Understanding Teaching Philosophy Statements as a Genre: A Corpus-based Discourse Analysis of Rhetorical Moves and Linguistic Features

By:

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Abstract

Teaching philosophy statements (TPSs) are documents written by academic job candidates presenting their own beliefs about teaching and learning. The statements are required worldwide in promotion and tenure applications, teaching awards and grants. Most of the studies on TPSs offer guidelines for writing a successful statement such as avoiding technical terms and using first-person pronouns (Chism, 1997; Coppola, 2002). Remarkably few studies have been designed to examine the discourse of authentic examples as an occluded genre that supports teachers' career.

The present study is carried out to examine TPSs from the perspective of genre studies by using *English for Specific Purposes (ESP)* approach (Swales, 1990). The study investigates the rhetorical move structure of 46 texts written by graduate students as part of a training course and winners of an award written by faculty members in universities. The linguistic features of the genre are explored using corpus-based genre analysis which focuses on the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams in moves and TPSs.

The genre model suggests five obligatory moves found in TPSs using the MAXQDA software. In addition, it was found that the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams, generated by AntConc software, are related to teaching, and learning in the classroom and how teachers describe their practice and teaching philosophy. The comparison between the writing guides and the analysis carried out in the present study shows that the advice does not align with the authentic examples of TPSs in many aspects. The findings indicate the strength of the move analysis framework and offer a theoretical contribution to the fields of genre studies and corpus linguistics. The findings offer insights for teacher training programs and allow them to utilize the genre characteristics and rhetorical as well as linguistic features used to construct the moves to help future teachers and postgraduates in creating TPSs.

Acknowledgments

When I started my PhD study, I thought that I would sail through it with no obstacles. Little have I known. The journey was full of ups and downs, happiness when I learned something new and disappointment when I could not reach an answer to the questions I had. Nevertheless, I enjoyed the good moments and looked forward to the product which is this thesis.

First, I would like to thank my supervisor, Dr. Valerie Hobbs for her continuous support and feedback on this project. I also would like to thank my second supervisor, Prof. Nigel Harwood for his support. I thank you all for the assurance, hope, and optimism I felt in the challenging times. Special thanks for Dr. Richard Steadman-Jones and Prof. Suganthi John for examining my thesis.

I would like to extend my gratitude to my country, Saudi Arabia, which funded my PhD study.

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Declaration

I confirm that the Thesis is my own work. I am aware of the University's Guidance on the Use of Unfair Means (www.sheffield.ac.uk/ssid/unfair-means). This work has not previously been presented for an award at this, or any other, university.

Signed: *Atekah Abaalkhail*

Date: 30 August 2022

Glossary of Key Terms

AntConc: freely available corpus tool for generating frequent words, keywords and multi-word expressions in a corpus, developed by Laurance Anthony (Anthony, 2019).

Corpus-based genre analysis: the integration of corpus-based approaches with genre analysis (L. Flowerdew, 2005).

Corpus linguistics: an approach used to study language stored electronically in what is known as *corpora* (McEnery & Wilson, 1996).

English for Specific Purposes (ESP): "the teaching and learning of English as a second or foreign language where the goal of the learners is to use English in a particular domain" (Paltridge & Starfield, 2013, p. 2).

MAXQDA tool: a software for qualitative and mixed methods data analysis. It allows for a range of files to be analysed such as interview scripts, pdf files and tweets.

Occluded genres: genres that are formal documents but are hidden from public view, produced for the aims of evaluation such as PhD confirmation reports or manuscripts cover letters (Swales, 1996).

Teaching philosophy statement: a document written by job applicants for a teaching position that includes beliefs of teaching and learning and approaches to teaching (Chism, 1997).

Chapter 1

Introduction

This chapter provides the background of the present study along with the motivation for this research. It outlines the aims of the present study and research questions. Definitions of some key methodological terms such as discourse analysis, approaches in discourse analysis, corpus linguistics, and the synergy of these two areas in linguistics are provided. The significance of the present study is discussed, and an overview of the chapters is given.

1.1 Background of the Present Study

Teaching philosophy statements (TPSs) are documents written by a job candidate for academic faculty positions presenting their own beliefs about teaching and learning (O'Neal, Meizlish, & Kaplan, 2007). Alexander et al. (2012) define a TPS as a

> Clear, concise account of the author's approaches to teaching, providing a sense of who the person is as a teacher and what s/he values. The statement discusses courses taught (typically in a narrative, reflective format rather than in the bullet-item style in the curriculum vitae), methods and/or approaches used in the classroom, and assessment practices integrated into teaching. (p. 24)

TPSs are a significant element in teaching portfolios submitted when applying for a teaching position, mostly in higher education (Payant & Hirano, 2018; Solin, 2018). On average, 40% of the job advertisements or search committees in the United States ask for a TPS for academic positions in tertiary education (Benson & Buskist, 2005; Bruff, 2007; Eierman, 2008; Meizlish & Kaplan, 2008). These documents are lately becoming required in the British context, especially when applying to Advance HE, previously known as the Higher Education Academy, fellowship qualification. The qualification is acquired to demonstrate

evidence of professional practice in teaching (heacademy.ac.uk) or as a part of the tenure process in higher education (Brown, Collard, & Hoogeveen, 2014). The statements are also required worldwide in promotion and tenure applications, teaching awards and grants (Schönwetter, Sokal, Friesen, & Taylor, 2002) and is now required by Saudi Arabian universities which go through the process of quality assurance (Alghbban, Ben Salamh, & Maalej, 2017). The teaching statement is usually evaluated along with other qualifications (e.g., skills, teaching experience) and documents (e.g., curriculum vita, students' evaluations) to judge the suitability of job applicants for an academic position (Kearns & Sullivan, 2011). The TPS is an important document used throughout a teacher's career at various stages such as the job application process, tenure process in universities and in reflective practice. It seems that less attention has been paid to TPSs in research and more specifically the structure of these documents and the language used.

1.2 Motivation and Rationale for the Present Study

I became interested in TPSs after I applied for an English instructor job in the American University of Kuwait (AUK) in 2016. I graduated in 2015 with a master's degree in applied linguistics and discourse studies. One of the required documents in the job application was a statement of my teaching philosophy. It is worth noting that such a document is not required or even known in the Middle East, except in institutions following the hiring process of North American universities or as a part of the quality assurance process followed by Saudi Arabian universities which are now growing in number. Therefore, through my studies and teaching experience in the Middle East, I did not come across a TPS. I was reluctant to embark on writing a teaching philosophy as it was my assumption that I needed to explain some educational teaching philosophies and their backgrounds, a field that

I had no experience in although I took some teaching methods courses specific to language learning in the MA level.

Fortunately, I was curious enough to start searching for the term TPS and the type of this document. I Googled the name and found many templates and examples. However, after going through them, I still did not know what to write in the statement and how to construct a successful teaching statement that would ensure that my teaching philosophy is in line with the institution's philosophy and aims and serves the purpose it is intended to.

I searched and all I could find were guides telling me to be myself, make the TPS student or learner-centered and connect theory to practice (e.g., Chism, 1997; Coppola, 2002). Although I had some experience in one-to-one teaching and had some practical training while studying for my CTESL (Certificate of Teaching English as a Second Language) in Canada, which is equivalent to CELTA in the UK, I could not construct such a document based only on these guides. This was the motivation for this research study. As I started referring to research articles written about TPSs, I realized that only a limited number of studies have addressed this important genre. Neaderhiser (2016a, 2016b) invited researchers to examine genres which are 'hidden' (p.2), especially the ones hidden in pedagogical settings, and emphasized that writers need empirically grounded advice that can guide them through the process of writing a TPS. Consequently, I was motivated to collect and analyze TPSs since previous research has largely overlooked the significance of this occluded genre and the challenges associated with writing a TPS.

For most researchers and university faculty, the task of writing a TPS is considered overwhelming (Pratt, 2005). Literature on TPSs is concerned and has focused on how teacher identity is displayed in texts, teaching effectiveness evidence, metaphors used, and the most frequent themes found in the statements. Less attention has been given to the overall rhetorical organization or the recurrent lexicogrammatical features of the genre which might

be due to its occluded nature. Given the limitations of previous analysis of TPSs, the purpose of this study is to provide teachers and instructors with more rhetorically based guidelines and specific linguistic strategies for an academic job application or as a part of tenure/promotion applications that would help them through the writing process of a TPS.

The guides on writing TPSs offer instructions such as the length of the document and the preferred use of first-person pronouns when constructing the text (e.g., Chism, 1997; Coppola, 2002; Goodyear & Allchin, 1998). However, these guidelines are too general and cannot be applied to all situations and contexts (Swales & Feak, 2011). A few studies have sought to examine teacher identity and effective teaching in TPSs through the exploration of metaphors and metadiscourse (e.g., Neaderhiser, 2016a; Supasiraprapa & De costa, 2017). Little is known about the structure of the genre or how authentic texts are organized and employed by writers. TPSs are an under-researched genre despite their 'high-stake' status (Benson & Buskist, 2005; Caukin & Brinthaupt, 2017; Neaderhiser, 2016a).

TPSs are considered a *supporting academic genre* (Payant & Hirano, 2018; Swales & Feak, 2011) which help academics' and researchers' careers. Neaderhiser (2016b) encourages researchers to examine the rhetorical structure of TPS (i.e., the way a text is structured to achieve certain functions, Shaw, 2016). He also invites researchers to highlight the moves as well as the language used in authentic texts, rather than depending only on advice texts that "focus on highly formulaic structures and templates without an attention to the rhetorical considerations of the genres" (p. 7). Novice writers might refer to examples from the internet, which might be inappropriate or inadequate for clearly writing in the genre (Payant & Hirano, 2018). Although there are guidelines that contribute to the how-to writing of TPSs, they are far from enough to establish a full picture of the authentic statements. This thesis aims to explore the structure and the linguistic characteristics of these statements.

1.3 Aims of the Present Study

This study is expected to make a theoretical contribution to the ESP field. It utilizes methods of ESP and corpus linguistics to describe the organizational structure of the TPS genre. The objectives of the study are to identify the rhetorical move structure (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990) typical in TPSs and describe the functional and content realizations of the moves and the steps using corpus-based analysis (Biber, Connor, & Upton, 2007b). Such a study will be the first, to my knowledge, to investigate TPSs from the ESP perspective for the goal of identifying rhetorical moves/steps structure of the genre and its lexicogrammatical features. TPSs deserve more research attention as most previous studies have failed to describe the discourse and the internal structure of this important genre.

Given the limited number of empirical studies concerning the structure and language features of TPSs, the present study is carried out to examine TPSs from the perspective of genre studies by using the *English for Specific Purposes (ESP)* approach (Swales, 1990) with the help of MAXQDA tool which offers different functions for analyzing texts and particularly useful in this type of analysis (see Chapter 5). The present study aims to investigate a corpus of TPSs collected from different contexts. The overarching research question of this study is

- What are the linguistic patterns observed in teaching philosophy statements?

The research sub-questions are:

1) What are the move and step patterns in the teaching philosophy statement genre?
2) Are there any differences in the moves and steps of teaching philosophy statements written by faculty members and those written by graduate students?
3) What are the lexicogrammatical features associated with the identified moves?

4) What are the most frequent words, keywords and n-grams that characterize the teaching philosophy statement genre?
5) What, if any, are the differences in frequent words, keywords, and n-grams of teaching philosophy statements written by faculty members and those written by graduate students?
6) In what ways, if any, do the genre discourse and organization identified in the present study align with the published advice on writing teaching philosophy statements?

These sub-questions are grouped in Chapter 5 under the relevant type of analysis conducted on TPSs. The methods of analysis to answer these questions are described in Chapter 5 and the findings are presented in Chapters 6, 7, 8 and 9. The study is based on a corpus of 46 texts written by graduate students in a course to prepare them for a teaching career and by university faculty members who won a teaching award. The texts originate from North American universities.

The analysis entails a corpus-based genre analysis (Biber et al., 2007b) that examines the genre and its linguistic features. Establishing rhetorical move structure and exploring linguistic features using corpus methods addresses the lack of genre-based studies of TPSs in the literature and highlights the value and the methodological implications of using a corpus-based genre analysis. In addition, the study is designed to offer a theoretical contribution to the field of genre studies and help academic job searchers, instructors, and graduate students to structure successful statements based on authentic examples with detailed rhetorical choices and linguistic features developed in the study, rather than following generally given advice on writing teaching statements. It will also provide insights for teacher training programs and will allow them to expand their understanding of the genre characteristics and

the rhetorical as well as linguistic features used to construct the moves to help future teachers in creating TPSs.

1.4 Definition of Relevant Methodological Key Terms

In the following subsections, I offer an overview of some of the general methodological key terms related to the present study. The definition of discourse analysis and approaches in discourse analysis are briefly introduced to situate this study in the field of discourse analysis. Corpus linguistics and corpus-based genre analysis are briefly discussed here and will be elaborated on in Chapter 3.

1.4.1 Discourse Analysis

The term discourse is broadly defined as language in use (J. Flowerdew, 2013). Discourse analysis (DA) can be simply defined as the study of language in use but a broader and more comprehensive definition is given by Bhatia, Flowerdew and Jones (2008) in which DA is "the analysis of linguistic behaviour, written and spoken, beyond the limits of individual sentences, focusing primarily on the meaning constructed and interpreted as language is used in particular social contexts" (p.1). It is an interdisciplinary field that encompasses a range of methods and approaches that investigates language beyond the sentence level and incorporates the role of social action. DA is mainly associated with linguistics but is also used in business studies, law, sociology and many other disciplines (J. Flowerdew, 2013).

1.4.2 Approaches in Discourse Analysis

Looking at the range of publications on discourse analysis, a plethora of approaches to discourse analysis has been discussed which cannot be covered in this space. However, we can consider a simple categorization of approaches to discourse analysis which has been offered by Hyland (2009). Discourse analysis can be broadly divided into three approaches: contextual, critical, and textual.

The contextual approach is concerned with situations and context which can inform our understanding of participants and their culture and how they use discourse (Hyland, 2009). The critical approach focuses on ideologies and power and how they are expressed in language. The textual approach examines patterns and meanings in texts such as genre analysis or corpus analysis. The present study belongs to this category. Genre analysis which can be broadly defined as "a branch of discourse analysis which seeks to understand the communicative character of discourse by looking at how individuals use language to engage in particular communicative events" (Paltridge, 2012, p. 243). This term is taken up again and explained in detail in Chapter 3.

1.4.3 Corpus Linguistics

Recent developments in the way large collocations of naturally occurring texts are stored electronically provided researchers with new ways of analyzing language. The term corpus linguistics refers to a set of computerized procedures that can be employed to study language and identify regularities in groups of texts (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). Corpus linguistics primarily employs quantitative methods in language analysis such as frequency information which reports on the most frequent words in a corpus. Language studies have benefited from corpus linguistics such as lexicography, pragmatics, grammatical studies, and

language learning and teaching (McEnery, Xiao, & Tono, 2006). The background of this field, types of corpora, corpus design issues and corpus methods are further discussed in Chapter 4.

1.4.4 Corpus Linguistics and Discourse Analysis

As mentioned above, corpus linguistics has been employed in many areas in language studies, but it has recently been applied to the area of discourse analysis. A reason for this is the differences between corpus linguistics and discourse analysis which are highlighted by McEnery et al. (2006)

> …while DA emphasizes the integrity of text, corpus linguistics tends to use representative samples; while DA is primarily qualitative, corpus linguistics is essentially quantitative; while DA focuses on the contents expressed by language, corpus linguistics is interested in language per se; while the collector, transcriber and analyst are often the same person in DA, this is rarely the case in corpus linguistics… (p. 111)

While corpus linguistics analyses are quantitative in nature and focus on investigating lexical and linguistic features of a large collection of texts, discourse analysis, on the other hand, depends on qualitative and quantitative descriptions of discourse patterns and structure in texts. Although these two fields have differences in methods of data collection and data analysis, the strengths of each approach are combined in a synergy to create a robust way to study language and the methods of the two fields are now considered complementary. In relation to the present study, corpus-based analyses of language variations have been successfully applied with accurate and more reliable findings. Biber et al. (2007b) specifically offered a method that combines corpus-based analysis and discourse analysis to examine the discourse structure of a representative sample of a genre. The present study

adopts this method to analyse the TPS genre in what is known as corpus-based genre analysis. It follows the steps suggested by Biber et al. (2007b) to devise the macro and micro structure of the TPS genre which is one of the aims of this study.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The TPS genre is scarcely addressed in the literature. Existing research has focused mainly on teacher identity, metaphors, and teaching effectiveness (see Chapter 2 for a review of literature on TPSs) but has failed to explore the structure of these documents as well as the language used. Such an important document deserves to be investigated to highlight the micro and macro structure using genre theory methods, complemented by corpus linguistics tools. The present study is important because it offers a genre model that can be followed by teachers and postgraduates based on authentic examples of these documents. It also explores the language of the genre by focusing on most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams of the identified moves. The genre description offered in the present study enriches the genre knowledge needed. In addition, the study compares the findings of the corpus-based genre analysis to the instructions provided by guides on writing TPSs and discusses if these examples deviate from or align with the guides.

1.6 Overview of the Thesis

The thesis contains eleven chapters. Following the introduction chapter, **Chapter 2** introduces the background of TPSs, its emergence, history and different purposes and offers a review of literature of the TPS genre.

Chapter 3 presents the relevant theoretical perspectives relating to genre theory and move analysis methods with literature review of genre analysis on different genres. **Chapter**

4 complements Chapter 3 by introducing corpus linguistics, types of corpora, corpus methods with a review of studies that utilized corpus-based ESP move analysis. **Chapter 5** discusses and details the data sources, methodology and data analysis methods. The findings of the pilot study of move analysis are presented in **Chapter 6**.

The main findings of each analysis: the move analysis, the corpus-based analysis, and the analysis of guides on writing TPSs are presented in Chapters 7, 8, and 9, respectively. In **Chapter 7**, the moves and steps found in the TPSs corpus are introduced with details on move frequencies, moves cyclicity and move order. I also offer a proposed genre model based on the findings of this chapter and highlight the changes made in the pilot study model. In the corpus-based analysis in **Chapter 8**, the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams are examined and presented. These are examined for each level: the moves, the TPSs corpus and the faculty and graduate students' corpora. **Chapter 9** first discusses the guidelines of writing a TPS and their contents and then provides a comparison of the writing guides with the findings of the present study in terms of the moves and the language used in the TPS genre to answer the last research sub-question.

Chapter 10 provides the answers to the sub-questions proposed in the present study and offers an overview of the genre of TPS. In **Chapter 11**, a conclusion of the thesis is offered with a summary of the theoretical and practical contributions of the present study. The chapter ends with an overview of the limitations of the study with suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature on Teaching Philosophy Statements

This chapter reviews the literature on TPSs. It begins with introducing the term *teaching philosophy* and the main educational philosophies and then moves to an overview of the history of TPSs, when and where they are mostly required, in what context and for what purposes. The section also highlights the importance of these statements in the context of higher education. A discussion of the several guides on writing TPSs is presented followed by an overview of the genre of TPSs and how it is viewed in genre theory. The final section reviews previous research on TPSs and provides the focus and methods of previous analyses of these statements.

2.1 Teaching Philosophy and Main Educational Philosophies

A teaching philosophy describes the values and ideas that guide a teacher's practice in the classroom (Crookes, 2015; Hall, Waalkes, & Smith, 2021; Pratt, 2005). A teaching philosophy is considered personal yet teachers have shared foundations they draw their lexicon and concepts from (Beatty, Leigh, & Lund Dean, 2009b). The sources of teaching philosophy vary and can be developed from several sources such as personal life experiences, previous teaching experiences (if any), or influenced by educational institutions philosophies (Crookes, 2009).

Teaching philosophies are shared implicitly among teachers and are grounded in major educational philosophies (i.e., schools of thought that have common concepts and views that shape educational practices, Pachauri, 2006). These main educational philosophies serve as the foundation for educational theories that build on the concepts of these schools.

Educational theories can be identified as “specific and formulated to serve the educational needs in the curriculum, teaching and learning” (Tan, 2006, p. 21).

The description of these main five educational philosophies is briefly presented here as it is beyond the scope of this thesis to look at the connection of educational philosophies and educational theories in TPSs. However, as Beatty et al. (2009b) argues that a connection of the philosophies and theory is required when writing a TPS and several studies (e.g., Hall et al., 2021; Payant & Hirano, 2018) reported the lack of grounded theoretical philosophies of teaching theories in TPSs. Also, guides on writing TPSs (e.g., Eierman, 2008; Kenny, Berenson, Jeffs, Nowell, & Grant, 2018) encourage referencing to literature of teaching theories and educational philosophies in TPS. Therefore, the present study does examine if educational philosophies are present in TPSs in the analysis of guides when compared to the corpus of the study (see Chapter 9).

Educational philosophies can be broadly categorized into the following: Idealism, Realism, Pragmatism, Existentialism and Postmodernism (Ornstein & Levine, 2008; Renani, Afghari, & Hadian, 2019; Tan, 2006).

Idealism is considered the oldest educational philosophy established by Plato in ancient Greece and extended into modern history by Kant and Hegel (Tan, 2006). This school holds the view that the true reality is in ideas and not the material world which constantly changes. Idealism in education aims to encourage students to focus on ideas, personal discipline, and intellectual development that can produce logical thinkers (Ozmon & Craver, 2003). Teachers are appreciated in this framework for teaching key concepts and guiding students to find truth and principles (Renani et al., 2019).

Realism is also one of the oldest educational philosophies dating back to ancient Greece and having several proponents such as Francis Bacon and John Locke. Realists argue that reality is found by studying the physical and tangible world. Education based on this

school of philosophy depends on experiments, observation and the scientific method and sees the teacher as the expert whose role is to present the material in an organized way for the students (Talawar & Kumar, 2010).

Pragmatism is considered more of a contemporary educational philosophy that views reality as constantly changing based on individual experience and observations. It is a student-oriented philosophy focusing on the individual. Therefore, individual differences and particular needs and interests are to be considered when teaching or designing the curriculum (Ozmon & Craver, 2003; Tan, 2006).

Existentialism holds the view that reality is created by the individual, and one has the freedom of choice of what to learn. This view is translated into education by looking at each student's individuality and uniqueness as the most important part and having a curriculum designed to address individual needs and preferences. The curriculum is flexible and can adapt to learners' personal preferences (Renani et al., 2019; Tan, 2006).

Postmodernism is regarded as a perspective more than being a school of philosophy (Tan, 2006) and it has been hard to pinpoint its meaning and specific origins (Peters & Wain, 2003). However, it can be identified as being opposed to the scientific method, objectivity, and universality. Its main aims are empowerment of students, encouraging them to have their own identities, and enabling them to criticize traditional points of view. Teachers who adopt a postmodernism view are keen to participate in culturally diverse events and encourage their students to be critical and offer a variety of viewpoints for the students to base their solutions on (Ornstein & Levine, 2008; Renani et al., 2019).

The main educational theories are presented in Table 1 with the link between the theory and its educational philosophy. The purpose of the present study is not to look or examine these teaching philosophies or theories, but it will be interesting to see if teachers mention or link their practice in the classroom to any of these foundations. This will be

examined through the move analysis in TPSs when a teaching philosophy is offered in the statements.

Table 1

Educational Theories Emerging from Educational Philosophies

Educational theory	**Educational philosophy**
Perennialism	Rooted in Idealism and Realism
Essentialism	
Progressivism	Rooted in Pragmatism
Reconstructionism	
Critical Theory	Rooted in Existentialism and Postmodernism

Based on Alanoglu, Aslan, and Karabatak (2021), Ornstein and Levine (2008) and Tan (2006).

2.2 Emergence and History of TPSs

Over the years, the academic marketplace in North America has changed dramatically, especially the screening and selection process for candidates (Burke, 1988; Caplow & McGee, 2001). Around the 1960s in the United States, the process of academic hiring was based entirely on the image of a potential candidate, what Burke (1988) referred to as the "prestige system", and it entailed less consideration for the qualification the candidate possessed (Burke, 1988; Caplow & McGee, 2001). The prestige system focused on the status of the institution where the candidate was granted the degree or the status of the mentor s/he had (Twombly, Wolf-Wendel, Williams, & Green, 2006). The process did not include a personal interview as this was replaced by the prestige system mentioned above and hiring committees only looked at the individual 'fitting in' to the institution (Burke, 1988; Meizlish & Kaplan, 2008). The situation changed in the late 1980s to include documents that testify to

the quality of the research and teaching of the candidate in the United States (Broughton & Conlogue, 2001; Meizlish & Kaplan, 2008).

TPS has first emerged in the North American context and moved worldwide, including the UK and the Middle East. Nowadays, it is required by several institutions. Teachers and instructors are often required to submit a range of documents when they apply for a teaching position in higher education or when they are going through the tenure/promotion process (Coppola, 2002; Heiberger & Vick, 2001; Hume, 2005). These documents might include a resume, students' evaluations, letters of recommendation, syllabi, description of previously taught courses and a TPS. The collection of these documents is referred to as a teaching portfolio (Burns, 1999; McColgan & Blackwood, 2009; Seldin, 1997). A teaching portfolio is defined as "an organized collection of material that reflects your [the teacher] ideas about teaching, your performance as a teacher and how your teaching has changed over time" (Korn, 2012, p. 203). The teaching portfolio emerged in the 1970s mostly in the United States (Barnes, 2007), but it was not until the early 1990s that the TPS became a part of the written materials of the teaching portfolio (Brown et al., 2014; Coppola, 2002). Indeed, the TPS became the "centerpiece" (Benson & Buskist, 2005) and the "heart" (Korn, 2012) of the teaching portfolio as it explicitly describes the teacher's practice and activities in the classroom and provides the objectives of teaching (Reber, 2011).

2.3 Purposes and Importance of TPSs

Based on a survey of the literature on TPSs, it can be concluded that they serve five main purposes:

1. used in the hiring process for faculty academic positions in higher education
2. used in the promotion/tenure process in higher education

3. used in reflective practice

4. used in a grant or award application

5. used in a teaching recognition program

The bulk of academic job advertisements in North America call for a TPS to be included in the material which candidates submit (Alexander et al., 2012; Crookes, 2009; Harrison, 2002; Hegarty, 2015) and even when a TPS is not required in a job advertisement, searching committees view the submission of an unsolicited TPS positively (Meizlish & Kaplan, 2008). Although teaching statements are very popular documents in North America and most of Europe (Brown et al., 2014; Caukin & Brinthaupt, 2017), they have only recently become required by higher education institutions in the United Kingdom (Brown et al., 2014). For example, the Advance HE (i.e., a charity that works to improve higher education worldwide and supports professional development) requires a TPS when applying to gain an associate fellowship (i.e., a professional teaching recognition). Also, the document is required by most universities in the US and some of the universities based in the UK as part of tenure/promotion packages (Alexander et al., 2012). In addition, universities in Saudi Arabia began recently to acquire academic accreditation and quality assurance of teaching and learning. Individual teachers in these universities are required to submit teaching portfolios to mirror best practices to accrediting agencies (Alghbban et al., 2017) and one of the items included in the teaching portfolios is a TPS.

Teachers also write statements of their philosophy as a reflective practice (Brinthaupt, 2014; Eierman, 2008) to evaluate and improve their teaching and they sometimes share it with their students as an assessment tool of what has been accomplished at the end of a course (Caukin & Brinthaupt, 2017). The statements can also be a part of an application for a teaching grant or award (Schönwetter et al., 2002) or be included in a teaching fellowship

program (Brown et al., 2014). Some instructors choose to include and share their TPS in their personal websites.

The TPS is considered a “high-stakes document” (Neaderhiser, 2016a, p. 415) for many reasons. In addition to the purposes mentioned above, the teaching statement is used in the evaluation of teaching effectiveness and ability in the hiring process by giving a preliminary glimpse of the applicant’s thinking and what s/he does in a classroom (Bruff, 2007). It helps teachers and instructors to reflect on their practice to improve and synchronize the course content and the experiences they want students to have and a way to articulate one’s philosophy and connect theory to practice in the classroom (Caukin & Brinthaupt, 2017). It is also used to give search committees a chance to look at the applicant’s previous teaching experience and writing skills (Kearns & Sullivan, 2011). As well, many institutions require a TPS to be submitted when applicants are being considered for a teaching award in the US context (Sankey & Foster, 2012; Schönwetter et al., 2002).

Interestingly, the institution type and the discipline to which candidates are applying dictate whether the TPS is considered integral to the selection process. Search committees consider a TPS as an indication of teaching ability, thus doctoral institutions (i.e., institutions that have doctoral programs) rely less on TPSs compared to bachelor’s and master’s institutions, in which the focus is on teaching-related activities and teaching ability of candidates (Benson & Buskist, 2005; Meizlish & Kaplan, 2008). The natural sciences may ask more frequently for a TPS to be included in the materials submitted for an academic position as compared to other disciplines, such as the humanities and social sciences (Meizlish & Kaplan, 2008).

2.4 An Overview of Guides on Writing TPSs

An overwhelming number of guides have crafted instructions, models, exercises, and rubrics for writing a good TPS, (e.g., Beatty, Leigh, & Lund Dean, 2009a; Chism, 1997; Coppola, 2002; Faryadi, 2015; Goodyear & Allchin, 1998; O'Neal et al., 2007; Schönwetter et al., 2002; Swales & Feak, 2011; Yeom, Miller, & Delp, 2018). In a few of these guides, the sole focus is on the TPS such as the guides written by Chism (1997), Coppola (2002) and Goodyear and Allchin (1998). In other publications, the writing of a TPS is one part of the guide in which many other genres are included such as the teaching portfolio (e.g., Kenny et al., 2018) or academic genres of graduate school such as statements of purpose and curricula vitae (e.g., Swales & Feak, 2011).

Some of these guides are based on the assessment of successful candidates' TPSs submitted to hiring committees using surveys and open-ended questions and responses (e.g., Kaplan, Meizlish, O'Neal, & Wright, 2007; Meizlish & Kaplan, 2008; O'Neal et al., 2007). For example, O'Neal et al. (2007) developed a rubric for writing and assessing a TPS based on search committees responses. The rubric has five categories: goals for student learning, enactment of goals, assessment of goals, creating an inclusive learning environment, and structure, rhetoric, and language. The rubric also gives three assessments based on these categories which include excellent, needs some revision or unsatisfactory.

In addition, some guides are based on an analysis of job advertisements asking for a TPS (e.g., Bruff, 2007; Sheffield, 2013). Various websites have also provided online guidelines that can be accessed through support centers in some universities, such as Ohio State University, the University of Michigan, and the University of Colorado (Kearns & Sullivan, 2011).

Most of the guides (e.g., Boye, 2012; Coppola, 2002; Merkel, 2020) recommend that the length of a TPS should be one to two pages, written using the first-person pronoun.

Coppola (2002) suggests a few starting points to be in the beginning of the statement such as: title of the statement and an optional quote. Even though there is no agreement on exact organizational structure in these guides, they recommend the following components to be included in a TPS:

- Description of how learning and teaching occur
- Description of the learning environment (including diversity)
- Methods of teaching in the classroom
- Learning goals to achieve
- Description of improving teaching practices

Looking at the definition of diversity in higher education, it can be defined broadly as differences among learners (Brookfield, 2015). Other definitions of diversity include: (1) differences in social categories such as race, gender, ethnicity and socioeconomic status, (2) reference to social injustice, and (3) disability (Shallish, 2018). When writing a TPS, guides recommend including a section on diversity which might describe creating an inclusive environment for students from different cultures and backgrounds (Kaplan et al., 2007).

The present study closely examines these guides and compares them to the actual examples of teaching statements included in the study. Details of the guides included in the comparison and their content are described in Chapter 5 (see section 5.11 and Appendix F) and the findings of the analysis are presented and discussed in Chapter 9.

2.5 TPS as a Genre

Several research studies (e.g., Merkel, 2020; Neaderhiser, 2009, 2016b; Payant, 2017) have touched on the concept of occlusion when it comes to TPSs. The degree to which these

statements are considered occluded is debatable. Some examples of TPSs are available online published by teachers who like to share their teaching philosophy, but other TPSs used in different contexts such as in the promotion/tenure process are not freely available. Only the writer and the readers (evaluators) in a certain institution have access to these confidential and private documents (Neaderhiser, 2009, 2016b).

Many applicants spend their time in research-based training before they start applying for teaching jobs. They usually create their teaching philosophy with little instructional experience (Hegarty, 2015; Kearns & Sullivan, 2011). The 'how-to guides' on writing TPSs offer "highly formulaic structures" (Neaderhiser, 2016b, p. 7) and they are of dubious effectiveness since they only provide templates and rubrics for writing without any attention to the actual use of the language or the rhetorical moves in the genre (Neaderhiser, 2009, 2016a, 2016b; Supasiraprapa & De costa, 2017). The guides also focus on one context in which TPSs are required, that is teaching job applications, and do not consider other contexts and purposes of TPSs such as in tenure process or award/grant applications.

Some of these guides offer a set of wh-questions (e.g., Goodyear & Allchin, 1998; Kearns & Sullivan, 2011) which are directed more towards learning goals or assessment of teaching. Although these guides might be helpful in some way, they are also limited and do not consider authentic examples of these statements. For example, in one of the guides available, Kaplan et al. (2007) offer a rubric for developing TPSs written for teaching job applications based on responses from search committees and their institution goals. The rubric is based on five categories that include: (1) goals for student learning, (2) enactment of goals, (3) assessment of goals, (4) creating an inclusive learning environment, and (5) structure, rhetoric, and language (Kaplan et al., 2007, p. 251). These categories, although useful to offer some insights of what a TPS is, are still neglecting the process of writing a statement and how exactly the texts are constructed. The rubric is developed specifically for

the researchers' institution, and it aligns with the aims of that institution. This poses a problem for any writer who wants to follow this rubric but is not applying for this particular institution. Thus, generalizing this specific rubric for new writers in the genre would be inappropriate. In addition, the last category (structure, rhetoric, and language) is devoted to what not to write in teaching statements rather than what structures or language can be used. It represents what writers must avoid, such as teaching jargon or buzzwords.

This research study is designed to examine TPSs written by graduate students in a preparation course and winners of a teaching award for faculty members using ESP approach methods and corpus linguistics (Swales, 1990) and explore language choices that can be used by writers. The study will also contribute to teacher preparation programs by providing research-supported insights into how teachers develop their TPS, and it will also provide implications on how to prepare graduate students for writing a TPS using rhetorical moves and linguistic features when constructing the text. Combining corpus-based analysis with genre analysis will enrich the resources available for teachers and instructors as well as for those applying for an academic job.

The study examines moves frequency, patterns, and order. The corpus-based approach will help identify the rhetorical moves linguistic features, most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams in the genre and in the expert and novice TPSs. Most of the work on the analysis of TPSs has focused on either examining common themes or looking for evidence in the statement for effective and successful teaching. Little is known about the discourse structure of TPSs based on authentic examples or language used in these statements. The present study is developed to offer a description of the discourse structure of TPSs and their lexicogrammatical patterns.

2.6 TPSs in Empirical Research

Empirical research on TPSs include many investigations relating to teacher identity, metaphors, evidence of teaching effectiveness, changes in TPS of pre-service and in-service teachers and content analysis (i.e., a technique for analyzing data through creating a categorial system, Sankey & Foster, 2012). The following sections review the research on TPSs.

2.6.1 Teacher Identity and Metaphors in TPSs

Much of the current literature on the analysis of TPSs pays particular attention to teacher identity and how it is displayed and constructed in the texts. For example, Alghbban et al. (2017) explored teachers' self-perception and teachers' perceptions of the students through metaphors in TPSs. They specifically examined metaphors and their correlation with concepts related to the philosophy of education, which are teacher-, learner- and learning-centered paradigms. Metaphors such as *learning is a journey* and *teaching is a building* were categorized as conceptualization of teaching and learning and metaphors that focused on students were categorized as conceptualization of the learner. The findings revealed that teachers used many metaphors related to teacher and learning- centered paradigms than the ones associated with learner-centered paradigm.

Likewise, Neaderhiser (2016a) investigated how metaphors (i.e., any use of figurative language) are used to reflect teacher identity in TPSs written by novice and experienced teachers who taught composition studies in higher education. The key findings were the high number of metaphors found in all of the TPSs and within single statements, which contradicted what advice and guidelines, (e.g., Chism, 1997; Schönwetter et al., 2002) recommended of using a single metaphor in these statements. Neaderhiser (2016a) found that

teacher identities were reflected using metaphors of teachers being as *nurturing gardeners* or as *guides* to students.

Adopting Hyland (2012b) view that academic writers construct their identity through their writing and their linguistic choices, Supasiraprapa and De costa's (2017) study revealed that TESOL graduate students employed all metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005a) resources, such as transitions, self-mention, hedges and boosters, in their TPSs to construct two main identities: a competent graduate student and a knowledgeable ESL teacher. To reflect the first identity, the participants used transitions, such as *though* or *while,* to show their knowledge of academic norms and to show that they are theoretically informed. They also used transitions to reflect their identity as knowledgeable ESL teachers. Transitions were used to draw attention between the difference in the participants' learning experience and their teaching education.

2.6.2 Evidence of Teaching Effectiveness in TPSs

A number of studies have attempted to assess teaching effectiveness, success and ability (e.g., Bruff, 2007; Carraway & Burris, 2017; Meizlish & Kaplan, 2008; Rossetti & Fox, 2009) by using surveys, open-ended questions and interviews with hiring committees. The teaching effectiveness is judged through a range of materials submitted by the applicant that might include students' evaluations, description of teaching interest or TPSs. Therefore, the focus of this strand of research will be on how teaching effectiveness was perceived in TPSs submitted by applicants.

Bruff (2007) explored materials requested for job applications in mathematics and looked specifically at how teaching effectiveness is perceived in TPSs using responses from surveys of hiring committees. The responses focused on three main issues in the TPS which included: *specificity* (i.e., connection between the philosophy and teaching practice), *teaching*

experience, and *handling difficulty* (i.e., how an applicant handles difficulty of teaching by explaining the situation) in the TPS. Similarly, Meizlish and Kaplan (2008) study collected job postings and used online surveys to get responses from hiring committees in different disciplines. Their study examined teaching effectiveness in TPS which is recognized through providing concrete examples of teaching experience and "avoid vague platitudes" (p. 501).

Through using TPSs, observation of teaching and interviews with teaching members, Carraway and Burris (2017) examined effective teaching. They noticed that a focus on students through engaging them in learning, maintaining their interest, getting to know them, and setting high expectations for them are characteristics of effective teaching, along with teacher's involvement in professional development.

Comparable findings were reported by Rossetti and Fox (2009) in which TPSs from university professors were examined for themes related to effective teaching. They also found that promotion of learning, interpersonal communication with students and keeping teaching current by participating in seminars and changing materials and methods of teaching were the most important themes to consider a teacher successful.

2.6.3 Changes in TPSs of Pre-service and In-service Teachers

Another interesting direction of research on TPSs is evaluating pre-service and in-service teachers who have undergone teacher training. A comparison between a teaching statement written before taking the training and a statement written after the completion of the training has been made to detect similarities-differences (e.g., Nepal, 2014; Schussler et al., 2011). For instance, Nepal (2014) explored TPSs written by four mathematics graduate teaching assistants. Three TPSs were collected from each participant and three interviews were conducted. In the pre-service stage, the graduate assistants TPSs included a focus of their role model teachers which is due to their experience as students. Their teaching

philosophy evolved after being in-service and many changes occurred such as focusing on being prepared for class, using technology in teaching, wanting more independence in teaching, and focusing on more student-centered instruction. They also shared the view that students should put effort into learning, a view that evolved after experiencing teaching in a classroom.

Schussler et al. (2011) conducted a comparison of TPSs of graduate students before and after receiving a pedagogical instruction workshop and similar to Nepal (2014) finding, students reported a shift from teacher-centered instruction to student-centered instruction after the completion of the workshop. While the change in the TPSs in Nepal's study is attributed to experiencing actual teaching in a classroom, Schussler's et al. (2011) study participants attributed the change to learning educational theories and being exposed to experienced faculty in the workshop.

2.6.4 Content Analysis of TPSs

Using content analysis, a few studies examined TPSs for emergent themes (e.g., Felicilda-Reynaldo & Utley, 2014, 2015; Sankey & Foster, 2012) to look for characteristics of good teachers. Identified themes in award winning faculty TPSs, such as *facilitator, excellent researcher, role model,* and *expert in subject matter* were found by Sankey and Foster (2012), which mirrored what a good teacher is.

A study by Payant and Hirano (2018) focused on the dominant topics in TPSs and the use of personal pronouns and possessive adjectives. Focusing on English language teachers' TPSs in higher education, 27 TPSs were collected and analyzed for emergent themes. The analysis showed that the most dominant topics in TPSs are teaching approaches, teacher roles, and teaching and learning beliefs. The use of personal pronouns was evident and frequent in the data set in Payant and Hirano's (2018) study.

Hall et al. (2021) in their research of faculty TPSs showed that TPSs contained five themes: theoretical influence on teaching, facilitation of learning strategies, learning goals, teacher professional development, and teaching and learning beliefs. They recommend that doctoral preparation courses focus on connecting teaching theory with practice and make that connection clear in a TPS.

Most of the work in this area has focused on using content analysis, identifying dominant topics and themes in TPSs for evidence of teaching ability or 'good teaching'. Although guidelines provide advice for writing a TPS, they are not based on the investigation of actual examples of these statements, and some are created for specific institutions requirements and associated with a particular context and purpose of using a TPS. With the increased interest in TPSs in recent years, an investigation of these statements as a genre which are extensively used in academia is needed since the organization of authentic examples of TPSs and the language of TPS are scarcely addressed in literature. A discoursal point of view is absent from the literature and this research study provides an ESP corpus-based genre analysis of TPSs to describe the genre structure and its lexicogrammatical features.

2.7 Chapter Summary

The chapter offered the background on TPSs, starting with the definition of a teaching philosophy and presenting the main educational philosophies: idealism, realism, pragmatism, existentialism, and Postmodernism. The emergence of the TPS document and history is discussed along with the purposes and the importance of TPSs. The chapter also gives a summary of the guides available for writing a TPS. A discussion of the TPS as a genre is presented. The chapter ends with a literature review of research on TPSs and the different

strands of this research which includes teacher identity and metaphors, evidence of teaching effectiveness, changes in TPSs, and content analysis of TPSs.

The next chapter offers the relevant theoretical perspectives related to the present study including genre theory and move analysis.

Chapter 3

Relevant Theoretical Perspectives

In this chapter, I discuss the theoretical underpinnings of genre and genre theory. The chapter begins with an overview of the genre concept, the distinction between the term genre and register, characteristics of genres and definitions of genre analysis in section 3.1.

In section 3.2, the three main approaches to genre theory in language studies are reviewed with the purpose of establishing a theoretical framework for the present study. The three approaches: Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS), the Australian Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), and the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) are discussed as rather complementary in their analytical procedures. An overview of these three approaches is provided and developments in genre theory are discussed.

In section 3.3, I go into further details of the ESP approach to genre analysis and define some key concepts relevant to this study such as the communicative purpose, move analysis and occluded genres. A review of previous research on move analyses of different written and spoken genres is presented in section 3.4.

3.1 The Genre Concept

Genre, a word borrowed from French, is defined as types of texts (written or spoken) that share some characteristics in content and style (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; Hyon, 2018). For example, wedding invitations constitute a genre because they share the same function which is inviting people to a celebration. The wedding invitations share similarities in the content, word choice and syntax (Hyon, 2018). Another example of a genre is recommendation letters which function to evaluate the competence of an individual in a positive way (Bhatia, 2014).

Over the years, genre became a powerful concept used in a different sense. Rather than looking at genres as a mere categorization concept, researchers connected genre to social action and explored how genres are important in 'meaning-making' (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 3) of the social context (i.e., what purposes genre serves, the suitable situation to use genres in and the relationships between genres). Therefore, genre has become dominant in several disciplines that focus on the teaching of writing, such as applied linguistics, composition studies, discourse analysis and education (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; Bhatia, 1993, 2004; Swales, 1990).

Scholars offered different and sometimes overlapping descriptions of genre within language studies. For example, Martin (1993) defines genre as "a category that describes the relation of the social purpose of a text to language structure" (p. 2). Johns et al. (2006) see genre as the way writers use language to construct texts in particular situations. Genre is considered as "abstract, socially recognized ways of using language" (Hyland, 2002a, p. 114). Despite the numerous definitions of genre in language studies and the lack of agreement on a unified definition of genre, what they all have in common is the view that genres are purposeful acts and are used to create social meaning. Definitions of genre also highlight the relationship between texts and context.

Biber and Conrad (2019) point out the distinction between the terms *genre* and *register* approaches to text analysis. The *genre* approach tends to focus on "the linguistic characteristics that are used to structure complete texts" (p. 15) and genre is 'specific communicative events' (J. Flowerdew, 2013, p. 138), while the *register* perspective examines particular language (words and grammar) used in a certain field but the language can be used for multiple purposes and not only limited to a particular genre (Biber & Conrad, 2019). Genre analysis is based on complete texts but register analysis can be applied on excerpts of texts. As noted by Biber and Conrad (2019), many researchers use the term register and/or

genre without a clear cut of the theoretical distinction between the two. Researchers (e.g., Samraj, 2002a; Swales, 2004) used the term genre exclusively, while other scholars, for example, Conrad (2001) and Heath and Langman (1994) used the term register to refer to language used in particular settings such as legal or scientific registers.

Genres are characterized by their *communicative purpose* (i.e., the goals they achieve through the use of language, Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990). These goals are mutually understood by the regular users of the genres. These users are known to be *discourse communities* or *communities of practice* (Bhatia, 1993, 2004; Swales, 1990, 2004), that is, people involved in a certain genre who share certain purposes with an understanding of how language is used (Anthony, 2018; J. Flowerdew, 2013; Hyon, 2018). It is assumed that experts or established members form the genre conventions and possess greater understanding of the genre compared to novices or outsiders (Bhatia, 2004). *Staging* is another characteristic of genres which means that genres usually follow a certain sequential structure (J. Flowerdew, 2013).

According to Hyland (2009), genre analysis is categorized under the textual approaches in discourse analysis (refer to Chapter 1 for a definition of discourse analysis and the main approaches in discourse analysis). Genre analysis dates back to 1970s and 1980s (Connor, Upton, & Kanoksilapatham, 2007) and is defined as "a broad term embracing a range of tools and attitudes to texts, from detailed qualitative analyses of a single text to more quantitative counts of language features" (Hyland, 2009, p. 25). Another definition of genre analysis offered by Bhatia (2004) is "the study of situated linguistic behaviour in institutionalized academic or professional settings" (p.26). The present study focuses on genre analysis in the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach which is first compared to the other two approaches to genre theory: the RGS and SFL approaches. A discussion of the RGS and SFL approaches is necessary to understand the background of genre theory,

highlight the similarities and differences of the three approaches and justify the use of the ESP approach as a theoretical framework for this study. In section 3.3, a detailed discussion of the key terms in the ESP approach is offered.

3.2 Three Main Approaches to Genre Analysis

The interest in the concept of genre in language studies and applied linguistics has been reflected in three main approaches or 'traditions' as referred to by Hyon (1996), including (1) the Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS), also known as North American genre theory and the New Rhetoric (NR) genre theory, (2) the Sydney School based on Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), and (3) English for Specific Purposes (ESP) (J. Flowerdew, 2013; Hyon, 1996) approaches. These three approaches share some overlapping concepts such as purposefulness of genres and their social meaning. Nevertheless, the three approaches differ in emphasis given to texts as in the SFL and ESP approaches or the highlight of context as the main starting point in genre analysis (Hyland, 2002a). Genre approaches can be placed on a continuum with those approaches that focus on textual analysis at one end and those approaches that focus on contextual analysis at the other (J. Flowerdew, 2002). Textual and contextual analyses at these two ends are viewed as complementary and can be interconnected.

In section 3.2.1., 3.2.2., and 3.2.3, I will give an overview of each of the three approaches to genre analysis in terms of each approach history and definition of genre, the genre analysis approach used and the application of genre theory to pedagogy and classrooms. A summary of the three approaches is provided in section 3.2.4 followed by section 3.2.5 which discusses the developments in genre theory including the three approaches to genre analysis and how recently research in genre theory utilizes integrative

and cross-over methods, showing that the boundaries that separated the three approaches earlier became blurry and less obvious.

In section 3.3, I will discuss in greater detail the key concepts and the theoretical underpinnings of the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach and how it particularly relates to this study.

3.2.1 The Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS) Approach

The first approach is the Rhetorical Genre Studies (RGS) approach, based in North America. The RGS approach adopts a very different view of genre compared to the Sydney school approach and the ESP school approach. The RGS is considered non-linguistic or less explicitly linguistic according to J. Flowerdew (2002) and Hyland (2009) categorization of genre theorists and Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) labelling of genre approaches in their book.

Genre theory in this approach is based on an influential chapter by Miller (1984), *Genre as social action,* in which she described that genres are dynamic and produced to respond to recurrent situations. Genre in the RGS approach is identified not on the basis of "substance or the form of discourse but on the action it is used to accomplish" (Miller, 1984, p. 151). The genre theory is informed by ideological and social theories such as research on L1 rhetoric and not by linguistic theories as in the SFL and ESP approaches. The RGS approach is more focused on the social action which genres are used to accomplish and less on lexicogrammatical features (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; J. Flowerdew, 2002; Hyland, 2004a) and on the notion that genres are flexible and dynamic (Freedman & Medway, 1994b). Most of the researchers in this group are rhetoricians or theorists in composition studies, which explains the research emphasis on professional writing, rhetoric, and expert community.

The work in the RGS school employs ethnography, such as observations and interviews and examines the role of social context and its relationship to text. The goal is to

offer “thick descriptions” of the contexts of genres (Hyland, 2004a, p. 37). Research in this approach relies less on linguistic descriptions and textual regularities. However, the focus on the context in this approach does not suggest that the linguistic analysis is totally ignored, but the analysis starts investigating texts to describe the situational context as an outcome (J. Flowerdew, 2002). For instance, J. Flowerdew, Li, and Miller (1998) and J. Flowerdew and Miller (1996) studies focused more on the situational context by examining perspectives of students and lecturers concerning the academic lecture genre. Interviews, questioners, and observations were used to understand the genre users’ experience and less focus was given to the actual language or the linguistic analysis of academic lectures.

The application of the RGS approach in pedagogy or novice writing has been limited as the teaching of these written genres is not the priority of research using this approach. The classroom is considered as an inauthentic setting and lacks the complexities of a real situation. When teaching a genre in a classroom, the genre is isolated from its social context and its associated meanings (Freedman & Medway, 1994a). Hence, RGS supports teaching genres by allowing students to observe and reflect on genres in their actual setting and using ethnographic inquiry to do so (Johns et al., 2006). It is also viewed that teaching genres in the classroom is not appropriate since genres are dynamic and continuously changing (Hyland, 2004a). The RGS approach does not offer explicit pedagogy to be applied in classrooms. Instead, the RGS approach focuses on the situational contexts and social purposes of genres written by expert users and the possibility of learning the genres in different settings other than the classroom such as in a community or at home (Adam & Artemeva, 2002).

3.2.2 The Sydney School or Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) Approach

The Sydney School approach is based on the theoretical work of Michael Halliday (Halliday, 1994) in Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) and the work of J. R. Martin, Bill

Cope, Brian Paltridge and others (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010). Based in Australia, the Sydney School views language as a system for creating meaning (J. Flowerdew, 2013). Language organization is linked to social function as well as the context. Genre in the SFL approach is viewed as "a staged, goal oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture" (Martin, 1984, p. 25). Mainly, texts belong to the same genre if they share the same purpose and consequently will have similar structure.

Genre analysis in the SFL adopts the view that texts are connected to a specific context or *context of culture* at two levels. The first level is register, which includes *field* (the social activity and what the text is about), *tenor* (how participants are related), and *mode* (the role of language and the channel of communication). Creating a text entails choice of field, tenor and mode made by the writers. The second level is genre, "where linguistic choices are influenced by the writer's social purpose in using language, what he or she sets out to do" (Hyland, 2004a, p. 27). Therefore, the linguistic choices of writers are based on selected *text types* which are "rhetorical modes that follow systematic internal discourse patterns" (J. Flowerdew, 2013, p. 151), for example, narrative, description, explanation, argument, etc. and choices in respect to *field*, *tenor* and *mode*. SFL also highlights staging as a characteristic of genres and refers to it as *schematic structure* or *structural formula* (Martin, 1992). The Sydney school approach deviates from the RGS approach by its broad labelling of genres such as *discussion*, *explanation,* and *report*. These *text types* are the focus of genre analysis in SFL and are referred to as *elemental genres* (J. Flowerdew, 2013; Hyon, 2018). The *elemental genres* mix together to produce *macro-genres* in SFL such as essays or reports (J. Flowerdew, 2013). To illustrate, a newspaper editorial is a macro-genre that is composed of several elemental genres such as discussion and exposition (Hyland, 2004a).

The Sydney School approach to genre pedagogy was initially designed for young students in primary schools in Australia who were less privileged and in need to learn the

widely used and valued genres. The development of a sophisticated methodology started with the categorizing of the most used genres in primary schools along with their schematic structure and typical lexical and grammatical features (J. Flowerdew, 2013; Hyland, 2004a; Martin & Rose, 2008). The approach was later extended to secondary school students and immigrant adults programs and focused on the most valued genres students need to learn (J. Flowerdew, 2013; Hyland, 2004a; Johns, 2002, 2008).

3.2.3 The English for Specific Purposes (ESP) Approach

The ESP school is a comprehensive pedagogical as well as an analytical field. Although the history of ESP approach dates back to the early 1960s (Hyon, 2018), John Swales (1981, 1990) was the prominent researcher who, with his publications *Aspects of Article Introductions* and *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*, devised the structural organization of written texts in academic settings. His work was further developed by Bhatia (1993) who investigated business and legal discourse organization. Swales introduced the concept of genre and communicative purpose to ESP research (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; Hyon, 2018; Johns, 2013). These two central and interrelated concepts are explained below. First, genre for Swales (1990) is:

> A class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognised by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content

> and intended audience. If all high probability expectations are realized, the exemplar will be viewed as prototypical by the parent discourse community. (p.58)

Bhatia (1993) further elaborates on the concept of genre offered by Swales (1990) and identifies genre as

> A recognizable communicative event characterized by a set of communicative purpose(s) identified and understood by the members of the professional or academic community in which it regularly occurs. Most often it is highly structured and conventionalized with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form and functional value. These constraints, however, are often exploited by the expert members of the discourse community to achieve private intentions within the framework of socially recognized purpose(s). (p. 13)

The definitions of genre offered by Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993) both view that genres are realized by a series of communicative events. The communicative purposes as well as the conventions of the genre are understood by the discourse community. Bhatia (1993) adds the notion of 'private intentions' which are the communicative purposes that experts might use in a genre and are not recognizable by outsiders. For example, a question asked in a conference has the communicative purpose of asking for more information but it can also have the hidden purpose of undermining the credibility of the speaker (J. Flowerdew, 2013). The definitions of genre offered above are relevant to the present study which aims to investigate the discursive features of the genre of TPS.

Genres are central in the ESP approach and are recognized and 'named by their users' (J. Flowerdew, 2013, p. 151) such as research articles, university lectures, and laboratory reports. The communicative purpose, that is, the communicative goals that can be achieved through genres (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990, 2004), is the main criterion, which defines genre in the ESP approach. The communicative purposes are expressed in a particular language

(shared conventions) known and shared by the discourse community, that is, people who use the genre and create these conventions and the constraints "on what is generally acceptable in terms of how the text should be written or spoken, what issues it will address, and how it can do this" (Paltridge, 2013, p. 347).

Genre analysis in the ESP approach describes the discourse structure or the structural organization of texts as a series of *moves* and *steps* (Swales, 1990) or *strategies* (Bhatia, 1993). The analysis is referred to as *rhetorical moves* approach or *move analysis*. A survey of literature on this kind of analysis refers to it in different terms such as the *Swalesian* genre analysis/tradition, move-step analysis, move structure analysis, macro and microstructure analysis, schematic structure, or discourse organization. The most popular term is move analysis which the present study employs.

A *move* is a "discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse" (Swales, 2004, p. 228) that reflects the "mini communicative purpose" of a specific text segment (Hyon, 2018, p. 30). A move can be flexibly realized by a clause, a stretch of text or several sentences (Swales, 2004; Tardy & Swales, 2014). The identification of move types in texts belonging to the same genre varied in literature. Some scholars tend to identify a move by linguistic cues such as a shift in tense or explicit lexical items (e.g., Ding, 2007; Nwogu, 1997), while others rely on the discourse content and non-linguistic cues (e.g., Paltridge, 1994). Criteria for assigning moves also use a mix of these two approaches, that is, combining the linguistic signals and the content to determine the function of a segment in a text (Connor & Mauranen, 1999; Dudley-Evans, 1994).

Texts belonging to one specific genre (e.g., research article introductions, textbooks, lectures, or wedding invitations) are characterized by a structure of moves where each move serves a specific communicative function. The *step* in this analysis refers to "a lower level

unit than a move that provides a detailed perspective on the options open to the writer in setting out the moves" (Dudley-Evans & John, 1994, p. 89). The moves and steps might occur in all the texts (obligatory) or some of the texts (optional), might have different sequencing, or might be repeated through the text or embedded (see section 3.3.2. for more details on features of move analysis). The illustration in Figure 1 below shows how moves shape the communicative purpose/function of a text.

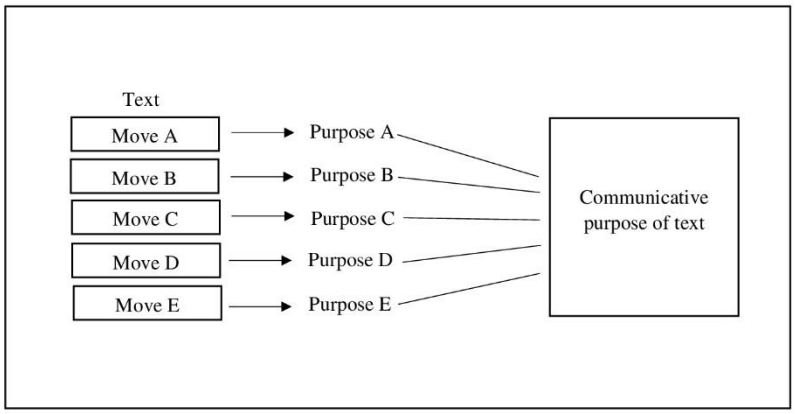

Figure 1. Moves in a text and the communicative purpose
Adapted from Henry and Roseberry (2001b) (p. 95).

Hyon (2018) introduces a noteworthy comparison between rhetorical moves in ESP genre analysis and dance to illustrate the concept of moves and steps. To help readers understand the analogy, she compares different dances to genres (e.g., research articles, textbooks, letters, etc.). The 'distinctive' steps in a dance are what characterize the dance. For example, the waltz has a three-step move, which is considered obligatory; however, variation is allowed in the other or remaining steps of the dance. Correspondingly, rhetorical moves in a certain genre are obligatory (i.e., the move is present in all texts), and other moves are optional (i.e., appear in some of the texts). The use of the optional moves reflects the "individualized expressions of speakers' and writers' styles and personalities" (p. 28). In

addition, the options for realizing a move, that is, the steps (Swales, 1990) or strategies, as referred to by Bhatia (1993), are different among writers in the same genre. For example, Joseph, Lim, and Nor (2014) examined a corpus of 20 Forestry research articles introductions and found that the move *presenting the present work* is obligatory but the steps for realizing the move varied in the articles. Some writers chose to *present hypotheses, questions and assumptions* and others *summarized methods*. The obligatory moves are at the core of the genre and they are what constitute a genre and distinguish it from other genres.

The revolutionary beginning of the ESP genre analysis was the CARS model devised by Swales (1990), in which he described the discourse structure of research article introductions and their linguistic features. Bawarshi and Reiff (2010) state that "by connecting rhetorical actions to rhetorical structures, the model provides a useful heuristic for investigating rhetorical structures and the underlying motives of writers' rhetorical choices" (p. 182-183). The aim of the model is to teach L2 learners how to write research articles skillfully by linking communicative purposes and the properties of texts. This groundbreaking analysis of research article introductions constituted the basis for various analyses that were applied to different genres in academic and professional contexts (see section 3.4 for studies on different genres in ESP).

Swales proposed that the overall communicative purpose of research article introductions is to create a research space, which is what CARS stands for. The rhetorical moves and the steps serve this main communicative purpose. The CARS model is shown in Figure 2 below (Swales, 1990). As can be seen in the model, move 1: *establishing a territory* is the mini functional communicative purpose of a part of the introduction that serves the overall communicative purpose of the genre (creating a research space) and the steps in this move explain how this is realized linguistically and the choices available for writers in this genre. Graduate students can construct a research article introduction based on the moves and

the steps in the model. There are also lexicogrammatical choices that can be used, that is, "vocabulary and grammatical patterns that help to express the genres' moves" (Hyon, 2018, p. 51). An example of lexicogrammatical options is using phrases such as:

> *The study of … has become an important aspect of …*
>
> *Recently, there has been wide interest in …*
>
> in move 1: *Establishing a territory*, step 1: *Claiming centrality* (Swales, 1990, p.144).

Move 1 Establishing a territory
Step 1 Claiming centrality
and/or
Step 2 Making topic generalization (s)
and/or
Step 3 Reviewing items of previous research

Move 2 Establishing a niche
Step 1A Counter claiming
or
Step 1B Indicating a gap
or
Step 1C Question-raising
or
Step 1D Continuing a tradition

Move 3 Occupying the niche
Step 1A Outlining purposes
or
Step 1B Announcing present research
Step 2 Announcing principal findings
Step 3 Indicating RA structure

Figure 2. The CARS model for research article introduction

Adapted from Swales (1990) (p.141).

As Figure 2 illustrates, Swales proposes three typical moves in research article introductions. As several subsequent studies applied and extended the CARS model to different contexts and disciplines, Swales revised the model in 2004 to account for the varied findings of research article introduction research. The 2004 model is shown in Figure 3 below.

Move 1 Establishing a territory (citation required) via
Making topic generalizations of increasing specificity

Move 2 Establishing a niche (citation possible) via:
Step 1A Indicating a gap
or
Step 1B Adding to what is known
or
Step 2 Presenting positive justification *(optional)*

Move 3 Presenting the present work via
Step 1 Announcing present research descriptively and/or purposively *(obligatory)*
Step 2 Presenting research questions or hypotheses *(optional)*
Step 3 Definitional clarifications *(optional)*
Step 4 Summarizing methods *(optional)*
Step 5 Announcing principal outcomes *(optional)*
Step 6 Stating the value of the present research *(optional)*
Step 7 Outlining the structure of the paper *(optional)*

Figure 3. Swales (2004) revised model of CARS

Adapted from Swales (2004) (p. 230-232).

The changes included the re-occurrence of *reviewing items of previous research* which can appear more than once through the texts and not only restricted to move 1 as it was conceived in the 1990 model. The three steps to realize move 3 were expanded to seven steps, steps 2-4 are optional and steps 5-7 occur in some fields (Swales, 2004).

The ESP school had and still has a profound influence on L2 writing instruction (Bhatia, 1993; Swales & Feak, 2004). This influence is reflected in its pedagogical context that focuses on teaching academic writing for non- native learners of English at the tertiary level. The approach has been extensively applied in ESP writing classrooms and teaching materials (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010; A. Cheng, 2007; Hyon, 2018; Paltridge, 2013). Students are prepared to use genre knowledge to write in 'target contexts' (Hyon, 2018), that is contexts they are going to be studying or working in, and these contexts involve the use of the structural organization of genres such as research articles or research proposals. Several books were based on ESP genre analysis targeting non-native learners of English and guiding them on how to investigate and produce academic genres such as the series of books for *Academic writing for graduate students* by Swales and Feak (2004, 2011).

The well-known CARS model was translated into different RA sections as well as different genres. Researchers are able to produce genre move models, e.g. (e.g., Bhatia, 1993; Kwan, 2006; Samraj, 2016) which describe genre structure and linguistic features and can subsequently be employed in pedagogy. However, the genre models are not to be applied as prescriptions but rather used as a set of flexible guidelines (Hyon, 2018; Swales, 2004). Another point is that move analysis is considered subjective, depending on the analyst's understanding of the communicative purpose of a genre, therefore, it has been criticized to a certain degree due to the reliance of assigning semantic categories to the texts (Bhatia, 1993; Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2015; Paltridge, 1994). This problem of subjectivity can be solved by conducting inter-rater/inter-coder reliability to validate the results of move analysis which has been incorporated in several research studies (e.g., Cai, 2016; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Kwan, 2017; Parkinson, 2017; Tessuto, 2015; Upton & Connor, 2007) (see Chapters 5 and 6 for inter-rater reliability of move analysis in the present study).

3.2.4 Summary of the Three Genre Approaches

The three approaches to genre theory "share a fundamental understanding of genre as inextricably tied to situation" (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 57). Despite this shared view, the three schools have different primary focus, pedagogy, and educational context (Hyland, 2004a). While the primary focus of SFL and ESP approaches is exploring discourse structure through examining the linguistic features of texts using a set of analytical strategies and models, the RGS approach focuses on social purposes and context and relies less on detailed analysis of texts.

Both ESP and SFL approaches have 'visible pedagogy' employed for explicit instruction of genres. The RGS approach questions genre pedagogy and its value in writing classrooms since genres are situated in real-world contexts and cannot be recreated in classrooms (J. Flowerdew, 2013; Hyland, 2004a; Hyon, 2018). They opt for a more general approach that includes the overall features of a genre. The RGS school does not have a well-developed model of language to be applied to genre analysis (J. Flowerdew, 2013).

The educational context of SFL approach is first language (L1) schools and adult immigrants. The RGS approach also focuses on L1 university composition (Hyon, 2018). The ESP school targets non-native graduate students in British and US universities who are considered "linguistically disadvantaged" (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010, p. 43). The ESP approach differs in its target audience from the RGS and SFL genre schools. Non-native graduate students need instruction on how to write in academic or professional genres. The target audience in the ESP approach affects which genres are of interest to explore and teach in the classroom, such as research articles, abstracts, or grant proposals. The conventions in a specific discipline or profession impose certain sets of communicative purposes and the use of specific lexicogrammatical features in a certain genre (J. Flowerdew, 2013; Hyon, 2018). Table 2 below offers a summary of the three approaches of genre according to their history,

the prominent researcher, genre definition, the pedagogical context, genre analysis methods and some examples of research in each approach.

Table 2

Summary of the Three Genre Approaches

	RGS	**SFL**	**ESP**
History	Began in the 1980s	Began in the late 1970s	Began in the early 1980s
Seminal work based on	Miller 'Genre as social action'	Halliday's Systemic Functional Linguistics	Swales CARS model
Genre theory	"typified rhetorical action" (Miller, 1984, p. 151)	"a staged, goal oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture" (Martin, 1984, p. 25)	"a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes…recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community" (Swales, 1990, p. 58)
Pedagogical context	L1 university composition, professional writing	Primary, secondary and immigrant adults' programs	Non-native graduate students in British and US universities, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) classes
Genre analysis	Ethnography, relationship between text and context	Systemic Functional Linguistics	Communicative purpose (s), move analysis

Some examples of research	Organizational communications (Yates & Orlikowski, 1992); genre teaching and learning (Adam & Artemeva, 2002; Artemeva, 2008), political briefs (Coe, 2002)	Service encounters (Hasan, 1989; Ventola, 1987), secondary school science writing (Macken-Horarik, 2002)	Research article introductions (Swales, 1990), legal and business discourse (Bhatia, 1993, 2004, 2008a), academic discourse (Cotos, 2019; Cotos, Huffman, & Link, 2017; Yelland, 2011)

What distinguishes ESP from other genre schools is combining rhetorical and linguistic studies of genre by explaining the rhetorical purposes and accounting for the lexicogrammatical features of texts. The ESP approach is considered "more linguistic than RGS and more oriented to the role of social communities than SFL" (Hyland, 2004a, p. 44). In addition, the genre analysis in ESP approach, which is aimed at identifying the discourse structure (i.e., the internal organization of texts) allows for a deeper understanding of the genre investigated and the choices the writers make. It is a well-known field because of its applied ends of genre analysis to language instruction. The frequency of occurrence of linguistic features is identified and the most salient features are used in teaching for post-secondary students. These special characteristics and the theoretical framework of the ESP school are the reasons why I choose to explore TPSs through its lenses. The target audience in the study is the teachers or instructors who are required to write a teaching statement; therefore, genre knowledge and awareness is crucial for writing in the genre. Also, the focus of this research study is the texts written by graduate students and other experienced writers. Accordingly, the RGS approach, for instance, cannot be applied here since it focuses on ethnography and observation of the genre context which is only partially available.

Given the objectives of the present study stated in Chapter 1, the present study employs multiple methods of analysis to understand how writers construct their TPSs based on the texts. First, the textual analysis will be based on the ESP corpus-based move analysis. The analysis describes the macro structure of the TPSs and specifically focuses on describing the microstructure presented in lexicogrammatical features which links the communicative purpose of the text to the formal properties of that communicative purpose. This detailed description is achieved through this analysis and can be later applied to develop instructional materials for various teaching preparation programs as it has been utilized in many previous studies to inform pedagogy and material design (e.g., C. F. Chang & Kuo, 2011; L. Flowerdew, 2016; Swales & Feak, 2004).

3.2.5 Developments in Genre Theory

Recent genre scholarship does not necessarily follow the simplistic categorization, that is, Hyon (1996) and others who followed it. The three approaches are now seen as more complementary to each other. The pure distinction of these three approaches is considered to be less evident (Johns et al., 2006; Swales, 2009; Tardy, 2011; Tardy & Swales, 2014) and several researchers (e.g., A. Cheng, 2011; Gebhard & Harman, 2011) integrated the methods of the three approaches to genre to examine many areas of research such as second language writing and genre-based pedagogy (Johns et al., 2006; Swales, 2009; Tardy, 2011; Tardy & Swales, 2014). The collection of chapters in *Genre in the classroom: Multiple perspectives* by Johns (2002) shows how these three genre approaches can complement each other by bridging textual analyses and social context. For example, Samraj (2002b) tied the textual analysis with contextual analysis in exploring students' academic writing in three courses: Wildlife Behaviour, Conservation Biology and Resource Policy. Samraj attended the three courses to observe the context of the courses and had discussions with the instructors and the

students. She concludes that the students' writing in these disciplines are influenced by the values of the school they are in and the conventions of the disciplines. The students also faced difficulty in their writing according to the task given. These findings show how important it is for EAP teachers to not only provide textual features of genres but also make students aware that writing varies with different contexts.

Research studies in the ESP approach have been influenced by the RGS approach and its emphasis on the role of context in genre analysis. In his 1993 work, Swales addresses the article "genre as social action" by Miller (1984) and acknowledges the role of context in genre analysis. Later, in his 1998 research study, he utilized a kind of ethnography, a method usually associated with the RGS genre approach. He used what he called 'textography' to expand on his earlier work in 1990. Textography "combines elements of discourse analysis with ethnographic techniques such as interviews, observations, and document analysis. It is, thus, something more than a traditional piece of discourse analysis, while at the same time less than a full-blown ethnography" (Paltridge & Stevenson, 2017, p. 45-46).

Swales (1998) studied texts and conducted interviews and observations in three academic units in the University of Michigan to better understand the culture of these academic units and to get a fuller picture of their practices and individual projects (Hyland, 2009), thus bringing together the context in which the genres are situated in and the texts they write and use on a daily basis. Swales found that on each floor of the University of Michigan, individuals wrote different texts and their life commitments and academic histories had an impact on what and how they wrote those texts.

Another example of the cross-over of these theoretical concepts in the three approaches is Paltridge (2004) examination of a kind of MA thesis called 'exegesis', a written component to be submitted in art and design discipline. Paltridge analysed these writings with surrounding texts such as exam guides and annual reports in addition to

interviews with students, examiners, and supervisors to understand the interaction between texts and context. Similarly, J. Flowerdew and Wan (2010) employed textography in the form of observations and interviews with auditors to gain better understanding of company audit reports. Combining genre approaches offers a detailed picture of genres and their context, allowing for further insights of the users, their culture, and the texts.

A recent development of genre analysis is the introduction of critical genre analysis (Bhatia, 2008b, 2017) which is considered as an advancement of the existing genre analysis model. Critical genre analysis is "an attempt to extend genre theory beyond the analyses of textual, intertextual and a number of other semiotic resources used in professional genres in order to understand and clarify professional practices or actions in typical academic and professional contexts" (Bhatia, 2017, p. 8). In critical genre analysis, multiple methods are employed to approach texts and their surrounding context to understand "how genres are exploited to achieve professional actions, paying particular attention to hybridization of genres and professional practices and disciplinary cultures" (Bhatia & Salmani Nodoushan, 2015, p. 125). For instance, a critical genre analysis of the corporate disclosure to shareholders utilized several methods of analysis which suggested that the letters used, for example, nominalization to avoid individual responsibility for weak performance. The findings of the textual analysis of these documents were supported by analysing other related documents which included evaluating performance of companies such as newspaper reports, business journal articles and rating agencies assessment of performance. The multi-perspective analysis revealed that companies tend to highlight the positive performance aspects over the negative performance and 'bend' the linguistic resources to keep a good image of the company in front of the shareholders (Bhatia, 2008c).

The present study also utilizes some of the RGS approach of context analysis by applying textography (Swales, 1998), with the basic theoretical framework based on the ESP

approach. In addition to examining the texts' rhetorical moves, the published advice is also explored to better understand the genre of TPS and highlight any variation between the actual texts and guides on writing those statements (e.g., Paltridge, 2002, 2007). The multi-method analysis, that is, the move analysis, corpus-based lexicogrammatical features, and the published advice analysis, enriches the description of the genre and helps in developing advice material as well as instructional material that are well-informed by research. In combining these approaches, the present study examines both texts and context of TPSs, thus drawing on a kind of ethnography which has its roots in the RGS approach (i.e., textography) together with the ESP genre analysis.

The following section is dedicated to key concepts in the ESP approach: the communicative purpose, features of move analysis, prototypicality of genres, the concept of occluded genres and how TPSs are viewed in the ESP genre theory. As the present study encompasses three different areas of research, that is, TPSs research, genre analysis and corpus-based genre analysis, a literature review on TPSs was offered in the previous chapter. In addition, a literature review of move analyses on written and spoken discourse is presented in section 3.4 of this chapter. Corpus-based genre analysis previous research is reviewed in Chapter 4, section 4.8.

3.3 Key Concepts in the ESP Approach

The following sections introduce some key concepts in the ESP approach. These include the communicative purpose of genres, features of move analysis including frequency of occurrence, move sequencing and cyclicity in genres, prototypicality of genres and occluded genres. These concepts relate directly to the present study.

3.3.1 Communicative Purpose in the ESP Approach

The communicative purpose in ESP is a 'privileged criterion' (Swales, 1990, p.58) in defining genres. The rationale of the genre depends on the purpose it serves. In more recent years, the role of communicative purpose as the defining characteristic of a genre has been debated. Askehave and Swales (2001) discuss how, with the increased number of genre studies, the concept of communicative purpose "has also become more complex, multiple, variable and generally hard to get at" (p. 195). To illustrate this problem and suggest possible solutions, Askehave and Swales (2001) observe that shopping lists are used as a reminder for the shopper of what to buy. However, with a closer look at the genre and interviews with some shoppers, the multiple communicative purposes have been revealed. The shopping list might be used for disciplining individuals and restricting their impulse purchases or for sticking to a diet when shopping. The multiple communicative purposes were not obvious when the first investigation of the genre was conducted. Yet, the concept of communicative purpose as a defining characteristic is still valuable in ESP genre analysis. What Askehave and Swales (2001) suggest is starting with a *provisional* communicative purpose and then *repurposing* the genre as appropriate after a thorough investigation of the genre has been carried out. One genre could have sets of communicative purposes, such as the retention-promotion-tenure (RPT) reports examined by Hyon (2008). The main communicative purpose of this genre is evaluating faculty, but some elements used in the reports such as, inventiveness (e.g., humor, informal language), are present to achieve 'unofficial' purposes of the genre, such as entertaining the reader or strengthening the faculty evaluation.

Swales (2004) announces that the communicative purpose of a genre might evolve, change, or expand over time, as well it might differ when examined in the same genre category but in different cultures. This is evident in Tu's (2010) study of self-introductions of Chinese and English universities on the internet. Chinese universities' introductions were

mainly recruiting students to the institution while English universities' introductions were aimed at enhancing international collaborations.

3.3.2 Features of Move Analysis

The analysis of rhetorical moves in ESP describes moves according to their status in a text (Samraj, 2014; Swales, 1990). The description includes (1) the frequency of occurrence of moves across the investigated texts and their lengths, (2) the sequence (order) of moves within texts, and (3) the re-occurrence (cyclical) behavior of the identified moves. The occurrence of moves across texts is calculated and the frequency determines if a move is obligatory or optional which can draw a picture of what writers in a genre mostly focus on.

Common practice in previous research determines a certain cut-off frequency for a move to be judged obligatory or optional. The cut-off frequency is determined at the discretion of the analyst and the genre being investigated, whether being a conventional genre such as the research article or an unconventional genre such as conference proposals. J. Flowerdew and Dudley-Evans (2002) state that "it is generally agreed that the more conventional a genre is – that is, the more constrained its communicative purposes are – the more predictable will be its schematic structure" (p. 470).

The criteria vary in assigning moves based on their frequency of occurrence. Li and Ge (2009) and Nwogu (1997) set the frequency of occurrence to more than 50% of the texts to become an obligatory move. Other researchers (e.g., Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2007, 2015) set the cut-off frequency at 60% for obligatory moves. The criteria for assigning moves as obligatory or optional is summarized in Table 3 below.

Table 3

Criteria for Classifying Moves as Obligatory, Conventional or Optional Based on Previous Move Analyses

Researcher (s)	**Obligatory move**	**Optional move**
Li and Ge (2009); Nwogu (1997)	≥ 50%	< 50%
Kanoksilapatham (2005, 2007, 2015)	≥ 60%	< 60%

Researchers are unanimous in considering moves that occur in less than 50% across the examined texts to be optional moves (Joseph et al., 2014; Li & Ge, 2009; R. Yang & Allison, 2003). An interesting point to be made is that not all genres are characterized by obligatory moves. Some genre analysts highlighted that in some unconventional genres, obligatory moves may not be present in 100% of the texts. For instance, the TESOL conference proposal, an unconventional genre, had no obligatory moves that occurred in 100% of the texts (Halleck & Connor, 2006). Length of a move, that is the textual space a move occupies or the average of words it contains (Connor et al., 2007), is also reported in move analysis. This measure of length can be useful in visualizing the obligatory moves and follow up on reasons of varying length of obligatory moves. R. Yang and Allison (2003) report on moves length in research article sections and notice that the two moves: *reporting results* and *commenting on results* are longer and more developed in the discussion section but they re-occur more frequently in the results section with shorter length.

Conventional genres such as research articles and job application letters, when explored through the analysis of ESP moves, show that the move order is “fairly formulaic” (L. Flowerdew, 2005, p. 327). Other less conventionalized genres which are less studied or exhibit a wide range of moves are characterized by a flexible move order which does not follow a specific pattern. Several studies of different written genres such as the strategic plan

in business companies (Cornut, Giroux, & Langley, 2012), doctoral theses in the visual and performing arts explored by Paltridge, Starfield, Ravelli, and Tuckwell (2012) and manuscript reviews (Samraj, 2016) as well as spoken genres such as lecture introductions (J. Lee, 2009; S. Thompson, 1994), TED talks (Y. J. Chang & Huang, 2015), and EAP classroom lessons (J. Lee, 2016) conclude that these investigated genres exhibit variation and flexibility in move sequencing.

Another aspect of move analysis is the re-occurrence of moves in a text. Moves might occur more than once in a text and each instance is counted as a separate occurrence (Connor et al., 2007; Swales, 1990, 2004). The re-occurrence of moves across texts highlights the schematic structure of the genre (Swales, 1990) and the sequence in which moves are to appear in the genre.

An uncommon feature of moves is the embedding of a move within another. Such a feature is usually found in less conventionalized genres and researchers might consider it as a stand -alone move or as an embedded move (Connor et al., 2007). As an example, analyzing the fundraising letters, Upton and Connor (2007) were able to find that two moves: *offer incentives* and *reference insert* were embedded in other moves in the letters.

Move analysis is complemented with the analysis of linguistic realizations of the identified moves in a genre. After the moves are segmented, a linguistic analysis within move types is carried out. The term *lexicogrammatical features* is usually used to refer to the focus on vocabulary and grammar in genre analysis. These lexicogrammatical features include, but not limited to, third person singular, word choice, tense, aspect, voice, phrase types, and pronouns (Hyon, 2018; Joseph et al., 2014; Pho, 2008; Tardy & Swales, 2014; Upton & Cohen, 2009). In corpus-based genre analysis, the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams are used to uncover the lexicogrammatical features of moves in genres (see Chapter 4) (Henry & Roseberry, 2001a, 2001b; Hyon, 2018; Tribble, 2001).

Genre analysis, away from any association with one particular approach of genre theory, has employed a diversity of methods which are discussed by Tardy and Swales (2014) with most studies blending those methods, that is adopting multi-method approach to better understand genre. They describe text analysis and move analysis (Swales, 1990) and state that these two methods are usually used together to analyse texts. Text analysis focuses on textual and lexicogrammatical features, those include single-word items such as hedging, reporting verbs and personal pronouns, (e.g., Salager-Meyer, 1994; G. Thompson & Ye, 1991) and multi-word clusters which are sequences of words that frequently occur together (Hyland, 2008b).

3.3.3 Prototypicality of Genres

Swales's (1990) definition of genre includes what he calls prototypical instances of genres. These are the instances of genres that conform to the conventions set by the discourse community. The discourse community share communicative purposes of the genre and communicate efficiently by using shared language (J. Flowerdew, 2000). For example, research articles follow a certain organization and lexical expressions that are established by expert members of the respective discourse community.

Some instances of a genre might differ in their prototypicality but are still considered as examples of a genre (Paltridge, 2013). To illustrate, introductions in academic journals usually follow a prototypical three-part model (the CARS model), but sometimes some research articles will have a different structure to that of the CARS model and they are still considered as examples of a research article introduction. This phenomenon of deviation from the prototypes of a genre is referred to as *genre play*.

Hyon (2018) defines genre play as "a speaker's or writer's purposeful movement away from prototypical forms or functions of the genre s/he is using" (p. 163). Genre play has

been observed in the genre literature and is referred to in various descriptions such as creativity (Bhatia, 2008a, 2014), inventiveness (Hyon, 2008), play (Hyon, 2018; Tardy, 2016), resistance (Bawarshi, 2003), manipulation (Negretti & McGrath, 2020), and innovation (Tardy, 2016). Deviation from genre norms can take several forms, these include *genre stretching*, *genre mixing* and *genre parody* (Hyon, 2018).

Genre stretching is a departure from genre norms, but the genre still follows some of the conventions. An example is a car manual written with jokes. The purpose of genre stretching is usually self-promotion or highlighting individual identities and preferred cultural conventions (Hyon, 2018; Tardy, 2016). Genre mixing, as the name suggests, is combining features of several genres within a text, resulting in a *hybrid* genre that exhibits characteristics from multiple genres (Bhatia, 2014). Bhatia (1997) observed how genre mixing is present in academic introductions. The introductions contained many adjectives and moves that are usually features of promotional discourse. Genre parody is a different form of genre play because it rather 'hyper-imitates' (Hyon, 2018, p. 168) a genre and does not involve deviation from the genre norms. In a way, genre parody mocks the conventions of a genre and creates a different genre with different communicative purposes. Example of a genre parody is mockumentaries (mock documentaries). These three forms of genre play emphasize the flexibility of genres and how individuals reflect their own voice when writing in a genre. It also highlights the value of examples of genre play to be used as teaching material for ESP learners (Hyon, 2018; Tardy, 2016).

3.3.4 Occluded Genres in ESP

Further developing his 1990s work, Swales (1996) introduced the concept of *occluded genres*, which he defines as follows

> On the one hand, they are typically formal documents which remain on file; on the other, they are rarely part of the public record. They are written for specific individual or small-group audiences, and yet may also be seriously invested with demonstrated scholarship and seriously concerned with representing their authors in a favourable professional light. More importantly, however, exemplars of these genres are typically hidden, 'out of sight' or 'occluded' from the public gaze by a veil of confidentiality. One consequence of these characteristics is that newcomers to a field, such as graduate students or junior staff, may have particular difficulties in matching the expectations of their targeted audiences. (p. 46)

Occluded genres in academia are those hidden because they are used to determine and sometimes evaluate academics and their current or future membership of particular communities such as the manuscript reviews genre (Hyon, 2011). Hence, access to these documents is typically restricted (Aguilar, 2004; Samraj, 2016) or "largely hidden from public view" (Swales & Feak, 2011, p. xiii) compared to *open* or *public* genres (Swales, 1996), such as published research articles, book reviews and theses and dissertations (Swales & Feak, 2011).

Examples of these hidden genres are statements of purpose for graduate schools (e.g., Ding, 2007; Samraj & Monk, 2008), PhD confirmation reports (e.g., Jiang & Ma, 2018), submission letters, review letters, book and manuscript reviews, grant proposals and evaluation letters for tenure or promotion (Swales, 1990; Swales & Feak, 2011) (see Chapter 4, section 4.8.5 for a literature review of corpus-based genre analysis of occluded genres).

Neaderhiser (2016b) and Payant (2017) suggest that TPSs constitute such a hidden academic genre, one that supports academics' career development: "The teaching statement qualifies as an "occluded genre" that exists in the grey area between private and public" (Neaderhiser, 2016a, p. 437). The TPS genre is not readily available to be collected for many

constraints such as being hidden from public eye in some contexts or being restricted by copyright or by institutions because the statements are part of the tenure/promotion process.

In addition to being occluded, TPSs are considered a *supporting* genre (Swales & Feak, 2011). Supporting genres are those "that facilitate the more public genres… that form the building blocks of an academic and/or research career" (p. xiii). Figure 4 below illustrates the relationship between public (open) and supporting academic genres.

The degree to which TPSs are occluded or semi-occluded depends on the purpose for which they are being used. For example, there are many examples available of the genre online and in guides for the use of these statements as a part of the application for an academic job or a language instructor job. Samples of these statements written for teaching awards are also accessible through a web search. However, more private and hidden TPSs are the ones used in tenure-track, and promotion applications, where the information contained in such documents is more confidential than those written for an academic job application (Hyon, 2011), and it is hard to obtain such examples because of their 'occluded' status within this context.

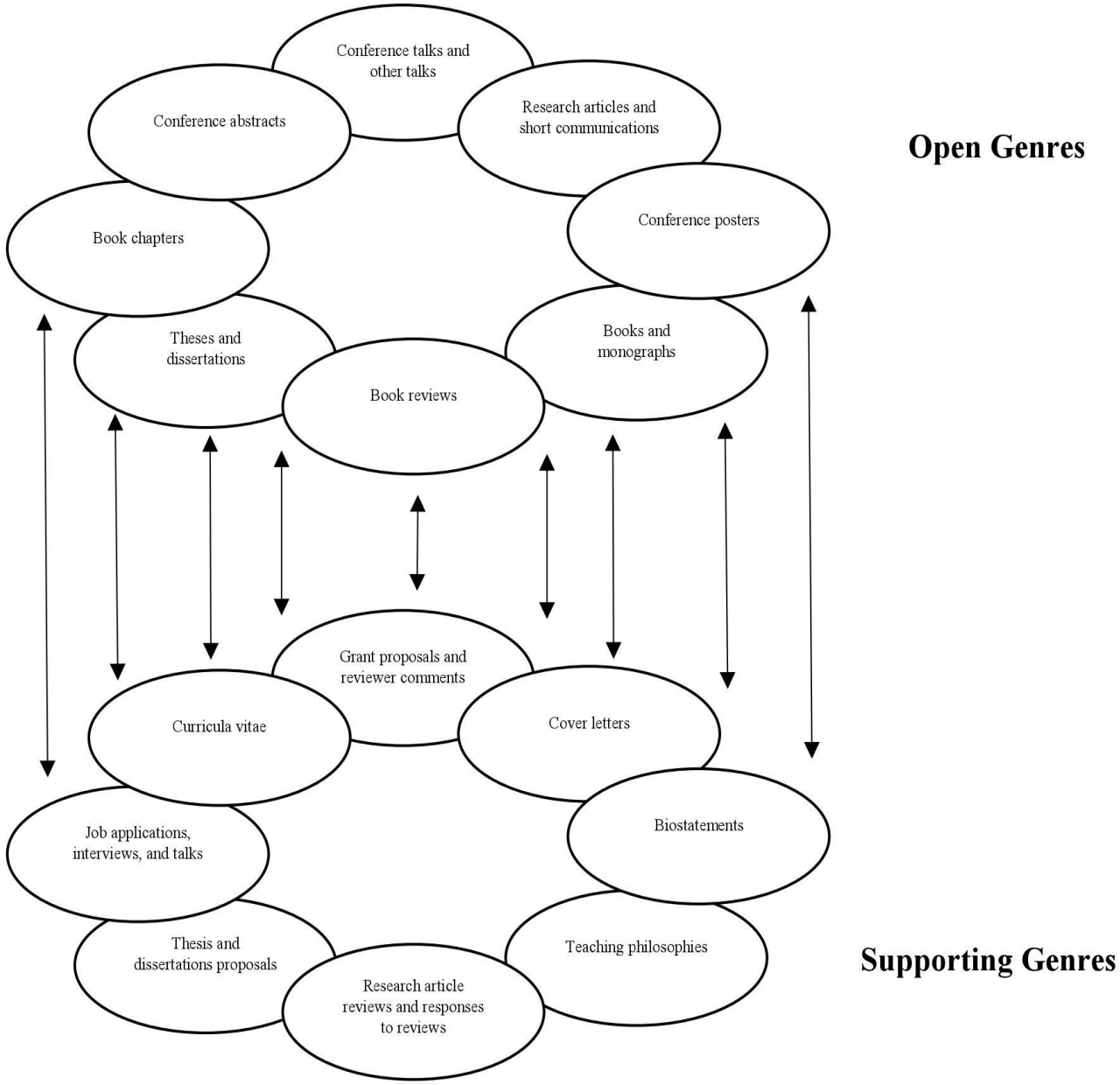

Figure 4. Public and supporting genres

Adapted from Swales and Feak (2011) (p. x).

As can be seen in Figure 4, public and occluded genres are interconnected. For example, the occluded research article reviews and responses to reviews are supporting the publication process of a research article and writers need to have genre knowledge to communicate effectively in academia (Swales & Feak, 2011). Teaching philosophies are in the background of supporting an academic career according to Swales and Feak.

Nevertheless, TPSs are becoming central to the teaching career and in graduate students' preparation and training courses. The importance of these documents is well-established in the literature (see Chapter 2, section 2.3) and their value can be seen in many contexts of use worldwide such as in the hiring process or promotion/tenure process in higher education. The term 'supporting genre' might be less applicable to such an important and crucial genre in academy.

3.4 Previous Studies of Move Analyses of Various Genres

Following the development of the CARS model, subsequent research examined part-genres of the research article such as research articles abstracts (e.g., M. B. Dos Santos, 1996; Lorés, 2004; Martín, 2003; Pho, 2008; Samraj, 2013a), the *methods* section (e.g., Arsyad, 2013; Cotos et al., 2017; Lim, 2006; Nwogu, 1997; Wood, 1982), the *results* section (e.g., Bruce, 2009; Nwogu, 1997; D. Thompson, 1993; I. Williams, 1999; R. Yang & Allison, 2003), and the *discussion* section (e.g., Holmes, 1997; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Y. Liu & Buckingham, 2018; Posteguillo, 1999; R. Yang & Allison, 2003). Over the years following the move analysis introduction, a substantial amount of research has been carried out on other genres. The next section sheds some light on selected studies of written and spoken genres that were investigated using Swales (1990) notion of genre and move analysis. It also presents professional genres, and cross-cultural genre analyses.

The ESP genre analysis of rhetorical moves was carried out by several researchers to explore academic written genres. These studies have investigated, for example, TESOL conference proposals, call for papers for academic conferences as well as grant proposals (e.g., Connor & Mauranen, 1999; Connor & Upton, 2004b; Cotos, 2019; Halleck & Connor, 2006; Kessler, 2020; W. Yang, 2015). These studies depended on the theoretical framework

of Swales (1990) genre analysis but devised their own genre model with descriptions of obligatory and optional moves.

Move analysis was also conducted on introductions of academic books (e.g., Bhatia, 1997), editorial letters to journals (e.g., J. Flowerdew & Dudley-Evans, 2002), manuscript reviews (e.g., Belcher, 2007; Samraj, 2016), book reviews (e.g., Motta-Roth, 1998; Suárez-Tejerina, 2005), academic journal bio statements, for example, Hyland and Tse (2012) and Tardy and Swales (2014), student laboratory report (e.g., Parkinson, 2017), written feedback (e.g., Yelland, 2011), letters of appeal written by students (e.g., Sadeghi & Samuel, 2013), and statements of purpose for postgraduate study (e.g., Ding, 2007; López-Ferrero & Bach, 2016; Samraj & Monk, 2008).

Shifting the focus to institutional contexts, PhD theses and dissertations were also explored through the lens of move analysis. Examples include acknowledgments in postgraduate theses and dissertations (e.g., Giannoni, 2002; Hyland, 2004b), theses abstracts (e.g., Samraj, 2014), theses research questions (e.g., Lim, 2014), PhD thesis introductions (e.g., Bunton, 2013), PhD discussion chapters, for example, Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988), and PhD conclusion chapters (e.g., Bunton, 2005).

The focus of the ESP approach was mostly on written genres (Johns, 2003), but it has extended to spoken genres in recent years such as studies on lecture introductions (e.g., J. Lee, 2009; S. Thompson, 1994), peer seminar (e.g., Aguilar, 2004), three- minute thesis presentations, for example, Hu and Liu (2018), conference presentations introductions (e.g., Rowley-Jolivet & Carter-Thomas, 2005), questions and comments in discussion sessions in computer science conferences (Xu, 2022), nurse-patient interactions (e.g., Staples, 2015) and the bargaining genre in retail (e.g., Orr, 2007).

In addition, genre researchers carried out research on professional genres such as business sale and response letters (e.g., Bhatia, 1993; V. P. Dos Santos, 2002; Yunxia, 2000),

law barristers opinions (e.g., Hafner, 2010), direct mail letters (e.g., Upton, 2002), letters of application for jobs by native speakers of English, for example, Henry and Roseberry (2001a) and Upton and Connor (2001), legal discourse in case notes (Tessuto, 2012), email responses to customer complaints (e.g., Van Herck, Decock, & Fastrich, 2022), LinkedIn resumes (e.g., Bremner & Phung, 2015), tax computation letters (e.g., J. Flowerdew & Wan, 2006) and customer service webchat exchanges (e.g., Lockwood, 2017; Xu & Lockwood, 2021).

There has been an increasing interest in investigating genres in different cultures or different communities. Move analysis has been employed as a method in comparative genre analysis to aid a greater understanding of genre structures and how they might differ in these contexts (Connor, 2002, 2004; Samraj, 2014). Some of these investigations include grant proposals in Chinese context (e.g., Feng, 2008), sales letters in English and Chinese (e.g., Yunxia, 2000), money-chasing letters, a kind of business communication, in Italian and English (Vergaro, 2002), academic book reviews of literature in English and Spanish (Suárez & Moreno, 2008), research article abstracts in the US and Iraq (Friginal & Mustafa, 2017), PhD defense (viva) in the US and Sweden (Mežek & Swales, 2016), comparison of intercultural and intracultural similarities and differences of PhD literature introductory chapters between English and Japan (Ono, 2012), comparison of letters of recommendation in the US, UK and Germany (Precht, 1998), and acknowledgments in English and Italian journals (Giannoni, 2002). These studies conducted move analysis on these different genres situated in different cultures and were able to highlight structural differences of the genres according to the users and the context of the genre.

The overwhelming number of move analyses studies shows the robustness of the model suggested by Swales (1990). Some of these studies produced genre models that can be applied to pedagogy and others extended existing genre models by applying the analysis to different data sets from various disciplines or different cultures. Most of these research

studies can be seen as what is called traditional genre analysis in which moves are identified and then some selected language features are discussed (Connor et al., 2007). The present study extends the move analysis by not only identifying a genre model of TPSs but also describing the typical lexicogrammatical features of moves by applying corpus-based analysis of each move to guide other writers of the language used in these statements and how to use it based on the examination of authentic examples of the genre.

3.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has highlighted the genre theory and its relevant theoretical perspectives. The chapter provided a definition of genre in language studies, distinguished the terms genre, and register and how these two terms have been used in literature, and listed common characteristics of genres. It also presented genre analysis as an approach in textual discourse analysis.

The chapter has presented the three main approaches to genre theory: the RGS, the SFL and the ESP approaches. It discussed each approach according to its definition of genre, genre analysis approach and application to pedagogy. The section ends with a summary of the three approaches and recent developments of genre theory, which includes less boundaries between the three approaches and more integration of methods. It also highlights the characteristics of the ESP approach and the reason for adopting an ESP perspective of genre in the present study.

The chapter has explored the key concepts in the ESP approach such as the communicative purpose, features of move analysis, prototypicality of genres and the concept of occluded genre and how the TPSs are an occluded genre that supports open genres. The chapter has reviewed previous studies of move analysis across various genres, namely written academic genres, spoken genres, professional genres, and cross-cultural investigations of

genres. These studies highlighted the usefulness of the move analysis and how it can reveal discourse structure and their associated linguistic features. In sum, this chapter has introduced the theoretical foundations for the present study.

The next chapter focuses on corpus linguistics and genre analysis and details how these two areas of research became intertwined. It also offers a literature review of corpus-based genre analysis.

Chapter 4

Corpus Linguistics and Genre Analysis

This chapter discusses Corpus Linguistics (CL) and how it is applied in genre analysis studies. The chapter begins with a definition of corpora and CL and distinguishes between corpus-based and corpus-driven approaches. It then presents types of available corpora and discusses corpus design issues, with reference to issues related to size and representativeness of a corpus.

The chapter moves to present the most popular corpus methods used in discourse and genre analysis which include wordlists, keywords, concordance lines, collocations and n-grams or lexical bundles. The integration of CL and discourse analysis is introduced with a focus on how CL and ESP genre analysis has been integrated as the present study adopts the same methodology.

The last section of this chapter presents a review of related studies in ESP that employed corpus methods in analysis of genres at the move level, that is, identified rhetorical functions of a genre and then examined lexicogrammatical features by applying corpus methods of wordlists, keywords, and n-grams. It also presents corpus-based move analysis of occluded genres which the TPS genre of this study belongs to.

4.1 Corpora and Corpus Linguistics

Corpora (singular corpus) are “large bodies of naturally occurring language data stored on computers” (Baker, 2006, p.1). In linguistics, a corpus refers to “a collection of sampled texts, written or spoken, in machine-readable form which may be annotated with various forms of linguistic information” (McEnery et al., 2006, p. 4). Corpus linguistics (CL) is defined as “the application of computational tools to the analysis of corpora, in order to

reveal language patterns which systematically occur in them" (J. Flowerdew, 2013, p. 160). Early CL applications focused on lexicography, historical linguistics and dialectology (L. Flowerdew, 2002) and were later extended to various areas of research such as second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, discourse analysis, language teaching and learning and many others (L. Flowerdew, 2012; McCarthy & O'Keeffe, 2010).

One of the first electronic corpora built in the modern era is the Brown corpus, compiled in the 1960s in the US. It contains one million words of American English of press editorials, essays, academic prose, biographies, etc. its British counterpart, the Lancaster-Oslo-Bergen (LOB) corpus also contains one million words of British English and the same sampling frame of the Brown corpus was used to compile the LOB (Biber, 2010; J. Flowerdew, 2013; McEnery et al., 2006).

To date, there has been little agreement on what CL is and many perspectives have been offered. Some scholars assert the standpoint that CL is a methodology or a set of tools while others argue that CL by itself is a theory, a science or a separate discipline (Taylor, 2008). Those who view CL as a methodology do not see the field qualifying as an independent discipline in the same sense as phonetics or syntax do because these branches of linguistics (i.e., phonetics, syntax, semantics, etc.) focus on a specific aspect of language use. CL is rather seen as a set of tools that can be applied to many areas of language studies and teaching for understanding naturally occurring language (McEnery & Wilson, 1996; McEnery et al., 2006). For example, syntax can be investigated using CL. In contrast to that position, Leech (1992), Stubbs (1993) and Tognini-Boelli (2001) share the viewpoint that CL is not to be limited to a set of tools and it should be seen as a separate discipline and more of "a new philosophical approach" (Leech, 1992, p. 106) that informs the linguistic theory. Yet, another perspective views CL as both a methodology and an independent branch of linguistics. A methodology when applied to research in various areas of linguistics and other

fields and an independent branch of linguistics in the sense that it focuses and studies language and is underpinned by theories and experiments as any other science (Aston, 2011; Baker, 2010, 2011). As seen, contrasting viewpoints have been offered of what CL is, and no agreement is yet reached about the status of CL.

4.2 Corpus-based vs. Corpus-driven Approaches

Two main analytical approaches to corpus analysis are *corpus-based* analysis and *corpus-driven* analysis, concepts originally introduced by Tognini-Boelli (2001). In the corpus-based approach, researchers use corpus/corpora "in order to explore a theory or hypothesis, typically one established in the current literature, in order to validate it, refute it or refine it" (McEnery & Hardie, 2012, p. 6). The corpus-based approach moves from the general to the specific, in which the researcher begins with a theory that is validated through an analysis of a corpus and is supported by corpus evidence (W. Cheng, 2012). Corpus-based research also uses a range of computer-assisted techniques to examine corpora under investigation (Biber & Conrad, 2001).

In a corpus-driven approach, the process is inductive, and the linguistic cues are the starting point in segmenting the texts. The corpus serves as the research data and inferences are directly tested and extracted from the data to show patterns and regularities. It is also emphasized that the corpus in such an approach is the only source of theory or hypothesis and the researcher should approach the corpus with no pre-existing theories, thus, the corpus represents its own theory of language and "aims to derive linguistic categories systematically from the recurrent patterns and the frequency distributions that emerge from language in context" (Tognini-Boelli, 2001, p. 87).

W. Cheng (2012) raises an interesting point when comparing the perspectives on CL. She notices that researchers who consider CL as a methodology engage in corpus-based

analysis, while those who view it as a discipline or as a theory of language engage in a corpus-driven analysis. The results of each analysis differ as corpus-based analysis starts with a theory and ends with a confirmation or invalidation of that theory. The corpus-driven analysis starts with an observation and ends up with a theory.

The present study adopts a corpus-based approach to move analysis which helps to achieve the objectives of the study (see section 4.6 of this chapter for detailed steps of corpus-based move analysis). TPSs are examined using the theoretical framework of the ESP move analysis, a pre-existing genre theory (see Chapter 3) which assumes that TPSs follow a certain structure. The move analysis is conducted on a corpus of TPSs to describe and refine a genre model and then explore the lexicogrammatical features which are analyzed and facilitated by using corpus methods such as keywords, wordlists, and n-grams (these are explained in section 4.5). The linguistic features are explored using these corpus methods on the move level and examine the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams in the TPSs corpus and the faculty and graduate students TPSs (see Chapter 5).

4.3 Types of Corpora

There are different types of corpora. These can be broadly categorized to *spoken* vs. *written* corpora, *monolingual* corpus that contains one language vs. *multilingual* corpus that contains two or more languages, *open* corpus which is always expanded by adding texts vs. *closed* corpus that contains a fixed number of texts without adding any once it is complied, and *learner* corpus that includes texts from language learners and is used to identify errors and mistakes of learners and compare it to native speakers language (Bowker & Pearson, 2002).

In terms of texts represented in a corpus, corpora can be broadly categorized to *general- or general-purpose corpora* and *specialized or special purpose corpora*. *General*

corpora are those which represent a certain language variety such as the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Bank of English (BoE). These corpora consist of 100-650 million words and some are still growing over time (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). Other popular spoken general corpora are the Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English (CANCODE) that contains 5 million words and the British National Corpus (BNC) spoken component. The data in these corpora typically contain samples from different genres and disciplines to ensure the corpora are maximally balanced in terms of representing the language being considered. For example, the British National Corpus (BNC) contains 100,106,008 words and it is designed to present modern British English (McEnery et al., 2006; O'Keeffe, McCarthy, & Carter, 2007). General corpora are designed for a large audience and researchers can use it to make observations about patterns in a certain language variety.

General corpora are usually annotated or tagged, that is, adding linguistic information and/or information about the text and its content and components to the corpus (Bowker & Pearson, 2002), to make it easier for researchers to investigate some features or choose a subset of the corpora to analyze. The most popular corpus annotation is the parts of speech (POS) annotation which tags each word in a corpus as a noun, verb, etc. Other annotation systems might include any lost information when compiling a spoken corpus such as noises or events. It could also include the first language of the writer with age and gender as in the annotation of the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus (Nesi, 2013; Reppen, 2010).

A *specialized or a special- purpose* corpus is designed to embody a specific genre, a sub-language, or a domain and is designed for special purposes or to answer specific research questions. Examples of such corpora include the British Academic Spoken English corpus (BASE), the Corpus of Professional Spoken American English (CPSA) which contains

transcripts of speech in academic and professional settings. Also, the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English (MICASE) includes 1.8 million words of university spoken academic English from a range of sources such as lectures, interviews and dissertation defenses (Biber, 2010; O'Keeffe et al., 2007).

L. Flowerdew (2004) suggests some parameters for the definition of a specialized corpus. These include the specific purpose of compiling the corpus, the size of the corpus, the genre being investigated, the type of text or discourse, the subject matter, and the variety of English used in the corpus. Depending on the research questions of a study, the researcher can either use 'ready-made' specialized corpora that are generally available or build their own corpora, which is referred to as 'do-it-yourself' (DIY) corpora (McEnery et al., 2006) and these DIY specialized corpora tend to be smaller in scale compared to general corpora. The corpora in this study are categorized as a specialized corpus as it contains a specific genre type which is the focus of the analysis. The process of building the corpus of this study is detailed in Chapter 5.

4.4 Corpus Design Issues

Two issues arise in the process of building a corpus, corpus size and representativeness of the corpus. These two issues have been extensively discussed in the literature, especially the size of the corpus (L. Flowerdew, 2011; McEnery et al., 2006). The appropriate size of a corpus is highly dependent on what is being investigated by the researcher and the purpose of investigation. In addition, the availability of the data, or machine-readable data and copyrights all affect the size and restrict corpus compilation for researchers (McEnery et al., 2006). For instance, Vaughan (2008) used a 40,000 words corpus to explore the role of humor and laughter in English language teachers meetings. The

corpus was appropriate to answer the specific questions of that study, although it is considered a relatively small corpus.

Sinclair (1991) argues for bigger corpora in terms of size and recent trends in CL are to compile ‘mega-corpora’ which contain millions of words, yet an argument for using small, specialized corpora has been put forward by many researchers (e.g., L. Flowerdew, 2004; Handford, 2010; Henry & Roseberry, 2001b; Koester, 2010). The value of exploiting small, specialized corpora can be seen in pedagogy because this kind of corpora are well-suited for studying frequent lexicogrammatical items. Larger corpora are more appropriately used in lexicography (Nelson, 2010), in which billions of words are needed to create dictionaries and capture all word descriptions (Reppen, 2010).

To study a specialized language, a small, specialized corpus is preferable over a general corpus due to many reasons. These include the context in which texts are compiled in specialized corpus. The compiler of the corpus is usually the analyst of the genre and they have familiarity with the context of texts, compared to general corpora that contain decontextualized excerpts of texts and not complete documents which are central to top-down genre investigation, that is, examining the macro structure first and then move to micro-structure (sentences, phrases, words) (L. Flowerdew, 2004). Another reason is the sampling methods that are used to build general corpora. These do not take into account the genre of the texts represented (Handford, 2010) and tend to have a variety of text types in one corpus that may have limited representation of a specific genre. Also, a small, specialized corpus lends itself to qualitative analysis which carefully examines texts and lexicogrammatical features in a genre. Carrying out such an analysis on a general corpus may not be possible due to time and effort needed for qualitative analysis.

Previous studies on small specialized corpora have yielded some important insights into language teaching and learning in ESP and EAP (Tribble, 2002) (see section 4.8 for an

overview of these studies). The present study focuses on the discourse organization of TPSs in which "more specialized corpora are more appropriate for the study of discourse structure" (Biber, Connor, & Upton, 2007a, p. 18).

Representativeness is concerned with capturing the variability of language in a certain sample according to the research questions (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). For example, a researcher can define the sampling frame, that is, "the entire population of texts from which we will take our samples" (McEnery & Wilson, 1996, p.64), such as all books related to a specific field in a specific library in a certain period, to ensure the representativeness of the study sample. The representativeness of the text categories in a specialized corpus, such as the one in this study, is defined as having genre-specific texts that represent the discourse area being investigated (Biber et al., 2007b; Connor & Upton, 2004a) and that representatives is measured by applying external criteria such as who or for whom the text is produced and the subject matter of the text (L. Flowerdew, 2004). In comparing general and small specialized corpora, Handford (2010) states that specialized corpora "can be markedly smaller and still validly claim to be representative to some degree" (p. 258).

When designing a special purpose corpus, other issues are to be considered such as the inclusion of text extracts vs. full texts which, in case of investigating a genre, is important. As discussed above, general corpora usually include text extract and not full texts. This exclusion of full texts might not highlight certain parts that are missing in the corpus in which a specific linguistic feature appears, resulting in missing some central features of the genre (Nelson, 2010). Another issue is the number of authors of texts in a specialized corpus. It is encouraged to include several texts written by different authors which reflect different styles and features of a genre. Many texts written by one author might reflect this one author style and not features of the genre as a whole (Bowker & Pearson, 2002).

The corpora in this research study may be considered relatively small (see Chapter 5 for corpus details). Nevertheless, the specialized corpus, which includes full texts and texts written by different authors, of the TPS genre can produce significant findings regarding the genre discourse structure and its lexicogrammatical features, which answers the research questions of this thesis.

4.5 Corpus Linguistics Methods

Computer software is widely available for researchers to use in CL. These programs, such as *AntConc* (Anthony, 2005), *WordSmith* Tools (Scott, 1996) and *Sketch Engine* (Kilgarriff, Rychlý, Smrz, & Tugwell, 2004) can enable users to obtain several outputs, including word frequency lists, keywords, concordances and collocations (McEnery & Hardie, 2012). The outputs are utilized by researchers and combined with other methodologies to reveal representations of different aspects in discourse, such as gender markers, class markers, ideology reflected in the use of language, and genre characteristics (McEnery et al., 2006). Below is a brief explanation of the most popular corpus features and their usefulness for conducting discourse analysis and exploring discourse structure. The two basic features are frequency lists which can be used to highlight keywords in a certain discourse when compared with a frequency list from a reference corpus and concordance lines which focus on revealing the meanings of words in their context (Bowker & Pearson, 2002). The present study utilizes wordlists, keywords, and n-grams as the main corpus methods to uncover the linguistic features of the TPS genre. The findings of the corpus-based analysis are presented in Chapter 8.

4.5.1 Wordlists

Frequency is a very popular concept in corpus analysis. Wordlists refer to lists of the most frequent words in a specific corpus (Baker, 2006). Frequency wordlists aid researchers in examining patterns of how words occur in relation to other words, and it highlights the choices of writers. The wordlists can be ranked according to frequency which is the most popular way used in CL analysis but can also be ranked alphabetically (Scott & Tribble, 2006b).

4.5.2 Keywords and Key Keywords

Keywords are also related to frequency and show which words occur significantly more frequently in the corpus being studied compared to another corpus, what is usually referred to as a *reference corpus*. Keywords can be positive, that is, occurring at unusually high frequency in the corpus or negative occurring at unusually low frequency (J. Flowerdew & Forest, 2009) compared to a reference corpus. The findings prove useful because they can draw attention to the saliency of specific words in a genre that worth further investigation (Baker, 2006) as well as add to the lexis that is important for students to know in a specific discipline when used for pedagogical purposes.

Key keywords refer to keywords found in a large number of texts in the investigated corpus (Scott, 1997) and its usefulness can be seen in eliminating individual author patterns. Key keywords can be created after a keyword list is generated. The researcher checks the words that occur in multiple texts in the corpus (the cut-off point for the number of texts depends on the size of the corpus and is set arbitrarily) and examines their associates (i.e., words that occur with the identified key keyword, Scott & Tribble, 2006b).

4.5.3 Concordance Lines

A concordance is "a collection of the occurrences of a word-form, each in its own textual environment. In its simplest form it is an index. Each word-form is indexed and a reference is given to the place of occurrence in a text" (Sinclair, 1991, p. 32). The search starts with a specific word or phrase, what is called keyword in context (KWIC), and the output is displayed as *concordance lines* that show lines that contain the KWIC and some context before and after the enquiry. The search can be sorted with a specific number of words to the left and the right of the KWIC. Concordance analysis helps to examine the surrounding context of words of interest to the researcher which can be generated using the wordlists and keywords and obtain insights into the significance and functions of some types of words in a corpus (Berry, 2015; Hyon, 2018).

4.5.4 Collocations

Collocations are words that have statistically significant tendency to co-occur in a text (Baker, Hardie, & McEnery, 2006). For example, *fast* usually collocates with *food* as in *fast food*. Collocations are word sequences that carry meaning (opposed to n-grams in section 4.5.6) (Weisser, 2016). Many corpus methods provide different measures for researchers to locate collocations in a text. Concordances are one way to identify collocations in a corpus and they can be useful in discourse analysis to analyze meanings and connotations of words that co-occur and emphasize writers' choices to use certain words together (Baker, 2006).

4.5.5 Lexicogrammatical Features

These are "the vocabulary and grammatical patterns that help to express the genres' moves" (Hyon, 2018, p. 51). Examples are parts of speech, tense, aspect and voice, recurring

words, and syntactic constructions (Hyon, 2018). These features have proven to be important to ESP students because they offer specific linguistic options to use while constructing a text in a genre. Hyon (2018) explains two approaches used in analysing lexicogrammatical features in ESP genre analysis: *manual* approaches and *CL* approaches. Manual approaches entail coding, categorizing and counting the lexicogrammatical features by hand, sometimes using only a calculator to show the instances of central features to the genre (e.g., Pecorari, 2006; Samraj, 2013b). The CL approach employs corpus methods such as word frequencies, keywords and n-grams and it saves the time and effort of the genre analyst (see section 4.8 for a review of corpus-based genre analysis). Using corpus methods also assists in finding patterns and features that might not be detectable to the researcher in the data set using only manual approaches. A researcher can only use the manual approach or a mix of manual and CL approaches in genre analysis. According to Hyon (2018), using a mix of these two approaches would maximize the benefits of genre analysis.

4.5.6 N-Grams or Lexical Bundles

N-grams are a form of multi-word units and are defined as "frequently occurring contiguous words that constitute a phrase or a pattern of use" (Greaves & Warren, 2010, p. 2013) such as *there was*, *in the* or *as a result of*. N-grams are referred to by different terms in literature such as *lexical bundles* (Biber, Conrad, & Leech, 2002), *clusters* (Hyland, 2008a) or *formulaic language* (Wray, 2000). N-grams can be generated using corpus software and researchers can specify the range of words as two, three or more grams (Nesi, 2013) and the frequency of occurrence in a corpus. When compared to collocations which are also multi-word units, n-grams can be word sequences with less syntactic or semantic meaning such as the examples given above (Weisser, 2016).

N-grams are considered important features of academic writing and are utilized for the purpose of language learning (Biber, Johanssan, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999; Cortes, 2004). The identification of n-grams depends on three criteria that have been used in previous research. First, the identification of n-grams is based on their length which specifies if two, three, four, or more n-grams are to be extracted from a corpus. For instance, some studies of n-grams focused on four-word bundles such as Chen and Baker (2010) and Cortes (2004), while other research studies examined different lengths of n-grams such as three, five or six (Biber et al., 1999; Carter & McCarthy, 2006; D. Liu, 2012). As stated by Hyland (2012a), four-word bundles are the most studied because "three-word bundles are extremely common, and tend not to be very interesting, while 5- and 6-grams are comparatively rare and often subsume shorter ones" (p. 151).

The second criterion is the range of n-grams which refers to the number of texts in a corpus that contains the n-gram which is established to avoid idiosyncratic use of n-grams in texts. The number specified for this measure varied in previous research where a minimum percentage is set such as 10% of the texts in a corpus (Hyland, 2008a, 2008b) or a minimum number of texts is specified (Ädel & Erman, 2012; Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2013).

The third criterion used to identify n-grams is the frequency of occurrence in which a cut-off point is set. This measure is also arbitrary and is different in each study depending on the size of the corpus. For example, Biber et al. (1999) used a frequency cut-off of 10 times per million words in their corpus of 9 million words. In sub-corpora of different sizes, Biber and Barbieri (2007) used a cut-off point of 40 per million words while Cortes (2004) set the frequency at 20 per million words. A dynamic frequency cut-off point is also a technique that have been used in studies with corpora of different sizes, that is, using different cut-off points depending on the size of each corpus under investigation (e.g., Bestgen, 2020; Chen & Baker,

2016) which can lead to an “optimum number” (Chen & Baker, 2010, p. 854) of n-grams to be further examined.

N-grams are commonly categorised according to their structure and function. Biber, Conrad, and Cortes (2004) show that n-grams can be grouped into structural types. One of the most popular models is Biber et al. (1999) structural model which includes four main categories: *noun phrases*, *verb phrases*, *prepositional phrases*, and *other expressions*. For example, *at the same time* can be classified structurally as a prepositional phrase. The present study utilizes this model in categorizing the n-grams in the TPS genre (see Chapter 5, section 5.10.3 for the model details, examples, and subcategories).

In addition, n-grams can be unified into similar functions. The functional categories of n-grams refer to the meaning or purpose of an n-gram (Cortes, 2004) used in spoken or written discourse. The two most popular taxonomies of lexical bundles functional classification are Biber et al. (2004) and Hyland (2008a). Four main functions are identified in the functional taxonomy devised by Biber et al. (2004) which includes *stance expressions*, *discourse organizers*, *referential expressions* and *special conversational functions*. To illustrate, *at the same time* functions as a referential expression referring to time. This model has been widely used in subsequent studies of lexical bundles where it can be applied to a very large range of written and spoken texts (e.g., Ädel & Erman, 2012; Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004). The present study employs this model and details of the categories and subcategories and their meaning are given in Chapter 5, section 5.10.3.

Hyland model consists of three categories: *research-oriented* bundles, *text-oriented* bundles, and *participant-oriented* bundles. Table 4 displays Hyland functional categories and subcategories. This model, which has been modified and extended from Biber et al. (2004), has been developed specifically for academic texts such as master’s dissertations and doctoral theses while Biber et al. 's (2004) model was developed based on a variety of spoken and

written genres. Some similarities between Hyland's model and Biber et al.'s (2004) model can be identified. For example, the *stance expressions* category can be equated to the *participant-oriented* category devised by Hyland. However, many subcategories are grouped under different categories in both models with Biber's model providing several examples for each subcategory and covering a range of spoken and written genres from different texts.

Table 4

Functional Classification of Lexical Bundles (Hyland, 2008a, p. 49)

Function	**Meaning**	**Subcategory**	**Example**
Research-oriented	Help writers to structure their activities and experiences of the real world	Location: indicating time and place	*at the same time, at the beginning of*
		Procedure	*the use of the*
		Quantification	*a wide range of*
		Description	*the size of the*
		Topic	*in the Hong Kong*
Text-oriented	Concerned with the organization of the text and its meaning as message or argument	Transition signals: establishing additive or contrastive links between elements	*on the other hand*
		Resultative signals: mark inferential or causative relations between elements	*as a result of*
		Structuring signals: text-reflexive markers which organize stretches of discourse or direct reader elsewhere in text	*in the present study*
			in the case of

		Framing signals: situate arguments by specifying limiting conditions	
Participant-oriented	Focused on the writer or reader of the text	Stance features: convey the writer's attitudes and evaluations	*may be due to*
		Engagement features: address readers directly	*it should be noted that*

4.6 Combining Corpus Linguistics and Discourse Analysis

L. Flowerdew (1998) was one of the prominent scholars who established the importance and potentials of using CL in discourse analysis. Similarly, Conrad (2002) supports the use of CL methods in discourse analysis and offers four approaches of corpus-based discourse analysis. These are: (1) focusing on one particular language feature such as a certain grammatical structure, (2) focusing on a particular function of language such as stance expressions, (3) focusing on a language variety, and (4) mapping a particular language feature through a text. Also, Baker (2006) illustrates how corpus analytical techniques can be successfully applied to discourse analysis.

Yet, the study of discourse organization (i.e., how texts are structured, Biber et al., 2007a) from a corpus perspective has not been widely utilized because CL is concerned with revealing linguistic patterns through quantitative analysis of a large body of data. Discourse structure such as the ESP move analysis tends to focus on a single text or a handful of texts and offers detailed analysis of the texts' structure. Biber et al. (2007a) suggested an integration of the two different methods which are the study of discourse organization and CL. This integration helps in revealing discourse organization of a large sample of texts

opposed to one single text. To analyze the discourse structure of a group of texts, first texts must be segmented into discourse units and then further analysis can be carried out to investigate language patterns. Two major corpus-based approaches to discourse structure are introduced below.

Biber et al. (2007a) describe two corpus-based approaches to define discourse structure. *Bottom-up* vs. *top-down* approaches in which the analytical steps are applied differently. Bottom-up analysis starts with the primary linguistic analysis and the discourse unit emerges after the analysis has been carried out. The 'Vocabulary-Based Discourse Units' (VBDU) is an example of this approach. In VBDU, the texts are segmented based on linguistic features or shifts in vocabulary using computational techniques. The communicative function is not yet considered at this stage of analysis. Then, the identified discourse units are categorized linguistically, and the communicative function is interpreted as a final step of the bottom-up analysis (J. Flowerdew, 2013).

In a top-down approach, the discourse units, (e.g., move types and steps) are identified according to each move function (i.e., the purpose of each move in the text and an operational definition that identifies and explains what the move does). The developed protocol is applied to the set of texts in the corpus being investigated. The linguistic analysis comes second in the top-down approach and serves to interpret how the discourse unit is realized linguistically. An example of this approach is the ESP move analysis (Swales, 1990).

The major difference between these two approaches is that in the top-down approach, the primary focus is on the function of a discourse unit as a starting point in the analysis while in the bottom-up approach, the starting point is grouping the discourse units according to linguistic or vocabulary cues in the texts and finally investigating the function of the discourse units. The steps of top-down corpus-based analysis are shown in Table 5.

A major strength of the top-down approach, although time-consuming, is offering a "very fine-grained description" (Biber et al., 2007a, p. 249) of the discourse units in a genre which is not restricted by a specific number compared to the bottom-up approach which utilizes the linguistic analysis such as the VBDU. In the VBDU, the allowed number of linguistic groupings is limited, thus resulting in a general analysis of the texts or might not represent the types of discourse constructs that can be revealed through the top-down approach (e.g., move analysis).

Table 5

Steps in Top- down Corpus-based Analysis of Discourse Organization

Required step in the analysis	**Realization in this approach**
1. Communicative/functional categories	Develop the analytical framework: determine set of possible functional types of discourse units, that is, the major communicative functions that discourse units can serve in corpus
2. Segmentation	Segment each text into discourse units (applying the analytical framework from Step 1)
3. Classification	Identify the functional type of each discourse unit in each text of the corpus (applying the analytical framework from Step 1)
4. Linguistic analysis of each unit	Analyze the lexical/grammatical characteristics of each discourse unit in each text of the corpus
5. Linguistic description of discourse categories	Describe the typical linguistic characteristics of each functional category, based on analysis of all discourse units of a particular functional type in the corpus
6. Text structure	Analyze complete texts as sequences of discourse units shifting among the different functional types
7. Discourse organizational tendencies	Describe the general patterns of discourse organization across all texts in the corpus

Adapted from Biber et al. (2007b) (p.13).

4.7 Combining Corpus Linguistics and ESP Genre Analysis

The synergy of CL and genre analysis is evident in many research studies (e.g., Connor & Upton, 2003, 2004b; L. Flowerdew, 2008a; Gledhill, 2000; Henry & Roseberry, 2001b; Upton, 2002; Ye, 2019) including the present study. Many corpus methods are used to reveal collocations, keywords, hedging, and the most frequent words, a term for this method is corpus-based genre analysis (J. Flowerdew & Forest, 2009). Gledhill (2000) highlights the merits of integrating corpus with genre analysis and states that

> The attraction of a combined approach to both genre and corpus analysis lies in the potential for a corpus to reveal recurrent patterns across a representative sample of texts. The genre approach in turn allows us to nuance the often monolithic descriptions that may emerge from corpus work, by offering a contextual, ethnographic basis for the construction of a textual corpus as well as a view of text as a series of choices, ebbing from one style to the next. (p.116)

Before delving into the advantages of integrating CL and ESP genre analysis, some points are to be made about CL methodologies and ESP genre analysis. Traditionally, CL encourage a kind of a bottom up approach in which the focus is on KWIC and concordance lines drawn from large corpora which is known as the “form-first” approach (Durrant & Mathews-Aydinli, 2011, p. 61). ESP genre analysis focuses on the macrostructure of texts by segmenting texts into communicative functions (Swales, 2002, 2004) and is considered a top-down approach in which linguistic descriptions come after the communicative functions of moves have been identified. When combining these two reversed approaches, that is, CL methods (form-first approach) with ESP genre analysis (function-first approach), it becomes harder to integrate the two methods in one.

To avoid this pitfall, researchers begin corpus-based move analysis with segmenting texts into functional moves and then corpus methods are applied on the move level (i.e., sub-

corpora created from each move type) to describe the lexicogrammatical features of the moves in a genre. This research study follows this top-down methodology of segmenting the texts to moves as a starting point of the analysis, a "function-first" approach in which "the communicative context needs to be integrated into the analysis from the start" (Durrant & Mathews-Aydinli, 2011, p. 61) and apply the corpus analysis on the move level to examine the linguistic realizations of moves in the genre. Such an approach focuses on what is typical in a rhetorical move which can reflect an accurate description of the genre and translate the findings to materials used in teaching. Students as well as teachers who are to write a TPS need to not only know the most frequent words in these statements but also be able to link functional moves to their linguistic features.

Another criticism of corpus-based methodologies is the absence of context in the findings because the texts are compiled from different sources without including their context. These issues can be avoided in genre analysis by working with whole texts and not only extracts of texts that are usually found in corpora of larger size and by compiling specialized corpus in which the data is compiled and analyzed by the researcher who is familiar with the context and the background of texts in the corpus (L. Flowerdew, 2005).

The integration of CL, discourse analysis, and genre analysis brings many possibilities for enriched analysis and various advantages (Baker, 2006). Using corpus methods in discourse analysis allows researchers to examine bigger, more representative texts of a specific genre without tremendous time and resources being needed, instead of only looking at a few texts and searching by hand for linguistic features or certain characteristics. With corpus methods, it becomes possible for the researcher to reveal patterns by identifying specific search criteria that can be applied to the whole corpus with a very little chance of error. Using corpus methods "gives a greater level of reliability to the claims that can be made about genre-specific language" (Paltridge, 2013, p. 351).

Baker (2006) also adds that using corpora in discourse analysis helps in reducing researcher bias, who usually conduct discourse analysis according to their own understanding of the semantic functional purposes of the texts. As he notes, “by using a corpus, we at least are able to place a number of restrictions on our cognitive biases” (p. 12). In addition, corpus-based discourse analysis can be combined with other methodologies; a triangulation that reinforces and strengthens the results of research. More specifically, with corpus methods used in move analysis, the researcher will be able to identify the linguistic features of the moves by running a computerized analysis for the whole corpus after the rhetorical moves are identified (Biber et al., 2007b; Kanoksilapatham, 2007), which can enable generalization of the findings across the examined corpus.

The following section reviews previous research studies that utilized top-down move analysis by employing corpus methods such as frequency lists and keywords after identifying the rhetorical moves of genres under investigation, a method followed in the present study. It also presents research on n-grams both on the move level (corpus-based) and corpus-driven methodology, that is, examining a corpus to extract frequent n-grams based on the criteria previously explained in section 4.5.6 without segmenting texts into moves as this method was used to examine n-grams in the TPSs of faculty and graduate students TPSs in the present study. The last sub-section presents research done on occluded genres using corpus-based move analysis.

4.8 Previous Studies of Corpus-based Move Analysis

L. Flowerdew (1998) highlights the need for more text annotation or tagging on the move level for use in pedagogy. This type of move tagging has been underdeveloped compared to the widespread tagging of grammar or syntax. Some subsequent studies (e.g., P.

Thompson, 2000; Upton, 2002) have developed their own tagging system for the genre under examination to indicate the move structure and used corpus methods to examine the linguistic realization of moves. The above mentioned studies and the studies detailed below in this section began their investigation by linking the functions of moves to their lexicogrammatical realizations, thus providing more generalizable results for the discourse organization of a genre (Biber et al., 2007b). The next section presents a literature review of corpus-based move analysis studies which the present study adopts. Starting the analysis with focusing on the functions (moves) and then identifying the lexicogrammatical realizations of moves with the help of corpus methods such as word frequency, keyword analysis and concordance lines discussed in the previous sections of this chapter.

4.8.1 Studies with a Focus on Wordlists and Keywords

By applying frequency and keyword analysis, L. Flowerdew (2008a) analyzed two corpora of environmental reports. One of the corpora was written by professionals and the other by students. She differentiates between expert writing and apprentice writing and concludes that students' writing lacks some lexicogrammar to express their ideas. It also contains phrases that are not familiar in English. Her analysis revealed that words such as *problem/problems,* and *impact/impacts* are connected to specific moves in the reports and are associated with certain verbs such as *reduce* or *minimize* to link the problem to a solution.

J. Flowerdew and Forest (2009) investigated PhD literature reviews in applied linguistics by applying Swales (1990) CARS model. Specifically, they attempted to identify the keyword *research* across the moves and the steps in the texts and they found that the combinations: *further research* and *little research* were associated with identifying a research gap. Likewise, using the keyword function to investigate PhD abstracts in two corpora of Mathematics and Science, Bordet (2015) examined the lexical variations around keywords in

abstracts and how the keywords are repeated in the rhetorical moves in the two disciplines but with each move expanding on the use of the same keyword, that is lexical variation. For instance, the keyword *crack* was identified in the Science abstracts. Following how this word was used in different moves in the abstracts shows that some of the lexical patterns of this keyword include: *crack propagation* (in research statement move) and *crack propagation process* (in the results move). Bordet (2015) concludes that these keywords and their lexical variations function as "lexically paving" (p.52) the understanding of the argument the PhD student is making in theses abstracts.

Hewings, Coffin, and North (2009) examined electronic conferences (i.e., a virtual online learning communities created for students for discussion of course contents) move types and complemented the move analysis with corpus analysis of keywords to uncover salient words in this genre. The most frequent verbs that were found in e-conferences are *think* and *agree* and are mostly associated with the pronouns *I* and *you*. Their findings highlighted the interactive nature of e-conferencing where discussions between students and tutors occur.

4.8.2 Studies with a Focus on Collocations

Gledhill (2000) investigated a 500,000 words corpus of cancer research articles and focused on the most salient items produced through *WordSmith* Tools. The analysis involved the collocations of grammatical items in each section of the research articles. Gledhill concludes that there is a correspondence between lexicogrammatical items and particular sections of science research articles. The verb *to be* occurred frequently in many sections of the research article but with different collocations. For example, in the abstract, it is mostly used in the past tense and collocates with reporting quantitative results as in *were lower/higher than*.

Examining noun-verb collocations in law cases, Bhatia, Langton, and Lung (2004) found that some verbs had preference to occur with certain moves in legal texts. They looked at the verbs *submit*, *dismiss*, *reject,* and *grant* within the four genre moves of law cases. For example, the verb *submit* was the most frequently used in the move *presenting argument* while the verb *dismiss* was highly used in the move *pronouncing judgement*. Bhatia et al. (2004) warns that outputs from corpus methods should be carefully reexamined and confirmed through going back to the context of their occurrences in the original texts.

4.8.3 Studies with a Focus on Lexicogrammatical Features

Upton and Connor (2001) and Connor, Precht, and Upton (2002) investigated positive and negative politeness strategies in the genre of job application letters. Their studies were based on the Indiana Business Learner Corpus (IBLC) from American, Belgian, and Finnish students. The researchers started by manually coding the moves using a tag set. To investigate negative politeness strategies, the researchers used *WordSmith Tools* (Scott, 1996) and ran a query of sentences which do not begin with *I*, *my* or *you* or sentences that begin with modals because these items might indicate indirectness. Another query of the phrase *you can* and *please* + action verb showed positive politeness strategies. The use of different moves in these three contexts was evident and students used positive and negative politeness strategies in varied ways. For example, American students were more formulaic in politeness strategies while the Belgian students showed individuality in their letters of application, using less formulaic language than did the American students.

Carter-Thomas and Chambers (2012) examined the use of first-person pronouns in economics research articles' introductions in English and French. Using concordance lines, they observed the verb combination with the first-person pronoun in research article introductions in each move. First-person pronouns are an indication of authorial stance and

shows the position the author is taking to the information presented. They concluded that author roles fall within three categories: author as writer (e.g., In Section 2, *I outline* the model), author as researcher (e.g., for this purpose, *we introduce* labor) and author as arguer (e.g., *we adopt* the view that…). These roles usually correspond to specific moves in the CARS model. For example, they found that the author as writer role is solely connected to move 3: *indicating article structure* and author as researcher role corresponds to move 1: *situating own research within the literature* and to move 2: *carving out a particular niche*.

A study of letters of native speakers' job applications (e.g., application to academic, secretarial and administrative positions) by Henry and Roseberry (2001a) attempted to identify the range of discourse features that can be used to realize moves in the genre. In *listing relevant skills and abilities* move, the word *experience* was the most frequent and the combination: *I have + (adj) experience in + NP* was the most used in this move. They recommended that ESP practitioners must be aware of the wide range of discourse features and their location and purpose of use to teach students the genre of job application letters successfully.

Another example of lexicogrammatical features investigation in move analysis is Upton (2002) analysis of 242 direct mail letters sent for raising funds. The moves are based on a previous model of Bhatia (1998) which was adjusted to include other moves found in the corpus. Information on the frequency, position, and size of moves in the direct mail letters genre were obtained through *WordSmith* after moves were tagged and a detailed genre model of direct mail letter is produced with information on the length and position of different moves in the texts.

In terms of analyzing lexicogrammatical features associated with each move as well as developing field-specific vocabulary, Chang and Kuo (2011) examined research articles' move structure to develop online materials for students. The researchers tagged the moves in

the corpus and analyzed the linguistic features of each move with attention given to modal verbs and active/passive voice. The research findings were translated to an online EAP platform that contains obligatory and optional moves in each section of the research article, vocabulary and sentence structures that can be employed to enhance the writing skills of students.

4.8.4 Studies with a Focus on N-grams or Lexical Bundles

Durrant and Mathews-Aydinli (2011) devised their own tagging system of moves found in essays written by students from various disciplines (Anthropology, Business, Law, Politics and Sociology) taken from the British Academic Written (BAWE) corpus. By focusing on the function-first approach adopted by the previous studies above as well as this research study, the researchers were able to identify three moves in student essays and focused on the most salient move used in the essays. They also investigated the formulaic language associated with each move and found that within a function there are a variety of linguistics features that can be used to realize it, which can be very useful when applying the results of genre analysis to pedagogy.

Interested in lexical bundles (n-grams) and their link to rhetorical moves, Cotos, Huffman, and Link (2015) devised a genre-based automated writing evaluation called the Research Writing Tutor (RWT) which is used to analyze students' writing and provide feedback based on the rhetorical moves of the genre. The corpus contained 900 research articles from 30 disciplines, coded for rhetorical moves. The corpus-based descriptions involved two and three-word lexical bundles. The results showed that each discipline had specific words related to the move on presenting the research aims. For instance, the Environmental Engineering employed words concerned with *approaches*, *processes*, and *efficiency* in this move. In Immunobiology, the research goals are concerned with *patients*,

cells, and *treatments*. This comprehensive analysis is integrated into the RWT tool to help in the writing instruction.

Likewise, Mizumoto, Hamatani, and Imao (2017) investigated 4-grams in applied linguistics research articles. They first tagged the rhetorical moves in the corpus and then examined move-specific bundles to develop a web-based writing support tool. The findings of their analysis served as the basis for the design of the writing support tool which can be searched in terms of the section of the article and the move. The lexical bundles are shown according to their frequency within each move such as *this article reports on* in the abstract which is used in the move *presenting research*.

Another interesting study by Lu, Yoon and Kisselev (2021) examined phrase frames (p-frames) which are multi-word expressions similar to n-grams. The p-frames have an open slot which allows to be filled by different choice of words such as the p-frame *the * of the study*. The researchers first identified moves and steps in 600 texts of Social Science research articles' introductions and then examined the p-frames associated with each move and constituent steps. They were able to categorize p-frames into specialized p-frames, semi-specialized p-frames, and non-specialized p-frames. The specialized p-frames are those multi-word expressions strongly associated with one specific move and do not occur in any other move in the corpus such as *little is known [of, about] the* being only present in move 2, step 1 of the CARS model: Establishing a niche, indicating a gap. Semi p-frames might occur in one or more moves and non-specialized p-frames do not associate with a particular move in the texts. The findings of the study can greatly contribute to genre-based pedagogy by linking moves with multi-word expressions which can aid learners in writing.

An abundance of studies examined n-grams in different spoken and written genres without segmenting the texts into move types as in the previous research studies discussed above. Several studies focused on investigating n-grams in academic writing (e.g., Biber,

2006, 2009; Biber & Barbieri, 2007; Biber et al., 2004, 1999; Hyland, 2012a). Other streams of research focused on L1 and L2 writing (e.g., Ädel & Erman, 2012; Shin, 2019); L1 vs. L2 expert writers (e.g., Pan, Reppen, & Biber, 2016; Pérez-Llantada, 2014; Salazar, 2014) and expert vs. student writing which is the focus of the present study. It is useful to review the most relevant studies regarding expert and student writing as these are used for comparison of the findings of n-grams in the TPSs of faculty and graduate students.

In a comparison of students' writing in history and biology disciplines in students and published writing, Cortes (2004) explored n-grams in both and found that students rarely utilized n-grams that frequently appeared in published writing and when these were used, students used them differently. For example, the bundle *at the same time* was found to be present in both published articles and students writing, however, students used this bundle to add information rather than its traditional function in published writing that indicates simultaneity.

Similar findings were observed in Chen and Baker's (2010) study in which they used three different corpora: L1 Chinese students of English, L1 English students and expert writers. They found that expert writers used the largest number of bundles compared to L1 Chinese and L1 English students and students tended to use a limited number of bundles suggesting a lack of writing proficiency. As well, students of the two groups tend to favor VP-based structured n-grams than experts and more discourse organizers than those found in expert writing.

Lexical bundles use in experts writing and postgraduate writing was explored by Hyland (2008a) who examined three corpora of published research articles, doctoral theses and master's dissertations. The analysis showed that many lexical bundles in the student genres did not appear in the research articles which Hyland attributes to the reliance of the master's students on prefabricated groups of bundles which were also repeated several times

in a single text. The structural patterns of bundles were also different with 45% of the bundles in doctoral theses and expert writing being PP-based bundles. In addition, master's dissertations depended on passive structures such as *is based on the*. The functional analysis reported that research articles and PhD theses used text-oriented bundles the most while master's students depended heavily on research-oriented bundles. Hyland research clearly shows that variations exist in not only the lexical bundles used in expert and novice writing but also highlights the differences in structure types and functions of lexical bundles.

The findings derived from previous research on expert and student writing remain inconclusive due to the incomparability of the corpora used in these studies which include different genres as well as different disciplines. However, these studies have yielded some consistent findings regarding the types of lexical bundles, structure types and discourse functions used in expert and novice writing such as the different bundles preferred in students writing vs. experts (e.g., Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a) and the use of more discourse organizers bundles in students' writing than in experts' writing (Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004). The findings can also help in designing teaching materials specifically tailored for students with expert target n-grams included.

4.8.5 Studies with a Focus on Occluded Genres

A number of scholars have conducted corpus-based genre analysis on occluded genres introduced by Swales (1996) (see Chapter 3, section 3.3.4). For example, a number of studies have focused on the statement of purpose genre for graduate school admissions (e.g., Ding, 2007; López-Ferrero & Bach, 2016; Samraj & Monk, 2008). López-Ferrero and Bach (2016) identified the macrostructure and the linguistic features of 50 statements of purpose written in Spanish for the MA program. They specifically examined stance cues such as hedges and boosters and engagement cues such as reader pronouns and questions. The researchers

devised two categories of moves: writer moves such as *introducing the applicant and letter objectives* and the second category is reader moves such as *greeting the reader*. Using Atlas.ti software for coding the moves and identifying the linguistic features, they found that moves corresponded to the linguistic features. For example, the writer's moves were characterized by a high frequency of first-person pronouns. In a similar manner, Ding (2007) focused on statements of purpose in medical and dental graduate schools and the use of stories in these statements to promote oneself for being accepted in the graduate program. The researcher examined the moves in a corpus of 20 successful statements of purpose and 10 unedited statements and highlighted the range of different moves between the two groups. In the successful statements, the number of moves were larger compared to the unedited statements. One general observation in this study is the lack of sequential order of moves in statements of purpose.

Investigating the MBA thought essay, that is an essay required from students that includes critical reflection on a specific issue in business, Loudermilk (2007) analyzed 57 student essays by applying the move analysis method and combining the analysis with corpus-based methods such as keyword analysis. The analysis showed that the MBA thought essay genre lacked obligatory moves and a sequential order of moves. It is also characterized by a high frequency of first-person pronouns such as *I, my, we* and *our* which collocate with verbs such as *believe*, *think,* and *know*.

Grant proposals, an occluded genre, have received some attention in the ESP genre tradition. Cotos (2019) focused on a part of academic grant proposals submitted for the National Science Foundation. She examined the *Broader Impacts* (BI) part which addresses benefiting the society in proposals and the distribution of moves and steps in funded and non-funded grant proposals. Three identified moves were present in the BI part: *contextualizing potential impacts, demonstrating tangible impacts,* and *predicting significance*. Moves

identified in funded and non-funded grant proposals were different. For example, in non-funded proposals, the move *Evaluating anticipated impacts* was not used compared to the explicit use of this move in funded proposals. The results obtained from the n-gram analysis showed that n-grams such as *it is essential* /*important*/*significant* are used to emphasize the importance of the proposed project.

Casal and Kessler (2020) focused on successful academic grant proposals submitted for the US Fulbright English Teaching Assistantship. They examined the move structure of grant proposals and p-frames in these moves. Through AntConc, the researchers were able to observe the identified five-word p-frames in concordance lines. Their findings showed that some p-frames were strongly associated with certain rhetorical moves. For instance, in the *competence claims* move, the p-frame *I was able to* * was frequently used.

In the publication process of academic articles, several genres are required to be written and submitted. These function behind the scenes and are not shared publicly such as responses to reviewers and manuscript reviews (Swales & Feak, 2011). Numerous studies have investigated these occluded genres. For example, J. Flowerdew and Dudley-Evans (2002) explored move structure and politeness strategies in editorial letters. The letters were written by the co-editor of *English for Specific Purposes Journal* to authors who submitted a manuscript to be reviewed. They found that the editorial letters rhetorical moves did not follow a fixed order and the phrases *I'm afraid* and *sorry* were used to deliver rejection of the manuscript while modal verbs *could* and *would* were used to ask authors for changes in the manuscript. Focusing on the manuscript review genre, Samraj (2016) examined the move structure and language use in this occluded genre. She concluded that manuscript reviews consist of three main sections: introduction, main body and a conclusion with recommendation structures that suggest changes on the manuscript and positive and negative

evaluation structures. The lexicogrammatical features of recommendations in manuscripts included the use of *could, would, should, need* and *suggest*.

A range of research studies examined move structure of different genres (see Chapter 3 for a review of such studies) but fewer studies, as can be seen from the review on corpus-based genre analysis research, examined genres from the ESP perspective on the move level using corpus methods. These studies are less common because of the time and effort needed to code all the moves in the different texts of a single genre which tend to be of a large number. CL and move analysis have been successfully integrated to analyze discourse structure of genres as described in section 4.7. The present study utilizes this synergy of CL methods and move analysis to describe the macro and microstructure of the TPS genre and answer the research questions.

The review of studies above demonstrates the range of corpus methods available for researchers to explore genres and the various descriptions of genres it can offer. Once the texts have been segmented into moves, all the instances of each move are grouped together, and language features and patterns of each move are explored using corpus methods such as keywords and frequency information. This approach does not only describe the structure of a genre but also allows for the analysis of language features associated with each functional move. The genre description can then be exploited in genre pedagogy. It is with this approach in mind that this study examines the TPS genre. The corpora in this study are first explored by examining the discourse structure through move analysis and later investigating the linguistic patterns associated with each move using corpus methods.

Related specifically to this research study, using corpus-based approaches in move analysis yields various benefits. Compared to manual quantifying of the moves conducted in previous ‘traditional’ investigations of non-corpus-based genre analysis in ESP, corpus-based

analysis allows for move tagging which helps the researcher to identify the linguistic features within the moves and apply the analysis to a large set of texts using computerized techniques (L. Flowerdew, 1998). Additionally, move frequencies (i.e., how many times a move occurs within a text and across the corpus) and the length of a move (i.e., the average length of words) can be described and visually presented by using distribution and percentage characteristics available in corpus methods. Although these characteristics were investigated in traditional move analysis, it is less labor-intensive and more accurate using computer software as a tool in which patterns can be easily detected (Baker, 2006; Upton & Connor, 2001).

The location of the moves can also be mapped using corpus methods, permitting the researcher to extend the analysis in many ways (Biber et al., 2007b). For example, moves can be mapped to explore their relationship to each other in a genre and where they tend to occur in texts. In fundraising letters, Upton and Connor (2007) identified typical moves and mapped their location using *WordSmith*. They were able to conclude that Move 2 (*introduce the cause and/or establish credentials of organization*) is directly followed by Move 3 (*solicit response*) 87% of the time. The mapping of the location of moves relative to each other allows for developing genre prototypes, that is, models of the potential moves that can occur in a genre (Connor et al., 2007). Prototypes can include only the obligatory moves, or obligatory and optional moves identified in the analysis. Identifying genre prototypes is valuable in educational context and helps novice writers to learn and write in genres new to them.

4.9 Chapter Summary

In this chapter, I presented an overview of some related aspects to this study, theoretically and methodologically. I defined a corpus and what CL is and presented the discussion of CL as a methodology and as a theory. I also differentiated between two analytical methods in CL: the corpus-based approach which this study adopts and the corpus-driven approach. Different types of corpora were presented, and examples were given to illustrate these types. I mainly distinguished between general corpora and specialized corpora and how useful is using a specialized corpus to explore genre characteristics. I turned to the discussion of corpus design issues which addresses the size and representativeness of a corpus and concluded the section with how a small, specialized corpus is designed and for what purposes.

CL methods were introduced along with their usefulness in discourse analysis. I discussed the successful integration of CL and discourse analysis and how CL has been applied to genre analysis. The chapter ends with a literature review of related studies from the ESP perspective in which corpus-based move analysis was applied to investigate genre discourse structure. It also reviewed past studies of corpus-based move analysis of occluded genres.

The present study shares a similar perspective with the previous studies of corpus-based genre analysis by adopting a corpus-based approach on the move level. The study aims to describe the structure and organization of TPSs by applying move analysis, corpus-based lexicogrammatical features and examining the published advice on writing TPSs and highlight to what extent the examples align with the advice.

The next chapter details the present study data sources, methodology and data analysis methods.

Chapter 5

Data Sources, Methodology and Data Analysis

This chapter details the methods used in the present study. It begins with the research questions this study aims to answer. The corpora sources, ethics clearance process and the context of the study are described. The chapter also addresses the size and representativeness of the corpora. The two software tools, MAXQDA and AntConc, are presented and their use in the analysis of the corpora is explained followed by data preparation process prior to conducting the analysis.

Methods of data analysis are detailed for the textual, corpus-based, and contextual analyses. The methods used for the move analysis, including the pilot study which was done as a baseline for the main study, are described. The corpus-based analysis includes three levels of analysis: the move level, the TPSs corpus level, and the faculty versus graduate students' level. Each level investigates frequent words, keywords, and n-grams. The contextual analysis examines the findings of the move analysis and the corpus-based analysis and compares them to published advice on writing TPSs. The guides used for comparison are identified in this section.

5.1 Research Questions

In the introduction chapter, I outlined the main research question of the present study and the sub-questions. The research questions are reiterated here and segmented into the appropriate data analysis method used to answer the sub-questions. The main research question is:

- What are the linguistic patterns observed in teaching philosophy statements?

The research question emerged as a result of searching for a way to write a TPS myself and the question developed to examine the moves and the linguistic realizations of the genre in order to answer the main question of the present study. The main question of the present study is addressed by asking more specific questions.

The textual analysis which mainly employs move analysis method aims to answer the following questions:

1a) What are the move and step patterns in the teaching philosophy statement genre?

1b) Are there any differences in the moves and steps of teaching philosophy statements written by faculty members and those written by graduate students?

The corpus-based analysis aims to answer the following questions:

2a) What are the lexicogrammatical features associated with the identified moves?

2b) What are the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams that characterize the teaching philosophy statement genre?

2c) What, if any, are the differences in the frequent words, keywords, and n-grams of teaching philosophy statements written by faculty members and those written by graduate students?

The contextual analysis seeks to answer the following question:

3) In what ways, if any, do the genre discourse and organization identified in the present study align with the published advice on writing teaching philosophy statements?

5.2 Corpus Compilation

The focus of the present study is TPSs. I began the corpus compilation process by consulting publicly available written corpora published in many resources (e.g., Bowker & Pearson, 2002; W. Cheng, 2012; D. Lee, 2010; O'Keeffe et al., 2007) and searching available corpora online to find and select TPSs that might have been already compiled before. I could not find any and started searching for these statements on various websites of universities and on the UK Advance HE website in which TPSs are required as a part of the application for a teaching fellowship (see Chapter 2).

I compiled my own specialized corpus of these statements from various resources since there was not a readily made corpus of TPSs publicly available to the best of my knowledge. I used the search terms *statement of teaching philosophy, teaching philosophy* and *teaching statement*. The results had to be sorted out as many findings were related to the philosophy as a discipline. I was able to find multiple websites belonging to universities and teaching centers mostly based in the US with examples of TPSs (see section 5.4 for data description). The statements were downloaded and saved for each website. As these documents were posted publicly online and could be accessed by anyone, additional permissions were not necessary according to a document released by the UK Intellectual Property Office which states that researchers are allowed to use publicly available documents for non-profit research (Intellectual Property Office, 2014).

The collected TPSs were available from US-based and Canada-based universities. My objective was to collect TPSs from different sources to have enough texts to examine the TPS genre. Online examples of TPSs originating from the UK were not available. Therefore, I contacted the Advance HE, based in the UK, by email since TPSs are required for the recognition of an associate fellowship and can be obtained for the present study data. I enquired if they kept a database of TPSs that I could access for this research study. They

made me aware that these statements are not kept in a database and each fellow must submit their own as a part of a document package set by the Advance HE to be considered for the application of an associate fellow. Therefore, I needed to contact individuals who already had their associate fellowship accredited from the Advance HE.

After obtaining research ethics approval from the School of English in January 2020 (see Appendix A for approval letter), I sent a recruitment email for individuals who were accredited an associate fellowship from the Advance HE in the UK-based university. The recruiting email was scheduled to be sent in February 2020 but was postponed until June 2020 because of the Covid-19 pandemic which impacted several things such as the closing of university buildings and schools. Staff and academics were required to teach and deliver workshops online given short notice for preparation with some of them having caring responsibilities at home. I started sending the recruiting email at the end of June 2020.

The individual names were posted on the UK-based university webpage under staff recognition. The email contained an invitation for participating in the study with a consent form (see Appendix B) and a participant sheet information (see Appendix C) that details the purposes of the study, who the participants are, what participants need to do, any possible risks for participation, information about withdrawal from the study, how confidentiality is maintained and my contact details. The participants were asked to send back the consent form and the document containing their teaching philosophy.

The total number of associate fellow names was 271. I contacted all the 271 members but only found 161 contacts. The other 110 names had either no contact details or the email address was not in use. I also had some automatic replies that the member is on a leave from the university and will not be able to respond to emails.

As I am collecting examples of an occluded genre which access to is usually restricted (Neaderhiser, 2016b; Swales, 1996), I was only able to collect four teaching statements from

the UK-based university. Therefore, I decided to include them as a case study due to their small number. Case studies are common in qualitative research and are considered a way of collecting and organizing research data (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, Analyzing a small number of texts in move analysis research is not uncommon. Yin (2016) examined three research proposals, an occluded genre, submitted by PhD researchers to gain acceptance in the program. Investigating another occluded genre, Aguilar (2004) researched four peer seminars from the engineering discipline to devise their move structure. Although the findings of move analysis of the UK-based statements cannot be generalized, it is still beneficial to examine them and look at their structure and compare it to the corpus of the present study. Including these statements can "maximize our understanding" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 152) of the structure of TPSs.

5.3 Context of the Study

The corpora used in this study mostly originate from North America: the United States (US) and Canada because the genre is well-known and well-established in this context and it is required to be included in the materials submitted for an academic position (Kaplan et al., 2007; Sheffield, 2013). It was not until recently that the UK Advance HE began to highlight and emphasise the need for and importance of TPSs and require them to be submitted as a part of the application for becoming an associate or fellow in the fellowship recognition program (Brown et al., 2014).

The first of the three corpora are texts written by graduate students who were being prepared for an academic job in a dedicated university course for future faculty preparation and were considered excellent examples of the genre and published on the website of a US-based university. The second corpus contained full texts written by graduate students' winners of a teaching award in a higher education institution based in the US. These first two

corpora are written by graduate students, and they are compared against the third corpus which was written by faculty members (experts) who won a teaching award in a Canada-based university. These documents were collected from an authentic context in which the TPS is required so that authenticity is achieved as well as representativeness of the genre.

Texts collected from the UK-based university staff are documents written as a part of a professional recognition of teaching or supporting learning scheme which is recognized nationally and internationally and offered through the university. This recognition began in 2013 and is required to highlight what the member does or did in teaching and why. Members who wish to be professionally recognized can apply through two main pathways: the personal pathway and the foundation pathway. The personal pathway is a self-directed way of applying for three main types of Advance HE recognition: Fellow (FHEA), associate fellow (AFHEA) and senior fellow (SFHEA). Each type of recognition has its own requirements that must be submitted for evaluation. These three types of recognition are not a teaching qualification, rather the recognition shows that the member's practice is aligned with the United Kingdom professional standards framework (UKPSF) criteria. The foundation pathway is designed for members of staff who are new to teaching and this pathway results in recognition of associate fellowship (AFHEA). In this pathway, a teaching philosophy of 500 words is required (word count does not include citations or reference list). Therefore, the present study focused on the foundation pathway and members who already acquired the AFHEA recognition through the UK-based university. Only four texts were collected from the UK-based university despite best efforts to advertise the study and send invitations for participation.

The present study is an attempt to describe the structure and the lexicogrammatical features of the moves in TPSs as the requirements change worldwide to include this

document in many applications. The findings can be utilized to help in writing TPSs with modifications that can be applied in the different contexts in which the TPS is required.

5.4 Data Description

The investigation in this research study concerns a total of 46 texts (the four texts from the UK are considered separately) collected from three different sources in 2019 with a total of 57,994 words. These were available online as PDF (Portable Document File) or posted on web pages of the universities' websites. The files were posted on the two US and Canada-based universities websites included in the present study (see Appendix D) and were written between 2004 and 2016. The samples were considered in the corpora compilation because these were full texts (see Chapter 4, section 4.4 for reasons to include full texts in a specialized corpus) of the TPSs genre and were written by different writers. Investigating full texts in top-down genre analysis allows for revealing the linguistic features that are characteristic of this genre and which can be found in any part of the text (L. Flowerdew, 2004).

The first corpus (U-M) was retrieved from the Center for Research on Learning and Teaching, the University of Michigan, United States. The corpus is a part of the *Rackham-CRLT Preparing Faculty Seminar*, a program to prepare graduate students for an academic career. Graduate students write the TPSs as part of the professional development assignments in the program and these examples are considered as excellent in at least one of the rubric aspects used to evaluate them. The rubric they used was developed by O'Neal et al. (2007) as a guide for writing these statements (see Chapter 2 and Appendix E). These statements were written between 2005-2009 and the corpus contains 19 texts from Humanities, Sciences and Social Sciences.

The second corpus was retrieved from the Ohio State University (OSU), the University Centre for the Advancement of Teaching. The statements are examples from the winners of the *Graduate Associate Teaching Award* given as a recognition of graduates' teaching. This corpus comprises a total of 14 texts from Humanities, Sciences and Social Sciences disciplines and cover the period between 2004-2012.

The third corpus is retrieved from the Taylor Institute for Teaching and Learning, University of Calgary (U-C), Alberta, Canada. The samples are from recipients of a teaching award in the institute in the years 2014, 2015 and 2016. This corpus comprises a total of 13 texts written by representatives of different posts (e.g., instructor, professor, associate professor) and the writers already had teaching experience. The aim in including this corpus is to investigate the similarities and differences, if any, between novice and expert writers.

Table 6 and Table 7 below provide a summary of the three corpora that are used in the study with each corpus size in texts and in words, which add up to a total of 57,994 words. The U-M and OSU corpora are written by graduate students and referred to as the GS corpus. The U-C corpus is written by faculty members and referred to as the faculty corpus when presenting the findings of the analyses.

Table 6

The Corpora Used in the Present Study

Corpus	**Corpus size: texts**	**Corpus size: words**	**Average of words**	**Format**	**Disciplines**
U-M	19	20,104	1058	PDFs	Humanities, Sciences, Social Sciences
OSU	14	19,273	1376	Web pages	Humanities, Sciences, Social Sciences
U-C	13	18,617	1432	PDFs	Mix of disciplines
Total	**46**	**57,994**			

Table 7

Corpora Details in the Present Study

	Apprentice writers (Graduate Students)		**Expert writers (Faculty)**
	U-M	**OSU**	**U-C**
Longest text (in words)	1,477	1,820	2,317
Shortest text (in words)	838	821	777
Community	Graduate students	Winners of graduate teaching associates (graduate students)	Winners of a teaching award (faculty)
Time period	2005-2009	2004-2012	2014-2016

The sampling type used in the present study fits the definition of convenience sampling in data collection defined as samples that meet certain characteristics and are accessible to the researcher (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2012). This type of sampling has been widely used in corpus building (Nelson, 2010).

5.5 Size and Representativeness of the Corpora

Concerning the size of the corpora, previous studies of corpus-based genre analysis did not provide a fixed number of texts to be analyzed. As illustrated in Chapter 4, specialized corpora are collected according to the purpose of the research and the phenomenon under investigation. The corpora created for the present study are small compared to other corpora studies focusing on academic texts such as research articles and other texts that are available in the public domain. As explained above, collecting texts from a UK-based university proved to be difficult since these texts must be collected from very

specific individuals who have done the teaching qualification and wrote the text for that purpose. Unfortunately, the pandemic also affected the data collocation process and I only got four texts from the UK. Considering other sources for data collection, I contacted researchers from Saudi Arabia universities to obtain TPSs written as a part of the quality assurance process in which they are required but with no luck obtaining such texts from that context.

Several researchers see the value of smaller specialized corpora for exploring academic and professional genres and informing teaching (L. Flowerdew, 2004; Handford, 2010; Koester, 2010). This value is seen in the ability to explore genre-specific or community-specific discourse and vocabulary. Given the purposes of the present study, a specialized and systematically compiled corpus is suitable to answer the research questions and shed light on the TPS genre characteristics. L. Flowerdew (2012) states that "more specialised, genre- related corpora can be from around 50,000 to 250,000 words" (p. 4). The TPS genre status of occlusion also affects the accessibility to examples of the genre (see Chapter 3, section 3.3.4).

The corpus size of 57,994 words in this study is suitable for the aims of the study and manageable for the move and corpus-based analyses conducted and can yield useful results and in-depth information about the macro and microstructure of the genre. Tribble (2002) argues that large corpora offer "either too much data across too large a spectrum, or too little focused data, to be directly helpful to learners with specific learning purposes" (p. 132) which is one of the aims of the present study. Furthermore, the compiler of the corpora is also the analyst, who has familiarity of the context of the texts collected. However, it must be noted that findings from small, specialized corpora are not to be generalized compared to large general corpora findings but can offer description of the genre under investigation and

patterns of language in that genre (Handford, 2010; Koester, 2010). Findings can also serve as “an evidence-based approach to language teaching” (Hyland, 2006, p. 58).

Representativeness refers to “the extent to which a sample includes the full range of variability in a population” (Biber, 1993, p. 243). The corpus of the present study represents a specialized genre, the TPS. The texts are balanced in the three corpora, having almost the same number of words in each corpus, and collected from a specific setting (i.e., higher education institutions). Full texts of the genre are included in the study which is a very important issue when examining a genre and its features (see Chapter 4, section 4.4).

5.6 Software Tools Used in the Present Study

Two software tools were utilized in the present study: A qualitative data analysis software called MAXQDA (VERBI Software, 2018) and a concordance program called AntConc (Anthony, 2019). These two software programs were used to facilitate the move analysis and the corpus analysis and are explained in the following sections below.

5.6.1 MAXQDA Software

MAXQDA is a professional software package used for data analysis in qualitative and mixed methods research, initially released in 1989 by Udo Kuckartz. The software supports different languages such as German, Arabic and Spanish. MAXQDA is used by researchers in 150 countries with a user-friendly interface which can be controlled by the researcher. It has been used in many areas of research such as Social Science, Humanities and Sciences and it can work with different operating systems such as Windows, Mac, IOS and Android. The developers offer different guide manuals, webinars, and workshops for researchers on the basic and advanced use of the software and the different features that can be utilized in

research. An annual user conference is held for researchers who still use or used the software in their research (VERBI Software, 2018).

The software allows for different types of data to be processed, such as PDF files, pictures, audio, twitter data and video files (Kuckartz & Rädiker, 2019). It has different visual tools and presentations for the codes created in it, which can be beneficial in viewing the codes in different ways depending on the researcher needs, such as comparison charts, frequency of codes, code lines, and code matrices (Silver & Lewins, 2014) (see section 5.9.2 for examples of the use of these functions in the data analysis of the TPSs corpus).

MAXQDA main screen is divided into four sections, as illustrated in Figure 5 below. The *document system* window includes all the files uploaded to a project with the number of coded segments shown next to each file. The *document browser* window displays the current file selected for analysis and the coded segments allocated in the file. The *code system* contains all the codes in the project and any sub-codes with memos and the number of coded segments. The *retrieved segments* window shows the coded segments that have been selected by the researcher for viewing. This function is very useful for comparing the coded segments under one code.

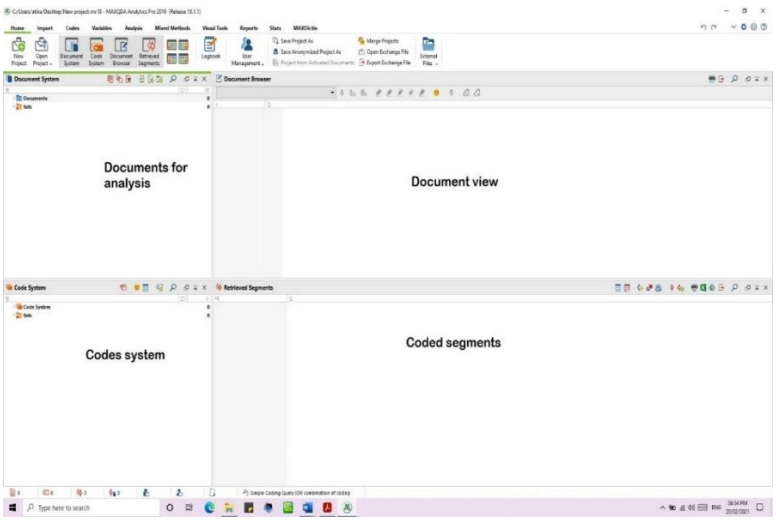

Figure 5. MAXQDA main screen

Although this software is widely used in data coding and analysis in many areas of research, a few studies have utilized MAXQDA as a tool in the analysis of moves in genre analysis. Examples of such studies are Hu and Liu's (2018) research on three minute thesis presentations transcriptions and a study of rhetorical moves in the statements of purpose produced by Chinese students used for applying for PhD programs (Wang & Flowerdew, 2016). Kwan (2006, 2017) also employed MAXQDA to examine moves and steps in literature review chapters in doctoral theses in applied linguistics. Likewise, Kwan, Chan, and Lam (2012) focused on literature review sections in information systems research articles using the same methodology. These studies employed MAXQDA but did not offer any description of the software. Also, the functions were not fully illustrated. The present study details the functions of MAXQDA which are particularly helpful when conducting move analysis and shows how the coded moves can be exported for further corpus-based analysis.

Based on my analytical needs in the present study, MAXQDA was used to facilitate the coding and analysis of moves in the texts. The software offers many features that are particularly useful for data analysis of this project. For example, parts of the project can be easily and accurately exported to other file formats as required. This feature was used to export all the coded segments of a specific move so these can be imported into AntConc to conduct the corpus-based analysis on moves. Another distinguishing feature offered in MAXQDA is memos which can be utilized for adding any extra information needed when coding. I used this function to add move definitions or any other related information when coding. This facilitated the coding process of moves in the study. Other features such as visualizing the text with the coded moves, the ease of choosing different groups or texts to be compared such as comparing the faculty texts with graduate students' corpus in move analysis, and the possibility of sharing the final coding with other researchers were all important features to choose this software for data analysis.

I used MAXQDA Analytics Pro 2018 version software package (VERBI Software, 2018) for labelling/coding the moves. Details of the specific functions used within the program are listed where appropriate in the data analysis section (sections 5.8 and 5.9).

After the anonymization process (see section 5.7), the converted files were uploaded to MAXQDA, and each corpus was grouped together. The software allows for selecting all or some groups which makes it possible to compare different corpora. Figure 6 shows the interface of the software and the different windows with the corpora of the study.

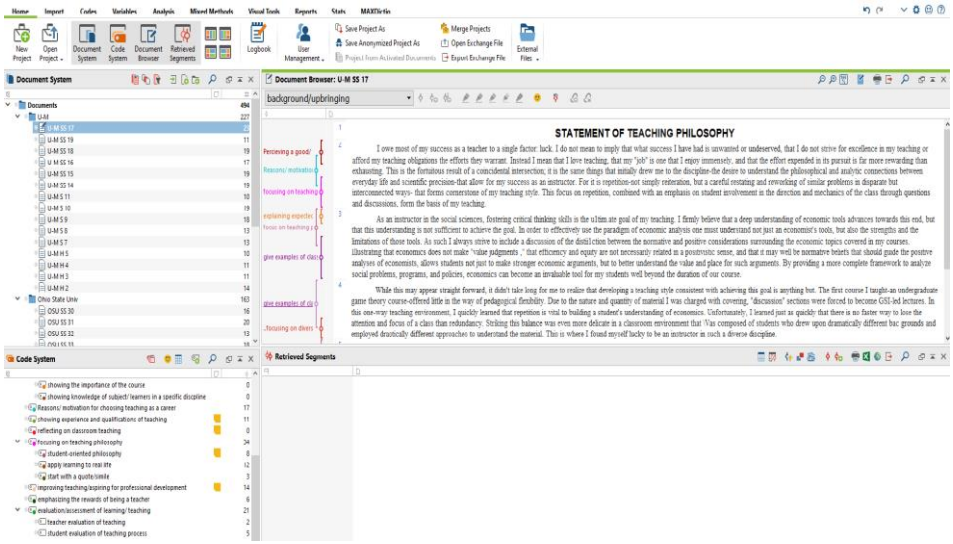

Figure 6. A screenshot of the data in MAXQDA

Within MAXQDA software, the researcher can assign codes to selected parts of a text, creating a code system that includes all the sub-codes. These codes can be arranged according to ascending or descending order of frequency and the analysis can generate all instances of one code (move) in the *retrieved segments* window. Employing a powerful tool such as MAXQDA strengthens the accuracy of the findings. The researcher can view coded segments, frequency, and other functions without missing anything if the analysis was otherwise done manually.

Visualizing the results also aids in a good genre description, a main goal of the present study. The only drawback of this software is the availability of the software to the researchers. The software is not widely adapted by many institutions in the UK and therefore is not available for researchers within their institutions. I was able to obtain the software for a very low price, especially offered to PhD researchers.

5.6.2 AntConc Software

The second software tool is AntConc (Anthony, 2019) which is a free software used in corpus linguistics research. It was used to carry out further analysis of the corpus. AntConc is a very popular program that is used to generate frequency lists, keywords, clusters, n-grams, and concordances. It is very easy to use and has been used in several studies (e.g., Bordet, 2015; Casal & Kessler, 2020; C. F. Chang & Kuo, 2011; Staples, 2015) to investigate discourse and genre for ESP (L. Flowerdew, 2014).

AntConc software was employed to generate wordlists, keywords, n-grams and examine concordance lines. The *Wordlist* tool generates a frequency list of words in a corpus. The *Keyword* tool is used to generate those words "whose frequency is unusually high" (O'Keeffe et al., 2007, p. 12) compared to a reference corpus. The keywords help highlight the most salient words in a corpus. The concordance lines can be visited in the software to observe the surrounding context of keywords in a corpus. The third function I used in this software is the *Clusters/N-grams* tool which can be adjusted to identify two, three or more n-grams in a corpus. Move-specific features were examined in AntConc after being exported from MAXQDA. I also used AntConc to examine the TPSs corpus generic features and compare the faculty and graduate students' corpora regarding the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams. The use of these tools in the present study is further explained in section 5.10.

5.7 Data Preparation

As was noted previously, most of the texts were PDF files and some were Word documents. The PDF files were checked for text recognition, and some were image-only files. MAXQDA supports PDF files import and there is a function that converts the PDF to a text document, but the program website manual specifies that there might be coding problems in these converted files or loss of information. To avoid any problems in the coding later, I chose to convert all the PDF files by using the function of converting PDF files to Word in Adobe Acrobat Reader DC and not using the function provided in MAXQDA for the above reasons. The process of automatic conversion might produce some errors, so I thoroughly checked the converted files (Word documents) line-by-line against the original PDFs for their content to avoid any loss of information in the conversion process, to ensure accuracy and to establish reliable and clear texts for the analysis. Some errors of conversion were some changed letters in words such as *between* becoming *bet\vcen*. These errors were checked and manually corrected in the converted files.

After the process of manual checking, I cleaned up any irrelevant information in the converted files such as references included at the end of the document to facilitate the data analysis in the MAXQDA. The references are not totally ignored in the statements, and they are still present in the original files. However, such information is not relevant to the textual analysis in this phase. The references will be considered in the analysis of guides presented in section 5.11 and reported in Chapter 9.

Any file that identified the writer was anonymized. Most of the files in the three corpora contained the writer's name and the discipline. The process included assigning numbers from 1-46 with an abbreviation containing the corpus source and the discipline (where applicable) for ease of reference in the findings and for any comparison to be made later. For example: (U-M H 1) indicates the source corpus University of Michigan, the

Humanities discipline, and the text number, (OSU S 25) is for the Ohio State University, the Science discipline corpus and (U-C 35) for the University of Calgary corpus, text number 35.

The converted files were imported to MAXQDA for move analysis and texts from the same group were categorized together. The findings can be grouped together and can also be processed independently in the software using the function of *activation* that allows the researcher to choose which text to include or exclude. This categorization was helpful in identifying any similarities or differences between texts written by apprentice writers and those written by expert writers. I followed the same process of identifying moves in the pilot study, keeping in mind that new moves might emerge from the new data. Intra-rater and inter-rater reliability were conducted to ensure reliable results of the move analysis (see Chapter 6 for details of the pilot study).

5.8 Methods of Data Analysis

To answer the research questions of the present study, textual analysis, corpus-based analysis, and contextual analysis were conducted. These will be further detailed in sections 5.9, 5.10 and 5.11. I offer an overview of these here.

The textual analysis is based on the ESP move analysis as discussed in Chapter 3. The purpose is to explore the discourse structure of TPSs by examining the communicative purposes they serve and segmenting the texts into moves and steps. The move analysis is regarded as qualitative analysis because it involves the researcher assigning chunks of texts to different move types. The qualitative analysis is then quantified by calculating the frequency of occurrence of moves in the corpus and determining the obligatory and optional moves in the genre. Any similarities or differences relating to move patterns between those texts written by apprentice writers (i.e., graduate students) and those written by expert writers (i.e., faculty members) are noted and discussed. To be able to further describe the

lexicogrammatical patterns of moves, I exported all the coded segments under one move type to a separate file to conduct corpus-based analysis. For example, Move 1 found in all the texts was selected in MAXQDA and exported to AntConc for further analysis.

The corpus-based analysis in which frequent words, keywords and n-grams are explored using corpus methods. This was done on three levels: the move level, the TPSs corpus, and the GS and faculty corpora. The findings from corpus-based analysis are quantitative involving numbers and they need to be examined qualitatively by looking at concordance lines to investigate the patterns in context.

The contextual analysis is designed to compare the similarities and differences between what guides on writing TPSs advise writers to include and what the present study findings show. This is evaluated based on the findings of move analysis and corpus-based analysis. The analytical framework is shown in Figure 7. Each phase is explained further in the following sections.

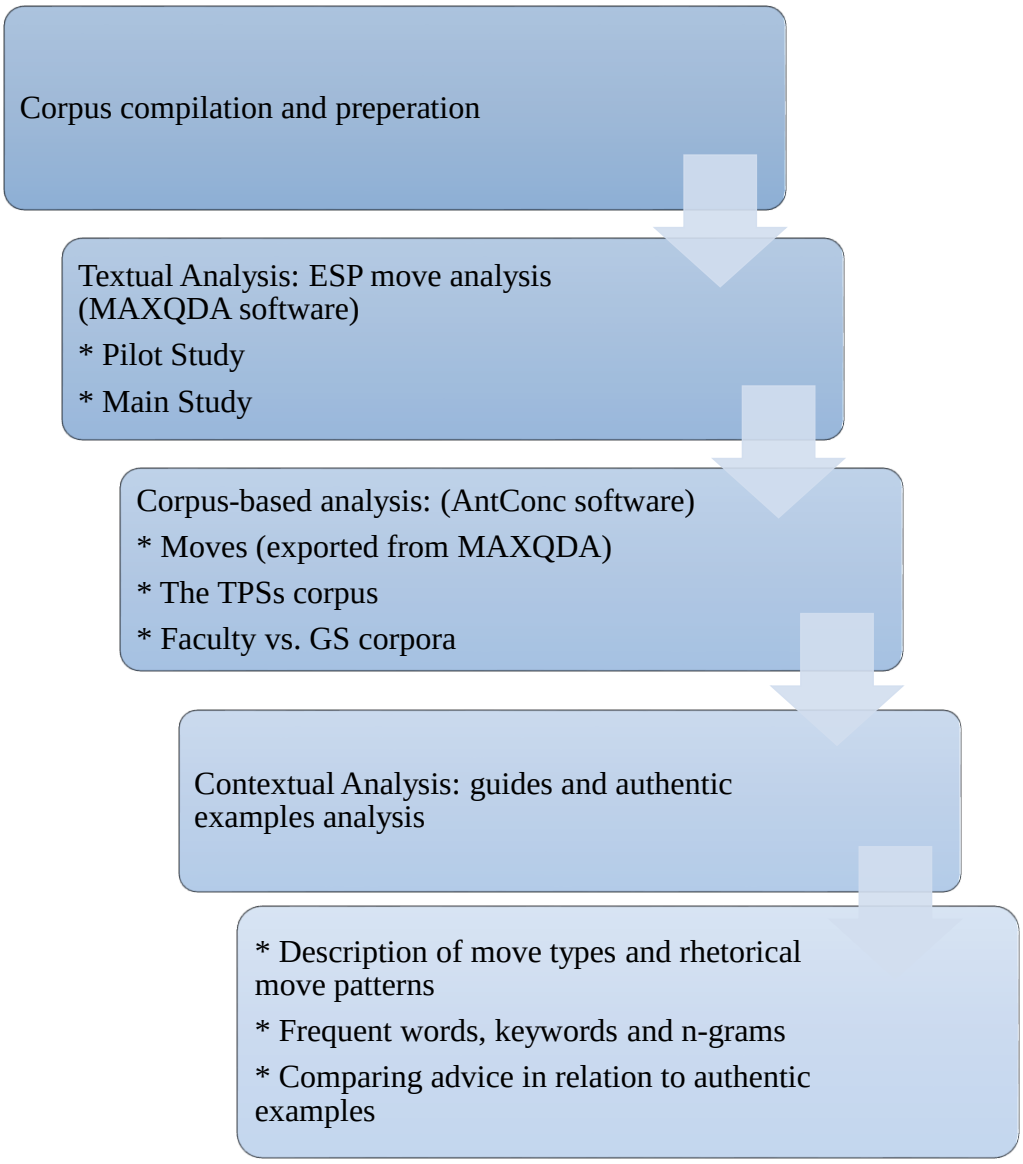

Figure 7. The analytical framework of the present study

5.9 Textual Analysis

On the textual level analysis, the present study adopts a corpus-based genre analysis (Biber et al., 2007b) (see Chapter 4). The move analysis is conducted in two main phases: the first phase is the pilot study, and the second phase is the main study which includes all the 46 texts.

5.9.1 The Pilot Study

In move analysis method, a small-scale study is usually conducted before the main study (Connor et al., 2007) and is called a preliminary move study or a pilot study (e.g., Kwan et al., 2012; Park, Jeon, & Shim, 2021; Parkinson, 2017; Upton & Connor, 2007; Ye, 2019). The pilot study has two purposes: to devise a genre model with all potential moves in a genre and to check the reliability of the coding of moves with different coders (see Chapter 6 for details on intercoder reliability in the present study). The present study began with a pilot study to establish a coding scheme of the TPSs which can be later applied to the whole set of data. The present study aims to explore the move structure of these statements and since no previous rhetorical move models were found, conducting a pilot study is essential.

The pilot study was undertaken in July 2019 with 12 texts (25%) of the corpus. The first four texts from each corpus were selected. The texts were converted to Word documents and the same process of content checking and anonymization as discussed above was done. The pilot study texts were analyzed using MAXQDA.

The texts were analyzed following the steps of corpus-based genre analysis (Swales, 1990) (see Chapter 6 for details) using a top-down approach. In this stage, the identification of move types and their description is important so it can be applied later to the other texts in the corpus. The moves were mainly identified according to the function they serve in the text. However, in some instances, that was not a straightforward process and with the aid of linguistic clues and the surrounding context, some moves were identified accordingly such as Move 1 (see Chapter 6 and 7). Combining the content and linguistic clues is common when analyzing moves in genres, particularly when dealing with a genre which has no previous genre model such as the TPS genre and with the absence of sections and subheadings in the texts (Connor & Mauranen, 1999; Dudley-Evans, 1994).

A coding scheme was developed from the pilot study, detailing the rhetorical structure of the texts under examination. This step was very important to understand the functions each move entails. The coding scheme initially had 17 moves that were found in the 12 texts. The moves and the steps were revised and grouped together in some instances when I began analyzing the main study texts. The details and results from the pilot study are presented in Chapter 6, as well as the intra- and inter-coder reliability procedure and the details on how the coding scheme in the pilot study was modified is given in Chapter 7, section 7.12.

5.9.2 The Main Study

The main study refers to applying the coding scheme developed in the pilot study to the remaining texts after it has been refined and reviewed by the researcher and the inter-coder (see Chapter 6 for details of the pilot study). After analyzing the texts using the coding scheme as a reference, some modifications were made to better reflect the communicative purpose of each move.

The move analysis involves indications of a move's importance which includes certain parameters. These are the frequency of moves, the length of a move, the sequence in which moves appear in texts and the re-occurrence (cyclical) patterns of moves (see Chapter 3, section 3.3.2 on features of move analysis).

1. **The frequency of occurrence of moves:** The frequency of occurrence (Joseph et al., 2014; Swales, 1990) is calculated to determine how frequent a move is to occur across the corpus. To calculate the frequency of occurrence, the number of how many times the move occurred in texts is divided by the total number of the texts in the corpus and multiplied by 100. For example, if one move occurred once in 40 texts out of the 46 texts then: 40/46 * 100 = 86.9%. This calculation was

facilitated by using the function *Code frequencies* in MAXQDA which can give the following table shown in Figure 8 and can be done on different text groups and different moves depending on what the researcher wants to visualize.

123 Code Frequencies

	Frequency	Percentage	Percentage (valid)
13 Stating teaching goals and outcomes	43	93.5	100.0
DOCUMENTS with code(s)	43	93.5	100.0
DOCUMENTS without code(s)	3	6.5	
ANALYZED DOCUMENTS	46	100.0	

Figure 8. Code frequencies in MAXQDA

Documents with codes means that the move is found in that number of documents, for example, 43 texts contained the move: Stating teaching goals and outcomes (see Figure 8) and documents without code means it is not found in these texts.

The move is counted once and if it occurs more than once, then this is reported as move cyclicity or re-occurrence (see point number 4 below). Calculating the percentage of occurrence allows for the identification of *obligatory*, *conventional* or *optional* moves (Joseph et al., 2014; Lim, 2010, 2014; Swales, 2004). A survey of literature shows that determining the cut-off point of the percentage of occurrence of moves is variable (see Table 3, Chapter 3). Some studies set the cut-off point to 50% (Li & Ge, 2009; Nwogu, 1997), while others (e.g., Kanoksilapatham, 2005) set the cut-off point to 60%. In the present study, a move is classified obligatory if it occurs in 50%- 100% of the texts. If the frequency of occurrence falls below 50%, the move is categorized as an optional move.

2. The length of a move: that is the textual space a move occupies in a text. It involves the number of words in a move and determines the importance of a move in a genre. The length of obligatory moves can vary which might suggest that writers in a genre focus on more frequent obligatory moves than others (Connor et al., 2007).

3. The sequence of moves: the order in which moves appear in texts (Samraj, 2014). For example, in the CARS model (Swales, 1990), move 1: *establishing a territory* appears first in the text followed by move 2: *establishing a niche* in research article introductions (see Figure 2, Chapter 3). Some genres that are less constrained or less conventional such as manuscript reviews are characterized by variation in move sequencing, compared to conventional genres such as research articles (for more examples of these genres, see Chapter 3, section 3.3.2 and Chapter 4, section 4.8.5).

4. Re-occurrence (cyclical) patterns of moves: this shows the number of times a move appears in a text. Each occurrence of a move is recorded as a separate occurrence when analyzing texts (Connor et al., 2007; Swales, 2004). This feature can also show the moves that tend to re-occur before or after other moves in texts.

These characteristics were explored and visualized using the MAXQDA software (VERBI Software, 2018) by using multiple functions in the *Analysis* tab and the *Visuals* tab such as:

- *Retrieved Segments*: a function that allows the researcher to see all the coded text under one code (or more). The coded segments are shown in a window and can be searched for words and imported from the software for doing further analysis on the move level.

- *Code Matrix Browser*: a function to show codes and which documents have these codes. The software allows users to view the codes per documents or per document groups. Options in this function include counting the codes once or more than once which can be used in the present study for exploring the re-occurrence of the moves in the corpus.
- *Document Portrait and Document Map*: a function that generates a picture of a specific document(s) with color-coding. The portrait allows one to visualize the sequence of moves and the structure of a document. Figure 9 is an example of one of the texts being coded for moves and visualized through this function. Each sequence of a specific color indicates a move. For example, the color black in the beginning of the portrait presents one move. The circles represent the amount of text segmented for that color.

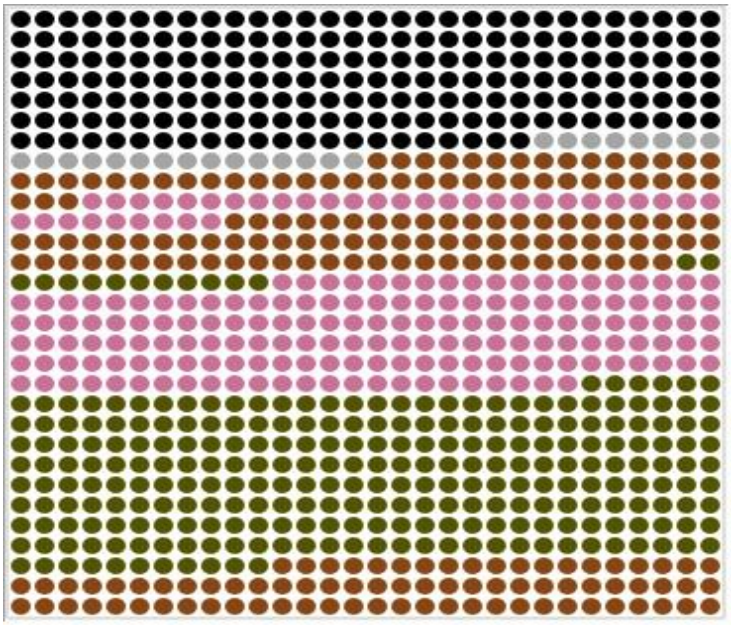

Figure 9. A visualization of one text using the Document Portrait Function in MAXQDA (each colour indicates a move).

MAXQDA also allows for comparison of different codes, different documents and document groups which can be set in the program enquiry window. The findings of the analysis are reported in Chapter 7 which includes the moves and the characteristics of each move, and examples from the corpus of the study. After the moves were explored, a categorization of the moves was required because of the lack of order of the moves in TPSs. Three main categories are proposed in Chapter 7 for ease of presentation of the move analysis findings. The categorization is based on shared themes in the moves, for example, the moves relating to teacher philosophical concepts or professional development were categorized under one category.

The linguistic realizations of moves were also explored in the context of each move. This was done by examining each move in the text, reading all the instances of one certain move. If a pattern or a construction is observed, the function *lexical search* in MAXQDA was used to confirm if a pattern is present in the move. The constructions found to be characteristics of certain moves are reported in Chapter 7 (section 7.5). This analysis is complemented by examining the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams of each obligatory move in the corpus-based analysis.

A three-way comparison of the corpora of the present study is conducted to detect any similarities or differences in moves pertaining the three corpora, i.e., the faculty corpus, the GS U-M corpus and the GS OSU corpus. The reason for separating these three corpora in the move analysis is to get a fine-grained move analysis and examine if any differences appear because of the different contexts these TPSs were produced in (see Table 7, section 5.4 for the context of the study).

5.10 Corpus-based Analysis

The corpus-based analysis was conducted on three different levels using AntConc. The first level included examining the obligatory moves identified from the move analysis reported in Chapter 7. The second level included investigating the TPSs corpus against a reference corpus. The third level of analysis explored the statements of faculty and those of graduate students. In this comparison, the two GS corpora were combined to get a larger corpus. Each level of analysis generated wordlists, keywords, and n-grams. The details of each are presented in the following sections.

5.10.1 Wordlists

Move Level. The purpose of such integration of move/step analysis and lexicogrammatical analysis of each move type is to capture how moves are linguistically constructed and realized in texts belonging to the same genre (Joseph et al., 2014; Upton & Cohen, 2009). Lexicogrammatical analysis has been manually done in previous studies of ESP genres, but only analyzed selected features of language (L. Flowerdew, 1998; Kanoksilapatham, 2007). However, the computer driven analysis allows researchers to examine different linguistic features at once in a large number of texts, and not only one or two linguistic features, such as in ‘traditional’ or ‘non-corpus based’ genre analysis in ESP (Biber et al., 2007b; Hyon, 2018; Kanoksilapatham, 2007). The linguistic features are important for writing in a genre because these can provide writers with the different choices to use to achieve a specific communicative purpose. Hyon (2018) lists word frequency, keywords, and n-grams as functions that can be used in corpus linguistics to uncover lexicogrammatical patterns of moves identified in a genre.

Although the moves are identified according to their function in the text, they are realized by the writers using specific linguistic features, which includes word or grammar choices (e.g., tense, voice, parts of speech, Upton & Cohen, 2009). As one of the aims of the present study is to fully describe the discourse structure and all the salient lexicogrammatical features associated with each move, I consulted previous research on corpus-based move analysis and followed the procedures of identifying each move description. Specifically, I followed Henry and Roseberry (2001b) and Gledhill (2000) method of identifying move descriptions which depends on extracting wordlists of each move in the corpus and using the other identified moves as a reference corpus.

I first exported all instances of each obligatory move (frequent in 50% of the texts) from MAXQDA to a separate document, resulting in 5 sub-corpora of moves. Each move was examined in AntConc. Wordlist of each move was generated and compared across the five obligatory moves.

TPSs Corpus. In this level which examines the TPSs corpus, a wordlist of the most frequent words was first generated and compared against a reference corpus to draw on similarities as well as differences between the two corpora. This is also done to highlight the generic features of the TPS genre. I used the British Academic Written English (BAWE) corpus as a reference corpus (Nesi & Gardner, 2012). The BAWE is a 6.5-million-word corpus freely available online that includes student assignments from different disciplines: Arts and Humanities, Life Sciences, Physical Sciences and Social Sciences. Although having an American versus British corpus is not ideal, it was necessary to have a reference corpus that matches the source corpus as much as possible such as a close time frame of the texts included in the two corpora, the type of writing which was representative of academic writing as well as the availability of access to the corpus and the texts to be used and fed into corpus linguistics tools. The BAWE was the most appropriate reference corpus to use in the present

study. A comparison between the two corpora is made and characteristics of the TPS genre are highlighted.

Faculty and Graduate Students Level. The wordlist for each corpus was generated and compared. Since these two corpora vary in size, with the faculty corpus totalling 18,537 words and the GS corpus comprising 39,199 words, normalized frequency (Brezina, 2018) with a common base of 10,000 are calculated and used in the comparison. The normalized frequency is calculated as:

$$\text{Normalized frequency} = \frac{\text{raw frequency} \times 10{,}000}{\text{Total words in corpus}}$$

The common base of normalization needs to be appropriate in relation to corpora sizes. Therefore, a common base is selected to be closest to the smallest corpus size (Lindquist, 2009; McEnery et al., 2006).

5.10.2 Keywords

Move Level. The keywords in move analysis are extracted by comparing the sub parts to the whole part which result in description of the rhetorical move in question (Gledhill, 2000). Keyword analysis on the move level was done by comparing each obligatory move wordlist against the other moves. This method of using sub corpora and comparing it to the other parts in the whole corpus has been used in many studies (e.g., Baker, 2006; Culpeper, 2009; Fitzgerald, 2020; Henry & Roseberry, 2001b; McEnery, 2016) for the purpose of highlighting keywords of moves in a genre. A minimum frequency threshold of six texts is applied.

TPSs Corpus. The keywords in the TPSs corpus were generated using the BAWE as a reference corpus in AntConc which revealed distinctive words in the TPS genre. In corpus linguistics, two significance tests are used in the calculation of keywords: chi-squared and log-likelihood (LL). In the present study, I used the log-likelihood for the keywords retrieval as it is considered the most popular and most accurate measure (Rayson & Potts, 2020). A minimum cut-off point was set at three texts.

Faculty and Graduate Students Level. These two corpora were used as reference corpus against each other when extracting keywords. Concordance lines facilitated the keyword analysis for examining the surrounding context of each keyword and how it was used in each corpus as well as examining the collocates of keywords in each corpus. The cut-off point for keywords was set at three texts for both.

5.10.3 N-grams

To generate n-grams which are mostly frequent (Biber et al., 2004) in the TPSs corpus for the three levels of analysis, I had to decide on three important criteria for the retrieval of n-grams established in previous literature (see Chapter 4), these are:

1. The length of the n-gram (2, 3 or 4 n-grams)
2. The number of texts that include the n-gram (range or distribution)
3. The number of n-grams in the corpus (frequency)

The range and frequency were experimented multiple times to reach the optimum number of n-grams when investigating sub-corpora such as on the move level and comparing faculty and graduate students' corpora. These "repeated experiments" are a part of the analysis of n-grams used in previous research (e.g., Cai, 2016; Chen & Baker, 2010) to determine the best number of n-grams to be further investigated through qualitative analysis.

The three specifications are explained for each level of analysis as follows:

Move Level. N-grams for each obligatory move were examined. Deciding on the criteria for extracting n-grams involved testing the appropriate length of the n-grams. The length of n-grams was reduced to three-word bundles (I explored four-word n-grams in the TPSs corpus and the faculty and GS corpora) which are considered common (Hyland, 2012b). When the length was set to four-word n-grams to be consistent with what was done in the other two levels of analyses, no results were found for any of the moves. The second criterion of range was also set to three texts for all the moves.

The third criterion is setting the frequency cut-off point for each move. The moves are variable in size and relatively contain a smaller number of words compared to the TPSs corpus or the faculty and GS corpora. Previous research has employed dynamic cut-off points for corpora of different sizes (Chen & Baker, 2016). As the moves here are of different sizes, I adopted this method and tested frequency cut-off points ranging between 2 to 10, a common raw frequency cut-off range used in previous studies of small specialized corpora (Chen & Baker, 2010). The goal was to extract a reasonable and representative number of n-grams for each move. The cut-off point was determined after trying and testing multiple frequency cut-offs in AntConc. Table 8 demonstrates each move word count and the frequency cut-off point with the resulting number of n-grams.

Table 8

Moves Sub-corpus and Frequency Cut-off Points with Types and Tokens

Move	**Word count**	**Cut-off raw frequency**	**N-grams**
3-word n-grams **Range: 3**			
Move 1: Focusing on philosophical concepts	7,579	7	4

Move 9: Describing features of the learning environment	4,207	7	1
Move 10: Focus on teaching practices	20,939	10	6
Move 11: Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process	5,610	6	1
Move 12: Stating teaching goals and outcomes	6,443	6	5
Total	44,778		17

Once the final list of n-grams was ready, structural, and functional analyses were conducted (see Chapter 4). The structural analysis was done manually by examining n-grams in concordance lines. I followed the taxonomy of Biber et al. (1999) which is presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Structural Types of N-grams (Biber et al., 1999, pp. 1015–1024)

Structure	**Pattern**	**Examples**
NP-based	*NP + of*	*the end of the, the nature of the, the beginning of the, a large number of*
	Other NP	*the fact that the, one of the most, the extent to which, an important role in*
PP-based	*PP + of*	*at the end of, as a result of, on the basis of, in the context of*
	Other PP	*on the other hand, at the same time, in the present study, with respect to the*
VP-based	Be + noun/adjective phrase	*is the same as, is a matter of, is due to the, be the result of, is a significant difference*
	Passive verb + prep phrase fragment	*is shown in figure, is based on the, is defined as the, can be found in*

	Anticipatory *it* + verb/adjective phrase	*it is important to, it is possible that, it was found that, it should be noted*
	(Verb phrase) + *that* clause fragment	*should be noted that, that this is a, we assume that the*
	(Verb/adjective) + *to*-clause fragment	*are likely to be, to be able to, to determine whether the*
	Adverbial clause fragment	*as shown in table, if there is a, as can be seen in, as compared with the*
	Pronoun/noun phrase + be (+…)	*this is not the, there was no difference, this is the first*
Other expressions	Other	*did not differ between, as well as the*

N-grams are also categorized functionally by applying the taxonomy of Biber et al. (2004). This taxonomy can be effectively used to classify functions of the n-grams since it focuses on a range of spoken and written genres and is not developed exclusively for specific academic writing such as Hyland (2008a) model (see Chapter 4) which highlights functions used in research articles, PhD theses and master's dissertations. N-grams can be classified into three main functions: *stance expressions*, *discourse organizers* and *referential expressions*. One other function is used in conversation as Table 10 shows. The three first main functions are the ones used in the present study and the taxonomy is used in the three levels of analysis.

Table 10

Functional Categories of N-grams in Academic Prose (Biber et al., 2004, pp. 384–388)

Category	**Function**	**Subcategories with examples**
Stance expressions	expressing attitudes or assessments	***A. Epistemic stance***
		Personal: I don't know if
		Impersonal: the fact that the
		B. Attitudinal/modality stance

		B1. Desire: if you want to *B2. Obligation/directive* *Personal: I want you to* *Impersonal: it is important to* *B3. Intention/prediction* *Personal: I'm not going to* *Impersonal: going to be a* *B4. Ability* *Personal: to be able to* *Impersonal: it is possible to*
Discourse organizers	shows relationships in discourse	***A. Topic introduction/focus*** *what do you think* ***B. Topic elaboration/clarification*** *has to do with*
Referential expressions	Reference to physical or abstract entities	***A. Identification/focus*** *that's one of the* ***B. Imprecision*** *or something like that* ***C. Specification of attributes*** *C1. Quantity specification: have a lot of* *C2. Tangible framing attributes: the size of the* *C3. Intangible framing attributes: the nature of the* ***D. Time/place/text reference*** *D1. Place reference: in the United States* *D2. Time reference: at the same time* *D3. Text deixis: shown in figure N* *D4. Multi-functional reference: the end of the*

Special Conversational functions	***A. Politeness***
	thank you very much
	B. Simple inquiry
	what are you doing
	C. Reporting
	I said to him/her

TPSs Corpus. The length of the n-gram was set to 4-word as these are "far more common than 5-word strings and offer a clearer range of structures and functions than 3-word bundles" (Hyland, 2008b, p. 8). In addition, previous studies on n-grams have favored the 4-word n-grams over other 2, 3 or 5 n-grams because the 4-word n-grams contain 2 and 3-word n-grams while 5 and 6-word n-grams are less frequently found (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008b). The second criterion is the range of texts in which the n-gram must occur. This measure is set to avoid idiosyncratic usage of a single writer. I decided to set the range according to Hyland (2008b) recommendation of 10% of the corpus which equals 5 texts in the present study. The third criterion was to set a frequency cut-off point for the corpus which is dependent on the corpus size. Bestgen (2018) recommends a minimum raw frequency threshold of three occurrences to guard against n-grams resulting due to chance when dealing with corpora of 50,000 words and since the corpus of the present study is considered relatively small, I tried different cut-off points and decided on having a cut-off frequency of 5 which was appropriate to yield reliable findings and suitable number of n-grams to be analyzed structurally and functionally (see Chapter 4 for details on these analyses).

After n-grams were generated according to the above criteria, some methodological issues relating to exclusion of some problematic n-grams had to be addressed. This process of exclusion or refinement is necessary when dealing with n-grams or lexical bundles (Chen & Baker, 2010; Salazar, 2014). Three main types of exclusions were applicable to the generated n-gram lists: (1) context-specific or topic-specific n-grams containing proper nouns (e.g., *the*

university of Calgary), (2) faulty n-grams misidentified by AntConc which were separated by a comma (e.g., *in the classroom and*), and (3) overlapping n-grams which are part of a longer sequence (e.g., *for practice and feedback, practice and feedback in*). The first two types were excluded from the n-gram lists while overlapping n-grams were combined into one longer n-gram following the procedure of Ädel and Erman (2012) and Chen and Baker (2010).

In this level of analysis, 31 n-grams were generated by AntConc, and the final list included 28 n-grams. One proper noun n-gram was excluded (*the university of Calgary*) and two faulty n-grams were excluded from the list because they were separated by commas (*in the classroom and*, *as a teacher, I*). The extracted n-grams were classified structurally and functionally according to the taxonomies mentioned earlier.

Faculty and Graduate Students Level. The length of the n-grams in this comparison was set to 4-word n-grams. The range of n-grams was also set to 10% of the corpus to avoid idiosyncratic usage, which meant two for the faculty corpus and three for the GS corpus. When investigating corpora of different sizes, a dynamic threshold of frequency is usually set depending on each corpus size (Ädel & Erman, 2012). I tested different frequency cut-offs for each corpus and continued to test them until an equivalent number of n-grams was generated for both with a compatible normalized frequency as shown in Table 11.

Table 11

Calculations for N-grams in the Faculty and GS Corpora

Corpus	**Length**	**Range 10%**	**Raw frequency cut-off point**	**Normalized frequency**	**N-grams**
Faculty	4-word	2	3	1.6	25
GS	4-word	3	5	1.2	26

The retrieved n-gram lists were checked manually for context-specific, faulty, or overlapping n-grams as detailed earlier. In the faculty n-grams list, one proper noun was excluded (*the university of Calgary*), one faulty n-gram was excluded (*in the classroom and*) and three overlapping n-grams were combined into one (*opportunities for practice and feedback in*). In the GS n-grams list, one proper noun was excluded (*the university of Michigan*). This was followed by a categorization of n-grams structures and functions as outlined above.

5.11 Contextual Analysis

The present study, in addition to the textual analysis of the genre, also focuses on what guides are advising when writing a TPS. As many instructors and teachers turn to the internet to search for these guides, it is important to include guides that are reliable and frequently referenced when writing a TPS. Therefore, I compared what these guides are recommending with the authentic examples of the statements in this study and compared the similarities and differences between the two. This kind of exploring the available information on writing in a genre has previously been done by Paltridge (2002) in which guides on writing theses and dissertations were compared to actual examples written by students. Likewise, the statement of purpose required by graduate programs applications were the focus of Samraj and Monk (2008) study. Examples of statements of purpose from linguistics, electrical engineering and business administration were analyzed using the move analysis method and guides including books and websites were examined to find out how these guides align with the actual practice of graduate students writing of statements of purpose.

Regarding the guides on writing TPSs, journal articles discussing advice on writing teaching statements and two websites (see Appendix F) were selected for the comparison to the actual examples of TPSs. The selected guides are chosen because these are the first

articles that appear for graduate students and instructors when they search the internet for *teaching philosophy* or *statement of teaching philosophy* or *teaching statement,* and they are also heavily referenced in the TPS writing literature (see Chapter 2). This selection follows the process of Samraj and Monk (2008) selection of guides in their study of statements of purpose. Table 12 summarizes the titles of the selected publications used in the present study. The content of each publication along with the websites used are detailed in Appendix F. The guides reviewed in the present study cover a period from 1997 to 2018. The context for these guides is mainly giving instructions for TPSs written for applications to a teaching position.

Table 12

Titles of Publications Selected for Comparison

Publication title
• *Writing your teaching philosophy* (Boye, 2012) • *Developing a philosophy of teaching statement* (Chism, 1997) • *Writing a statement of teaching philosophy* (Coppola, 2002) • *The teaching philosophy statement: Purposes and organizational structure* (Eierman, 2008) • *Teaching philosophy statements* (Faryadi, 2015) • *Statements of teaching philosophy* (Goodyear & Allchin, 1998) • *A research-based rubric for developing statements of teaching philosophy* (Kaplan et al., 2007) • *Teaching philosophies and teaching dossiers guide* (Kenny et al., 2018) • *Writing a statement of teaching philosophy for the academic job search* (O'Neal et al., 2007) • *Teaching philosophies reconsidered: A conceptual model for the development and evaluation of teaching philosophy statements* (Schönwetter et al., 2002) • *Navigating academia: Writing supporting genres* (Swales & Feak, 2011) • *Constructing a teaching philosophy: Aligning beliefs, theories, and practice* (Yeom et al., 2018)

The comparison involves the moves identified in the move analysis and the corpus-based analysis findings of the examples and discusses the alignment of these examples to the writing guides. The findings of this comparison are presented in Chapter 9.

5.12 Chapter Summary

This chapter outlined and discussed the methodology of the present study. The sub-questions of the present study are presented. The method of corpus collection is detailed, and the context of the study is offered. The three TPSs corpora are described with the issues of size and representativeness.

A description of the software tools used in the present study: MAXQDA and AntConc is given with explanation of the functions used in each software. The process of data preparation for each level of analysis is highlighted. The chapter presents the methods used for data analysis with figures showing the software and the analytical framework.

The three levels of analysis are the textual, corpus-based, and contextual analyses. Each level was detailed with the tool used for answering the research sub-questions. The textual analysis is mainly concerned with move analysis and included a pilot study and a main study. The corpus-based analysis focused on wordlists, keywords, and n-grams in the moves sub-corpus, the TPSs corpus, and the faculty and graduate students' corpora. The contextual analysis compared the guides on writing TPSs and the findings of the present study.

The next four chapters are dedicated to the findings of the present study. Chapter 6 details the pilot study methods and initial genre model. Chapter 7 presents the move analysis findings and chapter 8 describes the corpus-based analysis. Chapter 9 presents the comparison of TPSs writing guides and the findings of the present study.

Chapter 6

The Pilot Study

The chapter details the process of the pilot study which was conducted prior to the main study to develop a draft coding scheme to be applied to the whole corpus. The chapter begins with the steps of corpus-based genre analysis proposed by Connor et al. (2007). The chapter details the purposes of the pilot study, the methodological approach followed, the resulting moves from the pilot study and the process of intra and inter-rater reliability of move analysis and reports the results of the inter-rater reliability checks.

6.1 Methods for the Pilot Study

As a start, a pilot coding was conducted to develop a detailed coding scheme (Biber et al., 2007b; Connor et al., 2007) of all the potential moves present in the genre. Since there was no previous genre analysis, to the best of my knowledge, of TPSs, it was necessary to build a self-developed genre model following the move analysis detailed in the steps of corpus-based genre analysis proposed by Connor et al. (2007) which are shown in Table 13 below. The pilot study aims are twofold: to create a draft genre rhetorical model and to test the model using intra- and inter-rater reliability procedures. The move types in the analysis are not taken from any pre-existing move structure as in previous studies of genre analysis (see Chapter 2 for a literature review on TPSs research) that usually apply a model such as the CARS model (Swales, 1990) on a corpus of research article introductions or similar academic genres.

Table 13

General Steps to Conduct Corpus-based Move Analysis

Step 1:	Determine rhetorical purposes of the genre
Step 2:	Determine rhetorical function of each text segment in its local context; identify the possible move types of the genre
Step 3:	Group functional and/or semantic themes that are either in relative proximity to each other or often occur in similar locations in representative texts. These reflect the specific *steps* that can be used to realize a broader *move*.
Step 4:	Conduct pilot-coding to test and fine-tune definitions of move purposes.
Step 5:	Develop coding protocol with clear definitions and examples of *move types* and *steps*.
Step 6:	Code full set of texts, with inter-rater reliability check to confirm that there is clear understanding of move definitions and how *moves/steps* are realized in texts.
Step 7:	Add any additional *steps* and/or *moves* that are revealed in the full analysis.
Step 8:	Revise coding protocol to resolve any discrepancies revealed by the inter-rater reliability check or by newly 'discovered' *moves/steps*, and re-code problematic areas.
Step 9:	Conduct linguistic analysis of move features and/or other corpus-facilitated analyses.
Step 10:	Describe corpus of texts in terms of typical and alternate move structures and linguistic characteristics

Adapted from Connor et al. (2007) (p. 34).

The pilot coding was carried out in July 2019 and was applied to 25% of the corpus (Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2007; Parkinson, 2017). It included twelve texts in total, four randomly selected texts from each of the three sub-corpora (see Chapter 5). Since TPSs are not yet explored from the perspective of genre theory and no pre-existing rhetorical move structure exists to build on in the present study, the move types are derived from multiple readings of the texts and assigning the appropriate communicative function of the segments using the *-ing* verb form (Bhatia, 1993; Moreno & Swales, 2018; Swales, 1990). For

example, *identifying, establishing, expressing*, etc. as in the CARS model (see Chapter 3) introduced by Swales (1990) and other models that followed his framework or extended it to other genres (e.g., Bhatia, 1993; Cotos, 2019; J. Flowerdew & Forest, 2009; Upton, 2002).

Initially, it is vital to understand the overall rhetorical goal of the genre; therefore, multiple readings of the texts are required before identifying the specific rhetorical moves and steps. Moves are identified according to their communicative purpose and steps are those smaller units that build a move and are distinguished based on how the move is realized. This approach that depends on function or communicative purpose is considered a top-down move analysis as explained in Chapter 3 and Chapter 4.

After multiple readings of the texts, the texts were prepared by converting them to Word documents and they were checked for accuracy to ensure the conversion was completed with no errors or missing text by manually checking each converted file with its original and anonymizing the writers' details as previously illustrated in Chapter 5 (section 5.7). The texts were imported to MAXQDA software and coded/labelled to reflect the communicative purpose of each segment. This process is usually referred to as *tagging*, which indicates an automatic or semi-automatic method in corpus linguistics (L. Flowerdew, 2008b).

Each move is identified according to the function or the communicative purpose (see Chapter 5, section 5.9.1 for issues in move identification) and entered as a code in the code system with a certain color. Steps are coded under moves as a sub-code. This process needs going back and forth multiple times after moves are assigned to ensure that the move reflects the communicative purpose the writer intends. This is discussed in the intra-rater reliability in section 6.2 below.

As mentioned before, a move is defined as "a discoursal or rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse" (Swales, 2004,

p. 228). The identification of a move does not only involve the boundaries of a sentence, or a paragraph and a move might occur mid-sentence. Each move may consist of several sentences or paragraphs, which, considered together, serve a specific communicative purpose (semantic-functional purpose, Biber et al., 2007b). The sub-purposes of the moves ultimately shape the overall communicative purpose and the rhetorical structure of the genre (Bhatia, 1993) (see Chapter 3).

The pilot coding generated a list of 17 move types. Figure 10 shows the moves and their constituent steps. The order of occurrence of these moves (which was variable across the texts) is not reflected in the Figure or the re-occurrence of the moves in the texts. These features will be discussed further in Chapter 7 when presenting the findings of move analysis of all texts in the corpus.

Move Type	**No. of occurrence**
	N= 12
Move 1: Focusing on teaching practices/ approaches	12
Move 2: Focusing on teaching philosophy	12
Move 3: Explaining expected teaching objectives	11
Move 4: Evaluation/assessment of learning/teaching	11
Move 5: Improving teaching/aspiring for professional development	9
Move 6: Giving examples of classroom experience related to teaching	9
Move 7: Showing students difficulties, mistakes, and struggles	7
Move 8: Showing experience and qualifications of teaching	6
Move 9: Describing classroom environment	4
Move 10: Focusing on the subject/course being taught	4
Move 11: Focusing on being a learner	4
Move 12: Being a successful teacher	4
Move 13: Emphasizing the rewards of being a teacher	3
Move 14: Reasons/motivation of choosing teaching as a career	3
Move 15: Focusing on students learning/knowledge	3

Move 16: Acknowledging mentors who influenced the teacher	3
Move 17: Reflecting on classroom teaching	3

Figure 10. Proposed coding scheme based on the pilot study results

Move 1 and 2 occurred in the 12 texts in the pilot study (100%) while the other moves frequency varied between 11 (91%) and 3 (25%). As this coding scheme is a starting point for the analysis, no further details are provided here until all the texts are analyzed and moves are identified and quantified in the corpus. The results of the main study are presented in Chapter 7 which discusses in detail the findings of move analysis on the whole corpus. The coding scheme was re-evaluated and modified several times in response to the findings in the main study which are detailed in Chapter 7.

After the draft coding scheme was generated and coding training was conducted, the inter-rater was given the texts and the coding scheme to conduct the independent coding. This is in line with the procedure of inter-rater reliability conducted in move analysis (e.g., Casal & Kessler, 2020; Ding, 2007; Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2007). Any discrepancies found between the researcher and the coder were discussed until a final agreement was reached (see section 6.2 for a description of the inter-rater reliability process). The coding scheme was re-evaluated many times and modified according to the data in the main study and discussions with the other coder.

When examining the remaining texts in the main study, some moves and/or steps were eliminated as they did not clearly reflect the communicative purpose and some steps were grouped under moves that were different from the initial coding of moves. New moves were also identified and added to the initial coding scheme (see Chapter 7 for the final moves and steps in the corpus) such as a move proposed by the coder: *facing a problem or a challenge*. These edits, additions and exclusions are common in move analysis (Connor et al., 2007) and result in a more accurate representation of the genre macrostructure.

6.2 Intra- and Inter- rater Reliability

Generally, “a research procedure is reliable when it responds to the same phenomena in the same way regardless of the circumstances of its implementation” (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 267). The present study employed two processes to ensure the accuracy of coding the moves. First, intra-rater reliability was performed. The intra-rater reliability is “a method of dual coding of data to ensure the coding categories or scores are being used in a consistent manner” (Loewen & Plonsky, 2016, p. 93). In this process, the researcher re-codes the data at two different times, usually between 2 and 4 weeks from the initial coding (Kuckartz & Rädiker, 2019). Although such a measure is not very popular in move analysis, it has been used before to check consistency of the coding at two different times, usually between five weeks and six months (Ding, 2007; Hung, Chen, & Tsai, 2012; Li & Ge, 2009; Lim, 2014; Y. Liu & Buckingham, 2018; Moreno & Swales, 2018). After conducting the pilot study in July 2019, I went back to code the data again after five weeks. The re-coding categories were very similar to the initial coding in the pilot study and no major changes were required. It should be noted that intra-rater reliability was also conducted on the main study corpus and not only the 25% of texts used in the pilot study to ensure accuracy in assigning the moves.

The second process of reliability included other individuals coding the same texts in the pilot study which is referred to as inter-rater reliability. This is the degree to which coders agree on the same types of codes assigned by the main coder (Dörnyei, 2007). Inter-rater agreement is usually utilized in categories where subjectivity in assigning codes is present. The other coders independently code a random set of data after the researcher explains the coding categories with examples and a statistical measure is chosen to calculate the reliability of the coding (Brezina, 2018).

The present study employs move analysis, in which the researcher or the first coder makes rather subjective human judgments for the initial identifying and coding of different

moves and steps (Bhatia, 2014; Paltridge, 1994). Therefore, it is very important to have other coders examine and analyze a sample of the data set to ensure that there is an agreement on the kinds of moves identified in a corpus (Kanoksilapatham, 2007). Moreover, the inter-rater process can be used to identify any problems in coding or definitions and "can be used equally as a tool for checking, improving, and ensuring the quality of coding processes" (Kuckartz & Rädiker, 2019, p. 268). When the inter-rater reliability is high, this means that the coders were able to agree on the move types and steps and it is usually reported as a percentage (Saldaña, 2013).

In this study, one PhD researcher studying English language and linguistics in the school of English was approached to help establish the inter-rater reliability. The coder was familiar with the process of coding and move analysis. However, to get reliable results, the researcher held a one-hour training session to acquaint the coder with the theoretical and analytical framework used in the study. The session included an introduction to the English for specific purposes (ESP) approach, genre definition, rhetorical moves, identification of moves and steps and the boundaries of moves in a text. Concrete examples were provided in the training session. I provided the coder with the coding scheme and went through it together for clarification and description of each move.

After the training workshop, the coder was given the texts included in the pilot study which represented 25% of the whole corpus (Kanoksilapatham, 2007; Parkinson, 2017), to code independently using the coding scheme generated in the pilot study and which is presented in Figure 10. In general, the amount of data to be double-coded is usually between 10 and 20% of the data (Loewen & Plonsky, 2016) but I followed the 25% recommendation suggested by Kanoksilapatham (2007) and Parkinson (2017) to ensure that identified moves are accurate across the texts. The coder was very generous to accommodate the coding of the texts with their own busy schedule and their own research requirements. The coder was given

the opportunity to ask questions or seek further clarifications of the move analysis or the coding scheme in the training session or when coding independently. Adequate time was allocated for this process, considering the coder's other responsibilities and their own research.

The coder manually coded the texts using the coding scheme that was provided to them and they were encouraged to add any communicative function that is not included in the coding scheme by the main researcher. We discussed the results of the independent coding and modified the coding scheme for any ambiguous move or step. Any discrepancies were discussed between the researcher and the other coder in several scheduled meetings set according to work in progress until an agreement was reached and the coding scheme was refined. The disagreements between the coder and the researcher rarely involved where a move starts or where it ends. Assigning a communicative purpose to a segment of text (i.e., move type) was what we disagreed on. Therefore, some of the moves and move definitions were adjusted to mirror the function of segments as seen and understood by the researcher and the coder and these changes were adopted when the main study corpus was analysed. Some of the examples of changes were adding a move: *Facing a problem or a challenge* to the moves and expanding the steps in the move: *Focus on teaching practices* (For the final genre model and changes made see Chapter 7).

6.3 Calculating Inter-rater Reliability

There are several ways to calculate inter-rater reliability such as raw agreement or Cohen's Kappa (κ) (Brezina, 2018). Raw agreement is widely used in move analysis to report the inter-rater reliability as it can be simply interpreted (e.g., Ding, 2007; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Li & Ge, 2009). The present study uses raw agreement to calculate the inter-rater reliability because the likelihood of two coders assigning the same code by chance is very

low due to the large number of moves identified in the coding scheme (Campbell, Quincy, Osserman, & Pedersen, 2013). I used MAXQDA to aid in visualizing the two sets of the pilot study coding. The texts were first duplicated and the coding of the other coder was inserted. The function *Analysis/ Intercoder agreement* can show the differences at the segment level which helps identify any disagreements between the two coders at the move level.

The raw agreement is calculated for each move (Kanoksilapatham, 2005, 2007) and illustrated in Table 14. To calculate the raw agreement, the number of agreements is multiplied by 100 and divided by the total coded units. The inter-rater reliability resulted in 94.9%. This percentage shows that there is a high overall inter-rater reliability in identifying the moves in TPSs. The high percentage of inter-rater reliability and the refinement of the coding scheme in the pilot study indicate that the coding scheme can be applied to the whole corpus and modified if needed according to the analysis of the texts in the main study.

Table 14

Inter-rater Analysis of the Pilot Study

Move	**Coded Units**	**Agreements**	**Disagreements**
Move 1: Focusing on teaching practices/ approaches	57	56	1
Move 2: Focusing on teaching philosophy	74	73	1
Move 3: Explaining expected teaching objectives	35	34	1
Move 4: Evaluation/assessment of learning/teaching	36	31	5
Move 5: Improving teaching/aspiring for professional development	17	17	0

Move 6: Giving examples of classroom experience related to teaching	28	27	1
Move 7: Showing students difficulties, mistakes, and struggles	9	8	1
Move 8: Showing experience and qualifications of teaching	12	10	2
Move 9: Describing classroom environment	6	6	0
Move 10: Focusing on the subject/course being taught	7	7	0
Move 11: Focusing on being a learner	5	4	1
Move 12: Being a successful teacher	7	7	0
Move 13: Emphasizing the rewards of being a teacher	3	3	0
Move 14: Reasons/motivation of choosing teaching as a career	4	4	0
Move 15: Focusing on students learning/knowledge	5	5	0
Move 16: Acknowledging mentors who influenced the teacher	3	3	0
Move 17: Reflecting on classroom teaching	5	5	0
Added move: Move 18: Facing a problem/ a challenge	3	0	3
Total	316	300	16

6.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the process and steps used for the pilot study and how moves were assigned. The pilot study was conducted on a subset of twelve texts taken from the corpus of the study. The coding scheme after identifying the potential moves found in TPSs is outlined. The chapter detailed the procedures of reliability by using intra and inter-rater reliability checks. For the intra-rater reliability check, the coded data was re-coded after five weeks to ensure accuracy with no major changes in the coding scheme. The inter-rater reliability involved training of one coder and providing the data and the coding scheme to be applied independently. The percentage of agreement was 94.9%.

In the next chapter, the findings of the main study are detailed and discussed with each move type explained with examples from the corpus of the study. In addition, the sequence of moves and moves cyclicity are presented and the similarities and differences are described in terms of the moves found in the faculty TPSs and graduate students TPSs.

Chapter 7

Move Analysis of Teaching Philosophy Statements

This chapter is the first of three chapters which present and discuss the findings of the data analysis detailed in Chapter 5. This chapter is dedicated to presenting the findings of the move analysis of the whole corpus (46 texts in total) and answering the following research questions:

- What are the move and step patterns in the teaching philosophy statement genre?
- Are there any differences in the moves and steps of teaching philosophy statements written by faculty members and those written by graduate students?

After conducting the pilot study and developing the coding scheme of moves and steps, I applied the coding scheme to the 34 remaining texts. I began with this draft genre model but I was willing to edit and modify according to any new moves found in the main study texts. I chose to include the texts from the pilot study to ensure that I describe the genre in terms of the lexicogrammatical features which were not explored in the pilot study since the purpose of the pilot study was to build a coding scheme of the moves.

The findings have been organized in the following way: the chapter begins with section 7.1 with an overview of the move categories and their definitions. Then, in sections 7.2 through section 7.5, I outline each move with its description and specific examples from the corpus and any observed linguistic patterns specific to the function of the move. The description of the moves includes the frequency of occurrence of the moves which determines if the move is obligatory or optional. The frequency of occurrence is determined according to previous work on move analysis (see Table 3, Chapter 3 and section 5.9.2,

Chapter 5). Sequence of the moves (i.e., order of occurrence of moves) and cyclicity of the moves (i.e., re-occurrence of moves through each text) are discussed in sections 7.6 and 7.7.

In section 7.8, I explore the use of questions in the statements and within moves which emerged when I started to examine the texts and the moves. A comparison between the texts of faculty members and graduate students in terms of move frequency, move sequence, and move cyclicity is presented in section 7.9. A case study of the TPSs originating from the UK is presented and compared in section 7.10. A genre model is proposed at the end of the chapter in section 7.11 and compared to the one developed in the pilot study in section 7.12.

7.1 Overview of the Moves and Categorization

The final analysis applied to the whole corpus resulted in three broad categories and 14 distinct move types. The structural organization of the texts was not consistent as some texts had subheadings and others looked like an essay with no subheadings (see section 7.9 for more on subheadings). For the ease of presenting the findings, I decided to classify the moves into three categories (see Chapter 5, section 5.9.2). The sequence of moves is not reflected in these categories as there was no pattern detected in the order of the moves and this will be further discussed in section 7.6.

The three categories of moves are: teacher-focused, classroom-focused and teaching/evaluation process. Teacher-focused refers to moves related to the teacher or writer of the statement. Classroom-focused refers to moves that were found in the statements and are focused on the classroom and learning environment. The teaching/evaluation process includes any moves that relate to teaching in the classroom and the assessment of learning and teaching. Each category consists of several potential moves. The findings of the move analysis in each category, the percentage of occurrence and the re-occurrence of moves are presented in the following sections. The findings are supported by examples from the corpora

to clarify the types of moves and steps identified in the present study. At the end of the chapter, a genre model will be presented and discussed.

7.2 Teacher-focused Moves

Moves categorized under teacher-focused are those moves that relate to the teacher such as his/her own teaching philosophy concepts, professional development, or previous experience. It also relates to the teacher's own motivation and rewards of being a teacher. This category encompasses seven moves:

Move 1: Focusing on philosophical concepts

Move 2: Improving teaching (professional development)

Move 3: Reasons or motivation for teaching

Move 4: Showing experience and qualifications of teaching

Move 5: Emphasising the rewards of being a teacher

Move 6: Acknowledging mentors and other teachers for current experience

Move 7: Setting a good example for students

Move 1 generally presents the core values and beliefs of teachers. It addresses their teaching philosophy and includes teaching and learning beliefs. The communicative purpose is to highlight the philosophical background and knowledge that the teacher is basing their practice of teaching on. This move was identifiable based on the context of the surrounding text and the use of words such as *I believe that* and *my teaching philosophy is* (see Chapter 5, section 5.9.1 for criteria for the identification of moves). The following examples illustrate Move 1:

1) *There are several overarching goals that I have for my classroom, all of which are based on my beliefs about how students learn. First,* ***I believe that*** *students learn the best when they feel comfortable.*

(OSU SS 30)

2) ***I believe that*** *students often learn a great deal from unanticipated discussion sparked by differences in interpretation and opinion surrounding sometimes controversial course topics.*

(U-M SS 13)

3) ***I believe that*** *effective teachers understand what knowledge their students already have and find a way to tap into that knowledge and build upon it every day.*

(OSU H 20)

4) *A key to my approach to teaching is* ***my belief that*** *it is my job not only to explain concepts and methods to students, but also to model the application of these ideas.*

(U-C 43)

In Move 1, the phrase *I believe that* was highly used by which the writers express their beliefs about teaching and learning and how they perceive their teaching philosophy. Adjectives used in this move include *good* (10 times), *best* (10), *own* (15), and *real* (15). *Good* and *best* are used to describe good teaching and best learning. *Real* is used to describe the connection of the classroom to the real world, real knowledge and real life outside the classroom, a step used in this move (see below). It is noted that writers use the adjective *educational* to refer to their teaching philosophy, however the reference is not directed toward the five major educational philosophies discussed in Chapter 2. The teaching philosophy mentioned in this move is the personal view the teacher practices in their classroom as seen in the examples above.

Focusing on the step level, Move 1 contains three possible steps as follows:

Move 1, Step 1: Background to the philosophy

In the statements, many writers mention some background such as where they lived or an event that happened in the past which affected them and consequently developed their teaching philosophy. An example of this is

5) *My approach to teaching builds on a deep personal regard for its inspiring and transformative power. Reflecting upon my academic career, I am taken back to the time when I had enrolled in a teaching seminar to prepare for independently teaching classes. It struck me that the seminar was comparable to studying someone's internet dating profile. As if "teaching" was my prospective "date,"*

(OSU SS 31)

Move 1, Step 2: Applying learning to life outside the classroom

This step is used to show the importance of learning and how it will benefit learners by being able to apply it in their real life. Some examples of this step are:

6) *I expect students to bring the classroom to the real world by synthesizing, integrating, and applying knowledge learned in class to their daily life.*

(OSU SS 29)

7) *I also try to show my students how political science is relevant to their lives, making them more interested in the subject matter, as well. This often includes discussion of the day's headlines or encouraging students to make connections beyond the obvious.*

(U-M SS 18)

Move 1, Step 3: Using a quote or simile

In some statements, writers used a quote or a simile to explain their teaching philosophy. The statement usually begins with a quote or a simile and the author elaborates on their teaching philosophy based on the quote/simile. Some examples are:

8) *"It is the mark of an educated mind to be able to entertain a thought without accepting it" - Aristotle*

(U-M S 10)

9) *"Obvious is the most dangerous word in mathematics" - E. T. Bell*

(U-M S 8)

Some of the verbs used to describe teaching philosophy in this move are *grounded*, *encompass* and *rooted* suggesting that the writers are introducing their teaching philosophy as ideas developed over a long period of time and were shaped by their experiences and backgrounds. As can be seen, the educational philosophy is not clearly named or referenced to in the statements and what most of them describe as a teaching philosophy is in fact a teaching style. This disconnection and lack of proper naming is clear in the statements. This point will be discussed further in Chapter 9 when guides and the corpus of the present study are compared.

Turning to Move 2 which provides a description of ways a teacher is improving or aspiring to improve their teaching. Two examples are offered below to illustrate this move:

10) *In fact, my teaching style and techniques are evolving daily as I learn through professional development, by studying my peers, and most importantly by listening to my students.*

(OSU H 20)

11) *A strong teaching and learning community has recently developed in my Faculty and participation in the seminars and workshops has strengthened my practice and inspired me. I have also found involvement with science education societies invaluable in helping me refine my teaching practice.*

(U-C 34)

In Move 2, verbs such as *continue to grow* or *continue growing as a teacher* are used to show that the authors are always improving and continue to do so by learning and observing other colleagues' teaching methods and benefiting from workshops offered.

Move 3 expresses the reasons or motivation that led them to choose teaching as a career. These reasons are varied and different to each writer. An example of Move 3 is shown as follows:

12) *I chose to pursue teaching in engineering, because I want to make an impact on people's lives. I want to not only help them to learn and understand the curriculum of introductory engineering concepts, but I also want them to learn how to apply these concepts in order to successfully help others now and in their future. I do this with passion and preparation.*

(OSU S 24)

In this move, the writers chose words to convey their motivation for teaching such as *am passionate about*, *to help others*, and *enthusiasm*. It also centred around students and how teaching practice is a way to engage and motivate them.

Move 4 highlights previous experience and qualifications. It involves describing previous posts the teacher held, any previous training and conferences attended or organized. Some examples of this Move are:

13) *In my undergraduate program, I **was** a tutor for my peers both formally with students with disabilities, and informally with friends who struggled.*

(U-C 37)

14) ***Over the last fifteen years**, I **have taught** in and **coordinated** labs for first-year biology courses as well as a third-year course on fungal biology.*

(U-C 34)

Phrases such as *in my role as* and *as assistant of* were present alongside a description of the different roles and experiences the writers gained over the years. As this move is concerned with past experience, the writer's choice of tense is simple past or past perfect as highlighted in the examples above. Furthermore, time expressions such as *for the last X years*… or referring to specific years such as *in 20XX* are found in this move. This aligns with the purpose of this move of presenting past experience of the writer with previous teaching positions.

Move 5 explains the rewards of teaching. These include the satisfaction of helping others and the joys of working with diverse backgrounds. Some examples that illustrate this move are:

15) *Knowing that I have had a lasting impact on my students is **one of my greatest rewards as a teacher.***

(U-M SS 12).

16) *Preparing education students to teach science has been **a very rewarding experience for me.** It has provided me with the opportunity to help students develop confidence in their ability to teach science as well as grow and develop as a teacher myself.*

(U-M SS 14)

The adjective *rewarding* was used in this move modified by *most, very* and *extremely*.

Move 6 describes previous mentors or colleagues that had an impact on the teacher. Some examples to illustrate this move are:

17) *Several mentors and teachers have instilled a lifelong love of learning in me, and I wish to share that joy with every student I can.*

(OSU SS 29)

18) *My relationships with my mentors, the teaching experiences I have gained, and the support I have found in my colleagues have all contributed to my pedagogical stance and goals.*

(OSU SS 32)

Move 7 focuses on the teacher providing a good role model for the students to follow. An example of this move is:

19) *Indeed, I strive to be a positive example of collaboration and collegiality so that our students learn how to work with one another while achieving to the highest level.*

(U-C 44)

This move was not frequent in the corpus and was only present in 6 texts out of the 46 texts.

7.2.1 Features of Moves and Steps in Teacher-focused Category

The analysis of the rhetorical structure entails identifying moves and steps and their frequency in texts to draw conclusions of whether a move is obligatory or optional. Table 15 shows the frequency of moves and steps in this category with the percentage of occurrence and the total number of words of each move.

Table 15

Frequency of Occurrence of Moves and Steps in Teacher-focused Category

Move/step	Frequency N=46	Percentage %	Total no. of words in all texts
Move 1: focusing on philosophical concepts	**33**	**72%***	**7,579**
Step 1: background to the philosophy	13	28%	
Step 2: applying learning to life outside classroom	19	41%	
Step 3: using a quote or a simile	7	15%	
Move 2: improving teaching (professional development)	**22**	**48%****	**2,869**
Move 3: reasons or motivation for teaching	**18**	**40%****	**1,517**
Move 4: showing the experience and qualifications of teaching	**12**	**26%****	**1,546**
Move 5: emphasizing the rewards of being a teacher	**12**	**26%****	**679**
Move 6: acknowledging mentors and other teachers for current experience	**8**	**17%****	**662**
Move 7: setting a good example for students	**6**	**13%****	**231**

***= obligatory (>50%), **= optional (<50%)**

Based on the criteria to classify moves according to the percentage of occurrence in Chapter 5, the table shows that the most frequent move in this category is Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* that shows what teaching and learning beliefs the teacher holds, and the teaching philosophy adopted. The percentage of occurrence of Move 1 which is 72% qualifies as an obligatory move in TPSs and shows that it is an important part of the genre.

Although the move is related to the philosophy of teaching, no mention of the major educational philosophies discussed in Chapter 2 is presented or mentioned in the texts. The move focuses on the taxonomy of learner-centered and teacher-centered styles.

The other six moves in this category are not considered obligatory based on their percentage of occurrence which falls under 50% of the corpus. Although these moves are not obligatory, the analysis shows that these moves have noticeable presence in the statements.

7.3 Classroom-focused Moves

The second category of moves is classroom-focused moves. This section relates to moves that concern the classroom and the learning environment. Two moves are identified in this category as follows:

Move 8: Pointing to students' difficulties, mistakes, or preconceptions

Move 9: Describing features of the learning environment

Move 8 typically refers to how students struggle in the classroom due to external or internal issues or describes mistakes or preconceptions that students held from their learning experience. The following examples show instances of this move:

20) *Since coming here from Turkey in June 2006, I had been struggling to understand the consensus here that students in America are worse at math and sciences than students in other countries. I observed that they could not get over algebra mistakes and years of miseducation for the concepts to make sense, hence lacked confidence in themselves*

(OSU S 23)

21) *Most students are resistant to taking this class because of a lack of confidence with and a fear of math and statistics. Further, many do not understand the relevance of*

epidemiology to their own disciplines. As a result, students usually begin the course with a negative attitude

(U-M S 9)

A common feature of this move is using *students* as the subject of the sentence, giving them ownership of their mistakes or struggles with the use of verbs in past tense and past perfect tense (*observed, have understood, had made*) suggesting that these struggles happened in the past and the instructor addressed and dealt with these struggles or misconceptions.

Move 9 includes the description of the actual classroom, the environment in which learning occurs and it also describes how the teacher cares for learners outside the classroom, as well as any extra support provided to them. This move is categorized as classroom-focused because the teacher describes how the environment of the classroom might affect the students' learning. Examples of this move are:

22) *I aim to create an environment in which students respect others and can expect others to respect them.*

(OSU SS 29)

23) *As mentioned earlier, I know that a certain portion of the class will struggle early on. I allow for time to meet with students after class, am very diligent about responding to e-mails quickly, and devote 4 office hours per week for personal consultations. Students always know that I am there for them*

(OSU SS 28)

24) *Another aspect of collaboration that I have introduced into all of my classes is the role of class representatives, student volunteers with whom I meet weekly to discuss all aspects of the course.*

(U-C 34)

Concrete examples of support outside the classroom are introduced in this move and teachers clarify how they strive to make the classroom as comfortable as possible for their students and offer support outside the classroom. Adjectives used to describe the classroom environment are *learning*, *comfortable*, *great*, *positive,* and *safe* which might indicate that the writers strive to create a positive classroom experience for their students and explain the way they try to achieve that. The inclusion of this move supports the diversity of learners and the way teachers accommodate the different backgrounds of students by offering help and support (Kaplan et al., 2007).

7.3.1 Features of Moves and Steps in Classroom-focused Category

In this section, the frequency of these moves is presented and discussed in Table 16.

Table 16

Frequency of Occurrence of Moves and Steps in Classroom-focused Category

Move/step	Frequency N=46	Percentage %	Total no. of words in all texts
Move 8: Pointing to students' difficulties, mistakes, or preconceptions	**16**	**35%****	**2,343**

Move 9: Describing features of the learning environment	**26**	**57%***	**4,207**
***= obligatory (>50%), **= optional (<50%)**			

The two moves in this category have no constituent steps. Move 9: *Describing features of the learning environment* is considered obligatory with a frequency of 57% of the corpus while Move 8 is considered an optional move.

7.4 Teaching-Evaluation Process Moves

As the name of this category suggests, the evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning is the focus of these moves. The five moves identified are:

Move 10: Focus on teaching practices

Move 11: Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process

Move 12: Stating teaching goals and outcomes

Move 13: Focusing on the subject/course taught

Move 14: Facing a problem or challenge

Move 10 focuses on teaching practices in the classroom and describes the teaching process and what happens inside the classroom. The following examples illustrate Move 10:

25) *I integrate things I have learned in my own classes, student evaluations and a variety of studies and books I have read about teaching on the university level.*

(OSU SS 28)

26) *I try to push my students to improve throughout the semester through several strategies. In class, I encourage students to challenge their assumptions and to consider theories and analyze events, beyond the immediately obvious answer.*

(U-M SS 18)

The tense commonly employed in this move is the present simple with verbs indicating activity and communication (Biber et al., 1999) such as *use, design, incorporate, teach* and *provide*. The use of the present tense can be attributed to the communicative purpose of this move which focuses on the teaching practice of the teacher, informing the reader about the facts, what happens in the classroom. The combination *I + try + to + verb* was also found in this move. For example:

I try to illustrate key points… (U-M S 8)

I try to understand my student's knowledge level… (OSU S 27)

Lexical phrases used in this move include the use of *a variety of* (29 times) to signal the range of approaches and strategies that are employed in the classroom. They also use *a variety of learning styles* to point to the diversity of the learners and how they learn. Some mention the different kinds of learning styles and how they incorporate different teaching approaches to cater for these differences. The word *different* is also commonly employed to refer to *different ways*, *methods*, and *strategies*. The word *differently* is used to mark the ways in which approaches of teaching are flexible and changing according to students' abilities and learning.

This move contains three possible steps which all serve the communicative purpose of this move as explained below.

Move 10, Step 1: Give concrete examples of teaching activities.

In this step, very specific examples of the teaching process are given such as brainstorming techniques, how the class usually starts and strategies for introducing new ideas and concepts in the classroom. The move details the fine-grained aspects of teaching in the classroom and everyday practices. Two examples of this step are below.

27) *I often start the lecture by citing common misconceptions related to the day's topic, and throughout the lecture engage students to use what we are learning in class to explicitly refute the cited misconceptions.*

(OSU SS 31)

28) *For example, to illustrate concepts of gender differences, gender roles, and societal influences, I engage my students in the "Are men really from Mars and women from Venus?" dialogue.*

(OSU SS 33)

Since this step is connected to giving examples of actual teaching practices, phrases *for example, as an example, to illustrate* and *such as* are frequently used.

Move 10, Step 2: Technology use in the classroom.

This step focuses on the use of technology and explains how it is used in the classroom:

29) *Whenever resources allow, the use of computer modeling programs such as CrystalMaker to build and manipulate crystal structures or PHREEQC for aqueous geochemical calculations can be invaluable tools in the geoscience classroom.*

(U-M S 11)

30) *I developed a WebQuest activity, included in my teaching portfolio in section three, to let the students become responsible for their own education and interact with the Argentine culture via the internet.*

(OSU H 20)

The writers explain what means they use to employ technology and include the specific programs or software tools used to enhance teaching.

Move 10, Step 3: Focusing on diversity.

The writer highlights the varied teaching strategies and the accommodation of various learning styles including visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic styles. In this step, the writer also mentions how they consider the different backgrounds of learners and their individuality and how this is catered for in the material as well as the teaching approach. Some examples from the corpus are below:

31) *I know that students have a variety of learning styles and not all students are comfortable with making comments in class. Thus, I try to create many opportunities for a variety of types of participation; I conduct in-class experiments, do demonstrations and take frequent in-class polls to encourage less-verbal students to participate.*

(OSU SS 30)

32) *Striking this balance was even more delicate in a classroom environment that was composed of students who drew upon dramatically different backgrounds and employed drastically different approaches to understand the material. This is where I found myself lucky to be an instructor in such a diverse discipline.*

(U-M SS 17)

This step focuses on the different backgrounds of students in the classroom and how the teacher is accommodating these diverse learning styles. The writers also mention three major learning styles: visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic with the approach they use for each so the classroom is inclusive of all students and tailored to these differences in learning.

Move 11 presents the evaluation process and tools used by the teacher. This might include formal tools of assessment such as exams or informal tools of evaluation such as student feedback on learning. The following examples demonstrate Move 11:

33) *For their assignments, I created a rubric before the assignment. So when I created the guidelines for the assignments, it was clear to the students exactly what I was looking for and in what format*

(OSU S 24)

34) *Similarly, ongoing assessment and feedback is critical to knowing how well the students are actually learning. To assess student knowledge, I utilize a variety of tools, recognizing that students may succeed in demonstrating knowledge differently. Multiple choice and short answer tests, as well as oral presentations, have their place in assessing a baseline of concrete information. Written papers and essay questions allow students to demonstrate their ability to apply knowledge and think critically.*

(U-M SS 16)

Expressions such as *feedback, assessment, assess,* and *provide* are commonly used in this move. The analysis shows that Move 11 contains two possible steps which are related to evaluating teaching and learning by either providing examples of evaluation used by the

teacher or how the teacher uses feedback to adapt methods of teaching in the classroom. These two steps are explained below with examples.

Move 11, Step 1: Provide examples of evaluation

Move 11, Step 1 serves to express concrete examples of how evaluation and assessment are undertaken. The analysis shows that 40% of the texts had Move 11, Step 1. Examples to illustrate Move 11, Step 1 are:

> *35) For example, at the beginning of a science methods course, I have students complete two pre-assessments. One is a reflective journal entry that asks them to share what they think are the key characteristics of effective science teaching. The other is a lesson plan analysis task that has them identify the strengths and weaknesses of a science lesson plan and make adaptations to address those weaknesses.*
>
> (U-M SS 14)
>
> *36) The work that I require progresses from shorter, narrow tasks— such as describing, writing introductions, or gathering evidence—to longer essays.*
>
> (U-M H 2)

In this step, teachers provide examples of specific ways they use to assess and evaluate students' learning. These ways range from informal assessment such as students being able to apply concepts learned in the classroom to their personal lives or formal ways of assessment such as essays, papers, exams, participation in class, and presentations to name a few.

Move 11, Step 2: Using feedback to adapt methods

The author uses feedback to change or adjust the current teaching methods. Feedback in this move is part of the evaluation of teaching and it comes from different sources such as

the teacher, other colleagues, or from students. Examples of Move 11, Step 2 are presented below:

37) I ask my students for feedback to better understand how instructional activities they experience in my classes affect their learning. I use data collected from my classes to make decisions about future course modifications.

(U-C 38)

38) As I explore new approaches, I get formative feedback from my students as well as from colleagues through discussions, presentations or workshops.

(U-C 34)

Adjectives such as *written, formative,* and *anonymous* are used to describe feedback and verbs such as *get* and *solicit* are used to show that feedback is an important element in assessment and it is being requested by the teachers so they can integrate feedback into their teaching and adapt their methods if necessary.

Move 12 generally presents the teaching goals and outcomes. The authors identify a range of teaching goals which can include facilitation of learning and motivation for students. Examples of this move are presented below:

39) As an educator, my holistic objective during every teaching encounter is to transmit my enthusiasm for anatomy and spark curiosity in others.

(U-C 35)

40) My goals when I teach involve ***not only*** *practicing these skills on literary texts* ***but also*** *broadening for my students the definition of "text" itself, thus pointing them toward a more general application of these same skills beyond the literature classroom.*

(U-M H 2)

The use of the present tense is the main linguistic feature in this move. A range of verbs in the present tense are used to convey the teaching goals (*learn, develop, create, help, challenge, push, organize,* and *motivate*) and one of the paramount goals of teachers is *critical thinking* or *to think critically*. These verbs are preceded by the phrase *my (ultimate) goal* is… Another phrase common in this move is *not only … but (also)* as shown in the example above. In addition, the demonstrative adjective (this) is used in this move to refer to the teaching approaches and what follows is the objective of the approach as in the following example:

41) <M 11> *I foster small group work in the lab as students explore specimens and in the classroom as students engage in problem-based learning.* <M 10> <M 12> ***This*** *approach motivates students to identify concepts that may be unclear and use their collective knowledge to rationalize potential solutions.* <M 12>

In the example above, *this* refers to the approach used in the classroom which includes small group work (Move 10: Focusing on teaching practices) and the objective follows this move. The sequence of these two moves will be discussed in section 7.6.

Move 13 highlights the subject or the course the author teaches. In this move, the author elaborates on the subject and sometimes focuses on the importance of the course they teach. In this move, the background knowledge is being highlighted to show the expert status of the teacher. Some examples of Move 13 are:

42) Computer science, like many other disciplines, was founded on and continues to grow by finding solutions to real problems. Due to the complex nature of computer hardware

and programming techniques, solving problems with computers is rarely a simple process. Solutions must be designed and coded with a certain precision.

(OSU S 28)

43) I am the Graduate Assistant for Musicianship II, a course for second-year music students that covers the basics of ear training that will be necessary for moving forward in the Undergraduate Music program. It develops the students' skills in rhythmic accuracy, harmonic and melodic dictation (writing down what they hear), and sight-singing. I believe this topic is one of the most important in the education of a musician: it is the core development of synthesizing hearing with sound production.

(U-C 37)

Move 14 illustrates a challenge or a problem the author faced in the past. It also includes a response to the problem and how it was managed. The following example illustrates this move:

44) While a lecture format was really the only option in my first teaching assignment, it became immediately apparent from blank stares and fluttering eyelids that something more was required to capture the attention of my Econ 101 students.

(U-M SS 17)

Linguistically, it does not appear that this move is realized by any specific lexicogrammatical features as it was not used frequently in the corpus and the average length of the move is relatively short.

7.4.1 Features of Moves and Steps in Teaching-Evaluation Process Category

Table 17 shows the frequency and percentage of occurrence of the identified moves in teaching/evaluation process category.

Table 17

Frequency of Occurrence of Moves and Steps in Teaching-Evaluation Process Category

Move/step	**Frequency** N=46	**Percentage %**	**Total no. of words in all texts**
Move 10: Focus on teaching practices	**46**	**100%***	**20,939**
Step 1: give concrete examples of teaching activities	36	78%	
Step 2: technology use in the classroom	6	13%	
Step 3: focusing on diversity	25	55%	
Move 11: Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process	**31**	**68%***	**5,610**
Step 1: provide examples of evaluation	18	40%	
Step 2: using feedback to adapt methods	16	35%	
Move 12: Stating teaching goals and outcomes	**43**	**94%***	**6,443**
Move 13: Focusing on the subject/course taught	**11**	**24%****	**931**
Move 14: Facing a problem or a challenge	**20**	**44%****	**2,116**
***= obligatory (>50%), **= optional (<50%)**			

Three obligatory moves are identified in this category: Move 10, Move 11, and Move 12. Their frequencies of occurrence being 100%, 68% and 94% respectively. The analysis suggests that the most frequent moves are the moves identified in this category in which the

writer focuses on the teaching practice in the classroom and provides specific examples of the activities carried out in class.

If we examine the length of the three obligatory moves in this category (i.e., Moves 10, 11 and 12), we notice that the length of moves is variable with move 10 containing the highest number of words in the texts. Also, the two moves: Move 10 and Move 12 occur frequently with 100% and 94% respectively in the texts, but the longer length of Move 10 which contains a total of 20,939 words suggests that it is an important move in the genre and writers thrive to detail their teaching practices in the statements with examples and activities.

7.5 Summary of the Move Analysis

The analysis shows an overall of five obligatory moves in the TPS genre with a frequency of occurrence of over 50% in the corpus. Table 18 presents a summary of these five obligatory moves with their main communicative purpose and the observed linguistic features that realizes the function of the move.

Table 18

A Summary of the Obligatory Moves, their Communicative Purposes, and the Linguistic Features Observed in the Corpus

Obligatory Moves	Communicative Purpose	Linguistic Features of Moves
Move 1: Focusing on philosophical concepts	to state teaching and learning beliefs teachers base their practice on	Expressions: *I believe that…* Adjectives: *good, best, own, real, educational.* Verbs: *grounded, rooted.*
Move 9: Describing features of the learning environment	to provide a general description of the classroom that is not related to teaching but rather the	Adjectives: *learning, comfortable, great, positive, safe.*

	environment such as respect and support for students	
Move 10: Focus on teaching practices	to describe teaching approaches used in the classroom	Expressions: *a variety of, different ways/methods/strategies, for example, to illustrate.* Verbs indicating activity and communication: *use, design, incorporate, teach, provide.* Phrases: *I + try + to + infinitive verb form.*
Move 11: Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process	to provide examples of the means of assessment employed in evaluating teaching and learning	Adjectives: *formative, written, anonymous + feedback.* Verbs: *solicit, get to/in order to + infinitive verb form.*
Move 12: Stating teaching goals and outcomes	to explain the objectives of teaching	Demonstrative adjective *this.* Phrases: *not only… but (also), my ultimate goal …* *to + infinitive verb form*

The percentage of occurrence of Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices* is 100%, being present in all the texts in the corpus followed by Move 12: *Stating teaching goals and outcomes* which was frequent in 94% of the texts. Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* occurs in 72% of the corpus and Move 11: *Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process* occurs in 68% of the texts. Move 9: *Describing features of the learning environment* is the least frequently occurring move of the obligatory moves with 57%. These moves will be explored further in Chapter 8 using corpus tool analysis to examine frequent words, keywords, and n-grams used to characterize each obligatory move.

The next section details move status regarding sequence of moves observed in TPSs, move patterns occurrence, and move cyclicity in the corpus.

7.6 Move Sequence in the TPSs Corpus

The analysis of the sequence of moves in TPSs suggests that there does not seem to be a fixed sequential order of moves. If we look at Table 19, it shows how moves follow each other but with no apparent pattern that can be detected. So, in this kind of genre which does not appear to have a sequential move order (see Chapter 3), it would be better to examine patterns of moves in the opening or closing of the texts and which moves tend to frequently co-occur. This approach is followed in previous research on genres that lack a sequential move order (e.g., Cotos, 2019; Loudermilk, 2007).

It can be concluded that 19 texts out of 46 opened with Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts*. In seven texts, move 3: *Reasons or motivation for teaching* was the first move. There is also no apparent pattern for the moves used at the end of the texts as these varied between several moves that included Moves 1, 2, and 5 (see section 7.8.4 for each move location as opening or closing move).

Move 1: Focusing on philosophical concepts

Move 2: Improving teaching (professional development)

Move 5: Emphasizing the rewards of being a teacher

The sequence of moves as observed in the analysis is described in Table 19 below and the co-occurrence of certain moves in the texts is discussed.

Table 19

The Sequence of Moves in the Corpora in the Present Study

Text source	**Move sequence**
U-M H 1	M 12-13-10- 12-11-12-10-13-12
U-M H 2	M 1- 12-10 -12-10-12-10-12-10-9 - 8-11
U-M H 3	M 1-12-10- 12- 10- 12- 10-12-10
U-M H 4	M 10- 12- 10- 12- 13- 10- 12- 10- 11- 14- 10
U-M H 5	M 1- 3- 12- 10- 1- 14- 10- 11- 12- 11- 1
U-M S 6	M 3- 4- 1- 10- 12- 10- 8-10- 11- 2
U-M S 7	M 14-12-10-11- 1
U-M S 8	M 1-10- 9- 10- 11- 4- 9- 4- 11- 12-11- 2
U-M S 9	M 13- 3- 14- 12- 10- 11- 10- 8- 12- 9- 6- 14-9 - 2- 14-9
U-M S 10	M 1-12-9-10-12-10- 12- 10-12- 10- 1- 11- 10- 11- 12- 10
U-M S 11	M 14- 10-1- 12- 10- 1 – 10- 12- 6- 14
U-M SS 12	M 1- 10- 12- 1- 8- 11- 12- 10- 12- 13- 8- 12- 10- 12- 10- 11- 2- 1- 11- 5
U-M SS 13	M 1- 9 - 1- 10- 12- 10- 8- 11- 10- 11- 1- 10- 1- 12- 1- 12- 11- 10- 11- 1
U-M SS 14	M 5- 12- 10- 11- 10- 12- 10- 12- 10- 11- 12- 10- 12- 10- 2- 12
U-M SS 15	M 3-14- 10- 12- 10- 12- 10- 1- 8- 10- 1- 10- 11- 1- 10
U-M SS 16	M 12- 1- 12- 10- 12- 10- 12- 10- 11- 1- 12
U-M SS 17	M 1- 3- 1- 12- 10- 1- 14- 10- 1- 14- 8- 12- 10- 12- 5
U-M SS 18	M 1- 10- 12- 10- 12- 10- 1- 12- 1- 10- 11- 12- 10- 11- 10- 11- 10- 1- 10- 1- 3- 1
U-M SS 19	M 9 - 2- 12 – 10 - 14- 10- 3- 10- 2
OSU H 20	M 1- 2- 1- 10- 12- 10- 12- 10- 12- 1- 12- 10- 2- 12- 5
OSU H 21	M 3- 1- 8- 9- 10- 11- 8- 10- 12- 9- 12- 5
OSU H 22	M 12- 10- 7- 2- 10- 12- 10- 9- 10- 1- 10-12- 11- 12
OSU S 23	M 8- 10- 11- 14- 10- 1- 2- 12- 1- 8- 1- 14- 1- 10-11- 10- 11- 2- 4- 10- 4- 2
OSU S 24	M 1- 12- 4- 12- 1- 14- 3- 8- 3- 2- 8- 9- 10- 8- 11- 12- 4- 3
OSU S 25	M 1- 10- 14- 12- 9- 10- 9- 11- 10- 12- 10- 14- 4- 3
OSU S 26	M 10- 12- 10- 12- 13- 10- 12- 10- 11- 2- 1
OSU S 27	M 3- 4- 1- 2- 1- 10- 12- 10- 14- 1- 11- 10- 9- 10- 7- 5
OSU SS 28	M 1- 10- 12- 14- 10- 8- 10- 12- 10- 11- 10- 12- 11- 12- 9- 10- 12- 9-11- 2
OSU SS 29	M 1- 2- 1- 12- 10- 1- 10- 9- 1- 10- 11- 1- 6- 12- 10- 5- 1
OSU SS 30	M 3- 2- 1- 9- 10- 1- 10- 12- 10- 11- 12- 7- 1- 11- 10- 11- 5- 2

OSU SS 31	M 1- 10- 12- 10- 5- 1- 10- 12- 1- 10- 1- 9- 10- 12- 10- 1- 9- 10- 11- 1- 5
OSU SS 32	M 6- 7- 1- 9- 10- 9- 10- 11- 9- 11- 2- 7- 6- 1- 7
OSU SS 33	M 14- 12- 10- 9- 14- 1- 10- 9- 1- 9- 10- 11- 12- 5
U-C 34	M 1- 4- 10- 11- 8- 2- 1- 2- 4- 13- 10- 4- 2- 1- 10- 11- 9- 1- 11- 1- 11- 1- 11- 2
U-C 35	M 3- 1- 4- 1- 10- 1- 10- 12- 10- 1- 10- 12- 10- 4- 10- 12- 1- 10- 1- 11- 1- 6- 12- 5- 1- 4- 2- 12
U-C 36	M 10- 12- 11- 9- 10- 4- 11- 10- 1- 10- 9- 10- 11- 10- 11- 10- 12- 10- 9- 10- 1- 4
U-C 37	M 13- 10- 8- 3- 4- 1- 10- 9- 10- 1- 3- 10- 9- 12- 6- 10- 12- 10- 11- 10- 12- 2- 13-1- 2
U-C 38	M 1- 12- 11- 14- 1- 12- 10- 9- 12- 11- 10- 12- 10- 12- 10- 2- 1- 11- 2
U-C 39	M 1- 13- 12- 11- 10- 12- 10- 12- 10- 13- 10- 14-12- 3
U-C 40	M 14- 1- 12- 10- 11- 10- 1- 10- 12- 10- 5
U-C 41	M 12- 3- 4- 2- 1- 9- 12- 10- 13- 14- 10- 4- 10- 11- 14- 10- 8- 10- 12- 14
U-C 42	M 8- 12- 1- 9- 10- 9- 10- 12- 10- 8- 14- 11
U-C 43	M 1- 6- 9- 10- 7- 1- 10- 1
U-C 44	M 3- 14- 13- 10- 4- 10- 12- 11- 9- 8- 7- 10- 14- 12- 11- 10- 11- 1 -2
U-C 45	M 1- 6- 3- 1- 9- 10- 12
U-C 46	M 1- 13- 12- 10- 12- 11- 10- 11- 12

Looking closely at the co-occurrence of moves, Moves 10, 11, and 12 occur more frequently together than any other moves. As mentioned before, the teaching approach (Move 10) is explained along with the goals and objectives the teacher wants to achieve (Move 12). This is highlighted in how these moves usually follow each other in the texts. The analysis shows that a pattern of occurrence for Move 12: *Stating teaching goals and outcomes* is co-occurring with Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices*. This move can precede or follow Move 12. This pattern is observed in 42 texts in the corpus. These two moves are also repeated frequently through the text (see section 7.7 on cyclicity of moves). The patterns of the co-occurrence of Move 10 and Move 12 are as follows:

- M 10-12 (observed in 20 texts)

- M 12-10 (observed in 28 texts)
- M 10-12-10 (observed in 13 texts)
- M 12-10-12 (observed in 1 text)

It is worth mentioning that some of the texts had more than one pattern observed in the same text. The total number of these texts is 18 with more than one pattern of Moves 10 and 12 occurring together. For example, in text U-M H 1, the patterns M 10-12 and M 12-10 are present and text OSU H 22 had the three patterns: M 12-10, M 10-12-10, and M 10-12 used in the statement.

In addition to the co-occurrence of Move 10 and Move 12, Move 11: *Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning* frequently co-occurs with these two moves in the following patterns:

- M 10-11 (observed in 23 texts)
- M 11-10 (observed in 11 texts)
- M 11-12 (observed in 9 texts)
- M 12-11 (observed in 10 texts)

This observed pattern of co-occurrence of these moves suggests how teaching practice, teaching goals and assessment are intertwined in the classroom and in teaching. The alignment of these three elements is suggested by the guidelines in O'Neal et al. (2007) when writing a TPS and further detailed in Chapter 9 when a comparison between the moves found in this study and instructions on writing guides is presented.

7.7 Moves Cyclicity in the TPSs Corpus

To calculate and visualize how many times the moves and steps are repeated in each text in the corpus, I used the function *Code frequencies* and *Segments with codes* in MAXQDA (see Chapter 5). The findings can be exported to Excel to adjust and visualize it in different kinds of charts. Figure 11 shows the moves and steps and their re-occurrence in the TPSs corpus. Each move is shown with how many times it occurred in the corpus.

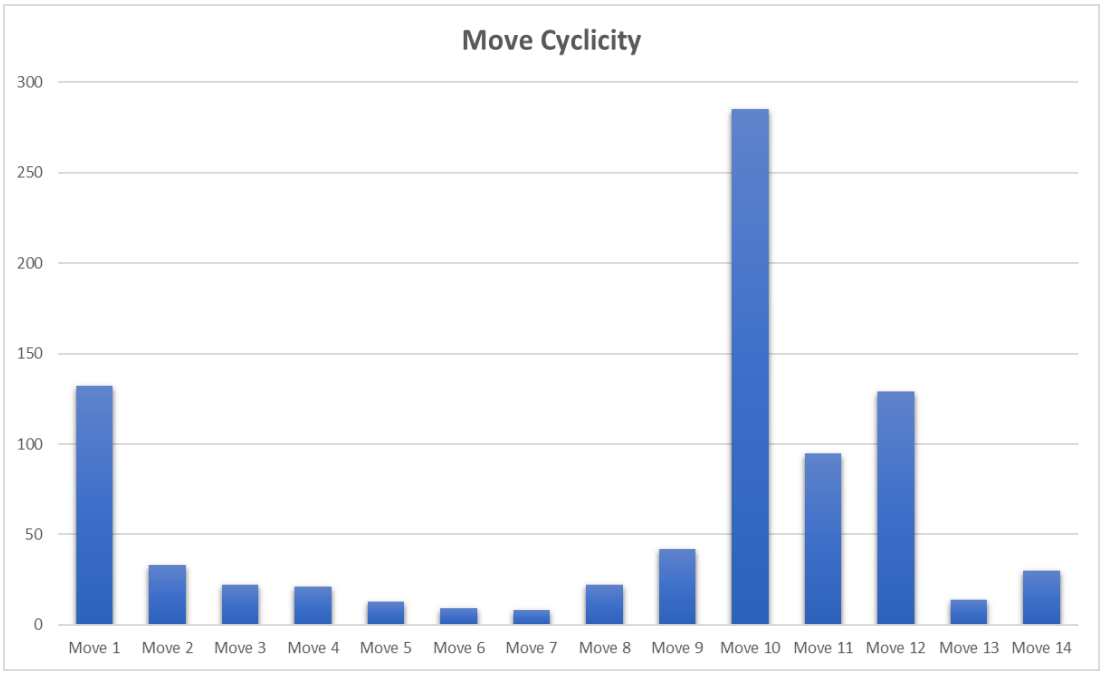

Figure 11. Move cyclicity in the corpus

The obligatory moves identified earlier are also found to be the most cyclical moves in the TPSs corpus. As the Figure shows, only Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices* was present in all 46 texts in the corpus (100% occurrence, i.e., present in all 46 texts) and is also the most cyclical move, occurring 285 times in the corpus (the move with the steps). The second highest cyclical move is Move 12: *Stating teaching goals and outcomes* which re-occurred 129 times in the texts. These two moves occur more frequently together compared

to other moves and their occurrence is cyclical (i.e., the two moves occur more than once in a text and usually occur together). The observed sequence and repetition of moves 10 and 12 highlight the focus of TPSs which can be said to be detailing the teaching practices in the classroom and the goals the teacher wants to achieve following these teaching practices. This shows what happens in the classroom.

Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* occurs 132 times in the corpus (moves and constituent steps) and is present in 41 texts. Although the TPS is thought to explain the teaching philosophy the teacher holds, the results show that it is not as highly cyclical or obligatory as first thought. Instead, the focus on teaching practice and examples of activities happening in the classroom is more prevalent than philosophical concepts. Move 11: *Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process* is also cyclical occurring 95 times in the corpus (the move and steps). The least cyclical obligatory move is Move 9: *Describing features of the learning environment* which occurred 42 times in 26 of the texts that used the move.

7.8 The Use of Questions in TPSs

Although I was not particularly examining the use of questions in the TPSs, the analysis revealed that they occurred in 21 texts in the corpus so their use was further explored within the identified moves.

An interesting finding was that questions were employed and used in different moves across the corpus. The writers used questions mostly in Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices* in which they elaborated on the activities and examples of teaching approaches. For example, questions such as the following were used in this move:

45) "Are men really from Mars and women from Venus?"

(OSU SS 30)

46) "What is the root of this word?"

(OSU H 21)

47) I urge my students toward deeper analysis by constantly asking the question, So what?

(U-M H 2)

As can be seen in the above examples, questions are utilized to paint a clearer picture for the reader of how exactly the teachers apply their chosen method of teaching. In addition to using questions in Move 10, they were used in Move 12: *Stating teaching goals and outcomes* such as the question: *How does language change?* (U-M SS 15). The question is used as an example of how the teacher perceives the goals of teaching. In only one text, the teacher used questions serving as the subheading of each section and the answer to each question followed in paragraphs. The questions were used to cover his teaching approach, teaching evaluation, and teaching philosophy.

The texts contained yes/no questions as well as wh-questions, but most of these questions were rhetorical questions (except for one text that had questions as subheadings followed by answers). The questions were given to clarify how the teacher approaches different topics in the classroom or as part of stating teaching objectives with no direct response available after the questions were posed.

Questions are one of the elements of interaction in academic discourse as suggested by Hyland (2005b). Specifically, questions are used to engage readers and lead them to what the writer wants to clarify or to build a relationship with the reader as a participant in the discourse (Hyland, 2002b, 2005c). Here, the questions are mostly rhetorical and are not posed to ask for information as in interrogative questions. Their

function is to clarify a picture of how the teacher uses these questions to engage students and to show how teaching happens in real time.

In the next section, I highlight the similarities and differences between statements written by faculty (U-C corpus) and statements written by graduate students (U-M and OSU corpora) in terms of the structure of texts and more specifically of the moves and steps. I first note the similarities and differences and then I describe the move frequency, sequence and cyclicity of faculty and GS corpora and compare them. This analysis answers the second sub question indicated at the beginning of this chapter.

7.9 TPSs of Faculty vs. Graduate Students

The corpora of the present study comprise texts written by faculty members as a part of winning a teaching award (U-C) and texts written by graduate students from two universities (GS U-M and GS OSU) (see Chapter 5, section 5.4). First, I looked at the structure and the use of subheadings in the texts and reported the similarities and differences in sections 7.9.1 and 7.9.2 below. The other dimensions of comparison between the two corpora are in terms of move frequency, move sequence, and move cyclicity (sections 7.9.3 and 7.9.4).

7.9.1 Similarities

In terms of the structure of the teaching statements, all statements lack a clear patterning in their structure. Some of the statements in the experienced faculty corpus had subheadings and other texts did not. The same is true for the graduate students' statements. What the texts share is the lack of a particular order of subheadings.

None of the TPSs have explicit references to teaching theory or major educational philosophies. An interesting finding because the name of the genre suggests that a teaching philosophy is discussed. Instead, the focus of the teaching philosophy is highlighting teaching activities and teaching practices in the classroom with concrete examples of what happens in the classroom which suggest a focus on teaching styles rather than educational teaching philosophy. This lack of grounding TPSs in literature and making explicit reference to teaching theory has been observed in previous research on TPSs (Hall et al., 2021; Payant & Hirano, 2018).

7.9.2 Differences

The structure and the use of subheadings were different between the two corpora of faculty and graduate students. This difference might suggest that there was no specific format followed when writing TPSs in both corpora. In addition, the average length of the texts in both corpora is different. In the faculty corpus, the longest statement is 2,317 words and the shortest is 777 words. In the graduate students' statements, the average length of a text ranges between 1,800 and 800 words. The faculty statements in this study tend to be longer compared to those written by graduate students. Potential reasons for this might be the experience of the faculty members, the context in which the TPSs were written and word count restrictions imposed on GS TPSs.

Differences pertaining to move frequency, sequence, cyclicity and patterns are presented in the following sections.

7.9.3 Move Frequency across Corpora of Faculty and Graduate Students

In terms of move frequency, looking in general at the faculty texts and the graduate students' texts, all identified moves were present in the two corpora except for Move 7: *Setting a good example for students* which had zero occurrence in one of the graduate students (U-M) corpus. Table 20 shows the move frequency across the faculty and graduate students corpora. On the step level, the faculty corpus had no occurrence of Move 10, Step 2: *technology use in the classroom* compared to the graduate students' corpus of 6 occurrences in the texts. Although these texts were collected from different resources and written by different writers, there is no great variation of moves across the expert and novice texts and no absence of the identified obligatory moves was observed.

Table 20

Frequency of Moves and Steps in Faculty and GS Corpora

	Move Type	Faculty (U-C) N=13	GS (U-M) N=19	GS (OSU) N=14
1	**Focusing on philosophical concepts**	**12 (92%)**	**8 (42%)**	**13 (93%)**
	Step 1: background to the philosophy	6 (46%)	3 (16%)	4 (29%)
	Step 2: applying learning to life outside classroom	4 (30%)	9 (47%)	6 (43%)
	Step 3: using a quote or simile	2 (15%)	4 (21%)	1 (7%)
2	**Improving teaching (professional development)**	**6 (46%)**	**6 (32%)**	**10 (71%)**
3	**Reasons or motivation for teaching**	**6 (46%)**	**7 (37%)**	**5 (36%)**
4	**Showing experience and qualifications of teaching**	**6 (46%)**	**2 (10.5%)**	**4 (29%)**
5	**Emphasizing the rewards of being a teacher**	**2 (15%)**	**3 (16%)**	**7 (50%)**

6	**Acknowledging mentors and other teachers for current experience**	**4 (30%)**	**2 (10.5%)**	**2 (14%)**
7	**Setting a good example for students**	**2 (15%)**	**--**	**4 (29%)**
8	**Pointing to students' difficulties, mistakes, or preconceptions**	**5 (38.5%)**	**7 (37%)**	**4 (29%)**
9	**Describing features of the learning environment**	**9 (69%)**	**6 (32%)**	**11 (79%)**
10	**Focus on teaching practices**	**13 (100%)**	**19 (100%)**	**14 (100%)**
	Step 1: give concrete examples of teaching activities	8 (61.5%)	18 (95%)	10 (71%)
	Step 2: technology use in the classroom	**--**	3 (16%)	3 (21%)
	Step 3: focusing on diversity	5 (38.5%)	11 (58%)	9 (64%)
11	**Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process**	**8 (61.5%)**	**15 (79%)**	**8 (57%)**
	Step 1: provide examples of evaluation	5 (38.5%)	10 (53%)	3 (21%)
	Step 2: using feedback to adapt methods	6 (46%)	6 (32%)	4 (29%)
12	**Stating teaching goals and outcomes**	**11 (84%)**	**19 (100%)**	**13 (93%)**
13	**Focusing on the subject/course taught**	**6 (46%)**	**4 (21%)**	**1 (7%)**
14	**Facing a problem or a challenge**	**6 (46%)**	**8 (42%)**	**6 (43%)**

Now looking at the moves using the previous categorization presented at the beginning of this chapter (teacher-focused/classroom-focused/teaching and evaluation), I will first discuss the teacher-focused moves. Move 1 is considered obligatory in the faculty (U-C) and the GS (OSU) occurring at 92 % and 93% respectively. The GS (U-M) contains this move but it is considered optional occurring in 42% of the texts. As for Move 2, it is an obligatory move in the GS (OSU) but considered an optional move in the faculty and GS (U-M). Move 3 and 4 are considered optional across the three corpora.

Move 4 in the faculty corpus occurs with a percentage of 46% compared to the GS corpora of 10.5% and 29%. The experience mentioned in the faculty corpus ranged between running workshops, teaching specific courses, and supervising students while graduate students focused on organizing conferences and being teaching assistants. The experience in faculty texts highlights their role in supervising students which is not present in the GS texts for obvious reasons.

If we look at Move 5, it can be seen that this move is obligatory in GS (OSU) but optional in the other two corpora. Move 6 occurs 30% in the faculty corpus and comparing it to the GS corpus, it is used more in the faculty corpus in which the faculty member acknowledges former mentors who contributed to their teaching experience. Move 7 is absent in the GS (U-M) corpus but occurs in the faculty corpus with a percentage of 15% and in the GS (OSU) with a percentage of 29%.

Examining the variations of frequency in the classroom-focused moves, Move 8 occurs in the faculty and GS corpora with no major difference in the percentage of occurrence. Move 9, however, is considered obligatory in the faculty and GS (OSU) corpora but optional in the GS (U-M) corpus with a percentage of 32%.

In the teaching/evaluation process, move 10 is obligatory and occurs in all texts (100%). In this move, Step 2: *technology use in the classroom* is not present in the faculty corpus. Move 11 is obligatory in all corpora but its frequency of occurrence varies between the faculty and the two GS corpora. It is used more frequently in the GS (U-M) corpus with a percentage of 79%, while it is used in the faculty corpus and the GS corpus with a percentage of 61.5% and 57% respectively. Move 12 is an obligatory move occurring in all the three corpora at a percentage greater than 50%. There is not much variation in the percentage of occurrence in the three corpora but the faculty corpus uses this move (84%) less than the GS corpora (100% in GS U-M and 93% in GS OSU). Move 13: *Focusing on the subject/course*

taught is an optional move in all three corpora. In one of the graduate students' corpora (OSU), only one text had Move 13 compared to the faculty corpus which had 6 texts (46%) with this move. The focus on the subject or course taught in the faculty corpus might be related to the teaching experience of the faculty member which allows them to focus on the subject they have been teaching for years compared to the limited subjects taught by graduate students. Move 14 is also an optional move in the three corpora with the percentages 46%, 42% and 43% respectively.

In summary, the move frequency shows that all the moves are present in both faculty and GS corpora with variations in the status of obligatory and optional moves. In the faculty corpus, moves 1, 9, 10, 11 and 12 are obligatory. In the GS U-M corpus, moves 10, 11 and 12 are obligatory with zero occurrence of Move 7. In the GS OSU corpus, moves 1, 2, 5, 9, 10, 11 and 12. The comparison shows that obligatory moves are shared between the faculty corpus and the GS OSU corpus but the GS U-M corpus has only three of these moves shared with the faculty and GS OSU corpora, these are Moves 10, 11 and 12. These variations could be attributed to the different contexts in which TPSs were written (see Chapter 5), the experience of faculty members, the range of educational philosophies writers hold and whether or not instructions were given for GS or faculty members regarding writing the TPS.

7.9.4 Move Sequence and Cyclicity across Corpora of Faculty and Graduate Students

This section compares the faculty and the GS corpus in terms of move sequence and move cyclicity (repetition). As indicated earlier, the analysis shows that no fixed order of moves is present in the genre of TPS, so I looked at how the moves were used in the opening and closing of texts to find if any patterns exist (Cotos, 2019; Loudermilk, 2007). Table 21 shows the faculty corpus moves sequence. Move cyclicity in the faculty corpus is depicted in

Figure 12 and Table 22 presents the move patterns observed regarding the co-occurrence of moves 10, 11, and 12 in the faculty corpus.

Table 21

Move Sequence and Cyclicity in the Faculty Corpus

Corpus	**Move Types**	**Opening move**	**Closing move**	**Cyclical move**
Faculty (U-C)	M1	6	1	48
N = 13	M2	0	4	12
	M3	2	1	8
	M4	0	1	12
	M5	0	1	2
	M6	0	0	4
	M7	0	0	2
	M8	1	0	6
	M9	0	0	13
	M10	1	0	72
	M11	0	1	29
	M12	1	3	35
	M13	1	0	8
	M14	1	1	9

Table 22

Move Patterns in Faculty Corpus

Move patterns	**No. of texts** **N=13**
M 10-12	8
M 12-10	4
M 10-12-10	5
M 12-10-12	1
M 10-11	4
M 11-10	5

M 11-12	1
M 12-11	4

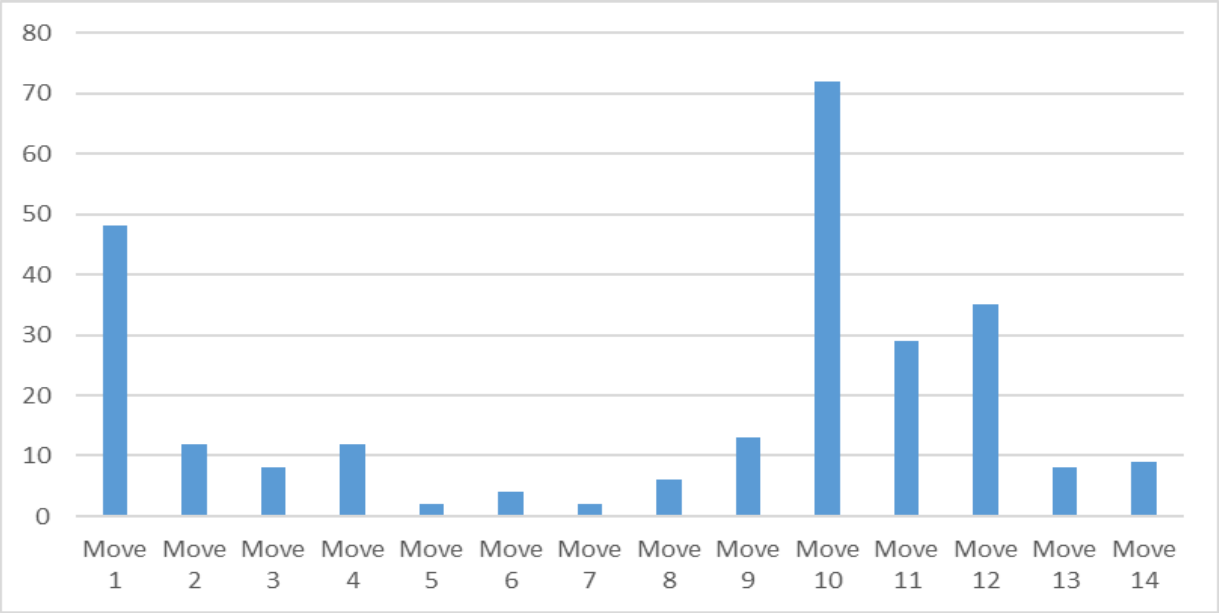

Figure 12. Move cyclicity in the faculty corpus

The faculty corpus had Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* as the most used move to open the text and Move 2: *Improving teaching (professional development)* is the most frequent to end the text. The most cyclical move in the faculty corpus is Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices* followed by Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts*. The least frequently cyclical moves are Move 5: *Emphasizing the rewards of being a teacher* and Move 7: *Setting a good example for students*.

The most frequent move pattern regarding Moves 10 and Move 12 is the pattern M 10-12 observed in 8 texts as can be seen in Table 22 above. Also, the pattern M 12-10-12 was only present in the faculty corpus. As for Move 11, the most frequent pattern is M 11-10.

The GS corpora move sequence and cyclicity are presented in Table 23 and Figure 13 and 14 below, and the move patterns observed in the GS corpora are shown in Table 24

followed by the observations in the GS corpora and then compared to the faculty corpus move sequence and cyclicity.

Table 23

Move Sequence and Cyclicity in the GS Corpora

	Opening move		**Closing move**		**Cyclical move**	
Corpus	GS U-M	GS OSU	GS U-M	GS OSU	GS U-M	GS OSU
	N=19	N=14	N=19	N=14	N=19	N=14
M1	9	6	4	2	39	45
M2	0	0	3	3	7	14
M3	2	3	0	2	7	7
M4	0	0	0	0	3	6
M5	1	0	2	5	3	8
M6	0	1	0	0	2	3
M7	0	0	0	1	0	6
M8	0	1	0	0	8	8
M9	1	0	1	0	9	20
M10	1	1	4	0	122	91
M11	0	0	1	0	46	20
M12	2	1	3	1	60	34
M13	1	0	0	0	5	1
M14	2	1	1	0	12	9

Table 24

Move Patterns in the GS Corpora

Move patterns	**GS U-M**	**GS OSU**
	N=19	**N=14**
M 10-12	6	6
M 12-10	17	7
M 10-12-10	1	7
M 10-11	11	8

M 11-10	3	3
M 11-12	5	3
M 12-11	4	2

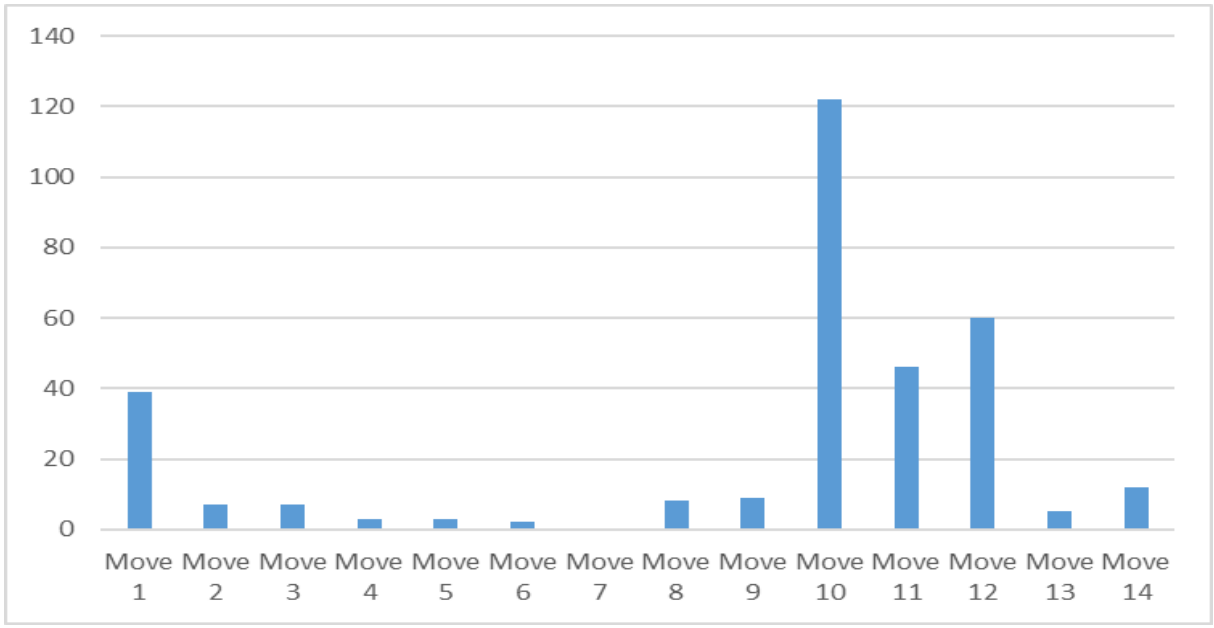

Figure 13. Move cyclicity in GS U-M corpus

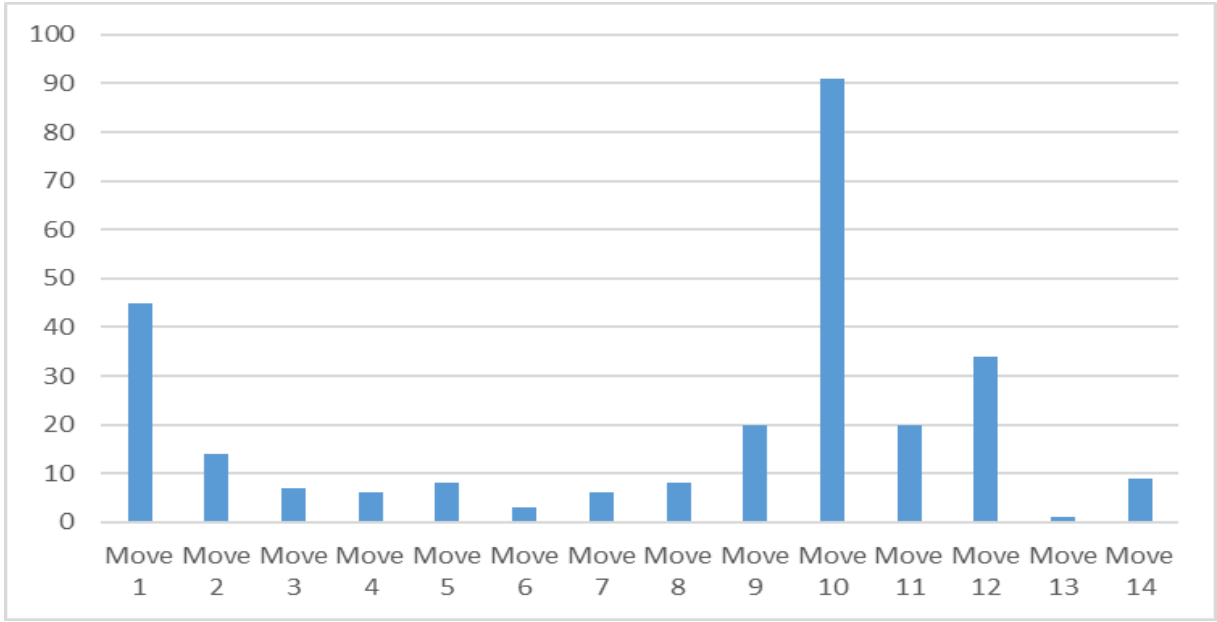

Figure 14. Move cyclicity in GS OSU corpus

In the GS U-M corpus, the most used move as an opening move is Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* and the most used move as a closing move are also Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* and Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices*. The most highly cyclical move in this corpus is Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices* which occurs 122 times in the corpus followed by Move 12: *Stating teaching goals and outcomes* which occurs 60 times. The least cyclical move is Move 6: *Acknowledging mentors and other teachers for current experience* which occurs only 2 times and the one move that does not exist in this corpus is Move 7: *Setting a good example for students*.

The GS OSU corpus had Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* as the most frequent move to open TPSs. The most used move as a closing move is Move 5: *Emphasizing the rewards of being a teacher*. The most cyclical move in this corpus is Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices* which occurs 91 times followed by Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* which occurs 45 times. The least cyclical move in this corpus is Move 13: *Focusing on the subject/course taught* which only occurred once.

The most frequent move patterns regarding move 10 and move 12 is M 12-10 in both the GS corpora with the absence of the pattern 12-10-12 identified in the faculty corpus. In GS OSU, the move pattern 10- 12-10 was also equally frequent to the M 12-10 pattern. The most frequent co-occurrence of move 11 is the pattern M 10-11 in both the GS corpora.

Tables 21 and 23 allow for a comparison between the faculty corpus and the two corpora of graduate students. What all three corpora share is the frequent use of Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* as the opening move (21 texts). Although they use some other moves to open the text, these are not used as frequently as using Move 1. In addition, the most highly cyclical move in all three corpora is Move 10: *Focus on teaching practice.* As for the closing move, moves varied across the three corpora: the faculty corpus used Move 2 which focuses on improving teaching and professional development, while the GS U-M

used Move 1 and Move 10 which focused on the philosophical concepts held and the teaching practices. The GS OSU corpus used Move 5 more frequently to close the text by highlighting the rewards of being a teacher.

The analysis of the sequence and cyclicity of moves in this genre reveals that most texts begin with a focus on philosophical concepts as an opening move but the focus of the text is more on the teaching practices happening in the classroom. The philosophical concepts in the beginning are translated to how these are applied in the classroom by providing a description of teaching activities.

If we look at the move patterns of the faculty and the GS corpora shown in Table 22 and 24, some differences can be observed. The most frequent move patterns in the faculty corpus are M 10-12 in which the teaching practice is first described followed by the teaching goals and M 11-10. In contrast to the GS corpora which preferred the move patterns: M 12-10, focusing on teaching goals first and then introducing teaching practices and examples and M 10-11 which focused on the teaching practice then introduced evaluation and assessment for students.

7.10 TPSs from the UK: A Case Study

Given the limited number of TPSs collected from the UK, I decided to examine these statements following the same method of move analysis but with no corpus-based analysis due to the small size of this corpus. The number of statements that were collected were four and one statement was invalid as it was not written as an essay but as a diagram with main points, so it was excluded from the analysis. The remaining three documents were analysed according to the methodology of move analysis outlined in Chapter 5.

Using MAXQDA software, the following moves were identified in these examples as shown in Table 25.

Table 25

Moves Identified in UK Statements

Move type	**Frequency N= 3**	**Cyclicity**
Move 1: Focusing on philosophical concepts	2	3
Step 1: philosophy developing background	2	3
Step 2: applying learning to life outside classroom		
Step 3: using a quote or simile	1	1
Move 4: Showing experience and qualifications for teaching	1	1
Move 6: Acknowledging mentors and other teachers for current experience	1	1
Move 10: Focus on teaching practices	3	9
Step 1: give concrete examples of teaching activities	3	4
Step 2: technology use in the classroom	2	2
Step 3: focusing on diversity	2	3
Move 12: Stating teaching goals and outcomes	3	6
Move 14: Facing a problem or a challenge	2	2

As can be seen, Moves 10 and 12 are the most frequent moves in the three statements. Three out of the five obligatory moves identified earlier are also occurring in these statements.

The sequence of these statements is presented in Table 26. Again, TPS originating from the UK share the same lack of sequential order observed earlier in the TPSs corpus of US and Canada. This suggests that there is no fixed order of moves or agreed-upon sequence. Also, the co-occurrence of move 10 and 12 is observed in these statements which suggests the alignment of teaching practices and teaching goals in the statements.

Table 26

The Sequence of Moves in UK TPSs

Text number	**Move sequence**
UK 1	1-6-1-10-12-10
UK 2	4-10-12-14-10-1-10
UK 3	1-10-14-12-10-12-10-12

The analysis of the moves of the TPSs from the US, Canada and the UK reveals that the statements share several of the identified obligatory moves in the genre as shown in Table 27. The UK-based TPSs include Moves 1, 10 and 12 but moves 9 and 11 are not identified in these statements.

Table 27

Intra-cultural Comparison of the Occurrence of Obligatory Moves

Obligatory moves	**US-based TPSs (GS corpus)**	**Canada-based TPSs (Faculty corpus)**	**UK-based TPSs**
Move 1	✓	✓	✓
Move 9	✓	✓	
Move 10	✓	✓	✓
Move 11	✓	✓	
Move 12	✓	✓	✓

7.11 A Proposed Model of the TPS Genre

This section presents the proposed genre model of the TPS based on the analysis of moves and their percentage of occurrence in the corpus. The model contains 14 moves, of which five are obligatory moves, based on their frequency of occurrence. Table 28 offers a

summary of the 14 moves, their constituent steps (if any) and the status of each move as obligatory or optional.

Table 28

A Proposed Model of the TPS Genre

	Move Type	Percentage
Teacher-focused category		
1	**Focusing on philosophical concepts**	**72%***
	Step 1: background to the philosophy	46%
	Step 2: applying learning to life outside classroom	41%
	Step 3: using a quote or simile	15%
2	**Improving teaching (professional development)**	**48%****
3	**Reasons or motivation for teaching**	**40%****
4	**Showing experience and qualifications of teaching**	**26%****
5	**Emphasizing the rewards of being a teacher**	**26%****
6	**Acknowledging mentors and other teachers for current experience**	**17%****
7	**Setting a good example for students**	**13%****
Classroom-focused category		
8	**Pointing to students' difficulties, mistakes, or preconceptions**	**35%****
9	**Describing features of the learning environment**	**57%***
Teaching/evaluation process category		
10	**Focus on teaching practices**	**100%***
	Step 1: give concrete examples of teaching activities	78%
	Step 2: technology use in the classroom	13%
	Step 3: focusing on diversity	55%
11	**Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process**	**68%***
	Step 1: provide examples of evaluation	40%
	Step 2: using feedback to adapt methods	35%
12	**Stating teaching goals and outcomes**	**94%***
13	**Focusing on the subject/course taught**	24%**

14	**Facing a problem or a challenge**	**44%****

***= obligatory move (>50%), **= optional (<50%)**

7.12 Changes in the Initial Genre Model

The pilot study concluded with a total of 17 moves. The analysis shows that these moves were altered to 14 moves in the main study as some moves were changed or merged within another move where appropriate based on the communicative purpose of the move or step. Some of the moves have also been expanded to include steps such as Move 10: *Focusing on teaching practices* which was expanded by adding steps which were used to realize the move shown in Table 28 above. Another alteration to the pilot study genre model is combining steps together such as in Move 11: *Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process* which began in the pilot study with two separate steps of (1) *teacher evaluation* and (2) *student evaluation*. When the coding was conducted in the main study, it was more appropriate to combine these two steps into one step that reflects more accurately the communicative purpose and it was concluded that the step *provide examples of evaluation* is more appropriate for the final genre model.

7.13 Chapter Summary

The chapter presented and discussed the findings of the move analysis of the TPSs corpus. The analysis revealed that TPSs rhetorical structure consists of 14 distinct moves. These were categorized into three classifications for the ease of reference and discussion and because the analysis shows that the TPS is characterized by a flexible sequence of moves. The three categories are: teacher-focused, classroom-focused, and teaching-evaluation process. The features of the moves and the constituent steps are discussed in each category with calculations of frequency of occurrence to determine the status of moves being

obligatory or optional. The move sequence of the corpus is presented and it can be inferred that TPSs are flexible and exhibit variation with no fixed order of moves. In addition, move cyclicity shows that move 10 is the most cyclical move in the corpus which focuses on teaching practices and providing concrete examples of teaching.

An interesting finding is the use of questions in TPS to engage the reader. Questions were found to occur in several moves in the corpus and specifically in move 10 which the teacher uses to clarify how they approach teaching, for example how new topics are introduced in the classroom.

A comparison between TPSs from the faculty corpus and the graduate students' corpus is discussed with move frequency, move sequence, and move cyclicity. Also, a case study of the UK TPSs is presented with a comparison of the findings of move analysis of TPSs compiled for the present study. The chapter ends by presenting a suggested model of the TPS genre based on the findings of the move analysis. Details of the changes in the final model compared to the initial model devised in the pilot study are discussed.

The next chapter presents the findings of the corpus-based analysis of TPSs.

Chapter 8

Corpus Analysis of Teaching Philosophy Statements

The previous chapter described the findings of genre analysis using Swales (1990) methodology of move analysis. This chapter compliments the genre analysis by using corpus linguistics tools to describe the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams in TPSs to answer the following research sub-questions:

- What are the lexicogrammatical features associated with the identified moves?
- What are the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams that characterize the teaching philosophy statement genre?
- What, if any, are the differences in the frequent words, keywords, and n-grams of teaching philosophy statements written by faculty members and those written by graduate students?

The analysis entails three main kinds of comparisons to answer the sub questions above: The first type of analysis focuses on the five obligatory moves identified in the previous chapter and uses the moves sub-corpus as the reference corpus in this comparison (see Chapter 5, section 5.10.1 and 5.10.2). This type of methodology is used in corpus-based genre analysis to accurately describe each move's linguistic features which can be later applied when designing teaching materials (see Chapter 4, section 4.7). The second analysis is a comparison between the TPSs corpus (i.e., the three corpora combined) and a reference corpus. The wordlists and keywords are extracted and compared and 4-word n-grams are generated from the TPSs corpus. The third type of analysis is comparing the faculty corpus with the graduate students' corpus and noting similarities and differences between the two

corpora. The analysis is facilitated by AntConc software which was introduced earlier in Chapter 5.

Section 8.1 is specifically focused on the obligatory moves resulting from the move analysis (Chapter 7). The linguistic characteristics of these obligatory moves were examined in MAXQDA which resulted in linguistics constrictions found in the identified moves that helped in identifying the functions. The corpus-analysis complements the move analysis by examining the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams found in each move. Several observations of these constructions are confirmed in this corpus-based analysis. The purpose of the corpus-based analysis is to uncover the words and keywords used at the move level and the results can serve as a basis for more concrete examples for learners. These examples can be employed when writing a TPS which is one of the objectives of the present study.

Section 8.2 is dedicated to corpus analysis on the TPSs corpus, discussing the most frequent words and keywords against a reference corpus as discussed in Chapter 5. The purpose of this analysis is to examine genre specific vocabulary and examine keywords that typically occur in academic English and note any differences in the most frequent words in both corpora (the TPS and the reference corpora). The most recurring n-gram clusters are also examined and discussed in this section and they are categorized structurally and functionally.

Section 8.3 compares the statements written by faculty members and those written by graduate students and shows the similarities and differences found in terms of the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams in each corpus.

Section 8.4 presents a summary of the findings reported in this chapter regarding the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams found in the three levels of analysis.

8.1 Corpus Analysis on the Move Level

The first part of the corpus analysis on the move level focuses on the obligatory moves that are frequent in more than 50% of the corpus. The analysis revealed five obligatory moves in the TPSs corpus as follows:

Move 1: Focusing on philosophical concepts

Move 9: Describing features of the learning environment

Move 10: Focus on teaching practices

Move 11: Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process

Move 12: Stating teaching goals and outcomes

These moves are analysed using AntConc Software to produce word frequencies, keywords, and n-grams.

8.1.1 Most Frequent Words on the Move Level

To reach a full description of the genre and focus on words that are mostly used in each of the obligatory moves, frequency lists were extracted for each obligatory move in the corpus. Frequency lists are considered a good starting point when exploring a genre (Tribble, 2001). Table 29 presents the top 30 frequent words in each obligatory move.

Table 29

The Top 30 Most Frequent Words in each Obligatory Move

Move 1		**Move 9**		**Move 10**		**Move 11**		**Move 12**	
the	341	*to*	225	*the*	1043	*the*	236	*to*	317
to	308	*the*	186	*to*	896	*and*	208	*and*	275

and	276	*and*	164	*and*	760	*to*	201	*the*	266
of	210	*I*	114	*of*	657	*of*	157	*of*	204
I	205	*of*	113	*I*	522	*I*	147	*students*	172
in	182	*students*	113	*in*	483	*students*	141	*in*	149
a	159	*a*	100	*a*	441	*in*	130	*a*	137
my	154	*in*	98	*students*	433	*a*	104	*that*	101
that	150	*that*	64	*that*	290	*my*	99	*I*	99
students	142	*my*	61	*for*	227	*that*	79	*my*	94
is	109	*their*	60	*my*	223	*for*	72	*their*	94
teaching	94	*is*	50	*as*	183	*their*	63	*is*	77
as	84	*as*	47	*is*	183	*they*	60	*they*	71
for	82	*for*	38	*with*	183	*is*	55	*for*	63
learning	67	*them*	37	*their*	166	*as*	53	*as*	60
their	63	*are*	35	*on*	140	*learning*	45	*are*	57
it	53	*they*	34	*this*	137	*on*	44	*them*	57
on	41	*with*	33	*are*	129	*have*	43	*this*	55
with	40	*class*	31	*have*	127	*with*	43	*with*	48
have	39	*an*	26	*class*	126	*student*	40	*be*	44
an	38	*classroom*	26	*learning*	126	*this*	38	*have*	42
they	37	*learning*	26	*or*	124	*class*	37	*an*	41
are	36	*it*	24	*they*	118	*me*	35	*learning*	41
learn	34	*by*	23	*by*	107	*feedback*	34	*these*	39
be	33	*be*	22	*them*	98	*what*	32	*not*	34
believe	32	*this*	21	*teaching*	95	*are*	31	*course*	34
knowledge	32	*on*	21	*it*	95	*how*	28	*can*	33
me	32	*student*	20	*an*	92	*course*	28	*skills*	31
this	32	*not*	20	*we*	86	*each*	27	*more*	31
classroom	31	*have*	20	*these*	82	*teaching*	26	*it*	31

Content words or lexical words are those words that have meaning and can stand alone. Function words or grammatical words are those that have little meaning and are used to relate other words and sentences together (Gee, 2018; Scott & Tribble, 2006b).

Many of the most frequent words in each move are shared between moves and include words such as (the, and, of, to, I, students, learning, teaching). The findings of the word frequency are grouped below into categories focusing on function and content words and pronouns to be further discussed.

8.1.1.1 Function and Content Words. When examining the most frequent words in the lists above, it is observed that function words such as *a, the, to, and, of, in* are the most frequent items in all the moves. The high frequency of these items is very common in written language (O'Keeffe et al., 2007). The five moves share several frequent content words as well such as *students, learning,* and *teaching* which can be attributed to the genre nature of explaining the teaching philosophy and the teaching practices in the classroom and describing the participants who are the students. These content words appear in three comparisons: first in each obligatory move in the corpus, second in the most frequent words in the TPS genre when compared to the BAWE (see section 8.2.1) and third in the keywords analysis of the TPS (see section 8.2.2) which suggest that these content words are salient in the TPS genre.

8.1.1.2 Personal Pronouns. Looking at the most frequent pronouns in the five moves, we find the first pronouns (I, we) and the second pronoun (they) and their variants (my, them) are the most occurring pronouns found in the lists. However, the ranking of frequency of these pronouns is not the same in the obligatory moves. Only the first-person pronoun *I* is highly frequent in all the moves, occurring at the top of the list and is the most used pronoun in the statements compared to the pronouns (we) and (they). The pronoun is used to refer to the teacher/writer as an individual. The pronoun (I) is used in academic writing to view one's point (Carter & McCarthy, 2006).

The pronoun (they) is less frequent than *I* but it occurs 118 times in Move 10 which relates to the function of the move that focuses on teaching practices in the classroom. After examining the concordance lines of *they* in Move 10, I concluded that the pronoun (they) is used to refer to students in this move as the following examples demonstrate.

1) *I credit any points **they** earn toward prior quiz grades.*

(OSU SS 28)

2) *The confidence **they** had gained from this exercise was revealed when **they** tackled the "question and answers" after their group presentations.*

(OSU S 27)

The pronoun (we) is only found to occur frequently in Move 10 which function is to focus on teaching practices. The pronoun (we) is usually referring to either: the speaker and another person(s) in which it is called an *inclusive we* or the speaker and a third person (singular or plural) which is called an *exclusive we* because the reader or the speaker is excluded (Berry, 2015). The pronoun is used to refer collectively to both the teacher and the students and excludes the reader as it shows in the examples below. The use of *inclusive we* might be seen as the teacher collaborating with the students in the classroom to deliver teaching materials and doing teaching activities together and it can be showing engagement of the students and the teacher in the classroom. The use of this pronoun associates with the function of this move indicating a focus of building student rapport through inclusivity. The use of inclusive pronouns is consistent with what Payant and Hirano (2018) found in their examination of TPS pronouns. They concluded that the strongest TPS included more inclusive pronouns to create a united relationship between the teacher and students. Two examples of the use of the pronoun (we) in Move 10 are below:

3) ***We*** *review the answers in class, and as* ***we*** *do, I expand on the content and add detail by referencing other sources.*

(OSU SS 28)

4) *Eventually* ***we*** *arrive at a best solution, which may differ from the one I had in mind at the beginning of the exercise.*

(OSU S 26)

The pronoun (we) primarily refers to both the students and the teacher but in four instances, it was used to refer to others as in the four examples below:

5) *As* ***we*** *engaged in this process,* ***we*** *gave careful consideration to how these changes should be reflected in the student formative and summative assessments and altered the assessments to clearly align with these course changes.*

(U-C 35)

6) *As geoscientists* ***we*** *attempt to explain processes that occur over a range of pressure, time and space scales that many students struggle to wrap their brains around.*

(U-M S 11)

7) *To ensure student-learning success, how* ***we*** *taught the courses would be as important as what* ***we*** *taught.*

(U-C 34)

8) *In class,* ***we*** *go through the algorithm together with the students in a step--by--step fashion using multiple case examples.*

(U-C 36)

In example (5) above, the pronoun (we) refers to the teacher who is a graduate student and the other course instructor and mentor of the graduate student. In example (6), the pronoun (we) is used to refer to the teacher and geoscientists in their field. While in example (7), the pronoun refers to teachers in general and excludes the students in this use of this pronoun. The pronoun in example (8) refers to the two teachers of a specific course and excludes students. Table 30 below summarizes the use of the pronoun (we) in Move 10.

Table 30

A Summary of the Use of the Pronoun (we) in Move 10 in the Corpus

We	**N in Move 10**	**Category**
Refer to both teacher and students	65	Inclusive
Refer to two teachers (graduate students and mentor or two instructors for a course)	20	Exclusive
Refer to other teachers in the field (including the teacher)	1	Exclusive
Total	**86**	

Investigating the use of the pronoun (you) in the moves, the pronoun is not found in the top 30 wordlists above which agrees with what O'Keeffe et al. (2007) describe as a lack of the interactive pronoun *you* in written language. The pronoun (you) is further examined in the TPSs corpus analysis in section 8.2.1 and its use is discussed.

8.1.2 Keywords on the Move Level

This section focuses on keyword analysis of obligatory moves in the TPSs corpus. To generate the keywords that characterise each move, the wordlist of each move was compared to the TPS frequency wordlist. This was done to highlight the vocabulary used in each move in the genre. That echoes previous research on move analysis done by Henry and Roseberry

(2001a) (2001b) and Gledhill (2000) as outlined in Chapter 5. The keyword analysis was generated using the keyword function in AntConc. Table 31 contains keywords of all the obligatory moves in the corpus.

Table 31

Keywords Identified in the Obligatory Moves

Move type	**Keywords**
Move 1 Focusing on philosophical concepts	*philosophy, teaching, educational, belief, believe, my*
Move 9 Describing features of the learning environment	*environment, office, respect*
Move 10 Focus on teaching practices	*use, example, or*
Move 11 Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process	*feedback, evaluations, assess, exams, assignments, tests, grading, comments, assessment, papers*
Move 12 Stating teaching goals and outcomes	*goal, their, thinking, challenge, skills, them, they*

It is not unexpected to find that each obligatory move has a list of keywords that correspond to its function. In Move 1, six keywords were generated. The keyword *philosophy* mostly occurs with *teaching* and *my* as in the structure: *my teaching philosophy is* … and some writers use the phrase educational philosophy to articulate their philosophy in the statement. The verb *believe* is a keyword in this move and occurs frequently (32 occurrences). The analysis of the verb in other moves yields occurrences in Move 10 (29 occurrences). So, the verb *believe* is not used exclusively in Move 1 but it is identified in the analysis as a keyword in this move.

Move 9 which describes the classroom environment, the keywords *environment*, *office*, and *respect* are identified. These are used to show how the teacher accommodates students in offering office hours, as well as describing the classroom environment, which is positively described in the statements as *safe*, *positive*, *encouraging*, *enjoyable*, and *inclusive*.

With the function of focusing on teaching practices, move 10 keywords include *use*, *example* and *or*. The teacher explains their use of varied teaching practices and strategies and gives concrete examples of these activities in this move.

The keywords identified in Move 11 correspond to the function of this move which relates to evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning. This move includes the largest number of keywords compared to the rest of the obligatory moves. The first keyword in this move is *feedback*. The feedback in the teaching statements is two-way: one coming from students which the teacher asks for and the other provided for students in the classroom. While feedback is given by the teacher and received from students, *evaluations*, which is another keyword identified in Move 11, is mainly received by students and the teacher reflects in this move how these evaluations are positive and shows that teaching methods are working. The remaining keywords *assess*, *exams*, *assignments*, *tests*, *grading*, *comments*, *assessment*, and *papers* are referring to the ways in which evaluation is carried out.

Move 12 identifies goals and outcomes of the teaching process and the pronouns *their*, *them* and *they* are identified as keywords. This move is oriented towards students' outcomes and teaching goals. *Skills*, *thinking*, and *challenge* are keywords referring to these expected or desired outcomes of teaching.

8.1.3 N-Grams on the Move Level

This section identifies n-grams associated with each obligatory move in the TPSs corpus. The criteria for identifying and extracting n-grams are presented in Chapter 5. The

objective of this analysis is to identify n-grams in moves which focus on relatively smaller corpus when compared to the corpus as a whole (see Chapter 5, section 5.10.2). The analysis revealed 17 n-grams in the five obligatory moves with the highest number of n-grams in Move 12 and the least number of n-grams in Move 9 and 11 resulting in only one n-gram each. The n-grams for each move are shown in Table 32.

Table 32

Three-word N-grams associated with each Move

Move	**N-gram**	**Raw frequency**
Move 1	*I believe that*	16
	my teaching philosophy	12
	of my teaching	10
	as a teacher	7
Move 9	*in the classroom*	8
Move 10	*a variety of*	29
	in the classroom	17
	I try to	15
	in order to	13
	my students to	13
	encourage students to	11
Move 11	*as well as*	6
Move 12	*goal is to*	9
	be able to	8
	in the classroom	6
	my students to	6
	of the course	6

The n-gram *in the classroom* appears in three moves (Move 9, 10 and 12). The use of this n-gram emphasizes the location of where teaching and learning occurs. Also, the n-gram *my students to* appears in two moves (Move 10 and 12).

The analysis of Move 1 revealed that there are four n-grams. These are *I believe that, my teaching philosophy, of my teaching* and *as a teacher*. In Move 9, *in the classroom* is the only n-gram identified. Move 10 has six n-grams: *a variety of, in the classroom, I try to, in order to, my students to, encourage students to*. The analysis revealed one n-gram in Move 11 which is *as well as* and five n-grams used in Move 12 which include *goal is to, be able to, in the classroom, my students to* and *of the course*.

The n-grams are classified structurally based on the model of Biber et al. (1999) (see Chapter 5). There are four main categories in the structural analysis: Noun phrases (NP-based), Prepositional phrases (PP-based), Verb phrases (VP-based), and Other Expressions. The structural analysis is shown in Table 33.

Table 33

Structural Classification of the N-grams in the Moves

Category	**Move 1**	**Move 9**	**Move 10**	**Move 11**	**Move 12**
NP-based 29.4%	*my teaching philosophy*		*a variety of, my students to*		*goal is to, my students to*
PP- based 41%	*of my teaching, as a teacher*	*in the classroom*	*in the classroom, in order to*		*in the classroom, of the course*
VP-based 23.5%	*I believe that*		*I try to, encourage students to*		*be able to*
Other expressions 5.8%				*as well as*	

When indicating the philosophical concepts that inform the teaching philosophy, different structures are employed in Move 1. The NP-based structure *my teaching philosophy* and the two PP-based structures *of my teaching* and *as a teacher*. The VP-based *I believe that* is also employed in Move 1 to express the teaching philosophy.

Move 9 focuses on the classroom environment and the PP-based n-gram *in the classroom* is used to indicate this focus. In Move 10, *a variety of* is used to indicate the different teaching practices used and employs the PP-based structure *in order to* which explains how these practices are enacted in the classroom. Move 12 uses the NP-based structure *goal is to* and the VP-based structure *be able to* for the purpose of indicating the goals and outcomes the teacher wishes to achieve. The majority proportion of the n-grams on the move level is PP-based with a 41%. The second highest proportion is the NP-based n-grams with 29.4%.

The 17 n-grams in the obligatory moves are classified according to their function based on the earlier mentioned model for discourse functions. When n-grams are examined in the TPSs corpus (see section 8.2.3), no discourse organizer n-grams were found. However, when the n-grams are examined in each move, Move 10, 11 and 12 use topic elaboration/clarification sub-function such as *in order to, as well as* and *goal is to.* Table 34 presents the functional classification of the n-grams in each move.

Table 34

Functional Classification of the N-grams in the Moves

	Sub-function	Move 1	Move 9	Move 10	Move 11	Move 12
Stance expressions 35.2%	Epistemic stance (personal)	*I believe that*				

	Desire			*my students to*		*my students to*
	Intention/prediction			*encourage students to*		
	Ability/possibility			*I try to*		*be able to*
Discourse organizers 17.6%	Topic elaboration/clarification			*in order to*	*as well as*	*goal is to*
Referential expressions 47%	Identification/focus	*as a teacher*				
	Intangible framing attributes	*my teaching philosophy of my teaching*				*of the course*
	Quantity specification			*a variety of*		
	Place reference		*in the classroom*	*in the classroom*		*in the classroom*

Move 1 is the only move with a personal epistemic stance reflecting the philosophical views of the teacher. Other attitudinal/modality stance expressions that serve the function of desire is *my students to* which occur in Move 10 and 12. The intention/prediction stance

expressions include *encourage students to* (Move 10). The expressions *I try to* and *be able to* have the function of ability/possibility. These expressions are used in Move 10 and 12 to reflect what the teacher hopes to achieve when using specific teaching strategies and the possible outcomes. The proportion of stance expressions is 35.2% of the total n-grams.

The discourse organizer n-grams are used in Move 10 (in order to), in Move 11 (as well as) and in Move 12 (goal is to) as topic elaboration/clarification and they represent 17.6% of the total functions. However, discourse organizers bundles were not detected in the n-grams in both the TPSs corpus (see section 8.2.3) or the faculty and GS corpora (see section 8.3.3).

The referential expressions comprise the highest proportion of the three functions with 47%. All the five moves, except for Move 11, include referential expressions such as identification/focus, for instance *as a teacher* in Move 1. Referencing to intangible attributes is found in Move 1 and Move 12 with the expressions *my teaching philosophy, of my teaching,* and *of the course*. The quantity specification *a variety of* is found to occur in Move 10 which corresponds to the function of the move of focusing on different and varied teaching practices used in the classroom. Place references are present in three moves with mainly using the expression *in the classroom*. Time references did not occur in the n-grams in the obligatory moves. The reason for this might be the limited number of words in some of the moves or the size of the sub-corpora of moves I focused on when I examined only the most frequent moves in the TPSs corpus. Time references, however, occur in both the TPSs corpus and in the faculty and GS corpora (see section 8.2 and 8.3). In these analyses of n-grams, the focus is on the whole corpus and not only some sections as in the move level.

8.2 Corpus Analysis Applied to the TPSs Corpus

The following analysis presents the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams in the TPSs corpus, using the BAWE as a reference corpus.

8.2.1 Most Frequent Words in the TPSs Corpus

Table 35 below displays the most frequent words in the reference corpus and the TPSs corpus in the present study. The list contains both content words and function words. The following discussion differentiates between these two categories and where they appear in the two lists.

Table 35

Frequency List of the Top 30 Words in the BAWE Corpus and the TPSs Corpus

BAWE Corpus	**TPSs Corpus**	**Raw Frequency in TPSs Corpus**
the	*the*	2631
of	*to*	2431
and	*and*	2162
to	*of*	1696
in	*I*	1523
a	*in*	1363
is	*a*	1228
that	***students****	1202
as	*that*	917
for	*my*	898
be	*for*	623
this	*is*	616
it	*as*	586
are	*their*	516

with	*with*	473
on	***teaching****	391
by	*this*	388
was	*have*	381
not	*they*	378
from	***learning****	373
an	*on*	359
which	*are*	353
have	*it*	300
can	*an*	290
at	*them*	279
or	***class****	271
has	*by*	266
their	*be*	259
they	***student****	253
will	*or*	239

Note: Some characters such as (‘-(-) and ‘s) were excluded from the wordlist of the BAWE and the TPS.

The first glance at Table 35 shows that the TPS and the BAWE frequency wordlists are not exactly similar. However, there are some shared words in both lists. The BAWE wordlist is composed completely of function words such as determiners, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, and pronouns while the TPSs corpus contains a mix of function and content words.

To look at the similarities first, the first four words are shared between the two corpora. These are (the, to, and, of) which are function words usually common in written language and occur with high frequency in academic English (O’Keeffe et al., 2007) and in academic prose (Biber, 2006). The high frequency of *the* and *of* indicates the use of noun

phrases such as: ***the*** *lens* ***of*** *their own experience,* ***the*** *use* ***of*** *formal and informal approaches* (from the TPSs corpus).

One of the most noticeable differences between the two lists is the occurrence of content words at the top of the list. The wordlists show that five content words are present and frequent in the TPS top 30 words. These are *students, teaching, learning, class, student.* The content words and the pronouns *they, their, them* refer mostly to students. The frequent use of these specific words and pronouns can be attributed to the nature of the genre which is narrowly focused on students in the classroom and how interaction and teaching activities are carried out by the teacher. Therefore, more content words are found occurring on the top of the list and are mostly education-related terms. These words are also found to be keywords in the TPS genre (see section 8.2.2) and further analysis will be carried out to examine the collocates surrounding these words.

Biber (2006) states, based on corpus-based investigations of written and spoken registers, that it is common to have more nouns in written discourse which is evident in the most frequent words relating to teaching and learning in the TPSs corpus. However, compared to the reference corpus, which is also a written academic English corpus, function words are dominant in the BAWE and nouns do not appear in the top 30 words.

Now, focusing on the most frequent pronouns in the TPSs corpus, the pronouns (I) and (my) are found to be frequent in the top 30 words since teachers refer to themselves and what they think and do in the classroom. The use of the first-person pronoun (I) in written academic discourse is less frequent when compared to spoken discourse (O'Keeffe et al., 2007). Self-reference in TPSs is consistent with the literature on TPS writing guides in which the use of the first person pronoun is encouraged (e.g., Boye, 2012; Coppola, 2002; Merkel, 2020; Yeom et al., 2018).

In addition, Payant and Hirano (2018) confirm that the strongest teaching statements were those with frequent use of self-reference pronouns. The pronouns were used "to exemplify their beliefs and practices" (p. 47). The use of the first-person pronoun is prevalent in this genre in which it is used to reflect personal involvement and show the teacher's experience. Collocates involving the pronoun (I) are shown in Table 36 with a minimum frequency of 10 occurrences in the corpus.

Table 36

Three-word Collocates Involving the Pronoun (I) in the TPSs Corpus

I Collocates	**Raw Frequency**	**Range**	**Average per text**
I BELIEVE THAT	44	17	2
I TRY TO	23	13	1
I HAVE FOUND	17	11	1
I WANT TO	13	7	1
I AIM TO	11	10	1
I STRIVE TO	11	7	1
I DO NOT	10	6	1

The construct *I believe* was further investigated and compared with the verb *think* in the texts to examine the patterns of use. The motivation for the investigation is that this construct was found in Move 1 when move analysis was conducted and I wanted to follow through in corpus analysis to explore any patterns that might appear. First, the verb *believe* was used 107 times in the TPSs corpus. The construct *I believe* was used 80 times in the statements. This verb was also frequently used in two obligatory moves (Move 1 and Move 10, see section 8.1.1 and 8.1.2). Some examples of this construct are given below.

9) *<u>I believe</u> a teacher can help students apply critical analysis in the future and be the driving forces behind new, appropriate technology.*

(OSU S 26)

10) *I believe it is imperative to also strive to understand how best we as educators convey content effectively to students and apply this in practice.*

(U-C 35)

It appears that the verb *believe* is mostly connected to the teacher's thoughts and ideas and is used to convey teacher beliefs as in the examples (9) and (10) above. The verb *think* was used less frequently in the statements with 66 occurrences compared to the verb *believe* and it was used to talk about students or show what is expected from them. The construct *think about* and *think critically about* were used. Some examples of the use of the verb *think* are below.

11) *I ask students to think about bacteria.*

(OSU S 25)

12) *The same ideas flowed into my classrooms, where I urge my students to think about very basic questions they have.*

(OSU S 25)

13) *Fundamentally, my primary goal when teaching is to motivate students to think critically about what they are learning.*

(U-C 39)

The verb *think* is reserved for what the students do. The subject for the verb *think* in the statements is the students in 54 out of the 66 occurrences and only 12 occurrences have the teacher as the subject with the construct *I think.*

The pronouns (they, their, them) are the second most frequent pronouns after (I) in the TPSs corpus and they are used to refer to students. When examining the differences in the top

30 words in the two lists of the most frequent words, the wordlist of TPS shows the absence of the second person pronoun (you). This pronoun can refer to the general public or to a specific listener or reader (singular or plural) (Berry, 2015). The TPSs corpus has low frequency occurrence of this pronoun which can be due to the lack of addressing a direct reader and the nature of the genre which focuses on the teacher views and beliefs within the classroom.

Using the *Concordance* function to explore how (you) is used in the TPS, only 40 occurrences were found in the corpus. Looking closely at the concordance lines, 12 out of the 40 occurrences of the pronoun (you) were in one text in which the writer chose to include a long quotation at the beginning of the teaching statement. Only 5 occurrences of (you) were referring to the reader as in these examples:

14) *As <u>you</u> could probably guess, such a prospect was not well received by the students, especially me: A test?*

(OSU H 21)

15) *Were <u>you</u> to take my class, <u>you</u> would hear them repeated regularly?*

(OSU H 22)

The 23 other occurrences were either referring to students or to the teacher/teachers. The use of (you) was mainly part of the format of reported speech from the students or in a rhetorical question posed by the teacher as can be seen in the following examples:

16) *Being prepared and organized helps things run more smoothly in any circumstance. It makes <u>you</u> spend less time catching up in the moment and more time available to help or learn or teach*. (Reference to the teacher or teachers).

(OSU S 24)

17) *"Well, you know what I mean, Miss Lee. You understand us."* (Reported speech, reference to the teacher)

(OSU SS 33)

18) *What kind of rocks and soils do you see? What landscapes surround you? What features do you see on the horizon?* (Reference to students in questions)

(U-M S 11)

This finding of the use of the second person pronoun (you) reflects that of Supasiraprapa and De costa (2017) who also found that students did not use second person pronouns because it was deemed inappropriate in teaching statements. Their reason for avoiding its use is to construct a "competent academic writer identity" (p. 882) by not directly engaging the reader. A possible explanation offered by Supasiraprapa and De costa (2017) for the absence of the second person pronoun, which is considered as an engagement marker in academic writing, is that "TPS writers' aim to demonstrate their teaching beliefs, their knowledge, and their experience without focusing on making an argument or a conclusion based on published literature" (p. 889).

8.2.2 Keywords in the TPSs Corpus

Wordlists show the most frequent words in a corpus but do not give any measure related to the salience of words in a corpus. Keyword analysis can help "reveal the salient features which are functionally related to that genre" (McEnery et al., 2006, p. 308) and also show the "aboutness" in texts (Scott & Tribble, 2006b). Using the *Keyword* function in AntConc, a keyword list was generated in which the BAWE was input as a reference corpus. The software generated 409 keywords (see Appendix G for the full list). As it is customary in

keyword analysis to have a cut-off point to be able to analyse the resulting keywords in more detail, I focused on the top 50 keywords shown in Table 37. In corpus-based genre analysis (e.g., Bordet, 2015; J. Flowerdew & Forest, 2009; L. Flowerdew, 2008b), keywords are examined through concordance lines to prompt further qualitative analysis and investigate the collocates of these keywords.

Table 37

The Top 50 Keywords in the TPSs Corpus

Rank	**Keyword**	**POS**	**Keyness**	**Rank**	**Keyword**	**POS**	**Keyness**
1	*students*	n	8038.73	26	*believe*	vb	290.04
2	*I*	pp	4928.96	27	*undergraduate*	jj	281.78
3	*my*	po	4228.09	28	*material*	n	275.05
4	*teaching*	n	2627.4	29	*semester*	n	253.32
5	*learning*	n	1587.23	30	*own*	jj	251.15
6	*student*	n	1510.54	31	*discussions*	n	247.97
7	*classroom*	n	1434.17	32	*questions*	n	238.57
8	*me*	pp	929.95	33	*lecture*	n	238.56
9	*class*	n	825.02	34	*enthusiasm*	n	234.54
10	*course*	n	797.48	35	*thinking*	n	228.99
11	*learn*	vb	646.41	36	*knowledge*	n	220.56
12	*teach*	vb	620.98	37	*lectures*	n	219.4
13	*teacher*	n	606.62	38	*psychology*	n	214.22
14	*instructor*	n	474.31	39	*they*	pp	212.04
15	*courses*	n	468.39	40	*understanding*	n	194.99
16	*their*	po	465.36	41	*math*	n	191.55
17	*them*	pp	407.26	42	*classes*	n	189.66
18	*am*	vb	356.9	43	*how*	sub	186.04
19	*skills*	n	352.3	44	*educator*	n	182.05
20	*to*	in	340.77	45	*learned*	vb	177.17
21	*concepts*	n	323.78	46	*discussion*	n	167.1
22	*assignments*	n	308.09	47	*biology*	n	164.08

23	*feedback*	n	304.07	48	*critical*	jj	156
24	*graduate*	jj	297.11	49	*ask*	vb	152.77
25	*teachers*	n	295.74	50	*experiences*	n	152.55

The keywords found in the TPSs corpus are closely related in meaning and focus on classroom environment and classroom activities. Words like *student(s), I, teacher(s), instructor, educator,* and their related pronouns *my, me, their, they* and *them* refer to the participants who are discussed in the teaching statements. Words such as *teaching, learning, learn, teach, skills, concepts, assignments, feedback,* and *material, discussions, questions* are all indicating activities that happen in the classroom, including evaluation of teaching and learning. The words *class, classes, course, classroom, lecture* denoting the places and times in which classroom activities take place.

The keywords vary between verbs, nouns, pronouns, and adjectives, and the subordinate *how*. However, the dominant words in the list are mostly nouns, a feature common in academic writing compared to conversation or other spoken genres (Biber, 2006; Biber et al., 2002) that include a higher proportion of verbs than nouns.

From the list of keywords, we can observe that verbs are less commonly used compared to nouns. The verbs (*learn, teach, believe, am, learned, ask)* are key in the TPSs corpus. Table 38 shows the collocates surrounding these verbs on the left and on the right of the keyword.

Table 38

Three-word Collocates Relating to the Verbs learn, teach, believe, am, learned, and ask

Verb	**Collocates on the right**	**Collocates on the left**
learn	*learn how to*	*desire to learn*
	learn more effectively	*that students learn*
teach	*teach my students*	*is to teach*

		when I teach
		as I teach
believe	*believe that students*	*I firmly believe*
	believe that the	*I also believe*
am	*am able to*	*that I am*
	am passionate about	*who I am*
learned	*learned in class*	*I have learned*
		they have learned
ask	*ask them to*	*I also ask*
	ask students to	

The two verbs *teach* and *believe* are mostly referring to the teacher to show their role in the classroom and to convey their thoughts and ideas. The verb *am* (a form of copula be) is used as a main verb in the collocates and it is commonly used in academic writing (Biber et al., 2002). These six key verbs give an indication of what teachers and students do in the classroom as well as reflecting the mental processes of the teacher and the student as in *believe* and *learn.* All the key verbs, except for *learned*, are in the present tense, even though these are past events. The present tense reflects habitual behaviour and is mostly used in academic prose and associated with mental verbs such as *believe* and *learn* (Biber et al., 1999). Using the present tense suggests that teachers in the statements are giving their actions "a sense of immediacy, and to suggest that past events are unfolding at the moment of speaking or writing" (Carter & McCarthy, 2006, p. 625).

The nouns *student(s), teaching, learning, classroom, class, course(s), teacher(s), instructor, skills, concepts, assignments, feedback, material, semester, discussion(s), questions, lecture(s), enthusiasm, thinking, knowledge, psychology, understanding, math, classes, educator, biology,* and *experiences* are keywords in the TPS genre. As a written genre, it is common to have more nouns than verbs in both the most frequent wordlist and the

keywords and less verbs which are usually found in spoken genres with interpersonal purpose (Biber et al., 2004).

All the key nouns were investigated using AntConc *Collocates* function and *Concordance lines* and those with an immediate collocate are presented in Figure 15. The L1 shows collocates preceding the keyword and R1 shows collocates that occur immediately after the keyword.

Key noun	**Left (L1)**	**Right (R1)**
student(s)	*help, encourage, graduate, give, helping, develop*	*learn, need, develop*
teaching	*team*	*philosophy, strategies, style, team*
learning	*student, active, own*	*process, styles, experience, environment*
course	*the, a, this*	*material, content*
skills	*thinking*	*and, in*
material	*the, course, class*	*and, in*
discussion(s)	*of, and, in*	*a, class, the*
question(s)	*and, that, about, to*	*ask, these, asking*
lecture	*and, notes*	*the, a*
enthusiasm	*for*	*my, and*
thinking	*skills, and*	*critical*
knowledge	*and, in, of, to*	*their, of, the*
psychology	*is*	*of*
understanding	*of, and*	*and, their, an*
biology	*courses*	*of*
experiences	*and, of*	*learning, personal, teaching*

Figure 15. Immediate collocates of noun keywords in the TPSs corpus.

The key nouns have different immediate collocates. *Student(s)* is preceded by mostly verbs such as *help, encourage, give,* and *develop* while it is followed by the verbs *learn, need,* and *develop*. These verbs fall into different categories of facilitation verbs such as *help,* communication verbs such as *encourage*, activity verbs such as *give*, occurrence verbs such as *develop* and mental verbs such as *learn* and *need*. These main categories of verbs are mostly common in academic prose as stated by Biber et al.'s (1999) corpus-based study of written discourse. This suggests that the students are portrayed as the recipients of these actions performed by the teacher in the classroom. Student centeredness is exemplified in the key noun *student(s)* and its immediate collocates of verbs which is a major theme found in TPSs (Sankey & Foster, 2012). The remaining noun keywords have a range of different collocates of nouns, adjectives, and function words.

The subordinator *how* is identified as a keyword in the TPSs corpus. Looking at the concordance lines for this keyword, the collocates *how to, how the, how I* and *how they* are found. The keyword *how* is used mostly as a subordinator to combine two sentences and in a few cases as a wh-question.

The keywords found in the TPSs corpus appear in many levels of the corpus analysis. For example, some of the keywords occur most frequently in the faculty and GS corpora. Therefore, these keywords (students, teaching, and learning) are revisited in the following sections when analysing frequent words in the faculty and GS corpora.

8.2.3 N-grams in the TPSs Corpus

Following the criteria and process for retrieving n-grams detailed in Chapter 5, AntConc software was used to extract four-word n-grams from the TPSs corpus which are considered the most studied bundles (Hyland, 2012b) and can include two and three-word n-

grams. This process resulted in 31 n-grams which occurred at least in 5 texts in the corpus (10% of the corpus) (Hyland, 2008b) and a frequency cut-off point of 5 times in the corpus.

The initial list needed to be examined to eliminate any context-specific and faulty n-grams and check for overlapping n-grams. This exclusion process is common when extracting such lists (see Chapter 5, section 5.10.3 for the exclusion criteria).

I excluded one bundle which was context-specific and a proper noun referring to the name of the teacher/graduate student university and two faulty bundles which included a comma and were misrepresented by the software as an n-grams. No overlapping n-grams were found in the list. The final list in Table 39 includes 28 n-grams. The n-grams are further categorized into structural and functional categories.

Table 39

N-grams in the TPSs Corpus Sorted by Frequency

Total number of N-Gram Types: 28			
Rank	**Frequency**	**Range**	**N-Gram**
1	12	8	*my approach to teaching*
2	11	8	*at the university of*
3	11	8	*the end of the*
4	11	9	*to be able to*
5	10	7	*I have found that*
6	10	6	*outside of the classroom*
7	9	6	*I believe that students*
8	9	8	*one of the most*
9	7	5	*at the beginning of*
10	7	6	*at the end of*
11	7	5	*in the real world*
12	7	6	*students are able to*
13	6	5	*at the same time*
14	6	6	*encourage my students to*

15	6	5	*I am able to*
16	6	5	*I believe that the*
17	6	5	*I firmly believe that*
18	6	6	*it is important to*
19	6	5	*of my teaching philosophy*
20	6	5	*so that students can*
21	6	5	*to their own lives*
22	5	5	*as a teacher is*
23	5	5	*in a way that*
24	5	5	*is one of the*
25	5	5	*the first day of*
26	5	5	*to create an environment*
27	5	5	*to improve my teaching*
28	5	5	*understanding of the material*

The n-grams in the TPSs genre share some of the four-word n-grams commonly found in academic discourse (Biber et al., 2004, 1999; Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008b). These shared n-grams are: *at the university of, the end of the, to be able to, I have found that, one of the most, at the beginning of, at the end of, at the same time, I am able to, it is important to, in a way that,* and *is one of the*. The remaining n-grams are distinctively used in the TPSs genre such as *my approach to teaching, as a teacher is,* and *understanding of the material*.

Another interesting group of n-grams in the TPSs genre are those related to the outside world such as *outside of the classroom, in the real world*, and *to their own lives*. These were very interesting to look at in the concordance lines to examine their use in the statements. The examination revealed that these n-grams are used to refer to a specific teaching philosophy of connecting what students learn in the classroom to the outside world. Examples of these in the statements follow:

19) …expanding their understanding <u>outside of the classroom</u>

(U-C 41)

20) … to learning both in the classroom and <u>in the real world</u>

(OSU H 21)

21) … of biology by having them connect it <u>to their own lives</u>

(U-M S 6)

These references are more commonly occurring in the graduate students' statements compared to the faculty corpus (see section 8.3.3 for a comparison of n-grams in both corpora).

The n-grams are further classified structurally and functionally. The structural classification is based on the widely used model provided by Biber et al. (1999) (see Chapters 2 and 5). The most frequent n-grams in the TPSs corpus are classified into their structural patterns based on their surrounding context when examined through concordance lines in AntConc and these are presented in Table 40.

Table 40

Structural Classification of N-grams in the TPSs Corpus

Structure	**NP-based**	**PP-based**	**VP-based**
Distribution	17.8%	35.7%	46.4%
	my approach to teaching	*at the university of*	*to be able to*
	the end of the	*at the end of*	*I have found that*
	one of the most	*outside of the classroom*	*I believe that students*
	the first day of	*at the beginning of*	*students are able to*
	understanding of the material	*in the real world*	*encourage my students to*
		at the same time	*I am able to*

	of my teaching philosophy	*I believe that the*
	so that students can	*I firmly believe that*
	in a way that	*it is important to*
	as a teacher is	*to their own lives*
		to create an environment
		to improve my teaching
		is one of the

The structural analysis shows that VP-based n-grams account for the highest proportion of 46.4% of the total n-grams. Previous examinations of written academic prose (Biber, 2006, 2009) concluded that the most frequent n-grams are those incorporating NP-based bundles. However, the present study findings seem to contrast with previous research in which more VP-based n-grams are incorporated compared to NP or PP-based n-grams. The TPS genre shares the common use of VP-based n-grams with conversation and spoken prose and can be seen as incorporating lexical bundles that are described in spoken genres (Biber et al., 2004).

PP-based n-grams account for the second highest proportion with 35.7%. Some of these include *at the university of* (11 occurrences), *outside the classroom* (10 occurrences) and *at the beginning of, at the end of* (7 occurrences). PP-based n-grams are widely recognized in academic prose (Biber et al., 2004).

NP-based n-grams present the lowest proportion with 17.8% of the total n-grams. Some of the NP-based n-grams in the corpus are *my approach to teaching* (12 occurrences), *the end of the* (11 occurrences), *one of the most* (9 occurrences) and *the first day of* (5 occurrences).

The PP and NP-based constructions are mostly found in academic written English. The present study found that the most frequent structure in the TPSs is VP-based n-grams followed by PP-based n-grams. The next section classifies the n-grams functionally.

The functional analysis (Biber et al., 2004) focuses on three main categories: (1) Stance expressions, (2) Discourse organizers, and (3) Referential expressions. One of the issues to consider in the analysis is the multi-functionality of n-grams, therefore, the surrounding context must be studied to choose the best suitable and dominant function (Ädel & Erman, 2012; Biber, 2006). The concordance lines were examined before assigning the functions of the n-grams. Table 41 presents the functional analysis for the n-grams in the present study.

Table 41

Functional Classification of the N-grams in the TPSs Corpus

Functional Category	**Sub-Function**	**N-gram**
Stance Expressions 42.8%	Epistemic Stance (personal)	*I have found that* (10)
		I firmly believe that (6)
		I believe that the (6)
		I believe that students (9)
	Obligation/directive (impersonal)	*It is important to* (6)
	Desire	*to improve my teaching* (5)
	Intention/prediction	*to create an environment* (5)
		encourage my students to (6)
	Ability	*to be able to* (11)
		students are able to (7)
		I am able to (6)
		so that students can (6)

Referential Expressions 57.2%	Identification/focus	*is one of the* (5)
		one of the most (9)
		as a teacher is (5)
	Intangible framing attributes	*in a way that* (5)
		understanding of the material (5)
		of my teaching philosophy (6)
		my approach to teaching (12)
	Time reference	*the first day of* (5)
		at the same time (6)
		the end of the (11)
		at the end of (7)
		at the beginning of (7)
	Place reference	*at the university of* (11)
		outside of the classroom (10)
		in the real world (7)
		to their own lives (6)

Note: raw frequency is shown in parentheses for each n-gram.

As can be seen from the functional classification of the n-grams in Table 41, no discourse organizing n-grams such as *as a result of* or *as well as the* are used in the teaching statements. Discourse organizers are observed to be less used in written university registers (Biber & Barbieri, 2007).

Most of the n-grams function as referential expressions which is the most widely used function out of the three major functions (16 types or 57.2%). This finding is in agreement with previous research on academic writing which indicates that referential expressions are the highest in number when compared to the other two functions (Biber, 2009). It is also found to be the most prevalent function in written university registers which include institutional writing (Biber & Barbieri, 2007).

The subcategories of referential expressions include n-grams of identification/focus such as *is one of the* (5 occurrences in 5 texts), *one of the most* (9 occurrences in 8 texts) and *as a teacher is* (5 occurrences in 5 texts). The intangible framing attributes subcategory includes such as *in a way that* (5 occurrences in 5 texts), *understanding of the material* (5 occurrences in 5 texts), *of my teaching philosophy* (6 occurrences in 5 texts), and *my approach to teaching* (12 occurrences in 8 texts). The subcategories of time and place references are also present. Time reference includes n-grams referring to *the first day of* (5 occurrences in 5 texts), *at the same time* (6 occurrences in 5 texts), *the end of the* (11 occurrences in 8 texts), *at the end of* (7 occurrences in 6 texts), and *at the beginning of* (7 occurrences in 5 texts). For example, the n-grams were used to refer to time as in the following examples:

22) They can introduce themselves by the end of the first hour.

(OSU H 21)

23) However, this is never the end of the conversation with students.

(U-C 35)

24) At the end of each class, several sample/review questions are provided.

(U-C 39)

25) I normalize disagreement and conflict at the beginning of the term.

(U-C 42)

26) I introduce the steps involved in this process at the beginning of the semester.

(U-M S 6)

Place references include n-grams such as *at the university of* (11 occurrences in 8 texts), *outside of the classroom* (10 occurrences in 6 texts), *in the real world* (7 occurrences in 5 texts), and to their own lives (6 occurrences in 5 texts).

N-grams functioning as stance expressions are also present but are less than the referential expressions (12 vs. 16 types or 42.8% vs. 57.2% respectively). The sub-function epistemic stance includes n-grams such as *I have found that* (10 occurrences in 7 texts), *I firmly believe that* (6 occurrences in 5 texts), *I believe that the* (6 occurrences in 5 texts), and *I believe that students* (9 occurrences in 6 texts). The epistemic stance expressions include the pronoun *I* which is a common feature found in conversation (O'Keeffe et al., 2007).

Attitudinal/modality stance includes the n-gram *it is important to* (6 occurrences in 6 texts) and the desire sub-function includes the n-gram *to improve my teaching* (5 occurrences in 5 texts). The intention/prediction sub-function includes two n-grams: *to create an environment* (5 occurrences in 5 texts) and *encourage my students to* (6 occurrences in 6 texts). Four n-grams are classified under the ability sub-function which include *to be able to* (11 occurrences in 9 texts), *students are able to* (7 occurrences in 6 texts), *I am able to* (6 occurrences in 5 texts) and *so that students can* (6 occurrences in 5 texts).

I also explored the use of the structural categories in each discourse function. The interaction between structural and functional categories is presented in Figure 16. The TPS genre uses NP/PP-based n-grams for referential expressions as can be seen in the proportions of 17.8% of NP-based and 32.1% of PP-based n-grams, with only 7.1% of VP-based used for this function. The stance expressions exclusively utilize VP-based n-grams with a proportion of 42.8%. of the total n-grams.

This interaction of structural and functional categories will be also examined in section 8.3.3 when faculty and graduate students n-grams are compared.

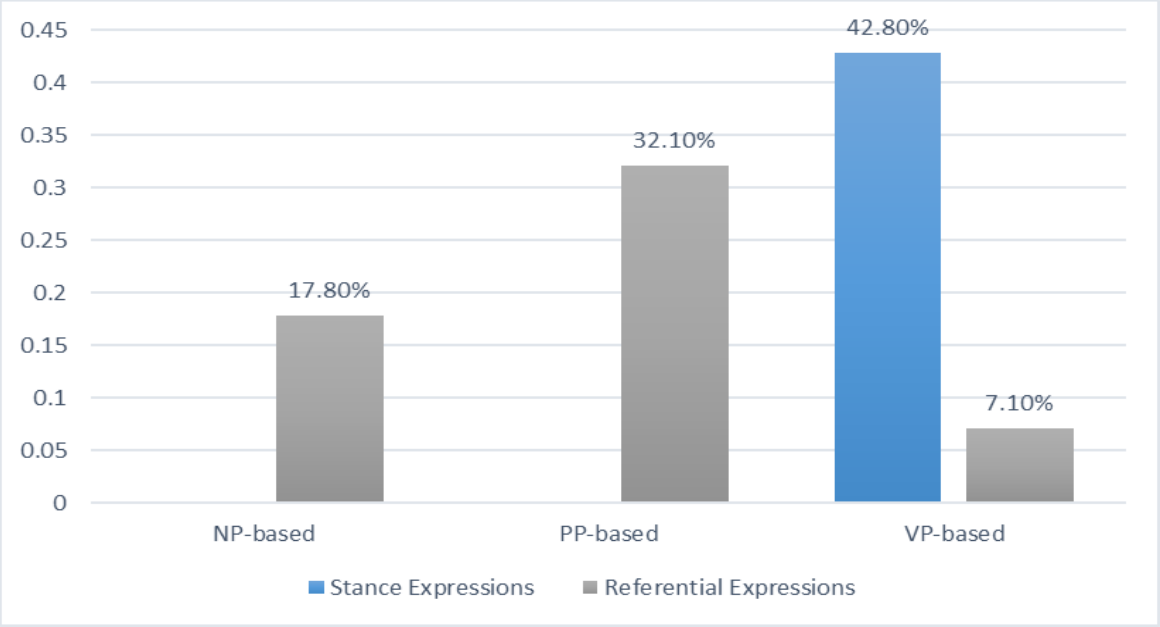

Figure 16. The interaction between structural and functional categories in bundles

Biber et al. (2004) argue that there is a relationship between the structural and functional categories in n-grams. They assert that NP and PP-based n-grams are used for referential expressions and this is evident in academic prose and classroom teaching. VP-based n-grams are used when indicating stance (personal and impersonal). Stance expressions in the TPS genre are composed of VP-based n-grams which include complement clauses such as *I believe that, it is important to* and *I am able to*. These complement clauses are one of the grammatical devices used to express stance (Biber et al., 1999) and this suggests a direct relationship between form and function of n-grams. The TPS is a document in which the teacher explains their philosophy and their teaching practice. It is not surprising to find more VP-based stance-oriented n-grams which are used to provide the teacher's own perspective on teaching, learning, and teaching philosophy.

The next section examines the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams in the TPSs of faculty and GS corpora.

8.3 Corpus Analysis of the Statements of Faculty and Graduate Students

To answer the third research sub-question presented in the beginning of this chapter, the corpus of faculty statements and the corpus of graduate students' statements are compared against each other. First, wordlists are generated and compared and then keywords are compared to conclude if similarities or differences exist. In addition, n-grams used in each corpus are extracted and compared in terms of structure and function.

As the size of the two corpora is different, normalized frequency is needed to compare the two corpora (see Chapter 5 for the calculation of normalized frequency). A common base of 10,000 is used to calculate normalized frequency for both corpora when it is needed for comparison.

8.3.1 Most Frequent Words in the Statements of Faculty and Graduate Students

Word frequency lists were generated for each corpus. Table 42 shows the raw and normalized frequency of the top 30 most frequent words in the corpora of faculty and graduate students.

Table 42

The Top 30 Most Frequent Words in the Faculty and GS Corpora

Faculty corpus			**GS corpus**		
Words	**Raw freq.**	**Norm freq. per (10,000)**	**Words**	**Raw freq.**	**Norm freq. per (10,000)**
the	897	483	*the*	1734	442
to	754	406	*to*	1677	427
and	743	400	*and*	1419	361
of	568	306	*of*	1128	287
in	477	257	*I*	1109	282

I	414	223	*in*	886	226
students	373	201	*a*	877	223
a	351	189	*students*	829	211
that	322	173	*my*	623	158
my	275	148	*that*	595	151
is	228	122	*for*	429	109
for	194	104	*as*	404	103
as	182	98	*is*	388	98
teaching	180	97	*their*	367	93
learning	174	93	*with*	318	81
with	155	83	*they*	286	72
their	149	80	*have*	258	65
this	144	77	*this*	244	62
are	132	71	*on*	235	59
on	124	66	*are*	221	56
have	123	66	*them*	214	54
these	98	52	*an*	211	53
student	97	52	*teaching*	211	53
they	92	49	*it*	209	53
it	91	49	*class*	201	51
we	89	48	*learning*	199	50
be	84	45	*by*	191	48
course	84	45	*be*	175	44
an	79	42	*me*	166	42
or	77	41	*or*	162	41

As shown in the Table above, the two lists are dominated by function words which include articles, pronouns, and prepositions such as *the, I, they, of, in*. The frequency in each corpus for such words are different. For instance, the pronoun (I) is frequently used in the GS corpus with a normalized frequency of 282 per 10,000 words versus 223 in the faculty corpus. The pronoun (we) appears only in the top 30 most frequent words in the faculty corpus with a normalized frequency of 48. Examining concordance lines of the pronoun (we),

one document had 38 instances of this pronoun out of the 89 instances which referred to team teaching by two instructors.

The two lists also share some content words which occur in both corpora but differ in their frequency. These include *students, teaching,* and *learning*. Content words such as *teaching* and *learning* occur in the faculty corpus at 97 and 93 per 10,000 respectively and these two words are less frequent and occur down the list in the GS corpus. The three content words shared in the two corpora were further explored through concordance lines to observe how they are used in each corpus. The part of speech for each content word was examined and manually checked to ensure the accuracy of assigning POS.

The word (students) was mainly used as a noun in the faculty and the GS corpora (98.6% and 92.7% respectively). In the faculty corpus, the word *students* was preceded by the determiner *the* (47 times), and *that* (23 times) and *my* (21 times). In the GS corpus, it was preceded by *my* (156 times), *the* (62 times) and *that* (51 times). When used as a possessive determiner, it preceded other nouns such as *skills, abilities, thinking* as in *students' skills, students' abilities,* and *students' thinking*. The GS corpus seems to use it more as a possessive determiner when compared to its use in the faculty corpus as shown by the percentages in Table 43. However, most of its use is as a noun in both corpora.

Table 43

Parts of Speech of Students

students	**Possessive determiner**	**Noun**	**Total raw frequency**
Faculty corpus	5 (1.3%)	368 (98.6%)	373
GS corpus	60 (7.2%)	769 (92.7%)	829

The words *teaching* and *learning* parts of speech were analysed. Table 44 shows the word *teaching* with its part of speech in each corpus.

Table 44

Parts of Speech of Teaching

teaching	**Pre-noun modifier**	**Noun**	**Total raw frequency**
Faculty corpus	72 (40%)	108 (60%)	180
GS corpus	73 (34.5 %)	138 (65%)	211

In the faculty corpus and the GS corpus, the word *teaching* was used as a noun with a percentage of 60% and 65% respectively. *Teaching* was used more as a pre-noun modifier (40%) in the faculty corpus as in *teaching career* (5 occurrences), *teaching evaluation* (3 occurrences), *teaching strategies* (9 occurrences), *teaching philosophy* (9 occurrences) and *teaching practice* (8 occurrences). In the GS corpus, *teaching* was employed as a pre-noun modifier in 34.5% of the instances and was used before the nouns *approaches*, *methods*, *objectives*, *philosophy*, *strategies*, *opportunities*, and *goal(s)*.

Table 45 demonstrates the parts of speech of learning in the faculty and GS corpora. It can be noted that the pattern of use in each corpus is different. *Learning* is used as a pre-noun modifier 58 times in the faculty corpus and 88 times in the GS corpus.

Table 45

Parts of Speech of Learning

learning	**Pre-noun modifier**	**Noun**	**Total raw frequency**
Faculty corpus	58 (33.3%)	116 (66.6%)	174
GS corpus	88 (44.2%)	111 (55.7%)	199

The faculty corpus shows that *learning* is used more as a noun than as a pre-noun modifier. It accounts for 66.6% of the 174 occurrences of *learning*. When it is used as a noun, it tends to occur with the pronoun *their* and the proposition *for* as in *their learning* and *for learning*. It is used as a pre-noun modifier as in *learning experience(s)* (10 occurrences),

learning style(s) (8 occurrences), *learning process* (7 occurrences), and *learning objectives* (5 occurrences).

Similarly, in the GS corpus, *learning* is used as a noun more than a pre-noun modifier. It tends to frequently occur with the proposition *of* as in *the process of learning, an integral part of learning*. When it is used as a pre-modifier for a noun, it occurs most frequently with *style(s)* (17 occurrences), *process(s)* (15 occurrences) and *environment* (9 occurrences).

The examination of the most frequently shared content words in both corpora reveals that the two groups use these words to a similar degree with no striking differences found.

8.3.2 Keywords in the Statements of Faculty and Graduate Students

To extract keywords for each corpus, the frequency wordlist of the faculty corpus was compared against the frequency wordlist of the graduate student's corpus and vice versa. Table 46 and Table 47 present the keywords of the faculty corpus and the GS corpus.

Table 46

The Faculty Keyword List in Relation to the GS Corpus

Rank	**Keyword**	**Frequency**	**Keyness**
1	*our*	61	45.1
2	*assessment*	23	32.7
3	*learning*	174	24.6
4	*engagement*	17	24.2
5	*course*	84	23.8
6	*practice*	40	22.3
7	*content*	30	20.7
8	*clinical*	14	19.9
9	*feedback*	45	19.9
10	*these*	98	19.4
11	*teaching*	180	19.3

Table 47

The GS Keyword List in Relation to the Faculty Corpus

Rank	Keyword	Frequency	Keyness
1	*engineering*	26	20.1
2	*math*	26	20.1

As shown in Table 46 and 47, the faculty corpus has a greater number of keywords which can be grouped together as keywords related to evaluation (i.e., assessment, feedback) and keywords related to classroom activities such as *learning*, *teaching*, *engagement*, *practice*, and *content*. Further analysis of concordance lines was conducted for the two groups of keywords. In the faculty corpus, *our* is a keyword and it appears before the nouns: *students, lectures, work, teaching, graduate, approach, team, shared, school, reading* and *own*. Although, when examined in each text, one text used *our* 24 times because the statement was written by two instructors working as a team. However, the remaining texts used it as well (37 occurrences). The keyword list of the GS corpus contains only two words related to the subjects of the courses graduate students teach. These are *engineering* and *math*.

8.3.3 N-grams in the Statements of Faculty and Graduate Students

The faculty and GS corpora have different sizes, therefore, a different threshold for each corpus was applied to extract four-word n-grams (Ädel & Erman, 2012; Biber & Barbieri, 2007) (see Chapter 5, section 5.10.3).

The faculty corpus contained 20 n-grams after exclusion of one context-specific n-gram and one faulty n-gram. Three overlapping n-grams were combined into one long n-gram. The GS corpus contained 25 n-grams after exclusion. One context-specific n-gram was excluded from the list. Table 48 displays the list of n-grams for each corpus. The raw

frequency and normalized frequency per 10,000 words are displayed. The shared n-grams are highlighted at the top of the list.

Table 48

N-grams in the Faculty and GS Corpora

Faculty n-grams N=20	**Raw frequency**	**Norm. frequency**	**GS n-grams N= 25**	**Raw frequency**	**Norm. frequency**
Shared n-grams					
I believe that students	4	2.1	*I believe that students*	5	1.2
to be able to	4	2.1	*to be able to*	7	1.7
one of the most	3	1.6	*one of the most*	6	1.5
Not shared n-grams					
opportunities for practice and feedback in	9	4.8	*I have found that*	10	2.5
my approach to teaching	8	4.3	*the end of the*	10	2.5
at the university of	7	3.7	*outside of the classroom*	8	2
in the course material	6	3.2	*at the beginning of*	6	1.5
I am able to	3	1.6	*at the end of*	6	1.5
in a way that	3	1.6	*encourage my students to*	6	1.5
of the course content	3	1.6	*in a variety of*	6	1.5
one of the primary	3	1.6	*in the real world*	6	1.5
students are able to	3	1.6	*to their own lives*	6	1.5

students to work in	3	1.6	*want my students to*	6	1.5
that good teachers are	3	1.6	*as a teacher is*	5	1.2
that I needed to	3	1.6	*by the end of*	5	1.2
that it is my	3	1.6	*end of the quarter*	5	1.2
the importance of a	3	1.6	*end of the semester*	5	1.2
to share in the	3	1.6	*I believe that students*	5	1.2
to work together to	3	1.6	*I encourage students to*	5	1.2
what they are learning	3	1.6	*I want them to*	5	1.2
			it is important to	5	1.2
			my role as a	5	1.2
			of my teaching philosophy	5	1.2
			the first day of	5	1.2
			to create an environment	5	1.2

The two sub-corpora share three n-grams: *I believe that students*, *to be able to*, and *one of the most*. The n-gram *I believe that students* occurs more frequently in the faculty corpus at 2.1 per 10,000 normalized frequency compared to 1.2 in the GS corpus. Similarly, the n-gram *to be able to* occurs in the faculty corpus at 2.1 per 10,000 compared to 1.7 per 10,000 in the GS corpus. The n-gram *one of the most* occurs at a similar normalized frequency in both corpora.

Other than the three shared n-grams, each corpus uses a different set of n-grams as can be seen from the lists. When apprentice writing and experts' writing were compared for

lexical bundles in previous research, it was common for the apprentice writers (i.e., students or learners) to have different bundles than those in the experts' writing. In addition, the structures of n-grams and their discourse functions were different between experts and novice writing (Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a). To explore any differences in structure and function, a structural classification and a functional classification are presented below.

Table 49 shows the structural classification of the n-grams of the faculty and the GS corpora. Figure 17 demonstrates the structural distribution of the n-grams.

Table 49

Structural Classification of the N-grams in the Faculty and GS Corpora

	NP-based	**PP-based**	**VP-based**
Faculty	*my approach to teaching*	*at the university of*	*I believe that students*
	opportunities for practice	*in the course material*	*to be able to*
	and feedback in	*in a way that*	*I am able to*
	one of the most	*of the course content*	*students are able to*
	one of the primary		*students to work in*
	the importance of a		*that good teachers are*
			that I needed to
			that it is my
			to share in the
			to work together to
			what they are learning
GS	**NP-based**	**PP-based**	**VP-based**
	the end of the	*outside of the classroom*	*I have found that*
	one of the most	*at the beginning of*	*to be able to*
	end of the quarter	*at the end of*	*encourage my students to*
	end of the semester	*in a variety of*	*I believe that the*
	my role as a	*in the real world*	*want my students to*

the first day of	*to their own lives*	*I believe that students*
	as a teacher is	*I encourage students to*
	by the end of	*I want them to*
	of my teaching philosophy	*it is important to*
		to create an environment

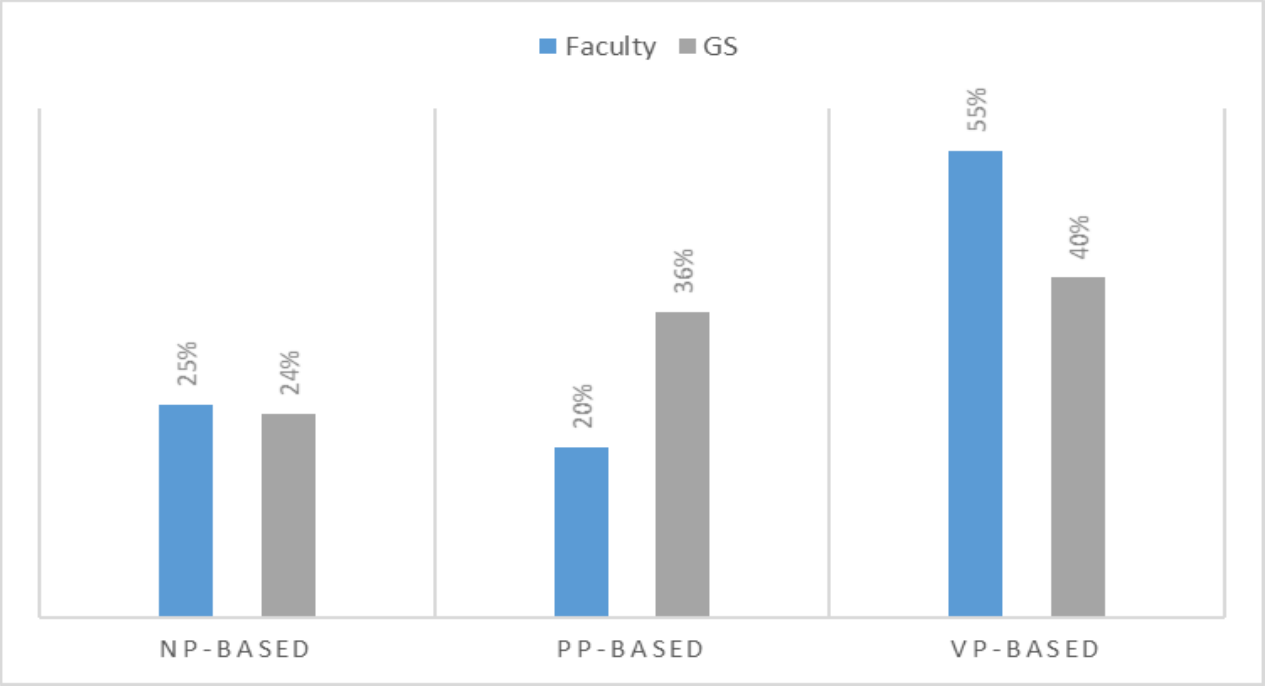

Figure 17. Structural distribution of n-gram types in the faculty and GS corpora

As indicated in Table 49 and Figure 17, VP-based n-grams are the most prevalent in both the faculty and GS corpora. An earlier finding confirmed when n-grams were investigated in the TPSs corpus (see section 8.2.3). Based on these observations, it can be concluded that the TPS genre is unique in being a written discourse with characteristics more typical of the spoken than written discourse.

VP-based n-grams account for most of the n-grams in both corpora and are most frequent in the faculty corpus (55%). VP-based n-grams are found in spoken genres such as conversation and classroom teaching compared to written genres in previous research (Biber,

2006, 2009; Biber et al., 1999). The high proportion of VP-based n-grams in both corpora suggests that TPSs make use of some of the characteristics associated with spoken genres.

The proportion of VP-based n-grams varies between the expert and students' corpora, with the expert corpus (faculty) having more VP-based n-grams. This result does not corroborate Chen and Baker (2010) finding that student writing had more VP-based n-grams than expert writing and NP/PP-based n-grams proportion was higher in the expert writing which supports the fact that TPS genre is more VP oriented although it belongs to written discourse.

The faculty corpus employs more VP-based n-grams but if we examine these VP-based n-grams, the n-grams centre around students, good teachers, and activities for students in the classroom. The TPS genre includes a range of activities and reports on how these activities are performed in the classroom as well as demonstrates the beliefs and philosophies of the teacher (stance expressions) which utilize VP-based structures, for example, *I believe that, I have found that*. These might be potential reasons why VP-based n-grams are the most prevalent in the TPS genre.

The PP-based n-grams vary between the two corpora with the faculty corpus having the lowest proportion of 20% and the GS with 36% proportion. PP-based n-grams are the second highest structural n-grams in the GS corpus. A closer look at the patterns shows that PP-based are used to refer to time and place. This will be elaborated on in the functional classification in Table 50.

The use of NP-based n-grams is similar across the two corpora with a proportion of 25% in the faculty corpus and 24% in the GS corpus. NP-based n-gram are the most prevalent in written academic English (Biber et al., 1999; D. Liu, 2012) but in the TPS genre, they are the least frequently used among the three structures.

Table 50 presents the functional classification of the n-grams in the faculty and the GS corpora.

Table 50

Functional Classification of the N-grams in the Faculty and GS Corpora

		Sub-function	**Faculty corpus N-grams**	**GS corpus N-grams**
Stance expressions	Attitudinal/modality stance	Epistemic stance (personal)	*I believe that students*	*I have found that* *I believe that the* *I believe that students*
		Obligation/directive (personal)	*that I needed to*	
		Obligation/directive (impersonal)	*the importance of a*	*it is important to*
		Desire		*want my students to* *I want them to*
		Intention/prediction	*students to work in* *to share in the* *to work together to*	*encourage my students to* *I encourage students to* *to create an environment*
		Ability/possibility	*to be able to* *I am able to* *students are able to*	*to be able to*
Referential expressions	Specification of attributes	Identification/focus	*one of the most* *one of the primary* *that it is my*	*one of the most* *as a teacher is* *my role as a*
		Intangible framing attributes	*my approach to teaching* *opportunities for practice and feedback in* *in a way that*	*of my teaching philosophy*

	that good teachers are	
	what they are learning	
Tangible framing	*in the course material*	
attributes	*of the course content*	
Quantity specification		*in a variety of*
Time reference		*end of the quarter*
		end of the semester
		the first day of
		the end of the
		at the beginning of
		at the end of
		by the end of
Place reference	*at the university of*	*outside of the*
		classroom
		in the real world
		to their own lives

Figure 18 demonstrates the proportion of each function in both corpora and Table 51 shows the functional distribution in terms of types in each corpus for the discussion of similarities and differences in the following section.

Figure 18. Functional distribution of n-gram types in the faculty and GS corpora

The proportion of use of n-grams in both referential expressions and stance expressions functions is similar between the two corpora as Figure 18 demonstrates. The referential expressions are the most frequently occurring in both corpora with a relatively close proportion of 55% in the faculty and 60% in the GS corpus. The stance expressions are less frequent but again occur with a close proportion in the two corpora (45% in faculty and 40% in GS). No discourse organizer n-grams are present in the functions of n-grams in both corpora. The high usage of referential expressions is a characteristic found in academic prose (Biber et al., 2004) and used more in expert writing when compared to novice writing (Chen & Baker, 2010). Here, the two groups of experts and novice writers used referential expressions in a similar proportion but the GS corpus used different patterns than those found in the faculty corpus as follows.

Table 51

Functional Distribution of N-gram Types in the Faculty and GS Corpora

Function and sub-function	Types in Faculty	Types in GS
Stance expressions		
Epistemic stance (personal)	1	3
Obligation/directive (personal)	1	--
Obligation/directive (impersonal)	1	1
Desire	--	2
Intention/prediction	3	3
Ability/possibility	3	1
Referential expressions		
Identification/focus	3	3
Intangible framing attributes	5	1
Tangible framing attributes	2	--
Quantity specification	--	1
Time reference	--	7
Place reference	1	3
Total	**20**	**25**

Regarding stance expressions, we find more epistemic stance n-grams in the GS corpus compared to the faculty corpus. This observation is confirmed by Cortes (2004) in which biology students used more stance bundles than expert writers and more specifically, students with higher level of proficiency used more stance bundles than those of lower proficiency levels. The GS corpus contains texts written by graduate students who are regarded as high proficiency students showcasing their stance toward teaching and learning.

As Table 51 illustrates, graduate students employed more referential n-grams referring to time and place compared to no references to time in the faculty and only one reference to place. Referential n-grams referring to time are usually found in students' writing more than experts' writing (Cortes, 2004; Hyland, 2008a) and are also common in written university registers researched by Biber and Barbieri (2007).

Cortes (2004) compared the n-grams commonly used in research articles in history and biology with students' writing in the same disciplines and found that n-grams such as *at the end of* and *at the beginning of* were used by students more than experts. Time markers were found to occur in written course management and institutional writing which referred to certain times related to classes and courses. The time reference n-grams in the GS corpus are also connected to the beginning and end of the class or course, what Cortes (2002) calls temporal markers referring to a point or a period in time. The reason for these time references might be that graduate students are trying to visualize and describe the classroom timeline by emphasizing the beginning and the end of the semester.

Referential expressions/ place reference is also used more commonly and differently in the GS corpus compared to the faculty corpus. The GS corpus contains references to outside the classroom and the real world as in *real world* and *own lives*. These n-grams reflect a particular teaching philosophy adopted by graduate students in which they see that learning is to be applied in the real-world and it is one of the steps found in Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts*/ *applying learning to life outside classroom.* A close examination of these place references shows that it reflects rather a teaching philosophy and not a place or a location.

In the faculty corpus, one place reference was used which is *at the university of* functioning to refer to the place of the institution. Place references are found mostly in written institutional writing (one kind of the university registers) and these references include classrooms, offices or names of institutions (Biber & Barbieri, 2007). In the faculty corpus, more n-grams pertaining to tangible and intangible framing attributes in referential expressions are used more than in the GS corpus such as *my approach to teaching* and *in the course material*.

The interaction between the structural and functional classification of n-grams are explored and presented in Figure 19 and 20.

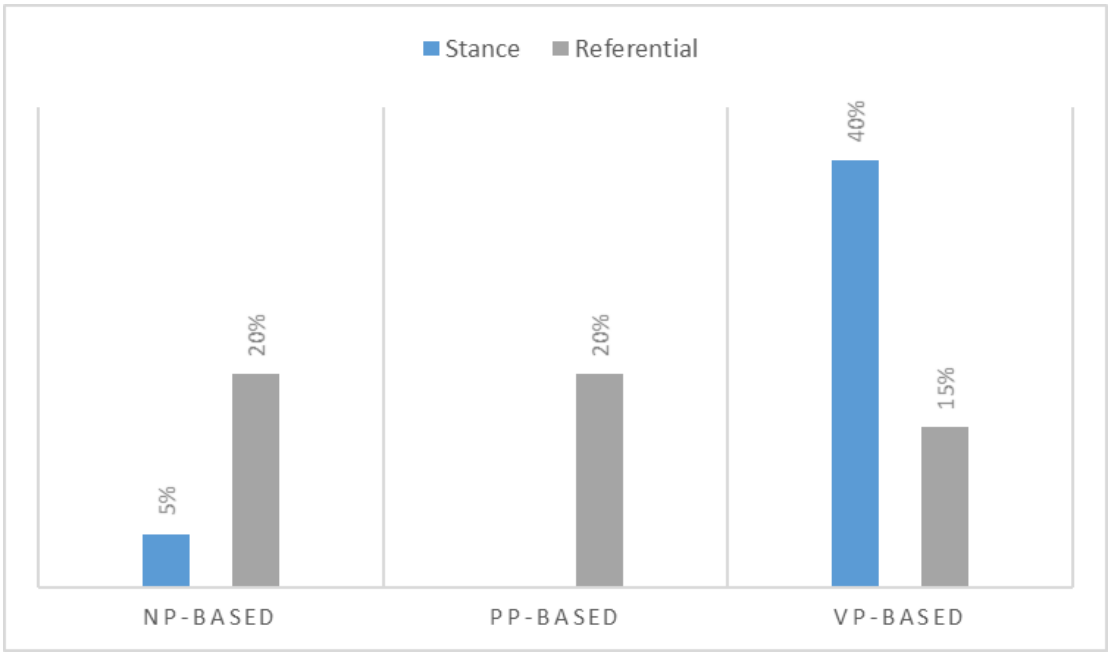

Figure 19. The interaction between structural and functional categories of n-grams in the faculty corpus

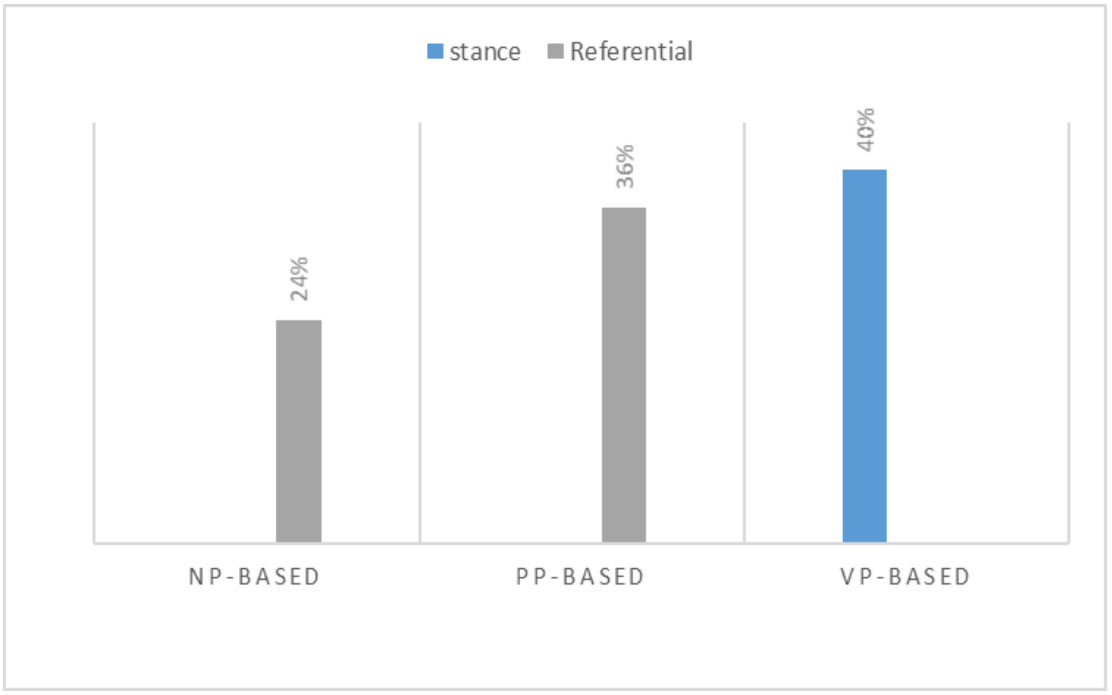

Figure 20. The interaction between structural and functional categories of n-grams in the GS corpus

One general observation is that VP-based n-grams are mostly used in both corpora for stance expressions and NP/PP-based n-grams are mostly used for referential expressions. In the faculty corpus, NP as well as VP-based n-grams are used for stance expressions while the GS corpus uses exclusively VP-based n-grams for expressing stance and no other structure type is used for this purpose.

Another observation in the faculty corpus is the use of a mix of NP, PP and VP-based n-grams for referential expressions while in the GS corpus, only NP and PP-based n-grams are in use. This pattern has been observed in student writing in previous research done by Cortes (2002) in which she examined freshman composition lexical bundles and compared it to academic prose bundles. She concluded that using NP/PP based n-grams was mostly associated with referential expressions pertaining to time and place in freshman composition.

8.4 Summary of the Corpus-based Findings

The following sections present a summary of the findings of corpus-based analysis regarding the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams in the three levels of analysis.

8.4.1 Most Frequent Words

When the most frequent words are examined within each move, the pronoun *we* was found to be frequent in Move 10 which was used in an inclusive manner referring to both the teacher and the students. In terms of the most frequent words in the TPSs corpus, content words are present at the top of the list compared to function words when compared to the BAWE corpus and these content words are also identified as keywords in this genre. The most frequent pronouns used are *I* and *they, their* and *them* which indicates the focus of the genre is on the teacher and the students in the classroom. The absence of the pronoun *you* in

this genre suggests that the statements might not be concerned about engaging the reader (However, other reader engagement features are found such as questions, see Chapter 7, section 7.8).

The most frequent words in the faculty and GS corpora were examined through concordance lines and the part of speech for students, teaching and learning were explored in each corpus to identify how these words were used. *Students* and *learning* were used mostly as a noun in both corpora and teaching was used as a pre-noun modifier and a noun occurring with a similar percentage of use in each corpus.

8.4.2 Keywords

Keywords found in each obligatory move correspond to the function of the move as seen in the analysis which shows the lexical choices of the writers. The keywords analysis shows that some words such as *students, teaching, learning, material, course, learn, teach,* and *believe* are keywords in the TPSs corpus compared to written academic English. These keywords were further analysed by looking into their context in concordance lines and finding their collocates. Keywords in the faculty corpus were words related to evaluation and assessment. In the GS corpus, the two keywords: *math* and *engineering* were identified. These two keywords were referring to subject courses which graduate students were teaching.

8.4.3 N-grams

The 3-word n-grams extracted from the obligatory moves were found to correspond to the functions of the moves. In move 1, the n-grams: *I believe that* and *my teaching philosophy* are found. *I believe that* functions as a personal epistemic stance expressing the teacher's views on teaching and learning. Move 9 was characterized by the n-gram *in the classroom*. In

move 10, *I try to*, and *a variety of* were identified and show the focus on teaching practices. Move 11 had only one n-gram *as well as* which functions as a discourse organizer. Move 12 n-grams reflected the function of stating goals and outcomes of teaching and contained the n-grams: *goal is to, be able to, in the classroom, my students to,* and *of the course*.

In considering the characteristics of the n-grams found in the TPS genre, two main observations can be made regarding the n-grams in the study. The first observation is that TPS make use of VP-based n-grams more than NP or PP-based, which is one characteristic they share with spoken genres such as conversations or classroom teaching. The second observation is that TPSs share some characteristics of academic prose as well as written university registers such as written course management and institutional writing (Biber & Barbieri, 2007). The statements share characteristics of academic prose which make use of referential expressions and fewer number of discourse organizers. This is also confirmed in the comparison between the faculty and graduate students' statements.

The difference in the pattern of use of the referential expressions is obvious. The faculty corpus employs referential expressions which belong to intangible and tangible framing attributes such as *in a way that* and *in the course material*. The GS corpus includes more referential expressions relating to time such as *at the beginning of* and *the first day of* and place such as *outside the classroom*. In addition, the focus of using NP/PP-based referential expressions is a pattern observed in classroom teaching as well as in the TPSs of faculty and GS.

The previous research I used here to compare the present study findings to is mostly based on corpora of published research articles and academic textbooks and these might not be applicable to the TPS genre addressed in this thesis. Nonetheless, previous findings provide evidence supporting the characteristics of n-grams in written genres and those associated with experts' and novice writing. N-grams have different distributions and

frequency depending on the discipline or genre being investigated (Durrant, 2017; Hyland, 2008a; Scott & Tribble, 2006a). Where appropriate, I did compare the findings of the present study to previous research on academic writing and written genres. However, the TPS genre has its own distinctive characteristics. The prevalence of VP-based n-grams is obvious.

As well, the body of research on lexical bundles distinguishes mostly between L1 and L2 writing (e.g., Ädel & Erman, 2012; Shin, 2019) which the present study does not employ because the main focus is on the TPS genre, or compares two groups of experts with L1 and L2 background (e.g., Pan et al., 2016; Pérez-Llantada, 2014; Salazar, 2014). Fewer studies examine the expert vs. student writing bundles (e.g., Chen & Baker, 2010; Cortes, 2004; Durrant & Mathews-Aydinli, 2011; Hyland, 2008a) which I used to compare the faculty and GS n-grams findings.

8.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter has reported on the corpus analysis of the TPSs corpus. The analysis entailed three levels: the move level, TPSs, and faculty (expert) vs. GS (students) comparison level. Each level yielded different results but these findings all come together to describe the TPS genre. The most frequent words, keywords and n-grams were extracted and explained and the findings of this chapter, along with the findings from the move analysis in Chapter 7, will be used to describe the authentic examples and compare them to published advice on writing TPSs in the next chapter.

Chapter 9

Guides on Teaching Philosophy Statements Writing

This chapter presents and discusses the findings of the contextual analysis which seeks to answer the following question:

- In what ways, if any, do the genre discourse and organization identified in the present study align with the published advice on writing teaching philosophy statements?

A survey of the guides available on writing TPSs shows that the guides are either journal articles dedicated for the writing of the statements or a part of a bigger guide on writing teaching portfolios (see Chapter 2) or other related genres such as resumes (e.g., Swales & Feak, 2011). The comparison includes 12 journal articles and 2 websites giving guidelines on writing TPSs (see Chapter 5 for a list of these and Appendix F for the contents of these guides). The following sections first describe the agreed-on format and components of TPSs and the language recommended by the guides. After presenting these, a comparison between what these guides recommend and what the examples of TPSs contain will be discussed. The comparison is based on the identified moves and the corpus-based analysis presented in the previous two chapters.

9.1 Format and Components of TPSs in the Guides

Many of the examined guides included in the present study shared similar suggestions for writing a TPS. In terms of the length of the document, the guides agree that a one to two pages is an acceptable length for the teaching statement. Only two of the guides provided a suggested structure of the statements. These are Coppola (2002) and Eierman (2008).

Coppola suggests starting with a title of the document which can be simply “statement of teaching philosophy of x name” or a more creative title that the teacher chooses to use. The title can be followed by an optional quote that can be used to explain the teaching philosophy adopted. Then, thesis statements or questions and answers can be employed to write the teaching philosophy followed by a narrative based on the thesis statements. It can end with a summary of the statement.

With a more specific structure, Eierman (2008) proposes starting with a description of experience of teaching, and proceed with a philosophy of teaching and learning which can include how the teacher thinks learning and teaching occurs with assessment of both. This can be followed by a description of teaching interests, a summary and a list of references used in the statement.

Generally, the guides provide advice on what to include in the teaching statement with no preferred order. They share these components which can be categorized into five main categories as shown below:

- Beliefs and concepts of teaching and learning
- Goals of teaching
- Teaching methods
- Learning and teaching assessment
- Professional growth

Other suggested components of the TPS are *motivation for teaching* (Goodyear & Allchin, 1998), *accomplishments and experience in teaching* (Eierman, 2008; Goodyear & Allchin, 1998; O’Neal et al., 2007; Schönwetter et al., 2002), *the use of specific examples of classroom activities* (Kaplan et al., 2007; Kenny et al., 2018; O’Neal et al., 2007), and a

description of the *learning environment* that shows interaction with students (Coppola, 2002; Eierman, 2008; Goodyear & Allchin, 1998; O'Neal et al., 2007). In addition to these components, Eierman (2008) and Kenny et al. (2018) recommend citing references at the end of the statement. These include any references used to explain the teaching philosophy background of the teacher.

Another important element that all the guides mention is the alignment of these components (i.e., beliefs, examples, goals and teaching methods). As well, the enactment of goals should be clear through a description of teaching methods in the classroom. A description of an inclusive learning environment (including diversity) in the classroom should be evident in the TPS (Boye, 2012; Faryadi, 2015; Goodyear & Allchin, 1998; Kaplan et al., 2007; O'Neal et al., 2007).

9.2 Language Recommended in the Guides

The general guidelines prefer the use of first-person pronoun *I* and the present tense. Avoiding technical terms or jargon is advisable so readers can understand the text whatever their background is. Other than these general recommendations, language use is not given much attention in these guides. Neaderhiser (2016) notices that "when language use is brought up at all, it is often in negative references to buzzwords, catchphrases, and jargon" (p.413). However, little attention is given to what to use in the statements. The present study sheds light on the linguistic features of the identified moves along with an examination of the language in the TPSs.

These will be discussed in the comparison in the following section.

9.3 Comparison of the Guides to the Present Study Corpus

The following sections address the similarities and differences between the guides and the TPSs examples in terms of the format and components based on the move analysis and the language of TPSs based on the corpus-based analysis.

9.3.1 Format and Components

In terms of the format of the statements, the GS corpus followed the recommendation of the length of one to two pages. The faculty corpus had texts that varied between two pages to four pages so the texts in this corpus tended to be longer than the GS corpus texts. This might be due to the instructions provided by the preparation course in the institutions on writing TPSs for the GS corpus (see Appendix E) or the lack of instructions for the faculty corpus. Another possible explanation is that faculty members can be considered as the experienced members of the discourse community and those members are able to manipulate, deviate and change genre conventions (Hyon, 2018) (see Chapter 3, section 3.3.3).

In terms of the components of the statements, the identified moves correspond to many of the components recommended in the writing guides.

Figure 21 shows the shared components of the TPSs corpus (moves) and the recommended components in the guides.

Move 1: Focusing on philosophical concepts
Move 2: Improving teaching (professional development)
Move 3: Reasons or motivation for teaching
Move 4: Showing experience and qualifications of teaching
Move 9: Describing features of the learning environment
Move 10: Focus on teaching practices
Move 11: Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process
Move 12: Stating teaching goals and outcomes

Figure 21. Shared moves in the guides and the TPSs corpus

Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts* is consistent with the guides on writing TPSs but it is realized in the move analysis with specific steps that address the *philosophical background*, or *applying learning to life outside the classroom*, or *using a quote or simile* to describe the philosophy. These steps make it more specific and focused to help write a TPS. Move 2 is also recommended in the guides and is present in the corpus. This move describes the teacher's improvement efforts and professional development. Reasons or motivation for teaching and experience and qualifications of teaching are two components mentioned in the guides and are identified as Move 3 and Move 4 in the corpus.

In addition, a description of the learning environment (Move 9) is included in both the guides and the examples in the present study corpus. Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices* presence is consistent with the guidelines on including teaching methods and it incorporates the recommendation of Kaplan et al. (2007) and others of using specific examples of classroom activities. It also encompasses other steps such as *technology use in the classroom* and *focusing on diversity*. The concept of diversity is articulated in the TPSs corpus in two ways: the first one is accommodating the different learning styles and backgrounds of the learners by adopting varied teaching methods and practices. The second is through creating

an inclusive learning environment for students. These two aspects are realized through Move 9 and 10 which are also identified as obligatory moves occurring in at least 50% of the texts.

Move 11: *Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process* and Move 12: *Stating teaching goals and outcomes* are core components found in both the writing guides and the corpus in this study. Move 11 includes different steps to realize the move such as *providing examples of evaluation* and *using feedback to adapt methods*.

The findings on the most frequent moves in the corpus (five obligatory moves) is consistent with the guidelines on the most important components to include in TPSs. Nevertheless, the move analysis identified several moves that were not present in the guides but were identified in the examples included in the corpus. These moves are presented in Figure 22.

Move 5: Emphasizing the rewards of being a teacher
Move 6: Acknowledging mentors and other teachers for current experience
Move 7: Setting a good example for students
Move 8: Pointing to students' difficulties, mistakes, or preconceptions
Move 13: Focusing on the subject/course taught
Move 14: Facing a problem or a challenge

Figure 22. Moves only present in the move analysis of the TPSs corpus

The above identified moves suggest that there is no "one size fits all" (Neaderhiser, 2016b, p. 8) model for writing TPSs. The writer has a repertoire of different moves that can be used to write the TPS which can be adapted according to the context in which the statement is required being a part of a job application, a part of a grant or award or a reflective piece on teaching practices.

Looking at moves identified in the faculty TPSs and those identified in the graduate students TPSs, the faculty identified moves correspond to the components mentioned in the

guides with Moves 1, 9, 10, 11 and 12. These are all obligatory moves identified in the faculty corpus. However, the GS corpus only shares move 10, 11 and 12 with the components mentioned in the writing guides. This might suggest that the guides are being more consistent with patterns found in the expert TPSs than being oriented towards the patterns found in the graduate students TPSs.

The sequence of the moves is not fixed as the findings in Chapter 7 show. This flexible order of the moves or components of the TPSs is recognized in the literature as noticed by Coppola (2002) and Supasiraprapa and De costa (2017). The analysis revealed that there are preferred patterns of moves co-occurring in the texts such as the occurrence of Moves 10, 11 and 12.

Although it is not one of the aims of this study to investigate the alignment of the beliefs, examples, goals and teaching methods in the TPS, the move analysis revealed move patterns of these components as illustrated in Chapter 7. The moves that correspond to these components in the guides are moves 1, 10, and 12. The two moves 10 and 12 appear to co-occur in the following patterns: 10-12, 12-10, 10-12-10, or 12-10-12. It can be suggested that the teaching methods, examples, and goals are aligned in their occurrence in the texts, however, the alignment of these elements cannot be tested through the analysis conducted in the present study. To investigate such an issue, a different analysis approach must be adopted that considers different documents and participants, which is beyond the scope of this study.

In two of the guides on writing TPSs, Eierman (2008) and Kenny et al. (2018) recommend using references to literature on teaching philosophies. The examples in the present study did not have a reference list per se, except for one document in the faculty corpus and one in the UK corpus. Some documents had a quote explaining their adopted teaching philosophy (7 out of 46). This also raises the issue of reference to the major educational philosophies of teaching explained in Chapter 2. The examples in the present

study did not reference any of these philosophies or their connected theories. A possible reason for this is that teachers might not be familiar with these theories based on their teaching background and qualifications. Instead, a personal teaching philosophy is reflected such as in these examples:

1) *One of the key elements of my teaching philosophy is the importance of encouraging students to engage in divergent, critical and analytical reasoning.*

(U-M SS 13)

2) *My teaching philosophy is strongly rooted in student centred teaching*

(U-C 38)

As the examples show, teaching philosophies are beliefs held by the teachers and they did not refer to the main educational philosophies. These beliefs might be seen as "rooted strongly in past experience, particularly from time spent as learners or as teachers" (Hobbs, 2011, p. 152). In the present study corpus, the teaching philosophy includes experience as learners which dictated the teaching philosophy held by the teacher or past experience that led to beliefs about teaching and learning. Another source of teaching philosophy is teaching styles as in teacher-centred versus student-centred teaching. These were the main sources that teachers draw on in their statements in the examples.

The identification of questions in the TPSs is an interesting finding which is not addressed in the literature on TPSs nor appears in the writing guides. The questions are used as a means of reader engagement (Hyland, 2005b). Questions were used as a part of some moves as in the move focusing on teaching practices (Move 10) for a possible aim of visualizing how teaching occurs in the classroom.

9.3.2 Language in TPSs

An examination of the language used in TPSs revealed that the first-person pronoun *I* is highly frequent in the example statements with the combinations *I believe that* and *I try to* being highly used in the texts with present time as the results show in the corpus-based analysis in Chapter 8. These findings are in line with the advice on writing TPSs.

The present study expands the literature on TPS language by examining the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams on different levels. For example, the obligatory moves are examined for keywords and n-grams which correspond with the function of each move. The phrase *I believe that* is mostly associated with Move 1 which focuses on philosophical concepts. As well, the examination of the most frequent words in the obligatory moves shows that the pronoun *we* is mostly used in Move 10 which focuses on teaching practices indicating the inclusivity of the teaching process involving the teacher and the students in the classroom. The findings reported in Chapter 8 enrich the body of literature on empirical studies of TPSs and serve as an initial guide on language used for crafting a TPS.

9.4 Chapter Summary

This chapter offered an overview of the guides on writing TPSs. It addressed the recommendations on the format, components, and language of TPSs. A comparison between the recommendations of these guides and the examples included in the present study is offered. The format and components of the TPS seem to align with the advice with some extra moves revealed by the move analysis. The language of the TPS is scarcely addressed in the guides except for using first person pronouns and the present tense. The corpus-based analysis of this study offers a rich description of the most frequent words, keywords and n-grams utilized in this genre.

The next chapter offers a summary and a discussion of the findings of the present study and answers the research sub-questions.

Chapter 10

Summary of Findings and General Discussion

This chapter answers the research sub-questions of the present study and discusses the findings in Chapters 7, 8 and 9. The main question of this thesis is

- What are the linguistic patterns observed in teaching philosophy statements?

The following analyses were designed to answer the main research question and sub-questions and provide a linguistic description of the TPS gerne using move analysis, corpus-based analysis, and offer a comparison of the writing guides to these findings. The discussion is introduced here in light of the research sub-questions and in relation to the literature review on TPSs presented in Chapter 2 and the previous studies on corpus-based genre analysis presented in Chapter 4.

10.1 Textual Analysis Key Findings and Discussion

The textual analysis focused on moves and steps identified in the TPS genre to describe the structure of these texts. The two sub-questions are:

- What are the move and step patterns in the teaching philosophy statement genre?
- Are there any differences in the moves and steps of teaching philosophy statements written by faculty members and those written by graduate students?

10.1.1 Moves and Steps in TPSs

The analysis adopted Swales (1990) methodological framework and the analytical steps of a corpus-based genre analysis detailed in Connor et al. (2007) and presented in Chapter 6. The analysis identified 14 moves in the TPSs genre.

As there are no prior models of move analysis on TPSs, to the best of my knowledge, the identified moves in the present study are compared to previous analyses of the TPSs themes and contents (see Chapter 2, section 2.6). The moves and the steps are:

Move 1: *Focusing on philosophical concepts*

Step 1: background to the philosophy

Step 2: applying learning to life outside classroom

Step 3: using a quote or simile

Move 2: *Improving teaching (professional development)*

Move 3: *Reasons or motivation for teaching*

Move 4: *Showing experience and qualifications of teaching*

Move 5: *Emphasising the rewards of being a teacher*

Move 6: *Acknowledging mentors and other teachers for current experience*

Move 7: *Setting a good example for students*

Move 8: *Pointing to students' difficulties, mistakes, or preconceptions*

Move 9: *Describing features of the learning environment*

Move 10*: Focus on teaching practices*

Step 1: give concrete examples of teaching activities

Step 2: technology use in the classroom

Step 3: focusing on diversity

Move 11: *Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process*

Step 1: provide examples of evaluation

Step 2: using feedback to adapt methods

Move 12: *Stating teaching goals and outcomes*

Move 13: *Focusing on the subject/course taught*

Move 14: *Facing a problem or challenge*

Bullard and Mclean (2000) found that the two main teaching philosophies held in the UK higher education are (1) to encourage students to take the responsibility to learn and (2) to encourage students to think critically. These two philosophies are reflected in Move 1, 10 and 12 and are present in the corpora originating from different sources. Therefore, it is important to note that the teaching philosophy is not confined to the first move identified in the analysis but it is reflected through the whole statement when writers are describing their teaching practices and, in the move, where they are stating their teaching goals.

Move 2, which focuses on improving teaching by being involved in seminars or workshops, is one of the themes identified in TPSs in previous studies (e.g., Carraway & Burris, 2017; Sankey & Foster, 2012). Moves 9, 10, 11, 12 and 13 are identified in Sankey and Foster (2012) and Payant (2017) analysis of emergent themes in TPSs but the moves are categorized under different names and in multiple categories in these previous studies as Table 52 shows.

Table 52

A Comparison of the Moves Identified in the Present Study and Previous Research

Moves identified in the present study	**Themes identified in Sankey and Foster (2012)**	**Themes identified in Payant (2017)**
Move 9: *Describing features of the learning environment*	*Conducive learning environment*	*Personal beliefs about*

	Build student rapport	*language learning (creating a supportive learning environment)*
Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices* *Step 1: give concrete examples of teaching activities* *Step 2: technology use in the classroom* *Step 3: focusing on diversity*	*Instructional variability*	*Description of teaching approaches*
Move 11: *Evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning process* *Step 1: provide examples of evaluation* *Step 2: using feedback to adapt methods*	*Provide opportunity to learn*	*Not identified*
Move 12: *Stating teaching goals and outcomes*	*Organization and clarity*	*Not identified*
Move 13: *Focusing on the subject/course taught*	*Expert in subject matter*	*Not identified*

As can be seen from the comparison above, many moves identified in the present study are packed together in one single theme or topic in the previous research of TPSs. The aim of this study is to offer guidance on writing a TPS. The identified moves can serve as a guide for writing a TPS along with certain language features identified in the obligatory moves as well as the corpus-based analysis, providing detailed description for this purpose.

The moves were examined in the corpus to evaluate their frequency of occurrence, length, sequence, and cyclicity. Based on the calculations of frequency of occurrence, five obligatory moves were found to appear in at least 50% of the texts in the corpus. These are

Moves 1, 9, 10, 11 and 12. *Table 18* (Chapter 7) presents the functions of these moves and their observed linguistic features.

Loudermilk (2007) and Samraj and Monk (2008) investigations of occluded genres conclude that these genres are characterized by a lack of obligatory moves or a limited number of obligatory moves, with most of the identified moves considered optional.

When investigating the order of the moves in the TPSs genre, no fixed order of moves was observed. This observation is also found in previous studies of genre analysis on written genres such as the strategic plan in organizations (Cornut et al., 2012), doctoral theses in the visual and performing arts (Paltridge et al., 2012), manuscript reviews (Samraj, 2016), grant proposals (Cotos, 2019), and the MBA thought essay (Loudermilk, 2007). The absence of a linear sequence of moves is also observed in spoken genres such as lecture introductions (S. Thompson, 1994) and TED talks (Y. J. Chang & Huang, 2015).

Loudermilk (2007) hypothesised that occluded genres exhibit two characteristics: variation and hybridity. The variation hypothesis states that occluded genres have a flexible structure and lexicogrammatical features. The hybridity of occluded genres means that the genre embodies and includes different characteristics of multiple genres that writers use to construct the occluded genre because they do not have access to examples or do not have the genre knowledge required.

The reason for this flexibility might be due to the fact that these examined genres and the TPS genre in this study are not highly conventionalized (L. Flowerdew, 2005) as other genres such as the research article whose rhetorical structure has been heavily studied. In addition, the variation in move sequencing is particularly reported in occluded genres rhetorical structure analyses such as Ding (2007), J. Flowerdew and Dudley-Evans (2002), Loudermilk (2007) and Samraj (2016). Another possible reason for the lack of fixed order of moves in the TPS genre can be attributed to the focus on the teacher as an individual. The

TPS is considered a particularly personal text which represents the author of the document (Coppola, 2002; Payant & Hirano, 2018). The flexibility of the move sequence might be seen as reflecting the personal and individual teacher's identity in TPSs (Beatty et al., 2009b).

I observed the co-occurrence of moves which revealed that Moves 10, 11 and 12 are in proximity to one another in the TPSs. This co-occurrence sheds light on the importance of these moves which are also obligatory in the genre. The teaching practices and methods are usually followed by the goals and outcomes expected. Also, evaluation of the teaching and learning co-occurs with these two functions as illustrated by the patterns in Chapter 7. This might suggest that teachers try to align these important elements in the TPSs by discussing them in turn.

As for the cyclicity of moves, the most frequent and cyclical move in the corpus is Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices*. This move was present in 100% of the texts and occurred 285 times in the corpus, suggesting that it is very important to explain and reflect on the teaching activities, different teaching methods used in the classroom as well as providing concrete examples of how teaching occurs.

In the UK statements, which were limited in number, Moves 10 and 12 were the most frequent moves in the texts. The UK statements share three obligatory moves identified in the earlier analysis of US-based and Canada-based TPSs. These are Moves 1, 10 and 12. These similarities between TPSs, regardless of originating from different sources and locations, suggest that the TPS genre is a distinctive genre with its own rhetorical structure and occurrence of certain moves.

One interesting and surprising finding was the presence of questions in the statements. The questions appeared in different moves and were not exclusive to one move. The purpose of these questions as observed in the statements is used as a means of reader engagement (Hyland, 2002b) , especially when used in move 10 which helps the reader to visualize the

classroom and the way teachers are interacting with students by providing questions asked by the teacher, for example in introducing new topics.

10.1.2 Moves and Steps in Faculty and GS TPSs

The faculty and graduate students' statements were studied to detect any differences in move structure. All the moves were present in both corpora but the status of some moves changed. For example, Move 4: *Showing experience and qualifications of teaching* was found to occur in different percentages across the corpora with the highest percentage occurring in the faculty corpus. A possible explanation for this can be attributed to the faculty having years of experience and highlighting this experience in their statements while graduate students might have limited experience in teaching and holding other roles and responsibilities within an institution. Another difference is step 2 in move 11 which focuses on *technology use in the classroom*. This step is absent in the faculty corpus while it was present in the GS corpus. Again, this might be due to the graduate students being learners who focus on the technology aspect of teaching more than faculty TPSs do.

The move analysis revealed that the TPS genre consists of several moves which function to articulate not only the teaching philosophy but also teaching practices and methods in the classroom. The move analysis was complemented by the corpus-based analysis in which its main findings and discussion are presented in the next section.

10.2 Corpus-based Analysis Key Findings and Discussion

The corpus-based analysis of TPSs was designed to answer the following sub-questions:

- What are the lexicogrammatical features associated with the identified moves?
- What are the most frequent words, keywords, and n-grams that characterize the teaching philosophy statement genre?
- What, if any, are the differences in the frequent words, keywords, and n-grams of teaching philosophy statements written by faculty members and those written by graduate students?

10.2.1 Lexicogrammatical Features of Moves

The five obligatory moves identified in the move analysis were examined to investigate their linguistic characteristics. What stood out in the frequent word lists was the pronoun *we* in Move 10: *Focus on teaching practices*. The pronoun was used inclusively to refer to the teacher and students and shows how the teacher builds relationship and unity with the students (Payant & Hirano, 2018). This finding can help novice writers and students in writing a TPS. The focus on inclusivity is important throughout the statement but it is more important when discussing teaching practices and methods used in the classroom.

The keywords of each move corresponded with the function it serves. Move 1 included keywords related to *philosophy*, *teaching*, *educational*, *belief,* and *believe*. Move 9 included keywords pertaining to classroom *environment*, *office,* and *respect*. Move 10 had three keywords related to teaching practice: *use*, *example* and *or*. Move 11 had the greatest number of keywords which are *feedback*, *evaluations*, *assess*, *exams*, *assignments*, *tests*, *grading*, *comments*, *assessment*, and *papers*. All related to evaluation and assessment of teaching and learning. Move 12, functioning to state teaching goals and outcomes, had the following keywords: *goal*, *their*, *thinking*, *challenge*, *skills*, *them*, *they*. The keyword pronouns that appear in this move refer to students in the classroom.

Three-word n-grams were investigated in each move and resulted in a total of 17 n-grams. Again, n-grams can be linked to the function of each move. For example, Move 1 had the n-gram *I believe that* which corresponds to its function of focusing on philosophical concepts. Move 10 also had n-grams such as *a variety of* describing the different methods used to teach and Move 12 had *goal is to* and *be able to* as n-grams linked to stating teaching goals.

These features found in the moves come together to describe the TPSs genre and provide specific instructions as well as vocabulary to use when crafting a statement. As the analysis of the keywords and n-grams on the move level shows, a close relationship is present between the moves and their lexis.

10.2.2 Linguistic Features of the TPS genre

Payant (2017) states that TPSs are likely to "follow the conventions of academic papers, especially when intended to be shared with potential employers" (p. 649). The analysis suggests that TPSs do follow some of the characteristics of academic prose but have their own distinctive characteristics as the findings show.

The findings revealed the most frequent words in the TPSs genre are those related to classroom, classroom activities and participants such as *student(s), teaching*, *learning*, and *class*. As well, the most frequent pronouns are *I* and *my*. These distinctive words and pronouns characterize this genre which focuses on classroom and teaching practices with self-mention pronouns that show the stance of the teacher in their philosophy statement and describe the teaching process. The prevalence of the first-person pronoun is recognized in previous research on TPSs (Payant & Hirano, 2018; Supasiraprapa & De costa, 2017; Yeom et al., 2018). Kearns and Sullivan (2011) state that the TPS "draws upon personal experiences and refers to the first-person point of view, unlike the familiar forms of disciplinary writing,

such as journal articles and academic books" (p. 139). This observation is confirmed in the analysis of TPSs in the present study.

Compared to a reference corpus, keywords in the TPSs corpus were examined. The results show that the TPSs corpus has more key nouns than key verbs, a shared characteristic with academic writing (Biber et al., 1999). The keywords were also connected to teaching, learning and evaluation.

Four-word n-grams are extracted from the corpus and classified structurally and functionally according to the models proposed by Biber et al. (1999) and Biber et al. (2004). The results show interesting n-grams in the TPSs such as *outside of the classroom*, *in the real world*, *I firmly believe that*, *to their own lives* which are mostly related to teaching philosophy being articulated in the statements and these appear distinctively in this genre. Some of the n-grams in the TPSs are commonly found in academic prose such as *at the university of*, *the end of the*, and *one of the most* (Biber et al., 1999; Cortes, 2004). The identified n-grams in the TPS genre such as *my approach to teaching*, *encourage my students to*, *as a teacher is*, and *to improve my teaching* show that the genre favors a set of word sequences connected to actions in the classroom and which can be utilized for learners who might write in this genre.

The structural classification showed that the TPS is VP-based dependent with 46.4% of the n-grams. This characterizes this genre and makes it distinguishable from other academic prose which is more dependent on NP-based n-grams (Biber et al., 1999). The communicative purpose of the genre might be the reason for these VP-based n-grams in which teachers describe their own teaching beliefs that use expressions such as *I believe that* and *I have found that* and also illustrate their teaching practices and goals by expressions such as *to create an environment* and *I am able to*.

The functional classification revealed that n-grams mostly function as referential expressions. A common feature shared with academic prose (Biber, 2009) and with written

university genres (Biber & Barbieri, 2007). Nevertheless, the absence of discourse organizing n-grams suggests that the TPS genre does not share such a feature with academic writing.

It can be seen from the patterns of the n-grams that the TPS genre can be characterized as VP-based, with more referential expressions than stance expressions. These patterns suggest that the TPSs genre has its own characteristics as it differs from academic prose in some respects and shares some of the conversation, classroom-based language, and university registers features (Biber & Barbieri, 2007).

10.2.3 Linguistic Features in Faculty and GS Corpora

Similarities between the statements written by faculty and those written by graduate students can be noticed. Both corpora shared frequent words and VP-based n-grams. The examination of the most frequent words in both corpora served to eliminate bias by not only looking at differences as in the keyword analysis but also examining similarities in both corpora (Taylor, 2018).

The differences were mostly in the keywords generated for the two corpora. However, this does not emphasize difference as much as it highlights the words that are used by each group of writers which can also be affected by the different corpora size, the range of disciplines and majors involved and the experience of writers of each corpus. The GS keywords were connected to topics they teach such as *math* and *engineering*. The faculty keywords included evaluation-related words such as *assessment* and *feedback*.

Another noticed difference was that graduate students used more stance n-grams and time references than the faculty corpus. The findings corroborate Cortes (2004) study in which students used more stance expressions and time references compared to expert writers. A possible explanation for this result is that graduate students are encouraged to articulate their teaching philosophy through the rubric and questions offered to instruct them in writing

the TPS (see Appendix E for the rubric for composing a TPS). The students used more time references to make it possible to visualize the classroom with time referring to the first day and end of the semester, a common temporal reference found in students' writing n-grams (Cortes, 2002).

Place references were employed differently by the graduate students who used them to refer to a specific teaching philosophy that connects what is being taught in the classroom to the outside world. This difference in use may be affected by their view of learning as students. The faculty corpus contained more referential n-grams belonging to intangible and tangible framing attributes such as *my approach to teaching*, *in a way that*, *in the course material*, and *of the course content*. This might reflect the experience of the faculty members and how they connect and root their philosophy within course content and student learning outcomes.

10.3 Contextual Analysis Key Findings and Discussion

In this analysis, a comparison between the findings of the textual and corpus-based analysis of authentic TPSs and the writing guides on TPSs was conducted to answer the sub-question:

- In what ways, if any, do the genre discourse and organization identified in the present study align with the published advice on writing teaching philosophy statements?

The format, components, and length of the TPS have been suggested in writing guides. The genre schematic structure identified in the examples mostly align with what guides recommend with additional moves that have been identified in the move analysis. The core components suggested by the guides are found in the model presented in Chapter 7 that

includes all the identified moves in the genre. The moves correspond to the following components found in the guides: (1) beliefs and concepts of teaching and learning, (2) goals of teaching, (3) teaching methods, (4) learning and teaching assessment, and (5) professional growth.

In addition to these core moves found in the examples, other moves were found that were not included in the guides such as emphasizing the rewards of teaching, acknowledging mentors, and pointing to students' difficulties, mistakes, or preconceptions. Although these are not identified as obligatory moves in the analysis, they still form a part of the TPS and offer the writer a range of choice of what to focus on besides the core components/moves mentioned above. Also, faculty TPSs contain moves that are more common to the components of the guides than the GS corpus identified moves.

The non-sequential order of the moves is supported in the guides which do not offer a fixed order in which components can occur (Coppola, 2002; Supasiraprapa & De costa, 2017). This is also true in the examination of the TPSs corpus of the present study which includes texts that are considered as best practice. However, the analysis of the co-occurrence of moves in the examples revealed that some moves tend to occur near to each other such as Moves 10, 11 and 12.

The language of TPS is rarely addressed in the literature, except for a few studies (e.g., Payant, 2017; Supasiraprapa & De costa, 2017) and is also overlooked in the writing guides. The only aspects of language that are mentioned are the preference for the first-person pronoun and the present tense in TPSs. The present study examined the obligatory moves and the TPSs corpus by looking at the most frequent words, keywords and n-grams which are presented in Chapter 8 and discussed in section 10.2 of this chapter.

Despite the existence of "how-to" guides on TPS writing, the examination of authentic examples of TPSs revealed several important findings in terms of the structure of

the genre as well as the language used in the texts. The present study hopes to offer a schematic structure of TPS in an effort to describe this genre along with a linguistic description of the moves.

10.4 The Genre of TPS

The genre of TPS can be characterized by several distinctive moves and linguistic features that can be put into use to help novice writers and experts in writing a TPS. Heiberger and Vick (2001) state that

> While the word "philosophy" is often used as part of the name for this document, it is perhaps better thought of as a brief essay that will give a hiring committee an idea of what you actually do in the classroom. You will need to make some general statements, but make sure to include examples that illustrate what you mean by them. If at all possible, describe things you have already done, or at least seen in practice, rather than give examples which are entirely hypothetical. (p. 98)

The core move found in the genre is *focusing on teaching practices* which includes steps of *providing concrete examples of teaching activities, technology use in the classroom* and *focusing on diversity*. This move was found to occur in 100% of the texts in the corpus with a cyclical pattern. It also occupies a large amount of space in the TPS. Therefore, we can conclude that a TPS, while including many moves identified earlier, puts special focus on what happens in the classroom providing examples of teaching activities. The description of teaching approaches can be visualized as the core of the TPS and it is of “utmost importance” (Payant & Hirano, 2018, p. 44).

The TPS genre is considered as an occluded *supporting* genre (Swales & Feak, 2011) in the professional development of teachers along with other genres such as the curricula vita (CV), cover letters and job applications among others (see Chapter 3, Figure 4) that can

constitute what Bhatia (2004) calls *genre colonies*. Genre colonies are "the grouping of related genres within and across disciplinary domains" (p. 67). These related genres share a communicative purpose but are still different in some respects. An example of a genre colony is reporting genres which consist of business reports, police reports and medical reports. Supporting genres as suggested by Swales can be thought of as those genres that are required for an academic or research career.

It can be concluded from the move analysis and the corpus-based analysis that the TPS is a hybrid genre (Bhatia, 2004, 2017) (see Chapter 3) that mixes features from academic and promotional genres such as job application letters, reference letters and CV. Regarding the content, TPSs share moves found in promotional genres such as the CV and job application letters. All these genres list experience and professional development (Henry & Roseberry, 2001a; Solin, 2018; Upton & Connor, 2001) as a constituent move in their structure. Although in a TPS, experience and professional development is more elaborated on than in a job application letter or a CV.

TPSs are expected to follow the academic writing conventions (Payant, 2017). In the present study, the corpus-based analysis showed that many linguistic features are present in the TPS such as noun keywords, shared academic n-grams such as *at the university of* and *one of the most*, and the majority of n-grams functioning as referential expressions referring to intangible attributes such as *in a way that*, and *my approach to teaching* as well as time and place references such as *the first day of*, and *at the university of*. Referential expressions are more common in academic writing (Biber et al., 2004) than stance expressions and discourse organizers.

The high use of the first-person pronoun and VP-based n-grams are features common in conversations and classroom-based language. The presence of these features attests to the

hybrid nature of the TPS genre in which features from spoken and written language exist and mix.

It is worth noticing that the similarities between faculty and graduate students TPSs in the move analysis and the corpus-based analysis highlights this distinctive genre structure and linguistic characteristics which depends on the first-person perspective with VP-based n-grams that describes the activities in the classroom and the teaching goals such as the n-grams *to be able to* and *encourage my students to*.

Examples from the TPSs corpus show that there are a range of moves used in the texts which are not mentioned in the guides. However, the main components suggested by the writing guides appear as obligatory moves in the present study corpus. The analysis offers a complete model for writing a TPS with linguistic descriptions of each move.

10.5 Chapter Summary

This chapter discussed the main findings of the present study by answering the research questions. The key findings of the textual, corpus-based, and contextual analyses are presented. The main features of the TPS genre are mapped and discussed.

The next chapter will present a summary of the contributions of this study, the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 11

Conclusion

This chapter includes a summary of the contributions of the present study which include theoretical and pedagogical contributions. The chapter also discusses the limitations of the study and concludes with recommendations for future research.

11.1 Summary of Contributions of the Present Study

The present study aimed to explore the TPS genre by applying genre analysis methods to characterise the genre discourse structure and the lexicogrammatical features. Additionally, the findings were compared to the guides on writing TPSs. The present study made several contributions theoretically and pedagogically.

11.1.1 Theoretical and Methodological Contributions

The literature review on TPSs research showed that there are gaps regarding the discourse structure and language used in these important documents. Previous research (e.g., Alghbban et al., 2017; Bruff, 2007; Neaderhiser, 2016a; Payant & Hirano, 2018; Rossetti & Fox, 2009; Supasiraprapa & De costa, 2017) focused mostly on teacher identity, metaphors, and common themes found in TPSs and mostly ignored the structure and organization of authentic examples of these documents and how language is used. The present study findings can be considered a contribution to the growing body of knowledge in the areas of genre analysis, corpus linguistics and TPSs research. Combining both genre analysis and corpus-based analysis methods, the findings highlighted the structure of TPS which is based on authentic examples of the genre and not only based on recommendations and guides on writing a TPS. Swales (1990) move analysis proved useful and extendable to other genres.

The integration of genre-based and corpus-based analyses allowed us to see how language is used in this genre and within moves and strengthened the findings of move analysis adapted in this study. In addition, the guides on writing TPSs were also examined for alignment of what teachers write and what advice is given and differences were present in the examples as highlighted in the findings. It is important to note how actual practice is different from the advice given in "how to write" guides.

Another methodological contribution is the use of MAXQDA software to analyse the texts. The software facilitated the move analysis by using a range of functions in the program such as *code frequency* and *code coverage* that helped in determining the obligatory and optional moves in the TPS genre. Visual tools in MAXQDA such as *code matrix browser*, *document map*, *document portrait*, and *document comparison chart* helped in envisioning the structure and the move order in TPSs. This software can be utilized more in genre analysis and used in future studies concerning uncovering genre structure. MAXQDA user-friendly interface makes it easier to explore and visualize texts in genres under investigation.

11.1.2 Pedagogical Contributions

The important pedagogical contribution of the study can be seen in implementing the move model and the lexicogrammatical features findings to help students and practitioners in writing a TPS. The findings can be implemented in designing course materials for graduate students or used to raise awareness of the genre in teacher training and teacher preparation courses. Specific examples retrieved from the move model and the corpus-based analysis such as keywords and n-grams might be beneficial for writers more than clarifying what not to include in the TPS as suggested in the writing guides. The findings can also be offered to specific audience such as in Saudi Arabia where this proposed model of moves and steps can

offer a better understanding of what to include in a TPS and the organizational structure of TPS when writing one, for example, for quality assurance processes in academic institutions.

11.2 Limitations and Future Research

The size of the corpus of the present study is considered relatively small to generalize the findings. However, having a specialized corpus of TPSs served the aims of the present study which focus is to uncover the macro and microstructure of this genre.

I aimed to get a parallel corpus from the UK to be able to compare the genre in different contexts and make intracultural comparisons in the constructing of these documents but this, unfortunately, was not possible as explained earlier. Another limitation of the present study is having an internal perspective, interviews with the writers of the texts to gain insights of the writing of a TPS. This was not possible due to the anonymity of some of the writers and lack of access to those who are identified.

Future research can focus on expanding the size of the corpus and have different corpora of TPSs written in different parts of the world while having interviews with the writers of these documents. In addition, a focus on disciplinary variations in TPS can be explored in future studies.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Approval Letter

Downloaded
: 09/01/2020
Approved:
09/01/2020

Atekah Abaalkhail
Registration
number:
170271619
School of
English
Program: PhD in English

Language and Linguistics

Dear Atekah

PROJECT TITLE: Understanding Teaching Philosophy Statements as a Genre: A Corpus-based Discourse Analysis of Rhetorical Moves and Linguistic Features
APPLICATION: Reference Number 026766

On behalf of the University ethics reviewers who reviewed your project, I am pleased to inform you that on 09/01/2020 the above-named project was **approved** on ethics grounds, on the basis that you will adhere to the following documentation that you submitted for ethics review:

- University research ethics application form 026766 (form submission date: 09/09/2019); (expected project end date: 28/01/2022).
- Participant information sheet
- 1063403 version 4 (09/09/2019).
  Participant consent form 1063404
  version 4 (09/09/2019).

If during the course of the project you need to deviate significantly from the above-approved documentation please inform me since written approval will be required.

Your responsibilities in delivering this research project are set out

at the end of this letter. Yours sincerely.

Please note the following responsibilities of the researcher in

delivering the research project:

- The project must abide by the University's Research Ethics Policy: https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/rs/ethicsandintegrity/ethics policy/approval-procedure
- The project must abide by the University's Good Research & Innovation Practices Policy: https://www.sheffield.ac.uk/polopoly_fs/1.671066!/file/GRIPPolicy.pdf
- The researcher must inform their supervisor (in the case of a student) or Ethics Administrator (in the case of a member of staff) of any significant changes to the project or the approved documentation.
- The researcher must comply with the requirements of the law and relevant guidelines relating to security and confidentiality of personal data.
- The researcher is responsible for effectively managing the data collected both during and after the end of the project in line with best practice, and any relevant legislative, regulatory or contractual requirements.

Appendix B: Invitation Email

Subject Line: Participants sought for an Applied linguistics study

Hello,

My name is Atekah Abaalkhail and I am a PhD researcher in the School of English at the University of Sheffield. I am writing to invite you to participate in my research study titled "Understanding Teaching Philosophy Statements as a Genre: A Corpus-based Discourse Analysis of Rhetorical Moves and Linguistic Features".

You are eligible to be in this study because you were accredited with an associate fellowship from the UK Higher Education Academy (HEA) through the University of Sheffield. I obtained your contact information from the Elevate website under staff recognition in the University of Sheffield.

If you decide to participate in this study, you will be asked to share a document you wrote for the fellowship that includes your teaching philosophy. The information you provide is confidential and any personal details will be anonymized. No judgments will be made on these texts as the study aims to analyse the structure and language of teaching philosophy statements.

You can find the consent form for the study and the information sheet attached to this email. If you decide to participate, please fill out the consent form and attach the document and send them by email to aabaalkhail1@sheffield.ac.uk

This study has been reviewed and approved by the research ethics committee in the University of Sheffield, UK.

Please do not hesitate to contact me for any further questions.

Thank you,

Atekah Abaalkhail
PhD Researcher
School of English
University of Sheffield

Appendix C: Participant Information Sheet

Understanding Teaching Philosophy Statements as a Genre: A Corpus-Based Discourse Analysis of Rhetorical Moves and Linguistic Features

Information for participants

Invitation

You are invited to take part in a research study that is examining teaching philosophy statements and their discourse organization.

What is the purpose of the study?

This research aims to advance knowledge about the schematic structure of teaching philosophy statements. It will contribute to many graduate students who are required to write the text for a job application. It will also provide insights for teacher training programs and allow them to expand their understanding of the genre characteristics and the rhetorical as well as linguistic features used to construct the text.

Why have I been asked to participate in this study?

This study requires the participation of a select number of UK-based teachers and instructors. It is intended that by selecting teaching philosophy statements from the UK, the researcher can identify cultural similarities/differences between statements generated in the US, Canada, or the UK. The collected texts are not going to be judged or criticized in any way but rather examined for their discourse structure and linguistic features for the purpose of clarifying the process of writing these statements.

What will I be asked to do?

This research requires the text (teaching philosophy statement or case study) that you wrote for a job or for the Higher education academy fellowship accreditation. The teaching philosophy statement might include one or all of the following:

-Your own beliefs about teaching and learning

-Approaches to teaching

-Reflection on teaching

Are there any possible risks from participation in this study?

We do not foresee any risks from participation in this research; please let us know if you have any concerns through the contact information at the end of this document.

The data will be kept in an electronic folder on the password protected computer of the researcher. Any paper data will be kept in a locked cabinet in the University of Sheffield.

What if I change my mind during or after the study?

You are free to withdraw from this study at any time before 31/08/2020. All data relevant to your participation will be destroyed.

How will my confidentiality and anonymity be maintained?

The researcher will assign codes to data to ensure anonymity of individual participants in the publication or dissemination of any findings from this study.

Who do I contact if I have questions about this study?

Contact details are:

Atekah Abaalkhail

Aabaalkhail1@sheffield.ac.uk

This study has been approved by the Research Ethics in the University of Sheffield.

You will need to provide your consent to be involved.

Kind regards,

Atekah Abaalkhail

Appendix D: Websites of Universities

- First corpus (The University of Michigan U-M)

  http://www.crlt.umich.edu/tstrategies/tstpum.html

- Second corpus (Ohio State University)

  https://ucat.osu.edu/professional-development/teaching-portfolio/philosophy/

- Third corpus (The University of Calgary, Alberta)

  https://taylorinstitute.ucalgary.ca/resources/teaching-philosophies-dossiers/sample-teaching-philosophy-statements

Appendix E: Rubric for Composing and Evaluating a TPS

Adapted from O'Neal et al. (2007) (p.7)

Categories	Excellent	Needs Some Revision	Unsatisfactory
Goals for student learning: What knowledge, skills, and attitudes are important for student success in your discipline? What are you preparing students for? What are key challenges in the teaching-learning process?	Goals are clearly articulated, specific, and go beyond knowledge level, including skills, attitudes, career goals, etc. Goals are sensitive to the context of the instructor's discipline. They are concise, not exhaustive.	Goals are articulated but may be too broad or not specific to the discipline. Goals focus on basic knowledge, ignoring skills acquisition and affective change.	Articulation of goals is unfocused, incomplete, or missing.
Enactment of goals (teaching methods): What teaching methods do you use? How do these methods contribute to your goals for students? Why are these methods appropriate for use in your discipline?	Enactment of goals is specific and thoughtful. Includes details and rationale for teaching methods. The methods are clearly connected to specific goals and are appropriate for those goals. Specific examples of the methods in use within the disciplinary context are given.	Description of teaching methods not clearly connected to goals, or if connected, not well developed (seems like a list of what is done in the classroom). Methods are described, but generically; no example of the instructor's use of the methods within the discipline is communicated.	Enactment of goals is not articulated. If there is an attempt at articulating teaching methods, it is basic and unreflective
Assessment of goals (measuring student	Specific examples of assessment tools are	Assessments are described, but not	Assessment of goals is not articulated or

learning): How do you know your goals for students are being met? What sorts of assessment tools do you use (e.g., tests, papers, portfolios, journals), and why? How do assessments contribute to student learning? How do assessments communicate disciplinary priorities?	clearly described. Assessment tools are aligned with teaching goals and teaching methods. Assessments reinforce the priorities and context of the discipline both in content and type.	connected to goals and teaching methods. Description is too general, with no reference to the motivation behind the assessments. There is no clear connection between the assessments and the priorities of the discipline	mentioned only in passing.
Creating an inclusive learning environment, addressing one or more of the following questions: How do your own and your students' identities (e.g., race, gender, class), backgrounds, experiences, and levels of privilege affect the classroom? How do you use multiple teaching approaches? How do you integrate diverse perspectives into your teaching?	Portrays a coherent philosophy of inclusive education that is integrated throughout the statement. Makes space for diverse ways of knowing and/or teaching approaches. Discussion of roles is sensitive to historically underrepresented students. Demonstrates awareness of issues of equity within the discipline.	Inclusive teaching is addressed but in a cursory manner or in a way that isolates it from the rest of the philosophy. Author briefly connects identity issues to aspects of his/her teaching	Issues of inclusion are not addressed or addressed in an awkward manner. There is no connection to teaching practices
Structure, rhetoric, and language: How is the reader engaged? Is the language used appropriate to the	The statement has a guiding structure and/or theme that engages the reader and organizes the	The statement has a structure and/or theme that is not connected to the	No overall structure present. Statement is a collection of disconnected

discipline? How is the statement thematically structured?	goals, methods, and assessments articulated in the statement. Jargon is avoided and teaching terms (e.g., critical thinking) are given specific definitions that apply to the instructor's disciplinary context. Grammar and spelling are correct	ideas actually discussed in the statement, or organizing structure is weak and does not resonate within the disciplinary context. The statement contains some jargon	statements about teaching. Jargon is used liberally and not supported by specific definitions or examples. Needs much revision.

Appendix F: Content of Writing Guides on TPSs

Publications on Writing Teaching Philosophy Statements:

Publication	Content
Boye (2012)	What is a teaching philosophy, and what is its purpose; **what to include in a teaching philosophy: the big picture; some do's and don'ts: fine-tuning your statement**
Chism (1997)	**The format of the statement**; **components of the statements**; examples of statements
Coppola (2002)	What is a teaching philosophy; how is the statement used; **what is the structure of the statement**; **what is good advice for writing a statement**
Eierman (2008)	Variability in evaluation of teaching potential; purposes of the teaching philosophy statement; **the organizational structure**
Faryadi (2015)	Introduction; my objectives in writing teaching philosophy statements; what is teaching philosophy; **fundamental components of my teaching philosophy statement**; my teaching philosophy statements; how do I measure success in my class
Goodyear and Allchin (1998)	The setting; roles of statements of teaching philosophy; **creating a statement of teaching philosophy**; what is a statement of teaching philosophy; a process of articulating teaching philosophy; **contents of statements of teaching philosophy**; recommendations to faculty developers

Kaplan et al. (2007)	Uses of teaching statements; **what makes a successful statement**; the rubric; how is the rubric used; validation
Kenny et al. (2018)	Teaching expertise in postsecondary education; **teaching philosophy statements**; educational leadership philosophy statements; creating a teaching dossier; reading and evaluating teaching dossiers
O'Neal et al. (2007)	**Writing a teaching philosophy statement for academic jobs**; rubric for evaluating the statement
Schönwetter et al. (2002)	**Writing guidelines for a teaching philosophy statement**; evaluation of teaching philosophy statement
Swales and Feak (2011)	Getting into graduate school; finding your voice in the academic community; establishing yourself in graduate school; supporting the publication process; writing acknowledgments; **moving on to an academic or research career**
Yeom, Miller, and Delp (2018)	A four-step model for constructing a teaching philosophy statement

Note. The parts in Bold are the relevant sections used for the comparison with examples.

Websites

Philosophy of Teaching Statement | Michael V. Drake Institute for Teaching and Learning (osu.edu)

Writing Your Teaching Philosophy | Center for Educational Innovation (umn.edu)

Appendix G: Keywords in the TPSs Corpus

1	1202	+	8038.73	0.0396	students
2	1523	+	4928.96	0.0417	I
3	898	+	4228.09	0.0287	my
4	391	+	2627.4	0.0132	teaching
5	373	+	1587.23	0.0123	learning
6	253	+	1510.54	0.0086	student
7	189	+	1434.17	0.0065	classroom
8	234	+	929.95	0.0078	me
9	271	+	825.02	0.0089	class
10	194	+	797.48	0.0065	course
11	140	+	646.41	0.0047	learn
12	93	+	620.98	0.0032	teach
13	116	+	606.62	0.004	teacher
14	54	+	474.31	0.0019	instructor
15	78	+	468.39	0.0027	courses
16	516	+	465.36	0.0133	their
17	279	+	407.26	0.0085	them
18	97	+	356.9	0.0033	am
19	116	+	352.3	0.0039	skills
20	2431	+	340.77	0.0195	to
21	90	+	323.78	0.0031	concepts
22	51	+	308.09	0.0017	assignments
23	73	+	304.07	0.0025	feedback
24	45	+	297.11	0.0015	graduate
25	65	+	295.74	0.0022	teachers

26	107	+	290.04	0.0036	believe
27	40	+	281.78	0.0014	undergraduate
28	123	+	275.05	0.0041	material
29	35	+	253.32	0.0012	semester
30	153	+	251.15	0.0049	own
31	50	+	247.97	0.0017	discussions
32	95	+	238.57	0.0032	questions
33	56	+	238.56	0.0019	lecture
34	40	+	234.54	0.0014	enthusiasm
35	66	+	228.99	0.0022	thinking
36	126	+	220.56	0.0041	knowledge
37	42	+	219.4	0.0014	lectures
38	56	+	214.22	0.0019	psychology
39	378	+	212.04	0.0098	they
40	100	+	194.99	0.0033	understanding
41	26	+	191.55	0.0009	math
42	65	+	189.66	0.0022	classes
43	190	+	186.04	0.0058	how
44	20	+	182.05	0.0007	educator
45	43	+	177.17	0.0015	learned
46	76	+	167.1	0.0026	discussion
47	34	+	164.08	0.0012	biology
48	75	+	156	0.0025	critical
49	48	+	152.77	0.0016	ask
50	59	+	152.55	0.002	experiences
51	18	+	150.27	0.0006	instructors
52	18	+	150.27	0.0006	theater

53	91	+	146.54	0.003	help
54	38	+	144.62	0.0013	engage
55	30	+	141.07	0.001	passion
56	66	+	140.99	0.0022	think
57	2162	+	140.53	0.0172	and
58	169	+	139.82	0.0052	about
59	46	+	136.34	0.0016	goal
60	73	+	131.91	0.0024	know
61	71	+	130.48	0.0024	understand
62	28	+	130.12	0.001	lab
63	88	+	127.13	0.0029	experience
64	56	+	123.8	0.0019	writing
65	22	+	122.76	0.0008	introductory
66	136	+	119.96	0.0043	work
67	40	+	118.83	0.0014	topic
68	31	+	117.85	0.0011	myself
69	61	+	115.81	0.0021	science
70	17	+	110.85	0.0006	exams
71	58	+	110.21	0.002	develop
72	40	+	109.66	0.0014	encourage
73	64	+	109.14	0.0021	feel
74	50	+	108.13	0.0017	variety
75	18	+	107.16	0.0006	curiosity
76	14	+	106.43	0.0005	pedagogical
77	23	+	105.08	0.0008	inquiry
78	15	+	101.22	0.0005	grading
79	40	+	100.71	0.0014	challenge

80	45	+	100.2	0.0015	opportunities
81	46	+	100.15	0.0016	try
82	22	+	100.09	0.0008	sessions
83	21	+	98.61	0.0007	strive
84	28	+	97.56	0.001	challenging
85	64	+	96.32	0.0021	practice
86	48	+	96.26	0.0016	want
87	50	+	95.32	0.0017	examples
88	22	+	94.92	0.0008	engaging
89	25	+	94.66	0.0009	engaged
90	381	+	94.31	0.0091	have
91	45	+	93.25	0.0015	active
92	16	+	91.5	0.0005	epidemiology
93	12	+	91.23	0.0004	mentors
94	12	+	91.23	0.0004	quiz
95	19	+	90.9	0.0007	grades
96	20	+	90.11	0.0007	assessments
97	11	+	90.04	0.0004	quizzes
98	18	+	89.92	0.0006	presentations
99	23	+	89.8	0.0008	recognize
100	22	+	89.03	0.0008	critically
101	20	+	88.1	0.0007	lesson
102	23	+	88.05	0.0008	engagement
103	37	+	87.91	0.0013	philosophy
104	11	+	87.21	0.0004	calgary
105	17	+	87.1	0.0006	evaluations
106	82	+	86.55	0.0027	approach

107	40	+	84.75	0.0014	assessment
108	33	+	84.62	0.0011	music
109	38	+	84.44	0.0013	goals
110	144	+	83.48	0.0044	through
111	16	+	83.23	0.0005	workshops
112	17	+	81.79	0.0006	participatory
113	45	+	81.61	0.0015	scientific
114	13	+	79.64	0.0004	meiosis
115	21	+	79.2	0.0007	quarter
116	21	+	78.93	0.0007	peers
117	34	+	78.73	0.0012	tools
118	23	+	78.46	0.0008	papers
119	43	+	78.31	0.0015	strategies
120	41	+	78.28	0.0014	opportunity
121	22	+	78.14	0.0008	listening
122	17	+	78.1	0.0006	collaborative
123	223	+	77.92	0.0062	these
124	147	+	77.84	0.0045	what
125	12	+	77.2	0.0004	mitosis
126	8	+	76.03	0.0003	musicianship
127	8	+	76.03	0.0003	smiley
128	21	+	75.53	0.0007	appreciation
129	11	+	74.23	0.0004	homework
130	25	+	72.35	0.0009	career
131	24	+	72.27	0.0008	taught
132	57	+	71.13	0.0019	ideas
133	16	+	71.03	0.0005	emphasize

134	41	+	70.48	0.0014	lives
135	10	+	70.44	0.0003	classmates
136	917	+	70.17	0.0133	that
137	51	+	68.31	0.0017	ways
138	24	+	67.92	0.0008	perspectives
139	48	+	67.69	0.0016	activities
140	30	+	67.59	0.001	diversity
141	21	+	67.5	0.0007	asking
142	26	+	66.96	0.0009	engineering
143	23	+	66.56	0.0008	helping
144	7	+	66.52	0.0002	edps
145	16	+	65.25	0.0005	faculty
146	22	+	63.92	0.0008	styles
147	26	+	63.71	0.0009	diverse
148	126	+	62.82	0.0039	each
149	33	+	61.03	0.0011	apply
150	23	+	60.49	0.0008	abilities
151	24	+	60.06	0.0008	intellectual
152	25	+	59.84	0.0009	learners
153	13	+	59.39	0.0004	rewarding
154	92	+	59.35	0.0029	our
155	15	+	58.87	0.0005	curriculum
156	14	+	58.57	0.0005	realize
157	88	+	58.52	0.0028	research
158	47	+	58.19	0.0016	personal
159	10	+	58	0.0003	videos
160	11	+	57.99	0.0004	experiential

161	37	+	57.64	0.0013	school
162	6	+	57.02	0.0002	summative
163	6	+	57.02	0.0002	worksheets
164	42	+	56.33	0.0014	content
165	20	+	55.89	0.0007	russian
166	26	+	53.54	0.0009	assess
167	18	+	52.69	0.0006	actively
168	20	+	52.51	0.0007	facilitate
169	7	+	52.17	0.0002	memorization
170	28	+	51.9	0.001	begin
171	37	+	51.87	0.0012	reading
172	15	+	51.56	0.0005	grade
173	50	+	51.48	0.0017	university
174	21	+	51.35	0.0007	solving
175	31	+	50.84	0.0011	objectives
176	17	+	50.75	0.0006	topics
177	83	+	49.48	0.0027	make
178	13	+	49.4	0.0004	disciplines
179	8	+	49.31	0.0003	misconceptions
180	19	+	48.48	0.0006	discipline
181	32	+	48.15	0.0011	style
182	32	+	48.09	0.0011	continue
183	6	+	48.06	0.0002	endeavor
184	71	+	47.81	0.0023	able
185	25	+	47.48	0.0009	office
186	44	+	46.67	0.0015	field
187	9	+	46.66	0.0003	formative

188	13	+	46.51	0.0004	anatomy
189	24	+	46.28	0.0008	academic
190	12	+	45.81	0.0004	realized
191	23	+	45.73	0.0008	write
192	6	+	45.61	0.0002	synthesize
193	17	+	44.95	0.0006	session
194	13	+	44.84	0.0004	motivate
195	10	+	44.44	0.0003	assistant
196	8	+	44.24	0.0003	ta
197	15	+	43.94	0.0005	hear
198	7	+	43.66	0.0002	professors
199	6	+	43.63	0.0002	instructional
200	10	+	42.54	0.0003	mentor
201	5	+	42.13	0.0002	tutoring
202	11	+	41.95	0.0004	fun
203	30	+	41.89	0.001	beyond
204	14	+	41.65	0.0005	sciences
205	40	+	41.57	0.0013	education
206	47	+	41.47	0.0016	always
207	20	+	41.39	0.0007	hope
208	14	+	41.3	0.0005	foster
209	12	+	41.02	0.0004	struggling
210	18	+	40.97	0.0006	assignment
211	9	+	40.69	0.0003	demonstrations
212	37	+	40.52	0.0012	share
213	7	+	40.03	0.0002	majors
214	7	+	40.03	0.0002	respectful

215	34	+	38.95	0.0011	improve
216	21	+	38.82	0.0007	demonstrate
217	9	+	38.73	0.0003	enthusiastic
218	19	+	38.36	0.0006	reflection
219	4	+	38.01	0.0001	samira
220	14	+	37.97	0.0005	comfortable
221	15	+	37.73	0.0005	dialogue
222	15	+	37.21	0.0005	incorporate
223	5	+	36.98	0.0002	classrooms
224	31	+	36.6	0.001	responsibility
225	20	+	36.19	0.0007	seek
226	11	+	36.14	0.0004	backgrounds
227	8	+	36.13	0.0003	facilitator
228	48	+	35.76	0.0016	find
229	47	+	35.55	0.0016	others
230	11	+	35.32	0.0004	organized
231	9	+	35.08	0.0003	utilize
232	12	+	34.85	0.0004	colleagues
233	7	+	34.85	0.0002	educators
234	18	+	34.49	0.0006	readings
235	5	+	33.74	0.0002	doctoral
236	5	+	33.74	0.0002	rubric
237	17	+	33.39	0.0006	challenges
238	7	+	33.34	0.0002	smile
239	623	+	33.3	0.0108	for
240	30	+	33.11	0.001	outside
241	473	+	33.11	0.0095	with

242	18	+	32.98	0.0006	evaluate
243	7	+	32.87	0.0002	syllabus
244	15	+	32.83	0.0005	participate
245	5	+	32.46	0.0002	alteram
246	5	+	32.46	0.0002	anonymously
247	5	+	32.46	0.0002	thoughtful
248	55	+	32.05	0.0018	provide
249	7	+	31.98	0.0002	invite
250	19	+	31.94	0.0006	deep
251	74	+	31.77	0.0024	group
252	36	+	31.71	0.0012	something
253	40	+	31.64	0.0013	several
254	24	+	31.53	0.0008	bring
255	8	+	31.52	0.0003	textbook
256	42	+	31.51	0.0014	real
257	20	+	31.5	0.0007	participation
258	90	+	31.38	0.0028	example
259	5	+	31.34	0.0002	partem
260	21	+	31.09	0.0007	multiple
261	34	+	31.03	0.0011	come
262	12	+	30.82	0.0004	prepare
263	23	+	30.79	0.0008	situations
264	46	+	30.6	0.0015	best
265	12	+	30.55	0.0004	succeed
266	15	+	30.54	0.0005	sharing
267	36	+	30.5	0.0012	effective
268	21	+	30.47	0.0007	asked

269	11	+	30.45	0.0004	listen
270	4	+	30.41	0.0001	memorizing
271	4	+	30.41	0.0001	neuropsychological
272	4	+	30.41	0.0001	rubrics
273	10	+	30.28	0.0003	analyze
274	19	+	30.25	0.0006	helps
275	14	+	30.24	0.0005	encouraging
276	38	+	30.14	0.0013	day
277	16	+	29.94	0.0005	explore
278	9	+	29.84	0.0003	analyzing
279	12	+	29.77	0.0004	behavior
280	10	+	29.4	0.0003	conversations
281	31	+	29.35	0.001	explain
282	58	+	29.24	0.0019	take
283	13	+	29.12	0.0004	peer
284	15	+	28.9	0.0005	educational
285	15	+	28.64	0.0005	enhance
286	35	+	28.6	0.0012	together
287	3	+	28.51	0.0001	anth
288	3	+	28.51	0.0001	chalkboard
289	3	+	28.51	0.0001	chorales
290	3	+	28.51	0.0001	cmmb
291	3	+	28.51	0.0001	crossroad
292	3	+	28.51	0.0001	discimus
293	3	+	28.51	0.0001	docendo
294	3	+	28.51	0.0001	mdsc
295	3	+	28.51	0.0001	squance

296	3	+	28.51	0.0001	usri
297	4	+	28.5	0.0001	lecturing
298	41	+	28.35	0.0014	every
299	9	+	28.23	0.0003	evolving
300	88	+	27.98	0.0028	well
301	24	+	27.72	0.0008	answer
302	7	+	27.66	0.0002	organize
303	36	+	27.51	0.0012	create
304	7	+	27.35	0.0002	passionate
305	18	+	27.34	0.0006	interested
306	37	+	27.16	0.0012	get
307	5	+	27.13	0.0002	geology
308	7	+	27.06	0.0002	scholarship
309	4	+	26.99	0.0001	favorite
310	13	+	26.77	0.0004	connections
311	24	+	26.75	0.0008	creating
312	6	+	26.59	0.0002	amazing
313	6	+	26.59	0.0002	michigan
314	6	+	26.59	0.0002	motivates
315	13	+	26.11	0.0004	discussing
316	10	+	25.91	0.0003	connect
317	62	+	25.88	0.002	while
318	15	+	25.82	0.0005	everyday
319	6	+	25.82	0.0002	foundational
320	6	+	25.82	0.0002	interdisciplinary
321	6	+	25.82	0.0002	overarching
322	4	+	25.73	0.0001	instill

323	26	+	25.69	0.0009	written
324	85	+	25.66	0.0027	do
325	15	+	25.6	0.0005	answers
326	6	+	25.45	0.0002	enjoyable
327	11	+	25.33	0.0004	appreciate
328	11	+	25.33	0.0004	learner
329	36	+	25.29	0.0012	throughout
330	7	+	25.17	0.0002	musical
331	16	+	25.15	0.0005	tell
332	11	+	25.1	0.0004	continually
333	23	+	25.04	0.0008	read
334	151	+	25.04	0.0043	when
335	7	+	24.93	0.0002	accomplish
336	6	+	24.76	0.0002	manifests
337	5	+	24.74	0.0002	labs
338	7	+	24.68	0.0002	excitement
339	25	+	24.68	0.0008	respect
340	4	+	24.66	0.0001	memorize
341	11	+	24.55	0.0004	mistakes
342	19	+	24.45	0.0006	projects
343	38	+	24.39	0.0013	themselves
344	12	+	24.32	0.0004	interact
345	5	+	24.23	0.0002	seminars
346	41	+	24.08	0.0014	why
347	3	+	24.03	0.0001	coms
348	3	+	24.03	0.0001	humbling
349	3	+	24.03	0.0001	melodies

350	3	+	24.03	0.0001	seis
351	3	+	24.03	0.0001	slates
352	46	+	23.91	0.0015	environment
353	7	+	23.76	0.0002	guiding
354	4	+	23.71	0.0001	approachable
355	13	+	23.69	0.0004	relevance
356	9	+	23.38	0.0003	ve
357	13	+	23.21	0.0004	definitions
358	169	+	23.14	0.0047	we
359	12	+	23.05	0.0004	creative
360	18	+	23	0.0006	effort
361	7	+	22.9	0.0002	invaluable
362	55	+	22.89	0.0018	role
363	4	+	22.88	0.0001	ohio
364	8	+	22.8	0.0003	insights
365	9	+	22.46	0.0003	fellow
366	6	+	22.36	0.0002	emphasizing
367	6	+	22.36	0.0002	formats
368	10	+	22.17	0.0003	college
369	23	+	22.15	0.0008	doing
370	40	+	22.1	0.0013	methods
371	11	+	21.97	0.0004	exam
372	30	+	21.93	0.001	program
373	26	+	21.92	0.0009	providing
374	7	+	21.91	0.0002	disciplinary
375	3	+	21.81	0.0001	grapple
376	3	+	21.81	0.0001	majoring

377	3	+	21.81	0.0001	melodic
378	3	+	21.81	0.0001	paleoanthropology
379	3	+	21.81	0.0001	rote
380	42	+	21.76	0.0014	question
381	19	+	21.73	0.0006	professional
382	11	+	21.51	0.0004	enjoy
383	12	+	21.48	0.0004	foundation
384	17	+	21.45	0.0006	responses
385	8	+	21.43	0.0003	linguistics
386	7	+	21.35	0.0002	genuinely
387	12	+	21.32	0.0004	motivated
388	5	+	21.27	0.0002	prepares
389	15	+	21.24	0.0005	strongly
390	10	+	21.23	0.0003	deeper
391	12	+	21.09	0.0004	strengths
392	20	+	21.01	0.0007	sometimes
393	8	+	21	0.0003	whenever
394	4	+	20.81	0.0001	cathedral
395	4	+	20.81	0.0001	navigating
396	4	+	20.81	0.0001	pedagogy
397	70	+	20.65	0.0022	see
398	6	+	20.62	0.0002	scholarly
399	5	+	20.58	0.0002	cultivate
400	12	+	20.55	0.0004	comments
401	3	+	20.24	0.0001	comb
402	3	+	20.24	0.0001	frye
403	17	+	20.2	0.0006	focused

404	6	+	20.18	0.0002	rhetorical
405	10	+	20.17	0.0003	developmental
406	7	+	19.99	0.0002	careers
407	17	+	19.87	0.0006	assumptions
408	11	+	19.83	0.0004	analytical
409	8	+	19.68	0.0003	moments