

Disciplinary and Gender Interactions: Corpus Analysis of Stance and Engagement in L2 Research Articles

Amany Youssef
Helwan University, Egypt

Abstract: *This study investigates the use of certain features of authorial stance and engagement in 40 recently published research articles in the disciplines of linguistics and literature written in English by male and female native speakers of Egyptian Arabic. The study adopts Hyland's (2005b) Model of Interaction, complements it with his (1998b) Model of Scientific Hedging, and proposes an extension of the latter model to boosting devices. The freeware corpus analytic toolkit AntConc is used for concordancing and text analysis. The results revealed clear cross-disciplinary effects but only limited gender effects with regard to the type and frequency of the metadiscursive features under study. Furthermore, certain metadiscursive choices by writers in linguistics and literature were observed to be consistent with the discourse of empirical and non-empirical sciences, respectively.*

Keywords: L2 metadiscourse, authorial stance, reader engagement, hedging, self-mention, corpus analysis

1. Introduction

This paper joins the ongoing research on emerging areas in metadiscourse, or 'discourse about discourse' (Hyland 1998c: 437), where studies on the academic writing genre often contrasted the metadiscourse of research articles (RAs) belonging to different disciplines (Hyland 1998a, 2005b; Musa 2014); published in different languages (Andrusenko 2015); and written by native (L1) vs. non-native (L2) writers (Attarn 2014; Yagiz and Demir 2014; Hu and Cao 2011; Zarei and Mansoori 2011a, 2011b), and by male vs. female writers (Tse and Hyland 2008, Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi 2015).

The present study has been motivated by the often uncertain conventions of authorial identity in the Egyptian context, particularly when writing in English¹. On one extreme there are those academic writers that assume a traditional position, aiming for author-evacuated prose in pursuit of formality, neutrality, and objectivity. On the other, there are those that seek a clear authorial self, maximizing involvement in the text and with the reader in a persuasive endeavor. While, in other cultures, such tension was observed to be resolving towards a clearer authorial voice (Hyland 2002, 2005b), it would be interesting to observe where male and female Egyptian researchers writing in English have recently situated themselves on a presumed continuum of authorial identity and engagement. To embark on such investigation, 40 single-authored RAs written in English by 40 Egyptian researchers in the disciplines of

linguistics and literature, the two co-existent disciplines in almost all English departments in Egyptian governmental universities, have been randomly collected from Egyptian universities published periodical journals and conference proceedings between 2011 and 2014 (see Section 4 and Appendices A-D).

The theoretical framework adopted here integrates Hyland's (2005b) *Model of Interaction* which caters to both stance and engagement with Hyland's (1998b) *Model of Scientific Hedging* (see Section 2), which is further extended here to boosting, as shown in Section 5.1. For concordancing and text-analysis, the freeware corpus-analytic toolkit *AntConc* has been used. Graph generation and calculations of total counts (T), relative frequencies (R), and density of tokens (D) were made through Microsoft *Excel*.

The study offers a fine-grained analysis of the use of certain metadiscursive features of stance (namely, boosting, Section 5.1; hedging, Section 5.2; and writer's presence, Section 5.3) and engagement (reader mention in Section 5.4 and directives in Section 5.5). A brief overall view is presented in Section 5.6.

2. Theoretical framework

Hyland's (2005b) *Model of Interaction* in academic texts (Figure 1) focuses on the interactional dimension² of metadiscourse as encompassing the actual communicative functions that establish an author's stance and enables him/her to engage with the reader. This model is based on an analysis of interaction in 240 published RAs from eight disciplines (See section 3; Review of Literature).

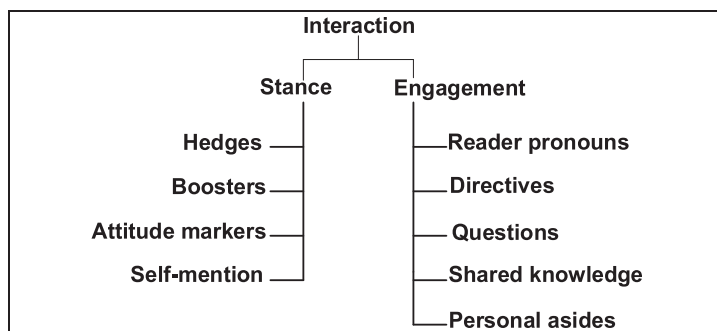


Figure 1. Hyland's Model of Interaction (2005b: 177)

As illustrated in Figure 1, the interactional categories are divided under the two components of (writer-oriented) *stance* and (reader-oriented) *engagement*. Stance, according to Hyland (2005b), is an author's 'intersubjective positioning' or 'textual voice' through which s/he may present themselves as community recognized personalities and express attitudinal judgments and opinions mainly on the ideas discussed in their text. Stance is further sub-divided into: evidentiality, affect, and presence. Evidentiality enables a writer to express the degree of his/her

commitment towards the accuracy and reliability of a proposition through increasing or reducing the force of statements by use of boosters/intensifiers (e.g. *clearly, of course, demonstrate*) and hedges/downtoners (e.g. *possible, might, perhaps*), respectively. By reducing the force of statements, hedges enable writers to report viewpoints and results with more precision and caution, hence reducing the risk of opposition, and opening a discursive space with readers. Conversely, booster-enhanced propositions indicate a writer's persuasively confident knowledge, other voices being weakened or dismissed. Due to function overlap of metadiscursive markers, boosters also appeal to shared knowledge with the reader (Hyland 2005a). Affect functions through attitude markers (e.g. *agree, fortunately, important*) to further assist writers in expressing a position towards their material and enhancing solidarity with the reader. Presence, or self-mention, simply concerns the extent to which the writer chooses to be visible in the text. It is realized through first person pronouns or through explicit reference to *the researcher, the author*.

Engagement with the reader is what Hyland (2005b) refers to as an alignment dimension where writers “acknowledge and connect to others, ..., focusing their attention, ..., including them as discourse participants” (p. 176). In other words, engagement implies imagining “a second voice” (Kroll 1984: 181) in the text and attempting to relate to and interact with it. Engagement may be realized in academic text explicitly through reader markers such as direct reference to *(the) reader** and through reader pronouns (e.g. *you* and *your*). Less explicit engagement involves the use of directives, questions, shared knowledge, and personal asides.

In order to inter-relate the features of stance and engagement which were presented rather independently in Hyland (2005b), the present study adopts Hyland's (1998b) *Model of Scientific Hedging* proposed to capture the poly-pragmatic nature of hedges. Hyland (1998b; see Figure 2) classified hedges into: content-oriented hedges and reader-oriented hedges. The latter, usually expressed through epistemic lexical verbs (e.g. *we suggest, we believe*), signal claims as just personal opinions not facts, hence involving the readers in a dialogue as thoughtful individuals who can judge the truth value of the proposition and entertain alternative viewpoints.

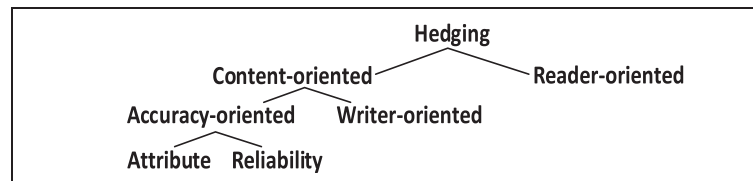


Figure 2. Hyland's Model of Scientific Hedging (1998b: 156)

Content-oriented hedges, which “serve to mitigate the relationship between propositional content and a non-linguistic mental representation of reality” (Hyland 1998b: 162), are further divided into accuracy-oriented hedges and writer-oriented hedges. The latter allow the writer to protect him-/herself from any probable falsification of the proposition by minimizing their

involvement in the proposition and distancing themselves from it. Avoiding self-mention and instead using abstract rhetors (e.g. *The study proposes ...*) is one way of realizing writer-oriented hedges. Accuracy-oriented hedges, on the other hand, reflect the “writer’s desire to express propositions with greater precision” (ibid).

Accuracy-oriented hedges are further divided into attribute and reliability hedges. Attribute hedges (e.g. *generally, normally, quite, almost, more or less*) enable writers to “limit the scope of the accompanying statement” (Hyland 1998a: 363) by specifying more accurately how far such statements “approximate to an idealized state” (Hyland 1998b: 164). Reliability hedges (e.g. *possible, might*), on the other hand, reveal a writer’s uncertain knowledge and cast doubt on the level of confidence in the validity of a claim by enabling him/her to “express simple subjective uncertainty in a proposition” (Hyland 1998b: 166) perhaps in pursuit of scientific caution.

3. Review of literature

Numerous studies have investigated metadiscourse in academic writing. In the present review, I will focus on those that investigated all or certain of the interactional metadiscursive features of stance and engagement that constitute Hyland’s (2005b) *Model of Interaction* and/or his (1998b) *Model of Scientific Hedging*. A common, and perhaps a unifying, feature in all studies reviewed here is their use of corpus analytic concordance tools.

Cross-disciplinary studies revealed clear disciplinary effects with regard to the frequency and type of metadiscursive markers. Based on an analysis of a corpus of 56 RAs from eight different disciplines, Hyland (1998a) found that writers in the soft sciences (which included linguistics under his classification), who took less for granted, used both boosters and hedges (especially attribute hedges) more frequently than did their counterparts in the hard sciences. The latter portrayed their evaluations impersonally with less writer visibility. These findings were corroborated in a more recent study by Hyland (2005b) who developed the *Model of Interaction* based on a larger corpus of 240 RAs from the same eight disciplines. Hyland (2005b) further found that writers of the soft sciences showed more engagement through extensive use of reader pronouns which served in appealing to scholarly solidarity. Further cross-disciplinary effects were observed by Musa (2014) who reported more frequent use of hedges in chemistry than in English Masters’ theses.

As for writers’ nativeness, L1 and L2 metadiscourses were set in contrast by Attarn (2014) who studied both interactional and interactive metadiscourse markers in the discussion sections of 30 English for Specific Purposes articles published in English: 15 written by native speakers of English and 15 by Iranian native speakers of Persian. With regard to interactional features, self-mention was significantly higher with English writers than with their Iranian counterparts. Furthermore, hedges were the leading category in both groups. In another study, Yagiz and Demir (2014) investigated the use of hedging by Turkish and “Anglo-sphere” scholars in an equally-divided corpus of 100 RAs

on English Language Teaching (ELT) published in English. Results based on studying the introduction, discussion, and conclusion sections revealed that both groups employed hedging the least in the introduction section and the most in the discussion section. Indeed, authors would be less likely to hedge in the introduction section where they would usually establish an "early niche" (Salager-Meyer, 1994) for their research, as opposed to the discussion section where caution would be more desirable. Overall, Yagiz and Demir (2014) found that L1 writers used hedging more frequently than L2 writers. This latter finding lends support to Hyland's (2002) and Hu and Cao's (2011) studies where lack of facility in English was claimed to be the reason that L2 writers used hedging (as well as boosting) less frequently than did their L1 counterparts.

Cross-linguistic studies compared certain metadiscursive features in the academic writing of native speakers of several languages. Samaie et al. (2014), for example, focused on the types and frequency of hedges in the introduction section of 40 academic RAs in the discipline of literature: 20 written in English by native English speakers and 20 written in Persian by Persian native speakers. English writers were found to be more likely to use modal auxiliaries, evidential main verbs, adjectives and nouns in making claims and rejecting or confirming the ideas of others than were Persian writers. This finding was in line with that of Zarei and Mansoori's (2011b) study which investigated both interactional and interactive metadiscourse features in the same two L1s (English vs. Persian) with regard to 10 equally divided RAs in the discipline of computer engineering. Zarei and Mansoori found that while English writers mostly used hedges and evidentials to express their views with more caution and dependence on documented facts, Persian writers frequently employed boosters to express their views more directly. Another finding was that English writers used more interactional features, especially engagement markers which signaled their keenness on establishing a relationship with the readers. To the language contrast in their (2011b) study, Zarei and Mansoori (2011a) added a discipline contrast by including nine research papers in applied linguistics as representative of a humanities field: four written in English and five written in Persian. Across both languages, writers in the humanities field displayed more reliance on metadiscursive features than did their computer engineering counterparts. This was viewed as a 'compensatory measure' by the humanities writers for the scarcity of quantitative data in this field. Quite a contrary result was reported in the field of applied linguistics by Hu and Cao (2011) who found that empirical RAs used significantly more boosters than those of non-empirical academic articles. Hu and Cao (2011) contrasted L1 hedging and boosting strategies in English and Chinese in 649 applied linguistics abstracts. In line with Zarei and Mansoori's (2011a) study, however, Hu and Cao (2011) found that English writers featured markedly more hedges than did their Chinese counterparts. Spanish and Arabic were set in contrast by Andrusenko (2015) who focused on the use of hedges in a corpus of 90 linguistics articles. She found that the overall use of hedges in the Spanish RAs was higher than that in the Arabic ones.

Gender was explored by very few studies as one of the social factors that constrain the writer's construction of an authorial identity in academics; however, more studies investigated the effect of gender on the rhetorical choices in oral communication. Regardless of the mode of communication, two positions were pronounced: an 'essentialist' view of gender where rigid differences between the genders are emphasized (Lakoff 1973, Tannen 2003, Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi 2015) and a less deterministic view where the ways men and women use language are not 'determined' by their gender but rather "constructed, negotiated, and transformed through social practices informed by particular social settings, relations of power, and participation in disciplinary discourses" (Tse and Hyland 2008: 1246). In an early study by Lakoff (1973), it was found that in appropriate women's speech, there was a tendency to express uncertainty and avoid strong expression of feeling due to the fact that women's "social roles are derivative and dependent in relation to men [and their identity] ... is [thus] linguistically submerged" (p. 45). Gender inequalities were echoed in Tannen's (2003) work on male and female interaction styles where men's speech was characterized by dominance and competition while women's speech by connection and facilitation. More recently, Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi (2015), in their study of the abstract and discussion sections of 40 English Language Teaching RAs by native speakers of Persian, reported that Iranian males preferred to use boosters while Iranian females were more inclined to use hedges. In a more fine-grained study by Tse and Hyland (2008), the gender factor was cross-cut by a disciplinary difference in a corpus of academic book reviews and interviews with academics from Philosophy and Biology. The corpus was searched for both interactive and interactional metadiscursive features. Male reviewers employed more of almost every interactional metadiscourse feature across both disciplines. With regard to self-mention, however, philosophy male reviewers displayed a frequency twice as much as that of their female counterparts. Male reviewers in biology, by contrast, employed self-mention 20% less than their female counterparts. The results of the present study (Section 5) lend support to Tse and Hyland's (2008) study but in relation to the disciplines of linguistics and literature³.

4. Methodology

With a view to offering balanced discipline and writer's gender contrast, the data comprises 40 single-authored research articles (RAs) written in English in linguistics and literature by 40 male and female Egyptian researchers over the past five years. The articles were randomly collected from periodical journals and conference proceedings published by three governmental universities: Cairo University, Ain Shams University, and Helwan University. Table 1 offers a summary of the four corpora (Ling(uistics)-M(ale), Ling(uistics)-F(emale), Lit(erature)-M(ale), and Lit(erature)-F(emale)) and Appendices A-D contain citations of the RAs used.

Only five of the 40 RAs were available in electronic version over the internet. The remaining 35 RAs were manually scanned as searchable PDF

documents and then converted into Plain Text format to be fed to the concordance program, the freeware corpus analytic toolkit *AntConc*. Search lists that included the linguistic expressions (i.e. markers) of the features under study were compiled from previous research studies particularly Hyland (1998a, 1998b, 2005a, 2005b) as well as from the most frequent items in the corpora. Search items were frequently fed as wild cards in order for *AntConc* to pick all the possible completions of the word. For example, by feeding the wild card *establish**, the search hits would target the expressions *establish*, *establishes*, *established*, *establishing*, *establishment*.

Table 1. Four corpora contrasting discipline and writer's gender

Writers groups	Number of RAs	Word count	Total WC
Ling-M	10	63,940	260,986
Ling-F	10	69,035	
Lit-M	10	66,487	
Lit-F	10	61,524	

Before running the searches, bibliographies, tables, figures, appendices and almost all quotations and examples were deleted from the corpora in order to minimize false hits. A false hit would target a linguistic expression that is not functioning as metadiscourse in a certain rhetorical context. For example, in Ali (2011: 69; see Appendix B), frequent recurrence of Obama's famous statement "Yes, we can" would have resulted in false hits of inclusive *we* which should rather be considered an essential part of the proposition. Hence, manual context-sensitive analysis was carried out for each occurrence of the targeted markers to determine whether an item has a metadiscursive function (i.e. is a viable token of a marker) or expressing propositional material (i.e. should be ignored).

To allow meaningful interpretation of the results, both the relative frequency (R) and normalized density (D) of tokens (or, sets of tokens) were calculated. The relative frequency (R) reflects the percentage the counts in each corpus in relation to the total counts across the four corpora. This would reveal the individual behavior of each group of writers (Ling-M, Ling-F, Lit-M, or Lit-F) in relation to that of other groups. The density (D) of a set of tokens would indicate their frequency within each individual corpus. Given the variation in the number of words across the four corpora (see Table 1), density (D) has been calculated per each 1000 words, which is a well-established procedure in corpus studies (Samaie et al., 2014). *MS Excel* has been used in generating the graph in Section 5.6 and in calculating total counts, R, and D for the whole analysis. An example illustrating the calculation procedure for R and D is provided in Section 5.1 in relation to the results in Table 2.

5. Analysis and discussion

The research articles (RAs) under study represent two seemingly similar disciplines: linguistics and literature. Both disciplines have often been classified as belonging to the 'soft' sciences of humanities. In the present study, however, the results suggest clear disciplinary variation in the use of certain features of

authorial stance and engagement. The features analyzed here are boosters (Section 5.1), hedges (Section 5.2), writer's presence (Section 5.3), reader mention (Section 5.4), and directives (Section 5.4). A brief overall view is presented in Section 5.6.

Perhaps a prior note on hedges and boosters is in order for, in addition to their primary function of mitigating or increasing the illocutionary force of speech acts, they help reveal writers' attitude towards themselves (writer-oriented devices), their readers (reader-oriented devices), and their propositions (accuracy-oriented devices). In the following two sub-section, the polypragmatic classification of hedges (Hyland 1998b; see Section 2 above) is extended to boosters and is cross-cut by grammatical category classification assumed in Hyland (1996).

5.1. Boosters

Mirror-imaging Hyland's (1998b) *Model of Scientific Hedging* (see Section 2), we propose that, in the case of boosting lexical verbs, writers would claim responsibility for their propositions through clearer writer visibility in writer-oriented boosters, and, contrastively, distance themselves from propositions through impersonalization in reader-oriented boosters with a view to open dialogue and enhance engagement. Applied to the examples extracted from the present corpora, we find that in (1), writer-oriented boosters involve using the writer as agent whether in the form of a first person pronoun (1a) or a noun phrase (1b). In (2), reader-oriented boosting is achieved when the grammatical context reduces the force of or hedges the relevant markers. In (2a) *as I argue elsewhere* is placed as a parenthetical interjection which, according to Hyland (1998b), makes it a 'personal aside,' marking the proposition as just a personal opinion to engage the reader as judge to its validity. Other reader-oriented boosters were realized through the use of evidential constructions (2b), abstract rhetors as agents (2c), abstract part-genre rhetors as agents (2d), an endophoric marker (e.g. *table, figure, example*) as agent (2e), or through participial forms (2f).

(1) Writer-oriented boosters

- a. "*As far as the study of promotional news is concerned, I found that the study of signs ... is relevant.*" (Ling-F)
- b. "*The researcher argues that Charteris-Black's Critical Metaphor Analysis can be applied not only to the texts, but also to semiotic and pictorial elements*" (Ling-F)

(2) Reader-oriented (hedged) boosters

- a. "*Semantic prosody, as I argue elsewhere, can also be used effectively...*" (Ling-F)
- b. "*It is argued that both short tales can be seen as a "romanesque adaptation" ...*" (Lit-M)

- c. "The study concludes that it would be expected that news coverage in Arab media should reflect a counter-ideology to Western discourse." (Ling-M)
- d. "The results of the study demonstrate that the TV advertisements selected for analysis ..." (Ling-F)
- e. "Table (6) shows that certainty ADVs amount to 14 occurrences ..." (Ling-M)
- f. "Having established this analogy, I move on to contextualize the work of Lorde ..." (Lit-F)

As indicated in Table 2, all writer groups predominantly used reader-oriented epistemic lexical boosting verbs; writer-oriented verbs were very scarce in the corpora. Clear disciplinary effects have been observed where linguistics writers used boosting lexical verbs four times as often as their literature counterparts.

To further explain the layout of the results in the table, "*" signals a wild card (see Section 4), T represents total raw counts, D is the normalized density of counted tokens per 1000 words in each corpus, and R is the relative frequency of counts within an individual corpus in relation to counts across all four corpora. T is derived through manual context-sensitive screening of *AntConc* results, which are then summed through *Excel*. D is calculated through *Excel* multiplying T by 1000 then dividing by the number of words (WC) of an individual corpus. For example, D in the Ling-M group is calculated by multiplying T (136) by 1000 then dividing by the WC of the Ling-M corpora (63940 from Table 1) through the *Excel* formula ($=136*1000/63940$). R for Ling-M is calculated by multiplying T (136) by 100 and then dividing by 275, giving 52%. Put simply, Ling-M alone produced 52% of all counted tokens of epistemic boosting verbs; and Ling-M and Ling-F combined produced 81% thereof. This is corroborated through the D values, where, for example, Ling-M used boosting epistemic verbs twice every 1000 words, i.e. twice as frequently as Ling-F did, and four times as frequently as each of the Lit-M and Lit-F groups did.

In Table 2, the high frequency of the verb *show** is due to frequent endophoric expressions like "*The table shows ...*", see example (2e) above. Manual context-sensitive screening allowed the exclusion of instances of *found* with the meaning of 'situated/attested' (e.g. "*Similar contradictory statements ... are found in Gnostic*" (Lit-M)) and instances of *realiz** with the meaning of 'assume a linguistic form' (e.g. "*The direct object is realized as a clause*" (Ling-F)).

In Table 2, the high frequency of the verb *show** is due to frequent endophoric expressions like "*The table shows ...*", see example (2e) above. Manual context-sensitive screening allowed the exclusion of instances of *found* with the meaning of 'situated/attested' (e.g. "*Similar contradictory statements ... are found in Gnostic*" (Lit-M)) and instances of *realiz** with the meaning of 'assume a linguistic form' (e.g. "*The direct object is realized as a clause*" (Ling-F)).

Table 2. Epistemic lexical boosting verbs, Wr-Or vs. Rd-O

No.	Markers	Writers groups								Totals
		Ling-M		Ling-F		Lit-M		Lit-F		
		Wr-Or	Rd-Or	Wr-Or	Rd-Or	Wr-Or	Rd-Or	Wr-Or	Rd-Or	
1.	show*	0	67	1	12	0	2	0	5	87
2.	find*/found	1	16	6	8	1	3	1	5	41
3.	establish*	0	13	0	10	0	1	0	2	26
4.	argue*	0	6	1	8	0	8	0	2	25
5.	demonstr*	0	9	0	12	0	2	0	0	23
6.	prove*	0	14	0	3	0	1	0	2	20
7.	conclude*	1	2	0	7	0	3	0	3	16
8.	emphasiz*	0	4	0	3	0	3	0	3	13
9.	realiz*	0	2	0	0	0	1	0	1	4
10.	decid*	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	2
Total		2	134	9	63	1	24	1	23	257
T		136		72		25		24		
D		2.1		1.0		0.4		0.4		
R (%)		52		27		10		9		
By Discipline		81%				19%				

Disciplinary effects were also observed with regard to the use of boosting adjectives and adverb, which in addition to their basic function as boosting devices, may also indicate reference to shared knowledge with the reader (engagement). With regard to boosting adjectives, Table 3 indicates that Ling-M continue to be the leading group but not by a wide margin. Within disciplines, gender effects can only slightly be observed, where male writers displayed slightly higher use of boosting adjectives than their female counterparts. A common concern for clarity is supported by the fact that the most preferred expression across all groups was *clear* due to recurrence of the expression “*It is clear that ...*”.

Table 3. Boosting adjectives

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>clear</i>	25	23	19	15	82
2.	<i>obvious</i>	7	3	9	2	21
3.	<i>evident</i>	9	5	3	6	23
4.	<i>definite</i>	4	5	0	0	9
5.	<i>conclusive</i>	1	1	1	1	4
6.	<i>certain</i>	1	0	0	0	1
T		47	37	32	24	140

D	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.4
R (%)	34	26	23	17
R by Discipline	60%		40%	

With regard to boosting adverbs (Table 4), gender effects were observed, where female writers were more frequent users than their male counterparts in both disciplines, particularly more so in literature. Lit-F displayed three times the D of their male counterparts. Ling-F and Lit-F combined produced 67% of the tokens in this category.

Table 4. Boosting adverbs

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>clearly</i>	6	14	6	10	36
2.	<i>In fact</i>	4	8	4	19	35
3.	<i>indeed</i>	5	5	4	15	29
4.	<i>obviously</i>	5	8	7	3	23
5.	<i>certainly</i>	2	2	0	3	7
6.	<i>No doubt</i>	1	5	0	1	7
7.	<i>definitely</i>	1	0	0	4	5
8.	<i>of course</i>	3	1	0	0	4
T		27	43	21	55	146
D		0.4	0.6	0.3	0.9	
R (%)		18	29	14	38	
						67%

It may be concluded thus far that linguistics writers write with more conviction and show stronger commitment to their propositions than their literature counterparts. All groups, however, have minimized their involvement in the proposition (see Table 2) by masking their presence as agents to boosting verbs, producing rather reader-oriented propositions that are geared towards more reader engagement. More interesting conclusions can be drawn through the following summary table.

Table 5. All boosters

Categories	Writers groups								Total Ts
	Ling-M		Ling-F		Lit-M		Lit-F		
	T	D	T	D	T	D	T	D	
Verbs	136	2.1	72	1.0	30	0.4	24	0.4	98
Adj.	49	0.7	34	0.5	32	0.5	23	0.4	140
Adv.	69	0.4	70	0.6	53	0.3	72	0.9	146
T	126		107		63		88		384
R (%)	33		28		16		23		
R Discipline	61%				39%				

Through Table 5 disciplinary effects were observed when combining results (Rs) across all booster categories, where Ling-M and Ling-F combined

produced 61% of all the boosting markers in the four corpora. Furthermore, when comparing the boosting category preferences for each group, it can be observed that while linguistics writers had common category preferences, Lit-M and Lit-F showed different preferences. Linguistics writers preferred boosting through verbs (with a D of 2.1 for Ling-M, for example) than through adjectives or adverbs. Lit-M preferred boosting through adverbs (D = 0.9) while Lit-F displayed almost balanced use of boosting categories.

5.2. Hedges

Disciplinary effects were observed with regard to the use of hedging modal verbs as shown in Table 6, where linguistics writers combined produced 60% of the tokens across the four corpora.

Table 6. Hedging modal verbs

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>may</i>	61	60	64	34	219
2.	<i>might</i>	5	17	15	11	48
3.	<i>would</i>	26	24	32	33	115
4.	<i>can</i>	155	157	94	50	456
5.	<i>could</i>	18	17	14	47	96
6.	<i>should</i>	65	30	20	22	137
T		330	305	239	197	1071
D		5.2	4.4	3.6	3.2	
R (%)		31	28	22	18	
R by Discipline		60%		40%		

Across all four groups of writers, the most preferred hedging modal is *can* which clustered with *be* with a frequency of 224 (as shown in the *AntConc* snap in Figure 3) out of a total of 456 occurrences calculated from Table 6. The cluster *can be* is indicative of passive constructions which result in less agentive visibility, allowing a writer to open a less restrictive discursive space with the reader.

Corpus Files		Concordance	Concordance Plot	File View	Clusters/N-Grams
Ling_Female.txt		Total No. of Cluster Types 167		Total No. of Clust	
Ling_Male.txt		Rank	Freq	Range	Cluster
Lit_Female.txt		1	224	4	can be
Lit_Male.txt		2	15	2	can also
		3	7	3	can only
		4	7	3	can say
		5	7	3	can see

Figure 3. Clusters with the hedging modal verb *can*

With regard to hedging through epistemic lexical verbs, Table 7 indicates a mirror image to the use of boosting epistemic lexical verbs (see Table 2) with vast predominance of writer-oriented hedging and near absence of reader-

oriented hedging across the four writers groups. In light of Hyland’s (1998b) *Model of Scientific Hedging* (Section 2), such mirror imaging seems to indicate a tendency towards more reader involvement.

Table 7. Hedging epistemic lexical verbs: Wr-Or vs. Rd-Or

No.	Markers	Writers groups								Totals
		Ling-M		Ling-F		Lit-M		Lit-F		
		Wr-Or	Rd-Or	Wr-Or	Rd-Or	Wr-Or	Rd-Or	Wr-Or	Rd-Or	
1.	<i>seem*</i>	27	0	32	0	43	0	21	0	123
2.	<i>suggest*</i>	11	2	20	0	34	0	16	0	83
3.	<i>appear*</i>	2	0	24	0	20	0	8	0	54
4.	<i>assum*</i>	9	0	21	0	1	1	8	0	40
5.	<i>tend* to</i>	11	0	9	0	5	1	5	0	31
6.	<i>believ*</i>	1	0	0	7	1	5	0	2	16
7.	<i>suppos*</i>	0	2	2	0	2	0	3	0	9
8.	<i>guess*</i>	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	1	3
Total		61	4	108	7	107	8	61	3	359
T		65		115		115		64		
D		1.0		1.7		1.7		1.0		
R (%)		18		32		32		18		

Neither cross-disciplinary nor gender effects could be observed with regard to the use of hedging epistemic lexical verbs, as shown in Table 7. The most preferred markers were *seem** and *suggest** whose clustering patterns are shown in Figure 4 and Figure 5, respectively.

Corpus Files	Concordance	Concordance Plot	File View	Clusters/N-Grams
Ling_Female.txt	Total No. of Cluster Types 98			Total No. of Clu:
Ling_Male.txt	Rank	Freq	Range	Cluster
Lit_Female.txt	1	30	4	it seems
Lit_Male.txt	2	7	3	he seems
	3	3	3	they seem
	4	3	2	which seems
	5	2	2	and seem

Figure 4. Clusters with *seem**

From Figure 4 we can observe that left-side clustering pattern of *seem** revealed that the highest cluster with a frequency of 30 occurrences (i.e., 24% of total occurrences of *seem**) was *it seems*, which marks evidential constructions with the expletive pronoun *it* as agent. With regard to *suggest* (Figure 5), passive constructions are indicated in *could be suggested* and *it was suggested*. In addition, the clusters *the paper suggests* and *this paper suggests* indicate an abstract rhetor as agent. Evidentials, passives, and abstract agents are characteristic of writer invisibility which keeps recurring in the results of this study.

Corpus Files	Concordance	Concordance Plot	File View	Clusters/N-Grams
Ling_Female.txt	Total No. of Cluster Types 124		Total No. of Clus	
Ling_Male.txt	Rank	Freq	Range	Cluster
Lit_Female.txt	1	4	1	could be suggested
Lit_Male.txt	2	2	1	it was suggested
	3	2	1	power of suggestion
	4	2	1	the paper suggests
	5	2	1	this paper suggests

Figure 5. Clusters with *suggest**

Accuracy-based adverbials revealed clear cross-disciplinary and gender effects. With regard to reliability adverbs (Table 8), male writers across both disciplines showed greater use of reliability adverbs than their female counterparts, with a wider margin in literature. Ling-M and Lit-M combined produced 65% of tokens in this category. This may suggest that male writers wrote with more caution and precision by expressing less confidence in the certainty of their proposition. When writers present their claims “cautiously, accurately and modestly [, they] ... meet discourse community expectations and ... gain acceptance for their statements" (Hyland 1996: 477).

Table 8. Reliability hedges

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>likely</i>	9	7	7	2	25
2.	<i>perhaps</i>	6	2	10	5	23
3.	<i>probably</i>	8	3	4	0	15
4.	<i>apparently</i>	1	5	6	0	12
5.	<i>seemingly</i>	1	2	6	3	12
6.	<i>maybe</i>	1	2	1	1	5
7.	<i>possibly</i>	4	1	0	0	5
8.	<i>presumably</i>	0	2	2	0	4
9.	<i>unlikely</i>	0	0	0	1	1
T		30	24	36	12	102
D		0.5	0.3	0.5	0.2	
R (%)		29	24	35	12	
		65%				

Attribute hedges, which limit the scope of the accompanying statement, have shown clear disciplinary effects (

Table 9). Linguistics writers have made much greater use of attribute hedges than their literature counterparts have. Ling-M and Ling-F combined produced 67% of tokens in this category. This may be explained through the empirical nature of the linguistics discipline, which

requires caution in specifying how their studies approximate to ‘an idealized state’ (Hyland 1998b:164).

Table 9. Attribute hedges

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>usually</i>	20	21	10	5	56
2.	<i>quite</i>	7	10	3	20	40
3.	<i>generally</i>	11	15	8	1	35
4.	<i>almost</i>	6	9	11	5	31
5.	<i>typically</i>	3	9	1	1	14
6.	<i>normally</i>	4	9	0	0	13
7.	<i>largely</i>	6	4	2	0	12
8.	<i>somewhat</i>	1	1	0	1	3
9.	<i>partially</i>	3	0	0	0	3
10.	<i>virtually</i>	2	0	0	0	2
11.	<i>approximately</i>	1	0	0	0	1
T		64	78	35	33	210
D		1.0	1.1	0.5	0.5	
R (%)		30	37	17	16	
R by Discipline		67%		33%		

Examining the overall view of the use of hedging devices in Table 10, we can observe that modals were the highest used hedging category, followed with a wide margin by epistemic lexical verbs. Adverbs came in third place, with attribute adverbs twice as much frequently used as reliability adverbs.

Table 10. All hedges

Categories	Writers groups								Total Ts
	Ling-M		Ling-F		Lit-M		Lit-F		
	T	D	T	D	T	D	T	D	
Modals	330	5.2	305	4.4	239	3.6	197	3.2	1071
Lexical V	65	1.0	115	1.7	115	1.7	64	1.0	359
Relia. Adv	30	0.5	24	0.3	36	0.5	12	0.2	102
Attrb. Adv	64	1.0	78	1.1	35	0.5	33	0.5	210
T	330		522		425		306		1742
R (%)	28		30		24		18		
R by Discipline	58%				42%				

In Table 10, weak cross-disciplinary effects were observed, where linguistics writers produced 58% of the tokens across all hedging categories. Gender effects were observed only within literature writers, where Lit-M used more hedging than did their female counterparts.

5.3. Writer's presence

Several degrees/reflections of writer (in)visibility have been identified in the corpora; see the examples in (1) and (2) in Section 5.1, which are complemented with the examples in (3) below. Self-mention, the most direct realization of a writer's presence has been observed by use of first person pronouns as shown in Table 11.

Table 11. Direct self-mention

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>I</i>	2	10	8	19	39
2.	<i>me</i>	0	0	0	1	1
3.	<i>my</i>	2	5	1	5	13
4.	Exclusive <i>we</i>	5	0	15	0	20
5.	Exclusive <i>us</i>	2	0	0	0	2
6.	Exclusive <i>our</i>	5	3	2	0	10
T		16	18	26	25	85
D		0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	
R (%)		19	21	31	29	
R by Discipline		40%		60%		

As shown in Table 11, no gender effect could be observed. Disciplinary effects were manifested in the fact that literature writers applied direct self-mention more often than did their linguistics counterparts; the former produced 60% of the tokens. It must be noted that, for first person pronouns to be counted, they must refer to the writer of the current text and must be used metadiscursively as shown in (3) below:

- (3) a. "Our research in this case cannot be considered as a study of interference errors ..." (Ling-M)
- b. "My study in this paper focuses on the printed statements or promotional news of Morsi and Shafiq" (Ling-F)
- c. "This, we believe, is a conscious use of light imagery to signify reason against the darkness of brutality." (Lit-M)
- d. "Mahfouz's reply provides the rationale of our investigation." (Lit-F)

The expressions *our research*, *my study*, and *our investigation* in examples in (3a, b, d, respectively) combine direct self-mention through the use of first person exclusive pronouns (*our*, *my*, and *our*, respectively) with less direct (hedged) writer presence through the use of abstract rhetors (*research*, *study*, and *investigation*, respectively). In (3c), the first person pronoun, *we* (exclusive), was used in the context of a personal aside.

Less direct forms of writer's presence have been observed through the use of the generic pronoun *one* (see Moltmann (2006) for a discussion of the generic *one* as a complex variable showing a special connection to the first person, the agent) and reference to the writer as a third person like *the writer* or *the researcher* as shown in Table 12.

Table 12. Less direct writer presence

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>one</i>	13	7	23	32	75
2.	<i>researcher</i>	15	11	0	0	26
3.	<i>writer</i>	0	0	2	1	3
4.	<i>author</i>	0	2	0	0	2
T		28	20	25	33	106
D		0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5	
R (%)		26	19	24	31	

Regardless of gender, literature writers preferred to use the generic pronoun *one* to refer to themselves. Linguistics writers, on the other hand, entertained two preferences: (*the*) *researcher* and *one*. Literature writers never referred to themselves as (*the*) *researcher*, an expression that may be more linked to empirical sciences. Below are illustrative examples:

(4) a. “*Thus one can conclude that the prison writings of these three writers are considered as social documents ... Yet one can safely say that the memoirs of female activists will be increased as a result of their increasing participation in political activities ... However, one wishes that neither males nor females are imprisoned for their political activities.*” (Lit-F)

b. “*The researcher will apply an image schematic structure to the narrative under investigation ...*” (Ling-M)

In (4a), the Lit-F writer produces a sequence of three tokens of *one*.

Table 13. Abstract rhetors as agents

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>research</i>	5	16	8	0	29
2.	<i>paper</i>	22	20	13	12	67
3.	<i>study</i>	53	31	12	8	104
4.	<i>article</i>	0	0	2	3	5
5.	<i>essay</i>	0	0	1	1	2
6.	<i>results</i>	13	6	0	0	19
7.	<i>analysis</i>	12	19	0	0	31
8.	<i>discussion</i>	1	2	0	0	3
9.	<i>conclusion</i>	0	1	1	1	3
T		106	95	37	25	263
D		1.7	1.4	0.6	0.4	
R (%)		40	36	14	10	
R by Discipline		76%		24%		

Impersonalization techniques, where the writer's presence was evaded, included the use of abstract and part-genre rhetors (Table 13). Construction of abstract agents is one strategy "used by the researchers to distance themselves from their claims" (Hyland 1998b: 126).

As shown in Table 13, abstract and part genre rhetors were used considerably more frequently by linguistics writers who produced 76% of the tokens, than by their literature counterparts. Cross-disciplinary effects were further observed in the writers' preferences of markers. In Table 13, it can be seen that while linguistics writers preferred *the/this study*, literature writers, on the other hand, preferred *the/this paper*. Furthermore, only linguistics writers used part-genre abstract agents such as *results* and *analysis*. These preferences reflect the empirical nature of research in linguistics which usually involves studies, results, and analyses. Research in literature, on the other hand, is typically non-empirical, i.e. not based on an experimental study, and literature research papers are usually written in the form of continuous (un-sectionized) essays, which renders part genre agents irrelevant.

A panoramic view of the behavior of each group with regard to writer (in)visibility can be achieved through comparing the Ds as shown in Table 14

Table 14. Ds compared for writer's presence

Categories	Writers groups			
	Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F
	D	D	D	D
Direct self-mention	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4
Less direct self-mention	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.5
Combining direct & less-direct self-M	0.7	0.6	0.8	0.9
Abstract and part-genre rhetors	1.7	1.4	0.6	0.4

It can be concluded from the table that, regardless of gender, linguistics writers have made much greater use of abstract and part-genre rhetors as agents than of direct and less direct self-mention, even when the last two categories were combined (as calculated through *Excel*). This may indicate a tendency for writing more cautiously by distancing themselves from claims and reported results. Literature writers, by contrast, made greater use of self-mention than of abstract and part-genre rhetors, an expected pattern as explained above for a non-empirical discipline.

5.4. Reader mention

Due to the common phenomenon of overlapping functions of metadiscursive markers (noted in Section 2), reference to reader engagement has already been made in previous sub-sections of the analysis. In this sub-section, other forms of reader engagement are discussed.

Perhaps the most direct form of reader mention is through referring to the *reader** and through addressing the reader by using reader pronouns *you*, *your*, as well as inclusive *we*, *us*, *our* which also function as solidarity markers. In

Table 15, cross-disciplinary effects could be observed, where literature writers combined produced 60% of reader inclusion in their texts. Gender effects were observed only within linguistics writers, where Ling-F displayed almost double the frequency of that produced by Ling-M (examine the respective R and D values).

Table 15. Direct reference to *the reader*

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>reader*</i>	18	40	32	88	178
2.	<i>you</i>	0	3	0	0	3
3.	<i>your</i>	0	2	0	0	2
4.	Inclusive <i>we</i>	33	64	46	19	162
5.	Inclusive <i>us</i>	11	4	38	20	73
6.	Inclusive <i>our</i>	5	13	29	12	59
T		67	126	145	139	477
D		1.0	1.8	2.2	2.3	
R (%)		14	26	30	29	
R by Discipline		40%		60%		

To further scrutinize the results on reader inclusion in Table 15, it would be interesting to note that while Lit-F were the group with the highest number of *reader**, closer examination of the concordance context of *reader**, revealed that Lit-F were relatively the least in constructing the reader as agent of cognitive acts as shown in Table 16.

Table 16. *reader** as agent of cognitive acts

<i>reader*</i>	Writers groups			
	Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F
Total T of <i>reader*</i>	18	40	32	88
T of <i>reader*</i> as agent of cog. acts	7	10	5	10
R of <i>reader*</i> as agent of cog. acts	39%	25%	16%	11%

Ling-M displayed the highest percentage of delegating cognitive acts to readers (39%) with 7 out of 18 occurrences, hence involving the reader as participant in the perception of propositions. In fact, both Ling-M and Ling-F linked the reader to cognitive acts relatively more frequently than did their literature counterparts. Below are illustrative examples:

(5) **Examples on *reader** as agent of cognitive acts:**

- a. "The reader can infer extra meanings ... from his knowledge of what precedes the linguistic exchange." (Ling-M)
- b. "... new information that adds a kind of contradiction to what the reader has perceived from the previous sentence. (Ling-F)

5.5. Directives

Another form of reader engagement was observed through the use of directives to textual acts like *see* and to cognitive acts such as *note* and *consider* as shown in Table 17 and Table 18, respectively.

Table 17. Reader directives to textual acts

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>see</i>	13	13	3	6	35
2.	<i>find</i>	2	1	0	1	4
3.	<i>notice</i>	4	0	0	0	4
4.	<i>refer to</i>	1	1	0	0	2
T		20	15	3	7	45
D		0.31	0.22	0.05	0.11	
R (%)		44	33	7	16	
R by Discipline		78%		22%		

Table 18: Reader directives to cognitive acts

No.	Markers	Writers groups				Totals
		Ling-M	Ling-F	Lit-M	Lit-F	
1.	<i>consider</i>	2	10	0	0	12
2.	<i>note</i>	6	1	1	2	10
3.	<i>notice</i>	0	0	0	1	1
4.	<i>compare</i>	0	0	1	0	1
5.	<i>imagine</i>	0	0	0	1	1
T		8	11	2	4	25
D		0.13	0.16	0.03	0.07	
R (%)		32	44	8	16	
R by Discipline		76%		24%		

As can be deduced from the results in Table 17 and Table 18, linguistics writers, at least three times more often than their literature counterparts, directed their readers to textual as well as cognitive acts, establishing dialogic engagement. The markedly higher use of directives to textual acts by linguistics writers can be viewed as a logical result since linguistics writers often refer readers to tables, and figures (see Section 5.1 for reference to endophoric expressions).

Personal asides were noted in the corpora, yet it was very challenging to search for its markers since *AntConc* is not supported by an elaborate punctuation identifier. For example, it does not recognize a comma that would mark an interjection. Yet, several examples were manually identified where personal asides appeared as an interjection as in “*In an interview, as mentioned above, the former Egyptian Information Minister ...*” (Ling-M) and as a bracketed phrase as in “*Observing (as always) the wreckage of a catastrophe ...*” (Lit-M).

5.6. An overall view

Before closing, I would like to present a brief overall view of the relative frequency (R) of the total counts of the markers of stance and engagement across the four writers groups as shown in Figure 6.

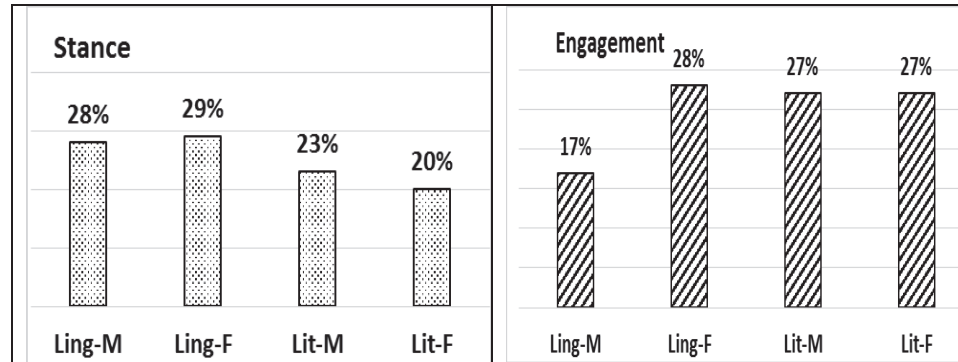


Figure 6. Overall view of stance and engagement markers Rs

On the overall, linguistics writers resorted to markers of stance more frequently than did their literature counterparts (see Sections 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3). In terms of engagement markers, Ling-M were the least frequent users as seen against the uniformly higher frequencies by the other groups. Yet, as shown in Section 5.4, Ling-M most frequently constructed the reader as participant in the perception of the propositions presented. Much more could be said about this and other aspects of the analysis, yet practical considerations of space and time have dictated otherwise.

6. Conclusion

This paper presented a fine-grained corpus-based investigation of the effect of disciplinary and gender variation on the use of selected metadiscursive features of authorial stance and engagement in 40 research articles by Egyptian researchers as they wrote in a second language, English. The paper pioneered a contrast between the two disciplines of linguistics and literature which would traditionally be grouped together under the soft sciences of humanities. Evidence for clear disciplinary effects was observed; metadiscursive manifestations in linguistics were consistent with those in the empirical sciences (e.g. less agentive visibility in favor of greater use of abstract rhetors) while those in literature with non-empirical sciences (e.g. preference for direct self-mention and limited use of abstract (part genre) rhetors). In line with Hyland's (1998a) findings, linguistics writers made greater use of both hedges and boosters, balancing conviction with caution. For Hyland (1998a), however, linguistics was grouped under the soft sciences.

Gender, as a social variable, was often less pronounced than and cross-cut by disciplinary effects, lending support to the less deterministic stance adopted by Tse and Hyland (2008) and Zadeh et al. (2015) (see Section 3 and Endnote 3, respectively). Only in relation to two sub-categories (boosting adverbs and

reliability hedges) could we observe gender effects, which in fact contradicted with results by Lakoff (1973), Tannen (2003), and Yeganeh and Ghoreyshi (2015) reported in Section 3. In the present study, it was the female writers who, through greater use of boosting adverbs, wrote with more confidence in the certainty of their knowledge towards the validity of propositions. Male writers, on the other hand, wrote with caution and precision through greater use of reliability hedges. Nonetheless, we may argue that perhaps the simultaneous function of boosting adverbs (see Section 2) as expressions of shared knowledge may have prompted female writers to use them more frequently.

Regardless of gender and discipline membership, common metadiscursive choices were made. For example, all the writers under study favored reader-oriented boosting and writer-oriented hedging (Sections 5.1 and 5.2, respectively), thus opening a discursive space with the reader. Furthermore, common marker preferences (e.g. the hedging modal *can*, Section 5.2) revealed shared linguistic currency across writers' groups.

I hope this research would contribute to stimulating the resolution of uncertain conventions of authorial identity in the Egyptian context (referred to in Section 1) towards the adoption of a clearer authorial stance and more interactive engagement with the reader.

Notes

1. The RAs under investigation were written by Egyptian native speakers of Arabic.
2. The interactional dimension along with the interactive dimension (including transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, and code glosses) proposed to guide the reader through the text, constituted Hyland's (2005a) *Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse*.
3. Based on Hyland's (2005a) model, Zadeh et al. (2015) found that in the conclusion sections of MA theses in translation and teaching, female writers used significantly more interactional resources than male writers. In literature, by contrast, male writers used more interactional

Amany Youssef
English Department
Faculty of Arts
Helwan University, Egypt
Email: amaniyoussefali@yahoo.com

References

- Andrusenko, Anastasiia.** (2015). 'A contrastive analysis of Spanish-Arabic metadiscourse use in persuasive academic writing'. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 178: 9-14.
- Attarn, Atena.** (2014). 'Study of metadiscourse in ESP articles: A comparison of English articles written by Iranian and English native speakers'. *International Journal of Learning, Teaching and Educational Research*, 5 (1): 63-71.
- Hu, Guangwei and Feng Cao.** (2011). 'Hedging and boosting in abstracts of applied linguistics articles: A comparative study of English- and Chinese-medium journals'. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 43: 2795–2809.
- Hyland, Ken.** (1996). 'Nurturing hedges in the ESP curriculum'. *System*, 24 (4): 477-490.
- Hyland, Ken.** (1998a). 'Boosting, hedging and the negotiation of academic knowledge'. *Text*, 18: 349–382.
- Hyland, Ken.** (1998b). *Hedging in Scientific Research Articles*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Hyland, Ken.** (1998c). 'Persuasion and context: The pragmatics of academic metadiscourse'. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 30: 437-455.
- Hyland, Ken.** (2000). 'Hedges, boosters and lexical invisibility: Noticing modifiers in academic texts'. *Language Awareness*, 9 (4): 179-197.
- Hyland, Ken.** (2002). 'Authority and invisibility: Authorial identity in academic writing'. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 34: 1091–1112.
- Hyland, Ken.** (2005a). *Metadiscourse: Exploring Interaction in Writing*. London and New York: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Hyland, Ken.** (2005b). 'Stance and engagement: A model of interaction in academic discourse'. *Discourse Studies*, 7 (2): 173–192.
- Hyland, Ken.** (2009). 'Corpus-informed discourse analysis: The case of academic engagement'. In Maggie Charles, Diane Pecorari, and Susan Hunston (Eds.), *Academic Writing: At the Interface of Corpus and Discourse*, (2009: 110-128). London: Continuum International Publishing Group.
- Kroll, Barry M.** (1984). 'Writing for readers: Three perspectives on audience'. *College Composition and Communication*, 35 (2): 172-185. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/358094> (Retrieved on 10 April, 2015)
- Lakoff, Robin.** (1973). 'Language and woman's place'. *Language in Society*, 2 (1): 45-80. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/4166707> (Retrieved on 10 June, 2015)
- Moltmann, Friederike.** (2006). 'Generic one, arbitrary PRO, and the first person'. *Nat Lang Semantics*, 14: 257–281. semantics.univ-paris1.fr/pdf/Generic%20one.pdf (Retrieved on 10 January, 2016)

- Musa, Adamu.** (2014). 'Hedging in academic writing: A pragmatic analysis of English and Chemistry masters' theses in a Ghanaian university'. *English for Specific Purposes World*, 15 (42): 1682-3257. www.esp-world.info (Retrieved on 5 January, 2016)
- Salager-Meyer, Françoise.** (1994). 'Hedges and textual communicative function in medical English written discourse'. *English for Specific Purposes*, 13 (2): 149-171.
- Samaie, Mahmoud, Fereshteh Khosravian, and Mahnaz Boghayeri** (2014). 'The frequency and types of hedges in research article introductions by Persian and English native authors'. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 98: 1678 – 1685.
- Tannen, Deborah.** (2003). 'Gender and family interaction'. In Janet Holmes and Miriam Meyerhoff (Eds.), *The Handbook of Language and Gender*, (2003: 179-201). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.
- Tse, Polly and Ken Hyland.** (2008). '“Roboot Kung fu”: Gender and professional identity in biology and philosophy reviews'. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 40: 1232-1248.
- Yagiz, Oktay and Cuneyt Demir.** (2014). 'Hedging strategies in academic discourse: A comparative analysis of Turkish writers and native writers of English'. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 158: 260-268.
- Yeganeh, Maryam Tafaraji and Seyedeh Marzieh Ghoreyshi.** (2015). 'Exploring gender differences in the use of discourse markers in Iranian academic research articles'. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 192: 684 – 689.
- Zadeh, Zahra Rezaei, Roya Baharlooei, and Shahla Simin.** (2015). 'Gender-based study of interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers in conclusion sections of English Master Theses'. *International Letters of Social and Humanistic Sciences*, 47: 195-208.
- Zarei, Gholam Reza and Sara Mansoori.** (2011a). 'A contrastive study on metadiscourse elements used in humanities vs. non humanities across Persian and English'. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 4 (1): 42-50.
- Zarei, Gholam Reza and Sara Mansoori.** (2011b). 'Metadiscursive distinction between Persian and English: An analysis of computer engineering research articles'. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 2(5), 1037-1042.

Appendix A: Linguistics RAs by males

		*WC
1	Alansary, Sameh (2011). 'Interlingua-Based Machine Translation Systems ...'. <i>The 11th International Conference on Language Engineering</i> , Cairo, Egypt. http://www.bibalex.org/isis/uploadedfiles/publications/cairo2011a_1.pdf	4,377
2	Ali, El-Hussein A. Y. (2012). 'The Use of Parentheses ...'. <i>Philology</i> , 57 (1). http://aljournal.shams.edu.eg/index.php/philology/article/view/31	5,217
3	Attohamy, Mohammad M. (2014). 'Use of English Adverbs ...'. Helwan University, <i>Faculty of Arts Magazine</i> , 36: 1-29.	4,775
4	Hasan, Hesham (2014). 'Image Schemata and Force Dynamic Analysis of Conflict ...'. <i>Cairo Studies: Essays in Honour of Aida Shaarawy</i> , 535-584.	13,012
5	Hassan, Bahaa (2011). 'Ideology in Media Discourse ...'. <i>The International Conference: Cultural Politics: Contemporary Visions in Language, Literature and Translation</i> , Faculty of Alsun, Ain Shams University, April 18-19, 265-88.	3,183
6	Salah, Sameh (2014). 'Bottom-Up Micro Language Activities ...'. Helwan University, <i>Faculty of Arts Magazine</i> , 36: 31-65.	7,599
7	Salah-Eddin, Ahmed (2011). 'The English /ə/ ...'. Helwan University, <i>Faculty of Arts Magazine</i> , 29: 21-66.	10,925
8	Salama, Amir H. Y. (2014). 'The 25 January Egyptian Revolution as a Discursive Practice ...'. <i>The 11th International Symposium on Comparative Literature: Creativity & Revolution</i> , Cairo University, Nov. 13-15, 2012, 411-438.	6,187
9	Shaheen, Hamdy (2012). 'The "Said" and "Unsaid" by The Authorial Voice ...'. <i>CDELTA Occasional Papers</i> , 54: 67-89.	3,369
10	Zanquoor, Safe El-Nasr S. (2013). "Diversity in Apologetic Strategies Usage ...". <i>CDELTA Occasional Papers</i> , 55: 60-91.	5,296
	*Total Word Count	63,940

*Word count was made after deleting quotations, examples, and references lists.

Appendix B: Linguistics RAs by females

		*WC
1	Abolawafi, Nevine (2013). 'Assessment of Persuasiveness ...'. Ain Shams University, <i>Occasional Papers</i> , 55: 15-59.	7,792
2	Ali, Dalia (2011). 'How Far Can We Access a Person's Stance ...'. <i>The International Conference: Cultural Politics: Contemporary Visions in Language, Literature and Translation</i> , Faculty of Alsun, Ain Shams University, April 18-19, 55-82.	5,856
3	Al-mughrabi, Omayma (2012). 'Representation of Women in Media Discourse ...'. <i>The 10th International Symposium on Comparative Literature</i> , Cairo University, Dec. 7-9, 2010, 465-494.	9,584
4	Ashmawi, Ghada A. (2013). 'Pictorial Metaphor ...'. <i>Philology</i> , 59 (1). http://ajournal.shams.edu.eg/index.php/philology/article/view/304	8,097
5	El-Seidi, Maha (2012). 'Discursive (De)Legitimation of the "Enhanced Interrogation Techniques ...". <i>The 10th International Symposium on Comparative Literature</i> , Cairo University, Dec. 7-9, 2010, 669-697.	7,816
6	Gadalla, Nadia A. H. (2011). 'Slogans and Banners ...'. <i>The International Conference: Cultural Politics: Contemporary Visions in Language, Literature and Translation</i> , Faculty of Alsun, Ain Shams University, April 18-19, 195-234.	5,572
7	Hafiz, Ola (2014). "'Matloub Zaeem" ...'. <i>The 11th International Symposium on Comparative Literature: Creativity & Revolution</i> , Cairo University, Nov. 13-15, 2012, 439-466.	5,056
8	Halim, Randa (2014). 'A Pragmatic Analysis of the Protest Slogans ...'. <i>The 11th International Symposium on Comparative Literature: Creativity & Revolution</i> , Cairo University, Nov. 13-15, 2012, 785-822.	9,547
9	Mahmoud, Al-Shaima S. A. (2012). 'A Pragma-Syntactic Study ...'. Ain Shams University, Faculty of Arts, <i>Occasional Papers</i> , 54: 90-120.	7,069
10	Younis, Nagwa (2011). 'Different Morphological Forms in the Holy Qur'an ...'. <i>The International Conference: Cultural Politics: Contemporary Visions in Language, Literature and Translation</i> , Faculty of Alsun, Ain Shams University, April 18-19, 465-492.	2,646
	*Total Word Count	69,035

*Word count was made after deleting quotations, examples, and references lists.

Appendix C: Literature RAs by males

		*WC
1	Abdel-Fattah, Hany A. M. (2012). 'The Panoptic Theatre ...'. <i>Philology</i> , 57 (1). http://aljournal.shams.edu.eg/index.php/philology/article/view/29	7,071
2	Abdel-Latif, Maged (2014). 'Internalizing vs Globalizing ...'. <i>The 11th International Symposium on Comparative Literature: Creativity & Revolution</i> , Cairo University, Nov. 13-15, 2012, 187-204.	4,778
3	Abd-ur-Rahman, Muhammad M. M. (2012). 'The Impact of Indian Doctrines ...'. <i>31st CDELT National Symposium on English Language Teaching</i> , 95-110.	4,456
4	Aboudaif, Said (2012). 'E. M. Forster's Theory of Fiction ...'. <i>31st CDELT National Symposium on English Language Teaching</i> , 141-158.	4,686
5	Ali, Haggag (2011). 'Joumana Haddad's Neo-Gnostic Response ...'. <i>The 10th International Symposium on Comparative Literature</i> , Cairo University, December 7-9, 2010, 377-388.	3,896
6	El-Sobky, Redwan (2011). 'The 'Self' and the 'Other' ...'. <i>The International Conference: Cultural Politics: Contemporary Visions in Language, Literature and Translation</i> , Faculty of Alsun, Ain Shams University, April 18-19, 2011, 163-194.	7,635
7	Gamal, Ahmed (2011). "'Encounters with Strangeness" ...'. <i>The International Conference: Cultural Politics: Contemporary Visions in Language, Literature and Translation</i> , Faculty of Alsun, Ain Shams University, April 18-19, 2011, 235-264.	7,051
8	Hashim, Abdel Mohsen I. (2014). 'Nature as the Other...'. <i>Philology</i> , 61 (1): 120-140.	4,397
9	Megahed, Shokry (2014). 'The Poetics of Incomplete Revolution ...'. <i>The 11th International Symposium on Comparative Literature: Creativity & Revolution</i> , Cairo University, Nov. 13-15, 2012, 269-302.	11,601
10	Shehata, Reda A. (2012). 'The dramatic monologue ...'. <i>Ain Shams University Annals of the Faculty of Arts</i> 40: 675-709.	10,916
	*Total Word Count	66,487

*Word count was made after deleting quotations, examples, and references lists.

Appendix D: Literature RAs by females

		*WC
1	Abdel Azim, Doaa S. (2011). 'The Prison Writings ...'. <i>The 10th International Symposium on Comparative Literature</i> , Cairo University, Dec. 7-9, 2010, 265-282	4,767
2	Abdel-Hamid, Basma (2014). 'Paradigms of Revolutions ...'. <i>The 11th International Symposium on Comparative Literature: Creativity & Revolution</i> , Cairo University, Nov. 13-15, 2012, 115-138.	5,381
3	El-Abbady, Heba (2014). 'The Power of Solidarity ...'. <i>The 11th International Symposium on Comparative Literature: Creativity & Revolution</i> , Cairo University, Nov. 13-15, 2012, 21-44.	4,542
4	Elmougy, Sahar (2011). 'The Voice of the Egyptian Expartiates ...'. <i>The 10th International Symposium on Comparative Literature</i> , Cairo University, Dec. 7-9, 2010, 159-182.	7,431
5	Eshamy, Nashwa (2011). 'An Anglophonic Novelist's Kit ...'. <i>The International Conference: Cultural Politics: Contemporary Visions in Language, Literature and Translation</i> , Faculty of Alsun, Ain Shams University, April 18-19, 2011, 125-62.	5,357
6	Hanna, Sally M. (2014). 'Cairo My City ...'. <i>The 11th International Symposium on Comparative Literature: Creativity & Revolution</i> , Cairo University, Nov. 13-15, 2012, 249-268.	6,884
7	Kamal, Hala (2014). 'Women's Memories of the Egyptian Revolution ...'. <i>The 11th International Symposium on Comparative Literature: Creativity & Revolution</i> , Cairo University, Nov. 13-15, 2012, 577-599.	5,822
8	Riad, Nadia M. (2011). 'The Journey down the Nile and Back ...'. <i>The 10th International Symposium on Comparative Literature</i> , Cairo University, Dec. 7-9, 2010, pp. 53-72.	4,598
9	Saber, Yomna (2014). 'Who Said It Was Simple!' ...'. <i>Philology</i> , 61 (1): 13-41.	7,732
10	Sehsah, Iman (2011). 'Neo-Orientalism: A Study of Dave Eggers' <i>Zeitoun</i> '. <i>The International Conference: Cultural Politics: Contemporary Visions in Language, Literature and Translation</i> , Faculty of Alsun, Ain Shams University, April 18-19, 2011, 379-412.	9,010
	*Total Word Count	61,524

*Word count was made after deleting quotations, examples, and reference