

A COMPARISON OF THE INTERACTIVE METADISOURSE IN THE ABSTRACTS OF ARTICLES WRITTEN BY INDONESIAN AND NES SCHOLARS

Eva Nur Mazidah
evamazidah@gmail.com
Universitas Qomaruddin

Abstract

An abstract plays an important role in an article since it becomes the face of the whole paper. Besides, voluntarily or involuntarily when writing an abstract, a writer also applies metadiscourse markers to communicate effectively by organizing, interacting, and showing the stance. Thus, the application of metadiscourse in the abstract becomes an interesting object to examine. This study aims at examining interactive and interactional metadiscourse suggested by Hyland (2005) in 50 abstracts written by Indonesian scholars and 50 abstracts written by NES scholars, 100-250 word range, taken from TEFLIN journal and ELT journal. The results show that NES scholars apply more metadiscourse markers than Indonesian scholars (83.14 versus 76.37). NES, in detail, applies more code glosses, and transition markers, while Indonesian scholars involve more frame markers and evidentials, and the similar result is found in endophoric markers (8.9 for both groups of scholars). But, from overall cases and variants, metadiscourse markers by Indonesian scholars are more varied than those of NES scholars (618 versus 559 cases, 66 versus 48 variants). The differences are mostly influenced by cultural interferences (Friedlander, 1987; Hyland, 2005; Abdi, 2009; Sanjaya et al., 2015; Mu et al., 2015). Apart from what causes the differences, the result of T-test shows that the difference in metadiscourse markers applied by both scholars is not significant. It means that metadiscourse markers applied by both groups of scholars are similar.

Keywords: abstract, interactional, interactive, metadiscourse, research article

Abstrak

Abstrak memainkan peran penting dalam sebuah artikel karena menjadi wajah seluruh makalah. Selain itu, secara disengaja atau tidak, pada saat menulis abstrak, penulis juga menggunakan penanda metadiscourse untuk berkomunikasi secara efektif dengan mengorganisir, berinteraksi, dan menunjukkan pendiriannya. Dengan demikian, penerapan metadiscourse dalam abstrak menjadi obyek yang menarik untuk diteliti. Penelitian ini bertujuan untuk mengkaji metadiscourse interaktif dan interaksional yang dikemukakan oleh Hyland (2005) dalam 50 abstrak karya akademisi Indonesia dan 50 abstrak karya akademisi NES, rentang kata 100-250, diambil dari jurnal TEFLIN dan jurnal ELT. Hasilnya menunjukkan bahwa akademisi SPN menerapkan lebih banyak penanda metadiscourse daripada akademisi Indonesia (83,14 berbanding 76,37). SPN secara rinci menerapkan lebih banyak kode glosses, dan pemarkah transisi, sedangkan akademisi Indonesia lebih banyak menggunakan frame marker dan pembuktian, dan hasil serupa ditemukan pada pemarkah endoforik (8,9 untuk kedua kelompok akademisi). Namun, dari keseluruhan kasus dan varian, penanda metadiscourse oleh akademisi Indonesia lebih bervariasi dibandingkan dengan akademisi SPN (618 berbanding 559 kasus, 66 versus 48 varian). Perbedaan tersebut sebagian besar dipengaruhi oleh interferensi budaya (Friedlander, 1987; Hyland, 2005; Abdi, 2009; Sanjaya et al., 2015; Mu et al., 2015). Selain dari apa penyebab perbedaan tersebut, hasil uji-T menunjukkan bahwa perbedaan penanda metadiscourse yang diterapkan oleh kedua kelompok akademisi tidak signifikan. Artinya, penanda metadiscourse yang diterapkan oleh kedua kelompok akademisi ini serupa.

Kata kunci: abstrak, interaksional, interaktif, metadiscourse, artikel penelitian

INTRODUCTION

Background of the Study

As firstly shown in a paper, an abstract has a vital role in an article. It is the first part of a paper read by readers, and first impression of the abstract is very significant because the writer “sells” his abstract to readers (Swales and Feak, 2001; Wallwork, 2011; Khedri). The abstract is believed to become the face of the paper because it assists readers to identify the content of the paper, to determine whether it is relevant to their interest, and others (Wallwork, 2011; Supatranont, 2012). Therefore, after reading the abstracts, readers can easily decide whether they want to continue reading the whole paper or reading a part of it.

Since writing the abstract is dissimilar to other forms of academic writing, the writer should manage his abstract to have a good impact and impression to readers. Murray (2009) emphasizes that writing the abstract is to show a rhetorical adjustment which justifies a reason of the work to study. She also emphasizes that an abstract should be clear and well written and the purpose and value of the paper are explicitly clarified (p.197). These aspects are important to write because readers can easily predict the contents of the work without reading the whole article, or readers can decide whether the article is relevant or not to his need.

Besides the abstracts which are important in research articles, the writing process also reveals two important aspects. Vande Kopple (as cited in Ozdemir and Longo, 2014) argues that the first aspect of writing demonstrates the subject of the text, and the second aspect refers to metadiscourse to assist readers to read, organize, understand, and interpret the text. The second aspect of this writing is potentially found in abstracts to present general information about the research. It is to help readers decide whether to continue reading the article or not, to help the readers understand the content, or to judge whether the abstracts meet the reviewers’ requirement. Even though in general elements presented in abstracts of journals are similar (what to present), but the way to organize the abstract (how to present) might be dissimilar.

Metadiscourse has the interaction function which he sub-classifies into the ‘interactive’ and ‘interactional’ dimensions. Interactive means items employed to organize propositional information so the readers find it convincing and coherent. The interactive consists of code glosses, transition markers, frame markers, endophoric markers, and evidentials. Interactional means features drawing the reader into the discourse and giving the reader a chance for contribution and responding to discourse by showing the writer’s viewpoint on orientation, information, and intention to the readers. Interactional resources include boosters, hedges, attitude markers, self-mention, and engagement markers. Apart from two types of metadiscourse, the focus

of this research is interactive metadiscourse covering code glosses, transitions markers, frame markers, endophoric markers, and evidentials which function is to convincingly and coherently organize propositional information in the abstract.

As many international reputable and high-impact journals are written in English, those whose L1 is not English take efforts to write academically in English. Hyland (2003) says that some of the problems are because of different culture and language which include different intuitions about language, linguistic proficiencies, sense of audience and writer, learning experiences, and ways of organizing texts, writing processes, norms or values. Furthermore, many non-NES (L1 English speaker) countries are now struggling to be internationally academically accepted and acknowledged, and international publications require them to write in English, as the lingua franca of the education world. Therefore, it becomes a big challenge to conquer for the scholars from non-NES countries. As one of the struggling countries, lately Indonesia has struggled to be internationally recognized in the education world affecting articles and journals to be written in English, especially the abstract. To do so, it is a challenge for writers to encounter because in Indonesia the position of English is still a foreign language. It is hoped that this research could assist Indonesian scholars to write effectively and communicatively to face global academic society.

In relation to the issue, this article is aimed at answering what interactive metadiscourse makers are used by Indonesian scholars when writing their abstract and whether there is a significant difference in the use of the interactive metadiscourse markers used by Indonesian scholars and English scholars.

THEORETICAL REVIEW

Language and culture have become concerns of many linguists. They believe that there is a connection among elements of a language and the world where the language is used by its speakers. It leads to a conclusion that language and culture of a society has a strong relationship. One of definitions about culture is ‘whatever it is one has to know or believe in order to operate in a manner acceptable to its members’ (Goodenough cited in Wardhaugh, 2010, p.221). As a part of culture, language is an inseparable aspect of communication because it communicates thought. As a verbal culture of a society, a language is not only an element of passive communication, but also a recording of the total values and norms of the society. So, culture in a language is possible to manifest especially in writing. It should be understood that writing is different from speaking in terms of oral and written language. If oral language is unconsciously acquired naturally, written language is developed consciously, mostly in school (Cameron and Wible cited in Llach, 2011). This is because the process of writing is relatedly connected to reading as many theories believe. In addition, Cameron and Wible (2011) also explained first and second language (L1 and L2) writing as a product and a process. Writing as a product means that a special attention should

be given to language structures. This includes accuracy of grammatical and lexical knowledge because errors in those aspects could be regarded as bad writing. Besides, the practice of writing in L2 classroom is to practice grammar and lexis to strengthen habits and knowledge of vocabulary and other grammatical structures. Furthermore, it also assists to develop writing ability in order to serve communicative purposes. Then, writing as a process means writing seen as a cognitive activity including the stages that should be performed before writing process such as planning and outlining, drafting, re-reading, revising and editing and writing seen as a social activity that includes discourse and contextual aspects. However, she also added that L1 and L2, apart from reading, are different because the acquisition process is different.

With a more holistic and functional definition of metadiscourse, Hyland has proposed a comprehensive model of MD. Hyland (2004, 2005) states that metadiscourse as a term for self-reflexive expressions whose function is to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, to help a writer to express a stance, and to engage with readers. Based on this definition, MD focuses on the interpersonal use of language, and it can be proven that MD helps writers to convey their ideas or a perspective toward their proportional information and the readers. MD also represents textual function as it organizes propositional information which are coherent for particular readers or listeners for a given context and can represent both metadiscoursal and non-metadiscoursal functions through a variety of language items (Hyland, 2004, 2005; Amiryousefi and Barati, 2011). The taxonomy of metadiscourse employed in academic writing, which was suggested by Hyland (2004), consists of two major categories called “interactive” and “interactional”. Interactive resources, as the main concern in this article, are to manage information flow to explicitly build the writer’s interpretations. Hyland (2004) says these markers organize discourse to anticipate readers’ knowledge and reflect the writer’s viewpoint of what needs to be disclosed from the text. These resources are categorized into five items (Hyland, 2004, 2005). The first marker is transition marker. It mainly includes conjunctions and is used to signal ‘contrastive, additive, and consequential steps in discourse’. Then, frame markers are as ‘references to text boundaries or elements of schematic text structure, including items used to label text stages, to sequence, to indicate topic shifts, and to announce discourse goals,’. The third is endophoric markers which make ‘additional material prominent and available to the reader in recovering the writer’s intentions by referring to other parts of the text’. The next category is evidentials which indicates textual information taken from outside the current text. The last category is code glosses which mark ‘the restatement of ideational information’.

The model of Hyland’s Interactive metadiscourse in academic texts is presented in Table 2.1.

Table 1 Taxonomy suggested by Hyland (2005, p.49)

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	Help to guide reader through the text	
Transitions	Express semantic relation between main clauses	In addition, but, thus, and
Frame markers	Refer to the discourse acts, sequences, or text stages	Finally, to conclude, my purpose here is to
Endophoric markers	Refer to information in other parts of the text	Noted above, see Fig, in section 2
Evidentials	Refer to sources of information from other texts	According to X, Z states
Code glosses	Help readers grasp functions of ideational material	Namely, such as, in other words, e.g.

Hyland (2005) also suggests that words indicate interactive metadiscourse markers. First, transition markers might include words or phrases indicating additive, inferential/causative, or comparative transitions. Second, frame markers might include words or phrases to announce goals such as ‘aim’, ‘intend to’, ‘seek’, ‘would’, ‘focuses’, and others. Third, endophoric markers possibly include words or phrases referring to the text, visual figures, or tables. Fourth, evidentials might provide sources of information cited or taken from other texts for instance ‘according to’ A, B (year), and others. Fifth, code glosses include certain punctuation and some possible words or phrases like ‘called’, ‘known as’, ‘i.e.’, ‘or’, ‘such as’, ‘for instance’, ‘for example’, relative pronouns, and others.

METHODOLOGY

The present study aims at examining the employment of interactive metadiscourse markers in the abstracts of two different journals, written by 50 abstracts written by Indonesian scholars in TEFLIN Journal and 50 abstracts written by native English scholars in ELT Journal by using a quantitative approach. Quantitative approach in social sciences, especially in applied linguistics studies, is not a new subject. Quantitative approach presents a tool to explore questions in an objective way and reduce the influence of any researcher bias or prejudice which results in a precise and reliable description of the world. Therefore, the findings of this approach are hoped to be a universally reliably high reputation enjoyable with almost any audience or groups. The data used in this research are language data involving language samples of various lengths for the purpose of language analysis.

Table 2 Description of Corpus

	Indo	NES
No. of RA abstracts	50	50
Name of journals	TEFLIN	ELTJ
Years of Publication	2006-2015	2006-2015
Length of RA abstracts (range)	100-250	100-250
Total number of words	8093	6721

A combination of manual search and computer-based searches were performed to identify interactive metadiscourse markers in the data. The approach adopted in the process of identifying metadiscourse markers was based on the semantic and/or pragmatic content of the proposition containing the markers. Therefore, attention was carefully given to those linguistics items recognized as interactive and interactional markers and other lexical items serving as interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data Presentation

The interactive metadiscourse suggests that the writer is aware of the presence of readers, thus it functions to organize the content of the text (Hyland, 2005). It is to ease the readers in comprehending the intention of the writer. In the case of abstracts, readers are assisted to obtain general information about the research article. Then, readers can decide whether they meet their interest in reading the whole paper or gaining information they required, while for reviewers, they can decide whether the writers of the abstract deserve to be accepted to write in the journal or not. In this case, the application of this first type of metadiscourse classification is found the abstracts written by the two groups, Indonesian scholars and NES scholars. Later in the following discussion, five sub categories namely code glosses, transition markers, frame markers, endophoric markers, and evidentials are explained further.

Code Glosses

Code glosses is the first sub type of interactive metadiscourse. Code glosses, according to Hyland (2005) are ‘to signal the restatement of ideational information’. It means that this sub type functions to elaborate, to modify, to define, to exemplify or to rephrase an intended idea or a concept to readers.

Table 3 Categories of Code Glosses by Indonesian and NES Scholars

Code Glosses	Indo	Var	NES	Var
Punctuation	45	2	27	2
Restatement	89	6	105	6
Example	9	4	6	4
TOTAL	143	12	138	12

So, the use of code glosses in both types of abstracts is similar. However, the Indonesian people’s abstracts provide the same variants of markers (12 models) as NES’s abstracts do (12 models). For Indonesian, the most used markers are adjective clauses (89 cases) and punctuation (45 cases in total, dominated by parentheses). Similarly, NES’s abstracts are dominated by adjective clause and followed by punctuation (parentheses too). So, in the case of code glosses, NES scholars dominantly use restatement to modify idea, while Indonesian scholars like to use punctuation.

Transition Markers

The second type of interactive metadiscourse is transition marker. It is used to signal addition, comparison, and consequence, and mainly include conjunctions and adverbial phrases (Hyland, 2005). This type of interactive metadiscourse interprets connections of given arguments. The appearance of three models of transition markers based on the number of hits can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4 Types of Transition Markers by Indonesian and NES Scholars

Transition Markers	Indo	Var	NES	Var
Addition	272	7	276	6
Comparison	38	11	45	7
Consequence	12	5	5	3
TOTAL	322	23	326	16

So, there are several points revealed from my findings. First, in general, transition markers are used by both groups of scholars. Second, NES apply slightly more addition and comparison markers than Indonesian scholars. Third, consequence markers are written by Indonesian scholars more than NES. Their number is twice the number of consequence markers written by NES. The last, Indonesian scholars use more varied markers than NES. It is proven that there are seven markers, written by Indonesian scholars, which are not used by NES.

Frame Markers

The third category is frame markers. These markers mark ‘text boundaries or elements of schematic text structures’ (Hyland, 2005). Some of examples of these markers are to label stages, to sequence, to announce goals, and to mark the topic shifts. Those four functions are found in the abstracts.

Table 5 Types of Transition Markers by Indonesian and NES Scholars

Frame Markers	Indo	Var	NES	Var
Sequencing	30	7	17	3
Label Stages	3	2	4	3
Announce Goals	21	12	13	7
Shift Topics	2	2	0	0
TOTAL	56	23	34	13

So, based on the cases found, Indonesian scholars’ abstracts contain more frame markers almost on all types (sequencing, announce goals, and shift topics) than NES’. It leads to a conclusion that Indonesian scholars are more organized and explicit in stating ideas.

Endophoric Markers

The fourth type of interactive markers is endophoric markers. They refer to the unfolding text or to visual representations of the text (Cao and Hu, 2014). In the case

of abstracts, there are seven variants found. Here is the tabulation of the searches.

Table 6 Endophoric Markers by Indonesian and NES Scholars

Endophoric markers	Indo	NES
(in) this study	24	7
(in) this article	18	30
this paper	12	10
(the) finding(s)	12	8
(in) this research	3	2
this research paper	2	0
the overview	1	3
TOTAL	72	60

The results in Table 6 reveal some points. First, Indonesian scholars' abstract contain more endophoric markers. Second, Indonesian scholars apply one more marker than NES scholars do. Third, NES scholars prefer to apply 'this article' than other forms to refer to the text, while Indonesian scholars preferably apply 'this study', 'this article', 'this paper', or 'this finding' to refer to the text. Fourth, the variant that is not used by NES but used by Indonesian scholars is 'this research paper'. So, the numbers of appearances above indicate what are popular or not popular endophoric markers applied by writers of different groups.

Evidentials

The last type of interactive markers is evidentials. Evidential marker is to integrate or 'to exclude the cited source into and from the text' (Hyland, 2005). However, this type is not used by one group, but is applied by the other group. Below is the result of the searches.

Table 7 Evidentials by Indonesian and NES Scholars

Evidentials	Indo	Var	NES	Var
Name, year	25	1	0	0
According to	0	0	1	1
TOTAL	25	1	1	1

Based on the table above, Indonesian scholars apply the most evidentials in the abstracts. On the contrary, NES scholars do not apply the model applied by Indonesian scholars in their abstracts, but only applies the model in example 58. It is probably because there is no importance to mention evidentials in the abstracts considering the fact that their abstracts only contain brief information about the whole paper at a glance, and an evidential above is only to strengthen general knowledge.

Interpretation of Interactive Metadiscourse by Non-NES (Indonesian) and NES

Both groups of scholars have applied interactive metadiscourse almost similarly except for frame markers and evidentials. NES scholars apply frame markers around

two third of markers applied by Indonesian scholars and apply very rarely evidentials in their abstracts. Most of these markers are usually found in academic writing books as a way to help writers in organizing their ideas when writing. In details, Chart 4.1 discloses some interpretations to discuss.

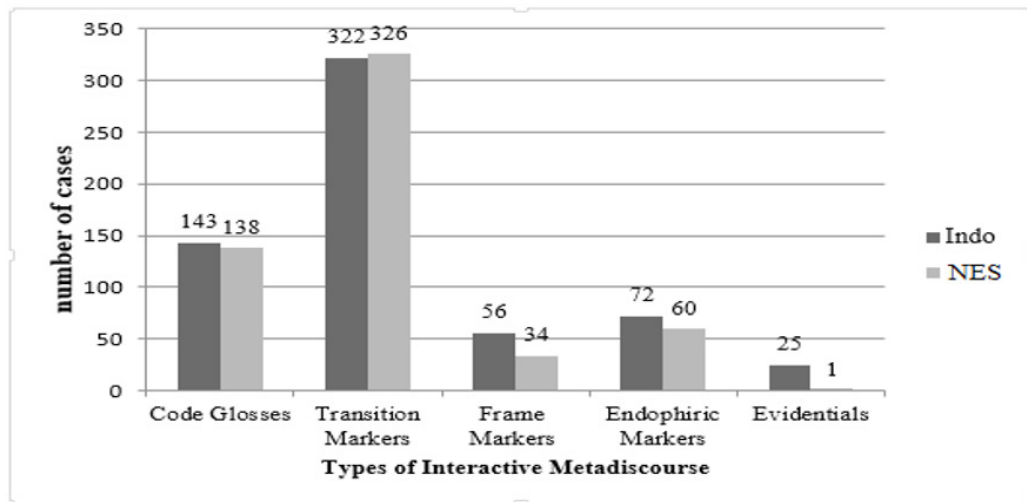


Chart 1 Interactive markers by Indo and NES

Code Glosses

The first type of interactive metadiscourse is code glosses. The numbers shown in Chart 1 reveals several points. First, the highest number of markers is found in restatement models. The scholars prefer to use adjective clause as a restatement to explain an idea. For this model, the surprising fact is that the scholars apply more ‘that’ as restatement model. It is proven by 78 adjective clauses using ‘that’ as the relative pronoun, marking that ‘who’ and ‘which’ that used to be applied in academic writing is slowly replaced by neutral ‘that’. In Azar (1999), it is stated that ‘that’ is less formal than ‘which’ or ‘who’. But in the case of abstracts, the changing of choice by the scholars shows the contrary. So, it needs to be understood that the use of ‘that’ as a relative pronoun has shifted. Unfortunately, this finding in the case of restatement model has not been discussed by the previous studies. Second, punctuation is effective markers applied as code glosses to define an idea. Proven that from 100 abstracts, there are 72 cases of punctuation. It is probably chosen because of its efficiency, thus affecting the word count in abstracts. As we all know that writing an abstract is limited by word count. Third, to show an example, the scholars prefer to use ‘such as’ instead of ‘for example’. It is proven that the frequency of ‘for example’ is only 0.12 (per 1,000 words). Overall, the variants applied by Indonesian scholars are the same as NES scholars, both applied 12 variants. It reveals that there is no significant difference of usage of variants between the two groups.

In another study, Mu, Zhang, Ehrich, and Hong (2015) have argued that Chinese

scholars also apply more code glosses when writing text compared to English scholars. It shows that the similarity exists between Chinese and Indonesian scholars as parts of the Asian scholars. In accordance with the use of code glosses in soft science, Khedri et al. (2013) found code glosses as the second highest markers applied similar studies (applied linguistics). The similar position is also found in the results of this study. In the present study code glosses is proven as the second highest after transitions markers. It means that in the field of soft science, such as applied linguistics and language teaching studies, the application of code glosses is important to guide the readers in understanding the contents.

Transition Markers

The second type of interactive metadiscourse is transition markers. The numbers shown in Chart 1 reveals several points. First, adding information model (addition markers) is applied more by both scholars, 33.61 and 41.07 per 1,000 words for Indonesian and NES. The highest applied addition is 'and', while disjunction 'or' (code glosses) is low. It means that disjunction 'or' is not popularly applied when writing an abstract, and the functions shown are also different ('and' belongs to transition markers, 'or' belongs to code glosses). Second, to compare and contrast, the number of uses is different (4.70 and 6.70). Between the two groups of scholars, NES scholars apply more comparison markers in abstracts. Sanjaya et al. (2015) have argued that for Indonesian people criticizing which also means contrasting is considered unethical. Therefore the number or comparison/contrast markers is lower than NES scholars. A similar result of transition markers is also found by Sultan (2011) in Arabic and Turkish (Ozdemir and Longo, 2014) which utilizes more transition markers compared to English. It is believed in Arabic that they need to be very clear, thus applying more transitions to make sure that what they convey is clear to understand. Consequently, Arabic writing is seen to be circular and repetitious due to frequently used transition markers. Turkish scholars also apply more transition markers as Arabic scholars do, signalling that the two cultures have similarities in transition marker usage. However, Chinese shows a different result of usage. Mu et al. (2015) has found Chinese to have fewer transition markers than English. It means that for transition, Chinese and Indonesian scholars have different views in usage. Third, consequence markers are applied more by Indonesian scholars, twice number of markers applied by NES. Therefore, there is no rigid difference in usage between the two in terms of number, but the variants used is more heterogeneous in Indonesian abstracts, marking that their preferences are different from one another.

Frame Markers

The third type of interactive metadiscourse is frame markers. The numbers shown in Chart 1 reveals that Indonesian scholars apply twice the number of frame markers in their abstracts, especially sequencing markers. It means that their

organization of abstracts is supposed to be more structured, understandable, and comprehensible because the markers are explicitly written, and the goal of the study is stated, thus helping the readers to understand the text effectively. Chinese and Turkish also apply more markers than English (Mu et al., 2015; Ozdemir and Longo, 2014) as Indonesian scholars do, by cases. The use of the markers is to guide the reader in the reading process, signalling that the writers are aware of their imagined readers. In the case of Indonesian scholars in writing their English abstracts, these scholars apply more frame markers possibly to make their abstracts is structured thus affecting the readers in understanding the contents. It needs to be understood that English is a foreign language for Indonesian scholars, so when writing in English such way is the anticipation because their readers are not only local scholars, but also scholars from other parts of the world. For NES, there is a belief that when writing, a writer takes a responsibility to make his readers understand thus they apply such markers to help the organization of the text (Hinds cited in Ädel, 2006). As seen in the data, Indonesian scholars show more number of frame markers indicating that they attempt to make their text comprehensible by the readers. It is, again, a sign of anticipation to avoid unstructured text.

Endophoric Markers

The fourth type of interactive metadiscourse is endophoric markers. The numbers shown in Chart 1 is the same 8.9 per 1,000 words. But in detail, there is a contrast preference by both groups of scholars. It reveals that Indonesian scholars are proud of their study. It is proven by the use of 'the study' becomes the highest used word in this type. The use of 'this study' strengthens that it is the result of their examining process. As stated in the background, Indonesian is still struggling to be accepted in the international academic world. Besides that, the culture of writing is not owned by Indonesian people widely. Thus, to be able to write a scholarly article is not an easy attempt, especially written in a foreign language, consequently, the scholars possibly unconsciously prefer to use 'this study' rather than this 'paper'. In contrast, NES scholars prefers to use 'this article' when referring to their study. The word 'this study' is only applied seven times, a very wide range. It is a surprising fact compared to Indonesian scholars' abstracts. Such preference is because writing a scholarly article has been the culture of NES, thus to mention their writing as 'article' is prevalent. Another view is from the number of usage. Chinese similarly apply more endophoric markers in their text compared to English (Mu et al., 2015). But, English applies more markers compared to Arabic (Sultan, 2011) and to Turkish (Ozdemir and Longo, 2014). It indicates that different cultures prefer different metadiscourse markers applied in texts.

Evidentials

The last type of interactive metadiscourse is evidential. The numbers shown in Chart 1 shows a very wide range, 25 cases versus 1 case. Based on the cases found, Indonesian scholars apply referring method ‘name, year’ when writing their abstracts. Most of them are applied when discussing the results. It seems that when their findings or results are similar or even equals to other scholars, they quote the scholars name. It indicates that such similar results to other researches show the feeling of the same-boatness, ‘what I find is also what you find, so my study succeeds’. The use of this model is not found in NES’ abstracts. For NES, in this case ELT Journal, it is one of the rules not to mention references in their abstracts, while in TEFLIN such rules do not exist, thus the results of two groups are significantly different. Apart from the rules, Mu et al. (2015) also show similar result in the use of evidentials. Compared to English, the use of evidentials by Chinese is higher. So, Indonesian and Chinese share similarities in showing evident, proving that acknowledging to other research is important for them, and to justify an argument and novelty of a research, evidentials are important in a text. However, a different result is suggested by Ozdemir and Longo (2014) when studying abstracts of USA students’ thesis and Turkish. To my opinion, the difference results in the usage of evidentials in thesis abstract and research article abstracts because the limit of word count is different and the aim is different. In the case of thesis, the use of evidentials is to show the deep study of the researcher, while in research articles, the emphasis of showing originality is probably demanded.

Chart 2 Metadiscourse markers by Indo and NES

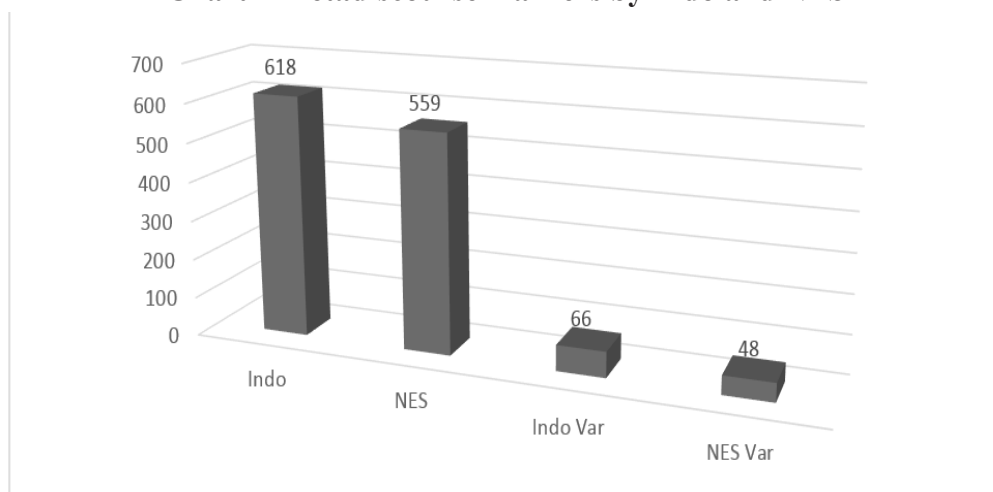


Chart 2 is the proof of several points. First, Indonesian scholars utilize more metadiscourse than NES scholars do. The difference is not significant. It shows that in general metadiscourse applied by Indonesian scholars and NES scholars that is represented by scholars from the Inner Circle countries, is similar. Second, in the uses of variants, Indonesian scholars apply more variants than NES scholars do. The range is 18 variants apart. It shows that Indonesian scholars are more creative in selecting

dictions and synonyms of a word. They are more varied in paraphrasing or restatement. It indicates that even though English has its position as a foreign language, the scholars have attempted to have native-like competence. It also reveals that motivation by non NES to master English has helped them to have such competence. The various choices compared to NES scholars is a sign that Indonesian scholars are anxious about their English is not comprehensible thus various ways of expressing and markers used reflect Indonesian scholars' struggle in the global community. This finding is in line with the Davies' opinion on creative performance. He (2003) argues that non-NES writer is possible to be a creative writer. Fourth, in the general utilization of metadiscourse markers, Table 8 shows the frequency of metadiscourse markers in overall examined abstracts.

Table 8. Metadiscourse per 1,000 Words by Indonesian and NES Scholars

Interactive MM	Indo	NES
Code Glosses	17.67	20.53
Transition Markers	39.79	48.5
Frame Markers	6.92	5.06
Endophiric Markers	8.9	8.9
Evidentials	3.09	0.15
TOTAL	76.37	83.14

Table 8 shows that per 1,000 words, NES scholars apply more MM than Indonesian scholars. This data is different the data counted by the cases. The table reveals that NES speakers are more aware of their imagined readers compared to Indonesian scholars. Hinds (cited in Hyland, 2003) and Clyne (cited in Ädel, 2006) previously argued that English scholars hold the belief that the writer is responsible for creating effective communication. Mu et al. (2015) proved the same case that NES scholars interact more with the readers by applying those varied MMs in their text to organize, to engage, and to show their ideas to their readers compared to Chinese scholars. However, after T-test was run, the results of difference in interactive MM are not significant ($0.903 > 0.05$). It proves that H_0 is accepted, while H_A is rejected. The acceptance of H_0 means that there is no significant difference between the two groups, and TEFLIN, according to the use of MM, is considered similar to ELTJ, though the reputation and the SCOPUS index are distinct. Possibly, TEFLIN will someday become as reputable as ELTJ. In addition, it also supports Davies (2003) that non-NES can also demonstrate equal competence as NES scholars do.

Metadiscourse and Culture

Since the scholars are from different cultures, the way to write the abstract and metadiscourse markers applied are also different. It strengthens other scholars' findings that metadiscourse choices are different across cultures (Crismore et al., 1993; Adel, 2006; Abdi, 2009; Hyland, 2005). Several ideas are also reflected by the scholars

when writing an abstract. First, the organization of content in the text is different. They have their preferred way of organizing text. It is proven by frame markers found in the text. In sequencing, for instance, Indonesian applied more sequence markers than NES (based on cases found). The way they organize is greatly influenced by the culture (Kaplan cited in Hyland 2003). He found that different backgrounds systematically influenced and explored ideas dissimilarly. As Friedlander (1987) and Hyland (2003) say that culture influences the writing abilities because people will transfer their writing abilities and strategies whether good or poor from L1 to L2. An article by Abdi (2009) also strengthens that the uses of markers are influenced by culture (for example the case of using hedges and boosters). It may be true that there is an assumption that Indonesian people are not straightforward, reflected by the way they organize the abstracts. Another case is the uses of hedges and boosters. Indonesian scholars apply more boosters and fewer hedges than NES scholars. Those indicate different rhetorical preferences influenced by cultures (Mu et al. 2015). Second, in addition to organization, directness of both groups is different. Reducing frame markers, the scholars want to directly address what the whole paper is about in a brief way. Consequently, the average word count of two groups is different. Third, Hyland (2003, p.36) says that writers of L2, Indonesian considering English as a foreign language, 'tend to plan less and produce shorter text than the writers of L1'. This opinion is not true in the case of writing an abstract. Because by looking at the fact, Indonesian scholars' abstracts have higher average than their counterparts. Fourth, Indonesian scholars as parts of Asian scholars have respect for knowledge (Hyland, 2005; Sanjaya et al., 2015; Mu et al., 2015). It is proven by the use of evidentials in their abstracts. It also reflects that to have similarity in the results of their research is better. In contrast, NES scholar very rarely apply evidentials in their abstracts. It seems that the results of their research is the results of their work, and it is unimportant to mention evidentials, especially for a new discovery. Fourth, NES scholars apply more complex sentence than Indonesian scholars. This evidence is also found by Hinkel in Hyland (2005) saying that NES speakers have more complex sentences than Asians do. In my study, it is supported by the uses of restatement in NES' abstracts. Based on some points above, cultural interference has influenced the application of metadiscourse between two groups when writing their abstracts.

To sum up, metadiscourse markers are applied more by NES than by Indonesian scholars. Based on this fact, to achieve NES-like model of abstracts, writers need to learn strategies how to write an abstract effectively and see the models of abstracts written by NES. It should be remembered that each journal has its rules and guidelines, so to know the model frequently used by the journal is also important. Though writing an abstract is not as long as writing as essay, summarizing and communicating the long paper to be a single paragraph is not effortless. More practices need to be made.

CONCLUSION

As a summary of a long text, an abstract has a significant role in the research articles; therefore it is required to be as informative as possible. Indeed, the scholars have given the information based on what they write in their article and the guidelines of the journal. At the same time, the scholars have also inserted words functioning as metadiscourse, whether they realize or not. One important aspect is that not all words mentioned by the scholars are metadiscourse. Their words also refer to the idea they want to express. From my study, both scholars have applied metadiscourse markers in their abstracts with insignificant results of usage but with different characteristics. Here are some concluded points.

First, in interactive metadiscourse per cases counted, Indonesian scholars' metadiscourse markers are more than NES scholars (949 versus 921, and for variants, 168 versus 148). Indonesian scholars apply more code glosses, frame markers, endophoric markers, and evidentials. As per 1,000 words, Indonesian scholars only apply more frame markers (6.92 versus 5.06) and evidentials (3.09 versus 0.15). In contrast, as per cases counted, NES apply more transition markers. But as per 1,000 words, NES scholars are upper handed in code glosses (20.53 versus 17.67) and transition markers (48.5 versus 39.79). The similar result is found in endophoric markers as per 1,000 words that is 8.9. Though the number is the same, the variants applied by both scholars reveal different preferences. So, based on total per 1,000 words, the normalized version, Indonesian abstracts slightly less interactively communicate the content compared to the NES.

Second, some differences exist in the data are due to cultural inferences. One example happens in the use of boosters and hedges. NES scholars apply more hedges to withhold the claims and open alternatives for readers to react. However, for Indonesian, withholding the claim means lack of knowledge and weakness. So, it can be seen that Indonesian scholars consequently have higher boosters than NES due to cultural influences (Abdi, 2009; Sanjaya, 2015). The use of evidential also reveals an interesting point. Indonesian scholars apply more evidentials than NES scholars in the abstracts in order to show reliability and sameness as other researchers (Mu et al., 2015). The similarities are also found in the use of endophoric markers by 8.9 per 1,000 words. It shows that they apply this type similarly, though the variants preferred by each group are different. Between the two groups, Indonesian scholars are proven to apply more variants than NES do, indicating that the capability of these scholars is more or less similar to NES.

Fourth, multi-markers appear in various combinations such as on the same types of metadiscourse or different types of metadiscourse. The way of applying more markers indicates the rhetorical preferences by the writers whether to organize, to engage, to argue, to strengthen, or others. So, the utilization of metadiscourse is true to build organization and writer-reader interaction.

The implications of the present study are not only in its theoretical contributions in the discourse study and the understanding of communication, especially metadiscourse study in writing, but also from practical sides. It is hoped that this study at least helps several major groups. The first group is teachers or lecturers teaching academic writing. We cannot deny that writing is also one of the ways to communicate the ideas. By introducing the use of metadiscourse markers to students, teachers or lecturers can better assist the students to communicate their ideas effectively, especially in academic writing. It is, in addition, to help students aware of the presence of the audience or readers and to help to involve the audience appropriately or rhetorical consciousness raising (Hyland, 2005). The second group is the writers. Nowadays, writing for publications and journals is most obligatory for most universities both for lecturers and students. By understanding and applying the use of metadiscourse markers, it also assists them to utilize the markers in their articles for academic journals. The next group is the students. Metadiscourse markers need understanding by the students because they help the students to comprehend the text and to process information. Another function is to provide choices to express writer's stance in arguments or statements. Then, it is also beneficial to negotiate the stance and to involve engagement with readers or audience. The last group is the readers. Readers are also required to understand metadiscourse markers used by the writers to comprehend the content of their writing because the markers disclose their intended ideas within their writing.

More studies in metadiscourse should be expanded, thus some suggestions are made to expand this field of study. First, the present study is examined quantitatively. It is better if such study is examined quantitatively and qualitatively to obtain a comprehensive result. Second, most metadiscourse studies are performed from the writers' points of view. Readers' point of view is also significant to examine whether the utilization of metadiscourse is really effective in helping writer-reader communication. Third, the uses of metadiscourse markers need to be examined according to writers' gender. It is to prove whether there is significant different or not. Fourth, in Indonesian contexts, metadiscourse needs to be examined across fields of studies such as hard and soft sciences. Fifth, metadiscourse in spoken discourse especially in Indonesia also need to be examined, and is probably examined compared to written texts.

REFERENCES

- Abdi, R. (2009). Projecting cultural identity through metadiscourse marking: A comparison of Persian and English research articles. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning Year 52 No. 212/Autumn & Winter 2009*
- Ädel, A. (2006). *Metadiscourse in L1 and L2 English: Studies in corpus Linguistics*. Amsterdam: John Benjamin Publishing Company.
- Amiryousefi, M., & Barati, H. (2011). Metadiscourse: exploring interaction in writing, Ken Hyland, Continuum, London. *Elixir Literature*, 40, 5245-5250.
- Azar, B. S. (1999). Understanding and using English grammar. Published by Binarupa Aksara.
- Crismore, A., Markkaen, R., and Steffensen, M. (1993). Metadiscourse in persuasive writing: A study of texts written by American and Finnish university students. *Written Communication*, 10/1, 39-71.
- Davies, A. (2003). The NES Speaker: Myth and Reality. Bilingual Education and Bilingualism.
- Friedlander, A. (1990). Composing in English: Effects of a first language on writing in English as a second language. *Second language writing: Research insights for the classroom*, 109-125.
- Hyland, K. (2003). *Second language writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hyland, K. (2004). Disciplinary Interactions: Metadiscourse in L2 postgraduate writing. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13, 133-151. doi:10.1016/j.jslw.2004.02.001
- Hyland, Ken. (2005). *Metadiscourse*. London: Continuum.
- Khedri, M., Heng, C. S., & Ebrahimi, S. F. (2013). An exploration of interactive metadiscourse markers in academic research article abstracts in two disciplines. *Discourse Studies*, 15(3), 319-331.
- Llach, M. P. A. (2011). Lexical errors and accuracy in foreign language writing (Vol. 58). *Multilingual Matters*.
- Meyer, C. F. (2009). *Introducing English Linguistics* (Vol. 11). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Murray, N., & Beglar, D. (2009). *Inside track: writing dissertations and theses*. Pearson Education.
- Mu, C., Zhang, L. J., Ehrich, J., & Hong, H. (2015). The use of metadiscourse for knowledge construction in Chinese and English research articles. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, 20, 135-148.
- Ozdemir, N. O. and Longo, B. (2014). Metadiscourse use in thesis abstracts: A cross-cultural Study. *Procedia- Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 141, 59-63.
- Sanjaya, I. N. S., Sitawati, A. A. R., and Suciani, N. K. (2015). Comparing hedges used by English and Indonesian scholars in published research articles: A corpus based study. *Teflin Journal*, 26 (2), 209-227. doi:10.15639/teflinjournal.v26i2/209-227
- Sultan, A. H. (2011). A contrastive study of metadiscourse in English and Arabic linguistics research articles. *Acta Linguistica*, 5(1), 28.

Eva Nur Mazidah

- Swales, J. M., and Feak, C. B. (2001). *Academic Writing for Graduate Students Essential Tasks and Skills: A Course of NonNES Speakers of English*. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan Press.
- Supatranont, P. (2012). Developing a writing template of research article abstracts: A corpus-based method. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 66, 144-156.
- Wallwork, Adrian. (2011). *English for Writing Research Papers*. New York: Springer.
- Wardhaugh, R. (2010). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. John Wiley & Sons.