to occupy the space established (p:141); each communicative purpose is achieved through one or more steps. In other words, some steps may be optional while some others are obligatory.

In Indonesian standard scientific writing, the introduction section of a RA has to address several aspects of the study reported in the RA, such as the background information, problem identification, problem statement, purposes and benefits of the study, review of relevant literature and hypothesis if applicable (Djaali 1994 and Rifai 1995). Rifai suggests that the main communicative purposes of introduction section are 1) to address the background or rationale of the study, 2) to announce the research problem, 3) to state the aims or objectives of the study and the hypothesis statement if necessary, and 4) to announce the contribution of
the study to the development of knowledge and theory in a particular field or to the country
development in general. According to Rifai, the various types of information in the introduction
section of the Indonesian RAs aim to reorient and prepare the readers before reading the
entire part of the RAs. With the information given in the introduction section, readers will be
well informed and mentally ready to read the entire article. Thus, compared to the introduction
section in English RAs, the introduction section in Indonesian RA conventions contains more
introduction elements and addresses more communicative purposes. It is, therefore, scarcely
surprising to find that the introduction section in the Indonesian RAs is longer than in their
English counterparts.

In the Indonesian RAs in this study, as shown in Table 4, all 90 RAs (100%) have an
introduction section with or without a label or subheading. The introduction sections may
contain the information about background to the study, research problems, problem
statement, and purposes of the study. A number of RAs introductions even contain additional
elements, such as definition of key terminologies, history of the research issue, and the
government policy relevant to the central issue of the research. These extra elements seem to
aim at preparing the readers' background knowledge or the schemata necessary to understand
the central issue of the research before the writers introduce the rationale for their current
study. According to Golebiowski (1998), this information is important for readers and,
therefore, writers should provide such information before presenting their research issue
particularly for readers who are new to the research field.

Almost all RA writers in this study review relevant literature in the introduction section
from either previous related studies or relevant textbooks. However, unlike in English RAs as
suggested by Swales (1990), the review of items from previous study does not point at the
weaknesses in the previous study; it is used, apart from establishing the central issue of the
research, to show and to convince readers that the writers have a sufficient knowledge and
experience in the field. This is in line with Golebiowski's view (1998) when she suggests two
communicative purposes of references or literature review found in her Polish RAs data.
According to Golebiowski, references or literature review may be used 1) to support the
presentation of contextual knowledge which places the proposed research within the
continuum of an academic debate in a particular field of study and 2) to testify to the authors' erudition, their knowledge and experience in the field. This issue will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 5.

A recent trend in English RA introductions is the foregrounding of the most important findings of the present research and providing less prominent background information in the introduction section to promote the news value of the RA (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995). However in the Indonesian RAs in this study, such a trend is almost unnoticeable; for example, only two RAs announce their findings in the introduction section. Also, the majority of the RAs still have a fairly long (sometimes unnecessary and irrelevant) background information section. The more detailed investigation and discussion of the specific features and communicative purposes of the introduction section in the Indonesian RAs using CARS model analysis as stipulated by Swales (1990) will be discussed in the next Chapter (Chapter 5).

4.5.2. Methods Section

Unlike introduction sections, the methods sections are considered to be more simpler and straightforward and, therefore, it is less demanding to analyse their discourse pattern and they are also less difficult to write (Golebiowski 1998). This claim supports Rymer's (1988) view of the composing process when she discovered that, in major research laboratories such as in the field of molecular biology where articles are usually written as a team effort with various apprentices involved, only the title, abstract, introduction, and discussion are written by the senior scientist or main author. According to Rymer, the more routinised parts of the article (eg. the methods section and the presentation of raw results) are typically written by junior scientists or graduate students. One of the reasons for this, according to Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), is because these two sections, compared to the introduction and discussion sections, are more descriptive in nature and do not require persuasive and convincing argument and do not promote the news value of the research as the other sections do.

That the methods section in RAs is more conventionalised than the other sections is also suggested by Swales (1990) in his review of the case study by Knorr-Cetina reported in 1981. Swales claims that, unlike introduction sections, the methods section underwent the
smallest change from the draft until the final form of the RA acceptable for publication. Swales goes on to claim that the methods section of RAs has become less important in RA writing. In current practice, the methods section only contains a list of procedural formulae instead of a detailed and long description of all aspects of research method used, such as the brand names of devices and the origin of the method. Although rhetorically simpler, the methods section has an important communicative purpose. Hunston (1994), for example, suggests that the purpose of the methods section is to convince readers that the research about to be reported has been done well using suitable research methodology or design and, therefore, the results or findings are reliable.

In the Indonesian RA writing, the methods section describes briefly but clearly the research variables, research design, operational definition, instrument, research population and sample, data collecting technique, and data analysis technique (Djaali 1994). As with the English RAs, the communicative purposes of the methods section, according to Djaali, are to persuade readers to accept that the writer/researcher has used an appropriate and reliable research method for the present study. However, the question of how detailed this section should be seems to be subjective. Rifai (1995), for example, has found that novice RA writers tend to describe every aspect of their research method and procedure, some of which are not necessary because they are already available from the audience's schemata. Rifai illustrates that in the case of anatomy laboratory research where the use of a set of operation devices is already fixed practice and commonly known, it is no longer necessary for the writers to describe them in their RAs.

In the Indonesian RAs in this study, as shown in Table 4, all RAs (100%) have the method section although with a variety of labels or subheadings. The data also show that the methods section addresses several aspects of research methods, such as the research population and the sample, sampling techniques, data collecting techniques and instruments, the research venue, data analysis techniques, research design, statistical analyses if necessary or used, and variables. The length of this section in the Indonesian RAs varies considerably; it can be as short as one paragraph or as long as ten paragraphs or more. This may reflect the different
levels of expertise of the RA writers as suggested by Rifai (1995). However, the length of this section can also depend on the writers' judgement about their readers' background knowledge (schemata) and the complexity of the research methods. Readers who are already familiar with the research field, for example, may need less detailed description of research methods than readers who are new to or less familiar with the research field do, and more complex research methods may need more detailed description of methods than less complex methods do. However, the interesting evidence from the data of this study is that, in order to be convincing and probably persuasive, RA writers also use reference or quotations in this section particularly to justify the choice of statistical formula, the use of a particular research instrument, and the use of a particular data analysis technique.

To sum up, as with the RAs in English the communicative purpose of the method section in the Indonesian RAs in this study seems to be to justify the choice of research method and its components in order to convince the readers the research results or findings are reliable. In other words, the writers are trying to convince readers that their research was carried out using an appropriate set of research methods and it has gone through an appropriate research procedures and the results, therefore, are reliable and generalisable.

4. 5. 3. The Results and Discussion Sections

Like methods section, the results section, particularly when separated from the discussion section, is simpler, more straightforward, and more conventionalised. In English RAs, according to Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), the methods and results sections are more routine and have gained less attention from the RA writers. Holmes (1998) classifies two communicative purposes of results section: 1) to indicate the findings of the present study and 2) to argue for the findings. Similarly, according to Hunston (1994) the section of results is aimed at persuading readers that the statistical packages used in the research are useful and informative.

The discussion section has, in fact, attracted more attention from RA discourse analysts compared to the results section. This is probably because the discussion section in RAs is more important and complex than the results section or even than the introduction
Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), for example, discovered that all of the field specialists consulted in their study read some part of the discussion section while only a few of them read the introduction section. Berkenkotter and Huckin argue that the claim that the introduction section is the most important section in a RA is not always true particularly for field specialist readers. As a result, the discussion section needs more attention from RA genre analysts.

One genre study focusing on the discussion section of English RAs was carried out by Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995). Following Swales' (1990) CARS model, they discovered from their science RAs that the communicative purposes of discussion section are similar to the those of the introduction section, but occur in the opposite order. They also found that the first paragraph of this section normally addresses the strongest claim of the study. The different order of the content between introduction section and discussion section is shown in Figure 7.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Introduction</th>
<th>Discussion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Establishing a territory</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Establishing the niche</td>
<td>2. (Re)establishing the niche</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Occupying the niche</td>
<td>3. Establishing additional territory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 7: Basic Moves in Introduction and Discussion sections in English RAs
(From Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995:41)

The discussion section, as shown in Figure 7, begins with occupying the niche or research space which had been established in the introduction section. Then comes the segment of (re)establishing the niche or expanding the niche which can be done in the form of comparison of the present results to findings in the previous research or claims made by other investigators. Establishing additional territory is done by proposing the implications of the study or plans for future work. In other words, the relationship between introduction and discussion sections is very close; for example, they address similar communicative purposes and the only difference is the sequence of the moves.

A more detailed investigation on the discussion section in English RAs in social sciences was carried out by Holmes (1998). Following the work of Nwogu (1991), Holmes
The discussion section of English RAs in Economics is classified into seven schematic structures or moves: 1) background information, 2) foregrounding present research, 3) commenting on research outcome, 4) reference to previous research, 5) explaining unsatisfactory results, 6) generalisation, and 7) recommendation. The classification of these moves is based on the information type and the communicative purpose of each schematic structure unit or move within the overall structure and communicative purpose of the RAs. Holmes' classification is, in fact, very similar to the one proposed by Dudley-Evans (1986 and 1994) although drawn from data in a different sub-genre and different discipline. Dudley-Evans classifies the discussion sections of M. Sc. theses in biology science into nine schematic structures or moves: 1) information move, 2) statement of results, 3) findings, 4) (expected or unexpected outcome, 5) reference to previous research (either for comparison or to support a claim), 6) explanation of unsatisfactory results, 7) claim, 8) limitation, and 9) recommendation. The difference between these two classifications, apart from the sequence, seems to be in Dudley-Evans' Move 2, 3 and 4, which in Holmes' model are combined into one move (Move 3 or commenting on research outcome).

In the conventions of the Indonesian RA writing, the results and discussions section is the nucleus of a RA, because it contains the research findings which are used to draw logical conclusion in order to establish a new theory or support a previously established theory (Djaali 1994). As in English RAs, the separation of results from discussion is also common in Indonesian scientific writing. Rifai (1995) suggests that this separation is more suitable for research with a wider scope while the combined sections is more suitable for research with smaller scope. Rifai goes on to suggest that research results should be presented as effectively and efficiently as possible. For example, they should only include the materials necessary to draw conclusions from the research. Rifai goes on to suggest that the use of figures and graphics is the most efficient ways of presenting the results without referring to the raw data. The communicative purpose of the results section, according to Rifai, is to describe what has been obtained from the research data using the data analysis techniques introduced in the methods section and to indicate what the important features of the analysis results are.
Rifai (1995) also points out that the discussion section in an Indonesian RA is more complex than the results section and it conveys more communicative purposes. Some of the communicative purposes of this section, according to Rifai, are: to discuss and justify the differences and/or similarities between the results of the present study and those from previous study; to show readers how the findings of the present study relate to those of the previous studies or to established knowledge or claims; and to show how the findings of the present study contribute to the development of the knowledge of the field or the development of the country in general. In other words, the discussion section is the place where writers are freer to express themselves and to discuss what they consider interesting and useful from the findings of the present study.

In this study, all 90 RAs (100%), as seen in Table 4, have results and discussion sections; these sections may be collapsed into one section or may be separated into two sections. When they are separated, the results section becomes a straightforward presentation of raw results commonly containing visual presentations of data, such as tables, figures, or graphs. In this section, the RA writers present the results of statistical analyses in the form of percentages, mean scores, significance values, frequencies, average scores, total scores, etc. This is often followed by simple statements about the important or interesting items in the tables or figures from the writers' point of view, particularly those which will be discussed in detail in the discussion section. Since the results section focuses on the present study, there is no reference to previous studies found in this section. In several RAs, writers also review the research procedures used for the present study before presenting the results.

Like the rhetorical form, the communicative purpose of the results section also seems to be simple and straightforward. In this section, the writers tell the readers what they obtained from the data and which parts of the results are considered interesting and/or important to be discussed further or in detail in the discussion section. The results section is probably the only section in the whole RA which is completely descriptive in nature without evaluation, argument or justification. When the two sections are combined into one section, every item of the research results is followed by a discussion but when the two are separated a series of results of the research is
followed by a series of discussion. The typical sequence between results and discussion can be classified into two different models as summarised in Figure 8. In the combined model (Model 1), as seen in Figure 8, one aspect of the research results may be followed immediately by a discussion while in the separated model (Model 2), several items of research results are followed by a series of discussion. The number of the cycles depends on the number of important findings of the present study from the writer's prospective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model 1. (The Combined Model)</th>
<th>Model 2. (The Separated Model)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Results</td>
<td>Results</td>
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<tr>
<td>Discussion</td>
<td>Results</td>
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<td>Discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>...</td>
<td>Discussion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 8: Presentation Models of Results and Discussion Sections in the Indonesian Research Articles

As also shown in Table 4, the Indonesian RAs in this study are different among the three disciplines particularly between the RAs in Economics and Psychology in terms of the structure of the results and discussion (Model 1 or 2). Where RAs in Economics prefer the combined model (Model 1), RAs in Psychology favour the separated model (Model 2). Rifai (1995) suggests that the combined model is more suitable for smaller scope research while the separated model is more suitable for research with wider scope. The evidence in this study supports this claim as the separated model is common in the psychology RAs which are longer in terms of the total number of paragraphs than the economics RAs.

The Indonesian RAs in this study show the evidence of all seven schematic structure units or moves in the discussion sections as classified by Holmes (1997), except Move 1 and Move 7. Move 1 (presenting background information) in the discussion section of the Indonesian RAs is relatively uncommon. The Indonesian authors seem to prefer to begin their discussion section by restating the results of the research being reported which is then followed
by discussion or comment on the results (Move 3), such as whether they are expected or unexpected. If the results are expected or if they support the results of previous study, the writers, then, review previous studies to further discuss the essence of the results. However, if the results of the present study are unexpected or different from the ones in previous studies, the writers explain why such differences occur; they, for example, look at the difference between the present research and the previous research in terms of research method. Move 7 (recommendation), unlike in the English RAs (cf. Holmes 1997 and 1998), is often separated from the discussion section; it is normally combined into the conclusion section and given a sub-title or sub-heading of ‘Conclusion and Recommendation’.

4.5.4. The Conclusion and Recommendations Section

In English RAs, conclusion, summary and recommendation commonly become an integral part of the results and discussion section, and come at the end of the section, especially in natural and hard science RAs (Bazerman 1984). In social science RAs, the conclusion and summary also commonly becomes part of the discussion section. Brett’s (1994) study on Sociology RAs, for example, found that the conclusion and summary are part of discussion sections and are placed at the end of the discussion section. Thus, in English RAs (in any discipline), the conclusion and summary section is part of the discussion section which comes at the end of the section.

In the Indonesian RAs in the data for this study, the conclusion or summary of the article is commonly separated from the discussion section and often given a sub-title Kesimpulan dan Saran ‘Conclusion and Recommendations’. As Table 4 indicates, the majority of the RAs (76 out of 90 RAs or 84%) have a separate section for the conclusion or summary, although the frequency is different among the three disciplinary areas. A much smaller percentage of RAs with a separate section for conclusion or summary is found in Ahmad’s (1997) study, where she discovered that 21 out of 62 Malay RAs in natural sciences (34%) have a separate section for conclusion and summary. However, unlike the Indonesian RAs, the common sub-title or name for the conclusion or summary section in the Malay RAs, according to Ahmad, are either Kesimpulan ‘Conclusion’ or Rumusan ‘Summary’.
4. 5. 4. 1. Recommendations of the Study

The specific feature of the Indonesian RAs, however, is not only the separate section for the conclusion or summary of the study but also the occurrence of *Saran-Saran* or *Rekomendasi* ‘Recommendations’ in the conclusion section. Recommendations appear in 52 out of 90 RAs (57%) of the data for this study. This differs from Malay RAs where Ahmad (1997) found that, although they have a separate section for conclusion and summary, there is no recommendations put forward in this section. This evidence shows that, unlike in the English RAs, suggestions or recommendations is an important element in the Indonesian RAs and is used to show readers how the findings of the present research may contribute to extending present knowledge in a certain field of study from a theoretical perspective or to developing the country in a particular field from a practical perspective.

Although the majority of the Indonesian RAs in this study have a separate section for Conclusion and Recommendations; this, however, does not reflect prescription for scientific articles writing in Indonesian. Rifai (1995) suggests that conclusions and recommendations should not form a separate section in a RA; they should be an integral part of the discussion section because the conclusion is logically drawn from the discussion. The separation of conclusion from the discussion section, according to Rifai (1995) will weaken the cohesion of the RA. In addition Djaali (1994) suggests that, unlike the conclusion, recommendations should not stand out at the concluding part of a research article because they have been implicitly addressed in the discussion section.

One possible explanation for the preferred model of a separate section for conclusions and suggestions in the Indonesian RAs is due to the fact that this model is common in research reports or thesis writing in Indonesian (Umar 1996). This section, according to Umar, summarises, justifies, evaluates, and interprets all items in the discussion section. Since an RA writing format is not yet standardised in Indonesia as discussed above, the RA writers may use the format already established in research report or thesis writing; the scientific writing genre which is more familiar to them. With the high frequency of the occurrence of the conclusion section in the majority of the Indonesian RAs, it can be generalised that, unlike the English
RAs, Indonesian RAs have a common organisational structure of introduction, methods, results and discussion and conclusion (IMRDC).

4. 5. 4. 2. Implications of the Study

In a number of the Indonesian RAs in this study, implications of the study are separated from recommendations and form a sub-section of their own, as though they were two different components although in reality they have very similar content. The following example illustrates the similarities between recommendations and implications in the Indonesian RAs.

The Effects of Teaching Methods and Expression Types on the Learning Achievements in Drawing Classes of Junior High School Students in Medan

Expressing Methods and Telling Methods are different in their impact on learning performances in "Expressive Drawing". Therefore, the teaching plan for drawing should match the characteristics of pupils. Further, the teacher should try to educate the pupils to express themselves and to have a satisfying academic knowledge, in order to become a complete Indonesian person. In other words, teachers should teach them to become independent.

Selanjutnya siswa memata lebih baik diberi tugas menggambar reklame atau pemandangan yang natural. Namun siswa rerasa akan lebih berhasil; bila mengerjakan tugas
menggambar yang mengungkapkan perasaan, emosi ataupun subjektifitas pribadi seperti melukis bebas atau menggambar ekspresi.

To teach pupils investigating technique or those who wish to draw natural shapes, it would be better to use the method of Expressing. To teach “Rerasa” (Feeling) pupils or those who are not interested in natural shapes but wish to express their ideas in drawing, it would be better to use the method of Telling. In addition, we should give pupils who like to draw through feeling drawing tasks of natural shapes such as forms of object, human and portrait, advertisements or natural views. These pupils will be more successful when drawing through expressing feeling, emotion or personal subjectivity such as free painting or expressive drawing.

Saran
Recommendations

1. IKIP sebagai perguruan tinggi yang mendidik calon guru, disarankan untuk memasukan metode mewujudkan dan metode mencetuskan sebagai suatu materi perkuliahan, khususnya dalam kurikulum Seni Rupa.

IKIP (Teacher’s Training College) as an educational institution for preparing teachers should include the Method of Expressing and the Method of Telling as a subject, particularly in the curriculum of Arts Department.

2. Untuk memperbaiki prestasi siswa yang merasa putus asa dalam menggambar namun masih berkeinginan untuk maju, sebaiknya digunakan metode mencetuskan. Relasi aku-kamu dan empati yang ditimbulkan sangat baik untuk mengajak, mendorong, menghargai dan sekaligus menanamkan keberanian serta percaya pada diri siswa.

To improve the performance of the pupils who are frustrated in drawing but still wishing to improve it would be better to use the Telling Method. The You-I Relation and the empathy that arises from this method are very beneficial to invite, support, and develop the pupils’ courage and confidence.

3. Untuk melatih siswa menemukan hal-hal secara ilmiah di bidang seni rupa pada umumnya dan menggambar pada khususnya, sebaiknya digunakan pendekatan dengan metode mewujudkan. Disini siswa dilatih meneliti bagaimana bentuk-bentuk benda itu digambarkan sesuai dengan aslinya.

To train the pupils to find natural forms in Arts in general and drawing in particular, it would be better to use the Expressing Method. Here the pupils are trained to analyse how shapes of things are drawn in their original form.

4. Untuk lebih meningkatkan prestasi belajar siswa dalam berbagai cabang seni rupa, disarankan kepada para guru seni rupa agar melakukan penelitian dengan menerapkan metode mencetuskan pada
tahap awal dan dilanjutkan dengan metode mewujudkan pada tahap penguasaan keterampilan yang lebih tinggi.

To improve the pupils’ learning performance in various fields of Arts, it is suggested that the teachers conduct studies in applying the Method of Pronouncing in the beginning and continuing with the Method of Expressing in the higher skill mastery phase.

5. Untuk meningkatkan kreatifitas siswa dalam menggambar, disarankan melakukan penelitian dengan menggunakan metode mencetuskan yang menyediakan fasilitas menggambar yang lengkap.

To increase the pupils’ creativity in drawing, studies applying the Method of Pronouncing are suggested, providing complete drawing facilities.

As seen in the above example, in both recommendation and implication segments, the writer proposes recommendations which are practical implications of the research findings. In the segment labelled *implikasi* ‘implications’ (paragraph 18), for example, the writer suggests that teachers should consider an expressive teaching method in drawing classes and in the segment labelled *Saran* ‘suggestion’ (paragraph 20) he/she suggests that the expressive method should be included in the IKIP (the Institute of Teacher Training and Education) curriculum. Also, in paragraph 19 under the segment labelled *Implikasi* ‘Implications’, the writer suggests the use of the *shaping method* for students who like drawing natural shapes and in paragraph 20 point 3 in the *Saran* ‘Recommendations’ section he/she suggests the use of the Expressing Method for the students who are frustrated in drawings but are still willing to improve. In other conclusion, recommendation and implication sections consist of practical recommendations based on the research findings. This evidence confirms Djaali’s (1994) claim that if suggestions are really necessary, they should address the real implications of the research findings. In other words, recommendations and implications are the same things, and they therefore should not be separated.

4. 6. Section Labels or Sub-headings as Discourse Markers

From the readers’ point of view, the subheadings available may become helpful guides in comprehending the typical written text; that is they may function as discourse markers to signal the text segment boundaries. Discourse markers, as defined by Schiffrin, are
"sequentially dependent elements which bracket units of talk [text]" (Schiffrin 1987). According to McCarthy (1993), discourse markers provide contextual coordinates for an ongoing talk or text which functions as a system of management of what is said or written in order to signal to the receivers (readers) that they realise a range of interactive function. The segment labels may function to link one segment with another, such as the background of the study and the statement of problems.

With the segment labels readers will also be well informed and aware of what they are going to come across before reading the text in details; they can, therefore, use relevant schemata or background knowledge necessary to comprehend a particular text. Johns (1997:94) argues that "...when processing a situated text, readers are said to use mental models based on their schemata which are then revised as they read or write for the particular situation." Johns goes on to claim that as readers and writers become more familiar with a particular genre or develop good schema for the genre, they begin to work more easily and process the text more rapidly and efficiently.

From the text comprehension point of view, and according to schema theory, if readers are not familiar with the content or form of a text, they may have difficulty in comprehending it successfully or efficiently (Johns 1997). According to Johns, successful comprehension will be achieved only when readers share the same schemata for the text; such shared schemata include the text's name, its communicative purposes, knowledge of text roles, knowledge of context, knowledge of formal features of the text (conventions), knowledge of text content, register, text cultural values, and awareness of intertextuality. The more schemata particular readers share with the text writer, the more efficient and successful their comprehension will be.

In the Indonesian academic context, the use of subheadings or sub-titles and segment labels are not only found in RAs but are also common in similar scientific genres, such as research reports and student theses or dissertations (Umar 1996). Thesis and research report writing are an older writing tradition in Indonesian education and academic practice especially at tertiary education level. In the majority of departments in Indonesian universities or institutes, for example, undergraduate students have to write a thesis for completion of their
undergraduate or Bachelor degree. In other words, Indonesian university students and graduates are familiar with the writing format of theses or research reports. This education experience may have influenced the students’ style of writing for RAs, especially for those who were never introduced to a more standardised format for Indonesian RA writing such as those of Rifai (1995) and Djaali (1994).
CHAPTER FIVE

THE INDONESIAN RESEARCH ARTICLE INTRODUCTIONS:
THE COMMUNICATIVE PURPOSE ANALYSIS

5.1. Introduction

This chapter mainly discusses the rhetorical structures of the introduction section in the Indonesian Research Articles (RAs) chosen for the corpus of this study. The major focus of this chapter is the application of Creating-A-Research-Space (CARS) analysis model as stipulated by Swales (1990) on Indonesian RA introductions. The main purpose of this chapter is to examine the capabilities of CARS to capture the macro rhetorical features and the communicative purposes of the Indonesian RA introduction. The next section of this chapter (Section 2) will discuss all aspects of CARS and review items from previous studies related to CARS. Section 3 will examine and illustrate the common features of the Indonesian RAs; by looking at the frequency occurrence of Moves 1, 2 and 3 of CARS in the Indonesian RA introduction followed by examples of short fragments taken from the original text with a rough English translation⁴. Section 4 will discuss the phenomena of research questions (RQ) in the Indonesian RA introduction while section 5 suggests the persuasive values in the Indonesian RA introductions. The final section (Section 6) will propose a cultural explanation for specific rhetorical characteristics and the common communicative purposes of the Indonesian RA introduction.

⁴. Rough translation here means free or loose translation (it is not word-to-word translation) of the Indonesian texts used in this thesis; this is to give access to English speakers to the texts. It was done by me based on my own understanding on the Indonesian texts.
5. 2. Models of RA Introductions Analysis

5. 2. 1. The Four-Move Model

Probably, the most widely discussed and frequently validated analysis model of RA introduction at the macro level is the top-down analysis developed by Swales (1981, 1984, 1988, and 1990). This is due to the fact that this analysis model has wide methodological, empirical and pedagogical influence among the RA genre analysts (Ahmad 1997). In his investigation Swales (1984) analysed 48 English RA introductions from three distinctive disciplinary areas: 16 articles from the 'hard' sciences, 16 articles from the social sciences (education, management and linguistics), and 16 articles from the field of biology/medical. Beside investigating the common rhetorical pattern of RA introduction, Swales was also interested in investigating if there were any different rhetorical patterns in RAs of different disciplines. He discovered that there are four communicative moves which characterize the English RA introduction, irrespective of the areas of discipline of the RAs. The four-move model is reproduced in Figure 9.

Move 1: Establishing the field  
a) by asserting centrality  
   OR  
b) by stating current knowledge

Move 2: Summarizing previous research

Move 3: Preparing for present research  
a) by indicating a gap in previous research  
   OR  
b) by raising a question about previous research

Move 4: Introducing the present research  
a) by stating the purpose  
   OR  
b) by outlining the present research

Figure 9: The Four-Move Model of RA Introductions  
(From Swales 1984:80)
Swales (1990) argues that, in accordance with the views adopted by Zappen (1983), Hoey (1983) and Van Dijk (1977), RA introductions may appear to have a 'problem-solution' rhetorical pattern but its real communicative function beneath these surface features is an appeal to the readers for acceptance or acknowledgment. According to Swales, the communicative purposes or functions in the RA introduction in a broader communication setting between writers and discourse community members are more important than the superficial features. Swales illustrates that the functional analysis of RA introductions is similar to the conversation analysis concept of 'second-storying' (p:82). According to Swales, to be successful in the 'second story', researchers or RA writers must show the readers that the first story is still unfinished or unsatisfactory and, therefore, the second story is necessary or important.

Swales' tentative analysis model (the four-move model), however, has met with criticism, for example from Jacoby (1987), Crookes (1986) and Bley-Vroman and Selinker (1984) who have found difficulties, particularly in separating Move 1 (establishing field) from Move 2 (summarising previous research). Swales (1990) himself acknowledges that the difficulties of separating Move 1 from Move 2 is due to ‘the increasing practice of spreading references throughout the introduction’ (p:140). Swales further explains that his tentative analysis model of RA introductions (the four-move model) was drawn from analysing a corpus of shorter RA introductions, while in longer RA introductions the use of references tends to recycle. In other words, the four-move model of RA introduction analysis is only applicable for shorter introductions where the rhetorical work of establishing field of research is clearly separable from that of reviewing the items from previous research.

5.2.2. Creating a Research Space (CARS) Model

Responding to the comments on the defects of his earlier work, Swales (1990) introduced a revised model for RA introduction analysis containing three moves, known as Creating a Research Space (CARS) as shown in Table 8. Instead of separating Move 1 from Move 2 in his earlier model (the Four-Move model), in the CARS model,
as seen in Figure 10, Swales combines them into one move and calls it Move 1 (establishing a territory). According to Swales, his CARS model is more capable of capturing important communicative purposes of RA introductions than his earlier model. The important communicative purposes, as Swales suggests, are "... to establish the significance of the research, to situate the research in terms of its significance, and to show how this niche will be occupied and defended in the wider ecosystem" (p:140). Unlike the earlier model which focuses on short RA introductions, CARS accommodates longer introductions and the current trend where references are scattered throughout the introduction section. This is Swales' main rationale for combining Move 2 with Move 1 where reviewing items of previous research is perceived as part of an attempt to establish a research territory.

Figure 10: CARS Model of RA Introduction Structure Analysis
(From Swales 1990: 141)
The majority of the steps in the CARS model, as indicated in Figure 10, are optional. In Move 1, for example, only one step (Step3) is obligatory while the other two steps (Step 1 and 2) are optional. Also, every move in the CARS model has more possible steps than those in the four-move model does. Move 2 (establishing a niche) in CARS, for example, can be addressed using one of the four possible steps while in the former model it has only two, and Move 3 (occupying the niche) in CARS can have up to three possible steps instead of one in the former model. According to Swales (1990) the larger number of possible steps in the CARS model than in the four-move model is able to accommodate more variation of communicative purpose in longer and more complex RA introductions. Also, the number of moves/steps utilised in a particular RA may determine the quality of the RA itself at least from the rhetorical structure’s point of view. However, the number of moves/steps in a particular RA introduction, as suggested by Swales (1990) and Ahmad (1997), may also be determined by other factors, such as a cultural value in a particular language, research environment in a particular country, the preferred rhetorical style in a particular language, the nature of the research topic, and the writer's individual rhetorical style.

5.2.2.1. Establishing a territory (Move 1)

In order to establish a research territory or field in the CARS model, as seen in Figure 10, RA writers need to address one or more of the following communicative purposes: claiming the centrality of the research topic, stating the state of the art related to the research topic, and reviewing items of previous research. Since the RA is a unit of persuasive work which is commonly broken down into several sections (IMRD) (Bazerman 1984; Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995; Day 1979; Swales 1990; Brett 1994; and Holmes 1997), then each section makes a particular persuasive appeal to the readers in order to achieve a collective persuasion of an RA (Hunston 1994). In an introduction section, according to Hunston, the writers appeal to their readers by arguing that the research to be reported is necessary and worthwhile because it fills in the gap of knowledge left by previous studies. Since introduction sections can have up to three
communicative purposes or moves, in CARS model (Swales 1990), every move, therefore, can have its own persuasive appeal.

In general, persuasive appeals can be classified into 3 categories: rational appeals, credibility appeals, and affective appeals (Connor and Lauer 1988). According to Connor and Lauer, rational appeals include classification and contrast, credibility appeals refer to shared interests and points of view, while affective appeals trigger an emotion that has personal relevance to the readers or listeners. The next part will discuss the persuasive appeal in each move and step of CARS from the perspective of the three persuasive categories.

**Claiming Centrality (Step 1)**

Claiming centrality of the research field (Step 1 of Move 1) in the CARS model is an appeal from RA writer to the discourse community to accept that the research about to be reported is part of a *lively, significant* or *well-established* area (Swales 1990:144). Swales gives several examples of statements which characteristically signal a centrality claim in English RA introductions. (All examples are taken from Swales 1990 and the emphasis is added as underlined).

1. Recently there has been a spate of interest in how to ...  
2. In recent years applied researchers have become increasingly interested in ...  
3. Knowledge of ... has a great importance for ...  
4. The theory that ... led to the hope that ...  
5. Many investigators have recently turned to ...  
6. A central issue in ... is the validity of ...  
7. The well-known ... phenomena ... have been favourite topics for analysis both in ...  
8. The effect of ... has been studied extensively in recent years.  
9. The explication of the relationship between ... is a classic problem of ...  

As in the above examples, RAs writers claim that their research topic is important, interesting, valid, favourite, classic, or has been investigated by many other researchers. By so claiming, RA writers appeal to potential readers to consider that their RA is worth reading. However, the success of such persuasive appeal may depend on the writer's credibility in the eyes of the readers; the more credible the RA writers the more successful the persuasion will be. Also, a claim of centrality is typically communicated
in a single sentence and addressed at the beginning of the introduction section (Swales 1990) and there is no other element of logical argument or justification in a centrality claim which might be used as persuasive appeal.

RA writers in a particular discipline and/or language, however, may have chosen not to address such a claim for various reasons or they may do it by using a different linguistic realisation. Even in the English RAs, the use of centrality claims in RA introductions is not yet a very common phenomenon. Studies by Swales (1981) and Swales and Najjar (1987), for example, reveal that less than 50% of their 158 RA introductions have statements classified as a centrality claim. Swales (1990) speculates that variations in the frequency occurrence of claiming centrality (Step 1) may be dependent on the nature of knowledge in a particular disciplinary area, expectations of a particular journal, the nature of research in a particular country, or by individual rhetorical styles of RA writers. Swales suggests that it is interesting to investigate why. For example, a centrality claim is avoided in a particular discipline area, language, or research environment or by some RA writers.

Making Topic Generalization(s) (Step 2)

Making topic generalization/s or a Step 2 of Move 1 in the CARS model expresses “the current state of the art - of knowledge, of technique, or requirement for further progress” (Swales 1990:146). This step, according to Swales, can take a variety of forms but generally can be classified into two categories: statements about knowledge or practice and statement about phenomena. Swales suggests that, compared to the claim of centrality (Step 1), Step 2 (making topic generalizations) contains more neutral and general statements. The common statements signalling Step 2 in English RAs are as the following: (All example are taken from Swales 1990: 146)

Practice
1. The axiology and pathology of ... is well known.
2. There is now much evidence to support the hypothesis that ...
3. The ... properties of ... are still not completely understood.
4. A standard procedure for assessing has been ...
5. Education core courses are often criticised for ...


Phenomena

1. ... is a common finding in patients with ...
2. An elaborate system of ... is found in the ...
3. English is rich in related words.
4. There are many situations where ...

The statements signalling Step 2, as in the above examples, seem to provide the established knowledge and/or practice where the central issue or topic of research is situated. Audiences who are not familiar with the very specific issue addressed in Step 1, will find Step 2 helpful in providing general schemata to bridge their understanding on the central issue of the research about to be reported. Similar to Step 1, the persuasive value of Step 2 seems to rely heavily on the RA writer’s credibility because it usually consists simply of the writers’ claims about the current knowledge in a particular field of research.

The two steps (Steps 1 and 2), indicated in Figure 10 above, have the same broader communicative purpose; that is to establish the research field or territory although they have a different communicative sub-purposes. The optional status of these two steps means that RA writers may choose both one or neither of these two steps, although using both of them is a better choice. If none of these steps occur in a particular RA, the establishment of the research field is communicated by Step 3 (reviewing items of previous research). Whenever these two steps (Steps 1 and 2) occur in a RA introduction, making topic generalization(s) (Step 2) indicates where the research issue (addressed in Step 1) fits in the existing knowledge or practice at large.

Swales gives an example of the typical relationship between Step 1 and 2 in a language related RA introduction from [J. H. Hill and K. C. Hill (1978)]: ‘Honorific Usage in Modern Nahautl’, Language 54:123 as reproduced below: (The emphasis is added as underlined):

(S1) An elaborate system of marking social distance and respect is found in the morphology of Nahautl as spoken in communities of the Malinche volcano area in the Mexican States of Tlaxcala and Puebla [Step 2]. (S2) The complexity of the morphology involved, the semantic range of the elements, and variation in the system of use raise questions of considerable interest for our understanding
of the form and function of such systems, both in Nahautl itself and in other languages [Step 1] (From Swales 1990: 145)

According to Swales, the first sentence in the above example (the underlined sentence), although more general in topic (the system of marking social distance and respect in a language), is addressed to a smaller discourse community (those who have a specialised interest in Mexican languages), while the second sentence, although more specific in topic (morphology, semantic systems and variation in the system of use of Nahautl), makes an appeal to a wider discourse community (sociolinguists of any language) to accept that this topic raises questions of considerable interest. This is why Swales (1990) has considered the second sentence, rather than the first, as a centrality claim (Step 1) in this RA introduction. It can be interpreted from the above example that Step 1 and Step 2 have a contradictory relationship especially in terms of the discourse community to whom they are addressed to and the nature of the topic. This unique relationship between Step 1 and 2 of Move 1 in the CARS model can be summarised in Figure 11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Discourse Community</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Step 1</td>
<td>more specific</td>
<td>larger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>more general</td>
<td>smaller</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 11: The Relationship Between Step 1 and 2 of Move 1 in the CARS Model

As seen in Figure 11, Step 1 (a centrality claim) addresses a more specific topic but to a wider discourse community, while Step 2 (making topic generalization/s) addresses a more general topic but to a smaller discourse community.

**Reviewing Items of Previous Research (Step 3)**

Reviewing items of previous research or a Step 3 of Move 1 in the CARS model is the primary place where RA writers review what has been discovered (or claimed) in previous studies (Swales 1990). More precisely, according to Swales, writers need to provide a ‘specification’ (in varying degrees of detail) of previous findings, an
“attribution to the research workers who published the results”, and “a stance towards the findings themselves” in order to establish a research territory in a RA introduction (p:148). Swales claims that, unlike the two optional steps (Step 1 and 2), Step 3 is an obligatory element in a RA introduction from the scientific genre point of view, except in newly established research areas, such as in computer technology. This is because, besides being a new disciplinary area, research in computer technology is different from other disciplines; it is, for example, more for commercial purposes rather than for research generating new knowledge claims and it also tends to be product-related.

Instead of discussing in detail the communicative purposes of this element of the introduction section, as in the previous two elements (Step 1 and Step 2), Swales focuses on the surface features of citations when discussing Step 3 of Move 1. According to Swales, there are four different types of citation in English RAs: integral reporting (IR), integral non-reporting (INR), non-integral reporting (NIR), and non-integral non-reporting (NINR). The basic difference between the integral and non-integral reporting types is how the author and the date of the citation is written while the difference between reporting and non-reporting types depends on the sentence construction whether or not it uses a complementizer that. Below are the examples of the four different types of citation from the data for this study with a rough English translation (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**Ex 1. IR:** [Prg.5](S.1) Jonston (1971) menyatakan bahwa ansietas adalah merupakan reaksi terhadap adanya ancaman, hambatan terhadap keinginan pribadi atau adanya perasaan tertekan. (PSY.1)

[Prg.5] Jonston (1971) says that anxiety is a reaction towards threat, an obstacle to the individual will or a repressed feeling.

**Ex 2. NIR:** [Prg8](S4) Beberapa penelitian menunjukan bahwa antara sikap dan perilaku mempunayi kaitan yang erat (Brophy, 1981) (EDU.6).

[Prg.8] A number of studies show that there is a close relationship between behaviour and attitude (Brophy, 1981)
Ex 3. INR: [Prg.5](S.2) Menurut Kim dan Lyn (1986), faktor-faktor tersebut adalah tingkat "monopoly power" suatu industri, advertensi, rasio R&D, rasio kapital, dan ukuran industri. (ECO.12)

[Prg.5] According to Kim and Lyn (1986), such factors are the "monopoly power" level of an industry, advertency, R&D ratio, capital ratio, and industry measurement.

Ex 4. NINR: [Prg.6](S.2) Biasanya keadaan ini akan dibarengi perasaan tak mampu, kurang percaya diri, dan tak dapat menghadapi masalah (Hurlock, 1979). (PSY.1)

[Prg.6] This condition is usually followed by feelings of inadequacy, lack of self confidence, and unable to face problems (Hurlock, 1979).

The typical feature of the two reporting types of citation (examples 1. IR and 2. NIR), as seen in the above examples, is that they use an indirect speech construction with the complementizer bahwa ‘that’ while the two non-reporting types of citation (examples 3. INR and 4. NINR) do not. The obvious differences between the four different types of citations, as indicated in the above examples, are whether or not the author's name is put in parentheses and whether the acknowledgment is put at the beginning or the end of the sentence where the citation appears.

The ratio between the frequency of non-reporting and reporting types of citation has become the object of several RA genre studies when investigating the ways RA authors review items of previous research. Swales (1981), for example, found that the ratio between non-reporting/reporting citation in 16 biological and medical RAs is 40%-60% while Jacoby (1987) discovered a ratio of 25%-75% in her literary criticism genre. According to Swales, there is a tendency that the use of the reporting types of citation has decreased, but he does not discuss why such phenomena occur. Swales (1990), however, claims that “... the survival of the reporting type of citation is because of their considerable discriminatory power (p:151)” and this is a powerful tool to create a research space. For example, a reporting type of citation rather than a non-reporting type should be used if a particular claim from a citation or supported by a citation is used again elsewhere in the RA. In addition, the use of different tenses and aspects in citations, in fact, are more interesting for RA investigators than the different types of
citation. Swales (1990), for example, found that 90% of the finite verbs in English citational statements are realised in the Past, the Present Perfect, and the Present Simple.

5. 2. 2. Establishing a niche (Move 2)

After establishing the research territory, RA writers need to point to a gap found in the previous research or in current knowledge about a particular research topic in order to establish a niche for the present research (Swales 1990). This is normally done by negatively evaluating or criticising items from previous research (Swales 1984); this is why the relationship between Move 2 and Move 1-Step 3 is very close, as has been indicated by several genre analysts (e.g. Crookes 1986 and Hopkins and Dudley-Evans 1988). The typical cycles of Move 1-Step 3 and Move 2, according to these researchers, is that every review of items in the previous research is followed by a statement indicating a gap in the previous research or raising a question.

There are four possible strategies of negative evaluation or criticism employed by RA writers: (1) when they disagree in some way with the results of previous research and want to dispute or challenge it; (2) when they find the results of the previous research lack validity and reliability; (3) when they want to answer a particular question arising from the previous research, and (4) when they want to look further at the development of a particular case. Specific features of Move 2 according to Swales, apart from its rhetorical cyclicity, are the use of negative or quasi negative quantifiers, the use of lexical negation, and the use of negation in the verb phrase. The following statements are often used to signal a Move 2 in English RA introductions (all examples are taken from Swales 1990:154):

1. However, the previously mentioned methods suffer from some limitations ...
2. The first group ... cannot treat ... and is limited to ...
3. The second group ... is time consuming and therefore expensive, and its ... is not sufficiently accurate.
4. Both ... suffer from the dependency on ...
5. The ... method (upon which the present study is based) eliminates many of this limitations by ...., but it treat only.
Since a Move 2 is constructed by negatively reviewing items of previous research or by criticising the work of other people, which can be face-threatening (Duszak 1997), there may be differences in Move 2 format in RAs written in different languages, different disciplines, and different research environments. This is where thought patterns and writing styles may be interconnected with cultural values, norms and beliefs. For genre analysts, such as Duszak (1994), Martin (1985), Swales (1990), Maurannen (1993); and Golebiowski (1998), genre is a specific language product of social activity characterised by social, cultural and linguistic parameters. In a culture where identifying someone by name and summarizing the work of others are less acceptable, such as in Chinese (Taylor and Chen 1986), for example, the typical niche establishment as commonly found in the English RA may take a different format. Similarly, in a culture where criticising the work of others is not yet fully acceptable, such as in Indonesia (Keraf 1992), establishing a research niche may be completely avoided or dealt with in a different way.

In a new discipline or unexplored territory, such as in computer technology (Swales 1990) or in a research environment where a substantial body of literature is hardly available, such as research on marine biology in Malaysia (Ahmad 1997), niche establishment is either not necessary, impossible or expressed in a different writing style. In other words, the niche establishment strategy taken by RA writers may depend on several factors, such as the research ecosystem in a particular disciplinary area or country, publishing editorial policy of a particular journal, or socio-cultural practices in a particular language.

The main communicative purpose of a Move 2 (establishing a niche for the present study) is to point to the shortcomings of the previous research or to deny claims made by earlier investigators and to use this criticism or negative evaluation results in order to create a space for the present research. In order to achieve such communicative purpose, RA writers need logical arguments to convince and persuade readers to accept that the previous related studies have some kind of defect. Swales (1990) claims that Move 2 is crucial especially in a dense research ecosystem where researchers face a
fierce competition for a research space and in order to succeed in such competition, giving 'high-level claims' is often important although this 'involves contradicting large bodies of the relevant literature' in order to challenge assumptions made by previous studies (p:117). The logical and reliable challenge to the already established knowledge or claims, although risky, is an important consideration for research journal editors to consider whether or not a particular RA can be published.

Niche establishment in an RA introduction, however, is a relatively new phenomena even in the English scientific journals (Bazerman 1988 and Dudley-Evans and Henderson 1990). It probably occurs since getting a space for research or the space for publication in a scientific journal became more competitive due to the increasing number of professional researchers. The desire for publication from the researchers' perspective is always strong because through such publication they can display new knowledge claims to the scientific community and at the same time promote their personal credibility (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995:39). Personal credibility especially in the eyes of a particular discourse community is important for any researcher in order to help them succeed in any research space competition.

Among the cross-discipline and cross-language studies on RA introduction, the occurrence or avoidance of Move 2 has received the most attention (Ahmad 1997). Swales (1981), for example, found that 85% of his English RA introduction data have a Move 2. However, studies by Lopez (1982), for RAs in Spanish and Arabic respectively, found that only about 50% of their RA introductions have a Move 2. Similarly, Ahmad (1997) also found only about 56% of her Malay RA introductions have a clear and identifiable Move 2. In other words, these studies indicate Move 2 is relatively more common in the English RA introduction than those in other languages and influencing factors for this difference may be due to cultural differences, research environment differences or research disciplinary areas.
5. 2. 2. 3. Occupying the niche (Move 3)

The role of Move 3 in the CARS model is “... to turn the niche established in Move 2 into a research space that justifies the present RA” (Swales 1990:159). In Move 3, RA writers offer to substantiate the particular counter-claim that has been made, fill the created gap, answer the specific questions or continue the rhetorically-established tradition (all of these occur in Move 2); therefore, the link between Move 2 and Move 3 is very closed. Swales suggests that the obligatory step in Move 3 is Step 1 which can take one or both of the following predominating forms:

Step 1A: The writers indicate their main purpose or purposes; and

Step 1B: The writers describe what they consider to be the main features of their research.

The common linguistic realisations for Move 3 are as follows: (all examples are from Swales 1990:159):

1. This paper reports on the results obtained ...
2. The aim of the present paper is to give ...
3. In this paper we give preliminary results of ...
4. The main purpose of the experiment reported here was to ...
5. This study was designed to evaluate ...
6. The present works extends the use of the last model ...
7. We now report the interaction of ...

The other two possible steps of Move 3 are the announcement of the summary of the principle findings (Step 2) and description of the structure of the present RA (Step 3).

Of the four possible steps in Move 3, as shown in Figure 10, Step 1 (1A and 1B) are the most frequently used by RA writers while the other two steps are less frequent (Swales 1990). As found by Swales and Najjar (1987), Step 2 occurs in 45% of their RAs in physics and only 7% in educational psychology RAs. However, as discovered by Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), the tendency to announce the important or principle findings (Step 2) in the introduction section is increasing among the current RA writers. This, according to Berkenkotter and Huckin, is used to ‘promote news value’ (p:33). Berkenkotter and Huckin claim that news value is important for RA writers because research findings are very important especially for field specialist
readers and placing the important findings of the present research in the introduction section can motivate them to read the whole article.

Compared to Move 1, rhetorical work in a Move 3 is more straightforward and simpler syntactically and semantically; this part of a RA, therefore, often requires shorter textual realisation or statements than Move 1 does (Ahmad 1997). The main communicative purpose of this move is to announce or indicate the research purposes, research specific features, principle findings or RA structure. Unlike Move 1 which is more persuasive, Move 3 seems to be more informative rather than argumentative; therefore, one of the typical features of Move 3, according to Swales (1990:159) is "... the absence of references to previous research."

Swales (1990), however, suggests that the CARS model needs validation not only from within English RAs in any disciplinary area but also from cross-language or cross-cultural perspective especially in the degree of the standardisation of the rhetorical pattern in RA introduction. Swales has also made a strong claim that rhetorical patterns of RA introductions in natural and hard sciences are more conventionalised than those in social sciences and humanities. According to Swales, this is because, unlike in social sciences and humanities, consensus on objective for scholars in natural and hard sciences is important and, therefore, the macro structure of their textual products is more regularised than those in social sciences and humanities.

5.2.3. The Differences Between the Four-Move and The CARS Models

The main difference between Swales' earlier RA analysis model (the four-move model) and his recent model (the CARS model) in terms of research field establishment (Move 1) is on the communicative role of reviewing items of previous research (Step 3). In his four-move model, Swales (1984) did not consider the literature review as an attempt to establish a research field, while in CARS this is an obligatory element of establishing a research field. This is because, as discussed earlier in this chapter, in longer RA introductions citations or references to other people's work can occur at any part of RA introductions. Another reason suggested by Bathia (1993) and Duszak
(1994), is that citations or references can also be used for purposes other than for negative evaluation to create a research space, such as to support the claim made on the current knowledge, to validate a definition adopted, and to elaborate on the key terminologies.

Bathia (1993) objects to the idea that all kinds of literature review form a part of an attempt to establish a research field as suggested by Swales (1990) for several reasons. First, the literature review has been a long established element in a research report including RAs; for example, there is always an attempt to comment on related research even in a new disciplinary area. For Bathia, statements such as "There is hardly any work available in this area" in an RA introduction has been considered as an attempt to review previous research (p:85). Second, since research journal editors often look at whether or not the writers of particular RAs are familiar with the work they are writing in, then the writers need to demonstrate their knowledge and experience on the particular topic by referring or citing the work of other people. Finally, references or citations can have at least two entirely different communicative functions: to establish a research field and to negatively evaluate the items in the previous studies in order to create a space for the present research.

Bathia (1993) illustrates his point using an example of an RA introduction where citations or references may have two different communicative functions as reproduced below (The emphasis is added as underlined):

[8] SELF-MONITORING, as conceptualised by Snyder (1972), was thought to encompass five underlying dimensions: (a) concern for appropriateness of social-behaviour; (b) attention to social comparison information; (c) ability to control of modify self-situation; (d) use of this ability in particular situations; and (e) cross-situational variability of social behaviour. Factor analytic examination of Snyder's self-monitoring scale by Briggs, Cheek, and Buss (1980), however, revealed an underlying factor structure consisting of three dimensions: (a) acting ability, (b) other-directedness, (c) extroversion. This clarification of what is measured by the scale is germane to the research question examined here: Do self-monitoring and competence contribute differently for males and females in the determination of social interaction?

Several recent studies have revealed differences between American males and females in the degree to which self-monitoring behaviour predicts emergent relationship and verbal participation in groups. Gerland and Beard (1979) found that in same-sex trios working in an interactive task
(brainstorming) high-self monitoring females emerged as leaders. For males, however, self-monitoring did not predict emergent leadership.

These results are affirmed and amplified by Oddous (1983) in a study of long-term discussion groups that revealed that higher levels of self-monitoring corresponded directly to increased likelihood of emergent leadership for females but not for males. The primary predictors of emergent leadership for males were commitment and competence.

Because the influence of competence might be expected to vary with the specific context, two studies were conducted: one used a task on which males would be expected to do better, the other task on which females would be expected to excel.

(From Bathia 1993 pp: 87-88)

According to Bathia, the first two citations [(Snyder, 1972 and those of Briggs, Cheek, and Buss, 1980)] are used to help writers establish a research field which includes introduction or identification of topic within the research field. The second communicative function of citations (i.e. create a research space) in the above RA introduction begins with the statement of Several recent studies have revealed ... which is then followed by the summary of the other two references: [Garland and Beard (1979) and Oddous (1983)]. Thus, while for Swales (1990) in his CARS model literature review is only used to help writers establish a research field, for Bathia (1993) it can be used both to establish a research field or territory (CARS Move 1) or to create a research space (CARS Move 2). Because of the two possible communicative functions of citations or references, Bathia prefers to classify them into two different moves: establishing research field and summarizing previous research as adopted in the Swales' original four-move model of RA introduction analysis.

Golebiowski (1997) suggests that, unlike the English RA writers, Polish writers do not seem to use references or quotations to point at the gap of knowledge in the previous studies where they ground or justify their present research project. According to Golebiowski (1998), the communicative purposes or functions for references in Polish RA introductions are twofold: first, to help writers establish a field of knowledge in which their research topic is part of the on-going debate, and second, they are used to show readers that they have enough knowledge and experience on a particular research field. Golebiowski further suggests that RA introductions written by Polish writers
often resemble 'abbreviated statements of all available knowledge on a topic' (p:82); this phenomena is also common in academic prose of other cultures, such as German and Russian.

5.3. The CARS Moves and Steps in the Indonesian RA Introductions

The analysis of CARS Moves and Steps in the Indonesian RAs reveals that all RAs in this corpus have a Move 1 (establishing research field or territory) in the introduction section and the majority of them also have a Move 3 (occupying the niche) but very few of them have a Move 2 (establishing a niche). The frequency and distribution of the three moves of the CARS model found in the introduction section of the Indonesian RAs is summarised in Table 5, while the detailed count of the moves and steps in each individual RA will be given in Appendix 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>RA Disciplines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>ECO n=30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Move 1</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Move 2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Move 3</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: Frequency of CARS Moves in the Indonesian RA Introductions

Although the majority of the Indonesian RA introductions begin with some kind of Move 1 and have a Move 3 as shown in Table 5, relatively few of them (only 8 out of 90 RAs or 9%) have a complete sequence of moves: Move 1, 2 and 3. Compared to Ahmad’s (1997) finding that 40% of Malay RAs had all three moves, the number of the Indonesian RAs with all three moves is relatively small.

The significant difference between the Malay RA introductions in Ahmad’s (1997) study and the Indonesian RA introductions in the corpus of this study in terms of the CARS moves is the appearance of Move 2 (establishing a niche). In this study, only 15 out of 90 RAs (16.7%) have a Move 2 compared to 35 out of 62 or 56% of Ahmad's
Malay RAs. Table 5 shows that there is a slight difference between the frequency of Move 2 in the three different disciplines of RAs where the Economics RAs have the lowest frequency of Move 2 (3 out of 30 RAs or 10% have a Move 2) while Psychology RAs have the highest frequency (8 out of 30 RAs or 26.7% have a Move 2). Further discussion of this will be taken up later in this chapter.

5. 3. 1. Establishing a Territory (Move 1)

Reading the first few paragraphs of Indonesian RA introductions reveals several common features of Indonesian RA introductions which are different from those of English. In general, the opening segment of the Indonesian RA introductions can be classified of having two different styles of rhetorical work: direct and indirect. The direct rhetorical style is used when the writer immediately introduces the actual research topic reported in the RA at the beginning of their introduction section. The indirect rhetorical style, on the other hand, is used when the writer gives some kind of background knowledge or information to prepare readers’ schemata before introducing the actual research topic. While in both styles the Indonesian writers attempt to establish the research field, they differ in the quantity of the rhetorical work and the types of information provided before the actual research topic is introduced. The rhetorical work at the beginning of the RA introductions can be called an opening strategy from the writers' point of view. The distribution of these two different rhetorical styles of the opening strategy in the Indonesian RA introductions (direct and indirect) is summarized in Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Opening Strategy</th>
<th>RA</th>
<th>Disciplines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECO n=30</td>
<td>EDU n=30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Direct style</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Indirect style</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: The Distribution of Two Different Rhetorical Styles of the Opening Strategy in the Introduction Section of the Indonesian RAs
As seen in Table 6, the frequency of the indirect rhetorical style is much more frequent than the direct style, but both styles are employed by writers in all three different fields of the Indonesian RAs (economics, education and psychology).

5. 3. 1. 1. Direct Rhetorical Style

A direct rhetorical style in the Indonesian RA introductions, as mentioned above, occurs where, in the first few sentences or paragraphs, the writer introduces the actual research topic or the central issue of the research about to be reported in the RAs. This is an ideal or conventionalised way of writing a RA introduction in Indonesian, and Rifai (1995) suggests that RA writers should directly introduce the research topic and research problem to the readers without discussing irrelevant or unnecessary material in their introduction. Similarly, Wahab (1992) suggests that in the direct introduction style for an academic or scientific article in Indonesian, writers should introduce the topic of the article or paper in the first paragraph.

A direct rhetorical style is also a preferred introduction rhetorical pattern in English where writers are told to keep their introduction brief and direct (Wyrick 1987 and Day 1996). Similarly, in Swales' (1990) CARS model, both centrality claims and topic generalisations are the introduction of the actual research topic. In other words, Swales' CARS model, especially for the opening strategy of establishing the research field (Step 1 and 2), only considers the direct style of an introduction section.

In the Indonesian RA introductions in this study, there are two common rhetorical forms employed by the writers to introduce the research topic using a direct manner at the beginning of their introduction section:

1) making specific claims about the actual research topic; or

2) identifying the actual research problem.

The distribution of the use of these two forms of direct rhetorical style in the Indonesian RA introductions will be given in the next chapter (Chapter 6).
Addressing a Specific Claim

The most common form of the direct rhetorical style is when the writers make a specific claim about the research topic at the very beginning of their RA introduction. The following is an example of the point in question: (The emphasis is added as underlined).

EDU.12


The working atmosphere has the potential to cause teachers to experience stress. A number of research findings show that teachers experience stress because of their working atmosphere (Borg and Riding, 1993; Fontana and Abouserie, 1993; Smith and Bourge, 1992). Research carried out by Smith and Bourge, for example, found that 66% of ‘nurse school’ teacher’s stress is caused by their working atmosphere. These findings can be understood because of the repetitive nature of the teacher's work. Long and Kahn (1992) say that workers at routine tasks will experience long-term stress.

In the above example, in the first sentence of the first paragraph the writers make a specific claim to introduce the actual research topic: the teacher's working sources. The writers support such claims by reviewing the items of previous studies. However, in this particular RA the specific claim is not the research problem; the justification for the research by some kind of Move 2 (establishing a niche); that is when the writers claim (in the middle of paragraph 3) that research findings on this topic have been inconsistent.

Problem Identification

In a few RA introductions classified as having a direct rhetorical style, the writers introduce the research problem in the first paragraph. Claims about the research problem can be supported by the writer’s personal observation, experience or by using references. By introducing the research problem, the writers at the same time address
the research topic. Below is an example of such a direct rhetorical style (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**PSY.13**


Teenager’s aggressiveness tend to increase qualitatively and quantitatively recently. In the past, teenager’s aggressiveness was seasonal. This usually appeared in the form of fighting among the teenagers on a particular occasions, such as at the beginning or the end of a school semester period. Now, their aggressiveness does not follow such particular season. Even over trivial issues, they may start fighting each other at any time.


Qualitatively, the teenager’s aggressiveness also tend to increase. The casualties from the fighting do not only experience some wounds but may even cause a death. This kind of situation has definitely resulted in all concerned parties (noticing this behaviour) including their families, school teachers, society at large, and even the government. This is because, the teenagers involved in fighting also often damage public facilities.

In the above example, the writer introduces the problem of the research *Peningkatan agresifitas remaja akhir-akhir ini* ‘The recent increase of teenager's aggressiveness’ in the first sentence of the first paragraph. The aim of this particular research is to find out the cause of such a problematic phenomena. The writer's hypothesis is that there is a positive correlation between watching violent movies on television and an increase in the teenager's aggressiveness.

As seen in the two examples above, the writers make no attempt to provide the readers with background information, such as definitions and elaboration on key terminologies; they directly introduce the research topic. They may have assumed that potential readers are already familiar with the appropriate research fields. Another feature of this direct rhetorical style in the Indonesian RA introductions is that the
writers may use references or citations to support their claims about the research topic they have put forward.

5. 3. 1. 2. Indirect Rhetorical Style

The indirect rhetorical style of RA introductions, although not conventionalized (Rifai 1995 and Djaali 1994), is more frequent in the corpus than the direct style. The indirect style is used when the RA writers provide background information or necessary knowledge for the potential readers before they introduce the actual research topic. One of the main purposes of providing background information is to prepare the readers' schemata or background knowledge in order to enable them to comprehend the research topic and at the same time to avoid misunderstanding. A similar opening strategy is also common in Polish academic writing as reported by Duszak (1994) who claims that, Polish academic writers tend to define and elaborate the key terminologies in their articles in order to anticipate misunderstandings which could spark criticism. In other words, besides preparing the readers' schemata, background information is also used by writers as a defensive strategy against an attack by potential readers because of misinterpretation or misunderstanding.

Ahmad (1997) found that an indirect rhetorical style is also used by Malay RA writers as an opening strategy for their RA introductions. According to Ahmad, there are two types of the indirect style common in the Malay RA introductions: 1) giving long definitions of key terminologies as in a textbook and 2) narrating the history of the research field. According to Ahmad, the use of these two types of indirect opening strategy by the Malay RA writers has a negative rhetorical implication; they destroy the organisational effectiveness of the text and the cohesiveness of the Malay RA introductions, and also lose the opportunity to place the present research in current research or knowledge contexts. However, although the texts may be found rhetorically ineffective by analysts. Malay RA writers must have had logical reasons for providing background information at the beginning of the RA introductions.
In the indirect rhetorical style, the Indonesian RA writers do not introduce the actual research topic until much later in their introduction section. The RA introductions which have been classified as using an indirect style also differ from each other in terms of the information types given before the actual research topic is introduced. There are five different forms of information commonly given by the Indonesian RA writers as background information or knowledge in the indirect style:

1) government policy;
2) description of the specific features of the research location;
3) definitions of key terminologies;
4) general claims; or
5) narration of the history of the research field.

In a number of RA introductions, more than one form of information are found. For example, the introduction section begins with a general claim and is followed by definitions of key terminologies or starts with definitions of key terminologies and is followed by the history of research field. The distribution of the use of these five different types of information in the Indonesian RA introductions will be given in the next chapter (Chapter 6).

**Government policy**

Government policies, such as those found in the president's speeches, the president's decrees, ministers' speeches, the parliament's decisions, and so on, are often quoted at the beginning of the Indonesian RA introductions, even if they are not closely related to the actual research topic. The following textual fragment illustrates the phenomena (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**PSY 16**

itu unsur manusia sangat menentukan keberhasilan serta kualitas dari pembangunan itu sendiri. Menyadari hal ini, maka pemerintah juga menekankan aspek pembangunan manusia seutuhnya.

The development that the Indonesian people expect to have is the one in which the Indonesian people aspire to have a fair and prosperous society with material and spiritual benefits evenly distributed as written in The Broad Outline of the Nation's Direction (GBHN) 1988. Development here is not only physical development but also the development of the quality of human resources. The government, therefore, also emphasises the development of the people.

In the above example, the writer quotes a very important government document Garis-Garis Besar Haluan Negara (GBHN) ‘Broad Outlines of the Nation's Direction’ to begin her introduction. The actual research topic of this particular RA is, however, “the relationship between perceptions of organisational atmosphere and workers' satisfaction” introduced toward the end of paragraph 3. In paragraph 2, the writers discuss the importance of the quality human resources to help improve the quality of the country's development results. The writers seem to use such rhetorical material in order to convince their readers that their research topic is important and useful, because it responds to or is taken from such an important document. In other words, government policy quoted in paragraph 1 is more for persuasive appeal than for the purpose of situating the present research in a wider context of knowledge.

Description of the specific features of a research location

The description of specific features of a research location is also not a common rhetorical work in the Indonesian RA introduction section, although it is one variation employed by the Indonesian RA authors to open this section. Below is an example of such description:

ECO. 23

The city of Padang is the gateway to West Sumatera Province especially for those who come by air and sea. As the gateway of West Sumatera province, Padang is visited both by domestic and international tourists. Besides its strategic geographic location, Padang also has beautiful, pleasant and natural beaches which could make their own impression on visitors.

In the above example, the writer discusses the features of Padang which may be an attractive city to domestic and international visitors in the first paragraph. In the second paragraph, the writer introduces a more specific topic still related to tourism: “government policy on tourism fees”; this is, however, still not the actual research topic. The research topic “tourism management of Padang” is, in fact, introduced in paragraph 3. In other words, the writer moves from general information to more specific information before introducing the actual topic for his present research.

The main purpose of providing this information (description of specific features of the research location) appears to be to situate or describe the context of the research problem. In the above extract, for example, the writer indicates the economic potential of tourism in Padang city as a major income source for the city, but later in this RA in paragraph 3, reveals that the city income from tourism has gone down especially in the period from 1989/1990 to 1994/1995. This becomes the actual problem for research, 'what has caused the city's income from tourism to go down, and what can be done about it ?'

Definitions of key terms

Defining key terminologies, which often appear in the title of a particular RA, is a common rhetorical form in Indonesian RA introductions. Unlike the two other forms of information discussed earlier, this information seems to be more widely used. Ahmad (1997), for example, claims that the Malay RA writers also often define key terminologies in their RA introduction when writing in Malay. Similarly, this introduction opening strategy is also employed by Polish RA writers when writing in Polish (Duszak 1994).

One of the obvious purposes of such definitions is to help readers understand the research field and topic, especially non-field-specialist readers or those who are new to
the research field, such as university students. Another purpose, as suggested by Duszak (1994), is to avoid misreading or misunderstanding from the readers which could spark criticism. Below is an example of such a style (The emphasis is added as underlined):

EDU. 9

Reading is a complex psychological process. Readers try to reconstruct messages in a reading text. Reading involves visual and nonvisual information processing (Smith, 1985:12-13). Visual information deals with linguistic aspects within the text while nonvisual information deals with reader's knowledge. Reading is an important language skill in expanding knowledge. In the educational context in general, the reading ability helps to make learning or studying successful (Suhadi, 1976:33).

In the above example, the RA writer defines one of the key terminologies appearing in the title of the RA - membaca 'reading'. As emphasised in the above example, the writers begin the first paragraph by defining 'reading' and then elaborating the definition by discussing what readers normally do in reading. Later in the paragraph, the writers discuss the role of membaca ‘reading’ and reading ability in an educational context. The actual research topic tingkat keterbacaan bahan pelajaran membaca 'readability levels of reading materials' is introduced in the second paragraph. In the third paragraph, the writers define the second important term keterbacaan 'readability'. It is also important to notice here that, as seen in the above example, the writers use citations or references in defining the key terminologies in order to validate their definition.

General claims

Making general claims as an indirect rhetorical style is also very common in Indonesian RA introductions. Unlike specific claims, general claims are not claims about the research topic but claims about a broader field of knowledge from which the
actual research topic is narrowed down. One of the possible purposes of this type of background information seems to be to tell readers, especially those who are new to the research field, that the research topic being reported in the RA is part of or belongs to a particular research field. The following example illustrates the point in discussion:

ECO. 3

Economic growth is very important in supporting national development. Along with this economic growth, engineering companies have played a major role in the country’s development during the 'New Order' era. It can be seen from their activities that the existence and the role of engineering companies was very crucial in its development program especially for Palu municipality in carrying out the government development programs of building and maintaining roads, bridges and other constructions.

In the above example, the writer makes a list of related claims in the first paragraph although they are not the topic of the present research. The actual research topic 'the relationship between internal inspection and the effectiveness of internal control systems' is introduced in paragraph 6 of the RA introduction. In this particular RA, the writer begins the introduction section by giving general information 'economic and national development', then the topic of discussion is narrowed down to 'the role of engineering companies in the country’s infrastructure development'. In the second paragraph, the writer discusses the even narrower topic 'the role of internal control systems in engineering companies'.

General claims with or without support from references or citations are an explicit attempt to establish a research territory. The writers begin from a very general topic which readers from various different knowledge background will understand. One possible communicative purpose for using this type of rhetorical work, from the Indonesian writer’s point of view, may be to target field and non-field specialist readers.
in order to have a wider potential audience. Keraf (1992) claims that it is common in Indonesian scientific writing practice to have a long introduction in order to provide enough information or knowledge, especially for readers who know very little about the topic about to be introduced.

**Narration of the history of the research field**

Providing the narration of the research field history seems to be part of the writers' attempt to prepare readers' knowledge background or schemata. It is used especially to show readers where the research problem begins to emerge, what are the phenomena are and what the causes of such problems are. Giving the general history of the research field is also found in Malay RA introductions although not very commonly (Ahmad 1997). In addition, this text type is characterised by the use of chronological time sequencing. The following text fragment is an example of a narration of the history of the research field:

**ECO. 11**


To support the industry, the stock market had been reactivated on 10 August 1977 (Widioatmojo, 1996) and this has made a substantial contribution in pushing the growth and development of the stock market; this has also been supported by the government through its deregulation policies, such as Presidential Decree Number 53 1990 and Financial Decision Number 1548/KMK013/1990. These government policies are aimed at creating a mechanism which can protect investors by providing complete and reliable information.

The writers narrate the history of the *pasar modal* 'stock market' in Indonesia from its reestablishment in 1977 in the first paragraph. They quote government policies supporting the reestablishment of the stock market and the functions of the stock market for investors. In the second paragraph, the writers go on to define 'stock market' by
referring to an established definition in a reference. In the third paragraph, the writers elaborate the functions of the 'stock market' for individual investors and companies. In paragraph 5, the writers specify the research topic 'pricing of earnings'. In this particular RA, the research problem is implicitly addressed in paragraph 7 before the writers summarize relevant previous studies. Another feature of this rhetorical style is that the writers often use references to validate the narration of the research field history.

5. 3. 1. 3. Reviewing Items of Previous Research

As discussed earlier in this chapter (see section 5.2.2.1.) Swales (1990) classifies citations or references into four different types: Integral Reporting (IR), Nonintegral Reporting (NR), Integral Nonreporting (INR), and Nonintegral Nonreporting (NINR). Following this classification, the analysis on the introduction sections of Indonesian RAs in this study reveals the distribution of the four different type of citations as in Table 7.

A significant difference occurs in the average number of references in Economics RAs (2.76 per RA) and the Psychology RAs (11.53 per RA) as seen in Table 7. This difference may be the result of the availability of relevant literature for the RA writers. The psychology journals are from the more established institutions in Java with its more established libraries, while the Economics journals are from three different areas of Indonesia (West, Central and East), and several of the institutional publishers are less established and have less established libraries. The majority of universities or institutes outside Java are less developed than those in Java, including the quality of their libraries (eg. in terms of the number of books, journals or other library materials).
Quite a different way of acknowledging the author whose work is cited also occurs, although very infrequently in the Indonesian RA introductions. This is where both names (the first and second names) of the authors whose work is quoted appears in the text. This is shown in the following examples:

1) [Prg9](S6) Onong Uchana (1979:42) membagi komunikasi menjadi tiga yaitu: (1) komunikasi vertikal, (2) komunikasi horizontal, dan (3) komunikasi eksternal. (ECO.19)

Onong Uchana (1979:42) classifies communication into three groups: (1) vertical communication, (2) horizontal communication, and (3) external communication.

2) [Prg14](S3) Hasil-hasil studi menunjukkan bahwa soal-soal ujian masuk perguruan tinggi memiliki validitas prediktif (Djamaludin Ancok, 1988) (EDU.1).

Research findings show that the items in the university entrance test have predictive validity (Djamaludin Ancok, 1988).

As can be seen in the above examples, both the first and second names of the author, Onong Ucha and Djamaludin Ancok are used in these references. This technique is used for both integral citation (Example 1) and non-integral citation (Example 2). Rifai (1995) suggests this practice is fairly common in Indonesian scientific writing although it is not standardised. It is used because in everyday communication, a person is

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Citation</th>
<th>RA Disciplines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECO. n=30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Integral Reporting (IR)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Nonintegral Reporting (NIR)</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Integral Nonreporting (INR)</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Nonintegral Non-reporting (NINR)</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total/ Citation per RA</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Types of Citations and Their Frequency in the Indonesian RA Introductions
addressed only with their first name (never with their second or other names), and so if they are referred to only by their second or other name in the RA, people might not recognise them, and therefore, many writers are uncomfortable to use such an acknowledgment technique even in scientific writing.

An interesting finding in terms of the citation type used in the data for this study is, in fact, the ratio of Non-reporting/Reporting citations, with 410 citations (64.6%) being classified as Non-reporting while only 222 (35.4%) of the citations are classified as Reporting. This finding is in line with that of Bazerman (1984) where he found the tendency of shifting from reporting to non-reporting types of citation in his Physical Review texts. According to Swales (1990), unlike the Non-reporting type of citation, the Reporting type can be used to create a space for research because it enables the writers to provide an early signal to the readers that a claim (an important one) will be referred to again later probably in the discussion section of the RA (p:151). The small percentage of reporting type of citations in Indonesian may show that Indonesia RA writers use a different technique to create a space for research. The ways the Indonesian RA writers create a space for research will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

The reporting type citation (Integral and Non-integral) in the Indonesian RA introduction use 35 different reporting verbs; nine of them are used at least in five occasions. The nine most frequent reporting verbs are as follows:

1) *mengatakan* ‘say’ (21 times),
2) *menyatakan* ‘state’ (20 times),
3) *menemukan* ‘find’ (18 times),
4) *menunjukan* ‘show’ (17 times),
5) *mengemukakan* ‘suggest’ (17 times),
6) *dikemukakan oleh* ‘suggested by’ (8 times),
7) *berpendapat* ‘think’ (6 times),
8) *dinyatakan oleh* ‘stated by’ (5 times), and
9) *menyebutkan* ‘mention’ (5 times).
Other less frequent reporting verbs are *menjelaskan* ‘explain’, *mendapatkan* ‘discover’, *melaporkan* ‘report’, *menyimpulkan* ‘conclude’, *menambahkan* ‘add’, *mengungkapkan* ‘express’, and so on. From the nine high frequency reporting verbs, only two are in passive forms (6 and 8). It can be inferred that when citing other people’s work, the Indonesian RA writers prefer an active sentence construction rather than a passive construction. In addition, unlike in English grammar where tense and aspect are morphologically and lexically marked, in Indonesian grammar aspects are only lexically marked (Moeliono 1988). Therefore, there is no variation in the use of verbs in the Indonesian citations to mark aspects.

References or citations in the Indonesian RAs are scattered throughout the introduction section, even from the very beginning of the section. These references seem to be used for several different communicative purposes. First, references are used to provide readers with background information or knowledge, as in the definitions of key terminologies, narration of a research topic history, and references to government policy. This can also be viewed as an attempt to establish a research field; that is to put the research topic into a particular context.

Secondly, the RA writers use references in order to justify the research project. They, for example, after summarizing previous studies conclude that findings of the previous studies are inconsistent and implicitly indicate that the present study is, therefore, important or necessary. Another way of justifying the research project is by indicating that the actual problem for the present research really exists. This is done, for example, by using facts and statistics quoted from other work. The last communicative purpose of the use of citations from the writers’ point of view seems to be to implicitly show readers that they are familiar with the research topic. The writers, for example, review other people’s work relevant to the research topic in order to convince readers that they follow the recent development of knowledge on the topic. In a number of Indonesian RA introductions, this element is placed under the subheading of *Tinjauan*
5. 3. 2. Establishing a Niche (Move 2)

Move 2 (establishing a niche) mainly involves pointing at the weaknesses of previous relevant work, denying earlier claims made by earlier investigators and making claims that may dispute other's work; this is the common way the English RA writers establish a niche or create a space for research (Swales 1990). In other words, the English RA writers justify their present work by criticising the work of other people. In the Indonesian RA introductions in the data of this study, as shown in Table 5, only a small number (15 out of 90 RAs or 16.7%) of the Indonesian RAs have a segment which can be classified as a Move 2. This niche establishment segment is expressed using two different types of rhetorical work:

1) stating that research on a particular area has never been carried out or reported; and

2) claiming that results from previous studies are inconsistent.

The rational for classifying these two types of rhetorical work in the Indonesian RA introductions into Move 2 of the CARS model is because the authors attempt to indicate the gap of knowledge in the research topic with or without a review of items from previous studies. This knowledge gap, then, becomes a logical justification for the research project being reported in the RAs. The distribution of the two types of Move 2 is given in Table 8.
Table 8: The frequency of two different types of Move 2 in the Indonesian RA introductions

The first Move 2 type is a simple claim about the non-existence or only a very small body of literature available on a particular topic as in the unexplored research territory suggested by Swales (1990). This type of Move 2 is more dominant in the Indonesian RA introductions; as seen in Table 8, 11 out of 15 RAs with Move 2 (73.3%) can be classified as this type. The following textual fragments are examples of the first type of Move 2 found in the Indonesian RAs.

**EDU. 18**

[Prg.12](S.4) Hasil‐hasil penelitian yang menunjukan kaitan langsung antara motif berprestasi dengan status anak dalam keluarga belum ditemukan.

Research findings which show a direct relationship between motivation for success and a child's status in the family hasnot yet found.

**PSY. 3**

[Prg.5](S.1) Sampai saat ini belum kami dapatkan penelitian mengenai sikap anak terhadap orang tua bila salah satu orang tuanya menderita skizofrenia kronik

Until now, we have not found any study on children's attitude towards their parents when one of them suffers from chronic schizophrenia.

**ECO. 29**

[Prg.2](S.3) Namun sejauh itu pula belum diketahui belum diketahui dampak ekonomi industri pengolahan kayu terhadap pengembangan wilayah di kabupaten Batang Hari
However, the financial effect of logging industry on regional development in the district of Batang Hari is not known yet.

This type of Move 2 is expressed through two different ways. Some writers may explicitly claim that study on a particular topic has never been carried out or reported while some others may prefer an implicit style. Below are examples of the explicit and implicit statements:

**Explicit style:**

- *Sebaliknya belum banyak penelitian yang diarahkan pada* ... *(PSY. 17)*
  On the other hand, there have not been many studies on ... directed towards ...

- *Sampai saat ini belum kami dapatkan penelitian mengenai* ... *(PSY .3)*
  Until now, we haven't found any study on ...

- *Di Indonesia penelitian ... belum dilakukan atau tidak dilaporkan* *(PSY. 15)*
  In Indonesian, research on ... has never been carried out or reported on.

- *... belum pernah diterapkan dalam teks bahasa Indonesia* *(EDU. 9)*
  ...has never been applied to Indonesian texts.

- *Hasil-hasil penelitian tentang ... belum ditemukan* *(EDU .18)*
  Research results about ... have not been found.

**Implicit style:**

- *.. tampaknya telah luput dari perhatian para peneliti* *(PSY .22)*
  ...’ apparently, has been neglected by researchers’.

- *...pendapat para ahli itu belum dibuktikan melalui penelitian* *(PSY .30)*
  ...’such experts’ opinions have never been proved by research.’

- *Dugaan-dugaan diatas masih perlu dibuktikan secara empiris* *(PSY.7)*
  ‘The above assumptions still need empirical evidences.’

- *Oleh karena itu belum diketahui keadaan sesungguhnya di lapangan* , *(EDU .1)*
  ‘Thus, the real facts have not yet been known in the field.’

In the above examples, the Indonesia RA writers address a Move 2 by concluding that research on a particular topic and in a particular region has never been carried out or has been neglected by other researchers. Therefore, their research project is very important or necessary. This conclusion or claim about the unavailability or nonexistence of studies on a particular topic is never supported by reference, such as from indices of
scientific work; therefore, this claim or conclusion may sound unconvincing to some readers. However, this is only a minor way in which the Indonesian RA writers justify their present research; the predominant way of justifying their present research projects used by Indonesian RA writers is through research problem identification and this will be dealt with in the next chapter (Chapter 6).

Similar examples of Move 2 are also found in the Malay RA introductions (Ahmad 1997). Ahmad claims that Malay RA writers rely heavily on the claim of the nonexistence or limited number of studies carried out in a particular area in order to justify their present work. They, according to Ahmad, avoid boldly indicating a specific research gap in previous studies in order to establish a niche. Ahmad presumes that the reason for the use of such style by Malay RA writers is that they do not face any threat or are not involved in a competition for research space. Many research areas have just been introduced in Malay and not very many people are even aware that such an area of research exists. Ahmad claims that by explicitly indicating the nonexistence or the limited number of studies in a particular field, the Malay researchers establish themselves as research pioneers in that area.

As in Malaysia, research projects in many disciplines in Indonesia are still in the early stages of producing a small body of literature. The classic reason for the lack of productivity among researchers in Indonesia is the fact that very little financial incentive is provided by the government; having a position in the university administration and management hierarchy is considered more prestigious and financially more profitable than a research position (PDK 1994). Another reason for the lack of interest in doing research among Indonesian academics in the past was the limited funding allocated for research by the government. This left the researchers to rely on their own funding or to find funding from private institutions, which is very rarely available or is difficult to get. However in the last ten years or so, the number of research projects carried out by university lecturers has increased rapidly following the government's concern about such matters and the allocating of considerable amounts of funding, particularly for university lecturers (PDK 1993) has increased respectively.
Unlike in developing countries such as Malaysia and Indonesia, research projects in developed countries, such as in Europe, the United States, and Australia have a long tradition. This results in the availability of a substantial body of literature especially in the form of research reports or RAs; this provides plenty of materials for English researchers to review and use as grounds for future research projects. In addition, the large body of literature and the large number of professional researchers in developed countries result in a fierce competition for an ecological niche in a dense research ecosystem, to borrow Swales' terms, in order to win a space for a research project or to win support from a wider audience (research journals readers) in a particular research area to develop their own credibility. This is one of the reasons why different types of Move 2 (establishing a niche), such as counter-claiming or pointing at the weaknesses of previous studies, are much more common in RA introductions especially in English than in RA introductions in developing countries such as Malaysia and Indonesia.

The second type of Move 2 in the Indonesian RA introductions, as shown in Table 8, is only found in four Indonesian RA introductions. In this type of rhetorical work, the Indonesian writers claim that the previous studies have inconsistent findings. Thus, the writers do review items from previous research but, unlike the English writers, they do not negatively evaluate them; they only compare the findings of several relevant studies and make a claim or conclusion about the inconsistency of the findings. The following fragments illustrate the second type of Move 2 in question (The emphasis is added as underlined to show the lexical realisation of Move 2 in this type):

**PSY. 19**


Previous studies carried out in the West show inconsistent results. Some studies found that there is a correlation between the two variables (Osarchuck & Tats, 1973) but some other studies found that there is no such correlation (Templer & Dadson, 1970).
PSY. 13.

Several studies mentioned earlier clearly show that the relationship between violent movies on television and aggressive attitude has not yet been shown consistently.

EDU. 12

From all the research, it can be concluded that the findings about the source of teacher's working stress are not consistent from one study to the other.

Unlike the first type of Move 2 which often comes after statements of the research problem, this second type of Move 2 can come before or after review of previous studies (Move 1-Step 3). When it comes before a Move 1-Step 3, it becomes the writer's claim which is then supported by a review of several relevant studies; but when it comes after a Move 1-Step 3, it becomes a conclusion based on the results of previous studies reviewed.

The exact Move 2 type of rhetorical work as in English RA introductions is not found in the Indonesian RA introductions in the data for this study. The possible reasons for the nonexistence of the real model of a Move 2 in the Indonesian RA introductions will be discussed later in this chapter. In addition, a typical feature of a Move 2 in the CARS model, as stipulated by Swales (1990), is its cyclicity and its close connection with Move 1-Step 3 (reviewing items from previous studies). Swales, when reviewing the studies carried out by Crookes (1986), Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) claim that cycles of Move 1-Step 3 and a Move 2 may recur. In the Indonesian RA introductions, the same evidence is also found; where a Move 1-Step 3 is followed by a Move 2 and then by another Move 1-Step 3 which is again followed by another Move 2 and finally followed by a Move 1. The following example shows such cycles:
EDU. 12
Sumber-Sumber Stres Kerja Guru
(The Source of Teachers' Working Stress)

Move1-Step3


In the last few years, a number of experts have carried out research on the source of teacher’s working stress, such as Cayul (1992), Feitler and Tokar (1982), Litt and Turk (1985), Smith and Burk (1985) and Kreme-Haton and Golstein (1990).

Move 2

[S2] Dari sejumlah penelitian itu tampak bahwa temuan mengenai sumber-sumber stres kerja guru tidak konsisten dari satu penelitian ke penelitian lainnya.

These studies show inconsistent findings on the source of teacher's working stress between one study and the other.

Move 1-Step 3


For example, the research carried out by Feitler and Tokar (1982) found that the dominant source and the most frequent cause of teacher's working stress results from the students who continually behave badly. This finding is different from those from Capel (1992) and Hodge, Jupp, and Taylor (1994). Capel’s research found that the dominant source of teacher's stress is that too much work is assigned for them, while Hodge's study, from music and mathematic teachers’ samples, reveals that it is extra curricular tasks which predominantly cause teacher's working stress.

Move 2


[S5] Penelitian Capel mengungkapkan bahwa terlalu banyaknya pekerjaan yang harus dilakukan merupakan sumber stres yang utama guru.

[S6] Sementara penelitian Hodge terhadap sampel guru seni musik dan guru matematika menemukan bahwa pekerjaan ekstra kurikuler merupakan sumber stres yang paling dominan pada kedua kelompok guru tersebut.

[S1] Inconsistensi temuan penelitian itu secara tersirat disebabkan oleh perbedaan penilaian individu terhadap situasi kerja yang dianggap sebagai sumber stres.
The inconsistency of these research findings is implicitly caused by different individual interpretations of what constitutes stressful working conditions.

**Move 1-Step 3**

Utuk sebagian, perbedaan penilaian tersebut berkaitan dengan nilai sosial-budaya masyarakat yang melatarinya (Baron dan Greenberg, 1990). Perbedaan itu juga menyentuh tatanan sosial-budaya sekolah sebagai subsistem masyarakat sekitarnya.

These different individual interpretations are partly related to the underlying socio-cultural values of respondents in the studies (Baron and Greenberg, 1990). They are also influenced by the socio-cultural pattern of the school as a subsystem of the surrounding community.

As seen in the above example, the cycles begin with a brief review of previous studies (Move 1-Step 3) which is followed by the writer's conclusions or evaluation drawn from the review of previous studies (Move 2). The writer’s conclusions or evaluation (Move 2) is then supported by further evidence from several other studies (Move 1-Step 3); this is then again followed by the writer referring back to the previous conclusions or evaluation (a claim about the cause of the inconsistent previous study results). Finally, this claim is supported by another review of items from a previous study (Move 1-Step 3). Thus, the cycle of Move 1-Step 3 and Move 2 recurs at least twice in this particular RA introduction.

Although cyclicity is a feature of the close connection between Move 1-Step 3 and Move 2 of the CARS model, RA authors may choose to address a series of review of items from previous studies before giving their comment, evaluation or criticism on the studies. This format is also found in the Indonesian RA introductions, where the authors indicate a knowledge gap in the research topic (Move 2) at the end of the literature review or after addressing a series of review of items from previous studies (Move 1-Step 3). Consider the following example:

**PSY.3**

**Move 2**

Sampai saat ini belum kami dapatkan penelitian mengenai sikap anak terhadap orang tua bila salah satu orang tuanya menderita skizofrenia kronik
Until now, we have not found any study on children's attitude towards their parents when one of them suffers from chronic schizophrenia.

At the beginning of paragraph 1 of PSY.3, the authors define the term schizophrenic, while in the rest of the text until the end of paragraph 4, the authors review items from previous relevant studies (Move1-Step3). In paragraph 5, as in the above example, the authors indicate a gap in knowledge on the research topic by stating that there has not been any study on the topic as far as the authors’ concern. This statement is classified as Move 2 in the CARS model.

5.3.3. Occupying the Niche (Move 3)

In Indonesian research article introductions, Move 3 is a common segment (80 RAs or 90% have a Move 3) consisting of explicit straightforward statements of the research purposes or announcement of the specific features of the research. In addition, unlike Move 2 which is often addressed in a few sentences in a paragraph, Step 1A of Move 3 (outlining purposes) is addressed in a full paragraph; several of them even have a subheading Tujuan Penelitian ‘Purposes of the Study’. The occurrence of different steps of Move 3 is summarised in Table 9.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Steps</th>
<th>ECO n=30</th>
<th>EDU n=30</th>
<th>PSY n=30</th>
<th>Total N=90 (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Move 3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1A</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>85 (94.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 1B</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>67 (74.4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step 2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18 (20%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: The Distribution of different Steps within Move 3

As seen in Table 9, Step 2 (announcing principal findings) is very infrequent in the Indonesian RA introductions and there is no evidence of indicating the RA structure (Step 3) found in the data. The common types of Move 3 are of Step 1A and 1B; in fact, almost all RA writers in this data announce the purposes of their research either through
Step 1A format or Research Question (RQ) format. Below is an example of a Move 3 Step-1A in the Indonesian RA introductions:

EDU. 16

Tujuan Penelitian

Based on the above statement of the problem, the purpose of the study is to know whether or not there is a difference in the Teaching Practicum results at IKIP Universitas Dwijendra Denpasar between Civic students from the vocational secondary school and those from the non-vocational secondary schools.

In the above example, the purposes of the study is expressed in a complete sentence.

The common opening sentences marking a Step 1A found in this study are as follows:

- Tujuan penelitian ini adalah untuk (mengetahui)...
  ‘The purpose of this study is to understand...’

- Penelitian berikut bermaksud untuk mencari tahu (mengetahui) ...  
  ‘The following study is meant to find out...’

- Penelitian ini dimaksudkan untuk menjawab pertanyaan ...
  ‘This study is aimed at answering the question of ...’

- Yang ingin diteliti apakah ...
  ‘What is going to be investigated is ...’

- Penelitian ini bermaksud membandingkan ... dengan ...
  ‘This study intends to compare ...with ...’

- Penelitian ini akan mencoba menganalisis ...
  ‘This study will attempt to analyse ...’

- Penelitian tentang ... bertujuan untuk ...
  ‘The study on ... is aimed to ...’

- Maksud penelitian ini adalah untuk ...
  ‘The aim of this study is to ...’

- Penelitian ini mempunyai beberapa tujuan. Pertama, ...
  ‘This study has several purposes. First, ...’

- Penelitian ini dirancang untuk menyelidiki ...
  ‘This study is designed to investigate ...’
Another common feature of Move 3 Step 1A is the use of numerical figures instead of using a normal paragraph construction. This format is seldom found in other moves or steps. Below is a Move 3 Step 1A with a numerical figure:

**ECO. 24**

**Tujuan Penelitian**

Tujuan penelitian ini adalah untuk mengeksplorasi seberapa jauh misi Bank Perkreditan Rakyat itu telah tercapai. Evaluasinya akan mengacu pada beberapa indikator berikut ini:

1. Jumlah dana masyarakat desa yang dapat dihimpun dalam bentuk tabungan dan deposito berjangka.
2. Kemampuan BPR memberikan kredit.
3. Sektor-sektor usaha yang dibiayai dengan kredit itu.
4. Kemampuan bekerja sama dengan Bank Umum dalam penyaluran Kredit Usaha Kecil dan beberapa volume KUK yang telah disalurkan.

**Purposes of the Study**

The aim of this study is to explore how much the mission of the Public Credit Bank has been achieved. The evaluation will refer to the following indicators:

1. The total funds that rural people raised in the form of saving and term deposits.
2. The capability of the Public Credit Bank to give credits.
3. The business sectors funded by that credit.
4. The capability to cooperate with the Public Banks in distributing credit for the Small Business Credit and the volume of credit already distributed.

While Step 1A has a very standardised format (the announcement of the purposes of the study), it has various lexical realisations, Step 1B describes several different features of the research. Swales (1990) suggests that Step 1B is the description of the main feature of the research from the writer's point of view. In other words, it depends on the RA writers to decide what will be the main feature of their research; and, therefore, it can vary in this respect from one RA to another. Below are several examples of Move 3-Step 1B in different formats found in the data:

**ECO 1**

Dalam penelitian ini akan dibahas tentang sistem pengendalian manajemen, dengan tujuan untuk mengetahui apakah benar struktur pengendalian manajemen yang merupakan prasarana dalam melaksanakan proses pengendalian manajemen merupakan dua hal yang saling berkait dan sulit dipisahkan.
This study will discuss management control systems in order to know whether the structure of management control, and the infrastructure for carrying out the process of management control, are really two related and inseparable issues.

**PSY. 26**

[Prg.11](S2) ... penelitian ini khusus membatasi pada variable harapan orang tua akan prestasi anak.

... this study focuses on the variable of parents’ expectations about their children’s study results.

**EDU. 2**


In order to overcome this imbalance, in this study a method suitable for the characteristic of students and the materials for teaching drawing has been developed. This teaching method is the method of shaping and expressing.

In the above example (ECO.1), the important feature of the research is the focus of the research: **management control system**, while in the second example (PSY.26) the specific feature is the scope of the study: **parents' expectation of their children's study results**. In the last example (EDU.2) the important feature of the research, according to the writer, is the specific teaching method used in the experimental study: **the shaping and expressing method**.

As with the features, the starting sentence to signal a Move 3-Step 1B can also vary. Below are the clause realisations of Step 1B commonly found in this study:

**Step 1 B (announcing present research)**

- *Penelitian ini difokuskan pada ...*
  ‘This study is focused on ...’

- *Dalam penelitian akan dibahas tentang ...*
  ‘This study will discuss ...’

- *Subjek dalam penelitian ini adalah ...*
  ‘The subject of this study is ...’

- *Penelitian semacam ini menuntut digunakan pendekatan ...*
  ‘This type of study requires a particular approach ...’
In the above examples, Step 1B addresses several different aspects of the research being reported, such as the focus of the study, the subject of the study, the instrument utilised, the scope of the study, or some element of research methodology.

Step 2 of Move 3 (announcing the principle findings) is very infrequent in the Indonesian RA introduction. This rhetorical work is found only in two RA introductions and both are in the psychology RAs; none of the education and economic RA introductions have an announcement of the principle findings of the study. Below is an example of Move 3-Step 2 in the Indonesian RA introduction:

PSY.20

Kesimpulan dari penelitian yaitu meditasi dapat mengurangi ketegangan otot, membuat tubuh santai, menurunkan konsumsi oksigen, dan menurunkan kadar kolesterol. Kondisi ini selanjutnya dapat mengurangi keluhan-keluhan fisik seseorang.

The conclusion from this research is that meditation can reduce muscle tension, relax body, decrease oxygen consumption, and reduce cholesterol-blood level. This physical condition can subsequently reduce other physical ailments of a person.

In the above example, the announcement of the research findings is very brief; in fact, the writer only announces part of the conclusion. Also, this is only one part of a paragraph (sentences 3 and 4 of paragraph 9), which follows the announcement of research purposes (Move 3-Step 1A).

In English RAs, on the other hand, the announcement of principal findings in the introduction section (Move 3-Step 2) is fairly common although there may be a quite marked disciplinary divergence. Swales and Najjar (1987), for example, found that 45% of their Educational Psychology RAs had such statements but only 7% of their Physics
RAs had such statements. Similarly, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995) claim that announcing the principle findings in the introduction section is becoming more popular in English RAs because this is the writers' strategy to promote the news value of the RA. In other words, by announcing the principal findings in the introduction section, readers might become interested in reading the whole article. Since a very small number of the Indonesian RAs have a Move 3-Step 2, the conclusion is that the Indonesian RAs are different from those in English in terms of the appearance of Move 3-Step 2. Also, there is no evidence of a Move 3-Step 3 (indicating RA structure) in the data of this study.

5.4. The Rhetorical Features of the Indonesian RA Introductions

From the above illustrations and discussions several specific features of the opening strategy in the Indonesian RAs in terms of the CARS model are noticeable. First, the majority of the Indonesian RA writers find it necessary to provide readers with enough knowledge or background information in order for them to be able to understand the central issue or the topic of the research being reported in order to capture a wider potential audience. In other words, making readers fully understand the research issue or topic is more important for the Indonesian RA writers than persuasive appeals to the readers to read the RA, although in a number of RAs there is evidence that the writers try to convince readers that their research topic is important and useful by referring to government policy.

Secondly, the important element in the introduction section appears to be the research problem, and the opening strategies often lead to the identification of a research problem. This echoes RA writing conventions in Indonesian in which the problem identification and problem statement are two crucial elements (Rifai 1995). Rifai suggests that Indonesian RA writers should explicitly state the research problem at the beginning of their RA introduction. Unlike in English RAs in which writers point at a gap in knowledge in previous studies in order to create a space for research, in the
majority of the Indonesian RAs the writers justify their research project by indicating there is a research problem.

The various opening strategies employed by the Indonesian RA writers show that writing conventions for RA introductions are not yet descriptively standardised, although from the prescriptive point of view, there are authors such as Rifai (1995) and Djaali (1994) who have proposed conventions. The majority of the RA writers in this study are still influenced by textbook introduction styles when writing a RA introduction, although they are actually two different genres. Unlike an RA introduction, the introduction in a textbook may have more and different communicative purposes, such as to prepare readers' schemata, to indicate whom a particular book is useful for, and to introduce how to use the textbook. This is probably because RA writers are more familiar with the rhetorical features of textbooks than those of RA.

Finally, regarding the types of information given in the information or knowledge background, the Indonesian RA writers tend to use the general-to-specific format which is also common in English academic article introductions (Oshima and Hoque 1991). However, in a number of RAs, the Indonesian writers begin from very general information where some of it may not be closely related to the actual research topic and, therefore, may not be necessary. This implies that RA writers have to correctly anticipate readers' background knowledge in order to provide the right quantity of information at the beginning of their RA introductions. Too much general background information will be counter productive because readers, especially research field specialists or expert members of the discourse community, will find some of the information unnecessary.

5.5. Research Questions in the Indonesian RA Introductions

The use of Research Questions (RQ) is fairly common in the Indonesian RA introductions; the data for this study shows that 48 out 90 RAs (53.3%) have this rhetorical work. In a number of RA introductions, the purposes of the research project
being reported in the RAs are announced using RQs, although there are RAs which have both an explicit announcement of research purposes (Move 3-Step 1A of the CARS model) and RQs. The RQ is actually similar to a statement of the purpose of the study in some ways; for example, it addresses the question as the target for the researcher to answer through the research process. In the Indonesian RA introduction, the RQ is classified as an indirect announcement of the research purposes; that is to answer the questions posed. Because of their similarity, for this study the RQ is, therefore, considered to be one type of Move 3. However, several RA introductions even have both an RQ and a statement of purpose of the study (Move 3-Step 1A) causing an overlapping statement of purposes of the study. To see how similar these two segments are, let us look at the following example (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**EDU. 16**

**Research Question**

[Prg.3] Berdasarkan latar belakang di atas maka dapatlah dirumuskan permasalahan sebagai berikut: Apakah ada perbedaan prestasi praktik keguruan antara mahasiswa yang berasal dari sekolah keguruan dengan nonkeguruan pada program studi PMP FKIP Universitas Dwijendra Denpasar?

Based on the above background of the study, the statement of the problem can be formulated as: Is there any difference in the teaching practice achievement of students from the civic department of FKIP Dwijendra University Denpasar and between those who come from the teacher vocational secondary school and those from the non-teacher vocational secondary school?

**Purposes of Study**


Based on the above formulation of the problem, the purpose of the study is to find out if there is any difference in the achievement of the teaching practice of the students of the department of civic FKIP Dwijendra University Denpasar between those from the teacher vocational secondary school and those from the non-teacher vocational secondary school.
Notice especially the underlined sentences, where the only major difference (between the RQ and the statement of the purpose of study in EDU.16) is in the formulation of the statement. The RQ is formulated as an interrogative sentence, while the statement of purpose of study is formulated as a declarative sentence. In other words, both rhetorical works (RQ and the statement of purpose of study), although different in their sentence formulation, they are similar in their communicative purpose; which is to announce the purpose of the present study.

5.6. Cultural Influences on the Indonesian RA Introductions

As discussed earlier in this chapter, the typical rhetorical work for creating a research space or establishing a research niche in the English RA introductions is through negatively evaluating or criticising the items of previous studies. By doing so, the English writers expect that readers will find the research project reported in the RAs important and necessary. However, such rhetorical work is not found in the Indonesian RA introductions in the data for this study. Although the Indonesian writers review items from previous studies, they seem to avoid criticising or negatively evaluating the findings of the studies. Look at the following example from PSY.13:
Move 2

[S.1] Beberapa penelitian telah dilakukan, namun hasilnya masih belum konsisten.

Several studies have already been carried out, however, the results are still inconsistent.

Move 1


Friedrich and Stein (in Worchel & Cooper, 1983) conducted a study on playschool pupils, both boys and girls, who watched violent, neutral, and prosocial movies on television. The results showed that the aggressiveness of the children who watched the neutral and prosocial movies can be decreased while that of those who watched violent movies increased.


Parke, et al. (in Worchel & Cooper, 1983) conducted a study of children living in a reform school in the USA and Belgium. These children who watched violent movies had more aggressive behavior than those watching neutral movies. The study conducted by Martani and Adiyanti (1992) on the preschool and kindergarten children in Yogyakarta's schools showed that there was no difference in the aggressiveness of the children who liked watching violent and non-violent movies on television. The study by Eron
In the above example, out of 5 different previous studies reviewed, for example, only one study showed a different finding; this study was carried out in Yogyakarta, Indonesia, by Indonesian investigators [(Martani and Adiyanti, 1992)]. The other four studies that were carried outside Indonesia (in the United States, Australia and Belgium), on the other hand, had similar findings. The unequal number and the different places between the consistent and the inconsistent previous study results should have created a doubt for the RA writers. For example, the writers should have looked more closely at the study carried out in Indonesia by the Indonesian investigators to find out why it had produced a different conclusion than those of other studies carried out overseas.

One possible reason for Indonesian writers' avoidance or reluctance to criticise the work of others especially in academic or scientific writing is suggested by Keraf (1992). He claims that when Indonesian writers write in Indonesian, they rarely want to criticise other people's views because criticising other people, especially those who are older or who have a higher social or economic status, is considered culturally impolite. According to Keraf, this is not an ideal attitude for scientists because the main objective of scientific work is to find the truth. This claim is in line with the findings of ethnographers, such as Saville-Troike (1982) and Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988), who claim that, unlike Western cultures, Eastern people such as Chinese, Koreans, and Japanese consider group harmony and collective value very important; they even prefer to keep silence over boldly criticising other people. Indonesian academic writers seem to adopt the same style when writing academic articles; that is avoiding to criticise or pointing at weaknesses of the work of other people in order not to appear face-threatening or to be considered impolite or in order to keep the group's harmony.

Another possible explanation for the Indonesian writers’ reluctance to negatively evaluate other people's work is because they do not see the need to do so. They, for
example, do not have to compete for a research space or even to obtain a place in a journal publication. The claim that research on a particular topic is nonexistent or has never been reported may have been considered to be a convincing appeal from the writers to readers in order to accept that the present work is necessary and important. Indeed it is a convention in RA writing in Indonesian that the most important factor for Indonesian researchers is to show in their introduction that the research problem chosen for their research really exists (Rifai 1995).

Indonesian researchers also tend to focus on local context without considering the holistic or universal effect of their scientific work (Soeparno, et al. 1987). The evidence in this study shows that the Indonesian RA writers do not attempt to find out whether studies relevant to or similar to their work have ever been carried out by other people in other places in Indonesia. None of the writers, for example, has reported consulting indices of work carried out or articles written on Indonesia, such as *Indeks Majalah Ilmiah Indonesia* ‘Index of Indonesian Learned Periodicals’, published by *Pusat Dokumentasi dan Informasi Ilmiah Lembaga Ilmu Pengetahuan Indonesia* ‘Center for Scientific Documentation and Information of Indonesian Institute of Sciences’.

The rare occurrence of Move 2, which is commonly found in English RAs, in Indonesian RA introductions does not meant that Indonesian RAs lack justification for the importance or the necessity of the present research; rather a different technique has been employed. Almost all RAs, for example, address the research problem in the introduction and this is used to justify the present research in the Indonesian RA introduction. In fact, identifying and stating research problems is a universal strategy of justifying the importance of particular research (Nachmias and Nachmias 1976). According to Nachmias and Nachmias, the problem is “... an intellectual stimulus calling for a response in the form of a scientific answer (p:10)” and since scientists are problem solvers, therefore, it is reasonable if in their research, scientists raise problems to ground their research.
In English RA conventions, the research problem is also the key issue in research as noted by Day (1996:30), who writes, "Any piece of research is built around a design, which begins with identifying a problem and then the issue that guides our understanding.” Day goes on to claim that research is designed mainly to find the answer to a specific problematic question. Swales (1990:140) also claims that problems are central to research in many disciplines, saying, "problems or research questions or unexplained phenomena are the life blood of many research undertakings." The format of research questions can be in the form of questions in the format of a hypothesis statement, as Travers (1969) has noted. Travers further suggests that research problems can be stated in terms of a question for which the proposed research is designed to obtain an answer and sometimes such a question is referred to as a hypothesis.
CHAPTER SIX

PROBLEM JUSTIFYING PROJECT (PJP): A RHETORICAL ANALYSIS MODEL FOR THE INDONESIAN RESEARCH ARTICLE INTRODUCTIONS

6. 1. Introduction

This chapter focuses on the development of a rhetorical analysis model specifically designed for Indonesian RA introductions, henceforth called the Problem Justifying Project (PJP) model, in order to capture the major important communicative purposes and rhetorical features of the Indonesian RA introductions. Section 2 of this chapter will introduce and discuss the rationale and the need for the specific model for the Indonesian RA introduction analysis. In Section 3, the application of the PJP model to Indonesian RA introductions in the data of this study will be discussed and illustrated; the textual illustrations will be taken from the data either in their entirety or fragments and accompanied by rough English translations. The last section of this chapter (Section 4) will compare and discuss the persuasive techniques and values utilised in the PJP and the CARS models of RA introduction analyses. A comparison will also be made with the work of Ahmad (1997) on Malay RA introductions throughout this chapter in terms of rhetorical features and communicative purposes of RA introductions in the two languages (Indonesian and Malay).
6. 2. Problem Justifying Project (PJP): A Rhetorical Analysis Model for Indonesian RA Introductions

As indicated in Chapter 5, the CARS model does not capture adequately the important communicative purposes and specific rhetorical features of the Indonesian RA introductions for several reasons. First, the majority of the Indonesian RA introductions have been classified as using an indirect writing style with various different types of background information at the beginning of the introduction sections. This is normally aimed at preparing and attracting readers to read the entire RA. The CARS model, on the other hand, is based on English RA introductions which predominantly have a direct writing style where, in the first few sentences of the first paragraphs, the writers are already expected to introduce the research topic by making a centrality claim or using other similar techniques (Swales 1981, 1984, 1987, and 1990). This stylistic difference between the Indonesian RA introductions and those in English, as discussed in Chapter 5, is partly the result of the different conventions of scientific or academic writing in English and Indonesian and differences in the writer's expectations and attitudes towards their potential readers.

Second, unlike English writers, Indonesian RA writers tend to justify their research project by convincing the readers that a research problem in a particular topic or in a particular research field really exists. The evidence from the data of this study, as already discussed in Chapter 5, shows that very few introduction sections in the Indonesian RAs have statements which can be classified as a Move 2 (establishing a niche) of the CARS model, a common way utilised by the English RA writers to justify their present research project. Also, the small number of Move 2s found in Indonesian RA introductions are addressed with different techniques from those commonly found in English RA introductions. The Indonesian RA writers, for example, simply claim that the results of previous relevant studies are inconsistent or that a particular topic has
never been investigated or reported in order to create a research space for their present research project or to justify their research project.

References or quotations in the Indonesian RAs are scattered throughout the entire introduction section with various communicative and persuasive purposes, such as validating definitions of key terms, supporting a general or specific claim, supporting a claim about a research problem, validating the choice of research methods or approaches and reviewing current knowledge and practice. However, in the English RA introductions, as suggested by Swales (1990), references or quotations are predominantly used to establish a research territory or field (Move 1).

Finally, Indonesian writers tend to announce far more features of their present research project, such as the expected benefits of the research, research hypotheses, proposing a solution to the research problem, and the outlining scope of the research in the last section of their RA introductions than English writers do. This is done as part of the writers’ persuasive way to attract readers to read the entire RA. Therefore, the majority of these research project features are not included in the CARS model.

The need for a specific analytical model for Indonesian RA introductions is also triggered and strengthened by the fact that the introduction sections in the Indonesian RAs have different communicative purposes from those of their English counterparts from the prescriptive point of view. In English RAs, as suggested by Hunston (1994), the introduction section mainly aims to convince readers that the research, whose results are about to be reported, is necessary and important because there is a knowledge gap on an important topic. On the other hand, in the Indonesian RAs, as suggested by Djaali (1994) and Rifai (1995), an introduction section aims to address the rationale for the research project, to guide readers in reading the whole of the RA and to announce the contribution of the research results to the development of knowledge in a particular discipline and/or the country. In other words, the justification for a research project in Indonesian scientific practice comes not only because the research topic is important and there is a knowledge gap in the topic but also because the present research project
may provide substantial practical contributions to the development of the country in a particular field or area.

A rhetorical analysis model which can capture the communicative purposes and important rhetorical features characterising the Indonesian RA introductions is necessary. For this purpose, a four-move analysis model, adapted from the CARS model of Swales (1990) and the Project Justifying Model (PJM) of Ahmad (1997), is proposed (as in Figure 12). This model is called the Problem Justifying Project model (PJP). Similar to the CARS and PJM models, the PJP model also adopts a view based on form-function relationship; the four communicative moves, for example, represent the communicative purposes of the Indonesian RA introductions while the sub-moves, henceforth called steps, may refer to the textual or rhetorical forms.
Move 1 Establishing Shared Schemata by:
Step A: Defining key terms; and/or
Step B: Referring to the government policy; and/or
Step C: Giving a short history of the research field; and/or
Step D: Describing the geographical setting of the research; and/or
Step E: Making a general claim.

Move 2 Establishing the Research Field by:
Step A: Introducing the actual research topic; and/or
Step B: Identifying the research problem or phenomena; and
Step C: Reviewing the current knowledge and practice.

Move 3 Justifying the Present Research Project by:
Step A: Indicating inconsistency in previous study results; or
Step B: Claiming that the topic has never been explored; or
Step C: Claiming that the topic is necessary to investigate; or
Step D: Claiming interest in investigating a particular topic.

Move 4 Announcing the Present Research by:
Step A: Announcing the research purposes; and/or
Step B: Stating the research questions; and/or
Step C: Describing the specific features of the research; and/or
Step D: Stating the expected benefits of the research; and/or
Step E: Announcing the principal findings; and/or
Step F: Proposing the research hypothesis; and/or
Step G: Suggesting a solution to the research problem.

Figure 12: Problem Justifying Project (PJP): A Rhetorical Analysis Model for the Indonesian RA Introductions

The PJP model, as shown in Figure 12, consists of four communicative moves: 1) establishing shared schemata, 2) establishing the research field or territory, 3) justifying the present research project, and 4) announcing the research specifications. Also, in every move there are several possible steps that a RA writer may utilise in order to achieve the main communicative purpose of the move. The use of 'and/or' at the end of almost all steps in PJP model shows that the RA writers have to use at least one step in every move in order to express the main communicative purpose of the move, but still have choices about what steps they may use.
6. 3. Sample Analyses of the PJP Model in Indonesian RA Introductions

The following sections will discuss communicative purposes, rhetorical structure and textual features of every move and step in the PJP Model. This section will also illustrate the moves and steps with typical examples from Indonesian RA introductions in the data for this study.

6. 3. 1. Establishing shared schemata (Move 1)

In order to prepare readers to understand the research field and topic, writers need to establish shared schemata with their potential readers. This can be effectively achieved by offering background information in various forms. Background information in a written text is especially important for readers who are new or unfamiliar with the research field. The beginning of the introduction is a place where writers can develop common ground or shared schemata with potential readers in order to ensure successful communication through the text and eliminate misinterpretation or misunderstanding between these two parties. As Johns (1997) suggests, shared knowledge between readers and writers about the content as well as the form of a particular text is crucial for the success of text comprehension and processing, especially for readers who are new to the content and the form of the text. Johns claims that the more types of knowledge or experience shared between writers and readers in a particular text, such as the text name, communicative purposes, knowledge of roles, knowledge of context, conventions, content, register, cultural values, and awareness of intertextuality, the more successful the text processing can be. Similarly, Cook (1994:17) writes that, "...text is interpreted with the help of knowledge structures activated from memory, capable of filling in details which are not explicitly stated." In other words, background information may function to bridge the gap of knowledge in a particular field or the different perceptions on a particular topic between the writers and readers before further discussion on the topic is dealt with.
Swales and Najjar (1987) also discuss the rationale for background information especially in social science and humanities RA introductions. They suggest that, unlike researchers in hard or natural sciences, social sciences and humanity researchers have loose conventions for the format and content of their RA introductions. Since the potential readers of RAs in these disciplinary areas have a wide variety of schemata and diverse methodological and ideological viewpoints, the writers take the opportunity to attract as many readers as possible to their perspective. According to Swales and Najjar, this is commonly dealt with in the RA’s introduction section.

Ahmad (1997) also found a kind of background information in her Malay RA introductions. Out of 60 RAs in her data, 32 RAs (51.6%) have rhetorical work classified as background information which can take one or more of three forms: 1) defining central terms or research objects, 2) describing the characteristics of the research object, and 3) giving a short history of the research field. In other words, more than half of the Malay RA introductions in Ahmad's corpus adopt an indirect writing style, although her data are in the hard or natural sciences, the very research areas which have more fixed conventions for the content and format of RA article introductions (Swales 1990). According to Ahmad (1997), the very main communicative purpose of this background information is to prepare readers before writers examine the research topic in greater depth. However, as Ahmad warns, too much background information can be counter-productive especially for readers who are already familiar with the research field. Ahmad, therefore, suggests that RA writers need to consider the level of the background knowledge or schemata of their potential audience in order to determine the type and amount of the background information to be provided.
The existence of background information before the introduction of the actual research topic or problem in the majority of the Indonesian RA introductions, as discussed in chapter 5, shows that the rhetorical style of Indonesian RA introductions adopts an indirect style. Readers, for example, have to search further into the text in order to look for the actual topic of the RA to find out what the research is about. However, the indirectness of Indonesian scientific texts, although they may look ineffective or unconventional to English readers, seems to have been deliberately chosen by the Indonesian RA writers for a particular reason. They appear to consider that their potential readers lack background knowledge in a particular research field, and therefore, it is necessary to provide sufficient relevant information in order to guarantee successful communication between writers and readers throughout the text. Day (1996:49) claims that, "If the author delivers what the readers expect and want, then the satisfied consumer will look for the author's name in the future and be more favourably disposed to journals which publish the author's work". In other words, authors must choose an appropriate rhetorical style for a particular form of scientific writing in order to achieve a successful communication and reader’s satisfaction.

The data of this study reveal that background information in Indonesian RA introductions may take one or more of the five possible rhetorical forms or steps: 1) definition of key terms, 2) reference to the government policy, 3) a short history of the research field, 4) geographical setting of the research, and 5) a general claim. In the PJP model, as indicated in Figure 12, the definition of a key term is labelled as Step A, reference to the government policy as Step B, a short history of the research field as Step C, geographical setting of the research as Step D, while a general claim is designated as Step E. The communicative purposes and text examples of each step in Move 1 taken from the data of this study are discussed in the next section of this chapter.
6. 3. 1. 1. Step A (Definition of key terms)

The first type of background information found in the Indonesian RA introductions is definition of key terms (Step A). The communicative purpose of the definition is quite apparent, i.e. to give readers a semantic explication or delimiting the meaning of a newly introduced or important term from the writer's point of view. Writers expect readers to adopt the same definition of a particular term in order to avoid misinterpretation or misunderstanding. Similarly, Ahmad (1997) suggests that the act of defining terms is a common practice in scientific and technical writing with the main purpose of providing opportunities for writers to advance newly-introduced terms and to indirectly show their contribution.

Yudojono (1984) classifies the definitions in scientific writing into two types: formal definitions, and wider (or extended) definitions. According to Yudojono, a formal definition is a simple explication of a particular term, such as that found in a dictionary, while a wider or extended definition needs detailed features or characteristics of the object or concept and sometime requires examples or illustrations. Similarly, Keraf (1981) suggests that in a formal definition, the 'definiendum' or the defined word and the 'definiens' or the definition itself are identical, while the extended definition is used to define a complex concept, where the use of a simple definition is not sufficient (p:45). Yudojono goes on to suggest that in choosing the type of definition to use, writers have to consider readers' background knowledge and must not underestimate their available knowledge or schemata, because over-defining or over-classifying obvious terms can be counter-productive.

Shackell (1996) refers to an elaborated definition as an 'interrogative unit' when he discusses the typical definitions of objects or concepts in university textbooks (p:46). Shackell suggests that the main purpose of this type of definition or 'interrogative unit' is to tell readers what a particular object or concept which has been newly introduced means in a larger structure; that is to answer the question ‘What is X?’(p:47). In other words, according to Shakell, an elaborated definition of a particular object or concept is
used to tell readers what the writers mean by the object or concept and appeal to readers to use the same definition in reading the texts. Similarly, Landau (1984) suggests that a definition of a word or term must provide readers with sufficient immediate information of the word or the term itself in order to enable them to make an approximate guess of its meaning in context. If a definition fails to do so, as Landau further suggests, it will be considered a useless definition at least from readers’ point of view.

A more detailed discussion on the pattern of definition in scientific texts is given by Darian (1997). Darian claims that the use of definition is the basic technique for classifying a term, and this basic definition is extended by another technique called classification. Darian suggests a standardised formula for a definition: Term + Class word + Limiting feature(s), and then gives the following example to illustrate the point under discussion (The emphasis is added as underlined):

A mixture is a material containing two or more substances (definition) and can be either heterogenous or homogenous (classification)(p:818).

In the above example, the defined term is mixture, the class word is material and two or more substances is the limiting features while the rest of the sentence is the additional classification of the defined term mixture. This definition pattern can be presented in a tree diagram as in Figure 13.
As shown in Figure 13, a standardised definition pattern has at least four different types of information: class of word, the defined term, limiting features of the term and classification. However, according to Darian, although classification is the main means of expanding a basic or formal definition, a basic definition and classification are often ‘so bound up together that it is hard to imagine one without the other’ (p:818).

In this study the classification or an elaboration on the defined term to expand the basic definition is called an extended definition; thus, a complete definition is a basic definition plus an extended definition. The data for this study show that two patterns of rhetorical work classified as a definition are commonly found: 1) a key term followed by a basic definition and, then, by an extended definition and 2) a key term which is, then, immediately followed by an extended definition without any basic definition given. In the PJP model, these two patterns of definition are labelled as a Step A of Move 1 (defining key terms) because they have the same purpose, i.e. to explicate
a particular term in order that readers do not confuse it with other terms or misinterpret it. In other words, any type of rhetorical work used by writers to define, classify, and elaborate on a newly introduced or important term is classified as Step A of Move 1.

The first type of definition is a complete definition where the writers provide not only a basic definition of a key or important term but also an extended definition to expand or elaborate on the term. This is illustrated in the example below (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**PSY. 4**

[Prg.21] (S.1) Pengertian kepribadian adalah keseluruhan dari pola pikir, perasaan dan perilaku yang sering digunakan oleh seseorang dalam usaha adaptasi secara terus menerus dalam hidupnya. (S.2) Perkembangan kepribadian dipengaruhi oleh faktor-faktor badaniah, emosional (mekanisme penyesuaian diri), sosial (hubungan antar manusia), adat, budaya, kepercayaan dan taraf inteleogensi (Daffidof, 1981).

The definition of personality is the sum total of the way of thinking, feelings and attitudes that are often used by a person in a continuous endeavour to adapt during life. (S.2) The development of personality is influenced by physical factors, emotional ones (adaptation mechanisms), social ones (human relations), customs, culture, beliefs and level of intelligence (Daffidof, 1981)

In the above example, the writer defines the term *kepribadian* ‘personality’ by offering a basic definition *keseluruhan dari pola pikir, perasaan dan perilaku yang sering digunakan oleh seseorang dalam usaha adaptasi secara terus menerus dalam hidupnya* ‘the sum total of the way of thinking, feelings and attitudes often used by a person in a continuous endeavour to adapt during life.’ To use Darian’s model, the pattern of this definition will be:

- **The defined term** = personality
- **The limiting features** = the sum total of way of thinking, feelings and attitudes
- **Classification** = often used by a person in a continuous endeavour to adapt during life

In sentence 2 of paragraph 21, as in the above example, the writer goes on to elaborate on the term *kepribadian* ‘personality’ by describing the influencing factors in the
development of one’s personality; this has also been classified as an extended definition of the term ‘personality’. However, unlike in Darian’s model, the writer of PSY. 4, as seen in the above example, does not provide the class word of the defined term ‘personality’ in his basic definition. This is probably because the defined term ‘personality’ in PSY. 4 is a concept rather than an object as in Darian’s example.

The second type of definition (a key term immediately followed by an extended definition) found in the Indonesian RA introductions is expressed by elaborating on the key term without giving the basic definition of the term before hand. Consider the following examples (The emphasis is added as underlined):

ECO. 20


'Casiavera' (cinnamon) is one of the export commodities which has been long known to have a good quality in the international market. The market segment achieved in the international market is $25 million every year (Foreign Trade Directorate General, 1990). This is a pleasing development for Indonesia and especially for the producing region.

PSY. 23


Stress, according to Sarafino (1990), constitutes a condition that occurs when there is a transaction between a person and his environment guiding him to perceive a gap - real or unreal - between the demand of the situation and the biological, psychological, and social resources within him or her. Therefore, if the demands experienced by that person are out of proportion with his or her own ability, the person can experience stress.
In ECO. 20, instead of providing a basic definition of the key term *casiavera* ‘cinnamon’, the writers only provide the extended definition of cinnamon as the object of the study; that is by describing the function of cinnamon as an important export commodity for Indonesia. Similarly, in PSY. 23, instead of giving the basic definition for the key term *stres* ‘stress’, the writer jumps ahead to explain how a person can experience stress. Thus, to use Darian’s model the pattern of these definitions will be (a defined term + classifications). Neither of these two RA writers provide the basic definition of the key terms in any other place in their RA introductions.

The above examples seem to indicate that the Indonesian writers may have chosen to provide either a complete definition of a key term (a basic definition + an extended definition) or only an extended definition based on their perception of readers’ background knowledge or schemata. This seems to support Yudojono’s (1984) suggestion when he says that the writer has to consider the type of definition (a complete definition or only an extended definition) to include in their texts based on their perception of the level of readers’ background knowledge. This is because, as Yudojono further claims, over-defining or over-specifying obvious terms will underestimate readers’ available background knowledge or schemata and this can be counter-productive.

The evidence from this study also shows that definition of key terms of objects or concepts in the Indonesian RA introductions are often expressed using specific phrases. The common phrases used are as follows:

1) ... *adalah* ...
   ‘... is...’

2) ... *merupakan* ...
   ‘... literally means to constitute or to make up...’

3) *Sifat* ... *adalah* ...
   ‘The characteristic of ... is ...’
4) ... *mempunyai makna ... bagi ...*  
   ‘... means ... for ...’

5) ... *merupakan salah satu ...*  
   ... ‘consists of one of the ...’

6) ... *ditujukan untuk ...*  
   ‘... is meant for ...’

7) *Pengertian ... adalah ...*  
   ‘The meaning of ... is ...’

8) ... *dirancang untuk ...*  
   ‘... is designed for ...’

9) ... *digambarkan sebagai ...*  
   ‘... is depicted as ...’

10) *Secara harfiah ... adalah ...*  
    ‘Literarily ... is ...’

11) *Istilah ... pada umumnya mengacu pada ...*  
    ‘The term ... usually refers to ...’

12) ... *mendefinisikan ... sebagai ...*  
    ‘... defines ... as ...’

13) *Menurut x, ... menyangkut aspek ...*  
    ‘According to x, ... refers to ...’

As in the above phrases that mark definition of terms, Indonesian writers use a relatively diverse range of phrases to define an important or newly introduced key term in their RA introductions. In addition, the majority of the definitions in the Indonesian texts are from the writers’ own definition but some definitions are taken from a reference. In phrase number 12 (... defines ... as ) and 13 (According to x, ... refers to ...) in the above list are particularly used to indicate that the definition is taken from a
reference. The use of a reference in a definition seems to validate the definition; since it has been used by other and authors the definition has become a standardized definition.

Another feature of the definition of a key term (Step A) in Indonesian RA introductions is that, unlike the other steps in Move 1, a definition may occur in several places throughout the entire RA introduction section. The RA writers, for example, may provide a definition wherever they introduce a new term for an object or concept which may need a definition or a classification. The rationale, at least from the writer's point of view, is that a high frequency term which is new to the readers may hinder their comprehension if they are not given the specific definition and an elaboration of the term. Another possible side effect, if unfamiliar terms are not defined, is that readers may use their own definitions which might be different from those of the writers and this may cause a misunderstanding or the readers may lose their interest and motivation to read the article, or completely abandon reading the entire article.

6. 3. 1. 2. Step B (Referring to government policy or documents)

In Indonesian RA introductions, background information is provided not only to familiarise readers with a particular key terms in order to develop shared knowledge or schemata with readers but also to show that their research field is important or significant and this is dealt with by referring to government policies or documents (Step B). By relating their research field or topic to the government policies or documents, the Indonesian writers attempt to convince their readers that their research topic is significant, because it deals with an important government policy. This type of background information carries a persuasive value apart from assisting writers to establish shared schemata with their readers.

One of the possible reasons for the use of the government policy in the RA introductions may be due to the centralistic system adopted by the Indonesian government. The Government seems to be perceived by the majority of Indonesian
(including researchers and scholars) as the main agent of development; therefore, every government policy is seen as an attempt to develop the country and the people. Government programs or policies, therefore, should be supported and implemented by all Indonesian people for the benefit of the people. Thus, any effort to help implement government policy is seen as an important one, and it is therefore, justifiable to get some funding from the government institution. To illustrate the point in discussion, below is another example of this step.

**EDU. 23**

[Prg.1] Pasal 4 Undang-Undang Pendidikan Nasional (1989) memberikan isyarat bahwa pendidikan merupakan salah satu jalur yang sangat strategis untuk meningkatkan kualitas sumber daya manusia Indonesia demi kesinambungan pembangunan nasional.

Article number 4 of the National Education Act (1989) indicates that education is a highly strategic path for developing the quality of Indonesian human resources for the continuation of national development.

The title of this particular RA is *Penggunaan Validasi Teman Sejawat Untuk Meningkatkan Konsep Berhitung Guru SD di Sumatera Utara* ‘The Use of Validation by Fellow Teachers to Improve Understanding of Arithmetical Concepts by Primary School Teachers in North Sumatera’. As seen in the above example, to start his introduction the writer quotes *Undang-Undang Pendidikan Nasional* the ‘National Education Act’ saying that education provides a highly strategic path for developing the quality of Indonesian human resource for the continuation of national development. This implies that, although it may not be very closely related to the actual research topic, referring to the government policy has an important communicative purpose; that is to place the research topic into a particular context. In the case of EDU. 23, as in the above example, it places the research topic into the context of Indonesian national education policy.

By relating the topic of the present research to a government policy, the Indonesian writers expect that readers will find their research topic important and necessary, because it is inspired or motivated by one the government policies as written
in a government document. In other words, the Indonesian writers imply that their present study reported in their RA helps the Indonesian government succeed in implementing its policy or solve the problems in the implementation of the policy and, therefore, the research project is important or necessary. Thus, referring to government policy or document at the beginning of the Indonesian RA introductions has both a communicative purpose and a persuasive value for the Indonesian scientific discourse community, particularly for the Indonesian RA writers.

6.3.1.3. Step C (Giving a short history of the research field)

Another type of background information found in Indonesian RA introductions is a short history of the research field (Step C). The main communicative purpose of this step seems to situate the research topic and/or problem about to be introduced from a historical point of view. By narrating the history of the research field or describing features of the research location, for example, the writers can explain when, where, how and why a research problem has emerged. Below is another example of this step:

PSY. 22


Stories and especially folktales are considered to have an important role in children's life. In 4 BC, Plato (as translated by Lee, 1974) warned of the danger of allowing children to listen to stories not suitable for their character. Plato suggested that there should be supervision in the writing of stories; that is, only stories suitable for children should be selected and those which are not suitable should be rejected. Through stories told by mothers or baby sitters, according to Plato, children's thoughts and personality will be developed.
Folktales were inherited orally from one generation to the next. Through this traditional story telling system, folktales were introduced to higher class society. Baby sitters who usually came from low social classes brought this folktales to high class society, that is the family where they worked as baby sitters. In order to be accepted in the high class society, the folktales had to be changed and given moral content. The process of changing the folktales to fairytales, as they are found now, was begun in the seventeenth century by writers who also came from aristocratic or educated classes, such as Perrault and the Grimm brothers (Zipes, 1983).

In the above example, the writer describes a part of the history of folktales from the fourth century BC; then, she explains why folktales were converted into fairytales which carry moral messages from the seventeenth century. The writer goes on to describe the messages and the characters found in fairytales by reviewing relevant previous studies. In this particular RA, the writer justifies her research project by claiming that such a research topic has never been explored or reported in Indonesia as far as the writer is aware. The purposes of this research is to find out whether or not folktales have economic content apart from carrying moral and ethical messages. Although narrating the short history of folktales or fairytales may not be important or relevant to the purposes of the research, the writer uses it in order to show readers how and why the messages in the folktales and fairytales have changed and probably will still continue to change, and the writers want to find out whether or not fairytales also carry economic messages. In other words, the writers may have found that preparing the readers' schemata is more important than the efficiency or cohesiveness of the text organization.
Ahmad (1997) also found narrations of the field research history in her Malay RA introductions; this is one of the three variant features of the first move (preparing the readers) in Malay RA introductions. According to Ahmad, the field history narration in a RA introduction is probably 'a form of digression in big science journals but not within the Malay context' (p:138). Ahmad explains that since the journals, from which she obtained her RA data are multi-disciplinary, the writers may have felt that it is necessary to offer a brief history of their research field in order to inform the audience from across disciplines about the topic and their expertise. Ahmad also claims that this rhetorical work is one of the main differences between RA introductions in Malay and those in English.

6. 3. 1. 4. Step D (Describing the geographical setting of the research)

The Indonesian RA introductions can also contain a description of the geographical setting of the research project. Like a short history of the research field (Step C), the description of the research geographical setting also aims to help the writers provide the context of the research problem about to be announced from the location point of view. Below is another textual example of this rhetorical type (The emphasis is added as underlined):

ECO. 20

Kabupaten Kerinci Propinsi Jambi termasuk daerah penghasil kulit kayu manis kasia di Indonesia. Areal tanaman kulit kayu manis kasia di kabupaten ini mencapai 105.00 hektar atau 25% dari luas wilayah.

Kerinci regency of Jambi province is one of the cinnamon producing regions in Indonesia. The farming area for this crop reaches 105.00 hectares or 25% of the whole area of the region.

In the above example, the writer describes the features of Kerinci regency in Jambi province as the producing region of *kulit kayu manis* ‘cinnamon’ commodity in Indonesia. In paragraph 4, the writer identifies the research problem; ie, the ineffective marketing system for this export commodity. The cinnamon farmers prefer selling their
product to local buyers rather than selling it directly to the exporter in Padang, West Sumatera; they, therefore, get a very low price from the local buyers. Readers who know the geographical features of these two provinces (West Sumatera and Jambi provinces) might suggest that the farmers should sell their products directly to the exporters in West Sumatera in order to get a much higher price instead of selling them to the local buyers. In other words, the description of the research location helps the writer develop the research problem for the present research. However, as with the history of the research field, not all research problems need a description of the research geographical setting, especially universal problems or problems which are found in many places and are not specific to a particular region or experienced only by a particular group of people, such as the increase of youngsters' aggressiveness, women's acceptance of abortion, or the stress level during Muslim pilgrimages in the Psychology RA introductions.

6.3.1.5. Step E (Making a general claim)

A general claim in the Indonesian RA introductions is a statement from the RA writer which is usually addressed at the beginning of the introduction, and which is not the actual topic of the RA. Starting an introduction with a general statement is a universal practice in scientific or academic writing (cf. Hamp-Lyons and Heasley 1987 and Gupta 1995). However, as discussed earlier in this section, if the claim is too general, it may have a distant relationship with the actual research topic. The more general the information that the writers start with, the longer it takes for them to bring it down to the actual research topic. Below is an example of the general claim in an Indonesian RA introduction which illustrates this point:

PSY. 25

{Prg.1} Usaha mencerdaskan bangsa dapat dilakukan sejak usia dini dengan mengacu pada kebutuhan perkembangan yang khas untuk tiap tingkatan usia. Kebutuhan perkembangan ini meliputi aspek fisik, kognisi, mental, sosial, dan emosional. Dengan demikian, seorang individu akan mengembangkan aspek-
aspek internal (seperti emosi, kognisi, mental, dan pertumbuhan fisik) yang juga dipengaruhi oleh faktor-faktor eksternal, dalam hal ini berkaitan dengan situasi lingkungan individu tersebut.

Initiatives to develop the Indonesian people of every age group can be carried out from an early age by referring to the specific development needs of that group. These developmental needs include physical, cognitive, mental, social and emotional aspects. Thus, a person will develop his internal aspects (like emotion, cognition, mental, and physical development) which are also influenced by external factors, in this case with the person's individual surroundings.

The writer of PSY. 25 begins her introduction section by making a claim about the factors influencing one's development by listing physical, cognitive, mental, social and emotional needs. Development is also influenced by external factors such as parents, friends and teachers. This is, however, not the research topic; the actual topic of this particular RA *usaha peningkatan persepsi diri* ‘the attempt to develop one's self perception’ is implicitly introduced in paragraph 3. In other words, the writer explains to the readers why the early development of children is important and how it is developed before introducing the actual research topic.

A number of the Indonesian RA writers in this study offer more than one type of background information in the beginning of their RA introductions in order to establish shared schemata with readers. They may begin their introduction by defining several key terms (Step A), and then, describing the specific features of the research location (Step D) or narrating a short history of the research field (Step C). Consider the following example which illustrates this point:
**PSY. 20**

**Definition**


The term “Meditation” in modern psychology terms usually refers to a set of techniques or a methods of training used to train one’s attention in order to be focused, so that people's consciousness can be united and their mental processes can be well controlled (Walsh, 1983). Omstein (1986) adds that the essence of meditation exercises is to limit people's consciousness to an unchanging stimulus object at a specified time.

**History**


Meditation has been used for a long time. Almost all cultures and religions in the world have their own meditation techniques (Omstein, 1985). Normally, traditional people carry out meditation in the context of their religion with the main objective of improving their religious or spiritual life. Therefore, several different meditation techniques have been developed following the relevant religious practices. Hindus, for example, use formula ‘OM’ in meditation. Buddhists use mental and physical activities in meditation, such as the meditation of the bubble, breath meditation or breath counting meditation. Christians do meditation by visualising the cross or using specific prayers. Also, Muslims do meditation by remembering and saying names of God or by praying. In Sufism, meditation is done by remembering the names of God is often done by shaking the body at the same time.
In the 1960s, with the increasing interest of the Western people in Eastern cultures, especially on esoteric tradition as opposition to the dominance of rationality and materialism, meditation became more popular and more often carried out by Western people. Walsh (1983) states that in America alone, millions of people do meditation every day. This is supported by the majority of studies carried out mainly by psychologists. Orme-Johnson & Farrow (1976), for example, present a scientific paper proving the effectiveness of meditation exercises.

As seen in the above example, the writers of PSY. 20 begin their introduction with a definition of the key term meditasi ‘meditation’; then they narrate a short history of meditation in paragraphs 2 and 3. In paragraph 2, the writers claim that meditation has a long history although they do not mention the date when people began to use meditation. In paragraph 3, the writers again refer to the history of meditation's popularity in the United States of America which is then supported with research findings. Thus, the writers of PSY. 20 provide two types of background information for the readers at the beginning of their RA introduction: definition of a key term and narration of a short history of the research field.
6.3.2. Establishing the research field or territory (Move 2)

After providing the necessary background information to establish the shared schemata or grounds with the potential readers, the Indonesian RA writers are conventionally expected to introduce their research topic and problem before reviewing the current development of knowledge or practice in order to establish the research field or territory. This communicative unit is labelled as Move 2 in the PJP model. This move is an important move because of its crucial role in a RA introduction from the prescriptive view.

Attempts by RA writers to establish the research field or territory in the CARS model of Swales (1981, 1994, 1987 and 1990) is included in Move 1 (establishing a territory). In the CARS model, as discussed in Chapter 5, this move is expressed through one or more of three possible steps: 1) claiming centrality, 2) making topic generalisations, and 3) reviewing items of previous research (Swales 1990:141). Swales suggests that establishing the research field or territory aims to introduce the research topic and field, to show readers the importance or significance of the topic, and to prepare the materials to support a claim to be put forward in Move 2 (establishing a niche). In other words, through this rhetorical work English RA writers seek to convince their potential readers that the topic of their present RA is important and significant and the research project is justifiable and, therefore, the RA is worth reading.

Rhetorical work to position a particular research topic and/or problem in the current development of knowledge and practice normally requires references to previous relevant work. This is one of the occasions where the Indonesian RA introductions may differ from those of their English counterparts for several possible reasons. In newly established universities or institutes, such as those in the eastern part of Indonesia and in some areas in western Indonesia, for example, relevant literature for a particular research topic may not be available in the libraries. In addition, scientific investigations in Indonesia in many research fields are still at an early stage. The small number of studies which have been undertaken on a particular topic, if available, have
produced only a small body of literature. Similarly, the literature from overseas, if available, would normally have been published in English or another foreign language in which some of the Indonesian researchers may not be adequately proficient. This forces Indonesian RA writers either to rely on their own knowledge and experience in order to review the current knowledge and practice relevant to the research topic or problem or to completely abandon this type of rhetorical work. As a result, Indonesian RA introductions may sound unscientific and unconventional to the readers who are familiar with the rhetorical styles of English RA introductions.

The evidence from the data of this study shows that the Indonesian RA writers establish their research field or territory (Move 2) by one or more of the following three steps: 1) introducing the research topic, 2) identifying the research problem, and 3) reviewing current knowledge and practice. In the PJP model, introducing the research topic is labelled as Step A, identifying the research problem as Step B, while reviewing the current knowledge and practice as Step C. In the next section of this chapter, the communicative purposes and textual illustrations of each step of Move 2 in the Indonesian RA introductions will be discussed.

6.3.2.1. Step A (Introducing the research topic)

The term ‘research topic’ (in this study) refers to the topic of the research project reported in the RAs or the statement which indicates what the research project is about. In other types of scientific writing such as essays, abstracts or presentations, the topic can also be partly expressed by the title, theme, summary, or headline of the writing (Ngadiman 1998). For this reason, the title and the abstract of the Indonesian RAs can be used as guidelines in determining the research topic of the RAs for this study. In English RA introductions, as discussed in Chapter 5, the research topic is asserted through centrality claims (Swales 1990). The purpose of these claims, according to Swales, is not only to address the topic of the research project being reported in the RA but also to appeal to discourse community members to accept that the research topic is
lively, significant, or well-established in order to attract readers' attention (p:144). In other words, centrality claims have both a communicative purpose and persuasive value.

In the Indonesian RA introductions, unlike in the English RAs, research topics are normally introduced through asserting a thesis statement or proposition put forward by the writers; there is no exact example of the writers’ attempt to appeal to readers or discourse community members to accept that the research project about to be reported is lively, significant, or well-established, as commonly found in their English RA counterparts. Below is an example of the thesis statement classified as research topic introduction in Indonesian RA introductions:

**EDU. 13**

[Prg. 3] (S. 1) Penampilan guru dalam pelaksanaan tugas mengajar adalah merupakan hasil belajar dalam interaksi mereka dengan lingkungan. (S. 2) Hasil belajar tersebut dipengaruhi oleh berbagai variabel diantaranya latar belakang pribadi guru dalam hubungan dengan tugas mengajar, sikap guru terhadap prinsip mengajar, dan tingkat pengetahuan tentang mengajar.

Teachers' performance in teaching is the result of their learning from and interacting with the environment. The learning result is influenced by several factors, such as teachers' personality in relation with teaching, teachers' attitude toward teaching principles, and the level of teachers' knowledge of teaching.

The title of EDU. 13 is *Kontribusi Latar Belakang Pribadi, Sikap dan Pengetahuan Guru Tentang Mengajar Terhadap Penampilannya Dalam Pelaksanaan Tugas Mengajar* ‘The Contribution of Teachers' Personality, Attitude, and Their Knowledge of Teaching to Their Teaching Performance’. In paragraphs 1 and 2, the writer gives a short history of the research field and defines a key term, appearing in the title of the RA, *penampilan guru* ‘teacher’s teaching performance’. The main purpose of this study, as suggested by the title and stated in paragraph 4, is to answer the question of ‘How much do the teacher’s personality, attitude toward teaching and knowledge of teaching affect their teaching performance?’ In paragraph 3, as in the above example, the writer asserts a thesis statement or proposition on the effects of teachers'
personalities, their attitudes toward teaching, and their knowledge of teaching and teaching performance. As the title and the purpose of the study suggest, this rhetorical work has been classified as a research topic (Step A of Move 2); this is the first rhetorical work related to the title and the purpose of the study asserted by the writer in the RA introduction.

A few Indonesian writers, however, adopt the English style in asserting the research topic in their RAs; they use the statement similar to centrality claims in the CARS model. Below are the examples of such research topic introduction (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**PSY. 10**

[Spg. 1] (S.1) Salah satu peristiwa yang menonjol dalam beberapa bulan terakhir adalah protes buruh kepada pemilik perusahaan karena merasa diperlakukan tidak baik. (S. 2) Pada umumnya protes buruh kepada majikan bertujuan untuk memperbaiki nasib. (S. 3) Secara garis besar bentuk tuntutannya adalah kenaikan upah, perbaikan kondisi maupun fasilitas kerja, dan perlakukan majikan kepada buruh.

One of the prominent events in the last few months is the protest of employees towards the factory owner (employer) because they feel that they are not well treated. In general the employee’s protest is to get a better prosperity. Such protests are normally aimed at asking for a salary increase, improve the quality of working environment and facilities, and to have a better respect from the employer.
A lot of attention and efforts have been devoted to developing motivation to succeed in adolescents and these efforts are aimed at forming his/her personality in such away that he/she values hard work and successful achievement.

In PSY. 10, the writer introduces the research topic by referring to a frequent event in the society i.e. factory employees protesting to their employer in order to get a salary increase, better working facilities, and to give better respect from the employer. In other words, the writer implicitly states that his research topic is in an active field and has been the topic of many other people's discussion. Similarly, in EDU. 18 the writer claims that her research topic, i.e. the development of motivation for successful among school children, has been carried out extensively by other fellow researchers or practitioners. By this statement, the writer implicitly claims that her research topic belongs to an active field or the area which has been rigorously researched. In the PJP model, these variants of research topic introduction are classified into Step A of Move 2.

6. 3. 2. 2. Step B (Identifying research problem or phenomenon)

A claim or proposition about a research problem or unexplained phenomenon, as discussed in Chapter 5, is a common practice in the Indonesian RA writing. This rhetorical work is, in fact, not only frequently found in the Indonesian RA introductions but also common in other academic or scientific genres, such as research proposals, reports, or articles in English. McNeill (1995), for example, claims that descriptive and explanatory research in social sciences often starts with a question to be answered or a problem to solve. For McNeill social problems are all aspects of social life that cause private unhappiness or public friction. Swales (1990) also acknowledges that, although
not all research undertakings are aimed at solving a problem or 'an unexplained phenomenon', the problem is a 'life-blood' of many research projects (p:140). In other words, solving a problem is one of the main purposes of carrying out a scientific investigation, and this is commonly rhetorically realised in the introduction sections of the academic or scientific genres.

In Indonesian RA writing conventions, the identification of a research problem or phenomenon is also very important. Rifai (1995) and Lubis (1994), for example, suggest that an introduction section of a RA should consist of the explicit statement of research topic, the identification of a research problem or phenomenon, the statement of research purposes, and how the contribution of the present research may provide or extend the current knowledge in the research field or a practical solution to the problem.

In the Indonesian RAs in this study, the identification of the research problem or phenomenon has an interesting feature, i.e. how the RA writers convince readers that the problem really exists. Three different techniques are commonly used by the Indonesian RA writers in order to support their claim or proposition on the research problem or phenomenon: 1) the use of personal or individual observation, 2) references or quotations and 3) the use of statistical figures. When using the first technique (personal or individual observation), writers implicitly claim that the research problem is based on their personal or individual observation. The following example illustrates this (The emphasis is added as underlined):

EDU. 27

I observed that the activity of asking question rarely happened in mathematics classes. Students almost never asked principal questions. Often the teacher had to wait for a long time to get answers from the students. Discussion between the teacher and the students or between one student and another very rarely happened. At primary school, the problem of the student's fear of asking questions is often neglected by the teachers. The teacher's teaching strategy is not always effective in reducing the student's reluctance to ask questions. As a result, the students regard mathematics lessons as a burden which impedes their understanding. If this problem is not solved while they are at primary school, the student's fear of asking questions will be more difficult to eliminate at upper education levels. Therefore, I am motivated to explore the mathematics learning process at primary school as a research project.

In the above example, the writers convince readers that their claim on the research problem (the students' reluctance and fear to ask questions in mathematics classes) is reliable and valid because they themselves have observed and seen the evidence for this phenomenon in mathematics classes. In other words, the writers claim that the information on the research problem is from first-hand information. The potential question for this technique is how representative the evidence of the problem within the research population it is. In addition, the persuasive value of this type of supporting technique will depend on the writer's credibility; the more credible the writer, the more effective this technique will be in convincing readers that the problem really exists.

The second technique of supporting a claim about the research problem is the use of a reference or quotation. This can be illustrated in the following text fragments (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**ECO. 18**


It is realised that although coffee has long been an Indonesian export commodity, it still has many internal and external trading problems. The internal problems are the poor quality of the commodity and its relatively high price; while the external problems are the business competition among the coffee exporting countries, the discriminatory quota system of developed

**EDU. 23**


Students' arithmetic ability has not been as it is expected. Soedjadi’s research (1989) found that elementary student's absorption of arithmetic lessons was only 42%. Also, Jailani (1983) found that the student's ability in making arithmetical models and solving arithmetic problems is still low. Hudoyo (1983) says that many elementary school graduates are not good at arithmetics, even in solving simple arithmetic problems.

In example ECO. 18, the writer's claim on the research problem (as indicated in the above example) is supported by a reference or quotation. Similarly, in EDU. 23 the research problem is supported by references in the form of reviews of previous studies: [Soedjono (1989), Jailani (1983), and Hudoyo (1983)]. All these supporting materials, from the writer's point of view, are aimed at convincing readers that the research problem really exists and the claim is valid or reliable.

The last technique for supporting a claim on the research problem is the use of statistical figures. Consider the following example (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**EDU. 5**

*Prg. 4* Jumlah anak sampai pada tahun 1987 di Kabupaten Aceh Barat sebanyak 1166.254 jiwa. Dari jumlah itu yang sedang duduk di bangku sekolah ada 79.162 jiwa (47.5%). Dari angka terakhir ini yang duduk di bangku SD berjumlah 60.052 jiwa (75.5%); yang duduk di bangku SLTP 13.063 jiwa (16.5%); sedangkan yang duduk di bangku SLTA tercatat 6.047 jiwa (7.6%). Demikian halnya di Kabupaten Aceh Selatan, dari 147.625 jiwa anak-anak yang ada di Kabupaten ini, yang sedang duduk di bangku sekolah ada 76.359 jiwa (51.7%). Dari angka terakhir ini, terinci sekitar 75.45%
The number of children up until 1987 in the West Aceh Regency is 1166,254. Of these children, only 79,162 (47.5%) go to schools; 60,052 (75.5%) to a primary school; 13,063 (16.5%) to a junior high school; and 6,047 (7.6%) to a senior high school. Similarly, in South Aceh Regency, of the 147,625 children in that Regency, only 76,359 (51.7%) go to schools; about 75.45% to a primary school; 15.7% to a junior high school; and only 8.19% to a senior high school (Bapeda & Kantor Statistik Aceh, 1988).

From the statistical facts provided for the two regencies in Aceh Province above, it is evident that children’s formal education level in Aceh Province, especially in the west coast areas bordered by the Indonesian ocean can still be classified as poor.

The main purpose of this particular RA is to find out what the dominant causes of the poor educational experience of the children in the west coast of Aceh Province are. The writer claims that the children in the west coast of Aceh Province, as stated in the above example, have a poor educational experience. The writer supports this claim by providing statistical figures on the number of children in the west coast of Aceh who go to schools. The use of statistical figures to convince readers that the research problem really exists can be highly effective, especially when the statistical figures come from a highly reliable document, such as an annual report from a government office or from an independent institution.

Although the supporting evidence or ideas for the research problem is very important in the Indonesian RA introductions, not all RA writers use it; a few writers simply claim that there is a problem in a particular research topic. Below is an example of the case in question:
ECO. 23

Although the potential tourism sites in Padang city is good, almost all tourism sites have experienced a decline in the number of visitors especially in the period of 1989/1990 to 1994/1995. The decline has become the main problem for the Tourism Office to overcome in order to be able to make a more significant financial contribution to Padang city.

In the above example, the claim made for the research problem (as indicated in the above example) is the writer's own statement or proposition, which may sound too subjective and unconvincing to the readers, especially those who are not familiar with the research topic. In order to be more convincing, the writer, therefore, should have given the total number of visitors to Padang city before 1989/1990 and during 1989/1990 to 1994/1995 taken from the city's tourism office or other sources. Since the research problem is an important element in the Indonesian RA introduction, the absence of supporting evidence or ideas for the claim on the research problem can reduce the persuasive quality of the RA introduction.

6. 3. 2. 3. Step C (Reviewing the current knowledge and practices)

Reviewing the current knowledge and practices (Step C) to establish the research field or territory (Move 2) in the PJP model is the main occasion where the RA writers use references or quotations. References (also often called a 'literature review') in RA introductions are statement about what has been claimed, suggested, or found by previous investigators within a particular research field. According to Rifai (1995), this kind of referencing or literature review in the Indonesian scientific writing conventions is used for two main communicative purposes: to elaborate the research topic already introduced and to review the current knowledge and practice related to the
research topic, which can be used to substantiate the points in the results and discussion section.

Golebiowski (1998) argues that there are other possible communicative purposes for a literature review in scientific prose, as found in several European languages, such as Polish, Russian and German. She suggests that literature review or references in Polish are used to position the research topic in a continuous debate and to convince readers that the writers have sufficient knowledge and experience of a particular topic and, therefore, are eligible to carry out such research. This, according to Golebiowski, is similar to the abbreviated statements of all available knowledge on a topic which are also common in academic prose in German and Russian.

In the Indonesian RA introductions in the data of this study, the literature review is probably the most complex part of the RA section. Unlike the other segments of the introduction section, this segment is used for at least three different communicative purposes: 1) to elaborate the research topic already introduced, 2) to discuss the current knowledge or practice related to the research topic, and 3) to justify the choice of a particular research method or approach used in the present study.

The first communicative purpose of reference or literature review in the Indonesian RA introductions is to elaborate the research topic already introduced; that is to review what have been claimed or found by other investigators or authors about the research topic. The following is an example of this rhetorical form:

ECO. 19

One influential factor is communication and participation. S. Yuwono (1985:3) claims that communication is a process involving transferring ideas carefully with a purpose of meeting the collective target. Basically, communication can be divided into two types: formal and informal. Formal communication is communication between members of an organisation that is formally planned in the organisation a structure. Informal communication, on the other hand, happens between the members or the organisation based on their own will. Onong Ucha (1979:42) classifies communication into three types: 1) vertical, 2) horizontal, and 3) external.

In the above example, the writers discuss the term prestasi kerja ‘work performance’ as the research object in greater detail by addressing the factors influencing the working performance taken from two references. This segment is placed under a sub-heading Tinjauan Pustaka ‘Literature Review’ which is separated from the other segments of the introduction section. In paragraph 8 of this RA introduction, prior to this paragraph, the writers define the key term of 'working performance', and in paragraph 10, they go on with more elaboration of the term by discussing other factors influencing the working performance.

In paragraph 11 of ECO. 19 below, the writers chose to discuss the techniques of measuring the level of worker's participation in a business organisation koperasi ‘cooperative’ in order to elaborate the concept of working performance using a reference. This rhetorical work has also been classified as a Step C of Move 2, or the writers' attempt to discuss the current knowledge or practice related to the research topic for the purpose of developing the research field or territory. This is the second possible communicative purpose of a literature review in the Indonesian RA introductions. Paragraph 11 of the introduction section of ECO. 19 is reproduced below:

ECO. 19

To measure the participation level of members of a cooperative business organization, according to Aziz (1985:193), several indicators can be used: investment in the organization, attendance on every members meeting, motivation to be a member, recognition of the advantages of being a member, and involvement in any activities run by the cooperative. The above opinion shows that the member's participation as a whole; such as in decision making, planning the cooperative business strategies, supervising the cooperative, capitalisation, utilising and serving the cooperative’s endeavors, all become the realisation of the member's participation within the cooperative.

As in the text fragment above, the writers address the techniques of measuring the member's participation of a business organisation called koperasi ‘cooperative’ or a business enterprise summarised from a reference [(Aziz, 1985)].

The last communicative purpose of a literature review in the Indonesian RA introductions is to justify the choice of a particular research method or approach used in the present research, as commonly found in a research report or thesis. This is done, for example, by referring to other studies in the literature similar in some ways to their present study which use the same research methodology or support the choice of the methods or approaches using references. The following example illustrates the point in discussion (The emphasis is added as underlined):

**PSY. 25**

There are about 200 different therapies and exercises developed to overcome children's problems (Kazdin, 1988). I tried to use a self-identification therapy which is the combination of cognitive approaches: rational emotive therapy from Ellis (Waters, 1982), reattribution exercise from Dweck (Bricham, 1992) and behaviouristic social learning therapy from Bandura (1977). My reason for using such a combination exercise taken from three different therapies is that children commonly acquire a false external attribution from persons important to them and they, therefore, have a false self-perception. Carr, et al. (1991) found that there is an influence of belief that attributes and knowledge about strategy-taking by parents and teachers by children in America and Germany. As also discussed in the beginning of this article, in developing children's personality, the parents should be aware of internal and external factors of the children.

The title of this particular RA is *Upaya Peningkatan Persepsi Diri Melalui Pelatihan Pengenalan Diri* ‘Ways of Improving Self Perception Through Self-knowledge Exercises, while the main purpose of the RA is to find out whether or not such exercises can improve someone's low self-perception or self-confidence. The writer has chosen to use the combinations of the rational and emotive therapy technique as suggested by Ellis, the reattribution technique of Dweck and behaviouristic technique of Bandura for his/her present research project, for a particular reason as indicated in the text. This reason is, then, supported by a reference from [Carr et al. (1991)], to a similar study carried out in America and Germany.

Although references and the literature review has several communicative purposes, as discussed above, it is classified as one step (Step C of Move 2) in the PJP model. This is because they have the same main communicative purpose, i.e. establishing the research field by reviewing the current development of relevant knowledge and practice. Another reason for this classification is that they have a similar rhetorical feature, i.e. they are normally heavily referenced. In addition, in the introduction sections of 26 out of 90 RAs (28.9%) in the data of this study, the rhetorical work of reviewing the relevant literature is separated from the other segments of the introduction and usually placed at the end of the section. This segment is often given a specific sub-heading called *Kajian Kepustakaan* ‘Literature Review’ or *Kajian Teoritis* ‘Theory Review’. Although this text’s rhetorical format is considered old
fashioned, rhetorically odd, and coherently ineffective and, therefore, neither preferable
nor acceptable in many scientific journals in Indonesia (Rifai 1995), it is still common
in the Indonesian RA introductions. According to Rifai, even in larger types of
scientific genres, such as theses, essays and dissertations; separation of the literature
review has been occasionally used.

From the textual organisation point of view, the separation of the literature
review from the other segments of the introduction section may impair the coherence of
the text. The flow of ideas in Move 2 (establishing the research field or territory), for
example, is interrupted by the writers justifying the present research project and
announcing the research specifications. A comparison of the pattern of the ideas
between the introduction sections with the separate literature review and the ideal form
is simplified in Figure 14.

As seen in Figure 14, in the separated form of RA introduction the writer's
attempt to establish the research field is interrupted by their justification of the research
project and announcement of the research specifications before they come back to the
research field establishment. Some RA writers, for instance, define key terms in the
literature review. This is where the readers' comprehension may be interrupted in
following the flow of ideas in the introduction section of a RA. In ideal form, readers
are presented with ideas in the expected order and, therefore, comprehension may
become easier and the reading processes may become faster.
6.3.3. Justifying the Research Project (Move 3)

RA writers need to justify their research project in order to convince readers that it is important or necessary and, therefore, their RA is worth reading. The research justification is probably the most important element of a RA introduction; if the writers fail to justify their research project, the potential readers may find the RA unnecessary or not worth reading. RA writers, therefore, should carefully address this segment in their introduction, they should address it as convincingly and persuasively as possible. For this purpose, RA writers need enough evidence and logical argument to support their claim or proposition on the importance or necessity of their present research project.

In English RA introductions, as discussed in Chapter 5, the research project justification is commonly expressed by indicating a gap in knowledge on a particular research topic or by pointing out the weakness(es) of previous relevant studies (Swales 1981, 1984, 1987, and 1990). Logically, if a piece of research has some defect, the conclusions drawn from the research are, therefore, not valid or unreliable and, therefore, further similar research is necessary in order to fix the defects or to provide more reliable or valid information. By so claiming, the English RA writers imply that
their present research project is important or significant and, therefore, justifiable. According to Swales (1990), this is a common way employed by the English RA writers to create a space for their present research. Since this particular rhetorical work normally needs logical arguments which may include criticism, counter-claiming or question raising, differences between cultures and disciplinary areas have the potential to occur.

The negative evaluation on the items from previous studies to create a space for a research project as the common way of research project justification in English, is not found in the Indonesian RA introductions used as the data of this study. As already discussed in Chapter 5, several reasons may explain why the Indonesian writers are reluctant to criticise other people's work. As Keraf (1992) claims, criticising other people, who are older or have higher social or economic status, is considered impolite.

The evidence in this study reveals that the Indonesian RA writers justify their present research project by a variety of techniques; they may 1) claim that the results of previous studies are inconsistent, 2) claim that a particular topic has never been explored or reported, 3) suggest that it is necessary to investigate the research topic, or 4) simply state that they are interested in carrying out research on the topic already introduced. In the PJP model, the first type of research project justification is classified as Step A (indicating an inconsistency in the previous study results), the second type as Step B (claiming that the topic has never been investigated or reported), the third type as Step C (claiming a particular topic is necessary to study) and the last type as Step D (finding interest in investigating a particular topic). The rationale for the use of these four different steps by the Indonesian RA writers will be dealt with in the next section of this chapter.
6. 3. 3. 1. Step A (indicating inconsistency in previous study results)

The first step for the research project justification utilised by the Indonesian RA writers is by indicating that the results of previous relevant studies are inconsistent. The rationale for the use of this step is that if previous relevant studies reveal inconsistent results, further studies are necessary in order to establish more consistent results. The following textual fragment illustrates the use of this step (The emphasis is added as underlined):

EDU. 12

In the last few years, a number of experts have carried out studies on the source of teacher's work stress, such as Cayul (1992), Feitler and Tokar (1982), Litt and Turk (1985), Smith and Burk (1985) and Kreme-Haton and Golstein (1990). These studies show clear inconsistent results from one study to another on the sources of teacher's work stress. For example, the study carried out by Feitler and Tokar (1982) found that the dominant source (the most frequent cause) of teacher's work stress was students who continuously misbehaved. These results are different from those of Capel (1992) and Hodge, Jupp, and Taylor (1994). Capel found that the dominant source of teacher's stress was too much work assigned for them, while Hodge's study, on a sample of music and mathematic’s teachers, revealed that it was extra curricular activities which predominantly caused the teachers’ working stress.
As seen in the above example, the whole of paragraph 3 is used to show that there are inconsistent results from one previous study to the next. Although the writers review several previous studies relevant to their present research topic, they do not negatively evaluate the studies. The writers simply make a claim (as in sentence 2 in the above example) about the inconsistent results of the studies. In the PJP model, the writers' claim and the supporting materials are considered to be parts of the claim and, therefore, they are classified as parts of Step A of Move 3.

6.3.3.2. Step B (Claiming that a particular topic has never been explored)

Step B is similar to Step A in a way, i.e. both of them indicate that there is a gap of knowledge or information on a particular important topic, and the present study is necessary or important in order to get valid and reliable information on the topic to fill in the gap. This research project justification is similar to Step 1B (indicating a gap) of Move 2 (establishing a niche) in the CARS model of Swales (1990). According to Swales, this is the most typical step of Move 2 where the writer does not criticise the previous relevant work but simply indicates that the previous work has some limitations.

The logical reason for the use of Step B is that if a particular topic is important but never been explored or reported, a scientific investigation is necessary in order to get valid and reliable important information, and the present research is, therefore, justifiable. Consider the following example for illustration:
PSY. 3

So far, we have not found any study on the children's attitude towards their parents, if one of the parents is suffering from chronic schizophrenic illness. The title of this RA is *Sikap Anak Terhadap Orangtua Pada Keluarga Yang Salah Satu Orangtuanya Menderita Skizofrenia* ‘Children's Attitude Towards Their Parents If One of the Parents is Suffering from Schizophrenic Illness’. In paragraph 1, the writers define the term of 'schizophrenic' and in paragraph 2, they elaborate on the definition. In paragraphs 3 and 4, the writers identify the research problem while in paragraph 5, as in the above textual fragment, the writers abruptly claim that such a research problem has never been investigated. However, this claim is not supported with a reference, such as an index of scientific work, conference proceedings, research reports, or a thesis in order to be more convincing and persuasive.

The above example and the other examples in the data for this study imply that the Indonesian writers emphasise on the local context when carrying out research. For example, when literature on a particular important topic is not available in their places they will be quick to conclude that such topic has never been investigated and a research project on the topic is necessary or important. Another possible interpretation is that for the Indonesian scientific community the existence of a problem on an important topic seems to be sufficient justification for a research project as well as for reporting it in a RA. Therefore, if a research problem has been convincingly addressed and justified referencing to other relevant work to create a space for their present research project is no longer necessary.

For the English scientific community, on the other hand, the above types of research project justification may look argumentatively weak and persuasively unconvincing because it does not link with the recent available knowledge relevant to the research topic. Since a new research project is expected to help extend the present knowledge on a particular topic (Ballard and Clanchy 1991), reviewing up-to-date
references or scientific work on a particular topic in order to show readers the cutting-edge of the knowledge on the topic is necessary. This is important in order to convince readers that the present research project may contribute to the present knowledge or fill in the knowledge gap on the topic in order for the research project to be scientifically valuable.

6. 3. 3. 3. Step C (Claiming that it is necessary to investigate a particular topic)

In this step, unlike the other two steps discussed earlier, the writers do not attempt to indicate a gap in knowledge or information from the previous relevant studies; they simply claim that it is necessary to investigate such a research topic. For this reason, this type of justification may sound more personal and subjective than the previous steps (Steps A and B) do, as the need for the research project is not because of a knowledge gap but only because of the writer's own judgement or interpretation.

Below is a textual example of this step (The emphasis is added as underlined):

ECO. 13

Di daerah yang relatif baru mengembangkan komoditas kedelai secara meluas tentu muncul permasalahan-permasalahan yang perlu diidentifikasi lebih awal. Permasalahan tersebut mencakup kendala fisik/teknis dan sosial-ekonomis baik yang berasal dari pihak petani, sarana penunjang maupun kebijaksanaan pemerintah secara umum. Selanjutnya untuk pengembangan teknologi budidaya kedelai di daerah penelitian perlu diidentifikasi aspek-aspek teknis yang perlu diteliti lebih lanjut.

In a relatively new soybean plantation area, potential problems may occur; these problems need to be identified early. The problems may include physical, technical and social-economic obstacles that may confront the farmers, supporting facilities, or broad government policy. Furthermore, in order to develop soybean cultivation in the research location, technical aspects need to be identified for further investigation.

In example ECO. 13, the writer claims that it is necessary to carry out an investigation on the soybean farming in Karawang regency because the extent of soybean extensive farming system in this area is relative new. In paragraph 5, the writer describes the features of Karawang regency as a new area for soybean farming. In paragraph 6, as in
the above textual fragment, the writer claims that since Karawang is a new soybean plantation area it may have many kinds of problems, and therefore, a scientific investigation is justified; that is to find out if there are problems in the soybean farming system in Karawang regency, and if there are effective ways to overcome the problems, as announced in paragraph 7.

In the above textual fragment, the ECO. 13 writer claims that the soybean farming project in Karawang regency is a newly established farming project, and a scientific investigation is necessary in order to see if there is any problem in the practical operation of the project that may hinder them from meeting the project targets. By this claim, the writer implicitly states that there has not been any scientific investigation on the project carried out before, since this is a newly established farming project and, therefore, necessary information about the project is not yet available. In other words, Step C (claiming that a particular topic is necessary to investigate) is, in fact, also similar to Step B (claiming that a particular topic has never been explored or reported) although expressed in an implicit way.

6. 3. 3. 4. Step D (Claiming interest in investigating a particular topic)

The last step used by the Indonesian RA writers in justifying their research project is simply claiming that they are interested in studying a particular topic. As with Step C, Step D also sounds personal and subjective because it does not involve any prior observations or literature analysis to support the importance of the present research project. The research projects are carried out only because of the writers' interest. Consider the following example to illustrate the point in discussion.
Based on the above factors, I am interested in carrying out research on the psychological aspects causing or underlying sport injuries.

In paragraph 1 of PSY. 2, the writers claim that there are many injury cases in professional sports caused by technical, physical and psychosocial factors. In paragraph 2, the writers claim that it is important to consider an athlete's psychosocial factor in order to avoid such injuries; in this paragraph, the writers also claim that the importance of the psychosocial factor for professional athletes has been proved by many previous studies. In paragraph 3, as in the above example, the writers abruptly state that they are interested in carrying out the present research project, and this is the only justification given for the project.

6. 3. 4. Announcing the Present Research (Move 4)

In the PJP model, as indicated in Figure 12, Move 4 (announcing the present research) has seven different steps. The communicative move of announcing the present research specifications, is also available in the CARS model but labelled as Move 3 (occupying the niche) with only four possible steps. In other words, the Indonesian RA writers announce more aspects or features of their RA in the introduction section than the English RA writers do. In addition, as in the CARS model, Move 4 in the PJP model normally contains straightforward statements of research purposes (Step A), research questions (Step B), specific features of research (Step C), the expected benefits of their research (Step D), principal findings (Step E), research hypotheses (Step F), and a proposed solution to solve the research problem (Step G). Another difference between Indonesian and English RA writers with respect to announcing their research
specifications is that, English writers consider indicating RA structure necessary while the Indonesian writers do not.

The main communicative purpose of Move 4 (announcing the present research) is to guide readers when reading the other sections of the RA, so that they have some expectations when reading these sections. In reading the results and discussion section, for example, readers can look for the answers to the research questions or purposes, whether or not a proposed research hypothesis has been supported by the research, the effectiveness of the suggested solution, and the principle findings of the research project already addressed in the introduction section.

6. 3. 4. 1. Step A (Announcing the research purposes)

The communicative purpose of Step A (announcing the research purposes) is relatively apparent. As the title suggests, this step is aimed at announcing to the readers what is intended to be achieved through the present research project. In addition, announcing the purposes of the present research project is also available in the CARS model (Swales 1990) and in the PJM model (Ahmad 1997); it is the first step or step of Move 3 (occupying the niche) in the CARS model and the only step in Move 4 of Ahmad's PJM model. According to Swales (1990:159), this statement is 'a kind of promissory statement' characterised with the use of deictic references and the absence of references to previous studies. Below is an example of the research purpose statement in the Indonesian RA introductions:
EDU. 16

Tujuan penelitian

Berdasarkan rumusan masalah di atas tujuan yang ingin dicapai ialah: untuk mengetahui ada tidaknya perbedaan prestasi praktik keguruan antara mahasiswa yang berasal dari sekolah keguruan dengan nonkeguruan pada program studi PMP FKIP Universitas Dwijendra Denpasar.

Research purpose

Based on the formulation of the research problem above, the purpose of the present research project is to find out whether or not there is a difference in performance during the teaching practicum between the students from the teacher vocational high school and those from the other high schools at Civic department of the Education Faculty of Dwijendra University, Denpasar.

The research purpose of the EDU. 16 is easy to understand as given in the above example; this is because the research purpose in the above example and in the majority of the Indonesian RA introductions in this study is explicitly addressed using particular phrases such as, tujuan penelitian adalah ..., penelitian ini bertujuan untuk ..., penelitian ini dimaksudkan untuk..., and so on which literarily mean ‘the purposes of this study are...’ to signal this type of rhetorical work. In addition, in many Indonesian RA introductions in this study, the statement of research purposes also has a subheading ‘Tujuan penelitian’ (The Purpose of the Study) as in the above example; this will also help readers in processing the text effectively and efficiently.

6. 3. 4. 2. Step B (Stating the research questions)

Stating the Research Question (RQ) may be unique to Indonesian RA introductions because it is not available in the CARS model of Swales (1990) nor in the PJM model of Ahmad (1997). The communicative purpose of RQ is to guide readers to what particular questions that the present research project is trying to answer. According to Lubis (1994), in the Indonesian RAs or research reports, RQ is commonly used in both simple descriptive type of research and in prescriptive-analytic type of
research. In other words, it is not surprising that RQ is often found in RA or research report introductions.

The evidence in this study shows that the RQ, as discussed in Chapter 5, is very similar to the statement of research purposes; the difference is that the former uses an interrogative sentence while the later uses the declarative sentence. Below is an example of the RQ to illustrate the point under discussion:

ECO. 9

Research questions

From the above description, the research questions are as follow:

1) Is there any difference in the influence of the variation in economic factors (capital) used by the farmers in production of corn farming enterprises?

2) Is there any difference in the farmer's ability to produce corn from the perspective of social factors, i.e. experience in corn farming?

3) Is there any interaction between the economic factor (capital) and the social factor (experience) in the process of corn farming?

As seen in the above example, the RQ has a sub-heading *permasalahan* literally means ‘problems’, but under the sub-heading *Research Questions*. In other words, the Indonesian RA writers address the research questions under the sub-heading of *permasalahan* ‘problems’; this is a common phenomenon in the Indonesian RA introductions. In paragraph 11 of ECO. 9, the writers announce the research purposes which, from the content point of view, are very similar to the RQ. In other words, the
ECO. 9 writers address the same element of their RA introductions twice with different syntactic frames.

6. 3. 4. 3. Step C (Describing the specific features of the research)

The communicative purpose of this step in the Indonesian RA introductions is to inform readers of the main features of the research project, such as the scope of the research, the specific research methods or approaches used, or the research focus. By addressing this particular information, the RA writers may expect that readers will know what the differences or similarities between the present research and the other similar research projects are. Describing the specific features of the research (Step C) is not unique to the Indonesian RA introductions; this is also available in the CARS model. According to Swales (1990), this step together with Step A (announcing the research purposes) become the obligatory elements of Move 3 (occupying the niche). Below is another example of Step C in the Indonesian RA introductions:

PSY. 20

[Prg.9](S.2) Dalam penelitian ini akan dikaji efek meditasi pada tingkatan paling dasar yaitu keluhan-keluhan fisik.

In this study, the most basic level of meditation effects, i.e. physical effects will be investigated.

In paragraphs 6 to 8, the PSY. 20 writers review previous relevant studies on the physiological and psychological effects of meditation on people, such as on the change of brain waves, lung beats, breathing systems (physical effects) and low anxiety level, internal control, high self-actualization (psychological effects). In paragraph 9, as in the above example, the writers announce that, unlike the previous studies already reviewed, the present study only focuses on the very basic physical effects of meditation. In other words, the writers indicate that the present study is different from
the previous studies on the focus of investigation where the present study has a more basic focus than the previous studies do.

6. 3. 4. 4. Step D (Stating the expected benefits of the research)

Stating the expected benefits of the research (Step D) is also unique to the Indonesian RA introductions. Unlike the other steps of Move 4, the statement of expected benefits of the study also has a clear persuasive value; i.e., to tell readers that the research results about to be reported will be useful for a particular group of people and for a particular purpose. This rhetorical work is in line with the main purpose scientific publication in Indonesia. PDK (1993), for example, suggests that the results of scientific studies must be widely publicised, especially for the group of people in the society who will implement them. Since these people may have a variety of knowledge background, it is necessary to inform them which studies are useful for them and why they need to read the RA.

The scientific writing conventions also support the existence of the statement of the expected benefits in a RA introduction. Lubis (1994), for example, suggests that a RA introduction should have the project justification, problems, review of related literature, hypothesis, objectives or purposes, and the expected benefits. Below is another example of the expected benefits of research in the Indonesian RA introductions to illustrate this case.

PSY. 4


By knowing the patient's behavioural characteristics, it is expected that the psychiatrist can diagnose the patient's characteristic attitudes in terms of their relationships with doctors. Besides this, the psychiatrist can notice earlier the indications for providing psychiatric intervention.
EDU. 16

[Prg.5] Hasil yang diperoleh dalam penelitian ini diharapkan dapat berguna atau memberi manfaat yang positif dalam usaha meningkatkan kompetensi akademik mahasiswa pada umumnya dan prestasi praktek keguruan pada khususnya.

The results acquired in this research is expected to be useful for improving the academic competence of students and their achievement in the teaching practicum.

The title of PSY.4 is Profil Kepribadian Pasien Asma Bronkhial ‘Behaviour Profiles of Bronchial Asthmatic Patients’. The writers expect that by knowing the behavioural profiles of asthmatic patients, the psychiatrist is more ready to accept the patients' attitudes and, therefore, he/she can detect the indications for psychiatric treatment. In other words, the writers address the practical benefits of their research results. Similarly, in EDU. 16 the writer expects that the results of his/her research will be useful for students and lecturers of teacher training institutes (IKIP) for improving the ability of the students in performing their teaching exercises. The announcement of the expected benefits of a particular research project may carry a persuasive value; i.e., by promising the readers of the benefits they may get from reading the whole RA, especially if readers are in the same position as the objects of the study.

The statement of the expected benefits of the research (Step D) in the Indonesian RA introductions is often placed in a separate paragraph and commonly given a subheading of 'Manfaat penelitian' or 'Kegunaan penelitian' (Benefits of the study). In addition, the statement of the expected benefits of research commonly use the following textual fragments at the beginning of the segment:

1). Hasil penelitian ini diharapkan dapat memberikan sumbangan pikiran tentang ...
   ‘The results of this study are expected to provide information about ...’

2) Melalui penelitian ini, peneliti diharapkan dapat memahami ...
   ‘Through this study, the researcher is expected to understand ...’
3) *Dengan memahami ... maka peneliti dapat mengetahui permasalahan yang dihadapi... sehingga perbaikan dapat mengenai sasaran.*
   ‘By understanding ... the researcher can understand the problem of ... so that improvement of the program can be effective.’

4) *Dengan mengetahui ..., diharapkan kita dapat memahami ...*
   ‘By knowing ..., it is expected that we could understand ...’

5) *Hasil penelitian ini diharapkan dapat menjawab permasalahan tersebut di atas.*
   ‘The results of this study are expected to answer the above research questions.’

6) *Hasil penelitian ini diharapkan dapat memberikan masukan bagi ...*
   ‘The results of this study are expected to provide input for ...’

7) *Penelitian ini diharapkan berguna bagi ... untuk ...*
   ‘This study is expected to be useful for ... to ...’

8) *Hasil penelitian ini diharapkan berguna sebagai ... bagi ...*
   ‘The results of this study are expected to be useful as ... for ...’

9) *Hasil penelitian ini diharapkan dapat menambah referensi bagi ...*
   ‘The results of this study are expected to add to the body of literature for ...’

10) *Kontribusi yang diharapkan dari penelitian ini adalah ...*
    ‘The contribution expected from this study is ...’

11) *Penelitian ini juga dimaksudkan dapat bermanfaat untuk ...*
    ‘This study is also meant to be useful for ...’

12) *Temuan penelitian ini merupakan masukan bagi ... untuk ...*
    ‘The findings of this study are inputs for ... to ...’

As seen in the above list of examples, Indonesian RA writers expect that their research results will be useful for a particular group of people for a particular purpose. By so claiming, the RA writers try to attract readers by stating that the specified group of people will find the article useful, and therefore worth reading. The possible persuasive
value of this rhetorical work is that the potential readers will have a better motivation to read the entire article if they find it useful for them.

6. 3. 4. 5. Step E (Announcing principle findings)

The communicative purpose of announcing principle findings of the present research project (Step E) in a RA introduction, as suggested by Berkenkotter and Huckin (1995), is to promote the news value of the RA. The rationale is that if the principle findings are announced in the introduction section of a particular RA, readers may be attracted to read the entire article; for example, they may want to find out how such conclusions are drawn, what the other findings of the research reported in the RA are, or how these findings are related to the results of previous relevant studies. In the CARS model, this rhetorical work is classified as Step 2 of Move 3 (Swales 1990). According to Swales and Najjar's (1987), this rhetorical work is used far more frequently in hard or natural science RAs, such as physics than in social science RAs, such as Educational Psychology.

In the Indonesian RA introductions, the announcement of principle findings of the research is very infrequently used and only found in PSY. RAs. However, from the prescriptive point of view, Indonesian RA writers are told that they should state the principle findings of the research in the introduction section. Rifai (1995) suggests that readers can easily understand the evidence or argumentation used to support the findings when reading the results and discussion sections of the RA if they already know the principle findings of the RA. Below is another example of the statement of principle findings in the Indonesian RA introductions:
The result of this study shows that there is a correlation between perception of the organisation atmosphere and working satisfaction, i.e. the more positive one's perception on his/her organisation atmosphere, the lower his/her dissatisfaction in the job. This finding is in line with previous research findings, such as from Steers and Porter (1979) who claim that organisation atmosphere is the basis for a worker to view, interpret, and understand his/her working environment. This will affect the working attitude and productivity of the organization’s staff.

As seen in the above example, the principle findings of the research project reported in PSY. 16 is announced in paragraph 13; this is the final paragraph of the RA introduction section. In paragraphs 9 to 12, the writer establishes the concept of perception of organisational staff on their working environment or atmosphere and the factors influencing such perception while the purpose of the research, announced in paragraph 3, is to find out how much perceptions of the organisation atmosphere affects working satisfaction of the organizational staff. The writer of PSY. 16 also claims that her research finding is in line with the findings of previous relevant research project such as from [Steers and Porter (1979)].

**6. 3. 4. 6. Step F (Proposing the research hypothesis)**

Stating the research hypothesis (Step F) is another unique feature of the Indonesian RA introductions, although only a small number of the Indonesian RAs have this rhetorical work. McNeill (1985:19) explains that, "An hypothesis is an informed guess about what the researcher thinks may be happening, based on previous research and observation". Similarly, according to Gebremedhin and Tweeten (1994) the
hypothesis statement is “a tentative statement or proposition regarding the diagnosis or solution of the problem” (p:44). In other words, the hypothesis statement is a tentative conclusion of the research findings predicted by the researcher. The following textual fragments are hypothesis statements in the Indonesian RA introductions:

**EDU. 16**

*Perumusan Hipotesis*

Based on the above theoretical background, a hypothesis statement can be formulated: There is a difference in the achievement of their teaching practicum between the students who are from a teacher vocational secondary school and those who are not from such a vocational school as the Civic Department of Dwijendra University of Denpasar.

**Hypothesis statement**

Based on the above theoretical background, a hypothesis statement can be formulated: There is a difference in the achievement of their teaching practicum between the students who are from a teacher vocational secondary school and those who are not from such a vocational school as the Civic Department of Dwijendra University of Denpasar.

In EDU. 16, as in the above example, the hypothesis statement is given at the very end of the introduction, after a separate literature review. This statement seems to be a tentative answer to the research question addressed in paragraph 4 of this particular RA introduction. The answer to the question (the hypothesis statement) is based on the writer’s prediction on what will be the finding of the research project in terms of the answer to the research question. For the purpose of convenience, the research question of EDU. 16 is reproduced below:

**EDU. 16**

*Rumusan masalah*

Based on the above theoretical background, a hypothesis statement can be formulated: There is a difference in the achievement of their teaching practicum between the students who are from a teacher vocational secondary school and those who are not from such a vocational school as the Civic Department of Dwijendra University of Denpasar.
Problem Statement (Research Question)

Based on the above background to the study, the research question can be formulated as follows: Is there any difference in the students' teaching practice achievement between the students who are from a teacher vocational secondary school and those who are not from such a vocational school as the PMP Department of Dwijendra University of Denpasar.

These two types of rhetorical work (the hypothesis statement and the research questions) in the Indonesian RA introductions, as in the above examples, are very closely related. As discussed earlier, the hypothesis statement is the tentative answer or explanation to the research question given by the researcher. This may have a persuasive value to readers; which is to motivate them to read the entire article. Since an hypothesis statement is a tentative answer or explanation to the research question, readers may look for the evidence to prove or disprove such hypothesis in the results and discussion section of the RA.

6.3.4.7. Step G (Proposed solution to the research problem)

The last step of Move 4 is the proposed solution to the research problem (Step G); this step is only found in research with action research and experimental approaches. The main purpose of this typical research project is to find out whether or not the proposed solution is effective to solve a particular research problem. Below is an example of this step in the Indonesian RA introductions.

EDU. 30

[Prg.4] Bertolak dari permasalahan tersebut, maka sebagai alternatif pemecahannya disepakati secara kolaboratif (guru dan peneliti) pengembangan suatu model pembelajaran yang lazim disebut dengan Tehnik Klarifikasi Nilai atau VCT. VCT adalah suatu strategi pembelajaran yang berorientasi ke arah pengungkapan konsep dan terbinanya proses penalaran nilai-moral, yang dicirikan dengan langkah-langkah kegiatan: (1) penyampaian stimulus yang mengandung konflik nilai-moral; (2) diskusi dan klarifikasi nilai-moral; dan (3) internalisasi nilai-moral melalui cara-cara yang rasional, komunikatif, dan edukatif dengan target pengajaran.
Based on the research problem, it is collaboratively agreed (by the teacher and researcher) to have a learning model called Value Clarification Technique (VCT) as the solution. VCT is a learning strategy which is oriented to the extension of concept and the establishment of moral-values which is characterised by: (1) stating the stimulus involving moral conflict; (2) discussion and clarification of moral-values; and (3) internalisation of moral-value through rational, communicative, and educative ways with education as the target.

The research problem of EDU. 30 is the poor student performance in Civics, or the teaching of morals as stated in the first paragraph of the article. The writers believe that the main cause of this problem is the poor quality of teaching methods used by Civics teachers. In order to solve the problem, the writers propose a teaching model called Value Clarification Technique (VCT). The purpose of this particular RA is to evaluate the effectiveness of this teaching technique. As discussed earlier, a proposed solution to the research problem is only common in an action research method, and an action research is only common in educational disciplinary areas.

6.4. The Frequency of Moves and Steps of PJP in the Indonesian RA Introductions

The introduction sections of the 90 Indonesian RAs as the corpus of this study have been reanalysed using the PJP model in order to find out the level of the effectiveness of this rhetorical analysis model in capturing the important communicative purposes and the specific rhetorical features in the Indonesian RA introductions. The analysis reveals the distribution and frequency of the moves in the three groups of the Indonesian RA introductions (Economic, Education, and Psychology RAs) as summarised in Table 10. (The detailed count of each individual RA is given in Appendix 2).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves</th>
<th>RA</th>
<th>Disciplines</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECO</td>
<td>EDU</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>n=30</td>
<td>n=30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Move 2</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Move 3</td>
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<td>14</td>
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<tr>
<td>Move 4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: The distribution and frequency of moves of the PJP model in the Indonesian RA introductions

As shown in Table 10, the majority of the Indonesian RA introductions in the three disciplines have Moves 1, 2 and 4 (the frequencies are 87.8%, 93.3% and 95.5% respectively). This evidence shows that establishing shared schemata (Move 1), establishing the research field (Move 2), and announcing the research specifications (Move 4) are obligatory rhetorical work for the Indonesian RA writers in their RA introductions in social sciences while Move 3 is an optional one. This may also imply that the PJP model of RA introduction analysis is successful enough to capture the major specific rhetorical features of the Indonesian RA introductions in the disciplinary of social sciences.

The high frequency use of Move 1 (establishing the shared schemata) shows that preparing readers' knowledge background is a primary concern of the Indonesian RA writers. One of the interpretations is that the Indonesian RA writers address their RA to a wide or multi-disciplinary audience including those with different research interest from theirs. The logical consideration is that when readers are not familiar with or new to a particular research field, they will have problems in processing the article or they may not be interested in reading it. The type and amount of background information provided by the writer for particular readers may also be influenced by cultural considerations. Ferguson (1997) and Scarcella (1984), for example, found that their second language students who wrote in English provided a lengthy introduction before
introducing the thesis statement. This is according to Ferguson and Scarcella, because of the student's perception of the need to clarify key terms for their readers they tend to underestimate their reader's knowledge on the topic they are writing on; they, therefore, tend to write more detailed or longer definitions.

As also indicated in Table 10, the frequency of Move 3 (Justifying the Present Research Project) in the Indonesian RA introduction is much lower compared to those of the other three moves (Moves 1, 2, and 4). This evidence implies, among other things, that unlike in the other three moves, an explicit statement or rhetorical work to justify the research project is not yet considered important by the Indonesian RA writers. However, the Indonesian RA writers may have used a different way to justify their research project, such as by identifying the research problem and convincing readers that the problem really exists. A more detailed discussion on this point will be dealt with later in this chapter.

Table 10 also indicates that the frequency of the four moves among the three disciplines is relatively equal. In other words, there is no discipline where a particular Move is very dominant. This may indicate that the characteristics of the RA introductions in the three disciplines (Economics, Education, and Psychology) from the point of view of the PJP moves are similar. The RA introductions in the three disciplines, therefore, can be classified as belonging to one genre at least from the macro text structure point of view.

6. 5. 1. Move 1 (Establishing shared schemata)

The frequency of the five steps in the three groups of the Indonesian RA introductions (Economic, Education, and Psychology RAs) is summarised in Table 11 while a detailed count of the frequency of the steps in each discipline is given in Appendix 2. As Table 11 indicates, the most frequently used type of background information in the Indonesian RA introductions is a general claim (Step E) with a frequency of 58 (64.4%). This shows, among other things, that beginning an
introduction section of a RA by providing general information (sometimes so general that it has a very remote relationship with the actual topic or the article) is very common in the Indonesian RA introductions. This may reflect Gupta’s (1995) claims about student or novice writers' way of writing an introduction, when she suggests that students or novice writers may begin their introduction section with information which is too general for a given audience and fail to come to a specific enough topic.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move &amp; Steps</th>
<th>RA</th>
<th>Disciplines</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECO n=30</td>
<td>EDU n=30</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Move 1</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Step A</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>25</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step B</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step C</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step D</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step E</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11: The frequency of Move 1 Steps in the Indonesian RA Introductions

The least infrequently used form of background information in the Indonesian RA introductions, as seen in Table 11, is giving a short history of the research field (Step C) with a frequency of only 13 (14.4%). The infrequent use of this step may be due to the fact that the majority of the research fields in this study are already common topics and they, therefore, do not need a narration of field research history at least from the writer's point of view; a research field history is only needed when introducing a less common research field. In addition, the majority of the journals, from which the RAs for the corpus of this study are obtained, are university based journals for the consumption of the academic community. For this reason, the Indonesian RA writers may have felt that their potential audience do not need such field history any more.
A more interesting finding is, in fact, the different frequencies for the occurrence of the Move 1 steps across the three different RA disciplines (Economics, Education and Psychology). Step B (referring to government policy), for example, is used far more frequently in Economic RAs than it is in Psychology RAs. (the frequencies are 10 or 33.3% and 3 or 3.3% respectively). One possible interpretation of this evidence is that Economic RAs are more related to government policy than Psychology RAs which are more related to social problems. Let us examine several examples of Economic RA topics below:

1. The management of home industry in Palu Nagaya (ECO. 2);
2. The implementation of house renting agreements in Mataram (ECO. 4);
3. Wage discrimination between male and female workers in Mataram (ECO. 5);
4. Tax on income of local governments in East Lombok (ECO. 6); and
5. The effect of foreign investment on domestic economic growth (ECO. 12);

These topics and other similar topics in Economic RAs are based on regulations or policy from the government, such as the Ministerial decree, the policy of the Ministry of Finance and the Government Development Program Guideline. By contrast, the topics of Psychology RAs are more related to social problems as in the following examples:

1. The children's attitude towards their parents if their parents suffer from schizophrenic illness (PSY. 3);
2. The personality profile of bronchial asthma patient (PSY. 4);
3. The effect of noise intensity on the short term memory (PSY. 8);
4. The difference of fear of success between male and female youngsters (PSY. 14); and
5. The effect of zinc consumption on cognitive ability (PSY. 15).

As in the above examples, the research topics in Psychology RAs do not seem to relate to any government policy but to the problems experienced by people.
Another important difference, as shown in Table 11, is the frequency of the occurrence of Step D (describing the features of research location); this step is also used far more frequently in Economic RAs than in Education and Psychology RAs (the frequencies are 15 for Economic, 1 for Education, and 3 for Psychology RAs). One possible explanation is that, unlike Education and Psychology RAs, the majority of Economic RAs are in fact related to the practical implementation of government policy in the field of economy, such as in marketing, banking, or the management of particular companies in a particular region or area in Indonesia, which may require the descriptions of the geographical location of the research field in order to establish a context for the research problem. Consider further examples of the Economic RA topics below:

1. Factors encouraging rice field conversion to the non-agricultural use in three regencies in West Java (ECO. 16)

2. The role of the rural bank in supporting informal business in West Sumatera (ECO. 24)

3. A diagnostic study of soybean farming development in Karyamukti village, Karawang regency (ECO. 13)

4. The effect of the logging industry on the development in Batanghari regency of Jambi province (ECO. 29)

5. The absorption of local unemployment (Senior High School Graduates) in Riau province (ECO. 21)

As seen in the above examples, all Economic RAs are concerned with economic problems in a particular area or region in Indonesia. Thus, in order to establish a shared schemata with the readers especially those from outside the research location, the writers need to describe the geographical settings of the research location.
The existence of Move 1 (establishing shared schemata) in the majority of the Indonesian RA introductions is one of the major differences between the rhetorical style of RA introductions in Indonesian and their English counterparts. The English writers begin their RA introductions by establishing a research territory, while the Indonesian writers do this by providing background information in order to prepare the readers for understanding the topic of the RAs. This difference also shows that the Indonesian RA introductions adopt an indirect style while the English RA introductions adopt a direct style from text rhetorical style point of view.

6.5.2. Move 2 (Establishing the research field)

The frequency occurrence of the three steps of Move 2 in the Indonesian RA introductions in the data of this study is summarised in Table 12 while the detailed count of the frequency of the steps in each discipline is given in the appendix 2.
Table 12: The frequency of Move 2 Steps in the Indonesian RA Introductions

As shown in Table 12, 55 RAs (61.1%) of the Indonesian RA introductions in the data of this study have a Step A (introducing the actual research topic) while the other 35 RAs (39%) do not have such statement. In these RA introductions, the writers do not explicitly introduce the topic of their research and if readers fail to identify the topic of the research, they may have difficulties in processing the RA introduction and/or the entire article. In other words, the RA introductions without an explicit statement of research topic are not ideal because readers may have difficulties in finding out what the present research is about.

The low frequency of Step A or the explicit statement of research topic in the Indonesian RA introductions in this study is in line with Wahab's (1992) claim that there are many Indonesian academic writers who do not explicitly introduce the actual topic of their academic or scientific essays or articles. Wahab suggests that, although the explicit or implicit topic introduction in an essay or article might be a writers' choice, it will surely affect the readers' comprehension processes. Readers will find an essay or article with an implicit topic harder to read; they, for example, need to read carefully and probably repeatedly in order to find out what the article or essay is actually about. Therefore, according to Wahab, Indonesian writers of academic or scientific writing texts should prefer the explicit topic introduction to the implicit style in their texts.
Table 12 also shows that a large proportion (51 out of 90 RAs or 56.7%) of the Indonesian RA introductions have a Step B (statement of research problem or phenomenon). This shows, among other things, that the statement of research problem or phenomenon in the RA introductions is an important rhetorical work for the Indonesian RA writers. In other words, the Indonesian RA writers are already aware of the importance of problem identification or statement in their RA introductions in order to justify the present research project reported in the articles.

As also indicated in Table 12, Step C (reviewing the current knowledge and practices) is found far more frequently in education and psychology RAs than in economic RAs. This implies that the EDU. and PSY. RA writers use references or quotations far more frequently than the writers of ECO. RAs do. This evidence may also imply that, compared to the economic writers, the education and psychology writers have access to more relevant literature; therefore, they can use more relevant references to establish their research field or territory or to justify the research project reported in their RA introductions. One possible reason for this phenomenon is that the majority of the EDU. and PSY. RAs are published by more developed universities or institutes with better libraries while the ECO. RAs include those published by less established or developed universities with less established libraries in terms of the quantity and quality of references. Another possible explanation, particularly in the case of the ECO. RAs, is that the majority of the Indonesian researchers do not have any commitment to publish their scientific work in scientific journals (PDK, 1994). As a result, the reports of research projects carried out by investigators in one place or institution in Indonesia are only available at the local library and are unlikely to be distributed to libraries in other places or regions.

Another interesting finding is that among the three groups of RAs, Step A (introducing the research topic) is found in Education RAs the most frequently and in Economic RAs the least frequently. Table 12 shows that 25 out of 30 EDU RAs or 83.3% have Step A, while only 11 out of 30 Economic RAs or 36.7% have this type of rhetorical work. In other words, the majority of the Education RA writers explicitly
introduce their research topic in their RA introductions, while the majority of the Economic RA writers chose not to. This implies that the majority of the Education RA writers find it necessary to explicitly introduce the research topic in their RA introductions for the ease of text comprehension. The majority of Economic RA writers, on the other hand, may find it unnecessary to explicitly introduce the research topic in their RA introductions.

One possible explanation for this difference is because of the writers’ perception of the level of their readers’ knowledge background. Unlike Education faculties which often have several different departments of less related sub-disciplines in the Indonesian university system, Economic faculties usually have fewer departments of more related sub-disciplines. In other words, the economic scientific community in Indonesia is much more homogenous than those of Education. This may have influenced the way the Economic writers write RA introductions, particularly in the way they introduce the topic of their research project as reported in the articles. Since they write for a homogenous audience, the Economic writers may have felt that readers (the economic scientific community) will be able to capture the research topic in their RA introductions although it is not explicitly stated or addressed. The Education writers, on the other hand, write for a more heterogenous readers; they, therefore, have to make their texts as comprehensible as possible from the content and rhetorical structure points of view. One way of achieving this target is by explicitly stating the important features of the RA introductions including the research topic.

6. 5. 3. Move 3 (Justifying the present research project)

The frequency of the four steps of Move 3 (justifying the research project) in the Indonesian RA introductions is summarised in Table 13 while the detailed count of the frequency of the steps in each discipline is given in the appendix 2.
As shown in Table 13, among the four steps of research project justification (Move 3), Step C (claiming that a particular topic is necessary for investigation) is the most frequent step utilised by the Indonesian RA writers. This is then followed by Step B (claiming that a particular topic has never been explored or reported). As discussed above these two steps are similar. In both steps the writers explicitly or implicitly state that a particular topic has never been explored or reported.

The frequent occurrence of steps B and C reflects that research projects or scientific investigations in the fields of Education, Economics, and Psychology and probably in many other fields or disciplines are still at the beginning stages. Another possible explanation is that the research project documentation is not yet well organized in Indonesia; the research reports or articles in one region or institution are not well distributed to other places or institutions in Indonesia. This has been acknowledged by PDK (1993) when they claim that there are still many Indonesian researchers who are not willing to share their research results with other people, probably because they do not know how to or are not motivated to do so. They, then, suggest that any research result must be shared with other people so that the results can be implemented and the best way to do so is through publishing it in a scientific journal. According to them, the Indonesian researchers, therefore, must be encouraged to share their research results with other people, such as by providing some incentive or through other means.

Table 13: The frequency of Move 3 steps in the Indonesian RA introductions

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<tr>
<th>Move &amp; Steps</th>
<th>RA Disciplines</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECO n=30</td>
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<tr>
<td>Move 3</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Step A</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step B</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step C</td>
<td>11</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step D</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
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</table>
Step A (indicating inconsistency in previous study results), as indicated in Table 13, is the most infrequently used by the Indonesian RA writers in the data of this study, although this step would appear to be more convincing to the readers than the other three steps are. This implies that, unlike the English RA writers, the majority of Indonesian RA writers do not base their present research project on the weaknesses or defects of previous relevant studies. In other words, the majority of the Indonesian RA writers do not review previous relevant studies in order to create a space for the present research project.

Table 13 also shows that only 42 (46.7%) of all Indonesian writers address a Move 3 in their RA introductions or explicitly justify their present research project by one or more of the four different steps. In other words, over a half of the Indonesian RA introductions do not have a specific rhetorical work which can be classified as the research project justification. However, the evidence from this study shows that many of these RA introductions have the statement of research problem which is immediately followed by the statement of the purposes of the research or research questions. This implies that the research problem is also used to justify the present research project. The example below may illustrate the point in discussion: (The emphasis is added as underlined)

**PSY 23**

*Masalah penelitian*

[Prg.2] Pada kenyataannya, terdapat variasi reaksi wanita yang berkeluarga. Sebagian di antara mereka dapat mengatasi segala tuntutan dan tantangan yang dihadapi dalam menjalankan perannya, sementara sebagian dari mereka mengalami kesulitan dalam menjalankan tugas-tugas mereka bahkan mengalami gangguan kesehatan.

**Research problem**

In reality, there is a variety of married women’s reaction. Some of them can handle all demands and challenges in playing this role while some others have difficulties in doing their tasks or even experience health problems.
**Pertanyaan penelitian**

[Prg.3] Secara lebih rinci, pertanyaan-pertanyaan yang berusaha dijawab dalam penelitian ini adalah: apakah terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara stresor yang berkaitan dengan peran ganda, dengan kesehatan mental wanita kerja yang berkeluarga? Apakah terdapat hubungan yang signifikan antara dukungan personal dengan kesehatan mental wanita kerja yang berkeluarga? Apakah ada hubungan yang signifikan antara dukungan sosial dengan kesehatan mental wanita kerja yang berkeluarga?

**Research questions**

In more detail, the questions to answer in this research are 'Is there any significant relationship between stressors related to the dual role of working married women and their mental health?; Is there any significant relationship between the personal support and the mental health of working married women?; and Is there any significant relationship between social support and the mental health of working married women?'

As seen in the above example, after identifying the research problem in paragraph 2 the RA writer immediately announces the research purposes in paragraph 3. This implies that this RA writer implicitly claims that his or her present research is important or necessary because there is a complex problem which needs an effective solution. The rationale for the use of research problem identification to justify a research project is that if there is a problem or unknown phenomena on an important topic, a scientific investigation is necessary or important in order to find the best practical solutions to the problem. Thus, if a writer can convince readers that there is a complicated problem on an important topic, then a scientific investigation is necessary and a research project is justifiable.

This type of research project justification seems to be preferred even by the Indonesian government as the major institution which financially supports research projects in Indonesia. This is because the majority of the research projects reported in the RAs in this study are supported by the Indonesian government. The government appears to have given a high priority to research projects which can bring about practical solutions for all kinds of problems or phenomena hindering them from meeting the target of their development programs. This is because, like other financial
sponsors of research, the Indonesian government want to get the best return from any research project that they financially support in order to account for the best use of public resources. PDK (1994), for example, claims that the main role of universities as academic and research centres in the development of the country is not only responsible for producing quality graduates but also for producing quality scientific studies to expand knowledge and increase the success of the country’s development programs.

Another possible reason for the use of a research problem to justify a research project is the fact that the Indonesian investigators tend to focus on the local context and the practical nature of their research endeavours. The research problem that justifies a research project, for example, is viewed as a knowledge gap at a local context, and it has never been investigated or successfully overcome. A similar research problem in other places in Indonesia may have been investigated or successfully solved but the problem in a particular location may require different solutions. This is in line with what Magnis-Suseno (1991) suggests when he claims that, any kind of scientific investigation (from the very practical to the very theoretical forms) must take the possible social application of the research results for granted. In other words, all research projects in Indonesia especially those using the government funding must consider the social application of the research project; which is to help the government solve social and economic difficulties experienced by the Indonesian society. Thus, a research project to solve this particular problem is, therefore, still necessary and justifiable in the context of scientific investigation in Indonesia.

Another possible interpretation for the absence of research project justification in the Indonesian RA introductions is that the Indonesian writers or researchers, particularly the new or inexperienced researchers, are not aware of the importance of such a statement. Lubis (1994), for example, claims that many Indonesian researchers are not able to write a good introduction for their RA or research proposal. One of their weaknesses, according to Lubis, is that they fail to convince readers why such a research project is important or it is necessary to carry it out. Lubis suggests that it is
very important for researchers to consult articles or reports describing previous relevant studies before beginning to write their research article or proposal.

6. 5. 4. Move 4 (Announcing the present research)

The frequency of the six steps of Move 4 in the PJP model in the three groups of the Indonesian RA introductions in the data of this study is summarised in Table 14 while the detailed count of the frequency of the steps in each discipline is given in the appendix 2).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move &amp; Steps</th>
<th>RA Disciplines</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ECO n=30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Move 4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step A</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step B</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step C</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step D</td>
<td>7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step E</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td>Step F</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step G</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14: The frequency of steps of Move 4 in the Indonesian RA introductions

As shown in Table 14, Step A (announcing the research purposes) and Step B (the statement of research questions) are two of the most frequent steps found in the Indonesian RA introductions. The high frequency of Steps A and B in all three disciplines of the RAs reflects the importance of these steps in the Indonesian RA introductions. This is similar to the RA introductions in English and Malay where in both languages RA introductions often end with the announcement of research purposes (Swales 1990 and Ahmad 1997). In the Indonesian RA introduction, this evidence also reflects the importance of Move 4 in the PJP model where almost all RAs in the data of this study have the statement of research purposes or questions (some of them have a Step A, some have a Step B, and some others have both).
Step E (announcing the principle findings) and Step G (proposing a solution to the research problem), as indicated in Table 14, are the least frequent steps used in the Indonesian RA introductions. The infrequent occurrence of Step E in the Indonesian RA introductions, although very important to guide readers when reading the results and discussion section of a RA (Rifai 1995) and to promote the news value of the RA (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995), is highly predictable. According to Berkenkotter and Huckin, this rhetorical work is still a new trend even in English RA writing and, therefore, rarely used. In addition, the infrequent occurrence of Step G is due to the fact that a proposed solution for the research problem is only found in research projects which use action or experimental approaches and not in research projects using other approaches.

5 Only a small number of the Indonesian RAs in the corpus of this study use an action or experimental research approach; the majority of them are descriptively quantitative and/or qualitative studies using an exploratory approach. The main purpose of these studies is to seek the answers for the research questions rather than to find out the most effective solution for a particular research problem.
Table 14 also shows that, only 19 out of 90 RAs (21.1%) have a Step F (hypothesis statement) in their introductions. The relatively small number of the Indonesian RA introductions which have a hypothesis statement is in line with Rifai’s (1995) claim when she writes that not all kinds of research methods or approaches need hypothesis statements. However, Rifai does not explain which kind of research method or approach needs a hypothesis statement and which kind does not. The reason for addressing a hypothesis statement is given by Umar (1996) when he suggests that if the research purpose is only to explore a research problem or phenomenon, this particular research does not need any hypothesis statement. Umar goes on to claim that typical research methods or approaches which do not need any hypothesis statement are descriptive, philosophical, historical, evaluative, and action researches where researchers are not expected to anticipate the type of findings be obtained.

6. 6. A Comparison of the Different Persuasive Values in the English and Indonesian RA Introductions

The introduction section of a RA conveys part of a persuasive appeal of the entire RA; in this section the writers normally appeal to their readers in order to convince them that the research undertaken is necessary and worthwhile (Hunston 1994). According to Hunston, in order to be convincing and persuasive, RA writers have to address two very important reasons for a research project in their RA introduction: first, there is a knowledge gap left from previous relevant studies, and second, the knowledge gap occurs in an important or necessary topic. These two dimensions are equally important but expressed through different rhetorical work. However, as indicated in several places of chapter 5 and also in this chapter, Indonesian
RA writers are different from their English counterparts in addressing these types of persuasion.

First, in the English RA introductions, as discussed in chapter 5, the writers draw the readers' attention to the importance or necessity of their research topic by making a centrality claim (Move 1-Step 1 in the CARS model). Through the centrality claim, English RA writers expect to convince readers to accept that their research topic is a “significant, well-established and lively research area” (Swales 1990:144). In Indonesian RA introductions, however, the importance of a research topic is expressed in Move 1 of the PJP model (establishing shared schemata) by several ways, such as by referring to the government's policy, giving a short history of the research field, or making a general claim and supporting it with a reference. By so doing, the Indonesian RA writers implicitly claim that their research topic is important or necessary because it has been discussed by or researched by other people (who are probably more credible than the writers themselves) or it has been a focus of the government’s attention.

Secondly, in the English RA introductions research project justification is addressed by negatively reviewing the items of previous research; that is to find out the weaknesses or limitations of the previous relevant studies and to use the defects to create a space for the present research project. In other words, the English RA writers rely heavily on the critical evaluation or analysis of previous relevant studies in order to justify their present research. If they can successfully convince readers that items of previous research have some kind of weaknesses or defects, they, then, are eligible to carry out a research project in order to remedy such defects and provide a better or more reliable information. In the Indonesian RA introductions, on the other hand, this type of research project justification is rarely found; the majority of the Indonesian RA writers seem to use the identification of a research problem as the project justification at the same time. By identifying a research problem, the Indonesian RA writers implicitly claim that their research project is important and necessary, because there is a problem to overcome. The use of a research problem to justify a research project may be done
for practical reasons; if there is a problem on an important topic, such as in the
government development program, which requires a scientific investigation, then a
piece of research should be carried out in order to find the best solution to the problem
so that the development program can work well and obtain the optimum results.

The third type of persuasive technique in RA introductions is the promotion of
the news value. In the English RA introduction, the writers announce principle findings
in order to promote the news value of the RA (Berkenkotter and Huckin 1995), so that
readers will be attracted to read the entire article. In the Indonesian RA introductions,
on the other hand, this type of rhetorical work is found infrequently; instead the
majority of the Indonesian writers state the expected benefits of conducting the research
project being reported in the RAs. Readers who are not aware of the benefits of the
information in the RA may want to read the whole article if such information is useful
to them. In other words, the announcement of principle findings and the statement of the
expected benefits of the research project may have the same persuasive value, i.e. to
attract or persuade readers to read the entire article.

Finally, English RA introductions references or reviews of items from previous
research are mainly used to create a research space for the present research project. This
is normally done by negatively evaluating the items of previous research, while at the
same time justifying the importance or significance of the present research. In the
Indonesian RA introductions, on the other hand, references are used by the Indonesian
writers at least for three different persuasive purposes. First, references are used to
appeal to readers that their claims about their research topic are shared by other writers
in the relevant field of their discipline, and therefore, it is an important research topic.
Second, references such as those taken from government policies or documents are used
to convince readers to accept that their research topic is important and worthwhile
because they deal with public concerns. Finally, reference is used to convince readers
that they have enough knowledge and experience in the research field, and therefore
they are eligible or qualified to carry out their present research project to be reported in
the RAs.
6. 7. Concluding Remarks

The Problem Justifying Project (PJP) model of RA introduction analysis can capture the rhetorical features (the communicative purposes, persuasive value and textual features) of the Indonesian RA introductions more adequately than the CARS model does. The high frequency of the occurrence of PJP moves (except Move 3), as shown in Table 10, indicates the usefulness of the PJP model when used to analyse the Indonesian RA introductions. The relatively low frequency occurrence of Move 3 (justifying the present research project), however, is because of the fact that the majority of the Indonesian writers justify their present research by introducing the research problem (Move 2-Step B of the PJP model) and convince readers (through various ways) that the problem really occurs. This rhetorical work of research project justification seems to be sufficiently acceptable and convincing for the Indonesian RA discourse community.

The rhetorical work for persuasive appeals and convincing arguments in a RA introduction is influenced not only by the culture but also by the scientific or academic tradition or practices applicable in a particular area or region. The ways the Indonesian people argue, persuade, and convince other people seem to be different from that of English speaking people or discourse community, and this difference requires different rhetorical work. Also, the environment of scientific investigation appears to be different from one place to the other, such as the environment in developing countries and developed countries; this difference can also effect the type of rhetorical work chosen by the researchers when they report their research project in a RA.

The differences between the rhetorical features in the Indonesian RA introductions and in their English counterparts are not only because of the cultural differences between Indonesia and English but also the difference of the research or academic environment in Indonesian as a developing country and those in developed countries as the countries where English is a main scientific or academic means of
communication. Thus, the ways people write scientific texts such as RAs are influenced by both the culture values adopted by the community at large and the scientific consensus and practices agreed and utilised by a particular discourse community where they reside and participate in.
CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

FOR FURTHER STUDIES

7. 1. Overview

In this final chapter first, the important conclusions of this study will be discussed. Then, possible ways of implementing the findings from a pedagogical perspective will be proposed. These will include a discussion of the possible role of the explicit teaching of genres, common approaches to the teaching of genre-specific texts and needs analysis for Indonesian university students and researchers about knowledge of the rhetorical features of Indonesian RAs. Finally, implications for further studies will be suggested.

7. 2. Conclusions of the Study

So far in this dissertation, I have discussed the specific rhetorical features of Indonesian RAs in three disciplinary areas: Economics, Education and Psychology, with a particular focus on the introduction sections of the articles. The discussion focuses on the patterns of communicative purposes or Moves and their subsequent elements or Steps, the persuasive values, the linguistic resources used to realise the Moves and Steps, persuasions and cultural factors, and the scientific contexts and academic writing conventions underlying the specific rhetorical features. From the discussion and evidence presented in this study, several important conclusions can be drawn. First, although Bahasa Indonesia (BI) has been established as an educational language for a short time, the language has been able to serve as an academic or
scientific language as it is used in Indonesian RAs. Indonesian writers, for instance, seem to have little or no problem in expressing their scientific ideas and thoughts in BI in the format of RAs.

Second, as other studies have found for English RAs, the Indonesian RAs in the data for this study are mainly divided into several sections of introduction, methods, results and discussion (IMRD). However, unlike in the English RAs, the conclusion segments in the majority of the Indonesian RAs are separated from the discussion sections and given a sub-title or name of their own. Thus, the common sections of the Indonesian RAs are introduction, methods, results and discussion and conclusion (IMRDC). Also, the IMRDC sections of the Indonesian RAs have several different sub-titles or names, although some sub-titles are more common than the others.

Third, I have shown with examples and illustrations that the CARS model of RA introductions developed by Swales (1990) cannot capture adequately the specific rhetorical features and persuasive values of the Indonesian RAs. This is because of different academic writing conventions adopted by Indonesian RA writers and those adopted by English RA writers, different research practices and development in Indonesia and in English speaking countries and different cultural factors (i.e. views, norms and beliefs) held by Indonesians and by English speakers. For this reason, I have proposed an adapted model of RA analysis called the Problem Justifying Project (PJP) model and shown how through this analytic model, specific rhetorical features of the Indonesian RA introductions can be captured more adequately than by using the CARS model.

One of the most importance rhetorical differences between the Indonesian RA introductions and the English RAs is the way writers review items from previous studies. The common way of reviewing relevant literature adopted by English writers
includes negatively evaluating or criticising items of previous research or pointing at the weaknesses of the studies. This is done in order to show gaps in knowledge about a particular topic in order to create a space for their present study. Indonesian writers, on the other hand, tend to avoid criticising or pointing at the weaknesses of other people’s work for cultural reasons. So, unlike English writers Indonesian writers prefer not to use the weaknesses or gaps (although apparent) in previous studies in order to justify the research projects reported in their RAs.

Another important rhetorical difference between the Indonesian RA introductions and those of their English counterparts is found in the ways the writers justify the research project reported in the RAs. The majority of the research projects reported in the Indonesian RAs have been carried out in order to solve a problem, particularly those related to Indonesian development programs or policies, rather than to fill in knowledge gaps or to extend present knowledge in a particular discipline. This is partly because government institutions in Indonesia are major research funding providers; therefore, research projects which directly or clearly assist the government to solve problems in the country’s development programs get the highest priority. In other words, research projects in the Indonesian context have to ensure a pay-off for the public expense; therefore, the claim that there is a problem for an important topic becomes an acceptable research justification for the Indonesian scientific community and the Indonesian government.

Yet, another salient rhetorical difference between the Indonesian RA introductions and those of their English counterparts is the inclusion of background information (even if it sometimes is not closely related to the research topic) in the majority of the Indonesian RA introductions. For English academic writers and/or readers, this type of background information may be considered unimportant or
unnecessary because in English academic writing conventions; writers should immediately introduce the topic of their article. However, for the majority of Indonesian writers, background information seems to be an important element in their introductions. It is used not only to put the research topic into a particular context, but also to prepare readers’ schemata, particularly for readers who are not very familiar with the research field. The background information may include several aspects related to the research project being reported in the RAs, such as definitions of the key terms, the history of the research topic, the geographical setting of the research, and government policy or other relevant works before introducing the actual research topic. In addition, providing background information aims to anticipate a wider audience including those who are new to or even outside of the scientific community, such as university undergraduate students or government officials.

Finally, there are not any significant rhetorical differences among the Indonesian RAs in the three disciplines (Psychology, Education and Economics) in the data for this study, particularly in terms of the occurrence of the communicative units of moves and steps in the introduction sections. This suggests that the Indonesian RA introductions in the three related disciplines can be classified into one genre ie. the RA genre of social sciences. This may also suggest that the comprehension and production processes of the Indonesian RAs in the three disciplines and the situational and cultural context influencing the textual features of the RA introductions are relatively similar.

7. 3. Pedagogical Implications of the Findings of the Study

The main pedagogical implication of this study relates to the teaching of the Indonesian RA genre to Indonesian university students and Indonesian novice researchers or scholars and the sorts of teaching which may be required. Given that the
social science RAs constitute a coherent genre, and that students and novice researchers need to be able to control this genre, it is important to consider how information about the RA genre could be integrated into teaching. For this purpose an analysis of the needs of Indonesian university students and novice researchers in learning the rhetorical features of Indonesian RAs will be presented. Then, different views on the roles and importance of explicit teaching of genres from applied genre theorists will be discussed. Finally, the common approaches used for the teaching of genre will be reviewed.

7.3.1 Students’ Needs for Learning the RA Genre

Indonesian university students need to read Indonesian RAs particularly those in their own field of discipline, as part of their individual learning activities and for preparing the literature study or review for writing their essays or theses. There are several reasons why RAs written in Indonesian are important resources for university students in Indonesia. First, the articles are written in BI, the students’ first or second language; the language that they have been using in their education at least since their primary education. Thus, it is unlikely that students will experience significant language problems when reading the texts.

Second, scientific journals published mainly by university-based publishers are one of the most affordable reading materials for libraries in Indonesian universities. Some of the journals are even distributed by university publishers to university libraries free of charge. In other words, the majority of university libraries in Indonesia have a large collection of Indonesian scientific journals published by university-based publishers in Indonesia. Foreign language journals, such as English language journals, on the other hand, are relatively expensive and hard to get. Therefore, in several
Indonesian university libraries, particularly in rural areas, the only scientific journals available for the students to read are the ones published in BI and distributed by Indonesian university-publishers. Thus, the students often have no choice for supplementary reading except to read the articles in the Indonesian scientific journals available at their university libraries.

Finally, the articles published in Indonesian scientific journals often discuss the most recent developments in knowledge in a particular discipline or the most up-to-date development of research practices in a particular region in Indonesia. This information will be very useful for the students in choosing the topic for their theses or essays.

Indonesian researchers and scholars also need to be familiar with the rhetorical features of the Indonesian RAs, because they are required to write RAs in order to socialise their research findings. This is necessary for their research findings to be implemented in practical terms and to make their research available to a wider community (Rifai 1995). The most effective and efficient way of doing this is through publishing the research findings in a scientific journal, because through the RAs the researchers can provide a complete argument for their research projects and assert a new knowledge claims for the others to develop. For this purpose, new Indonesian researchers are expected to be able to write standard RAs according to the Indonesian scientific writing practices and conventions for both content and rhetorical structure. If they structure their RAs according to the common formats or styles adopted in the Indonesian scientific journals, their RAs will have a better change to be accepted for publication in a refereed journal.

In summary, RAs published in Indonesian are valuable and important reading materials for Indonesian university students. This is not only because the articles are available in a large number at their university libraries but also because they provide
important and often the most recent information on a particular research field. Similarly, Indonesian researchers and scholars need to be familiar with the rhetorical features of RAs. For this reason, they need to know the rhetorical structures of these academic texts, such as the common communicative units and persuasions in the texts and linguistics resources used to materialise them. Thus, RA genre needs to be explicitly taught to Indonesian students to give them more access to the content of Indonesian research and to develop skills needed by researchers and research writers.

7.3.2. Debate on the Explicit Teaching of Genres

Applied genre theorists are still arguing whether or not explicit teaching of a specific genre is necessary or useful. Freedman (1993), for example, argues that explicit teaching of genre is impossible because genre features are too complex and too numerous to present to students in a systematic way in the classroom. According to Freedman, explicit teaching of genre is not even necessary because students can develop their understanding of a particular genre as they go through course assignments, listen to lectures and participate in seminars, discussions or social conversations with other fellow students, lecturers and tutors. From her own study with undergraduate law students, Freedman found that students develop their genre knowledge awareness by themselves through being involved in academic and social activities. In her own words, Freedman says,

In the law study I was impressed by the richness and thickness of the texture of the context woven by the instructors and by the degree to which the writing elicited was a response to this context. This enabling context was established through the lectures, through the reading assigned, through the questions posed in the seminars to the students, and through the talk and social interaction in general in the lecture hall and seminar room. The assignment evolved naturally out of the disciplinary conversation, and in responding to it, the students were able to draw on the appropriate cues so that on the one hand they all produced the same distinctive academic sub-genre (writing for law) and on the other hand through this writing, they enacted they ways of thinking and the ways of
identifying, delimiting, construing, and approaching phenomena characteristic of this discipline (p:239).

Similarly, Berkenkotter and Huckin (1993) claim that genre knowledge and its use in social context is not so much taught as acquired through enculturation into particular discourse communities. Thus, in Freedman’s and Berkenkotter and Huckin’s views, students could acquire a new genre effectively and efficiently through exposure alone; that is through learning-by-doing processes, such as in the struggle to solve problems or assignments structured and worded in a particular way and the struggle for understanding lecturers although there is no explicit teaching of genre knowledge before hand.

Other genre theorists, such as Williams and Colomb (1993); Swales (1990) and Johns (1997), however, find that explicit teaching of genres is necessary. Williams and Colomb, for example, suggest that through exposure alone students, unless they are very competent, will fail to acquire significant features of a particular genre. According to Williams and Colomb, explicit teaching of genres will provide chances for average students to know and be aware of significant features of a particular genre. However, Williams and Colomb also acknowledge the benefits of frequent exposure to a genre-specific texts.

Johns (1997) also agrees with the importance of explicit teaching of genres for the purpose of developing student’s background knowledge or schemata. This is because, according to Johns, if readers and writers share the same schemata for the features of a genre-specific text, they will be able to effectively process and produce similar texts. Johns says,

When student readers share some or all of this knowledge with the writer of an assigned texts, they comprehend, and we are happy with their text summaries. When writers share this knowledge, readers are often pleased with their ability to produced what is considered appropriate written products. This sharing makes reading and writing much more efficient, and it contributes to mutual
understanding among those involved. Without it, the lives of readers and writers would be much more difficult because they would have to make many more decisions before processing each text (p.37).

Johns further suggests that when processing a genre-specific text, readers use mental models based on their schemata, which are then revised as they read or write for a particular situation. Thus, being familiar with the rhetorical structure of texts can assist students to develop mental models and use them when confronted with texts of the same genre for effective text comprehension or production.

Swales (1990) also supports the idea of explicit teaching of genre, particularly to non-native speakers of a particular language. Swales suggests that teaching the rationale and conventions of a particular text type, such as an academic text, can lead to the production of texts that sufficiently match the reader’s formal schemata. According to Swales, successful comprehension of academic texts will depend on the “readers’ ability to perceive the notional blocs that comprise the texts and the hierarchical relationships that conceptually align them” (p:89). Therefore, as Swales further suggests, the explicit teaching of the rhetorical structure of texts of a particular genre is central in academic reading and writing classes.

Freedman (1994) has recently revised her position on the potential roles of explicit teaching in genre acquisition and suggests that the explicit teaching of genre is necessary in so far as it meets certain criteria. First, the learners must be developmentally ready and they must be involved in doing authentic tasks. Second, the explicit teaching must be able to raise the consciousness of the learners about the genre features so that they will later notice and hence acquire features in meaning-focused input. If certain features of a genre are pointed out explicitly to some learners before they are involved in reading or writing other instances of that genre, they may notice and acquire the rules governing those features. In other words, explicit teaching of
formal features of genre may prove useful for those students whose learning styles are appropriate, but only when such teaching is presented while students are engaging in authentic reading and writing tasks using the targeted genre.

In summary, explicit teaching of genre-specific features appears to be necessary and important in order to make at least some students aware or conscious of those features when dealing with the authentic texts. Students’ knowledge about the rhetorical and linguistic features of RAs, for example, will help them comprehend texts or produce similar texts effectively and efficiently. When they actively use generic knowledge in comprehending and/or producing RAs, some of their conscious knowledge may become acquisition and the students can begin to use this unconsciously. In addition, explicit teaching of rhetorical features commonly used in RAs may speed up the learning process and raise their level of achievement. More importantly, however, explicit teaching may help develop or increase students’ motivation to read and write RAs frequently. Therefore, it appears necessary to develop an approach to teaching the generic features of social science RAs written in BI to Indonesian students.

7.3.3. Common Approaches to the Teaching of Genre-Specific Texts

There are a range of approaches to explicit teaching of genre and the most common approach is probably to present students with model texts that can be analysed for certain generic properties before the students are asked to read and/or write their own chosen text (Charney and Carlson 1995). According to Charney and Carlson, this is a reflection of the real-life situation; beginning engineers, for example, often rely heavily on available files of technical reports when writing their own reports. Charney and Carlson found that texts written by students who were given model texts to

examine and follow were rated higher on text organisation parameters than those written by students without model texts. This is because, according to Charney and Carlson, by studying model texts, students could understand the rhetorical patterns of genre-specific texts at the sentence level, paragraph level and higher discourse levels.

Dudley-Evans (1997) also suggests the use of text models in the explicit teaching of rhetorical features of genre-specific texts for the purpose of raising the students’ consciousness about the formal features of the texts. According to Dudley-Evans, this approach gives students a communicative ability to express their ideas in the ways assumed by the members of their discourse community. However, as Dudley-Evans reminds, the danger of this approach is that teachers and students may believe that such models are the only ways in which academic writing can be presented. For this reason, Dudley-Evans suggests that academic genre teaching should also include the teaching of communicative strategies, such as the use of hedging in making knowledge claims and the ways of evaluating items of previous studies.

Another approach to the explicit teaching of academic genres at university level is the ‘process approach’. In this approach, students are asked to share text samples from their own writing projects with their peers or class members. This is done to show students that writing is a social process where recursive negotiation between writers and readers about the form and content of their texts is necessary in order to produce appropriate texts from the points of view of both parties (Ahmad 1997). Similarly, Swales (1990) suggests that the importance of the writing process in writing classes is now well established and focus on the writing process is beneficial not only to the Second Language (L2) but also for First Language (L1) classes. The obvious benefit, according to Swales, is that the responses (eg. comments, corrections, questions or critiques) from the class members on the students’ draft, which come from reader’s
point of view, come from a perspective which cannot be adopted by the student writers themselves. This is because writers, even experienced writers, cannot be effective readers of their own texts. In addition, sharing their work among the fellow students may also make writing become more realistic and natural because the audience has changed from writing for the instructor to writing for their peers. This can also make the writing purpose become more realistic or authentic for the student writers.

The other approach commonly used in genre-specific teaching is a ‘case study approach’, particularly on the story of experienced or professional writers and/or readers (Swales 1990:203). Swales suggests that the case study approach in academic reading and writing is based on the view that students may have different preferred learning styles or strategies; one strategy may be effective for a particular group of students but not for others. According to Swales, observing several different models of how experienced writers and/or readers deal with academic texts, for example, may provide choices for students to follow. Thus, if students are aware of their own preferred learning style or strategy, they may choose one of the models to follow or to adapt in pursuing their own reading and writing work.

A more comprehensive approach to the teaching and learning genre called ‘student as researcher’ is suggested by Johns (1997:92). Johns suggests that the approach is designed specifically ‘...to encourage ongoing student inquiry into texts and genres, their own literary lives, and the literacy practice of others, so that they may be better prepared to position themselves within an academic and other social contexts’ (p:92). The main objective of this approach, according to Johns (1997:93), is to answer the following questions:

1) How can students use texts as catalysts for inquiry? How can they learn from genre examples about text-internal properties?
2) What are some of the text-external features of genres that students might explore?

3) How can we promote student inquiry into the processes and strategies they use to complete reading and writing tasks? How can we encourage them to use their research to expand their strategy repertoires?

4) What are some of the class-external research projects that students can conduct? How can they use interviews and participant observation to achieve their ends?

In this approach students are asked to find out the generic features of a particular genre-specific text, such as an RA with assistance from their instructor. These features include the rhetorical and linguistic features of the text, the external features of the text (eg. the title, the writers and readers, the communicative purposes and the context of situation), the processing strategies for reading and writing the text for the students, and research beyond the classroom (eg. interviewing field-specialists, being a participant observation and visiting a lecture or a lab). Thus, classroom activities according to this approach involves four type of activities, text analysis, reading and writing process analysis, context analysis and interviewing the expert members of a particular genre.

The above three approaches have something in common; all of them involve some kind of rhetorical analysis of the chosen texts of a particular genre by the students. This is done for the purpose of finding out typical rhetorical and important linguistic features of the texts and to make students aware of the features so that they have a set of expectations when reading and/or writing a similar text. This is because with the appropriate expectations on the rhetorical features of texts in a particular genre, students could read and/or write a similar text more effectively. However, a particular approach may be only suitable for a particular group of students and not for the others and a particular approach is more applicable for a particular teaching environment than the others. Thus, the decision on which approach(es) to use for a particular classroom of academic genre teaching will depend on the teachers’
observation and perception on the students’ learning styles, classroom atmosphere and available teaching and/or learning facilities and/or materials. For teaching the RA genre to Indonesian university students, for example, teachers should consider the fact that language classes are usually relatively large due to the limited number of teachers and classrooms and teaching media are rare.

7. 4. Implications for Further Studies

The present study has examined and discussed the rhetorical features of Indonesian RA introductions in details and proposed a model for the text analysis. However, in order to further verify the findings of this study and to have a better knowledge on the rhetorical features and other features of the texts (i.e. linguistic and non-linguistic features), further studies of Indonesian scientific texts are necessary. Several useful topics for the investigation of the Indonesian scientific texts are suggested below.

First, a comparative study on Indonesian RAs from several different disciplines (e.g. the rhetorical features of RAs in social sciences and those in literature or humanities, medical, law, technology or hard and natural sciences) is necessary in order to see the rhetorical similarities and/or differences between the texts. This is because discourse community members in different fields of discipline may have different expectations and parameters on good scientific texts, such as RAs. In addition, if this study uses the PJP model of RA introduction analysis, as proposed in this study, it will help validate or examine the effectiveness of the model when analysing Indonesian RA introductions in disciplinary areas other than social sciences.

Second, it is also important to examine the introduction sections of scientific texts in related genres written in BI, such as the introduction sections of theses or dissertations, research grant proposals, student essays, books and monographs,
abstracts and presentations. The main purpose of this study is to see rhetorical similarities and differences between the introduction sections of RAs and those of other texts in related genres. Also, if the PJP model is used, this study will help examine how this model could fit with the introduction sections of texts in related genres and identify similarities and differences across a range of text types.

Third, a further study could extend the present study by examining the main sections of Indonesian RAs other than the introduction sections; that is the Methods, Results, Discussion, and Conclusion sections. The main purpose of this study would be to find out the specific rhetorical features of the sections of the Indonesian RAs and to see how they are rhetorically related to the introduction sections of the texts. For example, which communicative units (Moves and Steps) found in the introduction sections of the Indonesian RAs (if any) recur in the other sections of the texts.

Several rhetorical studies of Indonesian scientific texts, such as of Wahab (1992) and Soeparno et al. (1987) suggest that the rhetorical pattern of Indonesian scientific texts is in evolution of adopting a more direct rhetorical style as the Indonesian society becomes an urban and industrial society. However, Wahab’s corpus was limited to only texts in one disciplinary area (i.e. conference papers in language related work). It would be interesting to see whether or not such evolution also occurs in other types of academic texts, such as RAs in social sciences, humanities, medical, and hard sciences. In addition, it will be useful to know how much the rhetorical evolution has changed the Indonesian readers’ preference on the rhetorical patterns of scientific texts. In other words, which types of rhetorical patterns (the direct or indirect styles) are found effective or preferable by the Indonesian readers, particularly from the text comprehension point of view.
Finally, it would also be useful to carry out studies examining the linguistic and/or discourse features of Indonesian scientific texts. These studies could examine the use of hedges in claims or propositions, the use of passive and active voices, the use of reporting and non-reporting verbs in reviewing items of previous studies, the use of different patterns of definitions of key terms or the use of different cohesive markers in ensuring the coherence of the texts. This is because these linguistic features are important parameters for the quality of scientific texts, at least from text rhetorical point of view. In other words, the use of appropriate linguistic and discourse features is an important determinant of the quality of the scientific texts.

7.5. Concluding Remarks

The emphasis of linguistic studies of BI, so far, has been on the attempt to standardise the language in terms syntax, lexis, morphology and phonology. However, studies on the actual use and function of the language, such as those in discourse analytic studies is relatively rare. Heryanto (1995), for example, claims that from the theoretical point of views, Indonesian language development may have been relatively successful but from the language use point of view, the development programs are far from successful. In other words, information about how Indonesian people use the Indonesian language in different contexts and for different purposes is equally important for the purpose of the language development program. Therefore, future studies on BI should include the investigation of data (written and/or spoken texts of BI) used in a particular contexts, such as those used in this dissertation.
APPENDIX I.

THE DISTRIBUTION AND PATTERN OF MOVES OF CREATE A RESEARCH SPACE (CARS) MODEL IN THE INDONESIAN RESEARCH ARTICLE INTRODUCTIONS

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## II. Economics (ECO.)

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**APPENDIX 2**

**THE DISTRIBUTION OF MOVES AND STEPS OF PROBLEM JUSTIFYING PROJECT (PJP) MODEL IN THE INDONESIAN RESEARCH ARTICLE INTRODUCTIONS**

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M = Move
BIBLIOGRAPHY


LIST OF SOURCES

I. EDUCATION RESEARCH ARTICLES


II. PSYCHOLOGY RESEARCH ARTICLES


**III. ECONOMICS RESEARCH ARTICLES**


