CORPUS-BASED GENRE ANALYSIS OF MASTER OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION PRACTICE REPORT IN CHINA: COMPARATIVE MOVE AND STANCE INVESTIGATION BETWEEN TRANSLATION PRACTICE REPORT AND INTERPRETATION PRACTICE REPORT

Fengling Wang

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การวิเคราะห์ประเภทผลงานโดยใช้คลังข้อมูลภาษาเป็นฐานของรายงานการปฏิบัติงานระดับปริญญาโทสาขาวิชาการแปลและการล่ามในประเทศจีน: การศึกษาอัตภาคและทัศนะเชิงเปรียบเทียบระหว่างรายงานการปฏิบัติงานการแปลและการล่าม

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วิทยานิพนธ์นี้เป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาตามหลักสูตรปริญญาศิลปศาสตรดุษฎีบัณฑิต
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Suranaree University of Technology has approved this thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Thesis Examining Committee

____

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Adcharawan Buripakdi)

Chairperson

I. Pramoolsook.

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Issra Pramoolsook)

Member (Thesis Advisor)

Raksangob Wijitsopon

(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Raksangob Wijitsopon)

Member

Tongtip Poonlarp

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Tongtip Poonlarp)

Member

____

(Dr. Butsakorn Yodkamlue)

Member

____

(Assoc. Prof. Flt. Lt. Dr. Kontorn Chamniprasart)

Vice Rector for Academic Affairs and Internationalization

____

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Thara Angskun)

Dean of Institute of Social Technology

เฟิ่งหลิง หวัง : การวิเคราะห์ประเภทผลงานโดยใช้คลังข้อมูลภาษาเป็นฐานของรายงานการปฏิบัติงานระดับปริญญาโทสาขาวิชาการแปลและการล่ามในประเทศจีน: การศึกษาอัตภาคและทัศนะเชิงเปรียบเทียบระหว่างรายงานการปฏิบัติงานการแปลและการล่าม (CORPUS-BASED GENRE ANALYSIS OF MASTER OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION PRACTICE REPORT IN CHINA: COMPARATIVE MOVE AND STANCE INVESTIGATION BETWEEN TRANSLATION PRACTICE REPORT AND INTERPRETATION PRACTICE REPORT) อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา : ผู้ช่วยศาสตราจารย์ ดร.อิศรา ประมูลศุข, 431 หน้า

รายงานการปฏิบัติงานระดับปริญญาโทสาขาวิชาการแปลและการล่ามซึ่งประกอบไปด้วยรายงานการปฏิบัติงานการแปลและรายงานการปฏิบัติงานการล่ามเทียบได้กับเป็นวิทยานิพนธ์สำหรับหลักสูตรปริญญาโทดังกล่าวในประเทศจีน เนื่องจากรายงานนี้เป็นประเภทผลงานเชิงรายงานที่เกิดขึ้นมาใหม่จึงได้สร้างปัญหาให้แก่นักศึกษาและคณาจารย์ในสาขาวิชานี้ทั้งในด้านโครงสร้างภาษาและการใช้ทัศนะ งานวิจัยนี้ซึ่งใช้กระบวนการวิจัยที่ใช้คลังข้อมูลภาษาเป็นฐานมีวัตถุประสงค์ที่จะศึกษาโครงสร้างภาษาและการใช้ทัศนะของผู้แต่งในรายงานการปฏิบัติการการแปลและการล่ามและระบุถึงความแตกต่างในสองมิตินี้ระหว่างรายงานการปฏิบัติงานทั้งสองสาขาวิชา

งานวิจัยนี้สร้างคลังข้อมูลภาษาจำเพาะ โดยการรวบรวมอย่างเป็นระบบจากการสุ่มเลือกรายงานการปฏิบัติงานระดับปริญญาโทสาขาวิชาการแปลและการล่ามจำนวน 60 ฉบับ โดยแบ่งเป็นการแปล 30 ฉบับและการล่าม 30 ฉบับ แล้วทำการวิเคราะห์อัตภาคตามแบบ Biber et al (2007) และวิเคราะห์การใช้ทัศนะ โดยใช้โมเดลปฏิสัมพันธ์ของ Hyland (2005) นอกจากนี้ผลการวิเคราะห์ทั้งสองส่วนยังจะนำไปตรวจสอบความถูกต้องด้วยข้อมูลที่ได้จากการสัมภาษณ์ผู้ให้สัมภาษณ์ที่เป็นคนในวงการการแปลและการล่ามอีกด้วย

ผลจากการวิเคราะห์อัตภาคพบว่ามีอัตภาคทั้งสิ้น 29 อัตภาค และ มี 84 อัตภาคย่อยที่ใช้ในบทต่างๆทั้งหกบทของรายงานการปฏิบัติงาน ทั้งของการล่ามและการแปล ซึ่งนักวิจัยได้นำเสนอเป็นโครงสร้างทางภาษาของรายงานการปฏิบัติงานทั้งสองสาขาวิชานี้ ผลจากการวิเคราะห์การใช้ทัศนะเปิดเผยให้เห็นถึงรูปแบบการใช้ทัศนะทั้งสี่ชนิดที่จำเพาะในสาขาวิชาการล่ามและการแปล นอกจากนี้การศึกษาเชิงเปรียบเทียบยังชี้ให้เห็นถึงความแตกต่างทั้งในเรื่องอัตภาคและการใช้ทัศนะในแต่ละบทของรายงานการปฏิบัติงานระหว่างสาขาวิชาการแปลและการล่าม ในขณะเดียวกันข้อมูลจากการสัมภาษณ์ได้ให้มุมมองเพิ่มเติมเกี่ยวกับผลการวิจัยทั้งสองมิติทั้งในระดับอัตภาคและการใช้ทัศนะ

งานวิจัยชิ้นนี้มีคุณค่าทั้งทางด้านทฤษฎี ทางด้านระเบียบวิธีวิจัย และทางด้านการนำไปใช้สอนในห้องเรียน อันจะเป็นประโยชน์ต่อการวิจัยในด้านการวิเคราะห์ประเภทงานเขียนรายงานและต่อการเรียนการสอนการเขียนรายงานการปฏิบัติงานระดับปริญญาโทสาขาวิชาการแปลและการล่ามในประเทศจีน

สาขาวิชาภาษาต่างประเทศ	ลายมือชื่อนักศึกษา Fengling Wang

ปีการศึกษา 2562	ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา I. Pramoolsook

FENGLING WANG : CORPUS-BASED GENRE ANALYSIS OF MASTER OF TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION PRACTICE REPORT IN CHINA: COMPARATIVE MOVE AND STANCE INVESTIGATION BETWEEN TRANSLATION PRACTICE REPORT AND INTERPRETATION PRACTICE REPORT. THESIS ADVISOR: ASST. PROF. ISSRA PRAMOOLSOOK, Ph.D., 431 PP.

MASTER THESIS/TRANSLATION AND INTERPRETATION PRACTICE REPORT/CORPUS/ MOVE ANALYSIS/ STANCE INVESTIGATION

The Master of Translation and Interpretation (MTI) Practice Report, consisting of the Translation Practice Report (TPR) and the Interpretation Practice Report (IPR), is the degree thesis for the MTI program in China. As a newly emerging type of reporting genre, it has caused problems to the students and teachers in the MTI field in the aspects of the discourse structures and the use of stance. The current study, drawing on the corpus-based approach, aimed to explore at the macro-level the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR, to investigate at the micro-level the use of stance in the TPR and the IPR, and to probe the disciplinary variations at these two levels between the TPR and the IPR, respectively.

A set of specialized corpora that aimed to reach the maximum representativeness were systematically compiled by sampling 60 MTI Practice Reports (30 TPRs and 30 IPRs, respectively). Employing the corpus-based move analysis by Biber et. al (2007), the stance framework in the interaction model by Hyland (2005), the investigation at the two levels was respectively conducted by triangulating the interviews with the insider informants.

The results of the move analysis revealed 29 moves and 84 steps identified in the 6 organizational units of the TPR and the IPR, which were proposed for the discourse structures for the MTI Practice Report. The findings from the corpus-based stance investigation disclosed a genre-specific convention in utilizing the four categories of stance in both of the TPR and the IPR. Besides, the discipline-specific variations in terms of the move and the stance in each of the six units were found due to the different disciplinary conventions and practice between the two closely related subdisciplines. Meanwhile, the data from the interviews provided the additional insights into the research findings obtained in these two levels.

This study has the theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical implications on the research of the reporting genre in the genre analysis field and the instruction of the MTI Practice Report in China.

School of Foreign Languages | Student's Signature Fengling Wang

Academic Year 2019 | Advisor's Signature I. Pramoolsook.

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My sincere thanks are also extended to Suranaree University of Technology where I began my academic career and all teachers in SUT who inspired me in my academic learning in a series of courses. Special thanks should go to Dr. Sinrinthorn Seepho who is an important person in my life who guided me into the Ph.D. journey with her patient encouragement during my application of the Ph.D. program.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADCSC	Academic Degree Commission of the State Council
CMFD	China Masters' Theses Full-text Database
CNCTIE	China National Committee for Translation & Interpreting Education
CNKI	Chinese National Knowledge Infrastructure
IIR	Interpretation Internship Report
IPR	Interpretation Practice Report
LGSWE	Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English
MTI	Master of Translation and Interpretation
PRC	People's Republic of China
TIR	Translation Internship Report
TPR	Translation Practice Report

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The introductory chapter provides an overview of the present study with an aim to conduct a corpus-based genre analysis and stance investigation on the Master of Translation and Interpretation (MTI) Practice Report through a comparative analysis between the Translation Practice Report (TPR) and the Interpretation Practice Report (IPR). Section 1.1 describes the background, including the importance of translation and interpretation, higher education on translation and interpretation, the MTI program and its theses, and the MTI Practice Report: the TPR and the IPR. Section 1.2 provides rationale for corpus-based move analysis and stance investigation in the TPR and the IPR. Section 1.3 advances the research purposes. Section 1.4 states research questions. Section 1.5 outlies the significance of the study. Section 1.6 explains the scope of the current study. Section 1.7 defines key terms briefly. The chapter ends with a short summary in Section 1.8.

1.1 Background

1.1.1 Importance of Translation and Interpretation

Translation and interpretation are human activities with a long history, which involve transferring or interpreting the meaning of a language into another in written or oral form. Both the two activities have broad concept with multiple meanings. Czarniawska and Sevón (1996) use the metaphor of the "travel of ideas" across time, space and location to refer to the act of translation. Thus, "translation refers to the rendering of a source-language text into the target-language" (Kettunen, 2017, p. 38). Similarly, interpretation is "the sense of interlinguistic mediated communication", and it is the "communicative act of reproducing orally in a target language what a speaker is expressing in a source language" (Riccardi, 2002, p.75). It is well known that many languages exist in the world, and there is no way to get used to all the languages of the world, thus the communication among different communities has to rely on various verbal and nonverbal interpretations (Manaj, 2017). Therefore, translation and interpretation are the most ancient linguistic behaviors that bring inter-language communication to promote the social development and civilization. As Hinkhanen (2006), the secretary of International Federation of Translators, stated that "there has been translation as long as there have been languages to speak" (p. 11), therefore, translation and interpretation are indispensable means in promoting communication among nations and facilitating access to science and knowledge worldwide.

Translation and interpretation have played a key role in human history and social evolution. Especially in modern society, translation has the function of a bridge for carrying across values between cultures. With the faster technological progress brought by powerful computers and faster cross-national communications brought by the spread of the Internet, consequently, the translation and the interpretation industries have evolved into a global market involving international competition and multinational service-provision chains.

This trend is also true in China. China is a country with long history of translation and interpretation, which can be dated back to ancient times. Translation and interpretation have a great function in China's development as well. Along with China's fast and steady economic development due to the open-door policy and the modernization and globalization process since 1978, the demand for communication with other countries in economic, cultural and political fields is increasing. Especially, with the proposal of "the Belt and Road" in 2016 that focuses on connectivity and cooperation between China and Eurasian countries, the needs for multi-national communication and cooperation were strengthened. The impact of the social, economic, and cultural transformations in modern China is so profound that it has increased the demand for professional experts in translation and interpretation to promote the communication with other countries worldwide, which at the same time has also proposed a new challenge for the education of qualified translators and interpreters. As a consequence, response to the process of modernization and globalization in China has generated the initiation of the Master of Translation and Interpretation (MTI) as a new professional degree in China's higher education system.

1.1.2 Higher Education on Translation and Interpretation

Regarding the well-recognized importance of translation and interpretation worldwide, many universities and institutions around the world, as the crucial elements in higher education system, aim to supply manpower in this field to meet the needs for professional translators and interpreters. Consequently, the MTI, in various terms, has been one of important degrees in higher education system worldwide for many years. Many universities in America, Britain, Canada, German, France and New Zealand have provided master degrees in interpreting and translation studies. For example, the Center for Interpretation and Translation Studies in University of Hawaii at Manoa in America was established in 1988 to provide basic training in translation and interpretation (http://cits.hawaii.edu/). In Britain, Heriot Watt University, based in the internationally recognized Centre for Translation and Interpreting Studies in Scotland (CTISS), provides an investigation of the nature of the process of translating/interpreting and promotes the training of interpreters and translators (http://www.hw.ac.uk/study/uk/postgraduate/translation-interpreting.htm). A great number of master programs of translation and interpretation have been established in other countries as well because the higher education system has an undeniable responsibility to supply academic or professional experts to satisfy the trendy needs of the society. Similarly, under the trend of global economy and China's rapid social and economic progress, the communication between China and other countries in all areas is speeding and increasing greatly. This, as a result, has brought forth the boom of vibrant translation or interpretation activities. In order to meet the demand for qualified professionals of translation and interpretation, a professional degree is also needed to provide the education and training in this specific field. Consequently, the MTI, a new professional master degree, was initiated by the

Academic Degree Commission of the State Council (ADCSC) of People's Republic of China (PRC) in 2007. According to the official list published by the ADCSC of PRC, there are totally 259 universities offering the MTI program in China as of 2020. Under the big influence of the MTI program in China's higher education system, it is worth looking at this program in detail.

1.1.3 The MTI Program and Its Theses in China

As a newly emerging professional master degree initiated to satisfy the demand of social needs for professional translators and interpreters, the MTI program has its particular standard in its syllabus, curriculum and degree thesis. Considering the syllabus, the MTI program aims to supply the high-level and application-oriented experts in translation or interpretation who can finally contribute to the social, economic and cultural communication with other countries. In practice, the ultimate goal of the MTI education is to train the MTI students apply what they have learnt in the program into the actual translation/interpretation practices or tasks. In line with the educational goal of the MTI program, the length of the MTI program is usually 3 years which is based on the credit system. Totally, 38 credits are needed for completing the program. The corresponding curriculum design consists of compulsory courses that cover 20 credits and optional courses that cover at least 18 credits. The compulsory courses aim to provide the basic and theoretical knowledge for conducting either translation or interpretation which are obligatory for both the students majoring in translation and in interpretation. On the contrary, the optional courses are discipline-oriented ones which are only open for the translation students or the interpretation students. Therefore, the MTI students are required to complete all compulsory and optional courses in the first and the second year, and to have half a year of internship and to complete their degree thesis in the third year. With regard to the MTI theses, as the most important representative component to display learning and teaching results, they play a key role in the whole program. There is a set of rigor process for writing degree thesis in the whole MTI program, because the MTI theses are regarded as the final products to make the MTI students qualified for their master degrees although the degree thesis itself does not cover any credits in the program according to the MTI educational scheme. Usually, the MTI students are required to submit their thesis proposals at the end of the second year to the degree committee of the School which commonly consists of 4 committee members. They are allowed to proceed with the permission of the degree committee of the School if their thesis proposals are accepted, and then they will have the final defense for their degree theses at the end of the third year.

Because of the practice-emphasized characteristics of the professional degree, the degree holders should show their practical abilities in applying theories into solving actual problems. This feature decides the specific requirements in the types of the MTI theses. Two MTI educational schemes containing the requirements for the types of the MTI theses were issued by China National Committee for Translation & Interpreting Education (CNCTIE). The initial one was issued in 2007 and the updated one was issued in 2011. Both of them offer a description about the requirements on the MTI theses.

Table 1.1 The types of the MTI theses advocated by CNCTIE in 2007

The types of the MTI theses advocated by CNCTIE in 2007				
Types	**Description**	**The Number of Words Required**	**Language**	**Example**
Project Report	A report based on Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation/ interpretation project instructed by the supervisor, which gives an account on the translation/interpretation procedures, problems and solving techniques and so on.	translation project ≥10,000 words/ interpretation project ≥100 hours; project report ≥5,000 words	Chinese or English	*A Translation Project Report of International Business Contract*
Experiment Report	A report based on the analysis of an experiment, or trial related to translation/interpretation, which has been done under the instruction of the supervisor.	≥10,000 words	Chinese or English	*Experimental Report on the Machine-aided Translation of the Hypertext of "The Open Boat" in the View of Translation Efficiency*
Research Thesis	A research thesis related to translation/interpretation instructed by the supervisor.	≥15,000 words	Chinese or English	*A Study on Practical Competence of MTI and Its Cultivation*

Table 1.1 shows the requirements on the writing of the MTI theses advocated by CNCTIE in 2007. Three types of the MTI theses are proposed: Project Report, Experiment Report and Research Thesis. Obviously, the differences in the mode, content, total number of words and written language can be seen, which is distinguished from thesis type for the traditional academic master degree. Especially, one new genre-reporting genre, is adopted into the types of the MTI theses.

Table 1.2 The types of the MTI theses updated by CNCTIE in 2011

The types of the MTI theses updated by CNCTIE in 2011				
Types	**Description**	**The Number of Words Required**	**Language**	**Example**
Internship Report	A report that gives account on the translation/interpretation internship procedure instructed by the supervisor.	≥15,000 words	English	*An Intern Report as a Chinese-to-English News Trans-editor at Guangdong Radio and Television*
Practice Report	A report that gives account on the translation/interpretation procedures, problems and solving techniques based on a Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation/interpretation practice instructed by the supervisor.	translation practice ≥10,000 words/ interpretation practice ≥100 hours; practice report ≥5,000 words	English	*A Practice Report on the E-C Translation of Maggie: A Girl of the Streets*
Experiment Report	A report based on the analysis of an experiment, or trial related to translation/interpretation, which has been done under the instruction of the supervisor.	≥15,000 words	English	*An Experiment Report on the Effect of Text-at-Hand on MTI Trainee Interpreters' Performance in C-E Simultaneous Interpretation*
Research Thesis	A research thesis based on the study of translation/interpretation problem instructed by the supervisor.	≥15,000 words	English	*Research on Dimensions of Student Perceived Nurturing Quality of MTI*

Table 1.2 shows an updated scheme issued in 2011 which offers a more specific description on types of the MTI theses. Four types of the MTI theses are advocated: Internship Report, Practice Report, Experiment Report and Research Thesis. The obvious update appeared in the thesis types and the required writing language.

Specifically, the type of Project Report in the initial scheme issued in 2007 was further divided into two types: Internship Report and Practice Report, as a consequence, one more type of the MTI theses, which is also a reporting genre, was added into the MTI theses. Importantly, all types of the MTI theses were allowed to write both in Chinese and English in 2007, but only in English since 2011.

In addition, the MTI program usually consists of two subdisciplines: translation and interpretation. Either the translation students or the interpretation students usually write the practice reports based on the translation/interpretation activity in their own field, respectively. Thus, a sub-division of each type of thesis can be made according to whether the report is based on the translation or the interpretation practice. Accordingly, the Internship Report can be subdivided into the Translation Internship Report (TIR) and the Interpretation Internship Report (IIR); Similarly, the Practice Report also can be sub-divided into the Translation Practice Report (TPR) and the Interpretation Practice Report (IPR). This subdivision is confirmed by the researcher's preliminary survey on the types of the MTI theses based on the online database: China Masters' Theses Full-text Database (CMFD) in Chinese National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI), there are five types of the MTI theses. This fact is also consistent with the advocacy by Chinese researchers (Mu, Zou & Yang, 2012) that the MTI theses can be demonstrated in at least five types originated from the four main types advocated by CNCTIE. These detailed sub-division and categorization of the MTI theses can be shown in Figure 1.1.

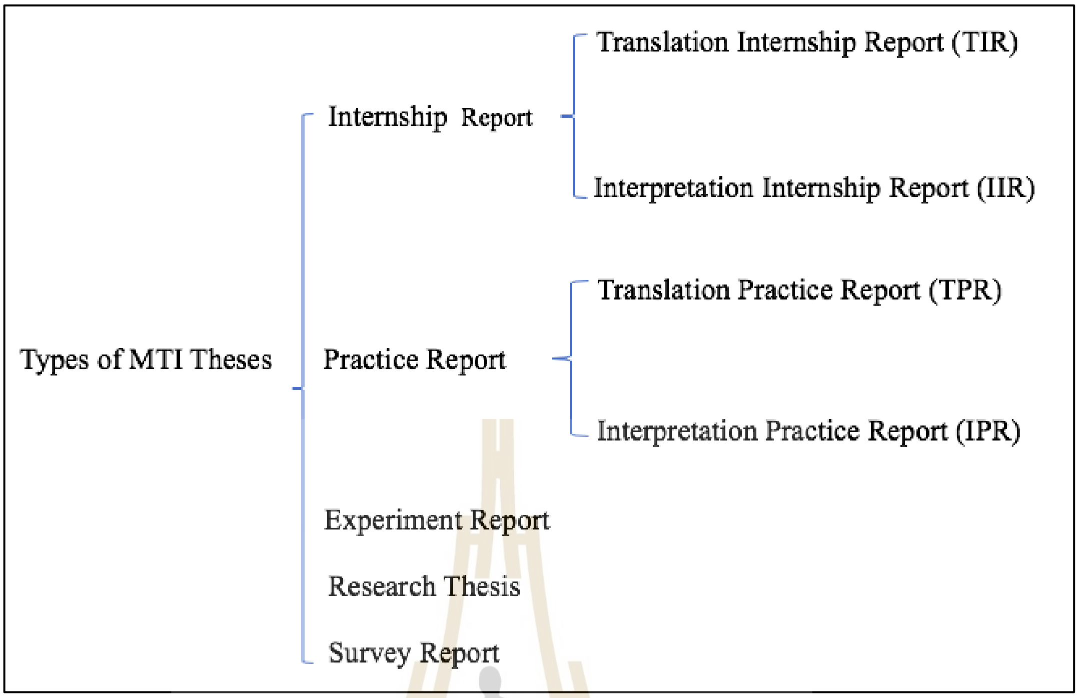


Figure 1.1 The detailed categorization of types of the MTI theses

According to the genre colony theory (Bhatia, 2004), the categorization of the MTI theses can be transferred into the different levels of genre types according to the different identification criteria (see Table 1.3). Firstly, the four types of report belong to one super-genre-reporting genre based on their similar communicative purpose: to give an account about what an MTI student has done. Second, distinguished by the different reporting objects, four genres: Internship Report, Practice Report, Experiment Report and Survey Report, are included in the MTI domain, which are equally admitted as one type of the MTI degree thesis. Third, on the basis of the specific communicative purpose related to two different linguistic activities, translation or interpretation, more sub-genres are classified. Specifically, the Internship Report consists of the TIR and the IIR, while the Practice Report consists of the TPR and the IPR.

Table 1.3 The genre family of MTI reports (adapted from Bhatia, 2004)

Identification Criteria	Genre Specification				Genre Level
General communicative purpose	Reporting Genres				Genre colony (Super-genre)
Domain: MTI	Internship Report	Practice Report	Experiment Report	Survey Report	Genre
Specific communicative purpose/Product	Translation Internship Report (TIR); Interpretation Internship Report (IIR)	Translation Practice Report (TPR); Interpretation Practice Report (IPR)			Sub-genre

In sum, as a newly emerging professional master degree to meet the social and educational needs in modern China, the MTI theses are crucial in the MTI program. In order to match closely with the application-oriented educational purpose of the MTI program, the reporting genre, in the form of various sub-reporting genres, is adopted as different types of the MTI theses. Especially, guided by the ultimate goal of the MTI program that is to produce the students with high-level professional translation or interpretation abilities, translation or interpretation practice is given much priority in the whole program. As a result, this has led to the marked importance of the Practice Report among all types of MTI theses. In the following section, the MTI Practice Report and its two sub-types will be discussed in detail.

1.1.4 The MTI Practice Report: the TPR and the IPR

The MTI Practice Report, as one type of the MTI theses, refers to a report that gives an account on the translation/interpretation procedures, problems and solving techniques based on a Chinese-English or an English-Chinese translation/interpretation practice instructed by the supervisor. This type of report is required to be written on translation/interpretation practice, which reflects how an MTI student applies his or her theoretical knowledge, linguistic skills, technical strategies and management abilities to deal with the typical issues or critical problems in the translation/interpretation procedures (Huang, 2012). As aforementioned, the MTI Practice Report is important for the MTI students due to the practice-oriented educational goal in the MTI program. For example, the MTI students are obligatory to do a certain number of the translation or interpretation practice during the whole MTI program. Specifically, the total number of words of the translation practice is required to be no less than 150,000 words, and the total length of the interpretation practice is required to be no less than 400 hours. That is to say, the translation/interpretation practice is a compulsory part for the MTI students. Moreover, the MTI students are also encouraged to take part in various kinds of formal or informal translation or interpretation activities to strengthen their practical translation/interpretation abilities.

Importantly, except for being one important type of the MTI degree theses, the MTI Practice Report belongs to a particular reporting genre. It possesses the features of the reporting genre both in the discourse structures and the linguistic features. In the discourse structures, the MTI Practice Report usually gives an introductory description about the translation/interpretation task, then the translation/interpretation procedures, and techniques and cases in the translation/interpretation procedures, and finally the conclusion of the translation/interpretation practice. These characteristics are similar to most of reports in other disciplines, such as research report, the business report, and scientific report and etc. From the linguistic aspect, the MTI Practice Report consists of obviously descriptive and reflective language, which has the likeness with the language used in other reporting genres, which should be selective, accurate, objective, concise, clear, consistent and simple (Bowden, 2004).

In the present study, the TPR and the IPR are two sub-types of the MTI Practice report written based on the translation/interpretation practice respectively by the translation students and the interpretation students in the MTI domain. As two sub-types of the MTI Practice Report, the TPR and the IPR share some common features: 1) both the two sub-types of Practice Report absolutely comply with the degree requirements in terms of the academic writing norm not only in general structure of basic elements, such as title, acknowledgement, abstract, contents, references and appendices, but also in their linguistic features such as semantic functions, syntax usage, and citations; 2) as two sub-types of the MTI theses for degree claim, both of them have to follow the same requirements in total number of words and the writing language; 3) as the degree theses, both the TPR and the IPR are equal in academic community in terms of their importance and status; finally 4) both of them are sub-reporting genres that embody with the features of reporting genre in their organizational structures and linguistic features.

In addition, since the TPR and the IPR are two different sub-genres of the MTI Practice Report written by the students in two different subdisciplines in the MTI field.

The differences between the TPR and the IPR are possibly caused by following factors: 1) as mentioned in Section 1.1, translation and interpretation are two different language activities although both of them have similar history, purpose and function. For example, translation is usually not constrained by time and place, while interpretation is "real-time" which is confined by time-limit and location. Besides, translation will have further revision in a period of time while interpretation has the features of simultaneousness; 2) both the TPR and the IPR are two types of products to claim the master degree by students from two subdisciplines in the MTI program who have different training-orientation, curriculum and practice; and 3) constrained by the community conventions of the two subdisciplines with their specific communicative purposes, the discourse structures as well as the linguistic features are assumed to be different.

In sum, considering its importance and popularity, it is worth having an investigation on the MTI Practice Report. Further, regarding the similarities and differences between the TPR and the IPR, the two sub-genres of the MTI Practice Report, which are assumed to demonstrate different contents and language options in their discourse structures and linguistic features. It is also meaningful to have a comparative investigation on the two sub-genres about their discourse structures and linguistic features, as represented in the stance features in the current study. Especially, writing the MTI Practice Report in English, either for the TPR or the IPR, will definitely poses a great difficulty and challenge on Chinese MTI students. This will be discussed in the following section.

1.2 Rationale for the Study

1.2.1 Rationale for exploring the discourse structures and stance features in the TPR and in the IPR

It is well known that a master thesis/dissertation is regarded as a high stakes genre at the summit of a student's academic accomplishment (Hyland, 2004). Thus, "writing a thesis/dissertation is a most formidable task for many graduate students. This is not only because of the daunting size of the document but also because of the high standard to which the thesis/dissertation is held" (Dong, 1998, p. 369). This is true for Chinese MTI students because writing the MTI Practice Report is not an easy job for them due to the high standard of thesis writing. The MTI Practice Report, either the TPR or the IPR, is not only regarded as the final product to prove what an MTI student has achieved in the MTI program, but also as a thesis to claim a master degree of translation and interpretation. As a result, both the TPR and the IPR require a formal writing of thesis rather than a casual report.

As a newly emerging type of professional degree thesis, many problems are caused by this new reporting genre which is totally foreign to Chinese MTI students. In the researcher's preliminary online survey on the MTI theses writing (see Appendix A), only 56.25% participants have basic knowledge about the format or the organization of the MTI Practice Report, and more than 80% participants reported that both the TPR and the IPR are challenging for them to write. One important challenge is that they do not know how to organize their translation/interpretation practice into a Practice Report.

Consequently, more than half of participants (58.34%) said that they are unprepared for writing a Practice Report for their theses.

Furthermore, problems caused by writing a reporting genre are also confirmed in the preliminary interview with the MTI supervisors (see Appendix B). An interesting anecdote was reported by Supervisor A that a controversy about whether a literature review section should be included in a TPR or an IPR had occurred among the MTI committee members in the surveyed university. This, to some extent, reflects that even the supervisors have a lack of firm understanding on the organization of the MTI Practice Report, let alone the students who are unfamiliar with this new reporting genre in the MTI field. Consequently, both the TPR and the IPR are challenging for Chinese MTI students in the aspect of the discourse structure. Therefore, there is a great need for the instruction or training on the writing of the MTI Practice Report. In the survey, only 4.17% of the participants wrote a Practice Report once a month, others were seldom required to write a report based on their translation/interpretation practice. Besides, the interviewed MTI students complained that they had no background information to organize their translation/interpretation practice into a Practice Report before writing their degree theses. As can be seen in the survey, 81.25% of the participants reported that they needed more instructions on the format or the organization of the MTI Practice Report. Especially, a clearly illustrated framework of the organization of the TPR or the IPR, and even the linguistic features commonly used were needed.

Essentially, writing a thesis in English poses much difficulties for non-native English speaking students (Dong, 1998; Paltridge, 2002). In China, English has been taught as a foreign language. As Jogthong (2001) stated, in countries where English is not the native language, most students face problems when intending to write in English even if they have reached a high level of proficiency in English. In the survey, only 50% participants preferred to write their MTI theses in English because it was not easy for them to write in a foreign language. However, it is striking to see that 95.83% participants in the survey were required to write their MTI theses in English in their universities. Actually, according to the educational scheme of the MTI program issued by ADCSC in 2011, it is obligatory for the students to write their theses in English. Thus, it will be a daunting and frustrating experience for most of Chinese MTI students to write the TPR and the IPR in English.

Apart from the challenges caused by writing a newly emerging reporting genre as the degree thesis in English, many problems were caused by the use of linguistic devices, including word choices, phrase types, and grammatical features (e.g. tense, aspect, voice) to build the typical characteristics of each discourse organization of the MTI Practice Report. Most of these linguistic devices are greatly related to stance, which means "personal feelings, attitudes, value judgements, or assessment" (Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999, p. 966). In Hyland's (1999) perspective, stance refers to ways that writers project their authorial presence into their texts to express their integrity, credibility, involvement and interaction with their subject matter and their readers. It is the “writer-oriented” features of interaction in academic writing which can be realized through four categories of linguistic devices, including hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention (Hyland, 2005). In the present study, the linguistic features used to express stance in terms of those four categories are important for the writing of the TPR and the IPR. Hedges withhold writers’ full commitment to the proposition, while boosters emphasize writers’ certainty in proposition (Hyland, 1999, 2005 Hyland & Tse, 2004). Both those two categories of devices are important for the MTI students to express how certain they are about the veracity and reliability of the translation/interpretation practice. For attitude markers, they express writers’ attitude to proposition which are helpful for demonstrating what perspective the MTI students have taken to their translation/interpretation practice. Finally, self-mention displays what extent the MTI students have presence in their practice reports by explicit reference to themselves.

As a result, stance features in the TPR and the IPR can be recognized as the MTI student’s expression of their epistemic assessment, personal attitude, and self-presence by means of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention in the current study. In the researcher’s preliminary online survey and interviews, 81.25% of participants agreed that stance expression is important in a successful MTI Practice Report, either in the TPR or the IPR, because stance facilitates the expression of the writer’s own understanding and view on the translation/interpretation learning and practice. It was also stated in the interview by the MTI students (see Appendix C) that they hoped that committee members would hold a similar opinion and understanding toward the value of the translation/interpretation practice that they had done and expected that committee members and audience would have a similar stance about what they had described in the TPR or in the IPR. Therefore, they would consciously or unconsciously use certain words to defend or withhold their propositions, to persuade them to believe the "trueness" of what they had done by using certain adjectives (*important*), adverbs (*mainly*), nouns (*significance*) and etc. Those linguistic options are crucial for them to prove that their MTI learning is worthy of obtaining the master degree. However, the difficulties of the use of stance was also reported in the survey, pointing out that 68.75% of participants did not know how to use words or phrases appropriately to express their stance in their writing of the MTI Practice Report.

Therefore, given the problems and difficulties in the writing of the TPR and the IPR and high demand for the frameworks of these two new sub-reporting genres, it is meaningful to compile a specialized corpus with a good representativeness by collecting the authentic writing of the TPR and the IPR by Chinese MTI students and to conduct a corpus-based genre analysis on the discourse structures of these two under-explored reporting genres. Similarly, considering the importance and the problems of using stance in the writing of the TPR and the IPR, it is also worthy to conduct a corpus-based stance investigation in the current study.

Most importantly, according to Swales' definition of genre, "the rationale behind a genre establishes constraints on allowable contributions in terms of content, positioning and form" (Swales, 1990, p. 54). To some extent, the realizations of the allowable form, position and content are inter-connected with each other. That is to say, the conventions of a genre definitely constrain and influence the prototypicality of this genre, both in schematic structure and linguistic options. Because communicative purposes serve as the key elements in deciding what textual organization should be and what rhetorical linguistics would be used in a genre, there is a connection between the allowable form and the allowable content in a genre. To put it succinctly, the communicative purposes influence the form of schematic structure, which generates the constraint of the linguistic content with certain proposition at the same time. Considering the TPR and the IPR in the current study, the ultimate communicative purposes are to qualify them as the degree thesis through reporting what an MTI student has done in his or her translation/interpretation practice. This generates their typical discourse structures in which contains several units with different communicative purposes. Meanwhile, the linguistic options to express an MTI student's epistemic evaluation, personal attitude, and presence in each unit are also constrained by the communicative purposes. Therefore, the inter-relationship between the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR and the options of stance in their corresponding units would be also interesting to be explored in the current study. Through probing how the four types of stance markers are employed differently across different units with their various communicative purposes in the TPR and the IPR, respectively, it may provide additional insights into the connection between the corpus-based move analysis and the corpus-based stance investigation.

1.2.2 Rationale for exploring the variations of discourse structures and of stance between the TPR and the IPR

From the point view of genre colony by Bhatia (2004), all kinds of reports form a reporting genre colony. Genres in the colony will display distinctiveness as well as overlaps in various ways. The TPR and the IPR in the current study are the products of two specific subdisciplines in the MTI domain. They are supposed to share some similarities and differences in their discourse structures. As Bhatia (2004) points out, although reports are considered as a common genre, they still display interesting differences, not only in terms of their specialist lexis, which is often the case, but also in terms of their rhetorical structures. Therefore, a comparison on the discourse structures between the TPR and the IPR will be worth conducting because it can offer an opportunity to examine the variations of the discourse structures between the two sub-reporting genres, which can finally provide the useful pedagogical references to Chinese MTI students majoring in the two subdisciplines for their writing of the TPR and the IPR.

In addition, either the TPR or the IPR is regarded as a variation of the reporting genre in the MTI domain, which are constrained by a certain convention in terms of the linguistic options. This produces the unity of writing and the individuality to whatever has been written. That is, it not only enables the students to write with the linguistic features of the reporting genre, but also gives writing extra color and impact

(Bowden, 2004). In the TPR and the IPR, therefore, the selection of appropriate words or phrases to express the MTI students' stance is important due to the fact that the MTI students should demonstrate their own understanding of the translation/interpretation learning and practice by employing a certain stance marker with its own "color".

Moreover, in Bhatia's (2004) opinion, reports from different domains and contexts share an overlapping communicative purpose, but they are also likely to display lexico-grammatical variations. As the variations of the reporting genre, the TPR and the IPR are assumed to display the differences in linguistic features because they report on different activities: translation and interpretation by students in the two different subdisciplines of the MTI. Thus, the stance features in the two sub-reporting genres to express writer's (translator's/interpreter's) projection of the authorial persona in the report through conveying his or her assessments, feelings towards translation/interpretation materials, processes, problems and strategies, as well as his or her presence for the interaction between the translator/interpreter and the potential readers may possibly vary in a certain way. As shown in the researcher's preliminary online survey, 79.17% of the participants supposed that the difference of the stance expression between the TPR and the IPR would exist. Therefore, with this curiosity in the researcher's mind, the present study also intends to examine how Chinese MTI students deal with stance-making practice in the TPR and the IPR. Then, a further comparison on the use of stance between the TPR corpus and IPR corpus will be conducted to probe whether any variations exist.

1.3 Research Purposes

Given the rationale aforementioned, the research purposes at the macro-level in the present study aim to explore the discourse structures of the MTI Practice Report, i.e. the TPR and the IPR, through a corpus-based genre analysis, which is expected to propose the move-step frameworks for the pedagogical use. Then, a comparison of move-step structures of the TPR and of the IPR will be carried out to examine the variations of the discourse structures between the two subdisciplines in the MTI domain. The research purposes at the micro-level in the current study intend to probe the stance features in the TPR and in the IPR via a corpus-based investigation. Then a cross corpus comparison of the stance features between the TPR and the IPR will be conducted to examine the variations of stance features between these two sub-reporting genres. In order to facilitate the realization of the research purposes at the two levels, a post interview will be employed to confirm and clarify the analysis results achieved in the corpus-based move analysis and stance investigation by triangulating the text analysis with the insider informants' information.

Thus, the overall research purposes in the present study can be generated into following points:

1. To explore the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR in order to propose the move/step frameworks of the TPR and the IPR;

2. To examine the variations of the discourse structures, in terms of the similarities and differences, between the TPR and the IPR;

3. To investigate stance features in the TPR and the IPR;

4. To examine the variations of stance features, in terms of the similarities and differences, between the TPR and the IPR.

1.4 Research Questions

In line with the research purposes above, four research questions are generated as following:

(1) What are the discourse structures, in terms of moves and steps, of the TPR and the IPR, respectively?

(2) How is the discourse structure of the TPR similar to or different from that of the IPR?

(3) What are the stance features, in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, in the TPR and the IPR?

(4) How are stance features in the TPR similar to or different from those in the IPR?

1.5 Significance of the Study

The corpus-based genre analysis and stance investigation in the MTI Practice Report will bring significant benefits in many ways:

From the theoretical perspective, the present research is firstly expected to draw attention from genre analysts to the two newly emerging sub-reporting genres through taking an initiative exploration on the discourse structures and the stance features of the TPR and the IPR. Secondly, it is hoped to provide a comprehensive description on the two sub-reporting genres of TPR and IPR through the integration of the corpus-based investigation and the genre analysis with an aim to propose the move/step frameworks of the TPR and the IPR. From this perspective, it conforms to the descriptive nature of move analysis that the discourse structures of a group of texts are analyzed descriptively in order to propose the move-step framework for prescriptive teaching and instruction. Similarly, several groundbreaking studies such as Swales' (1990, 2000, 2004) description of Introduction of RAs, Bhatia's (1993) description of move pattern of promotional letters, and Connor and Mauranen's (1999) description of move structure of proposals have the same aim to provide an initial description of a new genre on the basis of research results. This descriptive research has the ultimate goal to apply the description of move and step pattern into the prescriptive teaching and instruction, which has been a common practice in ESP genre analysis. Thirdly, it is supposed to shed light on the understanding about the similarities and the differences on the discourse structures between the two sub-reporting genres in the MTI domain through the comparison of the move and step structures in the TPR and the IPR. This will reflect the genre variations in different subdisciplines related to different linguistic activities: the translation practice or the interpretation practice. In a similar vein, the comparison of stance features between the TPR and the IPR will also benefit the understanding of this particular linguistic feature, as well as the variations between the two closely-related sub-reporting genres. Lastly, it is intended to build a connection with the genre studies on the other reporting genres through the comparison of the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR with the frameworks of reports in other domains, such as the framework of lab reports proposed by Parkinson (2017) and the model of engineer design reports mapped out by Poltavtchenko (2013). This will possibly demonstrate the variations of the reporting genres in different disciplines.

From the pedagogical perspective, more significance can be obtained since the initial goal of genre analysis is "offering an approach to teaching academic and research English" (Swales, 1990, p. 1). Firstly, the result of the present study will provide a comprehensive and detailed description on the discourse structures and stance features of the TPR and the IPR through a corpus-based genre analysis. It is expected to raise Chinese MTI practitioners' awareness in writing the two sub-reporting genres as their degree theses. Specifically, the initial purpose of corpus-based genre analysis in the current study is to propose the descriptive frameworks of the TPR and the IPR, which are hoped to facilitate the teaching and learning of the writing of the TPR and the IPR prescriptively. That is, the exploratory schematic frameworks of the TPR and the IPR will be regarded as the initial step to provide a useful writing guide for both the MTI teachers and students to follow in their future thesis writing and instruction. Secondly, the contrastive investigation on the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR, in terms of moves and steps, is hoped to provide a further distinction in writing a practice report based on two different activities: translation and interpretation for two branches of the MTI students. Thirdly, via the corpus-based genre analysis in the present study, a comparison between the proposed frameworks of the TPR and the IPR and the models proposed by Chinese scholars (Mu et al., 2012) is expected to disclose the gap between the expected TPR and IPR writing patterns from the perspective of the MTI rule initiators and the actual writing patterns by the MTI students. This can provide the useful information for Chinese MTI policy makers, especially for the rule initiators of the MTI theses writing, for future syllabus design and material development. Lastly, the investigation of stance expressions will increase the MTI students' awareness on writer-oriented stance to improve the evidentiality of reports, to enhance the writing convention of the TPR and the IPR, and finally to help them to prove their achievements in the translation/interpretation practice worth for the MTI degree, which can permit them to make their own contribution in their future translation/interpretation career.

In short, the corpus-based genre analysis and stance investigation on the TPR and the IPR in the present study will definitely be helpful for Chinese MTI students in writing their MTI Practice Report as the degree thesis in English. To some extent, it will contribute to their Second Language Acquisition (SLA) due to the fact that writing in English is the undeniable challenge for Chinese MTI students. Besides, it is expected to improve their writing competence through a clear illustration of the discourse structures and the stance features of the TPR and the IPR, which will effectively facilitate them to solve some problems in their thesis writing. Furthermore, the exploration of the TPR and the IPR, as the new sub-reporting genres, will add more knowledge to the convention of the reporting community, and increase a different understanding about the reporting genres. That will help Chinese MTI educators and students perfect the writing of the MTI Practice Report. In addition. the findings from this study will also provide a reference for ESP/EAP teaching, especially for the reporting genre. As a result, it will further strengthen the realization of the educational goal of the MTI program by producing more qualified translators and interpreters to meet the demand of translation industry in China, which finally promotes multi-national communication between China and other countries all over the world.

1.6 Scope of the Study

The present study intends to conduct a corpus-based genre analysis of the discourse structures and a corpus-based investigation on stance features in the MTI Practice Report (the TPR and the IPR). However, constrained by time and energy, the scope of the current study is confined within the following aspects:

1. The data in the present study are limited to the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR. Although the other four types of MTI theses, i.e. Internship Report, Experiment Report, Survey Report and Research Thesis, are also important in the MTI domain and cannot be overlooked, they will be excluded from the current study. This constraint is decided by the following reasons:

(1) The representativeness: the MTI Practice Report, either the TPR or the IPR, is the best representative of the MTI students' professional achievements in the

program. From the perspective of educational goal of the MTI program, indeed, the Practice Report is one of the important thesis types to show how the MTI students apply what they have learned in the translation/interpretation into practice, and to display how they organize what they have done in the practice into an academic degree thesis.

(2) The popularity: the MTI Practice Report is one type of MTI theses with a great popularity among the majority of the MTI students. From the perspective of curriculum design, a great amount of translation and interpretation practice is compulsory in the program, as a result, most MTI students are willing to select the Practice Report to be their degree theses because they have a close relation with their daily practice. Hence, the MTI Practice Report naturally falls into the first choice to be the degree thesis for most of the MTI students.

(3) The long-term benefits: the MTI Practice Report is beneficial for the MTI students' future career. Most MTI students will take up translation/interpretation as their life careers. The translation/interpretation report will be useful for them to summarize their professional work in their future working career. Thus, the Practice Report instead of a traditional research thesis is greatly advocated by Ministry of Education of PRC as the MTI theses.

2. The current study only focuses on the TPR and the IPR written in English. This is confined by the difficulties caused by writing in English for Chinese MTI students. Especially, the MTI scheme issued in 2011 stated that it is obligatory to write either type of MTI theses in English, which has made a great need to focus on the TPR and

the IPR written in English in the present study. As a result, the TPR and the IPR written in Chinese or other languages will not be included in the present study.

3. Constrained by the fact that a large number of universities with the MTI program are located in different regions of China, all MTI theses in form of paper text are inaccessible. Therefore, all MTI Practice Reports in the present research, classified into the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus, are electronic texts mainly obtained from China Masters' Theses Full-text Database (CMFD), which is the most representative masters' theses full-text online database in China.

1.7 Definition of Key Terms

MTI Practice Report

In the present study, it is one type of the MTI theses advocated by CNCTIE in 2011. It mainly refers to a report that gives an account on the translation/interpretation procedures, problems and solving techniques based on a Chinese-English or English-Chinese translation/interpretation practice instructed by the supervisor. This type of report is required to be written on the translation/interpretation practice, which reflects how an MTI student apply theoretical knowledge, linguistic skills, technical approaches and management abilities to deal with the representative issues or critical problems in the translation/interpretation procedure (Huang, 2012).

Translation Practice Report (TPR)

It is one sub-type of the MTI Practice Report mainly written by the translation students to be the MTI thesis. It is a report mainly based on an MTI student’s translation practices or tasks, which gives a description on the characteristics of the translation task, the difficulties, solving strategies and recommendations and suggestions in the whole translation procedure.

Interpretation Practice Report (IPR)

It is the other sub-type of the MTI Practice Report mainly written by the interpretation students to be an MTI thesis. It is a report mainly based on an MTI student’s interpretation practice or tasks, which gives an account on the interpretation practice, the interpretation procedure, finally reports a reflection and suggestion on the problems and dealing techniques in the whole interpretation procedures.

Discourse structure

In the present study, it refers to the internal structure of texts corresponding to distinct proposition, topics, or communicative functions, which manifests the linguistic structure “beyond the sentence” in particular texts from a single genre (Biber et al., 2007). It is equal to the discourse organization or rhetorical structure to compose a genre.

Discourse unit

According to Biber et al. (2007, p. 11), in order to "analyze the internal discourse structure of each text in a corpus and to discover general patterns of discourse organization that hold across all texts in the corpus, corpus texts must first be segmented into well-defined discourse units, and then those units can be used to identify the general ways in which the discourse of corpus texts is organized". In the present study, it refers to the basic segmenting unit providing boundaries for the subsequent corpus-based discourse analysis. It is also called organizational unit which has the similar function as section or chapter in the research papers consisting of moves and steps.

Stance

According to Hyland (2005), stance refers to "writer-oriented" features of engagement, consisting a) evidentiality; b) affect; and c) presence. It can be interpreted as "a) how certain do I want to be about this?, b) what is my attitude toward it? , and c) do I want to make myself prominent?". Therefore, stance in the present study can be recognized as the reporter's (the MTI student's) expression of epistemic assessment, personal attitude, and self-presence by means of hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention.

1.8 Summary

This chapter opens with an overview on the present study. The background is described from the undeniable importance of translation and interpretation, which leads to the emphasis of them in the higher education system in China and worldwide. The MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR, as a newly emerging reporting genre and one type of the MTI theses, has caused much difficulties and problems for Chinese MTI practitioners. This induced the research purposes with four research questions to be answered in the present study, which are significant in the theoretical and pedagogical perspectives. Finally, this chapter concludes with the research constraints and functional definitions of the key terms in the present study. In the following chapter, a literature review will be presented with the relevant theoretical background and the previous studies related to the present study

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter offers the theoretical background and the previous studies related to the present research. Section 2.1 begins with definitions of genre, descriptions of genre analysis, and the most common three approaches to genre analysis. Section 2.2 provides a general introduction to the reporting genre, including the definitions and generic features, before the description of the MTI Practice Report and its generic features are presented. Section 2.3 describes the integration of corpus linguistics and genre analysis, which starts with a brief introduction to corpus linguistics, corpus-based genre analysis, and corpus-based move analysis. Section 2.4 presents the previous genre studies on reports and studies on the MTI Practice Report in China and ends with a critique on these previous studies to reveal the research gaps for the present study. Section 2.5 offers a theoretical background of stance and its related studies, including concepts of stance, significance of stance, common approaches to stance studies, followed by previous empirical studies on stance before a critique on these previous studies to disclose the research gaps for the present study.

2.1 Genre and Genre Analysis

2.1.1 Definitions of Genre

Genre, a prevalent concept in literacy education, has now been widely used in applied linguistics to describe types of text that are featured by a specific communicative function and contain a distinctive structural pattern. Many concepts are offered by several scholars to describe the nature of genre from different perspectives. Miller (1984) defines genre as "typified rhetorical actions based in recurrent situations" (p. 159). Bhatia (1993) claims "genre is an instance of a successful achievement of specific communicative purposes using conventionalized knowledge of linguistic and discoursal resources" (p. 16). Holmes (1997) regards genre as "a class of texts characterized by a specific communicative function that tends to produce distinctive structural patterns" (p. 322). Among various concepts of genre, the one defined by Swales (1990) is undoubtedly influential. It is described as:

> *"A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived 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."* (Swales, 1990, p. 58).

This definition provides a comprehensive interpretation of genre, which constructs an interwoven relationship among key elements in a genre, including communicative purposes, discourse community, convention of the discourse community, and schematic structure of the discourse. Among them, communicative purposes provide a main thread to combine all elements together. As Bhatia (1993) states, “the communicative purpose which the genre is intended to serve is the most important factor in genre identification” (p. 95). Discourse community is formed as a socio-rhetorical network in realizing the communicative purposes through a class of recurrent communicative events. At the same time, the communicative events are constrained within the convention of the discourse community that only the established community members in the discourse community are familiar with. The schematic structure that is based on a series of communicative events with the particular communicative function represents the distinctive structural patterns of a genre, which can help the new members who join the discourse community achieve the acquisition of the genre.

On the basis of genre definition by Swales’ (1990), therefore, one of important facets in understanding a genre is to know the distinctive structural patterns beyond linguistic features, grammatical forms, sentences, and contents in a series of communicative texts with the similar communicative purposes. It is to know how writers typically organize linguistic resources to realize the communicative purposes in a specific situation, and to know how they use community conventions that other community members find familiar to compose successful and convincing communicative events. By relying on Swales’ (1990) definition, it is meaningful to help the genre practitioners to obtain genre knowledge through identifying the communicative purposes of a genre, through explicitly analyzing what writers produce when they write in a particular community, and through exploring the schematic structure of a genre that facilitates new members to know how to organize their writing to meet the conventions of the community in which the genre exists. In line with these aims, genre analysis has been widely adopted to offer insights into how a genre, especially a new one, works to realize its communicative purposes in its typical structure within a particular setting.

2.1.2 Genre Analysis

As a long-established tradition in applied linguistics, genre analysis is the study that focuses on the use of language within a particular context. It focuses on such issues as rhetorical styles and discourse types and relates research in sociolinguistics, text linguistics and discourse analysis to the survey of specialist areas of language. Thus, genre analysis employs linguistic analysis to answer the typical question in discourse. In Bhatia's (1993) words, "why is a particular text-genre written the way it is?" (p. 19). The overall purpose of a genre analysis is to explore why some particular features are used by writers of the genre to realize the communicative purposes (Bhatia, 1993). In addition, being elicited by the discourse phenomenon that writers in a specific genre share fairly similarities in the way they organize the overall communicative events, one important purpose of genre analysis is to characterize the consistence of structural organization of a genre-specific text. By means of genre analysis, for example, Swales (1981) revealed the similarities and the consistence in the organization of academic Introduction through an investigation of 48 RAs Introduction from a variety of disciplines. Since then, genre analysis has been applied to analyze the discourse in different domains, such as in academic fields (e.g. Dudley-Evans, 1986; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988) and in professional domains (e.g. Bhatia, 1993; Connor & Mauranen,1999; Henry & Roseberry, 1996).

In the last four decades, genre analysis has offered a useful approach to describe the form-function relationship of language which has a great pedagogical meaning for the learning and teaching of genres in various fields. It answers "how writers typically use language to respond to recurring situations, pointing to the fact that texts are most successful when they employ conventions that other members of the community find familiar and convincing" (Hyland, 2008, p. 543). The analysis of similarities and consistence in structural organization of the genre offers the genre-based schematic framework, which provides the pedagogical instruction in practical learning and teaching situations, such as the ESP and the EAP. The theoretical and pedagogical values of genre analysis have brought many studies that were conducted to obtain genre knowledge under the guidance of different genre theories and approaches. Among these approaches to genre analysis, three key ones are worth mentioning below.

2.1.3 Three Approaches to Genre Analysis

Hyon (1996) proposed three basic approaches to genre analysis, including the Systemic-Functional or Sydney School approach, the New Rhetorical approach, and the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) approach.

The systemic-Functional approach has been developed from Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), which is concerned with exploring the relation between the language use and its corresponding functions in social contexts. Based on Martin's (1997) view on genre that is "the system of staged, goal-oriented social process" (p. 13), the genre analysts in this approach concentrate more on linking relationship among form, function, and social context. That is, schemes produced in this approach emphasize both global text structure and register features in sentence level, which are adopted to explain the relationship among field, tenor, and mode that are key factors in SFL. The genre-based applications in this approach mainly center in primary, secondary, and adult education with the aim to help students or adult learners effectively participate in genre community.

The New Rhetoric approach is based on the concept that genre is regarded as recurring social actions. It concerns more the social contexts in which genres occur, and the social purposes that the genres fulfill within these contexts. The genre analysts in this approach usually adopt the method of ethnography, observation, or interview rather than text analysis to examine the text, which aims to offer a comprehensive description of the social situation which the genre is situated in. Given its pedagogical purpose, this approach concerns more the teaching of rhetoric in composition and professional writing that are written in the first language. As a consequence, the knowledge of social contexts in which texts occur plays a key role in helping novice writers know about rhetoric that conforms with their contexts.

The ESP approach aims to understand the non-native use of language in academic and professional settings by employing genre knowledge. It is represented by Swales' (1990) genre theory by describing genres as "communicative events" with particular "communicative purposes", "the schematic pattern for structure, style and content", and "the intended audience" (p. 58). This approach generally focuses more on the form and organizational structure of genre rather than the social functions that texts fulfill and the social context in which texts are situated in although social function and form of the text are considered later by other genre analysts (e.g. Bhatia, 1993; Flowerdrew, 1993; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988) as well. The ESP approach give priority to the pedagogical implications for non-native speakers of English in using linguistic resources to write texts in the field of English for Academic Purpose (EAP) and English for Specific Purpose (ESP) that conform with their disciplinary and professional conventions (Hyon, 1996). Consequently, the schematic and rhetorical features of the text are usually analyzed through the method of text analysis and taught prescriptively to help non-native students to communicative effectively within the community conventions.

2.1.4 Move Analysis

In the ESP approach, genre is viewed as communicative events whose members share communicative purposes (Swales, 1990, 2004) or staged events that form from a sequence of moves and component steps (Bhatia, 1993). It, therefore, is analyzed by means of move analysis, which is pioneered by Swales (1990) who describes text as a sequence of moves. Move is defined as “a rhetorical unit that performs a coherent communicative function in a written or spoken discourse” (Swales, 2004, p. 228). Move analysis explores the distinctive structural pattern of a genre in terms of move with a particular communicative function, which intends to answer the common question that is raised in genre analysis: “why is a particular text-genre written the way it is?” (Bhatia, 1993, p. 19). As a result, move analysis is a widely employed method in the ESP approach to examine the overall organizational patterns of a genre. In order to provide the genre knowledge and genre-based pedagogical instructions about some salient genres, many studies have been carried out through move analysis to reveal the schematic structures of genres that are demonstrated as typical move and step patterns, such as move analysis of experimental RAs (Swales, 1981,1990), Science dissertations (Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988), Medical abstract (Salager-Meyer, 1990), and Medical RAs (Nwogu, 1997) in academic domain, and move analysis of business letters (Bhatia, 1993), job application letters (Henry & Roseberry, 2001), university lectures (Thompson, 1994), grant proposals (Connor & Mauranen,1999), and company audit reports (Flowerdew & Wan, 2010) in professional field.

In sum, based on a brief review of genre and genre analysis, genre can be understood as a class of communicative events with the communicative purposes in a specific discourse community from Swales' (1990) perspective although concepts of genre proposed from other angles also make genre knowledge versatile. Each of the three approaches to genre analysis has its own priorities and focuses, but some distinctive characteristics in the ESP approach make it widely adopted to obtain the genre knowledge of a typical group of texts. First of all, it focuses on non-native writing of texts in a specific discipline in a particular academic or professional setting, ranging from RAs in academic domain to letters, and proposals in professional fields. Secondly, this approach gives more priority to the analysis of the schematic pattern or the discourse organization of a genre although it also admits the importance of the context to the genre. As a consequence, move analysis is usually taken as a common method to explore the way that a genre is organized from a perspective of textual linguistic analysis. Lastly, one of typical characteristics in this approach is its pedagogical purpose that aims to help non-native writers, such as university students, graduates, and academics to get to know how target genre is written within the convention of a certain discourse community. It is expected that the genre-based analysis and genre-based instruction will help genre authors to write well in their writing tasks as well.

Taking the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR, in the current study for consideration, it is a newly emerging group of texts with specific communicative purposes in Chinese academic community to meet the educational goals of translation and interpretation in China. For a new and unfamiliar genre, a genre analysis should be adopted to obtain the initial genre knowledge on this group of texts with particular communicative purposes. Given that exploring the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR is one of research purposes in the current study, the examination of the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR which are characterized by the rhetorical moves or text segments through genre analysis in the ESP approach is worthy and meaningful. It is expected to add one view on an under-explored genre as well. By means of move analysis with an aim to propose the schematic frameworks of the TPR and the IPR, the current research is hoped to offer the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR to facilitate the teaching and learning of the MTI Practice Report in Chinese context. Especially for Chinese MTI students, they are facing great difficulties in writing the TPR and the IPR in English that is caused by the fact that they are non-native English learners. Furthermore, the TPR and the IPR, as two newly emerged reporting genres, pose a great challenge on the MTI students in writing a well-organized Translation or Interpretation Practice Report. Therefore, a move analysis from the ESP approach is believed to help the MTI students to obtain the initial genre knowledge of how the two genres are written in their way. That is, the present study will adopt the ESP approach, in terms of move analysis, to explore the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR.

2.2 Reporting Genre

2.2.1 Definition of Reports

"Reporting is perhaps one of the most popular and overly used 'generic values' in all contexts of professional discourse across disciplines and domains today" (Bhatia, 2004, p. 81). Various reports are not unfamiliar to us, such as news reports, medical reports, business reports, and project reports, to list a few. Report writing, to great extent, is related to professional requirements to provide a descriptive and informative account on what has happened. It can be regarded as a professional skill that is essential for one's career competencies.

In spite of widespread availability of various type of reports, an umbrella term that is general enough for the definition of the report that encompasses all generic features has not been found by the researcher. However, the definitions of reports in some specific domains or contexts possibly help provide a glimpse of the connotation of the report. With the increasing of genre studies that are related to reports in recent years, the definitions of various types of reports in different contexts have emerged. For example, student laboratory reports are referred to as the pedagogical genres that are commonly written by students who report on their experimental work (Gardner & Nesi, 2013). Corporate annual reports function to forecast the development of a corporate through stating explicitly the information about what a corporate has achieved in the past year and in what state a corporate is currently (Rutherford, 2005). Medical case reports are a group of texts that are written to achieve "professional communication for clinical and academic purpose" (Hung, Chen & Tsai, 2012, p. 220), while business case reports provide factual information of company characteristics and actions in specific situations, which are generally presented in a documentary form (Nathan, 2013, 2016).

Although the definitions of those specific reports vary dramatically, they provide us with an overview about what a report is. Concerning generality of the concept, a report can be taken as an informational work that recounts specific events with purposes of providing information that is factual, concise, and relevant to the audience at hand. This understanding of the report offers us a comprehensive view on what a report is from the aspects of its content, language style, context, and audience. All those aspects are comprised into the generic features of reporting which are important for defining a text as a reporting genre. They are mainly demonstrated in terms of their communicative purposes, their intended audience, and their typical schematic structures.

2.2.2 Generic Features of Reports

According to Swales' (1990) definition of genre, three criterions are basic to define a genre, which are its communicative purposes, its intended audience, and its schematic structure. The three criteria work interactively in a particular community, which form the generic features of a genre that can be recognized by its members. Correspondingly, generic characteristics of reports can be described from those aspects.

Firstly, the communicative purposes of the reporting genre can be understood as delivering information, which is usually realized through recounting the events or the tasks in a concise and factual way. Consequently, the main function of a report is informative, in a sense that it intends to put across the event to the targeted audience (Bowden, 2004). However, it is worth noting that different reporting genres vary to some extent in their specific communicative purposes due to the variations in profession, discipline, context, audience and so on.

Secondly, the audience is critically important for either type of reports. When writers write the reports, they should keep the needs of the readers in mind because the audience can decide whether to accept what are reported or not. However, the audience of the reports varies according to the type of reports because the form of reports is greatly decided by the medium that the event is conveyed and the domain that reports are produced. For example, oral reports, written reports, radio reports, and TV reports target different audiences, and news reports and business reports focus on different people in different fields.

Finally, the linguistic features and schematic structures are constrained within a certain reporting community because "there are certain conventions within the field of report writing" (Bowden, 2004, p. 77). At the same time, "a report writer also should be given as much freedom as possible within these conventions" (Bowden, 2004, p. 77), many ways are thus encouraged to develop a natural, or individual report writing. This causes the various structures of reporting genre. In addition, as aforementioned, different reports "cover different subjects, and they have different purposes and readerships" (Bowden, 2004, p. 138), as a consequence, the style, format and contents of each type of reports will be different, which are demonstrated as variety of combinations of report components.

2.2.3 The MTI Practice Report and Its Generic Features

As one type of report that was emerging in recent years, the MTI Practice Report is developed to meet the educational aim of translation/interpretation in the Chinese context. It represents a group of written texts with similar communicative purposes that tend to produce distinctive structural patterns. In Miller's (1984) view, it demonstrates the typified rhetorical activities based on recurrent translation/ interpretation situations. From Bhatia's (1993) genre perspective, it is the result of specific communicative purposes using conventionalized knowledge of linguistic and discoursal resources in Chinese MTI domain. More importantly, the MTI Practice Report conforms to Swales' (1990) definition of genre that it has well-defined communicative purposes, audience, and typical structural pattern. Firstly, as one type of reports, the communicative purposes of the MTI Practice Report are to describe how a translation/interpretation practice has been conducted. On the other hand, as one type of MTI theses, its communicative purposes are also to convince the graduate committee that the report writer is able to complete a professional translation/interpretation task by applying theoretical knowledge, linguistic skills, techniques that are required to meet the expectations of the graduate community, which is qualified for a master degree. Therefore, the audience of the MTI Practice Report includes two main groups of people. One group is the potential readers of the reports who intend to obtain the related translation/interpretation experience or seek related information on how to write the Practice Report as a master thesis. Another group of audience of the MTI Practice Report is obviously the graduate committee members, including the supervisor, who will judge whether an MTI student is qualified enough for a master degree. Similarly, due to the double facets of the communicative purposes and the intended audience, the schematic structure of the MTI practice report is formed based on the combination of the format of a thesis and the pattern of the report. As a consequence, it generally includes thesis format such as Front Cover, Statement of Originality, Acknowledgements, English Abstract, Chinese Abstract, Main body of the thesis (report), References, and Appendices (see Figure 2.1). At the same time, it follows the structural pattern of reports to describe what has been conducted in the translation/interpretation process.

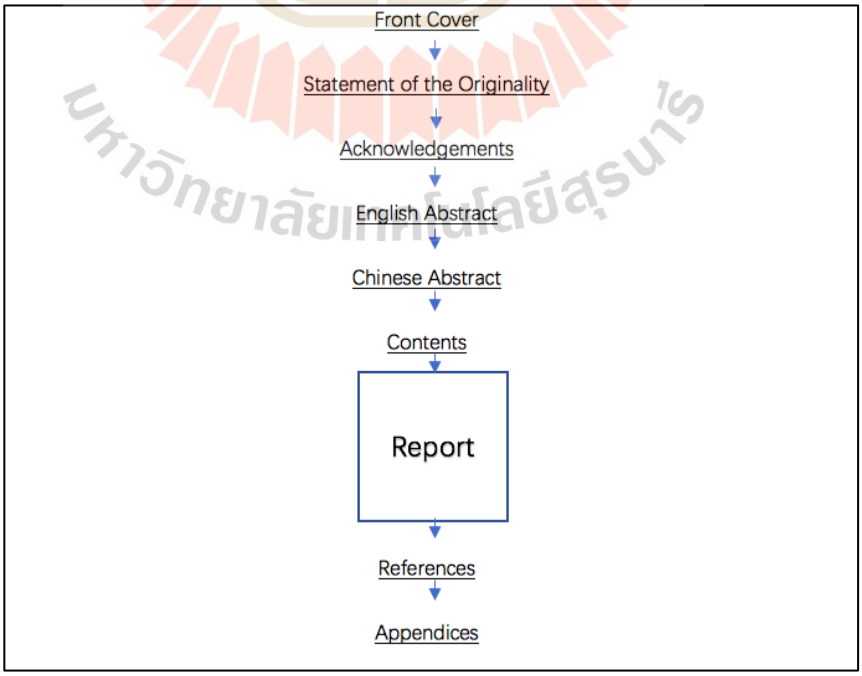


Figure 2.1 The schematic structure of an MTI Practice Report

Furthermore, the MTI Practice Report can be further divided into the Translation Practice Report (TPR) and the Interpretation Practice Report (IPR) based on the specific communicative purposes that the students in translation subdiscipline and the students in interpretation subdiscipline respectively intend to achieve. As a result, the TPR and the IPR, as two main sub-types of the MTI Practice Report, share the common generic features of reports because both of them are reports produced in the MTI domain. However, they demonstrate their specific features in their schematic structures and rhetorical conventions due to their respective communicative purposes, intended audience and structural pattern.

In addition, according to genre colony theory by Bhatia (2004), all types of the MTI reports form a colony, and the TPR and the IPR can be regarded as two individual genres as part of genres in the MTI domain (see Figure 2.2). They share similarities, and they at the same time overlap with other types of report within and across disciplines. However, they have their own special peculiarities and significance in their own academic and professional contexts.

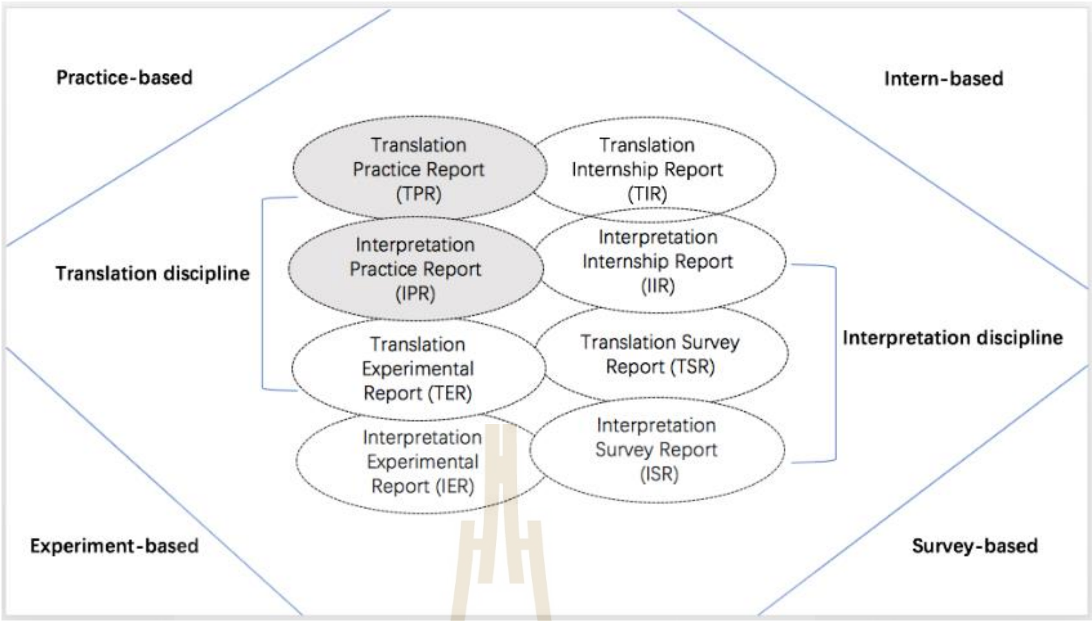


Figure 2.2 Colony of the MTI reports

2.3 Corpus Linguistics and Genre Analysis

2.3.1 Introduction to Corpus Linguistics

The corpus-based language study has a substantial history although the term *corpus linguistics* firstly appeared in the 1980s (McEnery, Xiao & Tono, 2006). Especially, with the widespread of corpus methodology in linguistics in twentieth century (McEnery & Wilson, 2001), the corpus-based approach to linguistic analysis has come to prominence. Corpus linguistics is an empirical methodology that employs a large, systematically organized body of natural texts (the corpus) to analyze actual patterns of language use (Biber, Conrad, & Reppen, 1998). In modern times that the powerful computer systems are popular, corpus linguistics is more regarded as an approach to language studies with the help of computers and electronic corpora (Lüdeling & Kytö, 2008).

The corpus is the key factor in corpus linguistic studies. According to Leech (1992), a corpus can be briefly defined as a body of naturally occurred language assembled to be representative of some language or text type. Sinclair (1996) echoes the importance of representativeness of corpus and states that “a corpus is a collection of pieces of language that are selected and ordered according to explicit linguistic criteria in order to be used as a sample of the language” (as cited in McEnery et al., 2006, p. 4). Apart from the important features like “naturally occurred language” and “representativeness” in the definition of corpus, the “machine-readability” is emphasized in modern linguistics. Corpus “can be best described as 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). Consequently, the essential qualities of a corpus are (1) authenticity, (2) representativeness, (3) machine-readability, and (4) sampling strategies (McEnery et al., 2006).

The goal of corpus linguistics is to examine the way people use language through analyzing large databases of real language examples (Biber et al., 1998). With a large general corpus, it is effective and reliable to obtain the useful information about the preferred ways of using lexical, grammatical, structural patterns in language. As a result, a corpus-based linguistic study means dealing corpora data by employing a series of corpus techniques and procedures, in which computers or computer programs “are used in sometimes automatic, sometimes interactive ways” (Bhatia, Flowerdew, &

Jones, 2008, p. 87) to understand the use or the pattern of language. In this aspect, corpus-based linguistic study helps draw insights from observations about how people use language by working with a large amount of electronic texts. That is, the focus in corpus linguistics is language itself rather than corpora.

Compared with traditional intuition-based approach to linguistic study, the corpus-based approach has some obvious advantages. The most obvious one is that the advent of computer technology makes it possible to collect and manage vast electronical texts. Next, the "electronic corpora have advantages unavailable to their paper-based equivalents" (McEnery et al., 2006, p. 6). Contrary to the paper corpora, the computerized corpora can be used, together with computer program, to facilitate linguistic analysis which is (1) relatively easy and fast, (2) accurate and consistent, and (3) reliable. Moreover, "corpus-based research actually depends on both quantitative and qualitative techniques" (Baker, 2006, p. 2). That is, based on the functional interpretation, in terms of qualitative way which is essential in linguistic analysis, corpus-based approach combines the statistical methods to reveal linguistic patterns in a quantitative way, for example by using frequency information about occurrences of particular linguistic phenomena.

Therefore, although corpus-based linguistics is criticized for its disadvantages, such as "decontextualization" (Bhatia et al., 2008) and bottom up approach to corpora data, it has been widely applied in nearly all branches of linguistics.

2.3.2 Corpus-based Genre Analysis

It is not uncommon to align corpus-based methodologies with genre-based approaches to discourse analysis. “Corpus linguistic studies are generally considered to be a type of discourse analysis because they describe the use of linguistic forms in context” (Biber et al., 2007, p. 2). Discourse analysis includes three aspects: “(1) the study of language use, (2) the study of linguistic structure ‘beyond the sentence’, and (3) the study of social practices and ideological assumptions that are associated with language and/or communication” (Biber et al., 2007, p. 1). Among the three aspects, the study of linguistic structure “beyond the sentence” is the research on how language is constructed and organized in systematic ways from the genre perspective. It can specifically be referred as corpus-based approach to genre analysis because it has “a primary focus on linguistic form and how language structures are used for communication” (Biber et al., 2007, p. 2).

Corpus linguistics is usually considered to be less employed in the discourse analysis that focuses on the structural organization because they have their different research goals and methodologies. The former is “based on analysis of all texts in a corpus, utilizing quantitative measures to identify the typical distributional patterns that occur across texts” while the latter intends to “have a detailed analysis of a single text, resulting in a qualitative linguistic description of the textual organization” (Biber et al., 2007, p. 2). According to Biber et al. (2007), however, it is possible to interface the corpus linguistics and the analytical goals and methods of discourse analysis that focus on the structural organization. That is, a corpus can be used to identify the general patterns of discourse organization that are used to construct texts. In this regard, corpus linguistics not only can help facilitate the analysis of typical collocates of language, but also it can make it possible to understand the general structural patterns of an amount of individual texts in a corpus based on the primary genre analysis.

Therefore, "the corpus linguistic methods have been an important part in empirical genre-based studies, in both academic and professional genres" (Connor, 2004, p. 298). For example, Bhatia (2004) proposes that multi-perspective approach should be employed to genre analysis, such as corpus-based discourse analysis. Flowerdew (2008) argues that "corpus-based methodologies have been informed by genre theory and principles of text analysis, while at the same time genre theories have profited from corpus-based methodologies" (as cited in Bhatia et al., 2008, p. 84)

In recent years, based on the comparatively small corpora, corpus-based genre analysis has become useful in the study of general structural pattern in specific academic or professional genres. Instead of compiling a general corpus for representativeness of language across a large number of communicative purposes, the small specialized corpora that focus on specific types of genres within the academic or professional context are constructed to provide a foundation for the study of language structure and use (Connor & Upton, 1996). Specifically, a corpus-based move analysis was proposed by Biber et al. (2007) to obtain the general structural pattern in a specific genre, which will be described in the following section.

2.3.3 Corpus-based Move Analysis

As aforementioned, move analysis was initially developed by Swales (1981) to "describe the communicative purposes of a text by categorizing the various discourse units within the text according to their communicative purposes or rhetorical moves" (Biber et al., 2007, p. 23). In move analysis, the discourse structure of a genre is often examined through applying a well-examined move model to identify move types or move boundaries on the basis of the specific communicative purpose conveyed in each move. The pattern of rhetorical moves constitutes a model for a particular genre after categorizing the variety of discourse units based on their communicative purposes.

From corpus-based perspective, moves are regarded as semantic and functional units of texts that have specific communicative purposes (Biber et al., 2007). Each move with its own semantic and functional purpose makes its own contribution to the overall purposes of the text. One important goal of corpus-based genre analysis is to generalize the consistence of structural pattern of a group of genre-specific texts contained in the corpus. Move analysis is useful in facilitating revealing the similarities and consistence in the discourse organization by identifying the text segments with the same semantic and functional purposes. In the same vein, a corpus-based move analysis is suitable for studying the discourse structure of texts contained in a corpus, especially for a genre without a pre-existed model demonstrating its pattern of rhetorical moves. Specifically, the corpus-based move analysis is conducted in ways that "the functional analytical framework is developed first; that framework is then applied to segment texts into discourse units (moves); finally, the moves and functional move types are analyzed to describe their linguistic characteristics" (Biber et al., 2007, p. 23). With this regard, as Table 2.1 shows, ten general steps are proposed by Biber et al. (2007) in a corpus-based move analysis.

Table 2.1 General steps often used to conduct a corpus-based move analysis (Biber et al., 2007, p. 34)

Step	Description
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 steps 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 and examples 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 recode 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

In brief, a corpus-based move analysis with 10 steps can be realized through four major phases: i.e. (1) identifying possible organizational units with the same communicative purposes; (2) conducting pilot coding to develop the coding protocol; (3) coding the full set of texts with inter-rater reliability check; (4) describing move structures and linguistic features of texts in the corpus.

This methodology is useful for exploring the discourse structure of a genre from the corpus perspective, especially for a new or less-known genre. It is “a functional approach to text analysis based on cognitive judgement rather than a reliance on linguistic criteria to identify the intention of a text and the textual boundaries” (Biber et al., 2007, p. 32). Furthermore, this approach is in accord with the theoretical definition of a move; that is, a move is a segment of text that is shaped and constrained by a particular communicative function (Holmes, 1997). It has been described as the functional-semantic method used to identify discourse moves by Kwan (2006). Practically, it was also applied to the analysis of the discourse structures of Engineer Design Report (EDR) by Poltavtchenko (2013) and student’s laboratory report (Parkinson, 2017), which has been proved to be reliable in analyzing the discourse structures of the less-known and under-explored genres.

Therefore, considering that the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR, is a newly emerging reporting genre and that there is not suitable move framework for identifying possible moves/steps in it, a corpus-based move analysis can be applied to probe the discourse structure of this new reporting genre. That is, by integrating the corpus linguistics and genre analysis, the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR can be identified by employing the corpus-based move analysis, and the linguistic features, as represented in the use of stance in the TPR and the IPR (to be reviewed later), will be investigated as a corpus-facilitated linguistic analysis.

2.4 Previous Studies on Reporting Genre

Since writing a good report is important for a reporter's professional development, it is greatly necessary to have the genre knowledge of the report to help report authors to write effectively. In recent years, several studies have been conducted to explore the schematic structures or linguistic features of varieties of reports, especially for the new and salient ones, in order to provide valuable genre knowledge of those types of reports in certain contexts.

2.4.1 Previous Corpus-based Genre Studies on Reports

Rutherford (2005), by integrating the genre analysis with the corpus linguistics, investigated the stylistic choice in accounting narratives of annual reports. With a corpus of 44 reports sampled from UK companies, the lexical choice, frequency of use, and other linguistic information that would affect the stylistic choice in accounting narratives of annual reports were analyzed by using word frequencies as the tool of analysis. The research found both the stability and variations in patterns of lexical usage in this genre. This research is typical in that it adopted the genre theory as the analytical framework and employed the corpus linguistics as the empirical method. However, it focused more on linguistic analysis by employing corpus method rather than on exploring the schematic structure by using move analysis to describe genre knowledge of this typical report.

With an attempt to identify peculiarities of business reports, a genre study was conducted by Yeung (2007) who investigated the rhetorical and the linguistic features of business reports in a corpus with 22 authentic business reports. The research showed that the overall structure of business reports demonstrated as a shape of a funnel that developed through the deductive reasoning, which distinguished business reports from research articles. Besides, the business reports were marked by topical organization of three-step structural pattern and by linguistic features of modality, nominalization, and evaluative lexis. Although the deductive reasoning instead of the move analysis was adopted in this research, both rhetorical and linguistic features of business reports were examined to build the genre knowledge of this type of reporting genre.

Flowerdew and Wan (2010), encouraged by providing maximum use in ESP course design, carried out a piece of research on company auditor's reports by integrating the contextual analysis and the textual analysis. The writing context of the auditor's reports in a Hong Kong accounting company was firstly described through an observation and interview with auditors from the ethnographic perspective. Then, the text analysis was conducted to explore how communicative purposes were realized in the genre of the auditor's reports. Furthermore, by means of move analysis, the main moves and their frequencies in a corpus of 25 authentic auditor's reports were identified to demonstrate the schematic structure and linguistic pattern of the auditor's reports.

Driven by the important role of the case presentation in the medical case reports and challenges faced by Taiwanese medical students in writing case reports in English, Hung, Chen and Tsai (2012) investigated the rhetorical structure of case presentations in a corpus of 40 case presentations through a hand-tagged move analysis. The research contributed a rhetorical model of case presentation in the medical case report with 9 moves and 12 steps, together with the clear definition of each move. This model has a great pedagogical meaning for teaching and learning in English for Medical Purpose (EMP).

Similarly, given the importance of business case reports for students on academic business programs and the difficulties of writing business case reports for both native and non-native students, Nathan (2013) conducted a genre-based study to examine the move structure of business case reports in a corpus of 53 marketing and marketing management case reports written by native and non-native graduate students at a UK university. Three obligatory moves and five optional moves were identified. Through a further comparison with 16 business case reports from the British Academic Written English Corpus (BAWE), the research disclosed that common structural similarities and variation that existed between these two corpora.

More recently, considering the difficulties in writing Options Analysis for non-native writers and the absence of move analysis of this genre, Nathan (2016) conducted a move analysis to propose a rhetorical structure for Options Analysis by employing Swalesian genre analysis in the ESP field. On the basis of the corpus of 23 Options Analysis texts extracted from business case reports written by native and non-native postgraduates at a UK university business school, the structure of Options Analysis in business case reports was identified, and the frequency count of moves and sub-moves revealed the rhetorical differences employed by native writers and non-native writers.

Parkinson (2017), based on a corpus of 60 highly-graded laboratory reports from the BAWE corpus, carried out a move analysis of the student laboratory reports by following the steps outlined in Biber et al.'s (2007) corpus-based move analysis. Twenty-two moves in the six macro-sections were identified and described, together with typical linguistic features. Then, through a comparison of moves between the student laboratory reports and the empirical research articles, the research found that the generic structural differences existed between these two genres with different communicative purposes.

Motivated by the need to clarify the mechanisms in producing an effective English language medical case reports and to enlighten medical professionals in the writing of the genre of medical case reports, Lysanets, Morokhovets and Bieliaieva (2017) conducted an examination on the genre of medical case reports by using the method of stylistic and lexico-grammatical analyses. The research on a corpus of 15 case reports revealed that medical case reports usually hold a structural style of a*bstract, introduction, case presentation, discussion, conclusion, informed consent* and *references*. It also showed that the communicative strategies in each section were effectively achieved by means of variety of lexico-grammatical structures, such as voice, tense, personal pronoun, and modal verbs.

Except for exploring report structure of a reporting genre by employing move analysis, the disciplinary variation is also examined in the corpus-based genre study of reports. For example, Yu and Bondi (2017) examined and compared the generic structures of Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) reports in Italian, Chinese, and English from a corpus-based perspective. By combing genre theories with concepts from Systemic Functional Linguistics, they designed a 15-move observational scheme for move identification and made a comparison in18 CSR reports. The results revealed that CSR reports in the three languages were featured by rhetorical recurrence and hybridity. The generic similarities, in terms of the identical trends of the top six moves, and the cross-cultural variations, in terms of the use of some optional moves, were identified in different language contexts.

2.4.2 Critique of Previous Corpus-based Genre Studies on Reports

As the most prevalent "generic value" that is overly used in all kinds of contexts (Bhatia, 2004), reporting genres have gradually drawn attention from genre analysts in recent years. Several genre studies on reports have been conducted, which range from business reports (Nathan, 2013, 2016; Yeung, 2007), auditor's reports (Flowerdew & Wan, 2010), medical reports (Hung, Chen & Tsai, 2012; Lysanets, Morokhovets & Bieliaieva, 2017), laboratory reports (Parkinson, 2017), and corporate social responsibility (CSR) reports (Yu & Bondi, 2017). Most of those studies have been conducted because of the importance of a reporting genre and the writing difficulties caused by a lack of genre knowledge in a specific context, such as move analysis on medical reports (Hung, Chen & Tsai, 2012), genre-based study to explore the move structure of business report (Nathan, 2013), options analysis in business case reports (Nathan, 2016), and laboratory reports (Parkinson, 2017). The schematic structures of those types of reports analyzed through move analysis have offered valuable pedagogical implications for the writing of reporting genres in different settings. Apart from adopting move analysis in the ESP approach to acquire the genre knowledge of reports in different settings, other genre approaches were also employed to investigate a type of reports from corpus perspective, for example, the study on company auditor's reports conducted by Flowerdew and Wan (2010) by integrating the contextual analysis and the textual analysis, the genre analysis of medical case reports done by Lysanets, Morokhovets and Bieliaieva (2017) by using the method of stylistic and lexico-grammatical analysis, and the genre study on the rhetorical and the linguistic features of business reports conducted by Yeung (2007) through deductive reasoning. Hence, it can be inferred that genre studies on other types of reports that are in the reporting colony are worthy and meaningful to be conducted to explore the schematic structures which have the similar pedagogical implication.

However, there is an obvious gap existing in the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR. Firstly, several studies have been conducted to explore the genre knowledge of various reports, covering business, medical, or experimental research reports. However, it is a pity that less attention has been given to the MTI Practice Report although it has an undeniable importance in Chinese MTI educational context. Secondly, many writing problems are faced by Chinese MTI students and supervisors due to a lack of generic knowledge of this reporting genre, especially in terms of their discourse structures and stance features. However, according the researcher's knowledge, no exact study has tried to conduct a descriptive move analysis of this newly emerging reporting genre to provide a prescriptive framework to help solving those problems. Lastly, no study has been done to explore the variation between the TPR and the IPR in terms of their discourse structures and stance features, which are two closely-related sub-reporting genres in Chinese MTI domain. Therefore, it is worth filling this gap in the current study. On the one hand, it will reveal generic structures of the TPR and the IPR in the Chinese context. On the other hand, it will add more generic knowledge into the genre colony of reporting.

2.4.3 Previous Studies on the MTI Practice Report in China

As one type of the master theses in the MTI field in China, the MTI Practice Report undoubtedly has drawn much attention from Chinese researchers. Especially, because the MTI is a newly emerging professional degree, there is a great controversy on its thesis types. Consequently, the MTI Practice Report is, on the one hand, proposed as one type of the MTI theses when Chinese researchers discussed the suitable MTI theses type from the perspective of policy-making. On the other hand, due to the lack of specific writing model for each type of the MTI theses, some Chinese researchers devoted to explore the writing model for each type of the MTI theses, including the

MTI Practice Report, based on the educational aims of the MTI program and the practical MTI theses writing in China.

In the first aspect, the MTI Practice Report is proposed as the main type of the MTI theses based on the MTI educational scheme in China. Several articles were produced to express researchers' advocacies. For example, Ma (2010) and Mu and Zou (2011) investigated the preferred type of the MTI theses based on the thesis data collected from the first batch of universities offering the MTI program. Ma (2010) stated that most MTI students in the first batch tended to write research theses because other types of the MTI theses, in the form of reporting genre, brought a lot of difficulties to them.

Mu and Zou (2011) carried out a quantitative investigation on the option of research topics for the MTI theses collected from 15 Chinese universities and colleges that fall into the first batch to offer the MTI program. The research revealed that a large number of the MTI theses were academically-oriented and followed the schematic structure of M.A. theses, while the Translation Practice Report and the Translation Experiment Report constituted a small part. The reason was attributed to the fact that the MTI theses in the form of reporting genre were too foreign to the MTI students to write. Thus, the researchers recommended that the MTI students should gradually adopt reports as their master theses.

In the same vein, Mu (2011) proposed four types of the MTI theses, consisting of Internship Report, Practice Report, Experiment Report, and Survey

Report. In her advocacy, the MTI Practice Report should be proposed as one type of the MTI theses. Thus, a general description of the content and the format of the MTI Practice Report was provided in her article.

Among the published materials related to the MTI Practice Report, the most influential one is the book *A Guide to Writing MTI Dissertations* produced by Huang (2012). It aims to provide a guide for the MTI theses writing from three aspects: (1) description of contents in the MTI theses, (2) analysis of the MTI theses samples, and (3) suggestions for the MTI theses writing. In this book, the MTI Practice Report is described as one type of the MTI theses. The writing suggestions on each section of the MTI Practice Report are provided by means of analyzing the thesis samples, which has made a practical effect on the schematic structure contained in students' MTI Practice Report.

In the second aspect, several Chinese researchers tried to explore the structural format of the MTI theses, including the schematic structure of the MTI Practice Report. For instance, Chen and Zhang (2011) proposed the structural format for the MTI theses by taking reference on the format of the MTI theses from other countries. They claimed that "Translation Comments" that consist of translation section and comment section would be taken as the main format of the MTI theses. Their claim in this research laid the foundation for the format of the MTI Practice Report that a practice report would be given on the basis of translation practices.

For the schematic structure of the MTI Practice Report, the most important research was attributed to Mu, Zou and Yang (2012) who proposed five types of the MTI theses with corresponding writing models based on a survey of theses collected from the MTI graduates in 15 universities. The five types of MTI theses were Project Internship Report, Translation Practice Report, Translation Experiment Report, Translation Survey Report, and Translation Research Thesis. Especially, a comparatively complete schematic pattern of the MTI Practice Report was initially described in detail with basic components in each section. This schematic model offers a useful guide for Chinese MTI students to follow when they are writing their MTI Practice Reports.

Similarly, attracted by the problems and confusion that most university administrators, theses supervisors, theses examiners, and the MTI candidates had towards what to write in an MTI thesis, how to produce it, and how it should be supervised and evaluated, Wu (2013) investigated the nature of the MTI theses in a corpus of 381 MTI theses that were collected from 15 Chinese universities and colleges that fall into the first batch to offer the MTI program. She finally claimed that the suitable MTI theses type should be in the form of the reflective report that is based on the MTI students' extensive translation/interpretation practices. This survey also indicated that the MTI Practice Report would be taken as the main type of the MTI theses to match with the educational aim of the MTI program in China.

Besides, motivated by the difficulties brought by the MTI Practice Report, some Chinese researchers began to propose the writing model of the MTI Practice Report when they explored the suitable thesis type for the MTI program in China. For instance, Zhao (2014) analyzed the common problems occurred in writing the Translation Practice Report as one type of the MTI theses in a corpus of 133 Translation Practice Reports collected from CNKI. The researcher revealed that many problems in writing the MTI Practice Report were caused by a lack of knowledge about the newly emerging reporting genre so that some corresponding writing strategies were suggested by the researcher in this research.

Recently, by drawing a summary on previous types of the MTI theses proposed by other Chinese scholars and by drawing references from the theses types of other professional degrees in China, Zhu (2017) put forward a proposal on the MTI theses type that the form with the combination of the translation/interpretation product with the reflective report should be taken as one type of the MTI theses in order to comply with the educational aim of the MTI program in China, which could be regarded as the basic format of the MTI Practice Report.

2.4.4 Critique of Previous Studies on the MTI Practice Report in China

As one type of thesis for a newly emerging professional master degree, the MTI Practice Report has aroused great interests among Chinese researchers about its academic position among all types of the MTI theses and about its suitable format as a professional master thesis. However, those studies were not actually empirical studies that explored the generic structure of a new reporting genre. Most of them mainly proposed the researchers' opinion on necessary components that should be included in writing an MTI Practice Report as a new type of the MTI theses. Besides, those proposals were only put forward either from the MTI educational goal or from the policy-making perspective. Some other pieces of researches, in spite of being conducted on the basis of practical writing of the MTI theses, were survey-like studies that proposed the writing format of each type of the MTI theses. Strictly speaking, those studies cannot be taken as corpus-based genre analysis, let alone corpus-based move analysis.

As reviewed above, the corpus-based genre analysis is a suitable way to explore the discourse structures of a new genre, which will have a great pedagogical meaning for the learning and teaching of a new genre. Therefore, considering the lack of this kind of study on such an important genre in Chinese MTI domain, the researcher takes a try to fill those gaps through conducting an initial exploration on the discourse structure of the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR, by means of the corpus-based move analysis

2.5 Stance

2.5.1 Concepts of Stance

Stance, generally defined as expression of epistemic assessment, personal attitude, and engagement, is a ubiquitous language feature that has been increasingly regarded as an important factor in academic writing with "much impact on the success of writing" (Wingate, 2012, p. 147). Hyland (2005) states that "the ways that writers and speakers express their opinions have long been recognized as an important feature of language" (p. 174). This important feature is closely related to stance, which is significant in facilitating language communication. Stance is not only expressed through means like body gesture, facial expression, intonation, voice, and sound, but also via other linguistic mechanisms covering a wide range of phonological, morphological, syntactic, as well as lexical-grammatical constructions.

As a common language feature, stance has drawn much interest from linguistic analysts to explore this linguistic mechanism from different perspectives. Such interest has led to various interpretations of it. However, due to its subtleness and complexity, the concept of stance is elusive and difficult to be interpreted from a sole perspective. Various labels have been used to refer to stance in the last three decades, including *intensity* (Labov, 1984), *posture* (Grabe, 1984), *disjuncts* (Quirk et al., 1985), *hedges* (Brown and Levinson, 1987), *modality* (Palmer, 1986; Bybee & Fleischman, 1995) and *(inter)subjectivity* (White, 2003; Fitzmaurice, 2004; Lyons, 1993) (as cited in Gray & Biber, 2012). Although various labels are used to refer to stance, they all actually aim for the same goal. They focus on exploring the ways in which writers and speakers project their personal feelings and judgments in what they produce. In line of this thought, two dimensions are thus included in the concept of stance. They are "meaning of assessment (personal feeling/attitude vs. status of knowledge) and linguistic level used for assessment (lexical vs. grammatical)" (Gray & Biber, 2012, p. 15). Those two dimensions are usually integrated to explain the mechanism of stance in the language, which has brought forth two important paradigms that laid the foundation for today's concept of stance (Gray & Biber, 2012). They are *evidentiality* and *affect*, which are taken as the two basic elements in defining stance.

From the perspective that writing is regarded as a highly social behavior, writers express their views carefully within community conventions. And writers' positioning of opinion is realized through selecting some specific linguistic resources to express *evidentiality* and *affect*. Therefore, in the linguistic study on how linguistic devices attribute to the expression of stance in spoken and written texts by Gray & Biber (2012), stance is taken as a kind of linguistic mechanism that conveys speakers' or writers' personal attitudes and assessments towards what they want to present. Stance, as a consequence, refers to the way that writers or speakers express judgements, commitments, and attitudes or feelings about the propositional content of a message (Biber & Finegan,1989; Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad & Finegan,1999). Within this scope, stance can be conveyed through various devices, ranging from non-linguistic, paralinguistic, to grammatical devices (Biber et al., 1999), but lexical-grammatical devices are the most widely used linguistic devices, such as modal verbs (e.g. *can, might*), adverbs (e.g. *obviously, frankly*), and complement clauses to express speakers' or a writers' personal attitudes and assessments. Thus, Conrad and Biber (1999) used stance as a cover term to refer to the linguistic encoding of personal feelings, attitudes and evaluations.

However, from the perspective of exploring interpersonal meaning in writing, academic writing is persuasive rather than merely objective and faceless (Hyland,1999; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Thompson & Hunston, 2000). Writers operate a careful selection of linguistic devices to position evaluation toward the *evidentiality* and to express *affect* to the proposition in the text, and to make an endeavor to construct interaction with the readers (Hyland, 1999, 2005). Thus, stance is defined as "ways which writers project themselves into their texts to communicate their integrity, credibility, involvement, and a relationship to their subject matter and their readers" (Hyland, 1999, p. 101). In line with this definition, stance is regarded as the means that writers project an authorial presence that conveys evaluations and attitudes while also have an interaction with the imagined readers, positioning them as aligned or resistant to the views being positioned in the text. Put it succinctly, stance can be understood as "where authors stand in relation to readers and their material" (Soliday, 2011, p. 37).

In the same vein, furthermore, academic writing is widely acknowledged to be dialogical, involving interaction between writers' authorial persona and the reader (e.g. Hyland, 2005; Thompson, 2001). Considering the dialogic quality of language and culturally situated nature of academic writing, stance is considered as a situated, dialogic quality of academic discourse (Lancaster, 2016a). Within this scope, stance "refer(s) to the ways (that) writers present themselves and convey their judgments, opinions and commitments" (Hyland, 2005, p. 176). It is the means that writers project their personal authority in their claims, convey their personal attitudes, and control their commitments to the opinion and the degree of involvement.

In line with the same route, in addition, Hyland's (2010) idea of interpersonality in academic writing also concerns with the ways through which writers make use of the explicit system of meanings to enter their "voice" into the texts to be heard by their readers. Influenced by this idea, the concept of stance is also related to the term 'proximity' proposed by Hyland (2010), which refers to writers' control of rhetorical features which display both authority as experts and personal position towards issues in an unfolding text. Thus, stance here is about how the writers pose themselves in relation to the discourse community and writers take their personal positions towards the material presented. In other words, writers also establish proximity with readers in discourse community by taking a clear stance.

Based on a general review of the concepts of stance, it can be obviously seen that stance, as a ubiquitous language feature, is too fuzzy to make a sole definition. However, expressing *evidentiality* and conveying *affect* are two critical dimensions in interpreting stance. On the one hand, from Biber's perspective (Biber & Finegan,1989; Biber et al., 1999; Biber, 2006), the *evidentiality* can be expressed through speakers' or writers' assessments, and value judgement on what they have said or written, while the *affect* is represented through speakers' or writers' own feelings and attitudes towards the material items and the proposition in the text. Thus, variety of lexico-grammatical devices can be deployed to express speakers' or writers' stance, which is defined as "personal feelings, attitudes, value judgements, or assessments" in the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (LGSWE)* (Biber et al., p. 966). Specifically, stance expresses writers' "personal feelings and assessments", including "attitudes that speakers have about certain information, how certain they are about its veracity, how they obtained access to the information, and what perspective they are taking" (Biber, 2006, p. 99).

From Hyland's perspective (Hyland,1999, 2005; Hyland & Tse, 2004), on the other hand, stance is taken as the writer-oriented features about the interaction in academic writing, which consists of *evidentiality, affect* and *presence.* The *evidentiality* is demonstrated through how certain do writers want to be about the material and proposition in the text. The *affect* is expressed through what the attitude of writers towards what is presented in the text. And the *presence* is about whether writers have a prominence in the text.

Therefore, in line with Hyland's approach (Hyland,1999, 2005; Hyland & Tse, 2004), the working definition of stance in the current study is taken as the projection of writers in the text and the interaction constructed between writers and the readers in terms of the writer-oriented linguistic features. Specifically, stance in the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR, can be interpreted as writers (translators'/interpreters') projection of their authorial personas in the report through conveying their assessments, feelings towards translation/interpretation materials, processes, problems and strategies, as well as their presence for the interaction between the translator/interpreter and the potential readers. That is, stance in the MTI Practice Report is represented as how certain the student reporters are about veracity of the translation/interpretation, how they obtain the translation/interpretation reliability, what perspective they are taking to translation/interpretation, and what extent they have presence in the reports. As a consequence, considering that the TPR and the IPR are two main types of thesis to obtain the qualification of master degree through reporting the translators'/interpreters' assessments on what they have done, through expressing their feelings in the translation/interpretation process, and through being interactive with the audience convincingly, an appropriate use of stance is important for the successful writing of the TPR and the IPR.

2.5.2 Significance of Stance

As above noted, to express evaluation and personal attitude is a common feature of language (Hyland, 2005). Stance, as a common linguistic mechanism, is an important means to express speakers' and writers' epistemic assessments, personal feelings to what they have said or written (Biber, 2006; Hyland, 1999, 2005). Consequently, the appropriate operation of stance is significant for effective speaking and writing in following aspects.

First, the appropriate use of stance increases politeness in speech act. With regard to the fact that language is dialogic, as is emphasized by Bakhtin (1986), stance will produce a dialogic space between speakers/writers and listeners/ readers during the process that they conduct speech act. When speakers/writers express their assessments and feelings in speech, it might constitute a face-threatening act, or FTA (Brown and Levison, 1987). The way to convey speakers'/writers' opinion and personal attitudes, in terms of stance, would reduce or increase the possibility of face threatening acts. For example, hedges (e.g. *seem, likely*) can indicate writers' admission of readers' face needs (Myers, 1989).

Second, stance is not only important for the aspect of dialogic quality of language, it is also significant for academic discourse which is culturally situated. Academic writing is no longer regarded as a faceless, objective and impersonal writing behavior; instead it is taken as writers' endeavor aiming to construct their personas through persuading their readers and initiating some interaction with readers (Hyland, 1999, 2005). Hence, stance plays a significant role in conveying writers' epistemic assessments, personal attitudes, and engagement in academic writing. As Hyland (1999) states that academic writing does not only represent what the world is like, it is also a discourse construction in terms of stance which is filtered through acts of language selection in order to consist of authority, credibility and disciplinary appeals. This is confirmed by Hunston and Thompson (2000) who note that speakers and writers would deliberately select words to convey their evaluations and attitudes in academic writing to conform with the community convention. As a consequence, stance is "central to ways of looking at written text as social interactions, where writers negotiate meanings, convey personal attitudes, express assessments and construct connection with their readers" (Hyland & Guinda, 2012, p. 2).

Third, the appropriate use of stance is very important in academic writing, which is critically related to the rhetorical convention of community and the writers' expectation of interactional relationship between the readers and the writers. Obviously, stance conventions pose a great influence on the effectiveness of writing both for the native speakers and the second language or foreign language learners (Barton, 1993; Coffin, 2002; Hood, 2004; Wu, 2007), because writers usually show their competence as disciplinary insiders through the construction of stance that enables them to have an interaction with the "potential" committee members (Hyland, 2005). The appropriate use of stance provides them with an opportunity to be successfully involved in the disciplinary community. In addition, there is no doubt that an effective argument in academic writing greatly relies on the rhetorical convention of stance in different disciplines (Hyland, 1999). "The appropriate expression of stance is therefore an important response to the potential negatability of a writer's claims, acting to engage the reader and anticipate possible objections by soliciting support, expressing collegiality and displaying competence and reasonableness." (Hyland, 1999, p. 5). Hence, the norm and convention of the discourse community exert great constraints on the use of stance. That is, writers' projection of self and others in the text is largely influenced by epistemologies of the discourse community.

Fourth, the significance of stance is well demonstrated in the fact that taking an effective stance in academic writing is a challenging task for second language writers (Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011). Academic writing is regarded as a knowledge transformation, a process that writers engage the readers into the understanding of their work's value and significance (Casanava, 2003). To realize this aim, writers employ various strategies to express their stance in writing. In other words, a good academic writing is not only represented in writers' linguistic competence, but also is the reflection of the writers' awareness of the rhetorical convention related to stance. However, stance conventions are not always clearly understood by foreign language learners, even by the native speakers, because it lacks explicit attention and practice (Hyland, 2012). Also, the lack of stance in student academic writing (Hood, 2004; Hyland & Milton, 1997) was found due to the linguistic and rhetorical differences between the second language learners and their native-speaker counterparts (Hyland, 2006; Silva, 1993) as well as an ineffective and inadequate English as Second Language (ESL) pedagogy approach in preparing student writers to achieve an evaluative stance in presenting their work (Chang & Schleppegrell, 2011). Therefore, students obviously struggle in employing effective stance in their academic writing.

In the current study, the purposes of the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR, are to prove that the translation/interpretation practices that MTI students have conducted are meaningful and useful for the potential readers (future translators/interpreters). They aim to qualify MTI students with master degrees granted by the academic committee. Therefore, both of the TPR and the IPR are written academically with persuasiveness in which the writers report the actual translation/interpretation process, express their feelings or attitudes towards the process, and construct the interaction with the audience by means of stance. Therefore, the effective stance making through the appropriate selection of linguistic devices and the presence of the author by following the rhetorical convention of community is significant for the successful writing of the TPR and the IPR.

2.5.3 Approaches to Stance

The complexity and the significance of stance are highlighted by a range of approaches to stance studies from various perspectives in the last three decades, including evidentiality (e.g. Chafe, 1986; Chafe & Nichols, 1986), affect (e.g. Ochs & Schieffelin, 1989), hedging (e.g. Hyland, 1998a), evaluation (e.g. Conrad & Biber, 2000; Thompson & Hunston, 2000), appraisal (e.g. Martin, 2000, 2005), stance (e.g. Biber & Finegan, 1989, Biber, 2006), and metadiscourse (Vande Kopple, 1985; Hyland, 2005, Hyland & Tse, 2004). Different approaches have brought forth different understanding of stance from their own perspectives, which has led to their own taxonomies of stance and frameworks for the semantic function of the linguistic mechanism that expresses stance. These taxonomies and frameworks are not only meaningful for writers and readers in constructing the stance in their discourse, but also are helpful for researchers in studying the features of stance by following each typology of taxonomy. In this section, three approaches that have greatly contributed to the forming of stance and offered a valuable guide in empirical studies of stance will be reviewed, covering their understanding of stance, taxonomies, and frameworks. On the one hand, it aims to delineate a holistic picture of stance studies and their taxonomies in different approaches; on the other hand, it is expected to provide the theoretical background about the selected approach and stance framework used in investigating the stance features in the current study.

2.5.3.1 Initial Approaches

As aforementioned, *evidentiality* and *affect* are two paradigms that are fundamental in the concept of stance, and they have laid the foundation for the modern concept of stance. The initial approaches to stance studies started from these two basic elements. One salient approach is related to *evidentiality*. *Evidentiality,* in a broad sense, refers to the status of the knowledge contained in propositions (Chafe, 1986; Chafe & Nichols, 1986). Within this approach, the concept of stance is originated from the notion of *evidentiality*, which refers to the speakers' or writers' attitudes towards reality, their taking responsibility for the context of utterance and making the source of knowledge. Consequently, four elements are encompassed to express the speakers' or writers' attitudes towards knowledge: 1) the reliability of knowledge; 2) the source of knowledge; 3) the manner in which the knowledge was required, i.e. a mode of knowledge; and 4) the appropriateness of the verbal resources for marking evidential meaning (Gray & Biber, 2012). On the contrary, another initial approach to stance studies is concerned with *affect*. *Affect* refers to how speakers' or writers' emotions, attitudes, and moods are displayed through linguistic signals (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1989; Besnier, 1990). Both the approaches worked at the same period of time in order to explain the language phenomenon of stance from their own perspectives. Later, the approaches such as hedging (e.g. Hyland, 1998a) and evaluation (e.g. Conrad & Biber, 2000; Thompson & Hunston, 2000) interpreted the language mechanism of stance from one aspect contained in the connotation of stance, either related to *evidentiality* or the *affect*, which has enriched the understanding of stance from varied perspectives. Although those initial approaches to stance focused only on one aspect, which lack a holistic view towards stance, they act as the initial points to study the language mechanism of stance and have laid the fundamental understanding of stance.

Then, it might be a turning point to study stance by integrating both the two important paradigms together to have a holistic comprehension of stance, which started from a lexical-grammatical approach initiated by Biber and Finegan (1989), which is labeled as Biber's approach (Biber & Finegan,1989; Biber et al., 1999; Biber, 2006) in the current study.

2.5.3.2 Biber's Approach

This approach originated from Biber and Finegan's (1989) studies towards stance. They used stance as an umbrella term to label the linguistic mechanism that covers both the *evidentiality* and the *affect*, which indicate that writers or speakers convey their personal feelings in expressing their assessment in what they produce. On the one hand, Biber and Finegan (1989) asserted that stance not only refers to how writers and speakers evaluate knowledge (*evidentiality*), but also means how *affect* is realized by means of linguistic choices. On the other hand, they distinguished the *evidentiality* from the *affect*. Following the same route, Biber et al. (1999) define stance as "personal feelings, attitudes, value judgements, or assessments" (p. 966) in their work of the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English (LGSWE)* when they state that stance can be conveyed through a wide range of grammatical devices, value-laden words, and paralinguistic devices. As a consequence, a notable classification of stance was initially proposed by Biber et al., (1999) from a lexico-grammatical perspective. This classification of stance displays the most prominent lexical and grammatical features of words, phrases, and sentence patterns that can convey the speakers' or writers' epistemic assessment and attitudinal feeling in the text. Five most common grammatical devices used to express stance are listed as: 1) stance adverbials (e.g. *obviously*), 2) stance complement clauses (specifically "that" and "to" clauses), 3) modals (e.g. *could*, *may*), 4) premodifying stance adverbs (e.g. *I am so happy for you*.), and 5) stance nouns followed by prepositional phrases (e.g. *Translation has importance in terms of conveying knowledge*). Each grammatical device may comprise several sub-types of meaning, such as expressing certainty (e.g. *actually, certainly*), expressing likelihood (e.g. *apparently, evidently*), and expressing attitude (e.g. *accept, afraid).*

Based on the concept of stance formulated in this approach, therefore, a taxonomy of stance is formed, in which those grammatical devices can be generally categorized into three components based on their semantic function (Biber et al. 1999;

Biber, 2006). Those three components are **epistemic stance**, **attitudinal stance** and **style/perspective stance**. **Epistemic stance** expresses "the speaker's judgment about the certainty, reliability, and limitations of the proposition" (Biber et al. 1999, p. 854), including certainty (*actually, determine, certain, ect.*), and likelihood (*perhaps, believe, possible, ect.*). **Attitudinal stance** refers to stance toward the subject matter (e.g. *amazingly, expect*). Finally, **style/perspective stance** means the manner of writers' assessment to the status of knowledge and the subject matter (e.g. *according to, generally*).

2.5.3.3 Hyland's Approach

Hyland's approach to stance, represented by multiple studies conducted by Hyland and his colleagues, is based on the idea that academic writing is not completely faceless and objective, rather it is persuasive and interactive with the readers (Hyland, 1996, 1998b, 1999, 2005; Hyland & Tse, 2004). In line with this point of view, Hyland (1999) defines stance as "the ways that writers project themselves into their texts to communicate their integrity, credibility, involvement, and a relationship to their subject matter and their readers" (p. 3). Through adopting the interactional and evaluative positions in presenting informational content, academic writers intend to convey their epistemic assessment towards the materials and propositions convincingly and aim to construct interaction with the readers. This dimension of interactions is mainly constructed through the expression of authorial stance.

Therefore, an initial taxonomy of stance was correspondingly proposed by Hyland (1999) to encompass three main components: **evidentiality, affect,** and **relation**. Here, **evidentiality** refers to writers' commitment to the truth of statement, the degree of confidence, and the reliability of the propositions. **Affect** means writers' personal and professional attitude towards what is said or the person who says it, including emotions, perspective and belief. **Relation** displays the extent to which the writers engage with the readers and the ways writers represent themselves in the discourse. Within the scope of this taxonomy, those three components can be realized through five linguistic functions: *hedges, emphatics, attitude markers, relational markers,* and *person markers*.

In Hyland's approach to stance studies, metadiscourse model is developed to display a range of devices that "writers use to explicitly organize their texts, engage readers, and signal their attitudes to both their materials and their audience" (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 156). In this model, metadiscourse includes the textual and interpersonal devices on the basis of the functions of metadiscourse. The **textual metadiscourse** consists of logical connectives, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses, while **interpersonal metadiscourse** contains hedges, boosters, attitude markers, engagement markers, and self-mentions. On the basis of this model, the interpersonal metadiscourse is usually taken to study stance in the academic writing because it comprises the linguistic resources that facilitate writers to express the epistemic evaluations, to convey the attitudes, and to construct the interaction with readers.

Furthermore, in order to propose a typology for a range of linguistic resources that demonstrates the interaction between writers and readers in academic writing, Hyland (2005) developed a model of interaction in academic discourse on the basis of the previous studies on interaction. This model consists of the key elements for interaction which are realized through the writer-oriented stance and the reader-oriented engagement. The layer of stance comprises four categories: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, while the layer of engagement includes reader pronouns, directives, questions, shared knowledge, and personal asides (see Figure 2.3).

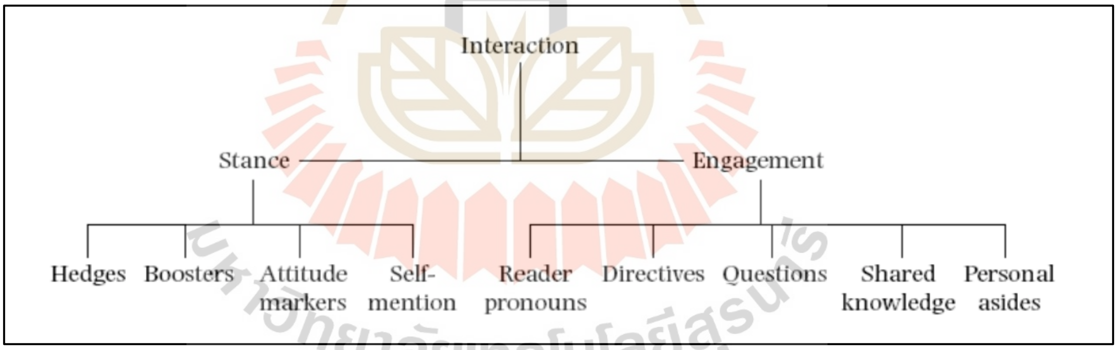


Figure 2.3 The model of interaction in academic discourse (Hyland, 2005, p. 177)

In this model, stance is "an attitudinal dimension and includes features which refers to ways writers present themselves and convey their judgements, opinions, and commitments" (Hyland, 2005, p. 176). It is the ways that writers present their personal authority in what they produced and withhold and disguise their involvement. While engagement means that "writers relate to their readers with respect to the positions advanced in the text" (Hyland, 2005, p. 176). It is the ways that "writers' recognizing the presence of their readers, pulling them along with their argument, focusing their attention, acknowledging their uncertainties, including them as discourse participants, and guiding them to interpretations" (p. 176).

Besides, the layer of stance and the layer of engagement in this model can be regarded as two independent ones which have their own orientations. Stance is the writer-oriented linguistic devices which emphasize how writers make efforts to construct interaction with the readers, while engagement is reader-oriented feature which focuses on how readers are treated in order to construct the interaction. That is, the linguistic devices involved in the stance framework, including hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention focus on how writers project themselves into the subject matters and their readers in the writing. However, engagement framework emphasizes that how readers are guided through the text by means of another four categories of linguistic devices.

In the current study, considering that the research target, the MTI Practice Report, is typical in that the MTI students (i.e. translators and interpreters) report what they have done in their translation/interpretation practice to prove that they are qualified for the master degree for the translation and interpretation. However, due to the fact that committee members cannot examine the whole process of the translation or interpretation practice, the MTI students have to make efforts to persuade committee members to believe the "trueness" or the reliability of what they have done in their reports. As a result, an MTI student's epistemic evaluation, feelings and presence are highly involved in the reports in order to prove the value of the practice work. Those features are closely related to the functions of the stance defined by Hyland in terms of boosters, hedges, attitude markers, and self-mention. That is to say, stance framework in Hyland's international model can well reflect the linguistic options adopted by the MTI students in their MTI Practice Reports to express the extent of certainty they hold to the translation/interpretation issue in their reports by means of boosters and hedges, to display their attitudes and feeling they have in their reports via attitude markers. Especially, being a report genre, the MTI Practice Report demonstrates the feature of the high involvement of the reporter. This feature well matches with the self-mention in the stance framework. On the contrary, the linguistic devices in the engagement framework, including reader pronoun, directives, questions, shared knowledge, and personal asides, mainly intend to engage readers to construct reader-oriented interaction with the readers. Those linguistic features are less demonstrated in the MTI Practice Report according to the researcher's preliminary reading of texts. Therefore, the layer of stance rather than the layer of engagement is adopted in the current study to investigate the linguistic options that the MTI students express their epistemic assessment, personal attitudes, and the presence to reach the communicative purposes in this particular genre.

Since the layer of stance in Hyland's (2005) interaction model is widely adopted as an independent stance framework to investigate the writer-oriented stance features that writers project themselves into their texts to communicate their integrity, credibility, involvement, and a relationship to their subject matter and their readers. Four basic elements included in this stance framework are defined. **Hedges** refer to "the writer's decision to withhold complete commitment to a proposition". The use of hedges "allows information to be presented as an opinion rather than accredited fact" (Hyland, 2005, p. 178). The linguistic devices like *might*, *possible,* and *perhaps* belong to hedges. **Boosters** are linguistic devices like *demonstrate, definitely,* and *obviously*, which indicate that "writers express their certainty in what they say and to mark involvement with the topic and solidarity with their audience" (Hyland, 2005, p. 179). The function of boosters is to emphasize shared information, group membership, and engagement with readers (Hyland, 1999). **Attitude markers** refer to "the writer's affective, rather than epistemic, attitude to propositions, conveying surprise, agreement, importance, frustration, and so on, rather than commitment" (Hyland, 2005, p. 179). **Self-mention** refers to "the use of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives to present propositional, affective and interpersonal information" (Hyland, 2001, as cited in Hyland, 2005, p. 179).

Importantly, based on the semantic function of each element in the stance framework, Hyland (2005) "compiled a list of potentially important lexico-grammatical items from a survey of previous studies, particularly Biber and Finegan

(1989), Hyland and Milton (1997), and Holmes (1988), from grammars and dictionaries, and from the most frequently occurring items in the articles themselves" (p. 8). This list of stance items provides the practical operation for empirical study of stance, which is adopted with a further modification to annotate stance items in the current study.

2.5.3.4 Critique of Approaches to Stance

Several approaches have been formed to study language phenomenon of expressing epistemic assessment, personal attitudes, and engagement in the past three decades. Initial approaches such as *evidentiality* and *affect* focus on one fundamental meaning of the stance and have laid the foundation for later approaches. However, their limitation is that they reveal only one aspect of stance due to their sole perspective towards the linguistic mechanism of stance. Furthermore, those initial approaches are rarely applied into empirical studies of stance because they did not propose specific taxonomies of stance.

Biber's approach (Biber & Finegan 1989, Biber et al., 1999; Biber, 2006) firstly combines *evidentiality* with *affect* to interpret stance, which provides a holistic view towards the linguistic mechanism of stance that is used to express epistemic assessments, attitudes and feelings in writing. In this approach, three elements are focused, which are epistemic stance, attitudinal stance, and style stance. Stance in the text is mainly conveyed through speakers' or writers' selection of lexical and grammatical devices according to the convention of the community. Hence, a systematic classification of the grammatical devices that express stance has been formulated from the lexico-grammatical perspective and has been commonly used as a stance framework to analyze stance features in different genres, registers, and various disciplines. The stance framework proposed by Biber et al. (1999) provides a comprehensive and holistic view on stance from the grammatical perspective, and it also offers a solid basis for many empirical studies on stance in terms of one or several grammatical devices that are listed in the grammatical categories. However, Biber (2006) acknowledged that this framework focuses more on the grammatical devices rather than value-laden word choices and paralinguistic devices because it is regarded that these devices are often implicit in expressing an attitude for the proposition. Consequently, this framework is hard to be operationalized in a closed set of words used to convey specific attitudes and evaluations. Especially, because Biber et al.'s (1999) stance framework focuses on lexical-grammatical stance, the classification of stance is categorized in terms of grammatical functions. This causes its limited application to the texts without tagged grammatical information.

Different from Biber's approach, Hyland's approach (Hyland, 1999; Hyland, 2005; Hyland & Tse, 2004) emphasizes more the interactional relation between writers and readers in the academic writing. Except for the same focuses on *evidentiality* and *affect* as in Biber's approach, the projection of the authors' personas in the text and the interaction with readers receive more emphasis in this approach, which is demonstrated as the writer-oriented devices, including hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention. Especially, varied from Biber's (1999) stance framework that is based exclusively on the analysis of grammatical devices of overtly expressing stance, the stance framework developed in the model of interaction by Hyland (2005) concentrates more on the value-laden words or phrase choices to express stance from the semantic and functional perspectives. In addition, based on the previous studies of stance, a list of stance items proposed by Hyland (2005) provides a practical way for corpus-based empirical stance investigation in academic writing.

Therefore, in the current study, Hyland's approach to stance is preferred. Specifically, the stance framework in the model of interaction (Hyland, 2005) will be adopted to investigate the features of stance in the TPR and the IPR because of the following specific reasons. Firstly, Hyland's approach to stance is comprehensive for understanding the stance in academic writing because it is built on several previous approaches to stance. Secondly, Hyland's approach to stance is situated in academic writing and admits the persuasiveness of the text and interaction between writers and readers. The MTI Practice Report in the current study, consisting of the TPR and the IPR, is academic writing which aims to qualify MTI students with master degrees granted by the academic committee in Chinese MTI field. Both the TPR and the IPR are written for academic purposes with persuasiveness in which writers report the actual translation/interpretation process, express their feelings or attitudes towards the process, and construct the interaction with the audience by means of stance. Thirdly, the concept of stance in Hyland's approach emphasizes the projection of writers into their texts and a relationship between writers and their subject matter and their readers. Correspondingly, one typical feature in the TPR and the IPR is the high involvement of writers in their texts so that translators' or interpreters' personas are greatly reflected in the writing when they recount the translation/interpretation process to prove the "trueness" and the reliability of translation/interpretation practice. Lastly, the stance framework in the interactional model (Hyland, 2005) contains a clear set of categories of stance. Especially, the list of stance items proposed by Hyland (2005) is based on its semantic function, which makes it possible to conduct a corpus-based empirical study of stance in the TPR and the IPR.

2.5.4 Empirical Studies on Stance

2.5.4.1 Studies on Stance from Biber' s Approach

Based on the theoretical framework of stance in the *Longman Grammar of Spoken and Written English* (LGSWE), Biber (2006) investigated the stance features on university spoken and written discourse by using the TOEFL 2000 Spoken and Written Academic Language (T2K-SWAL) Corpus. The variation between the university spoken and written language, and the variations among classroom teaching, classroom management talk, textbooks, and written course management language of four registers were examined through a comparative approach. In this study, a wide use of lexico-grammatical features used for the expression of stance were identified in the different registers with unequal distribution, which indicated the important register differences in the particular kinds of stance meanings, the grammatical devices used to convey stance, and in the overall extent which stance was expressed.

Auria (2008) investigated the uses of stance adjectives in the Introduction section of a corpus containing 20 RAs from two soft disciplines: humanity and applied linguistics. This study revealed that writers in both disciplines shared similar rhetorical devices in using stance adjectives, but they also showed a small difference in use of stance adjectives to assess research process and to give significance to research outcomes due to the discipline-specific conventions.

Ahmad and Mehrjooseresht (2012) examined adverbials of stance in 30 Ph.D. theses Abstracts written by L2 engineering students. In the study, adverbials of stance in all clausal positions were identified on the basis of the three types of stance categorized by Conrad and Biber (2007): epistemic stance, attitudinal stance and style stance. The frequencies and distributions of the three types of stance in each rhetorical move of Abstract were investigated. The results revealed that engineering writers would express their evaluations through different adverbial stance types to meet varied rhetorical functions, which caused varying frequency in different moves of the Abstracts.

By following Biber et al. (1999) stance framework, Adams and Quintana-Toledo (2013) explored authorial stance as expressed by adverbial markers in the Introduction and Conclusion sections of legal research papers. Three semantic categories of adverbial stance: (a) epistemicity, (b) attitude, and (c) style were identified to examine the distributional and functional differences in sections with varied communicative purposes.

Using a corpus-based approach, Chan (2015) employed Biber's (2006) framework to investigate how stance expressions were used in Ph.D. dissertation acknowledgements through a range of lexico-grammatical devices across soft and hard disciplines. The quantitative analysis on the frequencies of stance expressions showed that soft disciplines used more stance features than the hard disciplines. Also, the qualitative analysis of selected concordance lines found stance devices in distinctive lexico-grammatical patterns and with various social functions, which revealed that stance devices seemed to be motivated by different factors.

Through a corpus-based contrastive interlanguage analysis, Jiang (2015) compared the use of stance construction, by means of noun complement structure, in 366 argumentative essays by Chinese undergraduates majoring in English and 82 by American university students with the similar age and level. The study revealed that Chinese students used significantly fewer noun complement structure, especially in types of the event, discourse and cognition stance nouns.

By using three corpora: new college writing, advanced student writing, and published academic writing, Aull, Bandarage and Miller (2017) investigated the use of indefinite pronouns and extreme amplifiers to express generality as a part of stance. The study showed that clear differences in the frequency of generalizations used and the breadth or scope of generalizations existed among these three groups of writing. Specifically, there were more generalization markers in new college writing than in advanced student writing and published academic writing.

2.5.4.2 Studies on Stance from Hyland' s Approach

Hyland (1999) investigated the stance features in a corpus of 56 RAs covering eight disciplines in order to examine how writers projected themselves and their readers in terms of author stance. The results showed that there were considerable variations of stance in different disciplines, which suggested that the stance was not only influenced by the relationship between readers and the writers but also at least partially constrained by writers' social practices and their academic discipline.

Based on the investigation of 240 published RAs from eight disciplines and insider informant interviews, Hyland (2005) developed the model of interaction and examined how academic interaction was realized through various linguistic resources that were comprised in stance and engagement across eight disciplines. The study revealed that stance, as one layer of the interaction model which included hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention, varied across the eight disciplines.

By applying Hyland's (2005) stance and engagement framework and semi-structured interviews, McGrath and Kuteeva (2012) explored linguistic features represented for authorial stance and interaction with readers in the discipline of pure mathematics by native English writers in a corpus of 25 pure mathematics RAs collected from five authors. The study found that the frequencies of hedges and boosters are lower than the counterparts of other hard and soft disciplines in Hyland's (2005) study, which suggested that the choice of stance pattern was constrained by the convention of the discourse community.

Taki and Jafarpour (2012) employed Hyland's (2005) model of interaction to investigate stance and engagement in a corpus of 120 English and Persian RAs in two disciplines of Chemistry and Sociology. This study probed the interactions in academic writing from a cross-linguistic and cross-disciplinary comparative perspective. The study found that writers of both disciplines had the awareness of stance and engagement, but Persian writers and sociologists focused much more on interaction with readers.

Aull and Lancaster (2014) conducted a corpus-based comparative study of stance expressions in a large corpus of writing among first-year students, upper-level students as well as published scholars to explore the developmental trajectory of stance construction from the first-year writers to the more advanced writers. In the study, the three categories of Hyland's (2005) metadiscourse framework: (a) hedges and boosters, (b) code glosses, and (c) adversative/contrast connectives were identified and examined, which revealed that great distinctions existed between the first-year writers and the advanced writers.

A corpus-based analysis of stance in terms of boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention by utilizing Hyland's stance framework in the model of interaction was conducted by Çandarlı, Bayyurt and Martı (2015) to compare the features of stance in L1 and L2 essays by Turkish learners and American learners accompanying with the discourse-based interviews. The results revealed that the use of stance markers in English essays by Turkish students was more similar to the use of stance markers in writing by native English learners than the counterpart in Turkish's L1 writing.

Lancaster (2016a) conducted a corpus-based comparative analysis of stance in high-and low-graded papers written in two distinct disciplinary courses, which included 92 Economics (46 high- and 46 low-graded paper, respectively) and 42 Political Science (15 high- and 15 low-graded paper, respectively). By borrowing Hyland's (2005) model of stance that comprises attitude markers, boosters, hedges, and self-mention, with some refinements of adding disclaim markers from Martin and White (2005), the study examined the extent of qualities of stance between two discipline-specific classroom genres and between undergraduates with high and low academic writing levels. The research results showed that economics students used more hedges, boosters, self-mention, and disclaim markers than Political Science students, who used more attitude markers. In regard to stance qualities, the high-performers in both disciplines used greater frequency of stance markers than the corresponding lower-performers.

By following Hyland's (2005) stance framework in the model of interaction, a study on stance devices from perspectives of the cross-disciplines and cross-academic level has been conducted by Akinci (2016) to examine whether any similarities and differences existed among four categories of stance features (hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention) across the disciplines of Civil Engineering and Applied Linguistics and student and expert writing. The study found that more stance markers were used in student writing than in expert writing, and the cross-disciplinary difference existed in that Applied Linguistics RAs contained more stance markers than those in Civil Engineering, especially in the use of self-mention.

Kafes (2018) conducted a corpus-based examination on the stance devices in the Conclusion section of the RAs, focusing on investigation of modal verbs and their functions among three parallel corpora with 15 RAs respectively written by American, Spanish, and Turkish writers. The study examined the similarities and differences of the stance devices from different cultural and language backgrounds by means of both qualitative and quantitative analysis. The research revealed that both native and non-native writers had the awareness of stance use to follow their respective local discourse community conventions, while they were different in choosing individual modal items.

2.5.4.3 Studies on Stance in Reporting Genre

On two specialized corpora of annual and corporate social responsibility (CSR) reports, Fuoli (2017), by adopting the stance framework developed by Biber and his colleagues, investigated the evaluative stance resources in the discursive strategies that companies deploy to shape their corporate identity and gain the trust of the stakeholder groups that these two genres target. The study found that the significant differences in the frequency and communicative functions of stance expressions existed in annual and CSR reports, and it revealed that companies profiled different identities in these two genres by deploying different stance strategies in order to meet the expectations of the reports' primary target audiences and maximize the trust-building force of their communications.

By employing Hyland's (2005) stance framework in the model of interaction, Crosthwaite, Cheung and Jiang (2017) conducted a corpus-based comparison of stance features between student writers and professional writers in the genre of dentistry research reports. This study examined the differences on the rhetorical strategies used to present the academic stance both across texts and by section through the evidence of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention. The findings revealed that student writers would employ a wider range of stance devices than professional writers to project their presence in the writing of the dentistry research reports.

2.5.4.4 Studies on Stance in Chinese Context

In line with Biber's taxonomy of stance that comprises epistemic stance, attitudinal stance and style stance, Xu (2011) examined stance markers by Chinese advanced EFL writers in academic writing in a corpus of 5 doctoral dissertations from the discipline of Applied Linguistics and in a corpus of 28 RAs from leading journals in disciplines of Linguistics or Second Language Acquisition. The differences of the use of stance between Chinese advanced EFL writers and the native expert writers were compared in terms of overall frequency of the three types of stance and the cross-sectional distribution of stance. The results revealed that both Chinese EFL writers and native expert writers were similar in terms of the use of the three type of stance, except that Chinese EFL writers generally tended to offer stronger commitment to statements than native writers in terms of high frequency of attitude markers. The research also found that the three types of stance were on the decline across the Introduction/Methodology and Results/Discussion/Conclusion sections in both Chinese and native writers' writing.

By conducting a corpus-based comparison between 366 argumentative essays of Chinese university students and 82 of American university students, Jiang (2015) examined noun complement structure as a stance construction. This study revealed that Chinese students used fewer stance noun construction, especially in the event, discourse and cognition types of stance nouns, while preferring more attitudinally evaluative and personal possessive pre-modifications to the stance nouns in the construction.

With reference to stance taxonomies proposed by Hyland, Biber, and other Chinese researchers, Zhang and Xia (2015) conducted a study on the similarities and differences of stance markers between the British men and women from the gender perspective by using the spoken corpora in British National Corpora. The study showed that, among the four categories of stance markers: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, the major difference existed in attitude markers and self-mention markers.

By drawing on Hyland stance framework of categorizing stance markers into three types: epistemic stance, attitudinal stance, and authorial presence, Xu (2015) conducted a contrastive analysis on stance use between 120 B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. dissertations by English majors and 210 international journal articles. The study found that Chinese students used less stance markers than native academics, especially for epistemic stance markers and first-person pronouns. Regarding the use of stance markers in B.A., M.A., and Ph.D. theses, the research also found that M.A. students had more awareness of authorial stance than the other two groups of Chinese students.

Following Biber's stance framework, Zhang and Lei (2018) investigated the stance of noun + complement structures, consisting noun + that, noun + to infinitive and noun + of prepositional, in academic writing across eight disciplines that includes RAs respectively in hard and soft fields. The study showed that there were interdisciplinary differences. It also found that noun complement structures existed more in soft disciplines than in hard disciplines and noun complement structures mainly expressed three categories of stance, i.e. possibility, source of information, and attitude or evaluation.

2.5.4.5 Critique of Previous Studies on Stance

Based on the review above, it shows that a considerable amount of studies have been produced about the use of stance in different genres, different disciplines or different registers, which are written by different groups of writers with different academic levels in various linguistic background. Gaps in the current study for the investigation of stance in the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR, can be revealed from the following aspects:

(1) A number of studies have examined the features of stance in different genres, such as RAs (Adams & Quintana-Toledo, 2013; Auria, 2008; Kafes, 2018; McGrath & Kuteeva, 2012; Taki & Jafarpour, 2012), rhetorical sections in RAs, including Introduction (Auria, 2008), Discussion (Cheng & Unsworth, 2016), Conclusion (Kafes, 2018), Introduction and Conclusion (Adams & Quintana-Toledo, 2013; Loi, Lim & Wharton, 2016), Ph.D. dissertation (Xu, 2011), rhetorical sections in Ph.D. dissertation, such as Abstracts (Ahmad & Mehrjooseresht, 2012) and Acknowledgements (Chan, 2015), students' essays (Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Aull, Bandarage & Miller, 2017; Çandarlı, Bayyurt & Martı, 2015; Jiang, 2015), students' course work (Lancaster, 2016a); however, little is known of the ways MTI students express stance in a less known genre: the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR.

(2) Some studies have paid attention to the use of stance in the reporting genre, such as the study on the use of stance in annual and corporate social responsibility (CSR) reports (Fuoli, 2017), and the comparative study on the stance expression between student writers and professional writers in dentistry research reports (Crosthwaite, Cheung & Jiang, 2017), however, the TPR and the IPR, as two

newly emerged sub-reporting genres, have drawn less attention for the use of stance from linguistic analysts.

(3) With regard to the relationship between the use of stance and the writers' academic level, many studies have explored the features of stance used by various groups of people with different academic levels, covering undergraduates, Ph.D. students, academic experts (e.g. Aull, Bandarage & Miller, 2017; Akinci, 2016; Lancaster, 2016a; Xu, 2015). However, to the best of knowledge of the researcher, it is a pity that no previous studies have explored the use of stance by graduate students majoring in MTI in China.

(4) A considerable number of researches have been conducted to explore the cross-disciplinary differences in the use of stance. The typical ones are Hyland's (1999, 2005) studies of stance across eight disciplines covering soft and hard fields. Other researchers also have done comparative research on the use of stance between different disciplines, such as Chemistry and Sociology (Taki & Jafarpour, 2012). More studies have been conducted to compare stance features from the perspectives of cross-disciplines, cross-linguistics, and cross-academic level (Çandarlı, Bayyurt & Martı, 2015; Jiang, 2015; Xu, 2015). In the current study, the TPR and the IPR are the two types of the MTI Practice Report written by students from two subdisciplines in the MTI domain, and they are worth investigating the use of stance from the cross-disciplinary perspective. However, no study has ever been carried out to

explore the differences or similarities of the use of stance between these two subdisciplines in Chinese MTI field.

(5) Many linguistic resources were adopted to investigate the use of stance from different approaches, including the stance adjectives (Auria, 2008), adverbials markers (Ahmad & Mehrjooseresht, 2012; Adams & Quintana-Toledo, 2013), noun complement structure (Jiang, 2015), noun + complement structures (Zhang & Lei, 2018), especially, the stance framework in the model of interaction (Hyland, 2005) is widely adopted to analyze the features of stance in academic writing (Akinci, 2016; Çandarlı, Bayyurt & Martı, 2015; Lancaster, 2016a; Kafes, 2018; McGrath & Kuteeva, 2012; Taki & Jafarpour, 2012). However, for the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR, which is regarded as an important academic thesis type in China, the use of stance in this academic writing is still underexplored. Therefore, it is worth taking an initiative to investigate the features of stance in the MTI Practice Report by adopting Hyland's (2005) stance framework. Also, it is also meaningful to probe how Chinese MTI students manage stance in their master theses and to explore the possible similarities and differences between the two sub-types of theses: the TPR and the IPR.

2.6 Summary

This chapter presented the literature review related to the present study. The theoretical background was framed through delineating genre, genre analysis, reporting genre, corpus linguistics and genre analysis, and stance, which aimed to construct a theoretical base for the corpus-based genre analysis and stance investigation of the MTI Practice Report by integrating corpus linguistics with genre analysis. Also, the previous studies related to corpus-based genre analysis on reports and the empirical studies of stance were reviewed in order to indicate the gaps for conducting corpus-based move analysis and stance investigation of the MTI Practice Report in the current study. In the next chapter, the corresponding research methodology will be presented in detail.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes the research methodology of the present study. Section 3.1 explains the overall research design. Section 3.2 describes the compilation of a set of specialized corpora of the TPR and the IPR with representativeness via the consideration of the appropriate definition of the research targets, corpora size, and compilation strategies. Sections 3.3 and 3.4 delineate the specific research design layered at two levels, i.e. the corpus-based move analysis at the macro-level and the corpus-based stance investigation at the micro-level. The important elements related to the research design at each level, such as the analysis frameworks, the analysis reliability, and the analysis procedure are described in detail. Section 3.5 presents a post interview functioning as the triangulating method in the current study to confirm and clarify the analysis results achieved in the corpus-based move analysis and stance investigation. Section 3.6 mentions a pilot study on the Abstract units in the TPR and the IPR, followed by a short summary in Section 3.7.

3.1 Overview of the Research Design

As stated in Chapter 1, the difficulties in writing the TPR and the IPR have brought many problems to Chinese MTI students. It is worth compiling a set of specialized corpora with a good representativeness to explore the discourse structures and the linguistic features, more specifically, the stance features, of the two newly emerging reporting genres to offer the generic knowledge for practitioners in Chinese MTI domain. Therefore, a corresponding research design was proposed as a framework to undertake to achieve the research objectives from the two levels in the current study.

The objectives at the macro-level can be achieved by a corpus-based move analysis to answer the two specific research questions: (1) what are the discourse structures, in terms of moves and steps, of the TPR and the IPR, respectively? and (2) how is the discourse structure of the TPR similar to or different from that of the IPR? In order to address the first research question, a corpus-based move analysis was conducted to reveal the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR by following the general steps proposed by Biber, Connor, and Upton (2007). To address the second research question, a comparison on the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR was carried out to investigate the structural variations between the two subdisciplines in the MTI domain.

The objectives at the micro-level are to conduct a corpus-based stance investigation in the TPR and in the IPR, which generates another two specific research questions: (3) what are the stance features, in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, in the TPR and in the IPR? and (4) how are stance features in the TPR similar to or different from those in the IPR? To address the third question, the stance features in each organizational unit within the TPR and within the IPR were probed respectively after all stance markers in the TPR corpus and in the IPR corpus were annotated using AntConc (Anthony, 2011) based on the modified Hyland's (2005) list of stance items. Then, the fourth research question was addressed through the comparison on the stance features between the TPR and the IPR, aiming to explore the variations of the use of stance markers between the two subdisciplines.

Most importantly, in order to achieve the research objectives at the two levels mentioned above, a post interview was employed to seek more information from the insider informants to confirm and clarify the analysis results achieved in the corpus-based move analysis and stance investigation, aiming to triangulate the corpus-based text analysis with the interview. Figure 3.1 illustrates a flow chart of the overall research design in the current study.

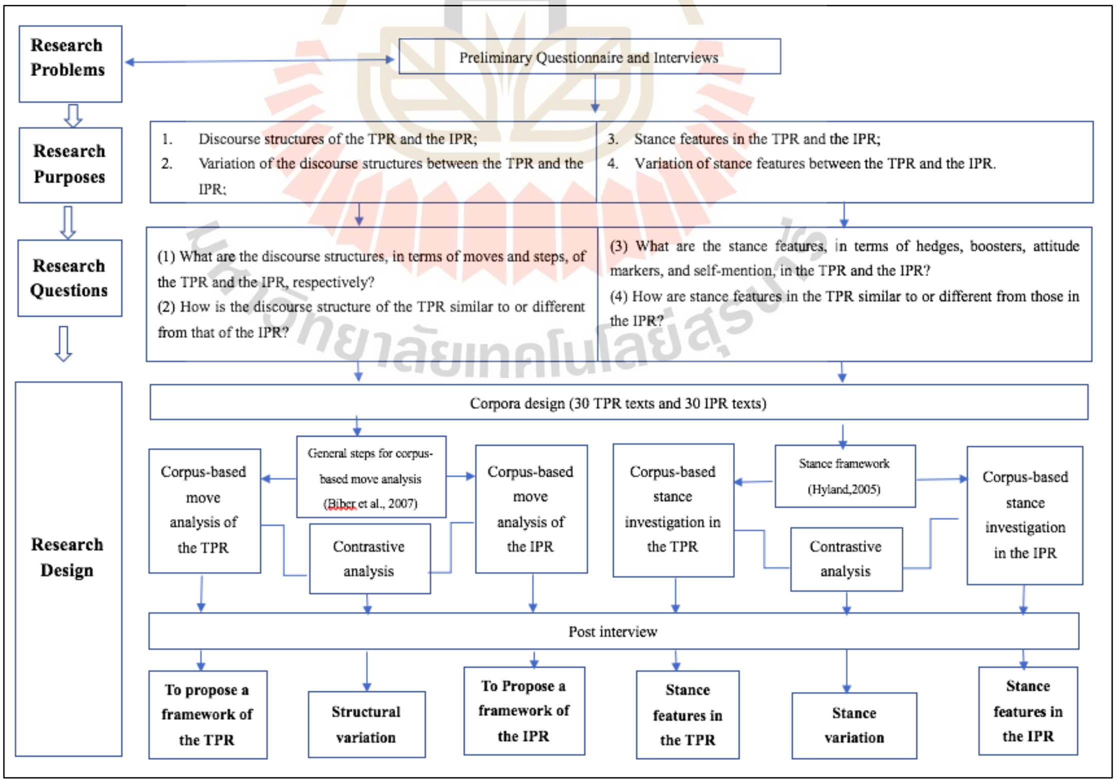


Figure 3.1 The flow chart of the overall research

3.2 The Overall Corpora Design

Corpus design is an important consideration in conducting a corpus-based research. Therefore, in line with the research objectives of the current study, the compilation of a set of specialized corpora with good representativeness will be delineated in the following sections.

3.2.1 The Representativeness of the Corpora

The representativeness is the key factor in designing a corpus. “A corpus-based approach requires analysis of a well-designed ‘representative’ collection of texts of a particular genre” (Biber et al., 2007, p. 36). That is, a corpus should be “representative in order to be appropriately used as the basis for generalizations concerning a language as a whole” (Biber, 1993, p. 243). Biber (1993) emphasizes three important parameters in compiling a representative corpus: the appropriate definition of the target population, the corpus size, and the sampling strategies. Akin to those parameters, the corpora design in the present study tried to achieve the comparatively maximal representativeness by following those points: (1) the appropriate definition of the research targets, i.e. the TPR and the IPR, (2) a reasonable corpus size, and (3) multi-phased sampling via various sampling strategies to collect the TPR texts and the IPR texts. Those points will be discussed in relation to the description of the compilation of the corpora below.

3.2.1.1 The Appropriate Definition of the Research Target

The definition of the target population is firstly determined by “the boundaries of the population-what texts are included and excluded from the population, and secondly by the hierarchical organization with the population-what text categories are included in the population, and what are their definition" (Biber,1993, p. 243). The research object in the present study is limited to the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR. Consequently, other types of the MTI theses such as Internship Report, Experiment Report, Survey Report, and Research Thesis were excluded from the two corpora. Besides, according to the hierarchical classification of the MTI Practice Report that is subdivided into the TPR and the IPR, the two sub-types of text, i.e. the TPR and the IPR, were included in two parallel corpora. Actually, it was not easy to collect the TPR and the IPR directly due to the fact that various types of the MTI theses exist and they are possibly written in English or other languages. Therefore, in order to align with the definition of the research targets, which are the TPR and the IPR written in English, the compilation of the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus in the present research strictly followed the two pre-requisites: (1) accessibility in online database; and (2) being written in English (see Figure 3.2).

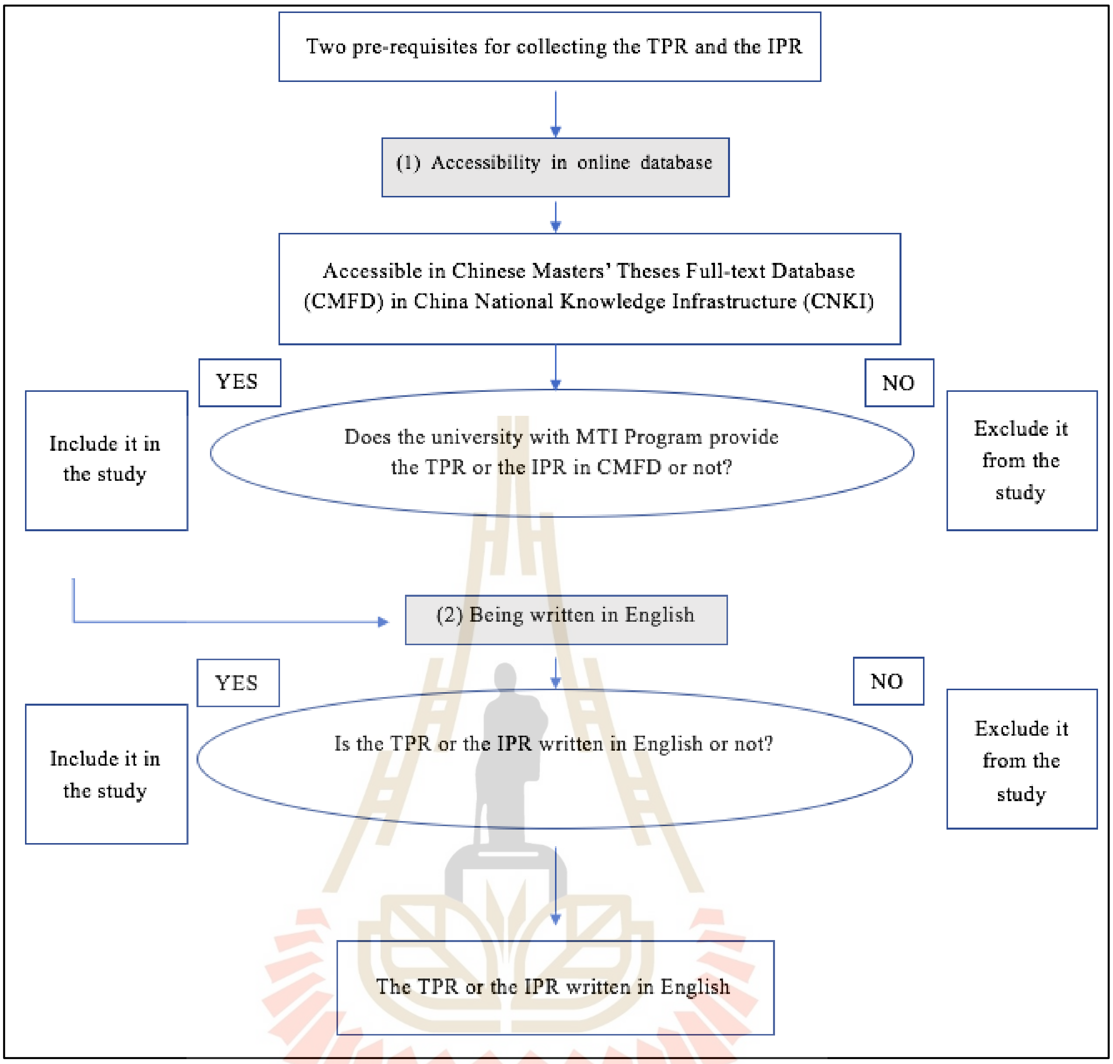


Figure 3.2 The two pre-requisites for collecting the TPR and the IPR

Accessibility in online database is the first pre-requisite. In line with the first research purpose in the current study which aims to propose the frameworks of the TPR and the IPR with a good generalization and a maximum representativeness, the researcher tried to collect the TPR texts and the IPR texts from universities with different academic levels and in different regions of China. That is, the TPR and the IPR were collected from as many universities with the MTI program as possible.

However, it was obviously impossible to obtain all MTI theses in all universities with the MTI program due to the well-known fact that there is a great number of universities with the MTI program in China, located in different regions of China. As Paltridge (2002) states that theses are often difficult to obtain in university libraries, and even more difficult to obtain from outside a university, collecting the TPR and the IPR from online database is the first pre-requisite for corpora compilation in the current study.

In order to collect as many TPR texts and the IPR texts for a good representativeness as possible, a reliable online database is needed. Among all databases providing master theses, Chinese Masters' Theses Full-text Database (CMFD) in China National Knowledge Infrastructure (CNKI) was selected because of its reliability. According to CNKI website, firstly, CNKI is the key project of national information construction. It has a complete coverage of China journals, doctoral dissertations and master theses, etc., which is dedicated to promoting large-scale digitization of China knowledge resources and establishing a platform for global dissemination of knowledge. It has been an essential tool for institutes worldwide to carry out studies on China. Secondly, as one sector of the CNKI, CMFD is regarded as the most useful database with the full text of master theses in China, which is known for its complete content, the highest quality, the shortest publishing period, and the most standard data management. Therefore, it is reliable to collect the TPR texts and the IPR texts from CMFD in the present study. One fact worth being acknowledged is that a certain number of Chinese universities do not offer their master theses to CMFD in CNKI possibly because of the issue of intellectual property or their non-cooperation with CNKI. As a consequence, a university with the MTI program, which has provided the TPR or the IPR to CMFD, would be included into the target population, otherwise it would be excluded.

The second pre-requisite is that the TPR texts and the IPR texts collected from CMFD must be written in English in order to align with the goal of the current Ph.D. in English Language Studies. Considering the fact that a certain amount of the TPR texts and the IPR texts written in other languages are also stored in CMFD, collecting the TPR texts and the IPR texts written in English and excluding those written in other languages are necessary. As a consequence, it was expected that these two pre-requisites would help acquire the target population in the present research. They would be the guiding principles for the whole procedures of corpora compilation in the following stages.

3.2.1.2 Corpus size

It is not easy to answer how large a corpus should be. As Biber (1993) states, the appropriate size of the corpus should not be too big to manage or too small to be representative. McEnery, Xiao and Tono (2006) pointed out that “the size of the corpus needed depends upon the purpose for which it is intended as well as a number of practical considerations” (p. 71). Thus, the research purpose has the paramount importance in corpus-building decision, regarding the corpus size. At the same time, some practical considerations, such as availability of the suitable data and manageability of the data, will affect the size of the corpus as well (McEnery et al., 2006). With regard to the research purposes of the current study, which aims to explore the discourse structures and stance features in the TPR and the IPR, the size of the corpora should be suitable for achieving the research goals, and it should not be too big to manage as well. That is, the data sampled in the corpus should cover as much distribution of the linguistic features of the TPR and the IPR as possible, and all data should not be too much within the time of the Ph.D. program.

Given the two key elements mentioned above, the size of the corpus in the current study was firstly decided by the consideration that the number of the TPR texts and the IPR texts is enough to realize the research purpose of the current study which aims at generalizing the discourse structural pattern of a new genre from the corpus perspective. This can come true by taking reference on the corpus size of the previous studies which had the similar research purposes with those of the current study.

Firstly, since the current study is a corpus-based genre study on the MTI Practice Report (including the TPR and the IPR), a reporting genre as a type of master theses, the corpus size in the previous genre studies on M.A. theses, Ph.D. dissertations, and reporting genres would be a good reference. After reviewing the literature, the corpus size in the previous genre studies on a single section or a couple of sections of M.A. or Ph.D. theses ranged from 6 to 45 theses or dissertations. For example, in terms of genre analysis of single section of theses or dissertations, Hewings (1993) analyzed 6 MBA thesis Conclusion sections. Bunton (2002, 2005) analyzed 45 Ph.D. Introduction and Conclusion Chapters in a range of disciplines. Regarding the genre analysis on all sections in M.A. theses, Dudley-Evans (1999) analyzed overall structure of 7 M.A. theses. Chen and Kuo (2012) analyzed 20 M.A. theses, whereas Nguyen (2014) examined 24 TESOL M.A. theses. In terms of the analysis of genre variations, Samraj (2008) compared 24 Introduction of M.A. theses in three disciplines. Pramoolsook (2008) analyzed the genre transfer on the overall structure by examining three M.Sc. dissertations and the three corresponding research articles in the field of biotechnology and environmental engineering. Soler-Monreal, Carbonell-Olivares and Gil-Salom (2011) conducted a contrastive study of the rhetorical structure of Introduction on 20 Ph.D. dissertation written in Spanish and English in the computing field.

Secondly, the size of the corpus in previous genre studies of the reports can also be taken as a useful reference. For instance, Yeung (2007) examined 22 business reports with an attempt to identify the textual features of this typical genre. Flowerdew and Wan (2010) analyzed the move structure of 25 audit reports in a large international Hong Kong accounting firm. Nathan (2016) selected 23 options analysis texts from the business case reports for a move analysis. Yu (2017) analyzed 18 corporate social responsibility (CSR) reports. Lysanets, Morokhovets and Bieliaieva (2017) analyzed 15 medical case reports. Parkinson (2017) used a data set of 60 highly-graded laboratory reports by engineering undergraduates from the BAWE corpus to describe the move structure and their linguistic features.

As reviewed in the literature above, the corpus size of previous studies which had the similar research purposes of examining the discourse structures of a genre can possibly range from 6 to 60. Therefore, a literature-informed corpus size of 60 texts, consisting of 30 TPR texts and 30 IPR texts was considered to reach a good representativeness. This corpus size is believed to cover as much distribution of structural and linguistic features of the TPR and the IPR as possible, but also it would be appropriate for realizing the research purposes of the current study.

Moreover, the number of 60 texts was adopted as the corpus size due to two practical considerations. Firstly, as mentioned before, it is not easy to collect the TPR text and the IPR text which can satisfy the two pre-requisites that define the research target. Secondly, given that move analysis is a well acknowledged labor-intensive research, the corpus size of 60 MTI Practice Reports that contain six organizational units is big enough for the researcher to complete the corpus-based move analysis and stance investigation within the whole Ph.D. program. In sum, being informed by the literature and taking practical considerations, the researcher in the current study built a set of two comparable corpora with 30 TPR texts and 30 IPR texts, totaling 60 texts. It was expected that this selected number in the two corpora would be representative enough for a genre description of the TPR and the IPR, and it would not be too big to be manageable for labor-intensive move analysis as well.

3.2.2 The Procedure of Corpora Compilation

As aforementioned, sampling strategy is one of the three important parameters in deciding the representativeness of a corpus. With an aim to establish a TPR corpus and an IPR corpus that would represent the actual writing of the MTI Practice Report in China, a multi-phased sampling procedure was adopted to compile the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus (see Figure 3.3)

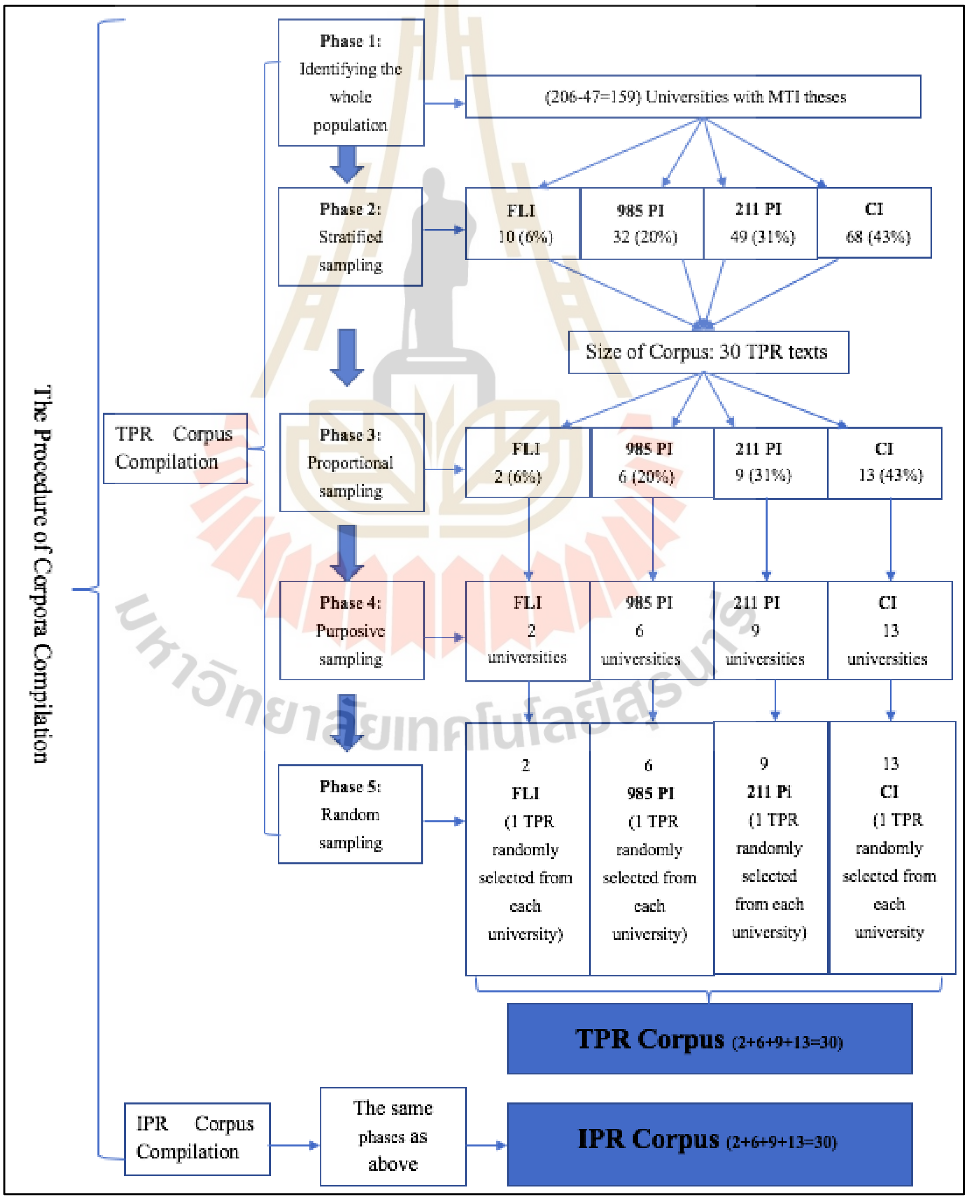


Figure 3.3 The procedure of corpora compilation

Phase 1: Identifying the whole population

The target population in the present study is the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the TPR and the IPR. Since the MTI Practice Report is one type of the MTI theses, it is the starting point to identify the whole population providing the MTI Practice Report. That is, to identify all universities offering the MTI program in China is the initial phase in building the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus. According to the official list published by the Academic Degree Commission of the State Council (ADCSC) of PRC in 2014, there were totally 206 universities in China offering the MTI program at the point when the researcher began building corpora at the first half year of 2017. Those universities were approved batch by batch, totally 5 batches, at different times by ADCSC. Thus, all the universities offering the MTI programs in China were identified as the whole population in the present study except for 47 universities in the last batch that were just approved in 2014 and had not produced any MTI theses at the time the researcher began collecting the TPR texts and the IPR texts. As a result, the total number of universities taken as the whole population in the present research is 159.

Phase 2: Stratifying the whole population

As mentioned by Biber (1993), the variability of a corpus is important for the representativeness which can be evaluated for the extent of the range of text types and the range of linguistic distributions. In order to reach this aim, the corpus design in the present study intended to include as many text types, i.e. the TPR texts and the IPR texts from different types of university with different academic level and in varied regions of China, as possible. Considering the large number of universities with the MTI program and the fact that they cover a broad geographic range, a stratified sampling method was adopted to divide 159 universities into several strata in the current study, which can make corpus data with a wider range of school types and text types. In China, universities can generally be classified into four categories according to their educational orientations, educational level, and academic status. The first category of university is called Foreign Language Institutions (FLI) which is oriented at the teaching and the learning of foreign languages and aims to train students to be specialized in one type of language. The students who are enrolled in FLI are usually regarded to have a high competence in the language in which they are specialized; the second category of universities is 985 Project Institutions (985PI) which can be regarded as the world top universities and have the highest level of educational and academic status in China. The students who are enrolled in this type of universities are usually regarded to have a high level of integrated abilities, including the English language competence; the third category is 211 Project Institutions (211PI) which are nationally known universities in China and have a moderate place in terms of their educational level and academic status. The students who are enrolled in 211PI are usually regarded to have a moderate level of English competence; and the last is Common Institutions (CI) which are local universities or specialized universities which comparatively have the lowest educational and academic status. The students who are enrolled in CI are generally regarded to show a lower level of English competence. Accordingly, the whole population, i.e. 159 universities offering the MTI program, were classified into 4 categories of institutions, which led to 4 sampling strata. Then, 10 universities offering the MTI program were in the strata of FLI, 32 in the strata of 985PI, 49 in the strata of 211PI, and 68 in the strata of CI.

Phase 3: Proportional sampling

As aforementioned, a rational corpus size number in the current study is 60, consisting of two comparable corpora with 30 TPR texts and 30 IPR texts, respectively. Because it is practically impossible to collect TPR texts and the IPR texts from all the 159 universities randomly in the current study, the proportional stratified sampling was used to decide the number of universities selected from each stratum. Proportional stratification is a type of stratified sampling according to the proportion. With proportional stratification, the sample size of each stratum is proportionate to the population size of the stratum. As it is seen in Figure 3.4, because the proportion of FLI, 985PI, 211PI, and CI to the total number of universities providing the MTI program are 6%, 20%, 31% and 43%, respectively, the number of universities selected from each stratum would be based on this proportion. Accordingly, 2 universities representing 6% of the corpus size were sampled from the FLI strata, 6 representing 20% from the 985PI strata, 9 representing 31% from the 211PI strata, and 13 representing 43% from the CI strata.

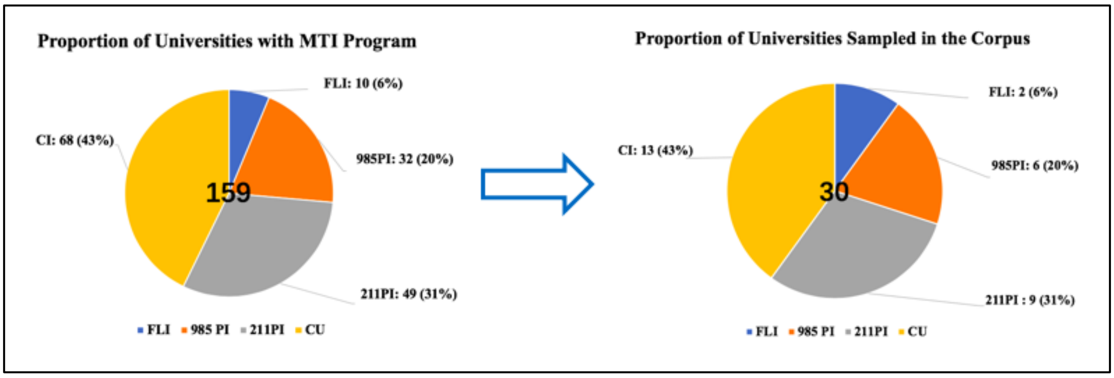


Figure 3.4 The proportional sampling of the TPR texts and the IPR texts

Phase 4: Selecting the universities purposively

Purposive sampling means selecting data on the basis of the judgement of the typicality or possession of the particular characteristics, which aims to satisfy a specific purpose (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007). As noted above, in order to specify the target population, the MTI Practice Report selected into the TPR corpus or the IPR corpus should meet the two pre-requisites: accessibility in online database and being written in English. The actual fact is that not all universities in the whole population can meet both the two pre-requisites at the same time, thus the purposive sampling method was adopted to select universities to meet the two pre-requisites. Besides, the variability of the text type can be guaranteed by purposively selecting the universities being located in different regions of China.

Phase 5: Sampling the TPR texts and the IPR texts randomly

After 30 universities offering TPR texts and another 30 universities offering IPR texts were purposively sampled from 4 different strata, the last phase in compiling the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus was to select one piece of TPR text and one IPR text by means of the random sampling method. Because one university in CMFD online database usually provides more than one TPR text and IPR text, the random sampling of TPR text or IPR text from the purposively selected university in the last phase could guarantee the equal chance that each TPR text or IPR text in this university could be sampled, which finally improved the representativeness and the generalizability of the corpora.

In sum, a TPR corpus (30 TPR texts) and an IPR corpus (30 IPR texts) were compiled through the multi-phased sampling with various sampling strategies, which is summarized in Table 3.1. The detailed information (the affiliation, English title, submitting year, and geographic location) about each text sampled in the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus was provided in the Appendices D and E, respectively. Last, considering the convenience of identifying each text in the corpora, 30 TPR texts in the TPR corpus were coded as TPR1 to TPR30, while 30 IPR texts in the IPR corpus were coded as IPR1 to IPR 30 (see Appendix F).

Table 3.1 The summary of the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus

The Summary of the TPR Corpus and the IPR Corpus								
Corpus	**Number of Theses**	**FLI**	**985PI**	**211PI**	**CI**	**Number of Universities**	**Number of provinces**	**Time range**
TPR	30	2	6	9	13	30	16	2012-2017
IPR	30	2	6	9	13	30	16	2012-2017

3.3 Corpus-based Move Analysis of the TPR and the IPR

3.3.1 The Procedure of the Corpus-based Move Analysis

As reviewed in Chapter 2, Biber et al., (2007) outlined 10 general steps to conduct a corpus-based move analysis. Those 10 steps were adapted into four analysis phases to explore the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR in the current study, which is demonstrated in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2 The procedure used to conduct corpus-based move analysis in the present study

The procedure used to conduct the corpus-based move analysis in the present study		
Phase One: Identifying the possible organizational units	Step 1: To identify the possible sections/chapters in the TPR and in the IPR, respectively	
	Step 2: To group the sections/chapters in the TPR and in the IPR with the same functional and/or semantic themes that are either in relative proximity to each other or often occur in similar locations into the same organizational unit	
Phase Two: Developing the coding protocol	Stage 1: Forming the Initial Coding Protocol	Step 1: To adapt the writing reference model proposed by Chinese scholars (Mu, Zou & Yang, 2012) into the Initial Coding Protocol with the possible moves and steps in the TPR and in the IPR
	Stage 2: Modifying the Initial Coding Protocol into the Modified Coding Protocol through a pilot-coding	Step 1: To identify rhetorical function of each move/step in its local context based on the Initial Coding Protocol
		Step 2: To group the moves/steps with the same functional and/or semantic themes that are either in relative proximity to each other or often occur in similar locations into the same move
		Step 3: To modify he Initial Coding Protocol into the Modified Coding Protocol with clear definitions and examples of move types and steps in the TPR and in the IPR
Phase Three: Coding full sets of texts	Step 1: To conduct inter-rater reliability check using the Modified Coding Protocol	
	Step 2: To code the full sets of texts in the TPR corpus and in the IPR corpus using the Modified Coding Protocol	
Phase Four: Describing the structures of the TPR and the IPR	Step 1: To describe move/step types in the TPR and the IPR Step 2: To describe move/step frequencies in the TPR and the IPR	

Among those four phases, Phase One (Identifying the possible organizational units) and Phase Two (Developing the coding protocol) were conducted before the main study, which will be delineated in the following sections.

3.3.1.1 Identifying Possible Organizational Units

Concerning that the non-uniformity of section/chapter labels in the TPR and the IPR makes it impossible to apply conventional section labels (IMRD) to mark the macro-discourse organization, it is necessary to identify the possible organizational units that the sections with the same functional and/or semantic themes can be grouped into. This can help describe the macro-discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR. In the present study, *Organizational unit* instead of the common term *Section* is used to refer to the Section or Chapter in the TPR and the IPR. It followed the same way that Poltavtchenko (2013) labeled sections as organizational units in his corpus-based genre analysis of discourse structure in Engineer Design Reports.

Correspondingly, the possible organizational units in the TPR and the IPR were respectively identified by following the steps below. Firstly, all section labels in the selected 30 TPR texts and 30 IPR texts were identified according to their natural boundary. Secondly, the section labels with the same communicative purposes, even being marked differently in different texts, were grouped into the same organizational unit. For example, the section labeled as *Analysis of the Source Text* in one TPR and the section labeled as *Task Description* in another TPR have the same communicative purposes to provide a basic description on the translation task. Thus, both of these two labels of section were considered to belong to the same organizational unit. Thirdly, for the label that does not clearly indicate its communicative purposes, the researcher had a detailed reading of the section to identify its communicative purposes and decided which organizational unit it should be grouped into. Generally, for the section that contains more than one communicative purpose, the categorization was made based on the main communicative purpose in this section. Last, by following the steps above, all section labels with the similar communicative purpose from the selected 30 TPR texts and 30 IPR texts were grouped into corresponding organizational units, respectively.

In order to reduce the subjectivity of this procedure and guarantee its reliability, two MTI students in China were invited to have a double-check about the results of the identification and grouping of sections in the 30 TPR texts and the 30 IPR texts. Specifically, each MTI student was responsible for a double-check of 30 texts of the TPR/IPR. Both of them checked the results of the identification and grouping of section labels by following the same steps as the researcher did. Then, based on the feedback from the two MTI students, the researcher re-grouped the problematic section labels mentioned by them. Next, according to the frequency of the section labels grouped in each organizational unit, the section label with the highest frequency grouped in each organizational unit was adopted to mark the corresponding organizational unit. This aimed to guarantee the representativeness of the section label for this organizational unit because it was the most frequently used label for the section with the similar communicative purposes. Consequently, eight possible organizational units, consisting of *Abstract, Introduction, Task Description, Literature Review, Theoretical Background, Process Description, Case Analysis* and *Conclusion*, were identified in the TPR and the IPR, respectively, which are demonstrated in Appendix G.

In sum, Phase One of identifying the possible organizational units aims to propose a preliminary macro-discourse structure for the TPR and the IPR, which is equal to the I-M-R-D pattern in the RAs or theses. On the one hand, it can facilitate the corpus-based move analysis based on each organizational unit in the TPR and in the IPR. On the other hand, it also can provide a guide for segmentation of sections in the 30 TPR texts and the 30 IPR texts into different unit-based sub-corpora for the corpora management in the following sections.

3.3.1.2 The Analysis Scope

Based on the result obtained in Phase One of identifying possible organization units, eight organizational units were identified for the macro-discourse organization of the TPR and the IPR, respectively. However, it is worth noting that only six organizational units were included into the scope of the current study. According to Biber's (1993) three parameters in compiling the corpus with a good representativeness and generalizability, the corpus size is one of key parameters for generalizing a language use in a corpus. However, only one *Literature Review* section occurred in the IPR, and ten and eight *Theoretical Background* sections were identified in the TPR and IPR respectively among the total 60 texts. The number of texts that can be grouped into those two organizational units is too small to be representative. Considering one of the research purposes in current study is to propose the frameworks of the TPR and the IPR with a good generalization and a maximum representativeness, a reasonable number of texts in each sub-corpus should guarantee that the macro-discourse structure can reflect the actual writing of the TPR and the IPR. Consequently, the unit of *Literature Review* and the unit of *Theoretical Background* were not included into the scope of the current study.

3.3.1.3 Corpora Management

According to the scope of the current study mentioned above, corpora management was conducted by following those steps. Firstly, 30 TPR texts and 30 IPR texts were firstly transformed from the CAJ format to the WORD format by means of the program XUNJIE, a paid converting program that can facilitate the transforming of documents among various formats. Secondly, all 60 transformed texts were scrutinized by the researcher to check and revise any errors caused during the transforming procedure. Thirdly, the sections with the same communicative purposes identified during the Phase One were segmented into the corresponding organizational unit of the TPR or the IPR, respectively. Fourthly, each of the six organizational units of the TPR and the IPR was respectively put into a separate file to build a sub-corpus, which would be ready for the cIorpus-based move analysis. Lastly, for the ease of the move analysis on different organizational units, a coding system for labelling each sub-corpus and each text was created. The detailed information about it can be seen from Table 3.3 below. Specifically, the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus were segmented into six sub-corpora according to the six organizational units in the TPR and the IPR, respectively. The label of each sub-corpus was marked by using the abbreviation of the corpus name and the unit name. All texts in each sub-corpus were accordingly labeled as well. For example, TPR-A represents the sub-corpus of the Abstract unit in the TPR. TPR-A-1 means the Abstract text 1 segmented from the TPR-1.

Table 3.3 The labels of sub-corpora in the TPR corpus and in the IPR corpus

TPR Corpus			IPR Corpus		
Sub-corpora	**No. of Text**	**Label example for texts contained**	**Sub-corpora**	**No. of Text**	**Label example for texts contained**
TPR-A	30	e.g. TPR-A-1	IPR-A	30	e.g. IPR-A-1
TPR-I	23	e.g. TPR-I-1	IPR-I	18	e.g. IPR-I-1
TPR-TD	16	e.g. TPR-TD-1	IPR-TD	24	e.g. IPR-TD-1
TPR-PD	27	e.g. TPR-PD-1	IPR-PD	29	e.g. IPR-PD-1
TPR-CA	30	e.g. TPR-CA-1	IPR-CA	30	e.g. IPR-CA-1
TPR-C	30	e.g. TPR-C-1	IPR-C	30	e.g. IPR-C-1

3.3.1.4 Developing the Coding Protocol

Phase Two in the corpus-based move analysis in the current study was to develop a coding protocol for analyzing the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR. It was realized through two stages. The first stage was to form an Initial Coding Protocol based on the writing reference model proposed by Chinese scholars (Mu et al., 2012). The second stage was to modify the Initial Coding Protocol into a Modified Coding Protocol through a pilot-coding.

Regarding the first stage, the *Reference Model for Translation and Interpretation Practice Report* proposed by Chinese scholars (Mu et al., 2012) (see Appendix H) was taken as the useful reference to form the Initial Coding Protocol of the TPR and the IPR in the current study. Such decision was based on the following facts. Firstly, the model has the closest relevance to the writing of the TPR and the IPR because it demonstrates the necessary sections and possible contents in each section. Secondly, the model shows an organization advocated for the expected writing structure of the TPR and the IPR. Therefore, on the basis of this writing reference model, the Initial Coding Protocol of the TPR and the IPR was formed with 4 organizational units, 13 moves, and 29 steps (see Appendix I).

As for the second stage, a pilot-coding was conducted with an invited coder which aimed to form the Modified Coding Protocol based on the Initial Coding Protocol since a pilot-coding can be conducted by "group(ing) functional and/or semantic themes that are either in relative proximity to each other or often occur in similar locations in representative texts" (Biber et al., 2007, p. 34) to develop a protocol with definitions and examples of move types and steps. The details of the pilot-coding will be provided below. The selection of the invited coder and the invited-coder training will be described in the section 3.3.3.1 and the section 3.3.3.2, respectively.

In the pilot-coding, 4 TPR texts and 4 IPR texts, totally 8 (13% of the corpora; one from each type of institution) were selected from the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus to undergo the pilot-coding. Guided by the Initial Coding Protocol, the researcher and the invited coder identified segments in which their functional and/or semantic themes are either in relative proximity to each other or segments which often occur in the similar locations in the 4 TPR texts and 4 IPR texts together. Note that both the researcher and the invited coder should be informed that moves and steps in the Initial Coding Protocol were just possible ones, and any segments with the same but unidentified communicative purposes before could be proposed as the new possible moves and steps. After all segments with the similar communicative purposes were coded, the segments with the similar functional and/or semantic themes from 4 TPR texts and 4 IPR texts were grouped together, respectively. According to the common semantic and functional theme contained in each group of segments, the label for each type of move and step was formulated by the researcher and the invited coder together by taking reference on the labels in the Initial Coding Protocol. Finally, the representative segment was selected as the illustrating example for each type of move or step by the researcher and the invited coder together as well. Tables 3.4-3.9 show the Modified Coding Protocol for each unit obtained in the pilot coding. Besides, two specific examples are provided in Appendix J to illustrate the detailed procedure in identifying moves and steps by using the Modified Coding Protocol in the study.

Table 3.4 The modified coding protocol for the Abstract unit of the TPR and the IPR

Organizational Unit	Moves	Function	Steps
Abstract	**Making introduction**	*Establishes the context and provides a general introduction to the report*	
	Presenting task	*Provides the basic information on the practice task, including type, background, source, etc.*	Indicating type and feature(s)
			Indicating background
			Indicating source
	Providing rationale	*States the limitation of previous work, indicates the gap, and stresses the importance of the current task*	Claiming importance
			Indicating a gap
	Summarizing practice	*Summarizes the process of the whole practice or the whole report, including purpose, theory, method, results, reflection, etc.*	Indicating purpose
			Indicating theory adopted
			Outlining practice report
			Reflecting on practice
	Indicating report structure	*Indicates the organization of the report*	
	Drawing implications	*Indicates the value of the present practice report and offers the pedagogical implications for future learning or practice in this field*	Indicating significance
			Offering pedagogical implications

Table 3.5 The modified coding protocol for the Introduction unit of the TPR and the IPR

Organizational Unit	Moves	Function	Steps
Introduction	**Introducing context**	*Provides the context and the background of the practice task or the report*	
	Introducing rationale	*Indicates limitations or drawbacks of previous work, points out the gap, and stresses the importance of the current practice*	Referring to literature
			Introducing a gap
			Giving reason(s) for a task
			Claiming importance
	Introducing task	*Introduces the basic information on the task, including background, source, content, etc.*	Introducing task type and feature(s)
			Introducing task background
			Introducing task source
			Introducing task contents
	Demonstrating significance	*Introduces the importance of the practice task or practice activities*	Demonstrating significance in the real world
			Demonstrating significance in the field
	Giving an overview of the practice	*Introduces how the task is completed, including purpose, theory, problems, techniques, etc.*	Introducing purposes
			Introducing theory and method
			Introducing overall practice process
			Presenting reflection
			Providing pedagogical implications
	Introducing report structure	*Introduces the organization of the report*	

Table 3.6 The modified coding protocol for the Task Description unit of the TPR and the IPR

Organizational Unit	Moves	Function	Steps
Task Description	**Describing context**	*Describes the context and the background of the practice task or the report*	
	Describing rationale	*Explains the reasons why this task is selected or why the task/report is worthy of being conducted*	Referring to literature Indicating a gap Describing reason(s) for task Claiming importance
	Describing task	*Provides the basic information on the task, including background, source, content, etc.*	Describing task type and feature(s) Describing the task source Describing the author Describing the readers Describing the text contents Describing the client Describing the audiences Describing the interpreting task Describing the task requirements
	Describing process	*Describes how the practice task is completed, including purpose, theory, etc.*	Describing the purpose Describing the theory and methods Describing overall procedures
	Describing results	*Describes problems encountered, corresponding strategies adopted, and experience gained in the practice*	Describing achievements Describing the significance Describing reflection

Table 3.7 The modified coding protocol for the Process Description Unit of the TPR and the IPR

Organizational Unit	Moves	Function	Steps
Process Description	**Describing pre-task**	*Describes the preparing work before conducting the task, including background, theory, terminology list and etc.*	Describing the importance of the preparatory work
			Describing task-oriented preparation
			Adopting theory and strategies
			Formulating terminology list(s)
			Preparing skills and tools
			Preparing a task plan
			Describing the psychological preparation
	Describing during-task	*Describes how the task is completed*	Describing the on-site work
			Describing the translation process
			Dealing with the emergency
	Describing after-task	*Describes works that are conducted after the task, including feedback, evaluation, etc.*	Having proof-reading and revision
			Describing quality control
			Having feedback and evaluation
			Making a summary

Table 3.8 The modified coding protocol for the Case Analysis Unit of the TPR and the IPR

Organizational Unit	Moves	Function	Steps
Case Analysis	**Opening the Case Analysis Chapter**	*Functions to start the Chapter*	
	Offering a theoretical basis	*Provides theoretical support for case analysis, including name of the theory, key principles, etc.*	Introducing the theory
			Describing key rules/principles of the theory
			Justifying the theory
			Claiming the applicability of the theory
			Summarizing the theory
	Providing an overview of translation/interpretation phenomena	*Offers an overall introduction to problem(s), cause(s), solving skill(s)/strategies analyzed in the report*	
	Illustrating one category of translation/interpretation phenomenon	*Describes what a translation/interpretation phenomenon is*	Describing the translation/interpretation phenomenon
			Describing the sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomenon
			Conducting case(s) analysis
			Summarizing the translation/interpretation phenomenon
	Closing the Case Analysis Chapter	*Functions to make an end to the Chapter*	

Table 3.9 The modified coding protocol for the Conclusion Unit of the TPR and the IPR

Organizational Unit	Moves	Function	Steps
Conclusion	**Reviewing the practice task**	*Provides a review on the important elements in the whole practice task*	Reviewing the task type and feature(s)
			Reviewing the task context
			Restating the task source
			Reviewing the purpose
			Restating the theory and method
			Reviewing overall practice process
	Summarizing the practice task	*Summarizes on major findings in the practice, including problems encountered, causes to problems, skills/strategies adopted, etc.*	Summarizing main findings
			Summarizing problems encountered
			Summarizing skills/strategies adopted
			Summarizing experience obtained
			Summarizing main contents of the report
	Evaluating the practice task	*Provides an evaluation or assessment on the practice and indicates its significance*	Making evaluation
			Claiming significance
			Stating limitations
	Deducting from the practice task	*Provides some suggestions or recommendation for future practice or teaching*	Making suggestions
			Providing pedagogical implications

In sum, in the Phase of developing a coding protocol that is suitable for analyzing the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR with a good validity and reliability, an Initial Coding Protocol was firstly formed based on the related writing reference model. Then, guided by the Initial Coding Protocol, a coding protocol (the Modified Coding Protocol) that describes move and step types was developed through a pilot coding.

According to Biber et al. (2007), after the coding protocol (the Modified Coding Protocol) is developed, it will be employed to code the full texts in the corpus (i.e. Phase Three in the current study) with the inter-rater reliability check. Thus, other important issues related to the corpus-based move analysis in the current study will be discussed in the following sections.

3.3.2 The Analysis Program

It is a well-known fact that move analysis is a sort of labor-intensive research work, especially when a large amount of data is involved. Especially, it is time and energy-consuming to label and sort moves and steps across multiple paper texts. In recent years, however, the development of the modern technology makes it possible to do such labor-intensive work with the help of the computer. Thus, in order to analyze 30 TPR texts and 30 IPR texts with the great variations and flexibility in their structures and to facilitate the investigation of discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR, a Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) program Atlas. ti 8 was employed to store and facilitate the coding of moves and steps in electronic texts instead of the traditional way of labeling moves and steps on paper texts in the current study. Atlas. ti 8 is a paid program for the qualitative analysis of large bodies of textual, graphical, audio and video data. The powerful tools of the program can help the user to arrange, reassemble, and manage the materials in a creative, yet systematic way. In the current study, based on the hand-tagged move identification, some powerful tools of this qualitative coding program were used to help the researcher to manage the electronic texts and deal with the analysis results.

Therefore, by taking the advantage of the modern software, Atlas. ti 8 was selected in the current research mainly because of its convenience in storing the texts, managing the texts, and organizing the analysis results. First, it can help the researcher to manage the electronic texts in corpora rather than to identify moves on paper texts, which might be more convenient and efficient in terms of data management. Figure 3.5 offers a screenshot of the Atlas. ti 8, with right-hand margins displaying the moves /steps identified in a sample text.

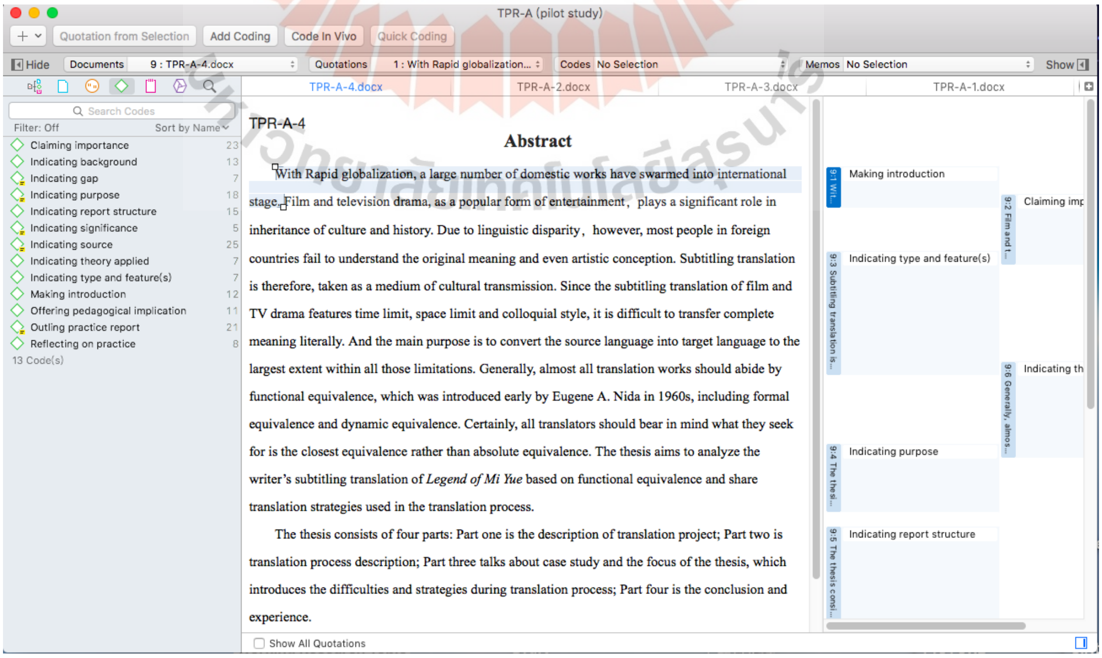


Figure 3.5 Screenshot of labeling codes (moves/steps) using the Atlas. ti 8

Second, with the tool of “Add Coding” of Atlas. ti 8, the label of a move/step can be conveniently selected from the list that is added beforehand. It thus might be labor-saving compared with the traditional manual labeling of each move. The left-hand margin in Figure 3.5 above displays the list of labels of moves/steps added beforehand.

Third, with the tool of “Code Manager” of Atlas. ti 8, the frequency and the distribution of codes (moves/steps) can be reported (see Figure 3.6), which is much time-saving than counting the occurrence of each move in different paper texts by hand.

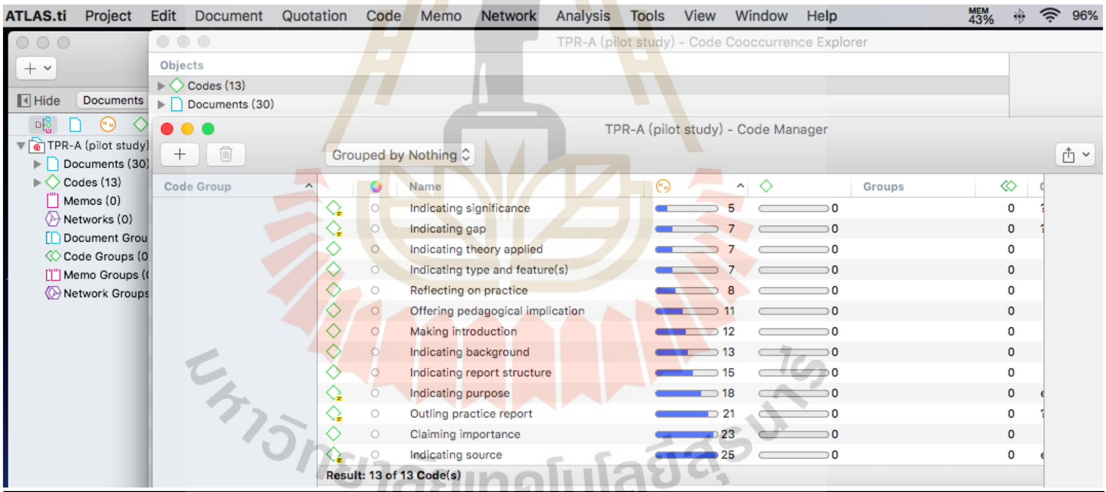


Figure 3.6 Screenshot of the Atlas. ti 8 with frequency of codes (moves/steps)

Fourth, with the function of “Group Coding”, it is convenient to locate the same code (move/step) in different texts, which might be convenient to group the same code (move/step) into a group family. This function is especially beneficial for formulating a definition for a move identified in different texts and selecting its representative examples in the pilot-coding stage, which is a crucial step to provide “clear definitions and examples of *move types* and *steps*” (Biber et al., 2007, p. 34) in developing the coding protocol of the TPR and the IPR in the current study. Figure 3.7 displays the definition of one code (move) given by the researcher in the right-hand column and the segmented texts of this code (move) in different texts at the bottom.

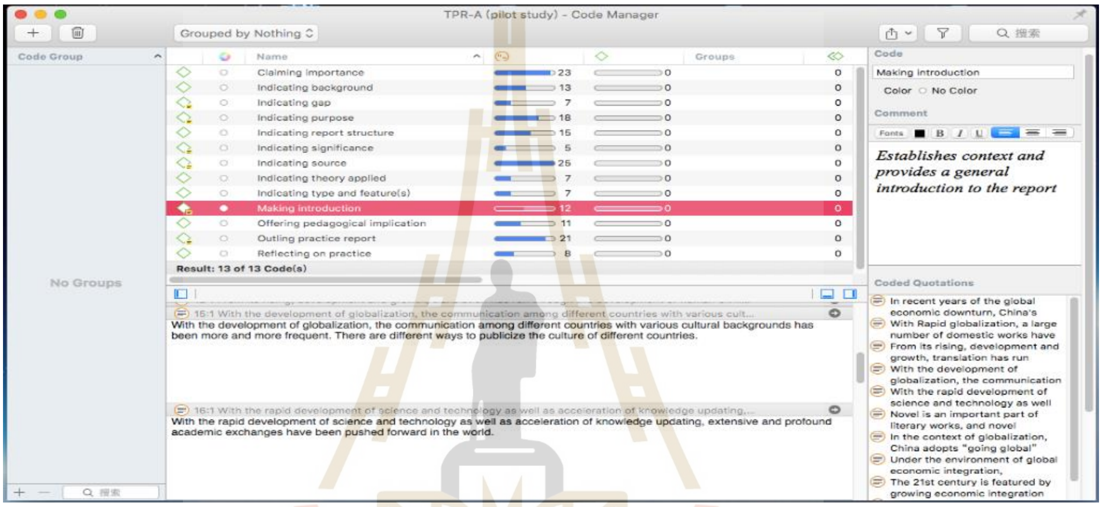


Figure 3.7 Screenshot of the Atlas. ti 8 with the group family of a same code (move/step)

In a summary, by applying the program Atlas. ti 8 into the corpus-based move analysis on the structures of the TPR and the IPR in the current study, it could interface the qualitative judgement on the basis of the semantic and functional interpretation, which was conducted through hand-labelling moves/steps on computer screen, with the quantitative techniques provided by the modern software, which is one of the features in the corpus-based discourse study. However, it is worth noting that the identification of moves/steps was still based on the semantic/functional judgement, which is totally a qualitative behavior so that it cannot be conducted by any coding program until now.

That is to say, the using of the Atlas. ti 8 in the current study mainly helps the researcher to store texts, to facilitate moves/steps labelling on electronic text, and to manage the results of move analysis with the computer rather than do move identification by Atlas. ti 8 itself.

3.3.3 The Analysis Reliability

Move analysis aims to investigate the organizational structure of a genre by identifying the rhetorical moves according to their communicative purposes, and it is a qualitative analysis based on one's semantic judgment. Thus, some criticisms were aroused because of the nature of move analysis that would produce a certain subjectivity in identifying the move boundary mainly on the basis of semantic and functional understanding (Crookes, 1986). This subjective judgment would cause the problems to the reliability and validity of the analysis (Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Paltridge,1994). In such cases, in order to guarantee the reliability and validity of the analysis, some procedures should be correctly taken in the current study, including inter-coder selecting, inter-coder training, and the measurement of the inter-rater reliability.

3.3.3.1 Inter-coder Selection

The background of the people who make qualitative decisions is reported as one of factors that influence the reliability of qualitative analysis (Weigle, 2002). Therefore, the background knowledge of the coder is usually considered as an important variable (Crookes, 1986; Shohamy, Gordon, & Kraemer, 1992) in selecting a coder. In the current study, in order to improve the reliability of the pilot-coding and the coding of the full text, it is important to select the inter-coder (invited coder) carefully. Hence, a Ph.D. candidate who was studying in the program of English Language Studies at SUT was invited to be the inter-coder for the pilot-coding mentioned above and the inter-rater reliability check for coding the full sets of texts in the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus. The decision of selecting this Ph.D. candidate was mainly based on his academic and professional background. Firstly, the invited coder had the academic background of applied linguistics and had several years of English teaching experience for university students in China, which guaranteed his accurate understanding of the writing text by Chinese students. Secondly, the invited coder had spent three years on the MTI learning and had obtained the master degree in the MTI in 2013. This professional background enables him to have a professional knowledge about reading and writing of the MTI theses. Furthermore, the invited coder had a strong interest in move analysis and had once obtained experience on move analysis when he was doing the research practice in his Ph.D. program.

3.3.3.2 Inter-coder Training

After the inter-coder was selected, a systematic training was given to the inter-coder in order to achieve a better and more consistent inter-rater reliability. The training included those major stages:

In the first stage, a tutorial was given to the invited coder on how to use the Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) program Atlas. ti 8 since this program would be used for identifying moves/steps. Several how-to video clips on Atlas. ti 8 were also provided to the invited coder for familiarizing him with coding by this program. In addition, one sample text was offered to the invited coder for coding practice.

In the second stage, the researcher firstly explained to the invited coder about how to identify moves/steps under the guidance of the Initial Coding Protocol. Then, the researcher and the invited coder conducted the pilot-coding together in order to develop the Modified Coding Protocol of the TPR and the IPR, which had been described above.

In the third stage of inter-rater reliability check, 6 TPR texts and 6 IPR texts (about 20 % of the entire corpora) were selected randomly from the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus to be coded for inter-rater reliability check in the current study. By employing the Modified Coding Protocol obtained in the pilot-coding stage, both the researcher and the invited coder coded the 12 selected texts independently. Then, the inter-rater reliability of each organizational unit for 6 TPRs and 6 IPRs between the invited coder and the researcher will be reported respectively in the following section.

3.3.3.3 The Measurement of the Inter-rater Reliability

Currently, two common ways are reported to measure the inter-rater reliability by move analysts. One is Cohen's kappa (k), which is a statistically chance-corrected measure of inter-rater reliability. The other is the percentage agreement, which is called coefficient of reliability (C.R) proposed by Holsti (1969). Percentage agreement is widely used to display the percentage rate between the inter-coder and the researcher, which demonstrates the extent of the reliability of analysis. The formula for percentage agreement is A/(A+D) x 100. In this formula, "A" represents the number of agreements and "D" represents the number of disagreements. For example, if the total move boundaries identified are 50 and the agreements between the inter-coder and the researcher are 40, the agreement percentage is 80%. In the current study, the way of percentage agreement rate was adopted to check the inter-coder reliability of move identification because of its popularity and convenience in counting the percentage. According to Holsti (1969), the percentage agreement value is above 0.75, which means an excellent agreement. Instead, if the value is less than 0.75, it indicates a low reliability. Table 3.10 and Table 3. 11 show the results of the inter-inter reliability for the six organizational units in the selected 6 TPR texts and 6 IPR texts, respectively. As can be seen, the percentage agreement of each unit in two corpora is above 75%, which indicates a good reliability of identifying moves.

Table 3.10 The result of inter-rater reliability for the TPR corpus

Organizational Units	No. of Texts	Move Boundaries	Agreement	Disagreement	Percentage of Agreement (%)
Abstract	6	35	32	3	91.4
Introduction	3	34	33	1	97.1
Task Description	4	31	29	3	93.5
Process Description	5	20	19	1	95.0
Case Analysis	6	70	67	3	95.7
Conclusion	6	26	23	3	88.4
Total	30	216	203	13	93.9 (Average)

Table 3.11 The result of inter-rater reliability for the IPR corpus

Organizational Units	No. of Texts	Move Boundaries	Agreement	Disagreement	Percentage of Agreement (%)
Abstract	6	40	39	1	97.5
Introduction	4	41	38	3	92.7
Task Description	3	34	31	3	91.2
Process Description	6	27	26	1	96.2
Case Analysis	6	78	71	7	91.0
Conclusion	6	31	27	4	87.1
Total	31	251	232	19	92.4 (Average)

3.3.4 The Analysis Procedure

In line with the research objectives at the macro-level in the current study, that is, to explore the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR and the variations between them via the corpus-based move analysis, the analysis procedure at this level includes two phases to answer the two research questions, respectively.

The first phase is to answer Research Question (1) i.e. what are the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR, respectively? The Modified Coding Protocol of the TPR and the IPR was applied into coding the full texts in the TPR corpus and in the IPR corpus, respectively, aiming to identify moves and steps in each organizational unit. Because the length of a move may vary from one sentence to several paragraphs, the identification was based on sentence level. For a sentence that contains more than one move, the common practice to code this move is based on the most salient function (Del-Saz Rubio, 2011; Holmes, 1997; Ozturk, 2007). The same approach was also used to identify steps in the moves that possibly contain several steps that help realize the communicative purposes of the move.

Considering that the research subjects (i.e. the TPR and the IPR) in the current study are two types of reporting genres, when verifying the extent to which a particular move is used, the criterion used by Parkinson (2017) to classify moves in one reporting genre (i.e. the student's lab reports) was taken as a reference to classify the frequency of a particular move. According to Parkinson (2017), the cut-off point for obligatory move was 80%. It means that a move can be regarded as an obligatory move if the frequency of occurrence of this move reaches 80% or more. The cut-off point for conventional move was 50-79%, which means a move with frequency in this range can be considered as a conventional move. Otherwise, if the frequency of a move is below 50%, it can be taken as an optional move. This specific cut-off criterion is beneficial for studying a newly emerging genre because it can well demonstrate that some rhetorical moves/steps are obligatory, some are conventional, and others are optional, which, to a great extent, shows the importance of each move in a new genre. Therefore, based on the types, functions, linguistic features, and the frequencies of the moves and steps, which respectively indicate the most commonly existing components in the genre, the move framework of each organizational unit in the TPR and the IPR was proposed, respectively. Lastly, by combining the move frameworks of each organizational unit together, the frameworks of the whole TPR and the whole IPR were finally be proposed, which would answer the Research Question (1) in the current study.

The second phase is to answer Research Question (2) i.e. how is the discourse structure of the TPR similar to or different from that of the IPR? This Research Question was addressed by comparing the frequency and the status of organizational units and the constituent moves to disclose the variations of the discourse structures between the two subdisciplines.

3.4 Corpus-based Stance Investigation in the TPR Corpus and in the IPR Corpus

In line with the research objectives at the micro-level in the present study, a corpus-based investigation on stance features in the TPR and the IPR was conducted. Some important elements included in this level will be delineated below.

3.4.1 Size of the Corpora

As described before, the 30 TPR texts and the 30 IPR texts have been converted into WORD files during the corpora management in the corpus-based move analysis, which has formulated a set of six sub-corpora in the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus, respectively, Based on this result, the size of the TPR and the IPR corpora and their respective sub-corpora were formulated after the contents that are not related to research purposes (e.g., Chinese characters, English source text for translation/ interpretation) was removed, which can be seen in Table 3.12 below.

Table 3.12 The size of the corpora

Corpus/Sub-corpus	No. of texts contained	Running words	Corpus/Sub-corpus	No. of texts contained	Running Words
TPR	30	174,469	IPR	30	200,197
TPR-A	30	8,738	IPR-A	30	8,699
TPR-I	23	17,265	IPR-I	18	10,428
TPR-TD	16	14,773	IPR-TD	24	20,903
TPR-PD	27	35,301	IPR-PD	29	48,615
TPR-CA	30	80,942	IPR-CA	30	94,256
TPR-C	30	17,450	IPR-C	30	17,296

3.4.2 Analysis Framework of Stance

Hyland's (2005) stance framework in the model of interaction was adapted as the analysis framework for corpus-based stance investigation in the current study. The four categories of stance have their own corresponding functions in line with the communicative purposes in the MTI Practice Report, which is summarized in Table 3.13 below.

Table 3.13 The stance framework in the present study (adapted from Hyland, 2005)

Categories	Functions	Examples
Hedges	The reporter's (translator's/interpreter's) decision to withhold complete commitment to a proposition in a Translation/ Interpretation Practice Report	***Generally***, *almost all translation works* ***should*** *abide by functional equivalence.*
Boosters	The reporter (translator/interpreter) expresses the certainty about the veracity of the translation/interpretation practice task and marks the reliability of translation/interpretation process and his or her solidarity with the audience	*In order to translate biographical articles skillfully and properly, translators* ***must know*** *the features of such articles.*
Attitude-markers	The reporter's (translator's/interpreter's) attitude to issues involved in the Translation/Interpretation Practice Report	*This kind of translation mode is* ***easy*** *to operate, what is more* ***important***, *it provides* ***high*** *efficiency.*
Self-mention	The presence of the reporter (translator/interpreter) in Translation/Interpretation Practice Report through the use of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives	*The* ***translator*** *hopes that the thesis can become a guidance and reference for translator's further translation study.*

Also, the list of stance items compiled by Hyland (2005) was adopted after a modification by adding some stance items that particularly occur in the TPR and the

IPR (see Appendix K). Then, it was used to identify stance devices in the TPR and the IPR according to items listed in the four categories: hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention.

3.4.3 Annotation of Stance

The annotation of stance included three steps. First, on the basis of the adapted Hyland's (2005) stance framework and the modified list of stance items, the occurrences of stance in terms of the four categories in the six organizational units in the TPR and the IPR were identified, respectively. AntConc (Anthony, 2011), a free online concordance program, was used to identify stance items in this procedure. The selecting of AntConc was due to following reasons. Firstly, AntConc is a widely used program for corpus-based linguistic studies (e.g. Aull & Lancaster, 2014; Lancaster, 2016b). Secondly, it provides an easy operation to use tools, such as concordance and word list, to identify stance items. Lastly, it offers the linguistic context for the targeted items, which helps with examining and comparing the linguistic context that the targeted items are used in. Figure 3.8 provides a screenshot of concordance results for "*should*" located in the current study.

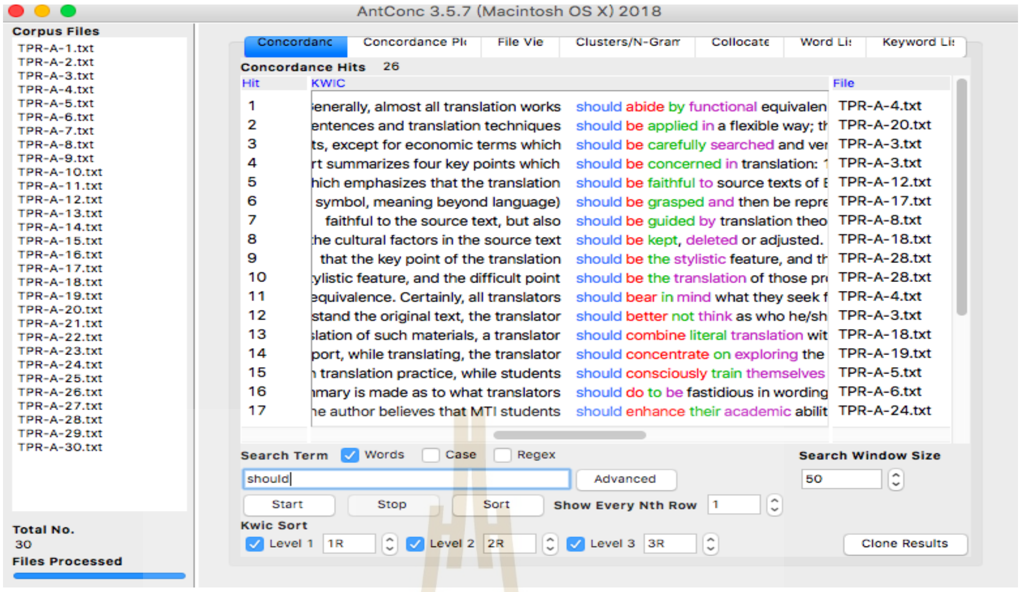


Figure 3.8 A screenshot of concordance results for "*should*" located in the current study using AntConc

Second, considering that the number of words in each corpus and sub-corpus was not equal, the occurrence of stance items was normalized after all targeted stance items were annotated by using AntConc. The normalization formula from Biber et al. (1998) was adapted to normalize the occurrence of stance items to the total number of words in each corpus and sub-corpus per 1,000 words. The formula is demonstrated in Figure 3.9 below:

$$\textit{Distribution of Use} = \frac{\textit{Number of instances in the subcorpus}}{\textit{Total number of words in the subcorpus}} \; X \;1{,}000$$

Figure 3.9 The normalization formula adapted from Biber et al. (1998) (as cited in Akinci, 2016, p. 36)

Last, an Excel document was created to record the frequency of stance items in four categories for the six organizational units in the two sets of corpora. All instances of stance items annotated were included in the Excel document for manual reliability check and further analysis.

3.4.4 The Annotation Reliability

During the procedure of identifying the targeted stance items according to the modified stance list proposed by Hyland's (2005) via the AntConc, it is possible that the identified words or phrases do not function as stance items. For example, the annotated word "can" in the sentence (*it is our duty to spread this traditional culture out, so that foreigners **can** understand it*) is a modal word to show persons' ability rather than a hedge. However, the annotated modal "can" in the sentence (*It is hoped that this report **can** inspire translators who work on the similar project and offer some referential value to the study of translation*) is a hedge to withdraw the reporter's complete commitment to a proposition. Therefore, in order to obtain the reliability of the concordance, each stance item identified was double-checked in the concordance line by the researcher to make sure whether the word or phrase searched really fulfilled its stated function in the context. If the item searched did not have that function, it would not be counted in the scope of analysis. Then, a Ph.D. candidate with the linguistic background was invited to conduct annotation reliability check with the researcher. Specifically, 6 TPR texts and 6 IPR texts (20% of the two sets of corpora) that were selected for the inter-rater reliability check for the move identification were annotated for stance devices and were in the context of concordance line by the researcher and the invited Ph.D. candidate independently to make sure whether the annotated item has the stance function as it is. The percentage agreement is 95.8% for 6 TPR texts and 96.5% for 6 IPR texts.

3.4.5 The Analysis Procedure

In order to realize the research objectives at the micro-level in the present study, both quantitative and qualitative analysis of stance in the two sets of the corpora were carried out. Two analysis phases were included to answer the research questions generated from the research objectives at this level.

In the first phase, to answer Research Question (3) i.e. what are the features of stance in the TPR and the IPR? The frequency and the distribution of stance markers, in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, in each organizational unit were quantitatively examined. It aimed to reveal the extent of the use of the four categories of stance in each organizational unit with different communicative purposes.

In the second phase, to address Research Question (4) i.e. how are stance features in the TPR similar to or different from those in the corpus? First, the frequency of stance markers, in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention was compared quantitively between the TPR and the IPR. Second, the functional variations of the four categories of stance in each organizational unit was compared between the TPR and the IPR, which aimed to explore the similarities and differences in stance making between the two subdisciplines. In order to utilize the functional analysis, the frequently used stance items in each category were examined in their linguistic contexts. That is, the prevalent stance markers in each organizational unit were demonstrated and compared between the TPR and the IPR via the function of the wordlist of AntConc (Anthony, 2011).

3.5 Interview

In the present study, a preliminary online survey (see Appendix A) had been conducted, which took 48 MTI students (1st to 3rd year) in the researcher's university to investigate on the writing of the MTI Practice Report, with an aim to find the exact problems that Chinese MTI students faced in the writing of the TPR and the IPR as the degree thesis. Except for the questionnaire, two preliminary face-to-face interviews, including one with two MTI supervisors (see Appendix B) and one with four MTI students (see Appendix C) in the same university, had also been carried out to obtain the information related to problems in the writing of the TPR and the IPR and the stance use from the practitioners in the domain of the MTI. Some of the findings in these preliminary investigations had been reported in 1.2.2 and 1.2.3 in Chapter One to support the rationale for the corpus-based move analysis and the stance investigation in the current study.

Additionally, a post interview was adopted to seek more information from the insiders to confirm and clarify the analysis results after the completion of the corpus-based move analysis and stance investigation. The post interview was conducted in the form of combining semi-structured interview with discourse-based interview. A semi-structured interview is one in which "the interviewer has a clear picture of the topics that need to be covered but is prepared to allow the interview to develop in unexpected directions where these open up important new areas" (Heigham & Croker, 2009, p. 186). It is the most commonly used type of interview to provide insights into people's learning experience, beliefs, and perceptions through obtaining the deeper information from the participants. However, the discourse-based interview, developed by Odell, Goswami, and Herrington (1983), is a type of inductive approach used to investigate writers' tacit genre knowledge, including their motivation for discourse structure and linguistic options. It refers to the detailed discussions about particular pieces of writing in which informants are asked to explain the writing features identified in the corpus, eliciting writers to use their specialist knowledge as discourse community members to explain their choices of particular forms, interpret their intentions, and evaluate rhetorical effectiveness (Hyland, 2000). It enables researchers to compare participant's stated belief of the writing convention with the actual rhetorical choice in the text (Olinger, 2014). That is, "by encouraging participants to account for textual details, the discourse-based interview assists researchers and participants to probe the rhetorical based of writing performances and judgements" (Lancaster, 2016b, p. 121).

As a useful productive approach, the discourse-based interview has been adopted by Hyland (2000) to explain the disciplinary variations of writers' particular linguistic option from the insider informants. It was also employed by Pramoolsook (2008), Nguyen (2014), Li (2014), and Lancaster (2016b) to explain and strengthen the results of genre analysis. Especially, Lancaster (2016b) combined the discourse-based interview with a systematic corpus-based text analysis to probe one student's awareness of stance in academic writing in philosophy, which demonstrated a good example of deepening the result of corpus-based text analysis via the discourse-based interview.

In the current study, therefore, the post interview is employed to obtain the confirmation and clarification from the insider informants for some particular results in discourse structures and stance features in the TPR and the IPR. For interview questions, some general questions were come up to seek the information on the understanding of components and linguistic options to reach the communicative purposes in each organizational unit of the TPR and the IPR. Also, some specific questions were formulated on the basis of the interesting features found in the corpus-based move analysis and stance investigation. That is, some particular analysis results in the two levels of study were turned into the discourse-based interview questions to prompt interviewees as discourse community members to state their opinions about the discoursal and linguistic options, which would finally strengthen the discussion of the research results from the perspective of the insider informants (see Appendix L and Appendix M). As for interviewees, two MTI supervisors who were the informants in the preliminary interview and four MTI students (two majoring in translation and the other two in interpretation) were selected to have the post interview. The interview was conducted after the analysis results in the corpus-based analysis and the corpus-based stance investigation were obtained. The interviews with the MTI supervisors and the MTI students were conducted separately. The language in the interview was Chinese in order to help interviewees to express what they think about correctly and clearly. The interviews were recorded and checked by the interviewees. They were summarized rather than being transcribed because only the information that would help confirm and clarify the analysis results were extracted to translate into English instead of doing content analysis of the whole interview.

3.6 Pilot Study

Since the pilot study, which took the Abstract unit as a trial, had been included in the researcher's proposal already and would be presented as one section in reporting and discussing the results of the corpus-based move analysis and the stance investigation in the main study, it was intentionally omitted in the researcher's final dissertation. As for the findings of the pilot study, please refer to 4.2 in Chapter 4 and 5.2 in Chapter 5, respectively.

3.7 Summary

In this chapter, to achieve the research objectives of the current study, a research framework was proposed to carry out the present study, which consisted of the corpus-based move analysis at the macro-level and the corpus-based stance investigation at the micro-level. In line with this research framework, a set of corpora with representativeness was firstly compiled through considering the appropriate definition of the research targets, the corpora size, and compilation strategies. Next, the methodological procedures of the corpus-based move analysis and the corpus-based stance investigation were delineated respectively, covering the crucial elements such as analysis frameworks, analysis reliability, analysis tools, analysis processes, and how a post interview as a triangulate method to collect data from the insiders to explain and clarify the analysis results achieved in these two levels. Last, a pilot study was conducted to examine whether the study would work as designed and to provide suggestions for the main study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE CORPUS-BASED MOVE ANALYSIS OF THE TPR AND THE IPR

This chapter provides the research results and discussion for the corpus-based move analysis of the discourse structures of the Translation Practice Report (TPR) and of the Interpretation Practice Report (IPR). It is expected to answer RQ1 and RQ2 in the current study. That is, (1) what are the discourse structures, in terms of moves and steps, of the TPR and the IPR, respectively? and (2) how is the discourse structure of the TPR similar to or different from that of the IPR?

Firstly, the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR are addressed by describing the functions of moves and steps identified in the TPR and the IPR, reporting their frequencies of occurrence and status, and demonstrating the features of each move and step. Secondly, the variations of the discourse structures between the TPR and the IPR are addressed by revealing the similarities and differences at the move level in terms of the frequency and status. Meanwhile, the information from the interview provides the inside informants' insights of some particular variations in the discourse structures between the TPR and the IPR.

Specifically, this chapter is organized in the sequence of the six organizational units in the TPR and the IPR after the macro-discourse structures are reported and discussed.

Three points are worth noting before starting this Chapter:

(1) with regard to the status of moves and steps, the cut off criterion adopted by Parkinson (2017) in doing a move analysis of the student laboratory report is applied throughout this study. That is, a move or a step that is present in 80% or more texts, in 50-79%, and in less than 50% is respectively regarded as an obligatory, a conventional, and an optional move or step;

(2) the mistakes in the examples in this unit are students' own, so they are presented as they are;

(3) concerning the length of the main body of the dissertation, the frequently used steps are provided with examples in this Chapter, while the examples for the rest of the steps are offered in Appendix N.

4.1 The Macro-discourse Structures

Table 4.1 shows the macro-discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR, consisting of six organizational units, which are *Abstract*, *Introduction*, *Task Description*, *Process Description*, *Case Analysis*, and *Conclusion.*

Table 4.1 The macro-discourse structures of the TPR and of the IPR

Organizational Units	TPR (N=30)			IPR (N=30)		
	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status
Abstract (A)	30	100	obl	30	100	obl
Introduction (I)	23	76.7	con	18	60	con
Task Description (TD)	16	53.3	con	24	80	obl
Process Description (PD)	27	90	obl	29	96.7	obl
Case Analysis (CA)	30	100	obl	30	100	obl
Conclusion (C)	30	100	obl	30	100	obl

Note: "opt" indicating optional status (percentage<50%); "con" indicating conventional status (percentage = 50-79%); "obl" indicating obligatory status (percentage ≥ 80%)

Abstract in the TPR and the IPR has a similar function to provide a concise and informative description about what a TPR/IPR contains. As "a faithful and accurate summary" (Bhatia, 1993, p. 82) of the contents in an academic work, *Abstract* is always considered as a key section in RAs, theses or dissertations, which guides people to have a preview of the coming texts (e.g. Hyland, 2000; Lores, 2004; Martin, 2003). Both the TPR and the IPR also employ *Abstract* to be the leading unit for the whole report. This is consistent with the results found by Parkinson (2017) that *Abstract* was adopted to summarize the students' lab reports. From Table 4.1, we can find that *Abstract* is an obligatory unit in both of the TPR and the IPR. This is possible because the organizational format of the TPR and the IPR strictly follows the conventions of an academic thesis in which an *Abstract* must be contained. Besides, the obligatory status of *Abstract* in both the TPR and the IPR can be accounted by the fact that there is a similar requirement for both the translation and interpretation students in writing an abstract as a leading section in their master theses.

Introduction unit in the TPR and the IPR is to introduce the background information of a translation/interpretation practice task, to provide the rationale for the task selection, to give an overview of the key elements in a task, and to demonstrate the significance of conducting a practice task. This unit has a similar function with the *Introduction* section in RAs, which provides an important ground for understanding "the process and product of specialized academic writing" (Swales & Najjar, 1987, p. 175). However, it is worth noting that it offers the pertinent information about a translation/interpretation practice task in a report rather than reports an empirical study in a research paper or a dissertation. As seen in Table 4.1, the *Introduction* unit is conventional in both of the TPR and the IPR. The reason accounting for this result is that 7 TPRs and 12 IPRs started from the unit of *Task Description* to which the introductory information was merged due to a lack of consistency in the manual of the TPR and the IPR.

The unit of *Task Description* aims to describe the nature, the quality, or the purpose of a translation/interpretation practice task. A detailed description of the key elements in a practice task is usually contained in this unit. This unit can be regarded as a genre-specific section in the TPR and the IPR because most of the academic genres such as

RAs, theses, or dissertations with the rhetorical structure of I-M-R-D do not have this unit. Neither do the professional genres such as letters (Bhatia, 1991; Flowerdew & Dudley-Evans, 2002; Henry & Roseberry, 2001), proposals (Connor & Mauranen, 1999; Connor, 2000; Flowerdew, 2016), and the reporting genres such as lab reports (Parkinson, 2017), business case reports (Nathan, 2013), or company audit report (Flowerdew & Wan, 2010). This unit is conventional in the TPR, but obligatory in the IPR. This variation is possibly caused by the different natures between a translation task and an interpretation task respectively in the two subdisciplines. This result is in line with the fact that different disciplines would lead to the variety of the rhetorical structures (Hyland, 2000; Ozturk, 2007; Samraj, 2002, 2005). To be specific in this case, the translation or the interpretation task falls into two categories: the "optional task" which is a task based on a student's own choice, and the "contract task" which is entrusted by a client or an authority. This point was confirmed by Supervisor A who stated in the interview that

> *"whether a student would provide a detailed description of a task as a stand-alone section is greatly decided by the nature of a task in the report. Generally, most tasks for the translation students are 'optional tasks' but 'contract tasks' for the interpretation students. Therefore, the interpretation students preferred more to describe the task as a sperate section with details to stress its market value than the translation students."*

The unit of *Process Description* has a function of describing the translation/ interpretation procedures, which usually includes the preparations before the task, the activities during the translation/interpretation, and the issues after the task. Although

Process Description has a genre-specific nature to show how a translation/ interpretation task in a report is conducted, this unit, to some extent, has a similar role with *Method* or *Methodology* in RAs, theses or dissertations that provides a connection between the section itself and other key sections to strengthen the credibility of findings through describing procedures and variables in a research (Lim, 2006; Bruce, 2008). The same obligatory status of this unit in both of the two subdisciplines can be explained by the reason that both the translation students and the interpretation students have a consistent awareness in reporting the translation/interpretation procedures in their reports.

The unit of *Case Analysis* aims to present the most typical, symbolic, or indicative translation/interpretation phenomena, including problems, strategies, methods, or other issues in a task via the way of doing case analysis. Genre-specific as it is, the unit of *Case Analysis* might be equal to the *Result(s)* section in RAs that reports and summarizes results in research (Yang & Allison, 2003; Brett, 1994; Bruce, 2009; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Williams, 1999). However, *Case Analysis* reports the important findings in a translation/interpretation practice task rather than in an empirical research. As the most important unit in a TPR and an IPR, the unit of *Case Analysis* is obligatory for both of the two subdisciplines.

The unit of *Conclusion* tends to summarize the whole report through reviewing the key elements, stating what achievements have been made, making an evaluation on the adopted strategies or theory, and offering the pedagogical implications and limitations of the practice task. To a certain degree, the function of this unit is similar to that of the *Conclusion* section in RAs (Yang & Allison, 2003) because they "provide not only an outline of study but also important elements, such as implications and recommendations" (Wannaruk & Amnuai, 2013, p. 54). As a closing section, the unit of *Conclusion* is obligatory in both of the two subdisciplines.

In a summary, the macro-discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR demonstrated an obvious genre-specific feature that consists of six organizational units, which is different from the conventional I-M-R-D-C rhetorical structures in RAs, theses or dissertations. The six genre-specific organizational units work together to reach the overall communicative purposes of the TPR and the IPR. However, the functions of each unit also showed a certain similarity to that of the conventional section in RAs, theses, or dissertations regarding their role in realizing the communicative purposes of a piece of academic writing. In addition, the frequency and the status of each unit represent its different degrees of importance in writing a practice report in the translation subdiscipline and the interpretation subdiscipline, respectively. In terms of the variations in the macro-discourse structures between the TPR and the IPR, more similarities than differences were revealed. For example, among the six organizational units, except for the unit of *Task Description* that is conventional for the TPR but obligatory for the IPR, the other five units showed the same status in both of the two subdisciplines. This result proves that the macro-discourse structures of genres produced in the same domain are constrained by the same community convention

(Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2008; Swales, 1990, 2004). However, the specific selection of writing strategies is influenced by the disciplinary conventions as well (Hyland, 2000; Ozturk, 2007; Samraj, 2002, 2005). This phenomenon can also be illustrated in the six organizational units in the following sections.

4.2 The Abstract Unit

4.2.1 The Discourse Structures of the TPR Abstracts and the IPR Abstracts

As Table 4.2 displays, the discourse structures of the TPR Abstracts and the IPR Abstracts consist of six moves and eleven steps. They are not the same as the rhetorical structures of the RAs Abstract in previous studies, such as the earlier Abstract structure of *Problem-Method-Results-Conclusions* proposed by Graetz (1985), the popular Abstract structures of I-M-R-D and of P-M-R-C respectively claimed by Swales (1990) and Bhatia (1993), the highly employed one (I-P-M-Pr-C) for Abstract analysis by Hyland (2000), and other rhetorical structures of Abstract (e.g. Hartley & Benjamin, 1998; Lores, 2004; Samraj, 2002; Stotesbury, 2003).

Table 4.2 The discourse structures of the TPR Abstracts and the IPR Abstracts

Move/Step	TPR-A (N=30)			IPR-A (N=30)		
	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status
M1: Making introduction	**12**	**40**	**opt**	**22**	**73.3**	**con**
M2: Presenting task	**29**	**96.7**	**obl**	**28**	**93.3**	**obl**
M2S1: Indicating type and feature(s)	7	23.3	opt	15	50	con
M2S2: Indicating background	14	46.7	opt	13	43.3	opt
M2S3: Indicating source	26	86.7	obl	22	73.3	con
M3: Providing rationale	**21**	**70**	**con**	**12**	**40**	**opt**
M3S1: Claiming importance	20	66.7	con	12	40	opt
M3S2: Indicating a gap	7	23.3	opt	2	6.7	opt
M4: Summarizing practice	**28**	**93.3**	**obl**	**28**	**93.3**	**obl**
M4S1: Indicating purpose	16	53.3	con	10	33.3	opt
M4S2: Indicating theory adopted	7	23.3	opt	3	10	opt
M4S3: Outlining practice report	21	70	con	25	83.3	obl
M4S4: Reflecting on practice	8	26.7	opt	8	26.7	opt
M5: Indicating report structure	**15**	**50**	**con**	**18**	**60**	**con**
M6: Drawing implications	**13**	**43.3**	**opt**	**18**	**60**	**con**
M6S1: Indicating the significance	5	16.7	opt	4	13.3	opt
M6S2: Offering pedagogical implications	11	36.7	opt	17	56.7	con

Note: (1) Bold ones with shade are moves. The moves in this model may not occur in a fixed sequence but may be in varied sequences; (2) "opt" indicating optional status (percentage <50%); "con" indicating conventional status (percentage = 50-79%); "obl" indicating obligatory status (percentage≥ 80%)

On the contrary, the discourse structures of the TPR Abstracts and the IPR Abstracts present the feature of a reporting genre, which serves the communicative purposes to summarize the main contents of a translation/interpretation practice report in a descriptive and informative way. This generic feature can be seen in each individual move and step that functions together to reach the communicative purposes of an Abstract in the TPR and in the IPR. To illustrate them clearly, the function, features, and some examples of move and step will be reported and discussed below.

Move 1: Making introduction

Move 1 intends to establish the context of a translation/interpretation practice task and to provide a general introduction to a TPR/IPR. This move has a similar function as *Introduction*, which is the initial move in Swales' (1990) and Hyland's (2000) Abstract frameworks. Besides, this move also plays a similar role as Move 1: *Situating the research* that "provides orientation to the reader" and "motivates the reader to examine the research to be reported" for RA Abstracts in Applied Linguistics (Santos,1996, p. 486). However, since the TPR and the IPR Abstracts are a kind of informative summary on the practice reports, Move 1 mainly aims to offer the social background of a practice task rather than the background for an empirical study. In this regard, this move is similar to the *Background* move (Hartley & Benjamin,1998; Weissberg & Buker,1990), which describes the background information of a research. Furthermore, considering that the TPR and the IPR are reporting genres which belong to the professional writing, Move 1 is also equivalent to that of the move *Territory* that is used to build the context of the research grant in a grant proposal (Connor and Mauranen, 1999). Examples of phrases signaling this move include "*with rapid globalization*", "*with the development of globalization*", or "*in the context of globalization*", which are used to function as the time adverbial to introduce the social context of a practice task in the report. Two examples illustrate the function of this move in the TPR and the IPR, respectively:

(1) *<u>In the context of globalization</u>, China adopts "going global" strategy. More and more excellent Chinese literature have been translated and introduced to international readers. (TPR-A-17)*

(2) *<u>Since Reform and Opening up</u>, international exchanges between China and other countries have increased. (IPR-A-28)*

Move 2: Presenting task

Move 2 aims to provide the basic information of a practice task in the TPR/IPR, including the type, the background, and the source. This move has a similar function to that of the move *Presenting the research* proposed for the Abstract section by Santos (1996). In addition, considering Move 2 is contained in the Abstract for a reporting genre, the function of this move is consistent with that of the move *Introducing topic* proposed by Parkinson (2017) to present the topic in the laboratory reports. Move 2 realizes its function mainly through three steps: *Indicating type and feature(s), Indicating background*, and *Indicating source*.

M2S1: Indicating type and feature(s)

This step mainly offers information about the type of translation/interpretation task in the TPR/IPR because there are multiple types of translation/interpretation. Taking translation for example, it includes literary translation and non-literary translation according to the type of source text. For interpretation, it contains escort interpretation, consecutive interpretation, and simultaneous interpretation according to the means of interpreting as well. Therefore, *M2S1* is generally signaled by noun phrases related to the text type such as "*vocative text*", "*contract texts*", or "*legal text*" in the TPR Abstracts and is featured by interpretation type such as "*escorting interpreting*", "*consecutive interpreting*" or "*press conference*" in the IPR Abstracts. The noun "*feature*" and verb phrase "*be featured by*" or "*be characterized by*" are frequently used to indicate the feature(s) of a translation/interpretation task in this step.

M2S2: Indicating background

This step aims to provide the background information of the practice task in the TPR/IPR, such as what kind of the practice task it is, when it is conducted, and what main contents the practice task contains, and so on. Hence, this step is featured by a general description of the basic information of the target task in the TPR/IPR. Specifically, the lexical signals such as "*the text*", "*the book*", "*the document*", "*the magazine*", and "*the source text*" often occurred to indicate what the target task is in a TPR. As for the IPR, the time adverbial such as "*in September 2014*" and "*on September 21, 2016*" are often employed to indicate the exact date of the interpretation practice. Besides, the syntactic structures such as "*(the interpreter/author) + be responsible for ---*", "*(the interpreter*/author) serves as *---*", and "*Entrusted by (an authority), ---(the interpreter/author) + be responsible for ---*" are used to introduce the background of the target task.

M2S3: Indicating source

M2S3 functions as a clear statement about where this practice task is from. This step demonstrates a genre-specific feature for the discourse structures of the TPR Abstracts and the IPR Abstracts because it is a requirement for students to state clearly the source of their practice tasks. Hence, the verbs "*select*", "*take*" and "*have*", the preposition "*on*", the preposition phrase "*on the basis of*", and the verb phrase "*be based on*" are frequently adopted to state the source of a translation/interpretation task in this step.

To demonstrate the function of *Move 2,* two excerpts of *M2S3: Indicating sources* are selected as examples:

(3) *This <u>is</u> a report <u>based on</u> the translating task: The Note to Reader, Introduction, and Chapter One of Better Than Before-Mastering the Habits of Our Everyday Lives. (TPR-A-10)*

(4) *This report <u>is based on</u> the interpreting tasks that the author has undertaken at seven conferences as a student in the two-year MTI program, among which four conferences were simultaneous interpreting and three conferences were consecutive interpreting. (IPR-A-21)*

Move 3: Providing rationale

Move 3 accounts the reasons for a practice task in the TPR/IPR by stressing the importance of a task or pointing out the limitations of the previous work. This move also serves as a motivation for the current practice by emphasizing the importance of a practice task in a specific field or by means of indicating the gap in the previous work. Although this move seldom appears in the informative abstract with I-M-R-D structure, it has a similar function with the move *Indicating a gap* that usually occurs in the indicative abstract (Lores, 2004). This move is found to realize its function by means of two steps: *Claiming importance* and *Indicating a gap.*

M3S1: Claiming importance

M3S1 aims to stress the importance of a practice task to make it to be much needed or urgent to be translated or interpreted. Hence, this step has a similarity with the function of the move *Importance claim* proposed in grant proposals by Connor and Mauranen (1999). This step is particularly featured by attributive adjectives with positive meaning such as "*significant*", "*important*", or "*valuable*", verb phrases such as "*play a crucial/a significant/an important role in*", "*be beneficial for*", or "*has gained/drawn attention*", and noun phrases like "*of great significance/importance/ popularity*", all of which aim to emphasize the importance of a practice task in the report.

M3S2: Indicating a gap

This step points out a gap or a problem in the translation/interpretation field. Thus, this step has a similar function with the move *Gap* in grant proposals (Connor & Mauranen, 1999), which indicates the drawbacks of the previous studies. Correspondingly, the lexical signals such as the negative word "*no*" and the quantifiers with negative meaning like "*less*" or "*few*", and the discourse marker like "*however*" are frequently used to state the limitation in previous work. Besides, the syntactic structures such as "--- *have not even drew much attention to* ---", "--- *pay less attention to* ---", "*no ---has/have been published*", and "*there is no* ---" are frequently used to create a gap.

To illustrate the function of *Move 3,* two excerpts of *M3S1: Claiming importance* are selected as examples below:

(5) *In the time of world globalization, the transmission of Chinese traditional culture has great significance. The translation of Chinese traditional culture is the bridge of interaction between China and foreign countries. (TPR-A-21)*
(6) *Therefore, business interpreting plays an increasingly important role in a successful international communication. (IPR-A-5)*

Move 4: Summarizing practice

The function of Move 4 is to summarize the process of the whole practice or the whole report, including the purpose of a report, the theory applied in the practice, the method adopted in the practice, results of the practice, and the reporter's reflections after the practice. This move plays an important role in accounting for how a practice is conducted and how a report is processed. It, to some extent, can be regarded as the *Method(s)* move that would occur in most Abstract frameworks (Hyland, 2000; Swales, 1990; Chen and Kuo, 2012). Also, this move can be equivalent to the Move *Describing the methodology* proposed by Santos (1996) for Abstracts in Applied Linguistic RAs. Move 4 is usually accomplished through the use of four steps below.

M4S1: Indicating purpose

M4S1 states the purpose of a practice task or a report. The function of this step is consistent with that of the move *Purpose* proposed for the Abstract structure by Bhatia (1993) and Hyland (2000) which outlines the objectives or goals of the research paper. This step is typically featured by the nouns "*aim*" or "*purpose*" and the verb phrases such as “*aim to*”, “*intend to*”, “*attempt to*” and “*be to*” to show the report’s overall objectives.

M4S2: Indicating theory applied

M4S2 states the theory applied to a translation/interpretation practice, which is specific in the TPR Abstracts and the IPR Abstracts. This step is signaled by the key lexical word “*theory*” and some professional translation/interpretation theoretical terms such as “*Functional Equivalence Theory*”, “*Skopos Theory*”, “*Relevance Theory*”, and “*Interpretative Theory*”. Also, the syntactic structures “*(theory) created/proposed/initiated/put forward/introduced by (theorist) is the theoretical guide of the report*” and “*(theory) proposed/initiated/put forward/introduced by (theorist) is adopted/used as theoretical framework to* ---” are found to state the theory.

M4S3: Outlining practice report

This step aims to provide an overview of a report through describing what kind of task it is, what theory is adopted, what activities are conducted in a practice task, and what results are achieved in a report by using a series of verbs such as “*take*”, “*analyze*”, “*summarize*”, “*solve*”, or “*complete*” in a long and complex sentence or in a short paragraph with several parallel simple sentences. Thus, the typical syntactic structures such as “*the/this report takes (target task) as an example, analyzes ---, summarizes--- from the perspective of (theory)*” and “*according to/under the guidance of (theory), this report/ the author analyzes---, solves---, and summarizes---*” are often used to reach the communicative purpose of this step.

M4S4: Reflecting on practice

M4S4 offers the student's comments and reflections on the practice and his/her suggestions for future translation/interpretation learning and practice in a report. This step shows a genre-specific feature that a summary of "*loses and gains*" in a practice activity would possibly occur in the Abstract of the TPR and the IPR. This step is featured by nouns such as "*knowledge*" or "*experience*" and cognitive verbs like "*believe*", "*think*" or "*know*" to show what a student has gained from a practice task. Especially, the hedge "*should*" is frequently used to express the students' recommendations and suggestions for future translation/interpretation practice.

Two examples of *M4S3: Outlining practice report* are selected to demonstrate the function of *Move 4* below:

(7) *This report takes the E-C translation of a company's B2 Series Preferred Share Purchase Agreement as an example, analyzes the characteristics of English contracts, especially from lexical and syntactic perspectives, and summarizes corresponding methods and skills for the translation of words and sentences in English contracts based on specific examples from the perspectives of intratextual coherence and intertextual coherence put forward in skopos theory. (TPR-A-1)*

(8) *According to the principles of the Skopos theory, especially the Skopos principle as well as flexible application of those principle, the author analyzes on the coping skills used in the task with case studies, including inquiry, imitation, summary, omitting and adding. With those skills, the author effectively solved problems in the process, and successfully completed the task. (IPR-A-1)*

Move 5: Indicating report structure

Move 5 shows the overall organization of a practice report. It specifies how a report is organized and what the main contents are in each section. This move is a typical one in the Abstract unit of the TPR and the IPR because it never appears in the

Abstract framework of other disciplines (e.g. Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2000; Swales, 1990). In order to illustrate the report structure in this move, the words or phrases that indicate the sequential and logical order are often adopted, such as "*the first chapter, the second chapter, ---*" and "*the first part, the second part, ---*". Also, the syntactic structures such as "*the report consists of (number) chapters*" and *"this report comprises (number) parts/sections"* are always employed to signal the total numbers of sections in a TPR/IPR. The two excerpts below are provided to illustrate the function of this move.

(9) *The report consists of four chapters. The first chapter mainly introduces the source material; the second chapter is targeted at the translation procedure description. The third chapter analyses the translation skills and functional equivalence theory which is applied in the process of translation. The fourth chapter is the conclusion of this report, and comes up with new requirements for the translators. (TPR-A-16)*

(10) *This report comprises four parts: task description, task process, case analysis and conclusion. The first part mainly introduces the background of the task; the second part mainly focuses on the pre-interpretation preparation and the task process; the third part, through case study, mainly analyses the major problems in note-taking during the interpreting practice and put forward corresponding solutions to these problems; the last part concludes the main principles and strategies for note-taking in consecutive interpretation. (IPR-A-6)*

Move 6: Drawing implications

Move 6 usually ends an abstract by claiming the significance of a practice report or by offering the pedagogical implications for future learning and practicing in the MTI field. This move can be realized by two steps: *Indicating the significance* and *Offering pedagogical implications.*

M6S1: Indicating the significance

M6S1 intends to emphasize the value or benefit that a TPR/IPR can bring by employing attributive adjectives that contain the positive meaning, such as "*new*", or "*effective*" and verb phrases "*attach importance*" or "*give insight into*".

M6S2: Offering pedagogical implications

M6S2 aims to indicate the pedagogical benefits which a TPR/IPR can bring to the translation/interpretation teaching and learning. This step is typically signaled by the noun phrases such as "*the study of translation/interpretation*" or "*translation/ interpretation learners*" and the structural pattern "*it is hoped that---*".

To demonstrate the function of Move 6, two excerpts of *M6S2: Offering pedagogical implications* are selected as examples below:

(11) *It is hoped that this report can inspire translators who work on the similar project and offer some referential value the study of translation. (TPR-A-17)*

(12) *It is hoped that the analysis and conclusion in this paper can improve the efficiency of the author's self-training as well as exert implications for other interpretation learners. (IPR-A-4)*

4.2.2 Variations of the Discourse Structures between the TPR Abstracts and the IPR Abstracts

This section presents the variations of the discourse structures of the Abstract unit between the two subdisciplines. That is, the similarities and the differences of the discourse structures between the TPR Abstracts and the IPR Abstracts are reported and discussed in terms of the frequency and status at the move level. Specifically, the same move that has the same status in both of the corpora is regarded as the similarity of the discourse structures, while the same move that does not have the same status in both of the corpora is considered as the difference of the discourse structures. This criterion will be adopted throughout the six organizational units in the current study.

As Figure 4.1 shows, the most distinctive similarity is in Move 4, which occupied the same frequency of occurrence (93.3%) in both the two sets of Abstract corpora and made it an obligatory move in both the two subdisciplines. The reason for this similarity is the necessity for students in both of the two subdisciplines to present the summary of the translation/interpretation practice in order to help examiners obtain what they have conducted in the abstract.

One more obvious similarity is related to Move 2. The similar high frequency of the occurrence of this move (96.7% in the TPR-A and 93.3% the IPR-A, respectively) made it obligatory in both of the sub-corpora as well. It suggests that the description of the task is an indispensable element in writing the Abstracts in both of the two subdisciplines.

The last similarity exists in Move 5. The similar frequency of this move (50% in the TPR-A and 60% in the IPR-A, respectively) made it conventional in both of the two subdisciplines. The possible reason accounting for this result is that most of the translation students and interpretation students in the two subdisciplines have a similar understanding of the writing convention that the organization pattern of the report can be included in the Abstract unit. This is congruent with the idea that members in the same community are consciously or unconsciously influenced by the writing conventions in the selection of the discourse structures and writing strategies (Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2008; Swales, 1990, 2004).

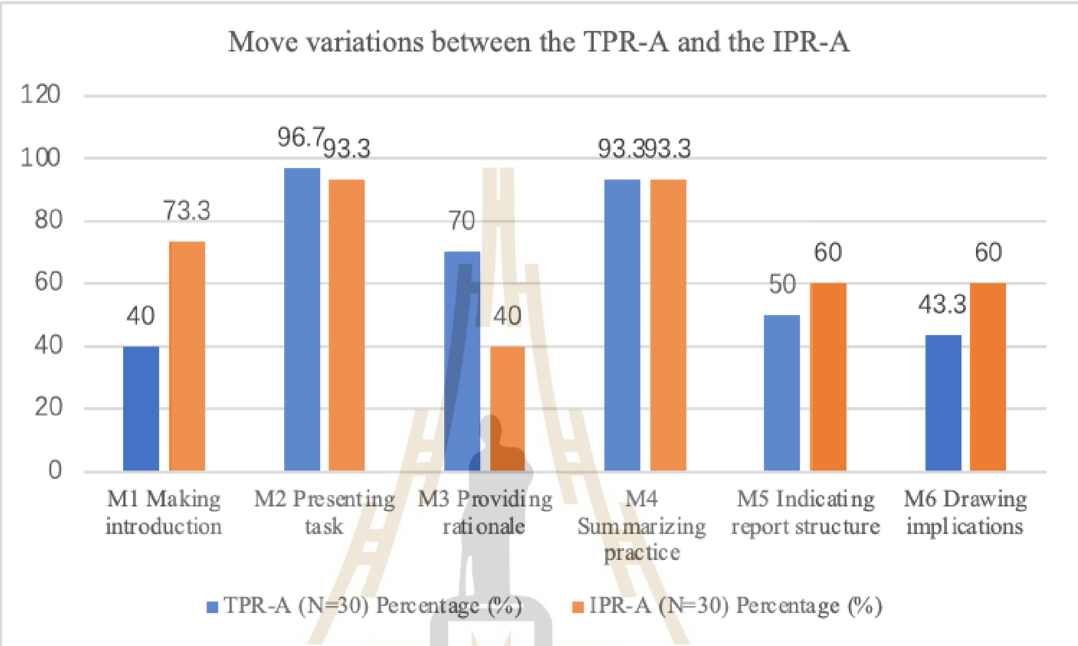


Figure 4.1 Variations of moves between the TPR Abstract and the IPR Abstract

However, some distinctive differences were found between the two corpora as well. The most significant difference between the TPR-A and the IPR-A lies in Move 1. Move 1 occurred 40% in TPR-A but 73.3% in IPR-A, respectively. This difference is possibly caused by the disciplinary variations that the varieties of rhetorical structure and writing strategies exist among different disciplines (Hyland, 2000; Ozturk, 2007; Samraj, 2002, 2005). In this case, given that the TPR and the IPR are reports written by students in the two subdisciplines in the MTI field, the composition of the Abstracts may be influenced by the different features of translation and interpretation activities. This point was supported by Supervisor B in the interview who stated that

> *"Compared with translation activity, interpretation activity shows an obvious market-orientated feature that the interpretation serves and depends more on the market. Therefore, more interpretation students tend to introduce the social context of their interpretation tasks in order to draw attention from the readers and examiners for the market value of the current interpretation practice tasks".*

Another striking difference between the TPR-A and the IPR-A exists in Move 3. This move more frequently occurred in the TPR-A (70%) than in the IPR-A (40%), which led to the different status in the two subdisciplines. This finding indicates that the translation students prefer to offer the reasons for the selection of their current practice tasks in the reports more than their interpreter counterparts when they are writing abstracts. This point was confirmed in the interview by Supervisor A who said that

> *"it is usually necessary for a translation student to explain why he or she decides to select a text as a practice task because many optional texts are available. However, it is not absolutely necessary for an interpretation student to do that because comparatively fewer interpretation opportunities are available for him or her".*

The last obvious difference is related to Move 6. This move is optional in the TPR-A (43.3%) while conventional in the IPR-A (60%). This difference is caused by the fact that the interpretation practice can offer more apparent implication for the same type of tasks than the translation practice does. This point is explained by one interpretation student (S3) in the interview who said that

"I think that other interpretation students will encounter the same type of interpreting tasks, such as escort interpretation or conference interpretation, so I will mention the pedagogical suggestions in my abstract. In doing so, the value of my practice can easily be recognized by readers and examiners when they read my abstract."

The next section will report the discourse structures of the TPR Introductions and the IPR Introductions and the variations of this unit between the two subdisciplines.

4.3 The Introduction Unit

4.3.1 The Discourse Structures of the TPR Introductions and the IPR Introductions

As Table 4.3 shows, the discourse structures of the Introduction unit in the TPR and the IPR contain six moves and fifteen steps. Obviously, they are different from the well-established CARS model (Swales, 1981, 1990, 2004), the modified ones (Samraj, 2002; Bunton, 2002) and other frameworks for Introduction sections, such as Chen & Kuo's (2012) framework for the Introduction chapter of M.A. theses in Applied Linguistics. The moves and steps will be described and discussed below.

Table 4.3 The discourse structures of the TPR Introductions and the IPR Introductions

Move/Step	TPR-I (N=23)			IPR-I (N=18)		
	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status
M1: Introducing context	**16**	**69.6**	**con**	**11**	**61.1**	**con**
M2: Introducing rationale	**20**	**87**	**obl**	**15**	**83.3**	**obl**
M2S1: Referring to literature	2	8.7	opt	0	0	opt
M2S2: Introducing a gap	11	47.8	opt	2	11.1	opt
M2S3: Giving reason(s) for a task	6	26.1	opt	4	22.2	opt
M2S4: Claiming importance	15	65.2	con	13	72.2	con
M3: Introducing task	**22**	**95.6**	**obl**	**18**	**100**	**obl**
M3S1: Introducing task type and feature(s)	10	43.5	opt	6	33.3	opt
M3S2: Introducing task background	10	43.5	opt	8	44.4	opt
M3S3: Introducing task source	15	65.2	con	9	50	con
M3S4: Introducing task contents	10	43.5	opt	6	33.3	opt
M4: Demonstrating significance	**14**	**60.1**	**con**	**8**	**44.4**	**opt**
M4S1: Demonstrating significance in the real world	9	39.1	opt	4	22.2	opt
M4S2: Demonstrating significance in the field	10	43.5	opt	5	27.8	opt
M5: Giving an overview of the practice	**17**	**73.9**	**con**	**16**	**88.9**	**obl**
M5S1: Introducing purposes	13	56.5	**con**	14	72.2	con
M5S2: Introducing theory and method	4	17.4	opt	7	38.9	opt
M5S3: Introducing overall practice process	5	21.7	opt	7	38.9	opt
M5S4: Presenting reflection	4	17.4	opt	9	50	con
M5S5: Providing pedagogical implications	4	17.4	opt	4	22.2	opt
M6: Introducing report structure	**13**	**56.5**	**con**	**11**	**61.1**	**con**

Note: (1) Bold ones with shade are moves. The moves in this model may not occur in a fixed sequence but may be in varied sequences; (2) "opt" indicating optional status (percentage <50%); "con" indicating conventional status (percentage = 50-79%); "obl" indicating obligatory status (percentage≥ 80%)

Move 1: Introducing context

Move 1 provides the context and the background of a translation/ interpretation practice task in a report. It typically offers the macro-context by means of introducing the social background of a practice task or provides the micro-context by means of describing the general background of a practice task in the report. On the one hand, this move shows a certain similarity with the move of *Establishing a territory* in the CARS model (Swales, 1990) in which the general background information is introduced in order to make a topic generalizable. On the other hand, this move is equivalent to the move of *Background* identified for the Introduction in Engineering design reports (Poltavtchenko, 2013). With an aim to introduce the context of a practice task, Move 1 is typically signaled by time adverbials such as nouns "*nowadays*" and "*now*", or the preposition phrases "*with the development of*", "*in the context of*", or "*in modern times*" to indicate the macro-context of a practice task in the report. Similarly, the micro-context of a task is usually introduced by using nouns or noun phrases such as "*globalization*" and "*international trend*", or other expressions that indicate the general background of a practice task. The use of this move is illustrated in the two examples below.

(13) *Since China's entry into WTO, great changes have taken place in the past decade, which has drawn much attention of the world. With the rapid development of economic globalization, the cultural exchanges among different countries become more and more frequent. The global development of economy, culture, education and science and technology among different countries ---. (TPR-I-20)*

(14) *With the development of economic globalization, Traditional Chinese Medicine (TCM) enterprises and universities in China are now going out and conducting more frequent exchanges and cooperation with the outside world. (IPR-I-16)*

Move 2: Introducing rationale

Move 2 aims to indicate the reason(s) for conducting the current translation/ interpretation practice task through pointing out the limitations or drawbacks of the previous works or through referring to the literature to identify a gap in the field. This move has a similar function to the step of *Presenting positive justification*, which is in the move of *Establishing a niche* identified by Samraj (2002) for the Introductions in Wildlife Behavior and Conservation Biology. Since the TPR and the IPR are reporting genre, Move 2 is highly similar to the move of *Need for Project* that states the necessity of the current task by indicating the limitations of the previous ones (Poltavtchenko, 2013). To accomplish this function, four steps are typically employed, which are *Referring to literature*, *Introducing a gap*, *Giving reason(s) for a task*, and *Claiming importance*.

M2S1: Referring to literature

M2S1 plays a role in reviewing the literature related to the current practice task in a report. This step has the similar communicative purposes with the step of *Reviewing items of previous research* in Swales' (1990) CARS model and the revised ones (Chen & Kuo, 2012; Bunton, 2002). However, it is slightly different from the step of *Reviewing items of previous research* in that the former centers more on similar tasks in the translation/interpretation field while the latter focuses particularly on the previous empirical studies related to the topic. Hence, *M2S1* is more similar to the step of *Referring to literature* in the Introduction section of laboratory report (Parkinson, 2017). This step was less used to realize Move 2 in the TPR/IPR Introduction and it is signaled by the syntactic structure "*Over the past (time phase), some/several/numerous + translators/theorists + conducted/made/worked* ---" that refers to the related literature.

M2S2: Introducing a gap

M2S2 has the functions of indicting a gap by pointing out the limitations or drawbacks of the previous translation/interpretation task in the report. To great extent, it has a similar role to the step of *Indicating a gap* in the move of *Establishing a niche* in the CARS model (Swales, 1990) and other modified ones (Bunton, 2002; Samraj, 2002). This move is typically featured by the discourse markers that indicate a contradictory information to what has been stated before such as "*however*" and "*but*", and it is also signaled by employing the syntactic structures such as "*there is/are not/no/few*", "*be (not) enough/be insufficient*", and "*be far from satisfactory*".

M2S3: Giving reasons for a task

M2S3 directly states the reasons why a translation/interpretation task is selected for the practice in a report. The nouns such as "*reason*", verbs like "*choose*", and subordinating conjunctions such as "*because*" and "*why*" are frequently used in the structural patterns such as "*the author/translator + chooses/selects + (target task) + because* ---" and "*the reason why the author/translator + chooses/selects + (target task) + is* ---" to reach the function of this step, especially for the translation students whose tasks are mainly "optional tasks".

M2S4: Claiming importance

M2S4 has a function to indicate the importance of a translation practice task by claiming the significance of the source text or by referring to the valuable role of an interpretation task type in the report. This step shows a certain similarity in its communicative purposes with the step of *Claiming centrality* in Swales' (1990) CARS model and other models for Introduction sections (Bunton, 2002; Chen & Kuo, 2012; Samraj, 2002). However, to a great extent, it is much like the step of *Claiming importance* for the move of *Establishing topic* in Engineering laboratory report Introductions (Parkinson, 2017). This step is signaled by using the attributive adjectives with a positive meaning such as "*important*" and "*significant*".

To demonstrate the function of *Move 2*, two excerpts of *M2S4: Claiming importance* are selected as examples below:

(15) *Literary translation has been an <u>essential</u> step for China for being global. As an <u>important</u> genre of literature, prose loads beauties of various kinds. Translation of prose <u>is of great significance</u> because ---. (TPR-I-17)*

(16) *Press conference is an <u>important</u> branch of conference interpreting, whose intepreting quality will lead a direct <u>influence</u> to the whole effect and even to the political image of a country. (IPR-I-14)*

Move 3: Introducing task

Move 3 can be regarded as a genre-specific move in the TPR Introductions and the IPR Introductions. It offers the pertinent information of a task, such as what the type and feature of a task are, what a task is about, what the task source is, and what the main contents in a task are. This move is the key in the Introduction unit in the TPR and in the IPR, which specifically realizes its functions with four steps, which are *Introducing task type and feature(s)*, *Introducing task background*, *Introducing task source*, and *Introducing task contents*.

M3S1: Introducing task type and feature(s)

M3S1 has the function to introduce the type of a translation text or an interpretation task, state the features and characteristics of a task, or describe the requirements for it. Therefore, this step is typically signaled with nouns such as "*feature*" and "*characteristics*" or verbs such as "*demand*" or "*require*".

M3S2: Introducing task background

M3S2 is to provide the background information about a task in a report, such as a brief introduction of the client or the authority of a task if the task is an "contract one" or a short description of a translation source text or a selected interpretation activity if the task is an "optional one". This step is featured by the lexical items such as "*this project/book/novel/text*" or it is signaled by the syntactic structure "*The entrusting party of this project/task is ---*" which starts the introduction of the background for a "contract task".

M3S3: Introducing task source

M3S3 is to introduce the source of the translation text or the client of an interpretation task. To a certain degree, the validity of a translation/interpretation practice can be guaranteed by clearly stating the source of a task. This step is often characterized by the verb phrases such as "*be based on*", "*be on*" or "*be selected from*". However, *M3S3* in Introductions of the TPR and the IPR would provide detailed information about the task source.

M3S4: Introducing task contents

M3S4 introduces the main contents contained in a task, such as the scope of a translation task or the range of an interpretation task. It is featured by introducing how many text materials are included in a translation task or how long an interpretation lasts. Thus, the syntactic structures such as "*the author/the translator was responsible for + (number of words/number of chapters)*", "*this task comprised + (number of activities)*" and "*this conference lasted + (time phase)*" are often employed in this step.

To illustrate the function of *Move 3,* two excerpts of *M3S3: Introducing task source* are selected as examples below:

(17) *This report <u>is based on</u> the translating practice of the second chapter ---, written by Professor Yang Guocai and published in December 2011 by China Social Sciences Press. (TPR-I-30)*

(18) *<u>Based on</u> the interpreting service for this camp' s visit to four scenery spots in Changsha, ---. The materials analyzed in this report <u>are selected from</u> the recordings of the author's tourism interpreting for 2014 "Chinese Bridge" Summer Camp's sightseeing in four scenic spots, ---. (IPR-I-4)*

Move 4: Demonstrating the significance

Move 4 is to demonstrate the expected outcomes of a translation/ interpretation practice task in a report in terms of its value and significance for the real world and the field. The function of this move is somewhat similar to the step of *Significance/Justification* in the move of *Announcing the present research* in the modified CARS model for Ph.D. Introduction (Bunton, 2002). Therefore, this move is similar to the step of *Claiming importance* in the Move of *Introducing rationale* for the TPR and the IPR Introductions, which was described before. However, it is worth noting that they are different in that the step of *Claiming importance* aims to stress the need for a task before a task is conducted in order to justify the rationale, while the move of *Demonstrate significance* focuses on the meaningful results that a task is hoped to achieve after the task is completed. Given that, this move is more similar to the move of *Benefits* for grant proposals (Connor & Mauranen, 1999). To realize the function of this move, two typical steps are usually employed, which are *Demonstrating significance in the real world* and *Demonstrating significance in the field*.

M4S1: Demonstrating significance in the real world

M4S1 has a function to point out what benefits a translation/interpretation task would bring to the real world. Specifically, the significance of conducting a practice task is usually displayed by introducing the practical value of it in the real world via nouns such as "*significance*", "*value*", or "*benefit*". To reach the function of this step, the syntactic structures such as "*it is meaningful/beneficial to*", "*it plays an important/significant role in* ---", and "*it makes contribution to* ---" are often employed.

M4S2: Demonstrating significance in the field

This step aims to indicate what value a practice task in a report brings to the translation/interpretation field. To be specific, the significance of a task is demonstrated by stating the pedagogical benefits in the field by pinpointing its contribution to the translation/interpretation learning and teaching. Thus, the syntactic structures such as "*the/this task/report + be + significant for/of significance for/*" and "*the/this task/report + can + provide references for /enrich/enlighten*" are often used in this step.

To demonstrate the function of Move 4, two excerpts of the use of *M4S2: Demonstrating significance in the field* are selected as the examples below:

(19) *The* translation *project* <u>*is significant for the translation study*</u>*. It can* <u>*enrich translation researches*</u> *and* <u>*provide references for the future translation*</u> *of the vocative text. (TPR-I-15)*

(20) *The author also hopes that through the problems and methods considered in this report could* enlighten <u>*MTI students*</u> *in some way. (IPR-I-9)*

Move 5: Giving an overview of the practice

This move introduces how a task is completed by indicating the purposes, theories, problems, or techniques for the task in a report. Compared with the CARS model for the Introduction section (Swales, 1990), this move is somewhat similar to the move of *Occupying the niche* that outlines the research purposes or announces the present research. Concerning that the TPR and the IPR are reports, however, this move has more similarities in its function with the move of *Introducing experiment* that also aims to introduce the overall purposes and procedures of an experiment in a report (Parkinson, 2017). This move is usually accomplished through the use of five steps, which are illustrated below.

M5S1: Introducing purposes

M5S1 is a statement of the purposes, aims, or general objectives of the TPR/IPR. To a certain degree, this step has a similar function with the step of *Outlining purposes* in the CARS model for RAs Introduction section (Swales, 1990). However, unlike the step of *Outlining purposes,* this step aims to introduce at a general level what a TPR/IPR intends to do. In this regard, it is much like the move of *Goal* in grant proposals (Connor & Mauranen, 1999). Besides, it is similar to the step of *Stating purpose* in the move of *Introducing experiment* in the Introduction of Engineering laboratory report (Parkinson, 2017). To accomplish the function of this step, the nouns such as “*purposes*”, “*aims*” and “*objectives*” are frequently employed to state the expected goal of the report, and verb phrases like “*intend to*”, “*aim to*” and “*attempt to*” are frequently adopted as the predicate to indicate the purpose of the report.

M5S2: Introducing theory and method

M5S2 generally introduces what kind of theory is adopted in a translation/ interpretation practice task and how the principles of the theory are transferred into the corresponding methods or strategies to be applied to the translation/interpretation task. This step is presented either with a short statement of the selected theory or with a long description of the adopted theory. Thus, the key signal word “*theory*” often occurred in this step. Also, the syntactic structures such as “*the report* + *is* + *under the guidance of* + *(theory)*” and “*this report* + *takes/adopts* + *(theory)* + *to* ---” are often used to realize the function of this step.

M5S3: Introducing overall practice process

This step generally introduces the general procedures in conducting the translation/interpretation task in a TPR/IPR. It is a genre-specific step because it aims to illustrate the processes carried out in a practice task. Hence, no similar move or step in the CARS model can be found. However, it has a similar function with the step of *Describing procedures* in the Introduction of the laboratory report that describes the detailed procedures of an experiment (Parkinson, 2017). This step is often signaled by the syntactic structures such as "*the author/translator/interpreter + used/selected/adopted + (theory) + to analyze ---, to summarize ---*" and "*the report + examines/analyzes + (the target task) + from the perspectives of ---*".

M5S4: Presenting reflection

M5S4 aims to report what kind of experience a translation/interpretation student has obtained in a practice task. Although it describes the gains or achievements through a reporter's subjective reflection, the function of this step is similar to the step of *Announcing principle findings* in the CARS model (Swales, 1990). This step is typically characterized by cognitive verbs such as "*realize*" and "*learn*", cognitive verb phrases "*be aware of*" and "*draw a lesson*", and modals "*should*" and "*must*" to describe what reflection is obtained.

M5S5: Providing pedagogical implications

M5S5 aims to display a reporter's expectation of what implication can a task bring, especially for the domain of translation/interpretation learning and instruction. In this step, the verbs such as "*hope*" and "*expect*" are often used to indicate the reporter's expectation. Also, the verb phrases such as "*offer a reference*" and "*provide a reference*" is used to refer to the pedagogical values. Besides, noun phrases such as "*MTI learning*" and "*translation/interpretation learning*" are adopted to indicate the scope of the pedagogical implication.

To demonstrate the function of *Move 5,* two excerpts of *M5S1: Introducing purposes* are selected as examples below:

(21) *Under the guidance of functional equivalence theory, this report analyzed and summarized the translation strategies of academic work based on the study of the first two chapters of this book. (TPR-I-15)*

(22) *This report aims to solve the seven problems that occurred in the simulating interpretation process and come up with relevant coping tactics under the guidance of the Interpretive Theory. (IPR-I-14)*

Move 6: Introducing report structure

The function of Move 6 is to inform the examiners of how a TPR/IPR is organized and to provide a rough guide for readers on what to expect in reading it. Although it is a generic move in the TPR/IPR, it is greatly similar to the step of *Indicating RA structure* in the CARS model (Swales, 1990). This move is usually located at the end of the Introduction unit which is signaled by the syntactic structures such as "*this report + is divided into/consists of/contains/holds + (number of sections)*" and the expressions that indicate the chronological order of each section such as "*Chapter 1, Chapter 2, ---*". Two examples are provided to illustrate the use of this move below.

(23) *1.3 Structure of the Study*
This paper is divided into five parts. Chapter 1 introduces ---. Chapter 2 gives ---. Chapter 3 presents ---. Chapter 4 focuses on ---. The last chapter is ---. (TPR-I-19)

(24) *1.5 Report structure*
In Chapter I, the report will emphasize ---.
In Chapter II, the report will focus on ---.
In Chapter III, the report will focus on ---.
In Chapter IV, the report will focus on ---. (IPR-I-2)

4.3.2 Variations of the Discourse Structures between the TPR Introductions and the IPR Introductions

As Figure 4.2 presents, the most obvious similarity is in Move 3. The similar high frequency of occurrence (100% and 95.6% in the TPR-I and the IPR-I, respectively) made Move 3 obligatory for both of the two subdisciplines. This is evidently caused by the undeniable importance of the task information in a translation/interpretation practice report.

Besides, an interesting similarity can be found in Move 1. Both the majority of translation students and the interpretation students prefer to open the Introduction unit with Move 1 by providing a "common ground" for the report. Move 1, therefore, is conventional in the Introduction unit for both of the two subdisciplines, comprising a similar frequency of occurrence (69.6% and 61.1% in the TPR-I and the IPR-I, respectively). This similarity can be greatly explained by the Chinese students' writing habit that is possibly generated from a similar cognitive thinking mode in the same cultural background. It is in line with the fact that writers' academic habits are influenced by cultural settings (Hinkel, 2002; Uysal, 2012). This explanation was further confirmed by both of the translation and the interpretation students in the interview. One translation student (S1) said that

> *"providing a context at the beginning of the writing by using the typical structure such as 'with the development of' was greatly attributed to the writing habits that were formed in our early writing instructions."*

Moreover, constrained by the convention that the writing strategies in the same community would have the same characteristics (Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2008; Swales, 1990, 2004), one more similarity in Move 2 can be spotted. Move 2 is obligatory in the Introduction unit for both the two subdisciplines, accounting for 87% and 83.3% in the TPR-I and the IPR-I, respectively. As aforementioned, both the translation students and the interpretation students are usually required to state the reasons for their choice of a task for a translation/interpretation practice, especially for students who have the “optional task”.

In the same vein, the last similarity in Move 6, which had a same conventional status in both the TPR Introductions (56.5%) and the IPR Introductions (61.1%), can be accounted by the reason that either the translation students or the interpretation students are influenced by the similar writing guide in reporting the organizational structure in the TPR and the IPR because both of them are in the MTI community.

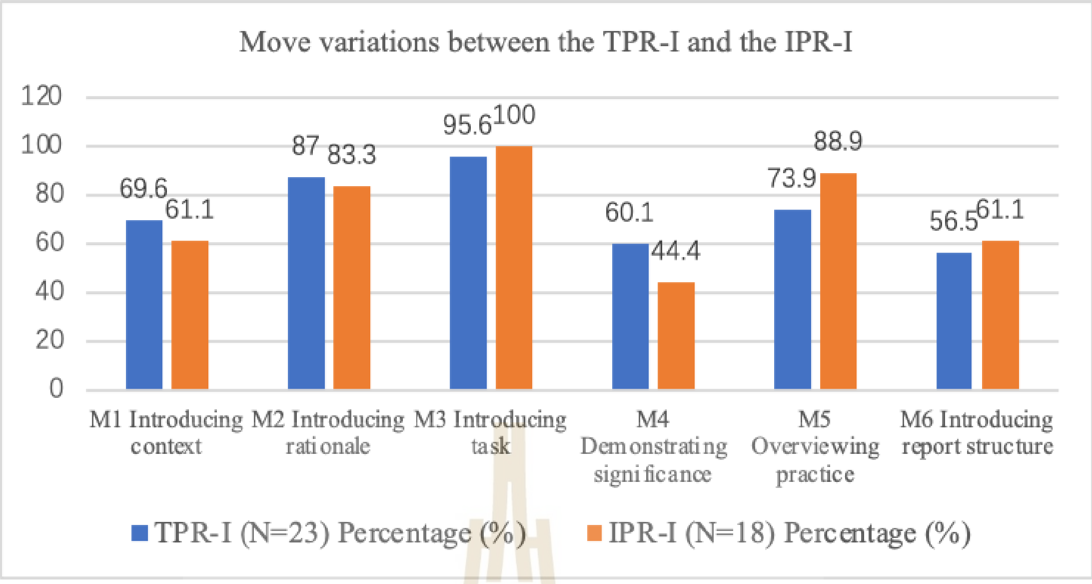


Figure 4.2 Variations of moves between the TPR Introductions and the IPR Introductions

However, two discrepancies in the Introduction unit can also be identified between the two subdisciplines although they are not so significant. One obvious discrepancy is demonstrated in Move 4 that shows a different status in the two subdisciplines. It is conventional in the TPR Introductions (comprising 60.1%) but optional in the IPR Introductions (comprising 44.4%). The higher frequency of Move 4 in the TPR Introductions than that in the IPR Introductions can be accounted for by the different natures of a translation task and an interpretation task. A translation task is a type of writing activity that attempts to produce a valuable piece in the written form. It targets the popularity of readership and can last for a long time. However, an interpretation task is a kind of oral activity that aims to deliver the information to a specific group of the audience quickly and accurately, which usually lasts within a short period of time. Therefore, the significance of a translation task in the TPR Introductions undoubtfully is more stressed than that of an interpretation task in the IPR Introductions. This point is echoed by one translation student (S2) in the interview who said that

> *"because a translation product will possibly be kept for a long time in a paper form and will be read by many people, the significance of a translation task is usually stated in the report.*

Another distinctive difference can be found in Move 5. It is conventional in the TPR Introductions, accounting for 73.9%, while it is obligatory in the IPR Introductions, accounting for 88.9%. This difference can also be caused by the different natures of the task between the TPR and the IPR. Compared with a translation task, an interpretation task is usually completed within a short period of time. Hence, it is easier for the interpretation students to have an overview of a task practice in the Introduction unit.

The next section will report and discuss the discourse structures and the variations between the two subdiscipline in the unit of Task Description.

4.4 The Task Description Unit

4.4.1 The Discourse Structures of the TPR Task Descriptions and the IPR Task Descriptions

As Table 4.4 shows, five moves and nineteen steps were identified in the TPR-TD and the IPR-TD. The overall discourse structures of the Task Description unit have genre-specific features, which is demonstrated in each move and step in the following parts.

Table 4.4 The discourse structures of the TPR Task Descriptions and the IPR Task Descriptions

Move/Step	TPR-TD (N=16)			IPR-TD (N=24)		
	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	status	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	status
M1: Describing context	**2**	**12.5**	**opt**	**9**	**37.5**	**opt**
M2: Describing rationale	**9**	**56.2**	**con**	**5**	**20.8**	**opt**
M2S1: Referring to literature	1	6.3	opt	0	0	opt
M2S2: Indicating a gap	3	18.8	opt	1	4.2	opt
M2S3: Describing reason(s) for task	5	31.2	opt	0	0	opt
M2S4: Claiming importance	4	25.0	opt	5	20.8	opt
M3: Describing task	**16**	**100**	**obl**	**24**	**100**	**obl**
M3S1: Describing the task type and feature(s)	12	75	con	17	70.8	con
M3S2: Describing the task source	9	56.3	con	14	58.3	con
M3S3: Describing the author	7	43.8	opt	0	0	opt
M3S4: Describing the readers	2	12.5	opt	0	0	opt
M3S5: Describing the text contents	11	68.8	con	0	0	opt
M3S6: Describing the client	0	0	opt	13	54.1	con
M3S7: Describing the audiences	0	0	opt	3	12.5	opt
M3S8: Describing the interpreting task	0	0	opt	14	58.3	con
M3S9: Describing the task requirements	1	6.3	opt	11	45.8	opt
M4: Describing process	**7**	**43.8**	**opt**	**13**	**54.2**	**con**
M4S1: Describing the purpose	3	18.8	opt	5	20.8	opt
M4S2: Describing the theory and methods	4	25	opt	1	4.2	opt
M4S3: Describing overall procedures	1	6.3	opt	8	33.3	opt
M5: Describing results	**6**	**37.5**	**opt**	**2**	**8.3**	**opt**
M5S1: Describing achievements	1	6.3	opt	0	0	opt
M5S2: Describing the significance	6	37.5	opt	2	8.3	opt
M5S3: Describing reflection	0	0	opt	1	4.2	opt

Note: (1) Bold ones with shade are moves. The moves in this model may not occur in a fixed sequence but may be in varied sequences; (2) "opt" indicating optional status (percentage <50%); "con" indicating conventional status (percentage = 50-79%); "obl" indicating obligatory status (percentage≥ 80%)

Move 1: Describing context

Move 1 aims to describe the background of a practice task in a report by establishing a territory in which a practice task places itself. This move has similar communicative function to that of the initial move *Establishing a territory* in CARS model for RAs Introduction section (Swales, 1990). To a certain extent, it is also equivalent to the move *Territory* in the grant proposals (Connor & Mauranen,1999). Besides, since the TPR and the IPR are reports, Move 1 has a similar function to the move *Establishing topic* in laboratory report (Parkinson, 2017) and to the move *Background* in Introductions of Engineering design reports (Poltavtchenko, 2013). In this move, the context of a practice task in a report is offered by describing a "real world" territory (Connor & Mauranen,1999, p. 53), a "field territory", or both to move the task from centrality to generalization. That is, Move 1 helps situate a task both in a specific research field and in the world outside the research field. Concerning the compatible feature that exists in the Task Description unit and the Introduction unit, it has to be noted that Move 1: *Describing context* in the Task Descriptions distinguishes itself from Move 1: *Introducing context* in the Introduction unit of the TPR and the IPR to a certain degree. The former is usually longer and complex in establishing a territory while the latter is short and direct in presenting the background of a translation/interpretation practice task. Therefore, except for the time adverbial clauses such as "*since* ---" and "*as* ---", and preposition adverbial phrases such as "*in recent years*", and "*with the development of* ---", which are typical in Move 1, a detailed description of the task context from the general to the concrete perspective is also a typical feature in Move 1. To illustrate the use of this move, two examples are demonstrated below.

(25) *Many aspects of people's live have been profoundly changed by electronic products* *since the 21st century*. --- . *Among them, the mobile phone is likely to be the most personal device that* ---. *The smartphone market in China has become extremely busy.* ---. *In recent years, domestic brands like* ---. *Amongst them, Smartisan Technology is a startup company founded by Luo Yonghao.* ---. (TPR-TD-8)

(26) *In today's world, as the globalization develops rapidly, the cooperation between China and other countries is increasingly close, and foreign trade and commercial transactions are increasingly frequent. In 2013, China's total volume of import and export trade reached $4.16 trillion, ranking first in the world. (IPR-TD-1)*

Move 2: Describing rationale

Move 2 involves the information about the justification for a translation/ interpretation practice task in a report through referring to literature, indicating a gap, stating reason(s) for a task, or claiming the importance or significance of a task. This move has a similar function with that of the step of *Presenting positive justification* postulated by Samraj (2002) for the revised CARS model for Wildlife Behavior and Conservation Biology. It is also similar to the step of *Giving positive justification* in the move of *Preparing for the present study* proposed for Introduction sections between the Thai journals and the international journals (Jirapanakorn, et al., 2014). This move is accomplished by using a maximum of four steps: *Referring to literature, Indicating a gap, Describing reasons for task,* and *Claiming importance.*

M2S1: Referring to literature

M2S1 aims to review the previous work related to the topic in the TPR and the IPR.This step has a similar function to that of the step of *Referring to literature* in the Introductions of the laboratory report, which "summarizes all findings for students accepted by the research community" (Parkinson, 2017, p. 6). This step seldom occurred in the unit of Task Descriptions in both of the TPR and the IPR except for one case identified in the TPR-TD. The genre nature of the TPR and the IPR can possibly account for this very low occurrence because it mainly serves the communicative purposes of reporting a practice task rather than an empirical research. Consequently, it is almost unnecessary for students to build the connection with the previous studies by referring to the literature in their practice reports.

M2S2: Indicating a gap

M2S2 aims to point out a vacant space in the translation/interpretation field. It has a similar function with that of the step of *Indicating a gap* in CARS model for RAs Introduction section (Swales, 1990) and the revised ones (Bunton, 2002; Chen & Kuo, 2012; Samraj, 2002; Swales, 2004). This step is typically featured by the discourse markers such as "*however*", "*but*" and "*while*" that signal the contradiction to what has been stated earlier. It is also characterized by the evident syntactic structure "*there + be + no/not +* ---" that indicates the disadvantage or the limitation of the previous work.

M2S3: Describing reasons for task

The translation student or the interpretation student uses *M2S3* to state his or her reason(s) why a practice task is selected for conducting a practice in a TPR/IPR. It is especially used to address the reason for an "optional task" in the translation subdiscipline. It is featured by noun "*reason*", verbs such as "*select*" and "*choose*" and subordinating conjunction "*why*". Besides, the syntactic structures such as "*self-mention + selected/chose + (the target task) + because (subordinating clause)*" and "*the reason(s) why (the target task) + be selected/chosen + is/are---*" are often employed in this step.

M2S4: Claiming importance

M2S4 states the values or benefits that a practice task can bring in the real world or in the field. This step has a similar function to that of the step *Claiming centrality* in Move of *Establishing a territory* in CARS model (Swales, 1990) and the revised ones (Bunton, 2002; Chen & Kuo, 2012; Samraj, 2002; Swales, 2004), which "shows that the research topic is useful, relevant, important, or worth investigating" (Jirapanakorn et al., 2014, p. 36). Also, it is equivalent to the step of *Claiming importance* in the move of *Establishing topic* in the Introductions of laboratory reports (Parkinson, 2017). This step is featured by the adjectives with positive meaning such as "*significant*", "*wonderful*", and "*influential*". Also, the syntactic structure of "*(the target task) + be + (positive adjectives)*" is often used to reach the function of this step.

To illustrate the function of *Move 2*, two excerpts of *M2S2: Indicating a gap* are selected as examples below:

(27) *However, there existed certain disadvantages in imported books. For example, the languages used in* some *translated versions are not standard enough or even below the state standard. In some translated books, ---, even certain part (are) improperly or wrongly translated. ---. The truth is that they have to read many of the books of such low quality. The occurrence of this phenomenon is largely due to a general ignorance of the research on children's books and popular science readings in China's translators' community. (TPR-TD-8)*

(28) *There are quite a few dissertations about the interpreting of Applet launch event while the* study *on the interpreting practice about Chinese brands' launch event from Chinese to English can hardly be seen. (IPR-TD-15)*

Move 3: Describing task

Move 3 is to provide the pertinent information of a practice task in a report in a detailed and informative way. This move plays an important role in facilitating examiners or readers to have an all-round understanding of a translation/interpretation task. Therefore, this move not only includes the basic elements of a task that need to be reported, such as the type, the feature(s), and the source, but it also includes the components that are contained exclusively in a translation task such as the author, the reader, and the text contents or are included exclusively in an interpretation task such as the client, the audience, and the interpreting task. As a result, this move is usually long with a variety of alternative steps that deal with each aspect of the task information, which is usually accomplished by a maximum of nine steps below.

M3S1: Describing the task type and feature(s)

M3S1 aims to describe what type of a translation/interpretation task is and what characteristics this task type has. Different from *M3S1: Introducing the task type* *and feature(s)* in the Introduction unit that a task's type and the feature is simply introduced in the short sentences, this step offers a detailed information of a task with long paragraphs. Consequently, except that this step is signaled by nouns such as "*feature*" and "*characteristics*", it is usually displayed in the form of a stand-alone subsection in the unit of Task Description.

M3S2: Describing the task source

M3S2 describes the ownership of a translation source text or the affiliation of an interpretation task, which indicates where a source task is selected from. Similar to *M3S2: Introducing task source* in the Introduction unit, this step is signaled by verbs such as "*select*" or "*choose*", and verb phrases such as "*come from*" or "*base on*" that directly indicate the task source. Moreover, this step is featured by a detailed description of the task source in long paragraphs.

M3S3: Describing the author

M3S3 offers the biographic information of the writer of the source text. It is usually presented in the lengthy paragraphs which are featured by the key signal word "*the author*", or it is in the form of a stand-alone sub-section with the subtitles such as "*Author of the Source Text*" and "*About the Author*". This step only occurred in the TPR. The absence of *M3S3* in the IPR can be attributed to the different natures between a translation task and an interpretation task. The former deals with the text materials such as books, thus the author's information of the text should be provided. On the contrary, the latter tackles with the audio information, thus the information of the speaker rather than the author would be described.

M3S4: Describing the readers

M3S4 aims to point out the possible readers who a translation source text targets at. Therefore, this step is evident with the key signal word "*readers*" or it is presented as a stand-alone subsection with the title "*Target Readers*". This step solely occurred in the TPR because the information of the target reader is one factor for a translation work.

M3S5: Describing the text contents

M3S5 serves a function to offer a detailed description of the contents in a translation text. This step is signaled by long paragraphs describing the story of a translation text or it is also placed in a stand-alone subsection with the title such as "*Content of the Material*", "*Content of the Source Text*", and "*About the Book*". Moreover, *M3S5* is usually employed together with *M3S3* and *M3S4* to accomplish the description of a translation task in Move 3. This step is exclusive in the TPR Task Description. The absence of this step in the interpretation subdiscipline is also caused by the different natures of task in translation and in interpretation. The specific content of an interpretation task usually would not be provided to an interpreter in advance.

M3S6: Describing the client

M3S6 states the information of who authorizes a task to the translator or the interpreter in a TPR/IPR. Therefore, this step is featured by the key signal word "*client*" or it is characterized by a detailed description of an authority which a task is entrusted from. In the present study, this step is exclusive in the IPR Task Descriptions, which could be caused by the fact that almost all interpretation tasks are "contract" tasks while most of translation tasks are "optional" ones. Hence, the interpretation students would describe the information of client for the "contract" tasks.

M3S7: Describing the audiences

M3S7 points out who are the listeners for an interpretation activity. Hence, this step is typically signaled by the key word "*audiences*". This step is exclusive in the IPR Task Descriptions, which could be because the interpretation task is a type of oral activity that involves the specific audiences.

M3S8: Describing the interpreting task

M3S8 aims to describe the specific interpretation activity in an interpretation task through reporting the key elements involved in a task, such as the contents, the length of time, the schedule, the place, even the interpretation equipment. As a consequence, this step is typically featured by paragraphs used to offer information such as the background, the contents, the time schedule of an interpretation task. This step is exclusive in the IPR Task Descriptions because the IPR is interpretation-based practice report.

M3S9: Describing the task requirements

M3S9 describes the requirements for a translation/interpretation task put forward by a client or an authority, especially for a "contract task". The description of the requirements may range from the quality, the form, or the time limit to the duties, the obligations, or the benefits of the translator/interpreter. Therefore, this move is typically signaled by words "*contract*", "*requirement*", and "*demand*" or a stand-alone subsection labeled with subtitles such as "*Requirements of the Client*", "*Task Requirements*" or "*Requirements for the Translator/Interpreter*".

To demonstrate the function of Move 3, two excerpts of *M3S1: Describing the task type and feature(s)* are selected as examples below:

(29) *2.1 Features of source text*
The Economist is an English-language weekly newspaper ---, the writer summarizes features of this magazine as follows:
(1) Terms. ---; (2) Genre. ---; (3) Examples. ---; (4) English. ---. (TPR-TD-8)

(30) *1.1.2 Features of the Task*
One of the most striking features of this task is its time urgency for ---.
The second feature of the task is the specialized words ---.
The third feature lies in the rich background of the task ---. (IPR-TD-15)

Move 4: Describing process

Move 4 specifies how a translation/interpretation task is conducted. Thus, it describes the purposes, theory and methods, and the overall task procedures. This move has a similar function to that of the move of *Describing experimental procedures* in Method sections of laboratory report (Parkinson, 2017). Besides, this move can be equivalent to the move of *Means* in Grant proposals, which indicates "how the goal will be achieved" (Connor & Mauranen, 2000, p.10). To realize the function of this move, three steps are usually adopted: *Describing the purposes, Describing the theory and methods,* and *Describing overall procedures.*

M4S1: Describing the purposes

M4S1 is to describe the aims, goals, or objectives of a translation/interpretation task in a report. This step is featured by words such as "*aims*", "*purposes*" and "*objectives*" or a stand-alone subsection marked with a subtitle of "*Objectives of the Task*". Besides, the syntactic structures such as "*the aims/purposes/objectives + of + (the target task) are ---*", "*(the target task) + is aimed at/is focused on + ---*", and "*self-mention + aims at/focuses on + ---"* are often used in this step.

M4S2: Describing the theory and methods

M4S2 involves a description of the theory or the methods adopted into a translation/interpretation practice task. It is usually signaled by the key word "*theory*" or other translation/interpretation theoretical terms such as "*the Relevance Theory*", "*the Functional Equivalence Theory*" and "*the Skopos Theory*" that indicate the theory and methods adopted.

M4S3: Describing overall procedures

M4S3 aims to offer a preliminary overview of how a translation or an interpretation practice task is conducted. It plays a role as a miniature of the translation/interpretation process description to recount the activities that occurred in a practice task. By doing so, it can arouse readers' interest to keep reading. Hence, the time adverbial phrases such as "*before*", "*during*", and "*after*" are often found in this step, which indicates the sequential procedures of a practice task in a report.

To illustrate the function of Move 4, two excerpts of *M4S1: Describing the purpose* are selected as examples below:

(31) *1.3 Objectives of the Task*
From the academic purpose, the translation of political documents is different from that of other texts ---.
From the realistic purpose, through the translation of the 13th Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development, ---. (TPR-TD-25)

(32) *This interpreting task is aimed at helping the PLC programmer ---. His duty is to test and adjust the programming of all stations ---. He is also supposed to cover the settlement of problems ---. (IPR-TD-16)*

Move 5: Describing results

Move 5 aims to offer a preview of the findings in a practice task through describing the achievements, the significance, and the reflection. This move is realized through 3 steps, which are *Describing achievements*, *Describing significance*, and D*escribing reflection*.

M5S1: Describing achievements

M5S1 describes the good outcomes brought by conducting a translation/ interpretation practice task. Especially, this step describes how the result of a practice task is helpful or beneficial for the translators' or the interpreters' personal or professional improvement. To a certain degree, this step is similar to the step of *Achievements* in grant proposals which "presents their anticipated results, findings, or outcomes of the study" (Connor & Mauranen, 1999, p. 57). Thus, this step is featured by the syntactic structure of "*self-mention + have learned/have improved + (professional knowledge/skills)*".

M5S2: Describing significance

M5S2 comprises the value or the benefits in fulfilling a translation/ interpretation practice task, presented in terms of its particular importance for the "real world" or the practical translation/interpretation field. This step is similar to the step of *Claiming importance* in the Introductions of the laboratory report (Parkinson, 2017), and it also has the similar function to that of the move of *Importance claim* in grant proposals (Connor & Mauranen, 2000). Therefore, this step seems similar to the step of *Claiming importance* in the Introductions of the TPR and the IPR. However, there is a distinguished difference between those two steps. The former centers on justifying the rationale of a task by stating its importance but the latter focuses on the final value of a practice task after completing it. Thus, *M5S2* is typically signaled by a stand-alone subsection labeled with "*Significance of the Task*".

M5S3: Describing reflection

M5S3 describes what kind of experience or lesson a translator/interpreter has gained from conducting a translation/interpretation practice. Specifically, it is about what a translator/interpreter has learned from conducting the translation/interpretation practice, which is one of important education goals in the MTI field. This step is signaled by the author's self-evaluation on all aspects of the translation/interpretation task practice.

To explain the function of Move 5, two excerpts of *M5S2: Describing the significance* are selected as examples below:

(33) *1.5 Significance of the Translation Practice*
In this report, ---. The author maintains that the research mainly has the practical significance in the following two aspects:
(TPR-TD-1)

(34) *1.2 Significance of the Interpreting Task*
In this part, the author of the report will introduce the significance of this interpreting task and the reasons why the author chose to write this simulated simultaneous conference.
1.2.1 The Significance in Practice
1.2.2 Significance of the Content
(IPR-TD-4)

4.4.2 Variations of the Discourse Structures between the TPR Task Descriptions and the IPR Task Descriptions

As Figure 4.3 shows, the most striking similarity between the two subdisciplines lies in Move 3, which had the same frequency of 100% and the same obligatory move status. The possible reason for this similarity is that Move 3 describes the key elements in a translation/interpretation task and serves an important role in realizing the communicative purposes of the unit of Task Descriptions in both of the two subdisciplines.

The second similarity exists in Move 1 which had the same optional status in both of the two subdisciplines, accounting for 12.5% and 37.5% in the TPR-TD and the IPR-TD, respectively. This similarity can possibly be explained by the reason that the context information has already been given in the Introduction chapters (16 TPR texts and 11 IPR texts hold Move 1: *Introducing context* in Introductions).

The last similarity lies in Move 5, which had a low frequency of occurrence, accounting for 37.5% and 8.3% in the TPR-TD and IPR-TD, respectively. Chinese students' writing habit might account for the same optional status of Move 5 in both of the two subdisciplines. Constrained by Chinese cognitive thinking mode, it is not logic to put the "results part" before the procedures section. Therefore, most of the translation students and the interpretation students would not report the results in the unit of Task Description. Supervisor B stated in the interview that

> *"Considering the organizational logicality in writing a TPR or an IPR, I usually suggest my students to write results part in the later sections of their reports."*

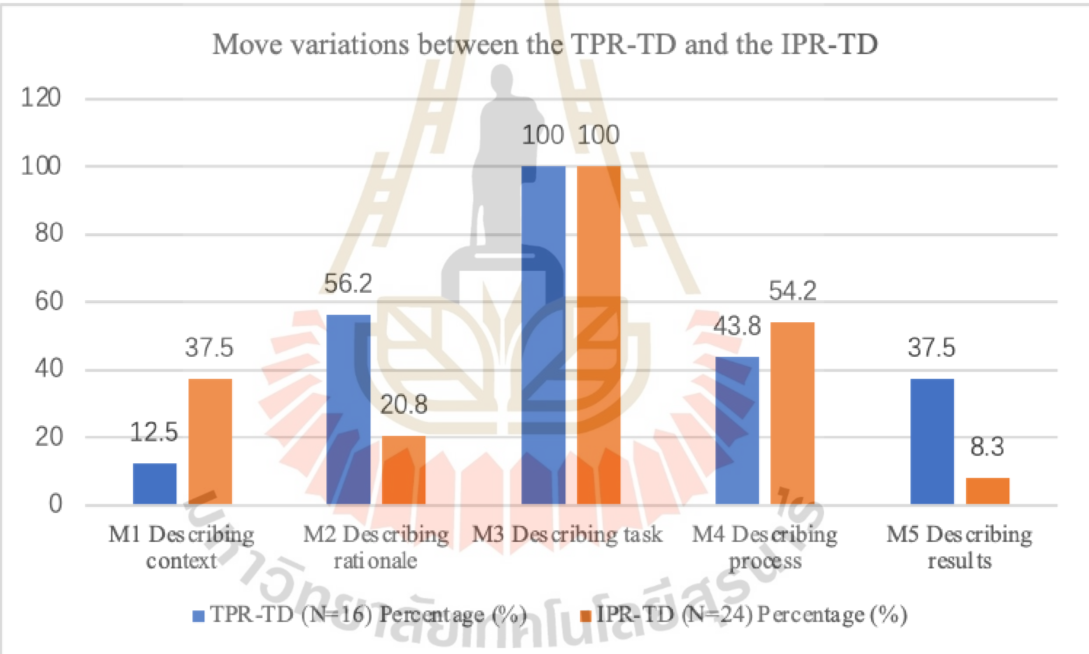


Figure 4.3 Variations of moves between the TPR Task Descriptions and the IPR Task Descriptions

However, two distinct differences can be found between the two subdisciplines at the move level. One lies in Move 2, which more TPR Task Descriptions (56.2%) than IPR Task Descriptions (20.8%) contained this move. It indicates that it is more important for the translation students than for the interpretation students to make the justification of a practice task in a report. As aforementioned, the nature of a task in a report to a great extent decides whether a clear rationale for selecting the task should be provided. Supervisor A said in the interview that

> *"most tasks are 'optional tasks' for translation students who are required to state the reasons for their options. On the contrary, almost all tasks are 'contract tasks" for interpretation students who do not need to claim the rationale for the task source".*

Another obvious difference can be found in Move 4, which was optional for the TPR Task Descriptions (43.8%) but conventional for the IPR Task Descriptions (54.2%) although the difference is not so significant their frequencies. This discrepancy could be caused by the different nature of the translation activity and the interpretation activity.

The next section will move to the unit of Process Description to describe the discourse structures of this unit and to reveal the possible variations of this unit between the two subdisciplines.

4.5 The Process Description Unit

4.5.1 The Discourse Structures of the TPR Process Descriptions and the IPR Process Descriptions

As Table 4.5 presents, three moves and fourteen steps were identified in the Process Description units in the TPR and the IPR. It can be seen that the discourse structures of this unit demonstrate a feature of the procedural genres that deal with procedural recount that tells "what happened" and "how to do something" (Martin and

Rose, 2008, p. 217). On the one hand, the three moves correspond to the three procedures in conducting a practice task in a chronological order. On the other hand, the constituent steps in each move correspond to the actions or strategies employed in each procedure. This feature, to a certain degree, is similar to the characteristic of the *Methods* section proposed by Lim (2006) whose structural pattern involves the specification of a series of actions used as methods for doing experimental research in a chronological sequence. Therefore, each move and step will be described and discussed in this section.

Table 4.5 The discourse structures of the TPR Process Descriptions and the IPR Process Descriptions

Move/Step	TPR-PD (N=27)			IPR-PD (N=29)		
	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status
M1: Describing before-task	**27**	**100**	**obl**	**29**	**100**	**obl**
M1S1: Describing the importance of the preparatory work	3	11.1	opt	10	34.5	opt
M1S2: Describing task-oriented preparation	25	92.6	obl	28	96.6	obl
M1S3: Adopting theory and strategies	16	53.3	con	3	10.3	opt
M1S4: Formulating terminology list(s)	7	25.9	opt	18	62.1	con
M1S5: Preparing skills and tools	18	66.7	con	15	51.7	con
M1S6: Preparing a task plan	8	29.6	opt	1	3.4	opt
M1S7: Describing the psychological preparation	0	0	opt	7	24.1	opt
M2: Describing during-task	**16**	**59.3**	**con**	**24**	**82.8**	**obl**
M2S1: Describing the on-site work	0	0	opt	24	82.8	obl
M2S2: Describing the translation process	16	53.3	con	0	0	opt
M2S3: Dealing with the emergency	0	0	opt	3	10.3	opt
M3: Describing after-task	**23**	**85.2**	**obl**	**21**	**72.4**	**con**
M3S1: Having proof-reading and revision	21	77.8	con	0	0	opt
M3S2: Describing quality control	0	0	opt	5	17.2	opt
M3S3: Having feedback and evaluation	6	22.2	opt	10	34.5	opt
M3S4: Making a summary	4	14.8	opt	9	31	opt

Note: (1) Bold ones with shade are moves. The moves in this model may not occur in a fixed sequence but may be in varied sequences; (2) “opt” indicating optional status (percentage <50%); “con” indicating conventional status (percentage = 50-79%); “obl” indicating obligatory status (percentage≥ 80%)

Move 1: Describing before-task

Move 1 reports the preparation work before starting a translation/ interpretation. It delineates the preparatory issues ranging from the preparation for general knowledge to the preparation for specific skills, or covering from the material preparation to the psychological preparation. This move is usually accomplished by a maximum seven steps below.

M1S1: Describing the importance of the preparatory work

M1S1 intends to stress the vital role of the preparatory work in a successful translation/interpretation practice task. Hence, on the one hand, the evaluative lexical items such as adjectives “*necessary*”, “*crucial*”, “*significant*”, and “*indispensable*” are commonly used in the syntactic structure of “*(preparation/preparation work/before-preparation) + be + (evaluative lexical items) + for +* ---” that claims the importance of the preparatory work. On the other hand, the nouns “*preparation*” and “*quality*”, and the modal word “*should*” are frequently used in the syntactic structure of “(*preparation/preparation work/before-preparation) + should + do + to ensure/guarantee + the quality of* ---” that states what is necessary for the preparation phase.

M1S2: Describing task-oriented preparation

Due to the variety of task types in a translation/interpretation practice task, *M1S2* delineates the task-orientated preparatory work, which aims to help a translator /interpreter have a better comprehension of the source task. In both the TPR and the IPR, this step varies in length because the content of the preparatory work is decided by the type of the source text. Hence, this step in the TPR may report the preparation work related to the background information of the source text, the detailed text analysis such as the lexical, syntactical, and stylistic features, and the parallel text that holds similar content and style with the source text. Correspondingly, this step in the TPR is signaled by the generic subsection headings such as "*Background Information*" and "*Text Analysis*", or it is signaled by words such as "*lexical*", "*syntactic*" and "*stylistic*" that are commonly used in the subsection headings to classify the features of a source text. Similarly, this step in the IPR also covers from the collection of the topic information to the preparation of the subject, speaker, content, schedule, and even the speaker's accent. Correspondingly, the generic subheadings such as "*Pre-interpreting Preparation*", and "*Topic/Subject Preparation*" are frequently used to list each individual aspect in task-oriented preparation.

M1S3: Adopting theory and strategies

M1S3 describes the preparatory work about selecting the suitable theory or the strategies based on the purposes and the features of a translation/interpretation practice task. This step is featured by a stand-alone subsection with a generic title such as "*Theory Preparation/Exploration*", "*Translation/Interpretation Strategy*" and "*Choice of Translation/Interpretation Strategies*". The word "*theory*" is commonly found in this step as well.

M1S4: Formulating terminology list(s)

M1S4 reports the preparation for the useful and relevant vocabulary list in a practice task, especially for a technical translation in a specific field or for a professional interpretation on a particular topic. Therefore, a subsection labeled with "*Terminology Preparation*", "*Glossary Collection*", "*Building up Glossary*", or "*Establishing Vocabulary List*" is commonly employed to indicate the preparation in building a terminology list for a task.

M1S5: Preparing skills and tools

M1S5 describes the preparatory work of setting useful tools such as dictionaries, reference materials for a translation task or devices such as recorder, lap-top, and the microphone for an interpretation task. Besides, the preparation for an interpreter's professional skills such as listening, note-taking, adapting to the accent, even interpreting etiquette is also included in this step. Hence, this step is signaled by the description of a list of "*tools*" or "*skills*" that are ready for the coming task.

M1S6: Preparing a task plan

With *M1S6*, the schedule or the assignment arrangement prepared before a translation/interpretation task is offered. Hence, the signal word "*plan*" occurred often in this step. This step occurred more in the TPR-PD than in the IPR-PD, which is possible because the plan and the schedule for a translation task are made more easily than those for an interpretation task. After all, "the (interpretation) text to be interpreted is not fixed, it is dynamic, in evolution" (Riccardi, 2002, p. 88).

M1S7: Describing the psychological preparation

M1S7 reports the measures taken to ease an interpreter's mental tension and nervousness to have a good psychological condition for an interpretation before the task. Therefore, the use of the generic sub-section heading such as "*Psychological Preparation*" is typical for this step. This step exclusively occurred in the IPR Process Description because it is apparent that a good psychological state is crucial for interpretation that "occurs in real-time" (Riccardi, 2002, p. 85).

To demonstrate the function of Move 1, two excerpts of *M1S2: Describing task-oriented preparation* are selected as examples below:

(35) *3.1*Preparation *for the Translation*
In order to successfully complete the established goal of translation practice, the author had prepared a lot for the translation project, which is as follow: Firstly, the author collected and collated the background information carefully ---.*Secondly, the author spent a lot of time reading many parallel texts*, ---. *(TPR-PD-25)*

(36) *3.1 Pre-interpreting preparation*
3.1.1 Background Information of the Opening Ceremony
3.1.2 Background Information *of the Speakers*
3.1.3 Preparation of the Knowledge Involved ---. *(IPR-PD-23)*

Move 2: Describing during-task

Move 2 delineates how a translation/interpretation practice task is implemented. It specifies the activities or issues that occurred during the process of translating/interpreting. In general, three steps were found to be an alternative in accomplishing the function of Move 2, which are *Describing the on-site work, Describing the translation process*, and *Dealing with the emergency*.

M2S1: Describing the on-site work

M2S1 is exclusive in the IPR Process Descriptions because of the “real-time” feature of an interpretation. This step offers a detailed description of the interpreting activities that happened in a chronological order on the interpretation site. To be specific, the time, the place, the specific events, and the procedures of an interpretation practice task are usually reported in this step. Hence, it is characterized by the generic subheadings such as “*Interpreting Process*”, “*On-site Interpreting*”, and “*Interpreting Implementation*”.

M2S2: Describing the translation process

Contrary to *M2S1* mentioned above, *M2S2* is exclusive in the TPR Process Descriptions. This step describes the procedures of how a translation source text is handled and translated into the target text. The subheadings such as “*Translation Process*”, “*During the Translation*”, “*Procedures of Translation*” and “*While-Translating*” are often indicative of this step.

M2S3: Dealing with the emergency

M2S3 is an exclusive step in the IPR, which refers to the measures taken to deal with the incidents that would happen unexpectedly during the interpretation process. This step is usually labeled with an evident subheading such as “*Emergence Disposal*”, “*Dealing with Emergency*” and “*Emergency Plan*”.

To demonstrate the function of Move 4, one excerpt of *M2S1: Describing the on-site work* and one excerpt of *M2S2: Describing the translation process* are selected as examples below:

(37) *2.2 Interpreting Implementation*
On the day of simulated interpreting, the author arrived at conference site an hour earlier in order to be familiar with the equipment and do pre-interpreting preparation. --- Later, --- the agendas were conducted one by one. The interpreting task consisted of the hosts address and opening remarks. The speakers included three officials from the government, two experts of ---. (IPR-PD-28)

(38) *3.2. Translation Process*
The translator started the translation as planned in early October. 500 words in Chinese have been translated per day in order to get a better quality. The translation process was finished a month later on schedule perfectly. During the translation process, the translator met many difficulties and problems. ---. (TPR-PD-10)

Move 3: Describing after-task

Move 3 specifies the follow-up work after a translation/interpretation practice task has been conducted, which aims to guarantee the quality of the current translation text or to improve the interpreter's professional abilities in future. Four steps are possibly employed to realize the function of Move 3, namely: *Having proof-reading and revision*, *Having feedback and evaluation*, *Making summary*, and *Describing quality control*.

M3S1: Having proof-reading and revision

M3S1 is exclusive in the TPR Process Descriptions because "a translation may be corrected and revised" (Riccardi, 2002, p. 84). This step has a function to report how a translated text is proof-read and revised in order to guarantee its quality. Therefore, the signal words such as "*proof-read*", "*revise*", "*edit*" and "*modify*" are commonly found in this step. Besides, this step often places itself as a stand-alone subsection with the heading such as "*Proofreading*", "*Revision*", and "*Quality Control*" which indicates the measures taken to improve the translation quality. Furthermore, this step sometimes is laid out with three parallel subsections labeled as "*Self-proofreading*", "*Supervisor's Proofreading*" and "*Others' Proof-reading*" by some translation students to stress that their final products have been examined and revised from different levels.

M3S2: Describing quality control

M3S2 reports what criteria or measures are employed to guarantee the quality of an interpretation practice task. In other words, this step describes how the quality of an interpretation task is evaluated and what specific actions are taken to maintain the interpretation standard. Hence, a stand-alone subsection with title such as "*Interpreting Quality Control*", "*Quality Evaluation of Interpreting*", and "*Interpreting Quality Criteria*" is a common way to present this step.

M3S3: Having feedback and evaluation

M3S3 accounts for the assessment and suggestion that are offered by the translator/interpreter him/herself or other people such as the client, the supervisor, the reader, or the audience after a task is completed. This step is typically signaled by the subsection title in which the words such as "*Feedback*", "*Suggestion*" and "*Assessment*" are included.

M3S4: Making a summary

M3S4 has a function to present what are the merits and drawbacks in the process of a translation/interpretation summarized by the student him/herself. Hence, except for the subtitle labeled with the signal word "*Summary*", this step is also typical for a description of the reflection on the translating or the interpreting process.

To demonstrate the function of Move 3, two excerpts of *M3S4: Making a summary* are selected as examples below:

(39) *3.3 Post-translation: Summary*
Effective translation has always been the pursuit of translators and the translation of long English sentences has always been a challenge to us. From the analysis of the examples above, the conclusion can be drawn that ---. (TPR-PD-20)

(40) *3.3 Post-interpreting Stage*
It is very necessary to make a summary after every interpreting practice, for it will enable the interpreter to have a clearer understanding of his/her work status and performance at on-site interpreting and find out the deficiencies ---. (IPR-PD-27)

4.5.2 Variations of the Discourse Structures between the TPR Process Descriptions and the IPR Process Descriptions

As Figure 4.4 shows, although the frequencies of occurrence of the three moves did not display a very striking contrast between the two subdisciplines, the similarities and differences can also be found in terms of their status. The obvious similarity was found in Move 1, which had the same frequency (100%) and move status in the two subdisciplines. This similarity can be attributed to the equal importance that is attached to the before-task preparation by students in both the translation and the interpretation subdisciplines. The information obtained from the interview further confirmed this explanation. Supervisor B said that

> *"the preparatory work plays a key role in a satisfying translation or an interpretation practice task, especially for those novice translators or interpreters. Hence, both translation students and interpretation students must report how the before-task issues are prepared."*

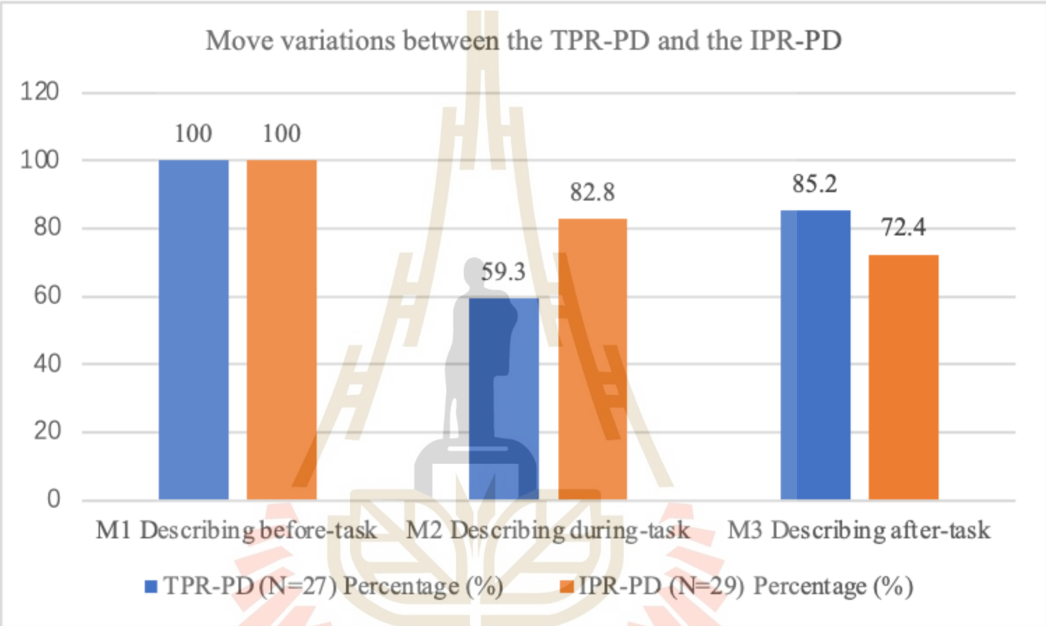


Figure 4.4 Variations of moves between the TPR Process Descriptions and the IPR Process Descriptions

However, the other two moves in this unit demonstrated the discrepancies in terms of their move status between the two subdisciplines. To be specific, Move 2 was conventional (59.3%) in the translation subdiscipline but obligatory (82.8%) in the interpretation subdiscipline. This difference is greatly caused by the different natures of a translation task and an interpretation task. The former is a type of text transformation that renders the source language to the target one (Kettunen, 2017), but the latter is a kind of oral communication that reproduces the source message to the target one (Riccardi, 2002). As a result, the during-procedure of an interpretation task is more apparent than that of a translation task. Especially, since interpretation is greatly influenced by the environment in which it is conducted (Riccardi, 2002), some writing strategies are usually used to describe the physical space in which it is delivered. For this, Supervisor A in the interview responded that

> *"because an interpretation task is constrained by the circumstances to a certain extent, interpretation students would use more 'environmental language' or 'spatial language' to describe their on-site work than translation students did".*

Another discrepancy in terms of the move status was found in Move 3. It was obligatory (85.2%) in the TPR-PD while conventional (72.4%) in the IPR-PD. This discrepancy can be explained by the different features between the translation activity and the interpretation activity. Compared with interpretation, which is characterized by its instantaneity that an interpretation task is conducted in real-time and is completed at one time, translation usually lasts longer and needs more post measures such as proof-reading to improve its quality. Consequently, it is not surprising that Move 3 occurred more frequently in the translation subdiscipline than in the interpretation subdiscipline. This can be clarified by the information from both the two supervisors in the interview. Supervisor B commented that

> *"proof-reading and revision are necessary after-task measurements to guarantee the quality of a translation work, which is obligatory to be done and reported for the translation students. However, the quality of an interpretation task is mainly based on others' feedback and evaluation, which*

are not always directly obtained by the interpretation students. So, this part might not be reported by each interpretation student".

The next section will move to the results and discussion of the discourse structures of the unit of the Case Analysis.

4.6 The Case Analysis Unit

4.6.1 The Discourse Structures of the TPR Case Analysis and the IPR Case Analysis

As Table 4.6 presents, the discourse structures of the Case Analysis unit in the TPR and the IPR were found to contain five moves and nine steps. The unit of Case Analysis is a genre-specific section in the TPR and the IPR because it has a communicative purpose to present the representative translation/interpretation phenomena that were found in a practice task. On the one hand, it is equivalent to the Results section in most of the empirical studies that report the findings of research (Yang & Allison, 2003; Brett, 1994; Bruce, 2009; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Williams, 1999). On the other hand, it is a genre-specific unit because the findings are reported in the form of case analysis, which is commonly used in the business case reports (Nathan, 2013; 2016) and the medical case report (Tsai, Chen & Hung, 2012). To illustrate the discourse structures of this unit, each move and step will be reported and discussed.

Table 4.6 The discourse structures of the TPR Case Analysis and the IPR Case Analysis

Move/Step	TPR-CA (N=30)			IPR-CA (N=30)		
	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status
M1: Opening the case analysis chapter	**15**	**50**	**con**	**22**	**73.3**	**con**
M2: Offering a theoretical basis	**5**	**16.7**	**opt**	**11**	**36.7**	**opt**
M2S1: Introducing the theory	4	13.3	opt	8	26.7	opt
M2S2: Describing key rules/principles of the theory	0	0	opt	7	23.3	opt
M2S3: Justifying the theory	1	3.3	opt	4	13.3	opt
M2S4: Claiming the applicability of the theory	0	0	opt	2	6.7	opt
M2S5: Summarizing the theory	0	0	opt	2	6.7	opt
M3: Providing an overview of translation/interpretation phenomena	**27**	**90**	**obl**	**21**	**70**	**con**
M4: Illustrating one category of translation/interpretation phenomena	**30**	**100**	**obl**	**30**	**100**	**obl**
M4S1: Describing the translation/interpretation phenomenon	30	100	obl	30	100	obl
M4S2: Describing the sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomenon	11	36.7	opt	9	30	opt
M4S3: Conducting case(s) analysis	30	100	obl	30	100	obl
M4S4: Summarizing the translation/interpretation phenomenon	11	36.7	opt	12	40	con
M5: Closing the case analysis chapter	**10**	**33.3**	**opt**	**5**	**16.7**	**opt**

Note: (1) Bold ones with shade are moves. The moves in this model may not occur in a fixed sequence but may be in varied sequences; (2) "opt" indicating optional status (percentage <50%); "con" indicating conventional status (percentage = 50-79%); "obl" indicating obligatory status (percentage≥ 80%)

Move 1: Opening the case analysis chapter

Move 1 offers a preview of the Case Analysis unit by describing what the typical translation/interpretation phenomena are found in a practice report and how they are categorized and analyzed. To some extent, this move has a similar function with the component of *Metatextual Categories* in the Results sections that indicate which data are to be discussed and how the data are organized (Brett, 1994; Williams,1999). Hence, this move is usually used to open the Case Analysis unit, which is featured by the structural pattern of "*In this part/chapter/section, self-mention + will /illustrate/analyze/discuss/ + (numbers) + of + (phenomena): Phenomenon 1, phenomenon 2* ---", which provides an overview of the typical translation/interpretation phenomena. To illustrate, two examples are offered below.

(41) *In this part, the translator is going to illustrate several translation techniques used in the process of translation from three levels: lexical level, syntactic level and rhetorical level by analyzing some typical examples under the guidance of the skopos theory.* (TPR-CA-13)

(42) *In this chapter, I will analyze some interpretation cases from the conference materials. Generally, this chapter can be divided into three parts, which are the general guidance of Skopos theory in interpreting, the use of interpretation strategies and existing errors.* (IPR-CA-26)

Move 2: Offering a theoretical basis

Move 2 aims to inform the examiners or readers of the theory that is employed to explain the translation/interpretation findings through introducing the theory and its key principles, justifying the selection of the theory, proving the applicability of the theory, and summarizing the theory. In general, this move consists of five steps performing a range of functions, which is described in the following parts.

M2S1: Introducing the theory

M2S1 delineates the definition of a theory, consisting of its origin, development, and evolution, which aims to establish the theoretical base for the case analysis. This step is usually placed in a stand-alone subsection labeled with a theory-focused title such as "*Overview of Functional Equivalence Theory*" and "*Skopos Theory*".

M2S2: Describing key rules/principles of the theory

M2S2 specifies the core ideas or the basic principles in a theory with an attempt to provide a theoretical guide for the case analysis. This step is featured by a description of the rules or the principles of a theory by using the structure of "*(the theory) + has/falls + (numbers) + rules/principles, rule/principle 1, rule/principle 2* ---".

M2S3: Justifying the theory

M2S3 reports why a theory is suitable for a translation/interpretation practice task. It intends to offer the rationale for the selection of the theory by elucidating the relationship between the theory and the target task. Although this step was least used to realize the communicative purposes of Move 2, it has an evident structure of "*(the theory) + be + adopted/used/selected + in --- + because/as (subordinating clause)*".

M2S4: Claiming the applicability of the theory

Different from *M2S3* that explains why a theory is employed to guide a translation/interpretation practice task, *M2S4* emphasizes how a theory can be applied to a translation/interpretation practice task. Hence, this step gives more priority to describe how the theory is put to use in different procedures of a practice, which is featured by a stand-alone sub-section titled "*Application of the Theory*".

M2S5: Summarizing the theory

M2S5 aims to draw a brief conclusion on a theory with a purpose to help examiners or readers have a succinct comprehension of the theory and its applicability in a practice task. This step is signaled by the key word or phrase such as "*Summary*" and "*Summary of Theory*".

To demonstrate the function of Move 2, two excerpts of *M2S1: Introducing the theory* are selected as examples below:

(43) *4.1 Skopos Theory*
In this part, the author mainly discusses the definition and the application of Skopos theory ---.
4.1.1 Introduction to the Theory
In the 1970s, German functionalist translation theory ---. *(TPR-CA-25)*

(44) *4.1 The Interpretive Theory*
The Interpretive Theory is also known as the "theory of sense". --- *According to the theory, the interpreting process consists of three stages: compression of the discourse, de-verbalization, and re-expression (Lederer, 2001:3)* ---. *(IPR-CA-28)*

Move 3: Providing an overview of translation/interpretation phenomena

Move 3 aims to offer an orientation to the typical translation/interpretation phenomena that are found in a practice task, which usually consists with translation/interpretation issues such as the problems encountered in a task, causes for the problems, strategies to solve the problems, or theories and skills used to improve the quality of a translation/interpretation task. Move 3 is typically featured by a description of the translation/interpretation phenomena that are grouped into categories to reveal what has found in a practice task. From this perspective, this move has a similar function with the *Orientation to the option* in the business case report that is the "initial introductory move providing an orientation to the overall options analysis" (Nathan, 2016, p.5). Two examples illustrate the function of this move in the TPR and the IPR, respectively:

(45) *4.1 Applicable Translation Strategies*

Equipment operation manuals are concise, comprehensive, informative, and expressive. They generally are full of imperative sentences to warn or stress on some important information. They are full of long sentences with technical terms confusing the readers and needs carefully handling. They frequently use passive voices sentences and modal verbs. Therefore, how to handle these sentences or words are very important. In the following parts, the author would like to analyze reliable ways to handle these sentences to better realize the STs social functions. (TPR-CA-22)

(46) *4.1 Problems Encountered in Interpreting*

Main problems met in the task covers are classified into three categories, such as problems in syntax, problems in intercultural communication, and problems in listening comprehension. Some typical samples of these problems are selected and listed in the following sections. (IPR-CA-3)

Move 4: Illustrating one category of translation/interpretation phenomena

Following Move 3, Move 4 devotes into a delineation of one specific category of translation/interpretation phenomena that is introduced in Move 3. This move is realized through describing the definition of the translation/interpretation phenomenon, describing the possible sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomena, conducting case(s) analysis, and making a summary. This move is often cyclical because the findings achieved in a practice task usually involve several categories of translation/interpretation phenomena. This cyclical characteristic exists in all Case Analysis units across the two subdisciplines. The 4 possible constituent steps in this move will be described in the following parts.

M4S1: Describing the translation/interpretation phenomenon

As the first step in Move 4, *M4S1* describes a specific category of translation/interpretation phenomena and proposes its possible sub-category translation/interpretation issues. This step is featured by the organizational pattern in which the introduction/definition/explanation of the translation/interpretation phenomenon is provided first, followed by the list of the possible sub-categories of phenomena.

M4S2: Describing the sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomenon

As aforementioned, one specific category of translation/interpretation phenomena may involve several sub-category of translation/interpretation issues. For example, the two sub-category of translation strategies, i.e. "*Free translation VS Literal translation*" could be adopted in dealing with the one category of translation phenomenon "*imperative sentences*". Similarly, the two sub-category interpretation issue, i.e. "*wrong figures*", and "*grammatical errors*", would cause one category of interpretation problem "*Syntactical Misunderstandings*". Therefore, *M4S2* describes the concept and the role of the possible sub-translation/interpretation issues in facilitating the translation/interpretation of the target task. Consequently, this step only occurs when a specific category of translation/interpretation phenomenon can be sub-divided.

M4S3: Conducting case(s) analysis

M4S3 is the core step in Move 4, which means that one specific translation/interpretation phenomenon such as problem, cause of problem, strategy, or other issues is explained or testified by providing the typical case(s) with analysis. The organizational layout of this step consists of three main parts: "*Source Text (ST)*", "*Target Text (TT)*", and "*Analysis*" in the TPR or "*Original Text*", "*On-the-Spot Interpretation*" and "*Analysis*" in the IPR. This step is highly cyclical in the Case Analysis unit because multiple case(s) are usually employed to illustrate one category or one sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomena.

M4S4: Summarizing the translation/interpretation phenomenon

M4S4 has a function to conclude one category of translation/interpretation phenomenon through claiming its value and making possible suggestions in dealing with similar translation/interpretation issues. This step is sometimes featured by the lexical word "*summary*" that starts a short paragraph to conclude what has been analyzed.

To illustrate the function of *Move 4*, two excerpts of *M4S3: Conducting case(s) analysis* are selected as examples below:

(47) ***Case 1***

ST: *The higher-pressure forces generated during the pressing procedure are accommodated by a bearing assembly (7) installed in the planetary gear*

TT1: *(Literal translation)更高的压力产生在紧迫的过程是由轴承装配(7)安装在行星齿轮。*

TT2: *(Free translation) 压榨过程中产生的高压力由安装在行星齿轮上的轴承装置（7)承载。*

Analysis: *This sentence is a typical impressive sentence with the thing as the subject. In translating sentences like this one, the author is in a dilemma on how to translate it. Since it belongs to technical sentences, its target text should avoid redundancy but be clear and concise and precise. And the sentence does not show any unique culture characteristics. Therefore, translators can be more flexible to translate this sentence. Here, the translator shows two translation text guided by Free Translation and Literal Translation. Compared to the TT2 the TT1 is a bit confusing but the TT2 is more applicable and available.*

Case 2

(TPR-CA-22)

(48) ***Example 1***

Original Text: *To capture this, compared the average scores for these three groups of countries: those with democratic regimes, those with non-personalist authoritarian regimes and those with personalist regimes, including Russia. This chart compares the 3 groups by having the average score for the democracies be set at 1 and the average score for the two kinds of autocracy is ratios of that.*

On-the-Spot Interpretation: *我们列出这三种国家的平均分数进行对比，这三种国家 分别为民主政体，集权主义政体和个人主义政体，包括俄罗斯。这张表格对比了三种 不同类型的国家，民主平均分数为1，然后是两种专制主义政体的数值。*

Analysis: *This sentence said by the speaker contained so much information, of which the figures were difficult to be tackled with by the interpreter. All of these figures were represented in the PPT and conveyed certain professional meanings. Figure 1 stands for "average score" and other figures act as the ratios of the average score. The phrase "average score 1" were interpreted to be "平均分数为 1" and "ratios" were to be "数值". However, that figure interpretation were actually not proper and may be lack of accuracy and specialty, thus the comparison results could not be clearly showed.*

Example 2

(IPR-CA-3)

Move 5: Closing the Case Analysis Chapter

Move 5 aims to make an end for the unit of Case Analysis by concluding on all translation/interpretation phenomena that are analyzed in this unit. Hence, this move is characterized by the way that the translation/interpretation phenomena such as problems, causes, skills, strategies, or theories in the unit of Case Analysis are summarized and commented briefly. Besides, the phrases such as "*in chapter four*" and "*in this chapter*" are signal phrases for this move. To illustrate this move, two examples are provided below.

(49) *In chapter four, the author analyzed the translation with the examples in the documentary. From these four aspects: the translation of the name of the dishes, the translation of the proper nouns, the translation of the cultural differences and the analysis of the difficult sentences in the caption, the strategies of translating are discussed. As a student of MTI, the author concluded that ---. (TPR-CA-11)*

(50) *The skills discussed above in this chapter are adopted by the author in the task. Those skills can be used alone in certain circumstances, but, in some sense, they are complementary and ---. (IPR-CA-1)*

4.6.2 Variations of the Discourse Structures between the TPR Case Analysis and the IPR Case Analysis

As shown in Figure 4.5, the most evident similarity between the two subdisciplines can be found in Move 4. This move had the same frequency of occurrence (100%) in both of the two sub-corpora. The same obligatory status of Move 4 is attributed to the fact that the writing strategy of producing "typologies" is commonly employed by students in both of the two subdisciplines to "support the creation of clusters or families of phenomena". That is, "sets of cases are categorized into clusters of groups that share certain patters or configurations" (Khan & VanWynsberghe, 2008, p.4). On the one hand, both translation and interpretation are activities that involve personal experience. On the other hand, the personal experience can be learned by rich and holistic examples. As Khan and VanWynsberghe (2008) stated that case analysis can empower the learners to access the experience of others, making categorization of what has found in a translation/interpretation practice through grouping the typical phenomena in a form of cases can be assumed to be the most useful and necessary way in reporting the "results" in both of the TPR and the IPR. In other words, illustrating each representative category of translation/interpretation phenomenon through conducting case analysis, which is the communicative purpose of Move 4, is a core writing strategy in both of the two subdisciplines.

One more similarity between the two subdisciplines can also be found in Move 1 and Move 5. They shared the same conventional and optional move status in both of the two subdisciplines, respectively. This similarity can be explained by the fact that both the discourse structures of the TPR Case Analysis and the IPR Case Analysis are influenced by the writing convention in the same community. Since both of the TPR and the IPR are produced in the MTI domain in China, they might have a similar rhetorical structure in opening and closing the Case Analysis chapter. To a certain extent, this is in line with the view that "texts are most successful when they employ conventions that other members of the community find familiar and convincing" (Hyland, 2008. p.543).

The last similarity was identified in Move 2, which was optional in both of the two subdisciplines. The community-based nature of genres can also account for this similarity. According to Miller (1984), genre means that writers respond to a repeated situation in a social context. Consequently, members of a community usually can draw on their repeated experience with texts to read, understand, and write. In the current study, Move 2 had a low frequency of occurrence in both of the TPR-CA and the IPR-CA. It can be explained that the students in both of the translation and the interpretation subdisciplines are reluctant to write the theoretical background into the unit of Case Analysis. Students in the interview responded that they did not frequently write the theoretical background in the unit of Case Analysis because they found that most of their peers did not write the theoretical information in their Case Analysis units.

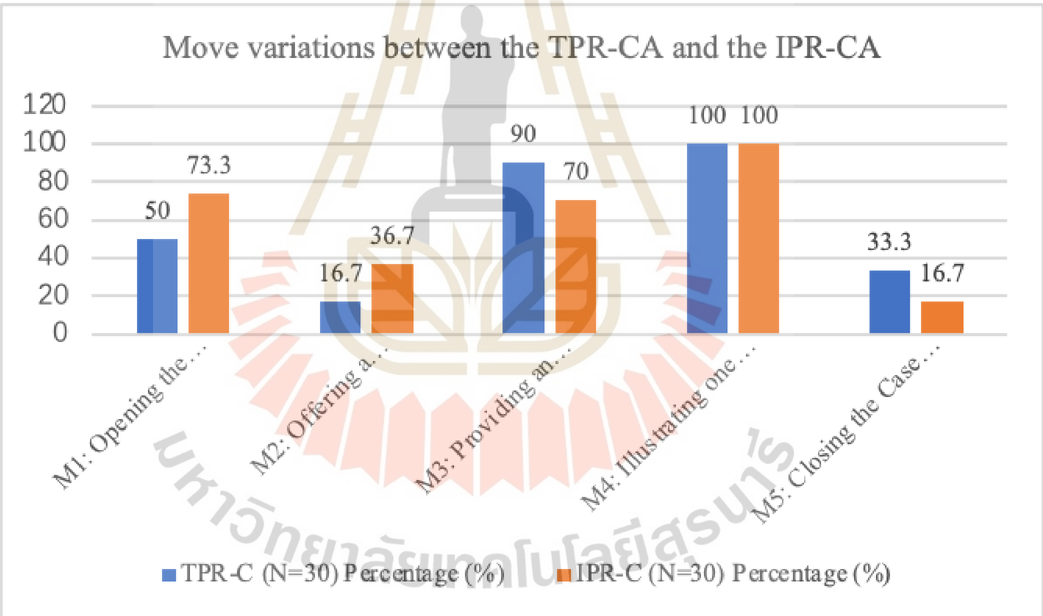


Figure 4.5 Variations of moves between the TPR Case Analysis and the IPR Case Analysis

Apart from the similarities in terms of move status, one difference is notable between the two subdisciplines. Move 3 was obligatory in the TPR-CA, accounting for 90%, but conventional in the IPR-CA, accounting for 70%. This difference can be attributed to the disciplinary variations. As stated by Peacock (2011), genre conventions may vary across disciplines. Although both of the TPR and the IPR are in a single community, they are reports that focus on activities in two different fields: translation and interpretation. Besides, as "different fields require different genres" (Hyland, 2008, p.550), a slight difference possibly exists in genres in two different subdisciplines. This aligns with the idea that "different disciplines value different kinds of argument and different writing tasks" (Hyland, 2008, p.550). In the present study, it was found that the translation students would employ more elaborate and complex categories in illustrating the translation phenomena that were found in their practice tasks than their interpretation counterparts did. Consequently, the strategy of providing an overview of the translation phenomenon was used more frequently by the translation students. Supervisor A gave an interesting feedback in the interview that

> *"compared with most of the translation students who usually follow the writing manual, interpretation students tend to be 'liberal-minded' in their reports writing possibly due to the influence of the market-orientated feature of the interpretation subdiscipline. Thus, it was interesting to find that translation students usually have a comparatively strict writing format in the Case Analysis section but interpretation students prefer a loose structure in this section".*

The next section will give the floor to the discourse structures of the Conclusion units, which are the last section in the TPR and the IPR.

4.7 The Conclusion Unit

4.7.1 The Discourse Structures of the TPR Conclusions and the IPR Conclusions

As Table 4.7 shows, the discourse structures of the TPR Conclusions and the IPR Conclusions were found to contain four moves and sixteen steps. This unit, to some extent, demonstrates a similar structural pattern with that in the *Conclusion* section in RAs proposed by Yang and Allison (2003). However, it also presents the genre-specific feature that the constituent moves and steps serve to conclude the translation/interpretation practice report rather than the empirical studies. To understand the discourse structures of this unit, each move and step is described and discussed in the following parts.

Table 4.7 The discourse structures of the TPR Conclusions and the IPR Conclusions

Move/Step	TPR-C (N=30)			IPR-C (N=30)		
	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status
M1: Reviewing the practice task	**17**	**56.7**	**con**	**24**	**80**	**obl**
M1S1: Reviewing the task type and feature(s)	0	0	opt	8	26.7	opt
M1S2: Reviewing the task context	3	10	opt	3	10	opt
M1S3: Restating the task source	7	23.3	opt	12	40	opt
M1S4: Reviewing the purpose	5	16.7	opt	3	10	opt
M1S5: Restating the theory and method	7	23.3	opt	12	40	opt
M1S6: Reviewing overall practice process	3	10	opt	7	23.3	opt
M2: Summarizing the practice task	**30**	**100**	**obl**	**29**	**96.7**	**obl**
M2S1: Summarizing main findings	13	43.3	opt	16	53.3	con
M2S2: Summarizing problems encountered	10	33.3	opt	8	26.7	opt
M2S3: Summarizing skills/strategies adopted	10	33.3	opt	11	36.7	opt
M2S4: Summarizing experience obtained	20	66.7	con	16	53.3	con
M2S5: Summarizing main contents of the report	3	10	opt	9	30	opt

Table 4.7 The discourse structures of the TPR Conclusions and the IPR Conclusions (Continued)

Move/Step	TPR-C (N=30)			IPR-C (N=30)		
	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status	Occurrence	Percentage (%)	Status
M3: Evaluating the practice task	**21**	**70**	**con**	**20**	**66.7**	**con**
M3S1: Making evaluation	3	10	opt	9	30	opt
M3S2: Claiming significance	8	26.7	opt	9	30	opt
M3S3: Stating limitations	15	50	con	16	53.3	con
M4: Deducting from the practice task	**23**	**76.7**	**con**	**19**	**63.3**	**con**
M4S1: Making suggestions	19	63.3	con	11	36.7	opt
M4S2: Providing pedagogical implications	6	20	opt	9	30	opt

Note: (1) Bold ones with shade are moves. The moves in this model may not occur in a fixed sequence but may be in varied sequences; (2) “opt” indicating optional status (percentage <50%); “con” indicating conventional status (percentage = 50-79%); “obl” indicating obligatory status (percentage≥ 80%)

Move 1: Reviewing the practice task

Move 1 aims to restate the important elements in a translation/interpretation practice task, consisting of the type, the source, the purpose, the theory or method, and the overall practice process. This move concludes the key features of the target task in the preceding units. In this regard, this move has a similar function to that of the move *Background information* in RAs Discussion sections that offers relevant background information of the study being reported (Yang & Allison, 2003). The function of this move is usually realized by a maximum of six steps, which will be described one by one.

M1S1: Reviewing the task type and feature(s)

M1S1 has a function to help the examiners and readers to look back on the type and the typical features of the target task in a translation/interpretation practice.

Hence, this step is signaled by stating the task type such as "*simultaneous interpreting*", "*consecutive interpreting*", "*escort interpreting*", or "*conference*" once more.

M1S2: Reviewing the task context

With *M1S2*, the social and historical background of a translation/ interpretation practice task is mentioned again. Hence, the time adverbials such as "*with the development of globalization*" and "*in the global market*" are often mentioned again to indicate the macro-context of the target task in this step.

M1S3: Restating the task source

M1S3 aims to state the source of the target task to stress the validity of a translation/interpretation practice task again. Similar to the step: *Introducing the task source* and the step: *Describing the task source*, which are employed to account for the origin of a task in the proceeding units, this step is also signaled with verb phrases such as "*be based on*" and "*be on*" or prepositional phrases such as "*on the basis of*", which indicate where a translation/interpretation practice task is from.

M1S4: Reviewing the purpose

With *M1S4*, the purposes of a practice task or the aims of a practice report is presented again. The noun such as "*purpose*" and the verb "*analyze*" are often found as the key signal words to indicate the communicative purpose of this step.

M1S5: Restating the theory and method

M1S5 helps review what theory or strategies have been employed in a translation/interpretation practice task. Hence, the name of a theory is usually stated again in this move. This move is also featured by using the prepositional phrases such as "*under the guidance of*" that point out what theory or method is employed in a practice task.

M1S6: Reviewing overall practice process

M1S6 has a function to recount the translation/interpretation procedures briefly to help examiners and readers to re-establish the impression of a practice task process in the closure section. Hence, this step is usually featured by ordinals such as "*first*", "*second*", and "*third*" or conjunctions such as "*then*" and "*last*" that indicate the sequence of action. It is also signaled by key phrases such as "*pre-translation/pre-interpretation*", "*during the process of*", and "*after translation/interpretation*" that show the translation/interpretation actions in chronological order. Besides, the syntactic structure of "*the (translation/interpretation) practice/process/report + is composed of + ---*" often occurs in this step.

To illustrate the function of Move 1, two excerpts of *M1S6: Reviewing overall practice process* are selected as examples below:

(51) *The whole translation process is composed of pre-preparation, translation process and proofreading, every step of them is indispensable for a good translation. Among them, translation process is the main part of the translation process, but the information integration procedure and proofreading are two significant parts which the translator always ignores before. (IPR-C-10)*

(52) *Before the author beginning the interpreting independently, ---. During the process of the practice, ---. When the interpretation finished, ---. (IPR-C-18)*

Move 2: Summarizing the practice task

Move 2 has a primary aim to summarize a translation/interpretation practice task by highlighting what has been found or achieved in it. This move can be equivalent to the Move *Summarizing the study* proposed by Yang and Allison (2003) for the RAs Conclusion because their communicative purpose is to summarize the findings of a study. However, Move 2 is different from the move of *Summarizing the study* slightly in that it orients at the findings in a practice task rather in an empirical study. In this regard, Move 2 has a similar function to that of the move *Summarizing study* proposed by Parkinson (2017) for the Conclusion section in laboratory report. To realize this move, five options are usually employed, which are correspondingly the five constituent steps in this move.

M2S1: Summarizing main findings

M2S1 aims to report the primary results that have been achieved in a translation/interpretation practice task, which consists of the achievements in the theoretical and the practical aspects obtained from dealing with a variety of translation/interpretation phenomena. To a certain extent, this step functions equivalently with the Move *Reporting results* in the Discussion section that offers the results found in the reported study (Yang & Allison, 2003). The key word "*finding*" is often used as a signal word to indicate the function of this step. This step is also signaled by a separate paragraph labeled "*Major Findings*" as well.

M2S2: Summarizing problems encountered

As a genre-specific step, *M2S2* has a primary role to summarize the challenges or difficulties in a translation/interpretation practice task and how they are solved, which aims to enlighten the future translation/interpretation. Hence, the nouns such as "*problems*", "*challenges*", "*difficulties*" and "*barriers*" are typically used in this step.

M2S3: Summarizing skills/strategies adopted

M2S3 summarizes the skills or methods employed to tackle the translation/interpretation phenomena in a practice task, which aims to provide a reference for the selection of the strategies in the future translation/interpretation. This step is marked by a description of the skills that are adopted in a task. The key word "*strategy*" and its plural form "*strategies*" are often used to be indicative signals in this step.

M2S4: Summarizing experience obtained

With *M2S4*, the lessons or experience from a translation/interpretation practice are stressed to enlighten the future translation/interpretation learning and practice. The nouns such as "*lessons*" and "*experience*" or verbs such as "*obtain*", "*got*", "*realize*", and "*learn*" are frequently used in this step. Besides, this step is also presented in a separate sub-section with the generic title such as "*Lesson Gained*", "*Experiences and Lessons*", or "*What I Have Learnt from the Interpreting Experience*".

M2S5: Summarizing main contents of the report

M2S5 intends to help the examiners or readers to review the important contents reported in a practice report. Hence, what has been reported in a practice report is usually summarized briefly in this step. The syntactic structures such as "*this report + takes + (the target task) as an example + to analyze/explore/discuss* + ---" and "*this report + employs/adopts + (theory) as a theoretical framework/a guidance + to analyze/explore/discuss* + ---" are often employed in this step.

To demonstrate the function of Move 2, two excerpts of *M2S1: Summarizing main findings* are selected as examples below:

(53) *5.1 Major Findings*
In the report, the author, guided by the Skopos Theory, through the case analysis, gets the following findings: firstly, on the lexical level, attention should be paid to people's names, companies' name, archaic English words and legal English terminologies ---. Secondly, on the syntactic level, we should pay great attention to the long and complex sentences---. Thirdly, on the textual level, we should try to make the style of language be the same as the SL text. (IPR- C-23)

(54) *5.1 Major Findings*
Hopefully, the findings of this interpreting practice could be useful for other interpreters who may need to accomplish similar task in the future, ------. (IPR-C-7)

Move 3: *Evaluating* the practice task

Move 3 provides an assessment on the translation/interpretation practice task by presenting the *evaluation*, stating the significance, and acknowledging the limitations. It has a similar function to that of *Evaluating the study* move in RAs Conclusions that justifies the value of the study (Yang & Allison, 2003). This move usually realized through the three steps below.

M3S1: Making evaluation

M3S1 presents the evaluation on a translation/interpretation practice task through the client's feedback or the reporter's self-assessment. Hence, the step is marked by the frequent use of nouns such as "*evaluation*", "*assessment*", and "*feedback*" or by the employment of a set of antonymy such as "*advantages*" and "*disadvantages*", "*merit*" and "*demerit*" which indicates the strong and weak aspects in the task.

M3S2: Claiming significance

M3S2 states the values or benefits that a translation/interpretation practice task has brought to the real world or to the academic field. This step has a similar function to that of the step *Indicating significance* postulated by Yang and Allison (2003) to reach the communicative purpose of the move of *Evaluating the study* in RAs Conclusions. Hence, the attributive adjectives such "*useful*", "*effective*", "*essential*", "*important*" and "*significant*" are often used to indicate the positive meaning of a task.

M3S3: Stating limitations

With *M3S3*, the reporter acknowledges the drawbacks and defects in the translation/interpretation work and performance. The function of this step can be equivalent to that of the step *Indicating limitation* for RAs Conclusion (Yang & Allison, 2003). Given that the TPR and the IPR are reports, *M3S3* has a similar function to that of the Move *Noting limitation* in laboratory report Conclusions (Parkinson, 2017). As for the features of this step, except for the use of nouns such as "*shortcoming*" and "*deficiency*" and the adjective such as "*imperfect*" that aim to point out the drawbacks of a practice task, the noun "*limitation*" is highly employed as the key word to indicate the communicative purpose of this step.

To illustrate the function of Move 3, two excerpts of *M3S3: Stating limitations* are selected as examples below:

(55) *5.3 Limitations*
The report and the translated version are inevitably imperfect because of some limitations. Firstly, ---. Secondly, ---. Thirdly, ---. (IPR-C-23)
(56) *However, there are also some limitations.*
1) ---; 2) ---; 3) ---. (IPR-C-7)

Move 4: *Deducting* from the practice task

Move 4 has the communicative purposes to state what a translation/ interpretation practice task has contributed to the existing knowledge in the world and in the field. The function of this move can be equal to that of the move *Deductions from the research* in RAs Conclusions (Yang & Allison, 2003). Two steps are usually employed to realize this move, namely *Making suggestions* and *Providing pedagogical implications*.

M4S1:* Making *suggestions

M4S1 functions to make recommendations for the future translation/ interpretation. To a certain degree, it plays a role of "experience sharing" since a translator's or an interpreter's professional competence is heavily influenced by the amount of the knowledge and experience accumulated from various translation/ interpretation practice activities. Therefore, the function of this step is similar to that of the move *Making suggestions for improvements* that suggests how to redress the limitations in the future work in laboratory report Conclusions (Parkinson, 2017). This step is characterized by the use of the boosters such as "*must*" and hedges such as "*should*" in making suggestions. Correspondingly, the syntactic structure of "*the translator/interpreter + should/must + do*" is used frequently to make suggestions in this step.

M4S2: Providing pedagogical implications

The purpose of this step aims to state the meaning of a practice task to the teaching, the learning, and the practice in the translation/interpretation field. That is how a practice report enlightens educators, learners, researchers, and practitioners in the MTI domain. Hence, the verbs such as "*hope*", "*expect*", and "*wish*" are often used to signal the pedagogical meaning of a practice task that the reporter (translator/interpreter) expects.

To demonstrate the function of Move 4, two excerpts of *M4S1: Making suggestions* are selected as examples below:

(57) *Therefore, the translator <u>should</u> lay great importance on loyalty to the source text and historical events when translating the historical material. Since the text has some special terms, a terminology glossary <u>should</u> be made to ensure the coherence of the translation. (IPR-C-9)*

(58) *A qualified interpreter <u>must</u> have qualities to master and apply two languages proficiently. ------. Besides, the interpreter <u>should</u> concentrate 100% no matter what technical problems or unforeseen circumstances happen. The interpreter <u>should</u> try to stay relaxed and confidence. ------. (IPR-C-24)*

4.7.2 Variations of the Discourse Structures between the TPR Conclusions and the IPR Conclusions

As Figure 4.6 shows, the discourse structures of the Conclusion unit in the two subdisciplines present much similarities regarding their move frequencies and status. Specifically, the most obvious similarity was found in Move 2. This move had a similar frequency of occurrence in both of the two subdisciplines, accounting for 100% in the TPR-C and 96.7% in the IPR-C, respectively. The same obligatory move status in the two subdisciplines indicates that the communicative purpose of making a summary has to be contained in the Conclusion unit in the two subdisciplines. This finding was confirmed by one translation student (S2)' s response in the interview who stated that

> *"making a summary for the practice task conducted or for the whole report in the last chapter is a requirement for both the translation and interpretation students from the writing manual provided by the degree committee of my university.*

The second similarity can be identified in Move 3, which showed the similar frequency of occurrence (70% in TPR-C and 66.7% in the IPR-C) and the same conventional status in both of the two subdisciplines. It can be inferred that most of the translation and interpretation students tend to evaluate what they have done in their practice reports.

The last similarity can be found in Move 4, which had the similar frequency of occurrence (76.7% in TPR-C and 63.3% in the IPR-C) and the same conventional status between the two subdisciplines. In line with the opinion that "genres are the property of discourse communities" (Flowerdew, 2015, p.103), the similarities aforementioned can be attributed to the community-based nature of genres (Hyland, 2008). Since the TPR Conclusions and the IPR Conclusions are written by Chinese students in the MTI domain to conclude the translation/interpretation practice task in their reports, they are the same "community products" that would share some similarities in their overall discourse structures.

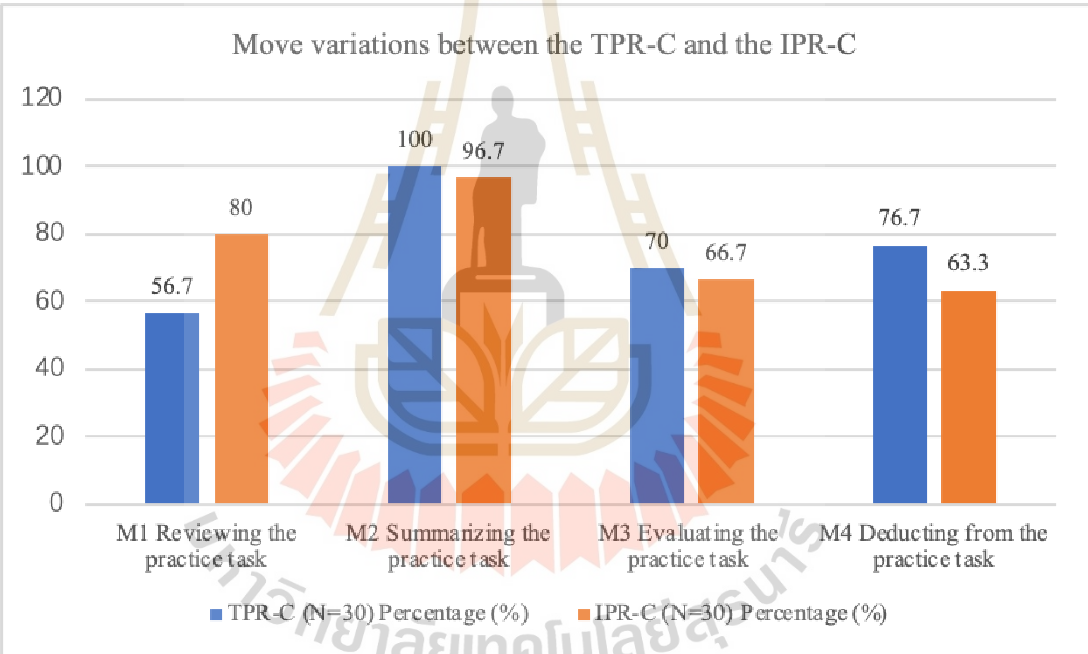


Figure 4.6 Variations of moves between the TPR Conclusions and the IPR Conclusions

As for the differences at the move level, only one discrepancy can be found in Move 1, which had a conventional status (56.7%) in the translation subdiscipline but an obligatory status (80%) in the interpretation subdiscipline. This discrepancy could be caused by the disciplinary variations (Hyland, 2008). That is, although the TPR

Conclusions and the IPR Conclusions are reports produced in the same genre community, they are different in their subdiscipline's orientations: reporting on translation or on interpretation. Besides, due to the market-oriented feature of an interpretation, the interpretation students tend to stress the practical value of their tasks again by reviewing the basic information in the tasks. This point was strengthened by Supervisor B in the interview who said that

> *"in MTI, interpretation subdiscipline is more market*-oriented *than the translation subdiscipline. The social and the market value of an interpretation task are usually presented in the form of its type, its source, and its interpretation procedures. Therefore, it is not difficult to understand that interpretation students prefer to emphasize those factors again through reviewing at the end of their reports.*

In sum, with the end of this section, the discourse structures of the Conclusion unit, the last section in the TPR and the IPR, is described. Next section will move to the summary of the chapter.

4.8 Summary

In this chapter, based on the research results of the corpus-based move analysis of 30 TPR texts and 30 IPR texts, the discourse structures of the TPR and of the IPR are described and discussed firstly. The macro-discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR were found to include six organizational units. To facilitate the understanding of the genre-specific discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR, 29 moves and 84 steps were identified in the six units. The communicative purposes, moves, and their constituent steps that are identified in each unit are reported and discussed in this chapter.

Additionally, this chapter also revealed and discussed the variations between the TPR and the IPR based on the frequencies of occurrence and status of moves. In general, the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR present much similarities from the macro-discourse structure level to the move level. However, some discrepancies in the discourse structures between the TPR and the IPR are also found in both of the macro-discourse structure level and the move level.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE CORPUS-BASED STANCE INVESTIGATION IN THE TPR AND THE IPR

This chapter intends to report and discuss the results of the corpus-based stance investigation in the Translation Practice Report (TPR) and the Interpretation Practice Report (IPR). It aims to answer RQ3 and RQ4 in the current study. That is, (3) what are the stance features, in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, in the TPR and the IPR? and (4) how are stance features in the TPR similar to or different from those in the IPR?

Firstly, the stance features in the TPR and the IPR are addressed by reporting and discussing the descriptive results of the quantitative stance distribution. Secondly, the stance variations between the TPR and the IPR are examined by making a quantitative comparison of the normalized frequency of each category of stance between the two subdisciplines, and by qualitatively exploring the functional similarities and differences of the most prevalent stance markers in each category through offering excerpts in their actual contexts. Meanwhile, the information from the interview is excerpted to offer the informants' insights into some particular findings when these two research aspects are discussed.

Specifically, this chapter is organized in the order of the six organizational units (i.e. the six sets of sub-corpora) in the TPR and the IPR after the overall stance features in the TPR corpus and in the IPR corpus are presented.

Three points are worth noting before starting this Chapter:

(1) except for Section 5.1, the specific raw number, percentage, and frequency of the four categories of stance were intentionally omitted to reduce the length of the whole dissertation. However, they are presented in corresponding Tables and Figures;

(2) when providing examples, the mistakes in the excerpts are students' own, so they are presented as they are;

(3) to provide a context in which stance items were annotated and classified following the list of stance markers adapted from Hyland (2005), one specific example is provided in Appendix O.

5.1 Overall Stance in the TPR and the IPR

5.1.1 The Overall Stance Features in the TPR Corpus and the IPR Corpus

Table 5.1 shows the raw number, the percentage, and the normalized frequency of each category of stance. Totally, 7,421 stance items were annotated within 174,469 tokens in the TPR corpus, and 9,927 stance items were identified within 200,197 tokens in the IPR corpus. Among the four categories of stance, self-mention was annotated with the highest number in both corpora, accounting for 2,612 out of 174,469 (35.2%) in the TPR corpus and 4,130 out of 200,197 (41.6%) in the IPR corpus.

Hedges ranked as the second-highest category of stance, comprising 2,557 out of 174,469 (34.5%) and 3,304 out of 200,197 (33.3%), respectively. Boosters were the third one in both corpora, demonstrating 1,191 out of 174,469 (16.0%) in TPR corpus and 1,357 out of 200,197 (13.7%) in IPR corpus, respectively. Attitude markers showed the lowest number in both corpora, covering 1,018 out of 174,469 (13.7%) in TPR corpus and 1,136 out of 200,197 (11.4 %) in IPR corpus, respectively.

Table 5.1 The overall stance distribution in the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus

Corpus	N	Word Tokens		Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mention	Total
			Raw Number	2,557	1,191	1,018	2,612	7,421
TPR	30	174,469	%	34.5	16.0	13.7	35.2	100.0
			PTW	14.7	6.8	5.8	15	42.5
			Raw Number	3,304	1,357	1,136	4,130	9,927
IPR	30	200,197	%	33.3	13.7	11.4	41.6	100.0
			PTW	16.5	6.8	5.7	20.6	49.6

Note: N=the number of texts; %= percentage out of all stance items; PTW= Normalized frequency per 1,000 words

As can be seen above, the overall quantitative stance distribution in the TPR and the IPR demonstrated that self-mention had the highest percentage, followed by hedges, boosters, and attitude markers. This stance distribution shows an obvious genre-specific feature, which is greatly affected by the nature of the reporting genre. In the current study, the TPR and the IPR are reports that give an account on a translation/interpretation practice task, with the communicative functions to describe its background, purposes, procedures, problems, techniques, and implications (Huang 2012). Besides, they are practice-based reports rather than research reports on empirical study. Constrained by the generic nature of reports which are characterized by the presence of the reporter and the descriptive and informative language in the text, as a consequence, self-mention had the highest distributional percentage and attitude markers presented the lowest one in both corpora.

In addition, this stance distribution is affected by the community conventions in the MTI field since “stance is a community-influenced construct” (Jiang & Hyland, 2015, p.530). Both the TPR and the IPR in the current study are master’s theses that are written by Chinese students to satisfy the degree requirement in the program of the Master of Translation and Interpretation (MTI). The stance strategies in both the TPR and the IPR were constrained by the conventions in the MTI community. As a result, hedges had the second-high percentage and boosters were in third place because the student translators/interpreters in the MTI field tended to hedge their voice more to show their respect to the authoritative knowledge from the degree committee.

Therefore, it is not difficult to see that the stance frequencies in both the TPR and the IPR were different from those in the genres on empirical studies in other communities (Hyland,1999, 2005; Hyland and Tse, 2004; Lancaster, 2016). As seen in Table 5.1, the frequencies of self-mention in both of the TPR and the IPR were almost 4 times higher than that in RAs across the eight disciplines in Hyland’s study of stance and engagement (2005). Similarly, these frequencies were much higher than those in master’s dissertations across the six disciplines (Hyland & Tse, 2004) and that in RAs in disciplines of Economy and Political Theory (Lancaster, 2016). This contrastive difference could be attributed to the generic feature of the reports that the reporter's (translator's/interpreter's) presence is a part of writing. Especially, the writers for the TPR and the IPR are the actual translators/interpreters of the practice, self-mention was more visible in their writing as a consequence.

As for hedges, their frequencies were close to that of hedges in RAs across the eight disciplines (Hyland, 2005), and they were also similar to the frequency of hedges in the RAs in Hyland's (1999) study on the writer's stance in different disciplines. Since hedges are usually adopted to refrain the author from making a complete commitment to a proposition (Hu & Cao 2011, Hyland 1999, 2005, Lewin, 2005), this finding suggested that Chinese students in the MTI field would utilize the similar number of hedges to reduce their complete certainty in expressing their assessments, opinions towards the translation/interpretation materials, propositions in the TPR and the IPR. However, the frequencies of hedges in the TPR and the IPR were higher than that in master's dissertations written by L2 postgraduate students from the five Hong Kong universities (Hyland & Tse, 2004). This would indicate that the number of hedges was also affected by the genre type and the community context.

With regard to boosters, their frequencies were higher than that in RAs across the eight disciplines (Hyland, 2005), and were much higher than that in master's dissertations written by postgraduates in the Hong Kong universities (Hyland & Tse, 2004). This implied that the Chinese students in the MTI field deployed greater extent linguistic devices to facilitate their confident voice in writing the TPR and the IPR than the academics and the postgraduate students in other communities.

In terms of attitude markers, they were least employed in both of the TPR and the IPR. Their frequencies were lower than that in RAs (Hyland, 2005). However, they were higher than those in master's dissertations written by postgraduates in Hong Kong universities (Hyland & Tse, 2004). This could infer that the Chinese students in the MTI field expressed fewer attitudes than the academics in RAs but more than the postgraduates in their dissertations. This was possible because of the generic nature of the report in the TPR and the IPR that emphasizes more on describing the translation/interpretation practice informatively than on expressing attitudes or feelings towards it affectively.

5.1.2 The Overall Stance Variations Between the TPR Corpus and the IPR Corpus

As shown in Figure 5.1, both similarities and differences can be found in terms of the normalized frequency of each category of stance between the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus. As for similarities, it is first worth noting that the overall stance distribution showed a similar trend in both of the two corpora. That is, self-mention had the highest frequency, followed by hedges, boosters, and attitude markers. The second obvious similarity is that boosters were annotated with the exact same frequency in both of the two corpora. The last similarity is that attitude markers revealed similar frequencies in both of the corpora.

Regarding those similarities above, they can be greatly attributed to the community-based nature of genres (Hyland, 2008). Since both of the TPR and the IPR are reports with similar communicative purposes in the same MTI community in China, stance distribution would demonstrate an overall similar quantitative trend. This is in line with the opinion that the same genre would follow similar writing conventions confined by the genre community (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1990, 2004). Correspondingly, constrained by the genre nature of the TPR and the IPR that serves the communicative purposes to report the translation/interpretation practice, both boosters and attitude markers had similar frequencies in both of the two corpora.

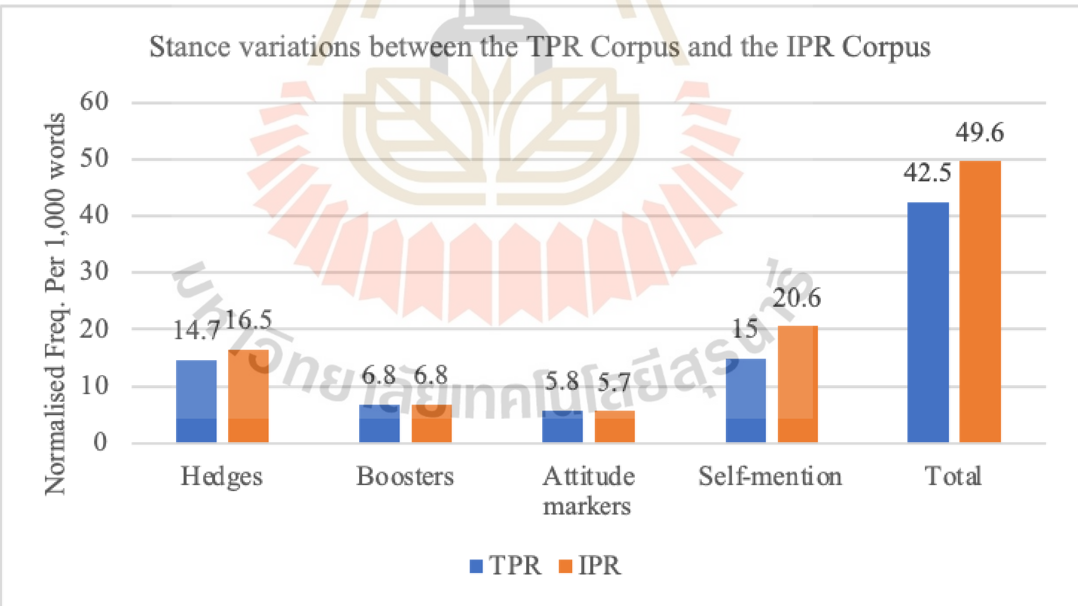


Figure 5.1 Frequency of each category of stance in the TPR Corpus and the IPR Corpus

However, two discrepancies can also be found between the two corpora. Firstly, the IPR corpus held higher frequency of stance than the TPR corpus did. Secondly, self-mention and hedges were more frequently employed in the IPR corpus than those in the TPR corpus, respectively.

Those differences can be largely caused by disciplinary variations (Hyland, 1999, 2000, 2005). Although both of the TPR and the IPR are reports in the same MTI community, they are two sub-types of master's theses that are written by students in the two different subdisciplines. Thus, they report the practice based on the two different activities respectively, i.e. translation and interpretation. Since "translation refers to the rendering of a source-language text into the target-language" (Kettunen, 2017, p. 38), it is a kind of activity between the texts. However, interpretation is the "communicative act of reproducing orally in a target language what a speaker is expressing in a source language" (Riccardi, 2002, p.75), which is a type of communicative activity between humans. As a consequence, it can be inferred that more interaction is involved in the interpretation activity than in the translation activity. Besides, since "stance concerns writer-oriented features of interaction" (Hyland, 2005, p.178), students in the interpretation subdiscipline employed more stance items to construct the interaction in their reports than their counterparts in the translation subdiscipline did. Similarly, the presence of the "actor" in constructing the interaction between human beings would involve more self-mentions in the IPR than in the TPR. In the same vein, considering that hedges are "writer's decision to withhold complete commitment to a proposition, allowing information to be presented as an opinion rather than accredited fact" (Hyland, 2005, p. 178), the interpretation students used more hedges to facilitate the interaction in their reports by toning down their views on the interpretation materials and knowledge than the translation students did.

Besides, apart from the variations in the quantitative distribution of the four categories of stance in the TPR corpus and the IPR corpus, the similarities and the differences can also be revealed from the prevalent stance items in each unit between the two corpora. Table 5.2 presents the top five stance markers annotated in the six units of the TPR and the IPR. It provides an overall picture of the most frequently used stance items, in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, in each unit between the two subdisciplines. As for the qualitative use of those prominent stance items, it will be presented and discussed in the subsequent sections.

Table 5.2 The top five stance markers in the six units in the TPR and in the IPR

	Hedges		Boosters		Attitude markers		Self-mentions	
	TPR	IPR	TPR	IPR	TPR	IPR	TPR	IPR
Abstract	should can mainly typical could	might mostly relatively simply somewhat	must clear in fact know undoubtedly	finds believe found know demonstrates	important significant great practical even	important effective hope appropriate essential	the author the translator the writer our the author's	the author the interpreter the author's she the writer
Introduction	can mainly should would typical	can could should mainly would	will always believe believes clearly	always must will known proves	important great hope even interesting	great practical important significance even	the translator the author our I the writer	the author the interpreter I the author's my
Task Description	can should mainly certain may	can should may mainly about	will must show always really	will must always really actually	even important great practical significance	even important great significance clear	the author the translator my we I	the author the interpreter she I the author's
Process Description	should can mainly may generally	should would can may could	will know must find certain	must know will always find	important clear great appropriate common	great important even essential easily	the author the translator I We my	the author the interpreter I she we
Case Analysis	can should would usually often	should can would could may	will know must find show	will know must always find	important clear even common great	important even clear common great	the translator the author we I the writer	the interpreter the author she I we
Conclusion	should can may could might	should can may could would	must find will know always	will must always found never	important great significance appropriate effective	important practical great even effective	the translator the author we I my	the author the interpreter I she the author's

In sum, with an overall view on the stance features in the TPR and the IPR and the variations between the two closely related subdisciplines, the features and the variations of stance in each of the six organizational units (the six sets of sub-corpora) will be examined one by one in the following sections. It is expected to reveal the stance features and the disciplinary variations of stance in different units with varied communicative purposes.

5.2 Stance in the Abstract Unit

5.2.1 Stance Features in the TPR-A and the IPR-A

Table 5.3 offers the descriptive result of the quantitative distribution of stance in the TPR-A and the IPR-A. It shows that self-mention was annotated with the highest percentage, followed by hedges, attitude markers, and boosters. This stance distributional feature is not only influenced by the generic nature of the reports but also affected by the communicative purposes of abstracts.

Table 5.3 Stance distribution in the TPR-A and the IPR-A

Corpus	N	Word Tokens		Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mention	Total
			Raw Number	94	19	58	125	296
TPR-A	30	8,738	%	31.8	6.5	19.4	42.1	100
			PTW	10.8	2.2	6.6	14.3	33.9
			Raw Number	73	17	28	163	281
IPR-A	30	8,699	%	26.0	6.2	9.9	57.9	100.
			PTW	8.4	2.0	3.2	18.7	32.3

Note: N=the number of texts; %= percentage out of all stance items; PTW= Normalized frequency per 1,000 words

In the current study, the abstract in either the TPR or in the IPR is a piece of short and concise source information for a type of reporting genre. Its communicative purposes are to account the translation/interpretation practice descriptively rather than to claim propositions through reporting the research process in RAs on empirical studies. Consequently, the distribution of the four categories of stance in the TPR abstracts and the IPR abstracts demonstrated a different trend from that in RAs abstracts in the field of Applied Linguistics in which hedges were mostly used (Gillaerts & Van de Velde 2010). It suggested that the abstracts in different genres would lead to the different distribution of stance. Additionally, this stance distribution was also different from that in the dentistry reports in which hedges had the largest proportion, followed by boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention (Crosthwaite, Cheung & Jiang, 2017). It indicates that the abstracts in the reporting genre but in the different communities would show different stance distributions.

In terms of the normalized frequency of each category of stance, self-mention had much higher frequencies than those in the dentist research reports (Crosthwaite, Cheung & Jiang, 2017). The reason could be the fact that the high involvement of the translator/interpreter in the translation/interpretation practice led to the high presence of "*the translator*" or "*the interpreter*" in the abstracts. Since self-mention can deliver the writers' "persona" (Hyland, 2005), the apparent self-mention in the leading part of the TPR and the IPR, to some extent, can enhance the trustworthiness of the abstracts by mentioning explicitly the "actors" of the translation/interpretation practice. The information from the interview also strengthened this point. One translation student (S2) claimed *"using 'the translator' as self-reference to write the abstract helps the examiners to see what I have done in the actual translation practice task at the beginning of the thesis."*

As for hedges, their normalized frequencies were close to the frequency of hedges in RAs abstracts in Applied Linguistics (Gillaerts & Van de Velde 2010). It might imply that the students in the MTI field would hold their commitment to the propositions in their abstracts as much as the academics in the field of Applied Linguistics. However, it was found that the normalized frequencies of hedges were much higher than those in the research reports written by the learner dentists and by the professional dentists. This suggests that the students in the MTI field would tone down their certainty more than the writers in the medical fields when expressing their opinions toward the translation/interpretation practice in the abstracts.

As for attitude markers, the frequency in the TPR-A is lower than that in Applied Linguistics RA abstracts, but the frequency in the IPR-A is higher than that in Applied Linguistics RA abstracts (Gillaerts & Van de Velde 2010). It could be inferred that the Chinese translation students in the MTI field expressed fewer attitudes in the abstracts than the academics in the field of Applied Linguistics, but the interpretation students were found to have a reversed tendency. Additionally, it was found that the frequencies of attitude markers were still much higher than those in the dentist research reports (Crosthwaite, Cheung & Jiang, 2017). This is possible because that the disciplinary differences would influence the extent of writers' attitudes expressed in the writing.

However, it was interesting to find that the frequencies of boosters were much lower than that of RA abstracts in Applied Linguistics, which is contrary to the traditional view that boosters were greatly used in the abstracts of empirical studies to claim the researchers' proposition and to display the research results (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010). The main reason is that the abstracts in both the TPR and the IPR are informative writing with the purposes to provide a condensed summary of the whole report descriptively rather than proposing the propositions via more boosters. Besides, the institutional context in the MTI field would also constrain the use of boosters. Since boosters increase the illocutionary force of speech act (Holms 1984), students might use them with caution for the sake of politeness given their role as the examinees.

5.2.2 Stance Variations Between the TPR-A and the IPR-A

As Figure 5.2 shows, the overall use of stance displayed a similar frequency in terms of the total number in the two subdisciplines. Also, both the two corpora demonstrated a similar tendency in employing the four categories of stance. That is, self-mention was the most frequently used stance, followed by hedges, attitude markers, and boosters.

Concerning the similarities revealed above, they can be largely attributed to the similar communicative purposes in the TPR abstracts and the IPR abstracts. As an independent genre, the abstract is often taken as a miniature reflection of the full-length articles or theses. Both the TPR abstracts and the IPR abstracts are no exception since they provide a brief summary of the whole translation/interpretation practice report.

The language in them is descriptive, informative, and objective, and the contents in them are highly full of the reporter's presence, which serves for the communicative purposes of offering an informative and promotive leading for the whole report. All these features, to some extent, constrain the use of each category of stance in the TPR-A and the IPR-A.

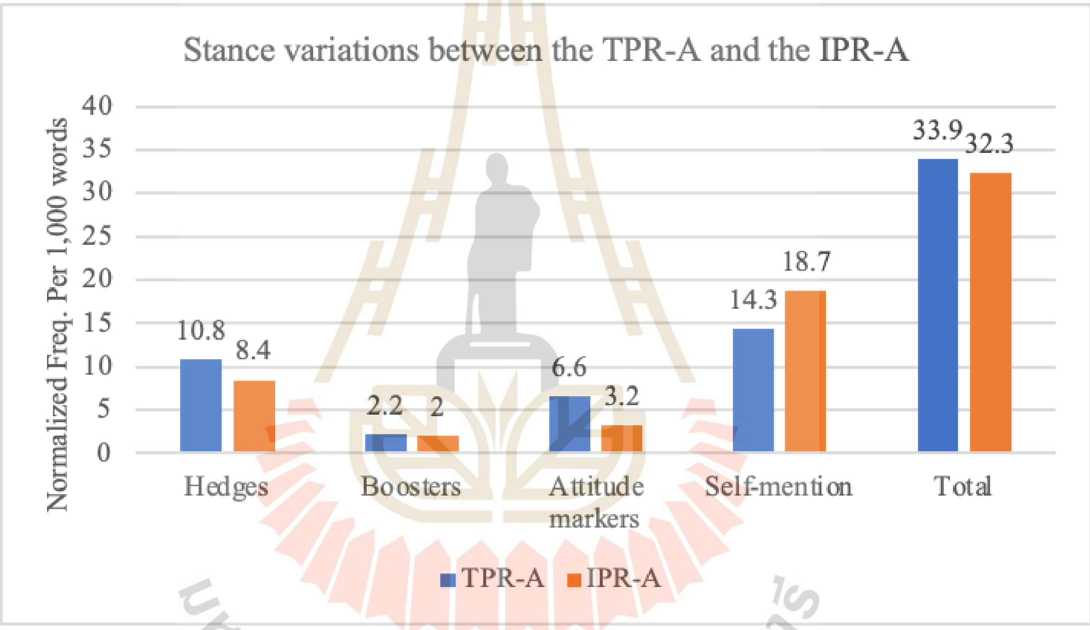


Figure 5.2 Frequency of each category of stance in the TPR-A and the IPR-A

However, two differences exist between the TPR-A and the IPR-A. One obvious difference was in the frequencies of the four categories of stance. It can be seen that hedges, boosters, and attitude markers were more frequently used in the TPR-A than in the IPR-A, while self-mention was less frequently employed in the TPR-A than in the IPR-A. Another distinctive difference was displayed in the use of attitude markers. The frequency of attitude markers in the TPR-A was a double for that in the IPR-A.

Although those two differences are not significant, they are mainly caused by the disciplinary conventions in abstracts of the two subdisciplines. According to Hyland (2005), the stance is a "discipline-situated" device, writers in different disciplines present themselves, deliver the epistemic assessments and attitudes in different ways. In the current study, the TPR abstracts and the IPR abstracts are written by the students in the two subdisciplines. The translation students are assumed to have a variety of vocabulary because of their large amount of daily translation work, while the interpretation students use more colloquial vocabulary due to their daily practice in the form of oral "translation". Consequently, this possibly caused the higher frequencies of hedges, boosters, and attitude markers in the TPR abstracts than in the IPR abstracts. As aforementioned, the lower frequency of self-mention in the TPR-A than that in the IPR-A is influenced by the fact that the translation activity is less interactive than the interpretation activity. Last, the higher frequency of attitude markers in the TPR-A than that in the IPR-A can be explained by the fact that the translation students would like to describe more about the reason for selecting the source text by employing the epistemic adjectives (e.g. "*important*") than the interpretation students in their abstracts to prove the value of their translation practice.

Apart from the variations in the quantitative distribution of the four categories of stance, the similarities and the differences can also be found in the use of the prevalent stance items. Table 5.4 presents the top five stance markers in the unit of Abstract in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention.

Table 5.4 The top five stance markers in the unit of Abstract

Hedges		Boosters	
TPR-A	**IPR-A**	**TPR-A**	**IPR-A**
should (3.0)	mainly (1.8)	must (0.3)	finds (0.6)
can (1.6)	can (1.5)	in fact (0.2)	believe (0.2)
typical (0.9)	should (1.4)	clear (0.2)	found (0.2)
mainly (0.8)	could (0.6)	know (0.2)	know (0.2)
could (0.5)	somewhat (0.2)	undoubtedly (0.2)	demonstrates (0.2)
Attitude markers		**Self-mentions**	
TPR-A	**IPR-A**	**TPR-A**	**IPR-A**
important (1.5)	important (1.0)	the author (5.6)	the author (12.0)
significance (1.3)	effective (0.7)	the translator (4.8)	the interpreter (3.6)
great (1.1)	hope (0.5)	the writer (1.3)	the author's (1.5)
practical (0.7)	appropriate (0.2)	our (0.6)	she (0.6)
even (0.5)	essential (0.2)	the author's (0.6)	the writer (0.5)

Note: The figure in the parentheses indicates the normalized frequency, which is calculated on the formula "*Number of instances in the subcorpus / total number of words in the subcorpus* × *1,000*".

Hedges

The modality "*should*" was most frequently used by the students in the translation subdisciplines to express their conditional epistemological opinions about their practice work in the Abstract unit, while the adverb "*mainly*" was the most frequently adopted hedge by the students in the interpretation subdisciplines to "withhold complete commitment to a proposition" (Hyland, 2005, p. 178) in Abstract unit. In Excerpt (1), the translation students hedged their suggestions for future translation practices by utilizing the modal world "*should*" to create a cautious stance.

In Excerpt (2), the adverb "*mainly*" was employed to reduce the reporter's certainty in the opinion through limiting the range of the causes for the interpretation mistakes.

(1) *---, translators not only* ***should*** *make the translation faithful to the source text ---. (TPR-A-21)*

(2) *This report concludes that major mistakes in the author's interpreting practice are ---, which are* ***mainly*** *resulted from the lack of ---. (IPR-A-4)*

Besides, the modal "*can*" was used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to indicate that the claim is "opinion rather than accredited fact" (Hyland, 2005, p. 178) when they realized the communicative purposes of offering the pedagogical implications in the abstracts. Excerpts (3) and (4) are provided as examples.

(3) *It is hoped that this report* ***can*** *inspire translators --- and offer some referential value. (TPR-A-17)*

(4) *The author also hopes that this report* ***can*** *provide some references for those who conduct the work of TCM interpreting in the future. (IPR-A-16)*

However, it is interesting to find that, among the top five hedge wordings, "*somewhat*" was solely annotated in the IPR-A despite of its low frequency (Excerpt 5). This indicates that the interpretation students sometimes used the colloquial hedges. This point is supported by the information obtained from Supervisor A in the interview that the interpretation students would present a colloquial language style in their writing due to their daily spoken language practice.

(5) --- *suggestions in this paper are* ***somewhat*** *useful for further practices. (IPR-A-1)*

Boosters

Since "boosters are used to strengthen a claim, or to close off alternative voice" (Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010, p. 131), the translation students preferred to use "*must*" to claim their understanding about the necessary qualities in the translation practice. In Excerpts (6), the pattern of the "*must + cognitive verb*" such as "*must know*" and "*must understand*" was frequently used by the translation students to strengthen their claims in realizing the communicative function of reflecting on the practice in abstracts.

(6) *In order to translate biographical articles skillfully and properly, translators* ***must*** *know the features of* such *articles. (TPR-A-8)*

In addition, in Excerpt (7), the booster "*in fact*" was preferred by the translation students to point out the limitation of the previous translation work when realizing the communicative function of providing the rationale for the tasks. In the interview, the translation students agreed that "*in fact*" in Chinese has a connotation of emphasizing the truth of knowledge, which was usually employed to strengthen the certainty in claims.

(7) *---, and* ***in fact****, most of these translators still use the experience and methods of translating nonlegal texts to translate contract texts. (TPR-A-1)*

However, the interpretation students would like to boost their claims about the key elements in the interpretation practice through deploying the epistemic verbs such as "*finds*", "*believe*", and "*know*". In Excerpt (8), an interpretation student confirmed his/her views with certainty when reaching the communicative purpose of summarizing the practice.

(8) *The writer **finds** that three phases, ---, need to be given equal attention. (IPR-A-15)*

Attitude Markers

According to Hyland (2005), attitude markers express the writer's attitude toward the materials or truth of the knowledge in academic writing. In the unit of Abstract, the adjective "*important*" is the most common option for the students in the two subdisciplines to express their epistemic attitudes towards the practice task. In Excerpt (9), a translation student's attitude towards the importance of the report was delivered by adopting the attitude marker "*important*" when indicating the purpose of the report. In Excerpt (10), the attitude to the value of an interpretation practice was also realized via the attitude marker "*important*" by an interpretation student in the Abstract.

(9) *The thesis aims to present the **important** differences between human translation and machine translation in the context of ---. (TPR-A-7)*

(10) *International conference is one **important** platform for the communication and exchanges. (IPR-A-14)*

However, the attitude markers such as "*significance*", "*great*" and "*practical*" were found to be specific in the TPR-A. One possible reason accounting for this is that the translation students preferred to provide the rationale for the translation task, which is one of the communicative purposes in the unit of Abstract, through expressing their attitudinal stance to the significance of the translation practice. On the contrary, the interpretation students would like to use the attitude markers such as "*effective*" "*appropriate*", and "*essential*" to underscore the value of one type of the interpretation practice task to reach this communicative purpose. Excerpt (11) and Excerpt (12) are provided as two examples.

(11) *Contracts belong to the category of legal texts, ---, which are of* ***great significance*** *for the smooth cooperation of both sides. (TPR-A-1)*
(12) *In this way,* ***effective*** *and* ***appropriate*** *interpreting of food culture proves to be most significant for foreign exchanges. (IPR-A-22)*

Self-mention

It can be seen that "*the author*" was the most frequently used self-mention in both of the two sub-corpora. Influenced by Chinese writing convention that "*the author*" is always used to summarize the whole paper in abstracts to show the objectivity, "*the author*" rather than the singular pronoun "*I*" was frequently employed by the students in the MTI field to summarize their practice work in abstracts. Excerpts (13) and (14) are offered as examples.

(13) *In this report,* ***the author*** *employs the method of Excerpt analysis to discuss and explore the translation techniques in long English sentences. (TPR-A-20)*
(14) *---,* ***the author*** *analyzed the difficulties in TCM interpreting from the perspective of interpretation learners. (IPR-A-16)*

Most importantly, a striking finding about the prevalent self-mentions in the TPR-A and in the IPR-A is that "*the translator*" and "*the interpreter*" are found to be discipline-specific. That is, "*the translator*" was only used by the translation students, while "*the interpreter*" was solely employed by the interpretation students in abstracts

(Excerpts 15 and 16). For this point, all four students in the interview said that "*the translator*" and "*the interpreter*" were very often used to write their abstracts because they are the actual "translator" and "interpreter" in the task.

(15) *After finishing the translation task, **the translato**r has gained a deeper understanding to the explanatory power of Relevance Theory and ---. (TPR-A-29)*
(16) ***The interpreter** wishes this report could be helpful for interpreters who need to finish similar tasks in the future. (IPR-A-7)*

The next section will move to the stance features in the unit of Introduction of TPR and the IPR.

5.3 Stance in the Introduction Unit

5.3.1 Stance Features in the TPR-I and the IPR-I

As Table 5.5 shows, the quantitative stance distribution in the unit of Introduction presented that self-mention occupied the highest percentage, followed by hedges, attitude markers, and boosters. This stance distributional feature is also constrained by the generic nature of the reports and the communicative purposes in this unit.

Table 5.5 Stance distribution in the TPR-I and the IPR-I

Corpus	N	Word Tokens		Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mention	Total
			Raw Number	181	86	94	205	566
TPR-I	23	17,265	%	32.0	15.2	16.6	36.2	100
			PTW	10.5	5.0	5.4	11.9	31.6
			Raw Number	111	29	67	135	342
IPR-I	18	10,428	%	32.5	8.5	19.6	39.5	100
			PTW	10.6	2.8	6.4	12.9	32.7

Note: N=the number of texts; %= percentage out of all stance items; PTW= Normalized frequency per 1,000 words

Constrained by the generic nature of the reports, the unit of Introduction is also featured by the high involvement of the reporter (translator/interpreter), which led to the prevalence of self-mention. This finding is greatly contrary to the result that self-mention was used minimally by the professionals in the Introduction section of the dentistry research reports (Crosthwaite, Cheung & Jiang, 2017). This contrastive difference could heavily be influenced by the generic feature of the TPR or the IPR that is a report that recounts a translation/interpretation student's own practice.

Additionally, as the first section in the TPR and the IPR, the Introduction unit has the communicative purposes to introduce the translation/interpretation practice task through describing the task background, the task rationale, the task contents, and the task significance. Constrained by the communicative purposes in this unit, hedges were also frequently employed by the students to tone down their opinions in introducing others' work because the section of Introduction is considered the one "where the stance of others is likely to be hedged" (Crosthwaite, Cheung & Jiang, 2017). Specifically, hedges in both of the TPR and the IPR showed the similar frequencies with those revealed in other genres (Hyland,1999, 2005, Hyland & Tse, 2004; Lancaster, 2016). It can be inferred that the similar extent of hedges was adopted to limit the translator's/interpreter's complete commitment to the propositional opinions in introducing the translation/interpretation practice.

As for attitude markers in the unit of Introduction, their frequencies were close to the range of attitude markers found in the soft disciplines by Hyland (1999) because both of the TPR and the IPR can be categorized as the soft disciplines according to Becher and Trowler (2001).

However, boosters had the lowest frequency in both sub-corpora. This was possibly caused by the fact that the main communicative purpose of the unit of Introduction in both of the TPR and the IPR is to introduce a translation/interpretation practice task instead of to booster a translator's or an interpreter's propositional positions. Also, the quantitative use of the booster was affected by the institutional context. As novice learners in the MTI field, students would limit the total commitment into their assertation on the translation and the interpretation findings and express their attitudes towards the alternative opinions by using fewer boosters in their introductions, which help them show their respect to the authoritative knowledge.

5.3.2 Stance Variations Between the TPR-I and the IPR-I

As Figure 5.3 shows, the most obvious similarity is that both of the two sub-corpora held the same stance distribution trend. That is, self-mention covered the highest frequency, followed by hedges, attitude markers, and boosters. This can be attributed to the community-based nature of genres (Hyland, 2008) and the similar communicative purposes in the unit of Introduction. That is, the students in the MTI field who have the similar linguistic and rhetorical competence would present a similar extent in employing the four categories of stance to write the Introduction unit that has the similar communicative purposes.

Another similarity is that the frequency of hedges in the TPR-I was almost the same as that in the IPR-I. This is because the way of employing hedges to express stance is influenced by the similar communicative purposes in Introduction unit and the rhetorical competence that students share in the same MTI community.

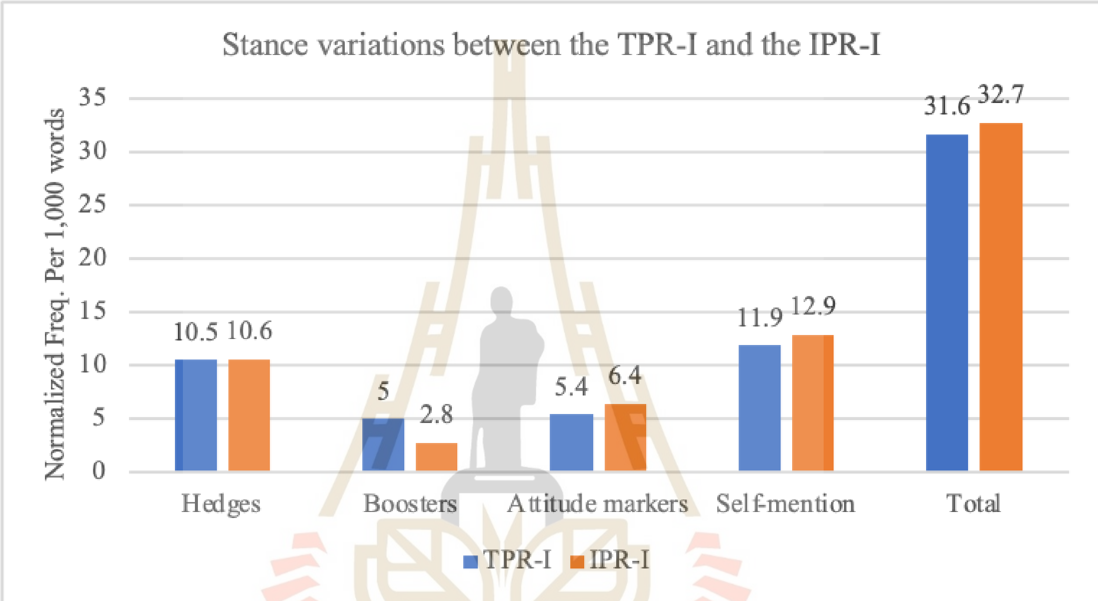


Figure 5.3 Frequency of each category of stance in the TPR-I and in the IPR-I

As for the differences, the TPR-I held fewer stance markers than the IPR-I did in terms of the total number. This finding is mainly influenced by the disciplinary variations that the translation practice is less interactive than the interpretation practice does. Specifically, self-mention held a lower frequency in the TPR-I than that in the IPR-I. It was because the presence of the translators was less apparent in the text translation activity than that of the interpreters in the "real-time" of interpretation activity.

Similarly, attitude markers were lower in the TPR-I than that in the IPR-I. It might be influenced by the fact that the interpretation students expressed their attitudes and assessments to their practice tasks more obviously than their translation counterparts did. For this, Supervisor A explained in the interview that

> *"since the interpretation activity is market-orientated, it is important for the interpretation students to show the market value of their interpretation projects in the Introduction section to draw attention from the supervisor, examiners, and readers."*

However, the frequency of boosters in the TPR-I was almost a double for that in the IPR-I. This is due to the fact that the significance of the translation practice task is less evident than the value of the interpretation practice task from the perspective of their "market value". This made the translation students boost the significance more to prove the value of their tasks than their interpretation counterparts did.

Along with the variations in terms of the quantitative distribution, the stance variations in the unit of Introduction will be further revealed through discussing the prevalent stance markers (See Table 5.6) of each category in their actual contexts.

Table 5.6 The top five stance markers in the unit of Introduction

Hedges		**Boosters**	
TPR-I	**IPR-I**	**TPR-I**	**IPR-I**
can (1.9)	can (1.6)	will (2.1)	always (0.4)
mainly (1.1)	could (1.6)	always (0.4)	must (0.4)
should (0.8)	should (1.4)	believe (0.2)	will (0.4)
would (0.6)	mainly (1.1)	believes (0.2)	known (0.2)
typical (0.6)	would (0.5)	clearly (0.2)	proves (0.2)
Attitude markers		**Self-mention**	
TPR-I	**IPR-I**	**TPR-I**	**IPR-I**
important (1.5)	great (1.1)	the translator (2.4)	the author (6.0)
great (1.2)	practical (1.1)	the author (2.3)	the interpreter (3.0)
hope (0.5)	important (1.0)	our (1.2)	I (1.3)
even (0.3)	significance (1.0)	I (1.1)	the author's (0.8)
interesting (0.3)	even (0.5)	the writer (1.0)	my (0.6)

Note: The figure in the parentheses indicates the normalized frequency, which is calculated on the formula "*Number of instances in the subcorpus / total number of words in the subcorpus* $\times$ *1,000*".

Hedges

As can be seen, the modal words such as "*can*", "*should*", and "*would*" were also frequently used hedges in both of the TPR-I and the IPR-I. This is in line with the idea that "modal auxiliaries are a key linguistic feature reflecting and indexing epistemic stance" (Poole, Gnann, & Hahn-Powell, 2019). Especially, the pattern of "*self-mention + can*" was frequently used by the students in the two subdisciplines to reduce the absolute certainty and confidence in introducing their translation/interpretation practice. Excerpts (17) and (18) illustrate the use of the pattern of "*self-mention + can*".

(17) ---, *through the translation process, the translator* ***can*** *get deeper understanding of philosophy and improve the translation skills as well. (TPR-I-17)*

(18) *Only by going through all the process, the interpreter* ***can*** *have better acknowledge, and better* understanding *on ---. (IPR-I-19)*

Also, the modal "*should*" was commonly adopted by the students in the two subdisciplines to make their conditional suggestions for future practice in this unit. Excerpts (19) and (20) are offered as examples.

(19) ---, *the translator* ***should*** *capture the original meaning of the source text and try to translate them flexibly in accordance with the formal and casual. (TPR-I-4)*

(20) *The interpreter, as a cultural ambassador,* ***should*** *have the consciousness of cross-cultural communication. (IPR-I-13)*

Besides, it is interesting to find that "*would*" was used as other modal alternatives to express the conditional opinion in demonstrating significance of the practice task by the students in both of the two subdisciplines in this unit. Except (21) and (22) are offered as examples.

(21) *For others, the major finding of the report* ***would*** *be a reference approach for them while doing similar translations. (TPR-I-28)*

(22) ---, *the author explores factors that* ***would*** *affect interpreting quality in the interpreting process and* ---. *(IPR-I-11)*

Boosters

It is interesting to find that the translation students seem to boost much in introducing the background, the rationale, and the significance of the practice tasks than their counterparts did. For one thing, it can be found that the modality "*will*" was employed much more by the translation students than the interpretation students in the unit of Introduction. With a close look on the modal "*will*" in the TPR-I, the pattern "*noun + will + verb*" was often employed by the translation students to express their certainty and confidence in introducing the translation tasks or introducing the translation propositions. Here, the nouns that were annotated in the TPR-I include words such as "*this book/this translation project/this report/the translation experience*". Excerpt (23) demonstrates one of the cases in this pattern. Another pattern with the modality "*will*" was found to be "*it + will +verb*", which was used by the translation students to deliver their complete commitment to what they have introduced when realizing the same communicative purposes mentioned above. Excerpt (24) is provided to illustrate the function of "*will*" in this pattern.

(23) *---, this book* ***will*** *absolutely stimulate* ***many*** *people's interests in Jiangxi local customs. (TPR-I-21)*

(24) *In addition, it* ***will*** *also make several contributions to cultural exchange. (TPR-I-4)*

For another, as can be seen in Excerpt (25) and (26), the epistemic adverb "*always*" was used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to strengthen the value of the translation tasks and to increase the force in claiming the difficulties in the interpretation tasks in the unit of Introduction.

(25) *For MTI students, ---, non-literary translation is* ***always*** *the major trend. (TPR-I-5)*

(26) *There are* ***always*** *many kinds of problems in technical interpretation. (IPR-I-17)*

However, for the interpretation students, apart from the modality "*will*" and the epistemic adverb "*always*" that were also used to stress the certainty in the interpretation tasks and the opinions in this unit, they preferred to emphasize the degree of challenges and difficulties in an interpretation task through using the modality "*must*" (Excerpt 27) and the epistemic verb "*known*" (Excerpt 28).

(27) *To accomplish interpreting tasks, the interpreters* ***must*** *be familiar with knowledge in different fields ---. (IPR-I-7)*

(28) *--- as it is* ***known*** *that a good interpreter needs more than just bilingual knowledge. (IPR-I-16)*

Attitude Markers

Similar to the use of attitude markers in Abstract, the epistemic adjective "*important*" was frequently employed by students in the two subdisciplines to express their attitudes that the practice task is worth being conducted. Besides, in Excerpts (29) and (30), the epistemic adjective "*great*" was also used by both of the translation and the interpretation students to amplify the degree of the attitudes to the value and the significance of the practice task.

(29) *Translation of prose is of **great** significance because it can introduce Chinese culture, ---. (TPR-I-17)*
(30) *In addition, it is also of **great** importance to have such interpretation task to strengthen the interpreter's interpreting quality. (IPR-I-2)*

However, the epistemic verb "*hope*" and the adjective "*interesting*" were preferred by the translation students to deliver their attitudes when pointing out the pedagogical meaning and the rationale of their work, while the attitude markers such as "*practical*", "*important*" and "*significance*" were adopted by the interpretation students to describe the value of the tasks in the unit of Introduction, Excerpts (31) and (32) are provided as examples.

(31) ---, *studies on the translation of operation manuals seem to be an **interesting** as well as rewarding academic effort. (TPR-I-22)*
(32) *Press conference is an **important** branch of conference interpreting, ---. (IPR-I-14)*

Self-mention

It can be found that self-mention in the unit of Introduction also follows the same conventions as that in the Abstract unit. That is, "*the translator*" and "*the* *interpreter*" were specific in the translation discipline and the translation discipline, respectively.

Besides, both the students in the two subdisciplines used *"the author"* and *"I"* to introduce the important elements in the unit of Introduction, covering from providing the rationale for the task selection, describing the translation/interpretation process, having a reflection, and offering the significance and pedagogical implications. Excerpts (33) to (34) are offered as two examples.

> (33) *At the end of this thesis,* ***I*** *present some major findings and limitations throughout the writing of the thesis and give some suggestions for future study. (TPR-I-21)*
>
> (34) *By interpreting this,* ***I*** *have learned more knowledge about the development of China's networking industry* ---. *(IPR-I-10)*

Interestingly, the possessive adjective "*our*" was found to be exclusively used by the students in the translation subdiscipline to avoid the subjectivity in introducing the practice task in the unit of Introduction. This was possibly because the translation students tended to show apparent collectivism to conform to the translation community, while the interpretation students would show their individuality due to their individual interpretation task. Excerpt (35) is offered as an example.

> (35) ---, *many Chinese translators are translating* ***our*** *national literary works into English or other* ---. *(TPR-I-27)*

The next section will handle the stance features and the stance variations in the unit of the Task Description.

5.4 Stance in the Task Description Unit

5.4.1 Stance Features in the TPR-TD and the IPR-TD

As Table 5.7 shows, the stance distribution in the unit of Task Description revealed that hedges occupied the highest percentage, followed by self-mention, attitude markers, and boosters, which is different from the overall stance distribution in the TPR and the IPR as a whole.

Table 5.7 Stance distribution in the TPR-TD and the IPR-TD

Corpus	N	Word Tokens		Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mention	Total
TPR-TD	16	14,773	Raw Number	188	72	79	143	482
			%	39.0	14.9	16.4	29.7	100
			PTW	12.7	4.9	5.3	9.7	33.8
IPR-TD	24	20,903	Raw Number	292	62	119	264	737
			%	39.6	8.4	16.1	35.8	100
			PTW	14	3.0	5.7	12.6	35.3

Note: N=the number of texts; %= percentage out of all stance items; PTW= Normalized frequency per 1,000 words

This exceptional finding that hedges rather than self-mention presented the highest percentage is largely influenced by the specific communicative purposes in this unit that aim to describe the features of a translation/interpretation practice task. This caused that the linguistic devices that were used to withhold one’s commitment into the proposition were frequently employed when describing the target task. Also, this point was confirmed by Supervisor B in the interview who said that

> *“in the section of Task Description, students would unconsciously reduce their certainty in the content and the opinion to protect themselves from being criticized by the supervisor or the committee members due to the lack of*

accuracy in describing the task which is other people's work or is assigned by other authoritative agents".

This result is in line with the findings that hedges were usually the most frequently used stance indication in some disciplines such as Physics, Biology, and Applied Linguistics (Hyland, 1999, 2005; Hyland and Tse, 2004).

As for self-mention, it was still annotated with the second highest frequency in both sub-corpora. The frequencies in both of the two corpora were much higher than those in other genres such as RAs and the students' course work (Hyland, 2005; Hyland and Tse, 2004; Lancaster, 2016). This result is affected by the generic nature of the reports which is characterized by an obvious presence of the reporter.

In terms of boosters, their frequencies were lower than those in RAs from the eight disciplines across the soft and the hard disciplines (Hyland, 2005). This finding would firstly be affected by the factor that the language in the reports is usually descriptive and objective (Bowden 2004), which has a function to tone down the reporter's voice. Besides, this result is obviously related to the culturally-preferred rhetorical strategies that were employed by Chinese students. Since boosters indicate writers' certainty about a proposition and confidence in a claim, which is divergent from Chinese Confucius culture of being humble and prudent, Chinese students would unconsciously avoid using boosters in order to conform with the Chinese rhetorical norms.

In addition, the frequencies of attitude markers in the TPR-TD and in the IPR-TD were lower than those in RAs across the eight disciplines (Hyland,1999). This result also could be attributed to the specific communicative purposes in the unit of Task Description which intend to describe the task concisely and objectively.

5.4.2 Stance Variations Between the TPR-TD and the IPR-TD

As can be seen in Figure 5.4, the stance distribution in the unit of the Task Description showed both similarities and differences in terms of the normalized frequencies of the four categories of stance and the total number. With regard to similarities, the same stance distribution trend can also be seen in both of the two sub-corpora although hedges instead of self-mention had the highest frequency. This is also caused by the community-based nature of genres (Hyland, 2008) and the similar communicative purposes in the unit of Task Description.

Besides, attitude markers had a similar frequency in both of the two sub-corpora. Attitude markers function to express writer's epistemic and professional attitudes and feelings (Hyland, 2005). Constrained by the similar communicative purposes, which aims to describe the nature and the contents of the task, either the translation/interpretation task is required to be described objectively. This might lead to a similar amount of attitude markers in both of the two subdisciplines.

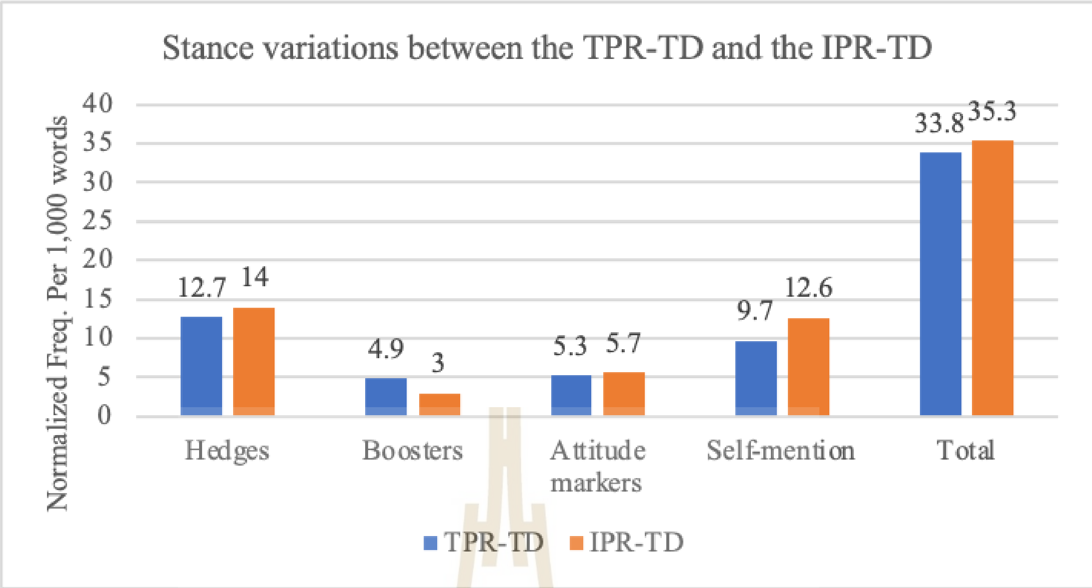


Figure 5.4 Frequency of each category of stance in the TPR-TD and in the IPR-TD

As for the differences, firstly, hedges and self-mention in the IPR-TD were higher than those in the TPR-TD. They were mainly influenced by the disciplinary variations in the two subdisciplines. For one thing, due to the different natures of the tasks in the two subdisciplines, which are the two types of activities: translation and interpretation, the interpretation students were found to use more modalities (e.g. "*can*", "*may*", and "*should*") to hedge their voice in the description of the interpretation tasks than the translation students do. For another, the description of the interpretation task is featured by more presence of the interpreter than that of a translation task does. It is because the former focuses on describing human activity while the latter is oriented at describing text materials. Secondly, translation students were found to stress the certainty in the description of the value and of the task novelty via boosters such as "*will*", "*believe*", and "*demonstrate*" more than the interpretation students did. This can account for the higher frequency of boosters in the TPR-TD than that in the IPR-TD.

With the variations in the quantitative stance distribution, Table 5.8 provides the prevalent stance markers in the unit of Task Description, followed by the discussion of some particular stance items.

Table 5.8 The top five stance markers in the unit of Task Description

Hedges		Boosters	
TPR-TD	**IPR-TD**	**TPR-TD**	**IPR-TD**
can (2.2)	can (2.8)	will (1.4)	will (0.8)
should (2.0)	should (2.3)	must (0.4)	must (0.6)
mainly (0.9)	may (1.1)	show (0.4)	always (0.5)
certain (0.6)	mainly (0.8)	always (0.3)	really (0.2)
may (0.6)	about (0.6)	really (0.3)	actually (0.1)
Attitude markers		**Self-mention**	
TPR-TD	**IPR-TD**	**TPR-TD**	**IPR-TD**
even (0.7)	even (0.7)	the author (2.5)	the author (4.8)
important (0.7)	important (0.7)	the translator (1.5)	the interpreter (4.4)
great (0.6)	great (0.6)	my (1.4)	she (1.0)
practical (0.6)	significance (0.4)	we (1.1)	I (0.5)
significance (0.6)	clear (0.4)	I (0.9)	the author's (0.4)

Note: The figure in the parentheses indicates the normalized frequency, which is calculated on the formula "*Number of instances in the subcorpus / total number of words in the subcorpus* × *1,000*".

Hedges

Similar to the use of hedges in the previous two units, the modal "*can*" was most frequently used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines. However, the modal "*can*" was used frequently by the translation students to express their hedged opinions on the rationale for the task selection, on the suggestions for the future translation, and on the pedagogical implications, while it was used frequently by the interpretation students to describe the interpretation features and the strategies in this unit. Excerpts (36) and (37) are provided as two examples.

(36) *The translator chooses this book as the translating task because it* ***can*** *be a significant guidance to people's growth* ---. *(TPR-TD-10)*
(37) *According to working time, interpreting* ***can*** *be divided as consecutive interpreting and simultaneous interpreting. (IPR-TD-25)*

Besides, the modal "*should*" in the pattern of "*self-mention + should + verb*" was frequently used to indicate the suggestions for the translation/interpretation practice by the students in both of the two subdisciplines, which is illustrated in Excerpts (38) and (39).

(38) *I* ***should*** *improve my own professional translation theories. (TPR-TD-24)*
(39) *As the interpreter, the author* ***should*** *familiarize herself with the basic knowledge of. optics and the other related fields. (IPR-TD-18)*

Similarly, in Excerpts (40) and (41), the hedge "*mainly*" has function to limit the scope of the topic to present an open discursive space in describing the practice task in both of the two subdisciplines.

(40) *The reasons why the author selected --- as the of translation materials* ***mainly*** *are based on the following two aspects: ---. (TPR-TD-24)*
(41) *The author* ***mainly*** *served as the chief interpreter of Ms. Wang Qiufeng, chief editor of Tencent Automobile. (IPR-TD-21)*

Boosters

Similar to the use of boosters in the previous two units, the modal "*will*" was still frequently used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to show the translator's/interpreter's strong willingness and confidence in the significance of the practice tasks, as demonstrated in Excerpts (42) and (43).

(42) *The writer also hopes that the translation* ***will*** *be able to give some reference to China's policy-makers ---. (TPR-TD-18)*
(43) *It* ***will*** *also greatly promote the technological progress ---. (IPR-TD-28)*

Apart from the modal "*will*", as Excerpts (44) and (45) demonstrate, the modal word "*must*" was also preferred by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to describe the professional qualities which are obligatory for a translator/interpreter.

(44) ---, *the translation of contracts* ***must*** *meet strict requirements. (TPR-TD-1)*
(45) ---. *the interpretation during the press conference* ***must*** *be precise and clear, fluent in the expression and easy to understand. (IPR-TD-2)*

Besides, the adverbs such as "*always*" and "*really*" were preferred by the students in both of the two subdisciplines. However, it was interestingly found that the adverb "*really*" was employed by the translation students to claim their epistemic confidence in the reason for the translation task (Excerpt 46), while it was used by the interpretation students to emphasize the undeniable challenges of the interpretation task (Excerpt 47).

(46) *The content of the source text is* ***really*** *touching and enlightening, ---. (TPR-TD-17)*
(47) *It was* ***really*** *an extreme challenge for an interpreter to work at engineering spot. (IPR-TD-18)*

Attitude Markers

Apart from the adjective "*important*", it is surprisingly found that the adverb "*even*" was most frequently employed by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to express their attitudes to the rationale, the features, and the significance of the practice task in the unit of Task Description. As illustrated in Excerpts (48) and (49), the adverb "*even*" was used to deliver the students' attitudes to the limitation of the previous translation work and the difficult features of the interpretation, respectively.

> (48) ---, *the languages used in some translated versions are not standard enough or* ***even*** *below the state standard. (TPR-TD-30)*
>
> (49) ***Even*** *an experienced interpreter will need a certain time to adapt to such a complex condition. (IPR-TD-18)*

Besides, as Excerpts (50) and (51) show, the adjective "*great*" was also preferred by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to strengthen the force in their attitudes when emphasizing the rationale for a translation task and the challenge of an interpretation task in the unit of Task Description.

> (50) *Since its publication, the book has enjoyed* ***great*** *success and received many positive comments. (TPR-TD-2)*
>
> (51) ---, *the two languages bear differences in lexical features and syntactic structures which pose a* ***great*** *challenge for the interpreting. (IPR-TD-9)*

Additionally, among the top five attitude markers used in this unit, the adjective "*practical*" was exclusively preferred by the translation students to describe the rationale of the translation task by claiming its practical significance (Excerpt 52). However, the adjective "*clear*" was solely used to describe the interpretation students' attitudes to the professional ability (Excerpt 53).

> (52) *The translator maintains that the research mainly has the* ***practical*** *significance in the following two aspects: ---. (TPR-TD-1)*
>
> (53) *And the interpreters should have a* ***clear*** *recognition for cultural differences ---. (IPR-TD-25)*

Self-mention

In the unit of Task Description, the presence of the writer was mostly realized through the employment of "*the author*", "*the translator*", and "*the interpreter*" in both of the two subdisciplines. It was found that "*the author*" was annotated with the highest frequency in both of the TPR-TD and the IPR-TD. Excerpts (54) and (55) are two examples.

(54) *In this report, **the author** puts forward and analyzes a number of Excerpts on contract translation, ---. (TPR-TD-1)*
(55) *In this part, **the author** of this* report *describes the interpreting task in detail, ---. (IPR-TD-18)*

The frequent use of "*the author*" in this unit was possibly because the students in both of the two subdisciplines aimed to describe the practice tasks as objective as possible. One interpretation student (S3) said in the interview that

"the use of 'the author' instead of 'I' has a role to reduce the subjectivity to some extent based on the Chinese writing conventions."

Besides, the possessive "*my*" was often used in the pattern "*my + noun* (e.g. *work/material/ability/*translation *techniques/translation material*)" to describe the pertinent elements in the task by the translation students (Excerpt 56). However, it is interesting to find that the pronoun "*she*" was used more in describing the task by the interpretation students than the translation students in this unit (Excerpt 57). This result is possibly caused by the fact that most of the IPRs are written by the female students in the corpus.

(56) ---, *and all **my** translation and proof-reading work should be up to their publishing standard. (TPR-TD-6)*

(57) --- *the author hopes that through this practice, **she** can find her own weaknesses, so as to improve her professional level. (IPR-TD-28)*

The next section will examine what stance features are presented and how they are similar or different between the two subdisciplines in the unit of Process Description.

5.5 Stance in the Process Description Unit

5.5.1 Stance Features in the TPR-PD and the IPR-PD

As Table 5.9 shows, the quantitative distribution of stance in the unit of Process Description revealed that self-mention had the highest percentage, followed by hedges, boosters, and attitude markers, which is same to that in the TPR and the IPR as a whole.

Table 5.9 Stance distribution in the TPR-PD and the IPR-PD

Corpus	N	Word Tokens		Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mention	Total
TPR-PD	27	35,301	Raw Number	434	212	197	702	1,545
			%	28.1	13.7	12.8	45.4	100
			PTW	12.3	6.0	5.6	19.9	44.2
IPR-PD	29	48,615	Raw Number	697	239	217	1256	2,409
			%	28.9	9.9	9.0	52.1	100
			PTW	14.3	4.9	4.5	25.8	49.6

Note: N=the number of texts; %= percentage out of all stance items; PTW= Normalized frequency per 1,000 words

As the third section in the TPR and the IPR, the unit of Process Description has the main communicative purpose to describe the task procedures in the translation/interpretation practice. Self-mention was frequently used due to the evident presence of the reporter in recounting the translation/interpretation process. This point was clarified by the comments from Supervisor A in the interview who said that

> *"in the section of Process Description, students are usually required by me to describe what they really did in the three main stages. That is, pre-/during-/after- translation/interpretation practice task. So, the students usually referred to themselves as 'the translator/the interpreter/the author/I/--' to describe the activities that happened in each stage. In this way, it can increase the reliability of students' work."*

The result is contrary to the findings in the previous studies on stance that self-mention usually had a low frequency (Hyland and Tse, 2004; Hyland, 2005; Lancaster, 2016).

Besides, hedges were also frequently used to reduce the reporters' complete commitment in describing the translation/interpretation process, which has contributed to the second-high percentage among the four categories of stance. The frequencies of hedges, to some extent, are close to that of the hedges in RAs across the eight disciplines (Hyland, 2005). This suggests that the students in the MTI field adopted similar amount of stance in the unit of Process Description with the academics in RAs of varied disciplines in terms of showing the extent of assurance and certainty in proposing propositions.

Additionally, similar to the overall trend of stance distribution in the TPR and the IPR, fewer boosters and the least attitude markers were employed in this unit mainly because the translation/interpretation procedures should be described briefly and concisely. For boosters, their frequencies are close to that in RAs across the eight disciplines (Hyland, 2005). However, the frequencies of attitude markers are lower than that in RAs across the eight disciplines (Hyland, 2005). This indicates that Chinese students in the MTI field are similar with the researchers in RAs in the eight academic disciplines in using the number of boosters to strengthen their opinions but showed less attitudes than RAs academics in the unit of Process Description.

5.5.2 Stance Variations Between the TPR-PD and the IPR-PD

As Figure 5.5 demonstrates, an obvious similarity can be found that the stance distribution had the same trend in both of the two subdisciplines, which self-mention had the highest frequency, followed by hedges, boosters, and attitude markers. As explained before, this similarity was caused by the community-based nature of genres (Hyland, 2008). Since the unit of Process Description is one of the sections in the TPR and in the IPR that shares the writing convention in the same community, the extent of each category of stance that was adopted to describe the translation/interpretation procedures by the students in the two subdisciplines might show the similar distributional feature.

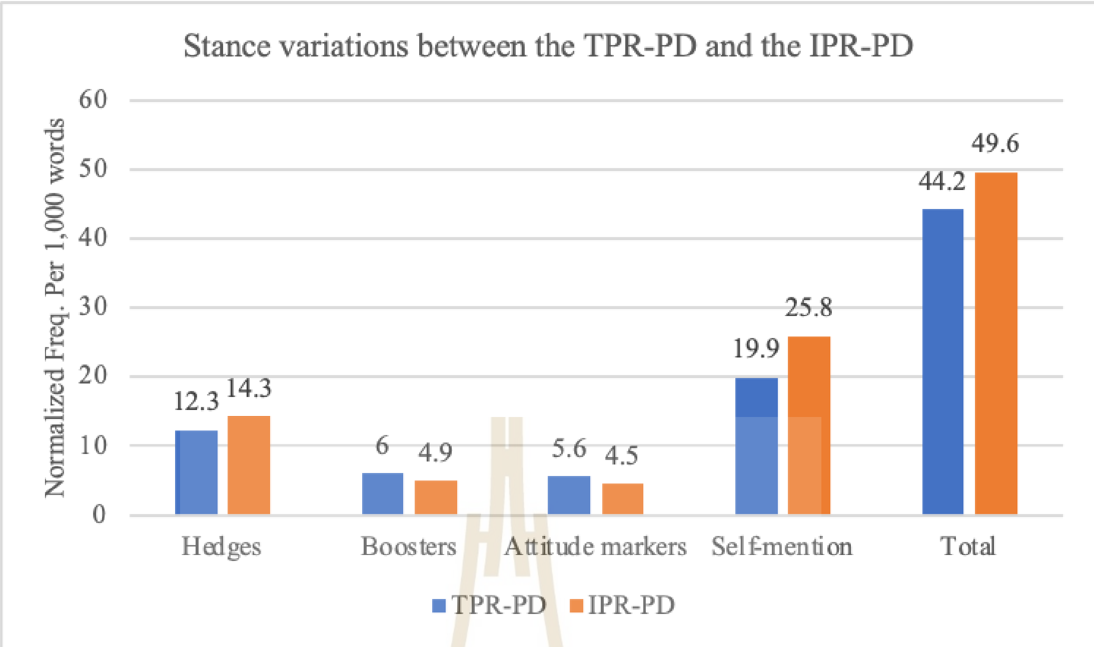


Figure 5.5 Frequency of each category of stance in the TPR-PD and in the IPR-PD

However, some differences in stance distribution can also be found between the two subdisciplines. Firstly, the frequency of the total number in the IPR-PD was higher than that in the TPR-PD. This difference can also be attributed to the fact that stance is a "discipline-situated" device (Hyland, 2005). That is, more rhetorical practices were used in describing the process of the interpretation activity than the translation activity due to the apparent interaction in interpretation.

Secondly, the frequencies of hedges and self-mention in the IPR-PD were higher than those in the TPR-PD. The process of the interpretation is evidently featured with high involvement of the interpreter, which caused the higher frequency of self-mention in the IPR-PD. Besides, compared with the translation which has a tangible translation text to prove the value of the translation task, the process of the interpretation would be more emphasized via the description of activities that occurred in different interpretation stages. This might lead to the result that the use of hedges was more frequent in accounting the interpretation procedures than describing the translation procedures.

Thirdly, boosters and attitude markers were used more in the TPR-PD than that in the IPR-PD. The higher frequencies of boosters and attitude markers in the TPR-PD were possibly caused by the fact that the translation students intended to strengthen their force in claiming the importance of translation procedures.

In the following parts, the variations can also be illustrated through the use of the prevalent stance markers in this unit. Table 5.10 presents the top five stance markers in the unit of Process Description.

Table 5.10 The top five stance markers in the unit of Process Description

Hedges		**Boosters**	
TPR-PD	**IPR-PD**	**TPR-PD**	**IPR-PD**
should (4.1)	should (2.2)	will (1.5)	must (0.8)
can (3.1)	would (2.1)	know (0.6)	know (0.7)
mainly (0.6)	can (1.7)	must (0.6)	will (0.5)
may (0.4)	may (1.0)	find (0.4)	always (0.4)
generally (0.3)	could (1.0)	certain (0.3)	find (0.3)
Attitude markers		**Self-mention**	
TPR-PD	**IPR-PD**	**TPR-PD**	**IPR-PD**
important (1.2)	great (0.8)	the author (6.8)	the author (9.9)
clear (0.5)	important (0.7)	the translator (5.3)	the interpreter (7.5)
great (0.5)	even (0.5)	I (3.0)	I (2.5)
appropriate (0.5)	essential (0.3)	we (1.3)	she (2.4)
common (0.5)	easily (0.2)	my (0.8)	we (0.9)

Note: The figure in the parentheses indicates the normalized frequency, which is calculated on the formula “*Number of instances in the subcorpus / total number of words in the subcorpus × 1,000*”.

Hedges

Concerning the prevalent hedges in the unit of Process Description, the modal "*should*" was frequently used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to reduce the complete commitment to the opinions when describing what kind of activities are necessary for a translator/interpreter in the practice process. Excerpts (58) and (59) are provided as examples below.

(58) *First of all, the translator **should** analyze the source text and its parallel texts. (TPR-PD-30)*

(59) **Second**, *a qualified interpreter **should** prepare as much as possible, including the customer' specific field, product information, previous business,* ---. *(IPR-PD-5)*

Besides, in Excerpt (60), the modal "*can*" with the function of probability was used more by the translation students than by their interpretation counterparts to indicate the possible activities in the translation process. However, in Excerpt (61), the interpretation students preferred to use the modal "*would*" to indicate the possibility of activities in the interpretation process.

(60) *The preparation before translation practice **can** promote the understanding of the translated text,* ---. *(TPR-PD-17)*

(61) *The interpreter **would** have encountered many difficulties during work. (IPR-PD-2)*

In addition, in Excerpt (62), the adverb "*mainly*" was frequently adopted by the translation students to hedge the scope or the range of the content in the translation stages. However, in Excerpt (63), the interpretation students preferred to use the modal "*could*" to hedge the propositions in the interpretation process.

(62) *Third, the author **mainly** explains how to proofread and finalize the Chinese version. (TPR-PD-24)*

(63) *The other is called psychological noise, which means the psychological statement and mood condition **could** affect the interpreting quality. (IPR-PD-22)*

Boosters

Regarding the prevalent boosters in the unit of Process Description, the modal "*will*" was often used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to express their certainty in the activity that a translator/interpreter would adopt in the translation/interpretation procedure. Excerpts (64) and (65) are offered as examples below.

(64) ---*, the translator **will** firstly search on the Internet and forecast the main contents of the chapter. (TPR-PD-15)*

(65) *The interpreter **will** certainly need to deal with the terminology in the interpreting process. (IPR-PD-1)*

Besides, similar to the use of "*must*" in the unit of Abstract, it was found that the cognitive verb "*know*" was often collocated with the modal "*must*" by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to strengthen their commitment to the opinion on the important qualities in the translation/interpretation. This is illustrated in Excerpts (66) and (67).

(66) *If I want to translate, I **must know** something about these myths. (TPR-PD-27)*

(67) *The interpreter **must know** the related concepts such as the angle of view, the maximum aperture, tilt degree, and etc. (IPR-PD-13)*

Attitude Markers

As for attitude markers, the adjective "*important*" was still frequently used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to express their attitudes to the factors which are key to a translation/interpretation in the unit of Process Description. Besides, the adjective "*great*" was also preferred by students in both of the two subdisciplines to deliver their attitudes to the activities that had occurred in the translation/interpretation process. As Excerpts (68) and (69) show, the collocation such as "*great importance/efforts*" occurred frequently in both of the sub-corpora to modify the extent of students' attitudes and feelings.

(68) *Having finished the first draft of translation, the author made **great** efforts to proofread and finalize the draft. (TPR-PD-24)*
(69) *It is of **great** importance to get feedbacks from the direct users of interpreting service, ---. (IPR-PD-5)*

Besides, the adjective "*clear*" was preferred by the translation students to show their attitudes and feelings towards the propositions in the translation/interpretation process, which is illustrated in Excerpt (70). However, it was interesting to find that the adverb "*even*" was chosen more by the interpretation students to increase the degree of their attitudes towards the challenges involved in the interpretation task process, which is shown in Excerpt (71).

(70) *So, it is **clear** to see that a careful preparation of the background information does make a difference. (TPR-PD-15)*
(71) ***Even** during interpreting, the interpreter does also need relative psychological adjustments. (IPR-PD-11)*

Moreover, it is interesting to find that the adjective "*essential*" was exclusively used by the students in the interpretation subdiscipline. This is possibly because the interpretation students tend to strengthen their attitudes towards the crucial importance of the professional qualities due to the fact that the "real-time" nature of interpretation demands highly for the good professional abilities and preparation to avoid the possible misinterpretation. Excerpt (72) is provided as an example.

(72) *This stage is pretty **essential** and will also be very helpful to the interpreter for their on-spot interpreting quality. (IPR-PD-27)*

Self-mention

With regard to self-mention, the apparent presence of the writer in the unit of Process Description is demonstrated in the high frequencies of "*the author*", "*the translator*", and "*the interpreter*". This is because the mentioning of the writers is unavoidable in reporting a translation/interpretation procedure since the writers are the actual "actors" in the procedure. As Excerpts (73) and (74) show, "*the author*" was adopted as the sentence subject to account a variety of activities involved in the translation/interpretation process by the students in both of the two subdisciplines.

(73) ***The author** analyzed many parallel texts in order to find out similar translation strategies. (TPR-PD-30)*

(74) ---, ***the author** read some materials about how to translate antiques. (IPR-PD-25)*

Similar to the use of self-mention in previous units, constrained by the discipline-specific feature, that "*the translator*" and "*the interpreter*" were employed respectively by the translation students and the interpretation students to describe the translation and the interpretation procedure. The corresponding examples are omitted intentionally here.

Moreover, apart from "*the author*", "*the translator*" and "*the interpreter*", the pronoun "*I*" and "*we*" were also frequently used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines. Excerpts (75) and (76) are offered as examples below.

(75) *Having analyzed the source text, **I** set out to search materials and prepare to translate. (TPR-PD-8)*
(76) *And then, **I** collected some pottery terms from Shandong provincial museum website which might be used. (IPR-PD-25)*

The next section will report and discuss what stance features are and how they are similar or different between the two subdisciplines in the unit of Case Analysis.

5.6 Stance in the Case Analysis Unit

5.6.1 Stance Features in the TPR-CA and the IPR-CA

As Table 5.11 shows, the quantitative stance distribution in the unit of Case Analysis displayed that self-mention occupied the highest percentage, followed by hedges, boosters, and attitude markers. This stance distributional feature is also constrained by the generic nature of the reports and the communicative purposes in the unit of Case Analysis.

Table 5.11 Stance distribution in the TPR-CA and the IPR-CA

Corpus	N	Word Tokens		Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mention	Total
TPR-CA	30	80,942	Raw Number	1,354	656	460	1,109	3,579
			%	37.8	18.3	12.9	31.0	100
			PTW	16.7	8.1	5.7	13.7	44.8
IPR-CA	30	94,256	Raw Number	1,770	879	563	1,942	5,154
			%	34.3	17.1	10.9	37.7	100
			PTW	18.8	9.3	6.0	20.6	54.7

Note: N=the number of texts; %= percentage out of all stance items; PTW= Normalized frequency per 1,000 words

Firstly, as the fourth section in the TPR and the IPR, the highest percentage of self-mention indicated the apparent involvement of the reporter in this unit. This point was responded by one interpretation student (S4) who said that

> *"I had to use an amount of self-mention in the unit of Case Analysis to help the illustration of the cases because I was the actual executor of those interpretation cases".*

As expected, the frequencies of self-mention in both TPR-CA and IPR-CA were much higher than those revealed in previous studies (Hyland and Tse, 2004; Hyland, 2005; Lancaster, 2016).

Secondly, the communicative purposes in the unit of Case Analysis are to illustrate the typical translation/interpretation phenomena via cases analysis. According to Hyland (2005), hedges function to reduce the certainty and open a discursive space for alternative opinions, while boosters have a reverse function. The percentage of hedges was found higher than that of boosters in both sub-corpora. This result is mainly influenced by Chinese Confucius cultural norm that people should be humble and prudent in presenting one's opinion. In this unit, the writers of the TPR and the IPR, who are student translators/interpreters in Chinese MTI field, tended to tone down their opinions in analyzing the typical cases to avoid being overthrown by others.

Similarly, constrained by the communicative purposes that focus on analyzing the translation/interpretation cases objectively, the reporter's attitude and feelings are not obviously involved, which accounted for the lowest number of attitude markers in this unit.

In terms of normalized frequency, however, except for attitude markers, it was found that the four categories of stance were more used in the unit of Case Analysis than in RAs across eight disciplines revealed by Hyland (2005). It can be inferred that more interaction between the student translators/interpreters and the readers was involved in the unit of Case Analysis because of its generic nature and communicative purposes.

5.6.2 Stance Variations Between the TPR-CA and the IPR-CA

As Figure 5.6 shows, the obvious similarity can be identified in the same stance distributional trend between the two subdisciplines. That is, self-mention presented with the highest frequency, followed by hedges, boosters, and attitude markers in both sub-corpora. Concerning this similarity, on the one hand, they can be attributed to the fact that "stance is a community-influenced construct" (Jiang & Hyland, 2015, p.530). That is, both the translation students and the interpretation students, who are in the same community of the MTI domain in China, possibly display a similar tendency in constructing their epistemic stance. On the other hand, this similarity can be caused by the similar communicative purposes in the unit of Case Analysis since the rhetorical devices are influenced by the constraint of the communicative purposes (Swales, 1990).

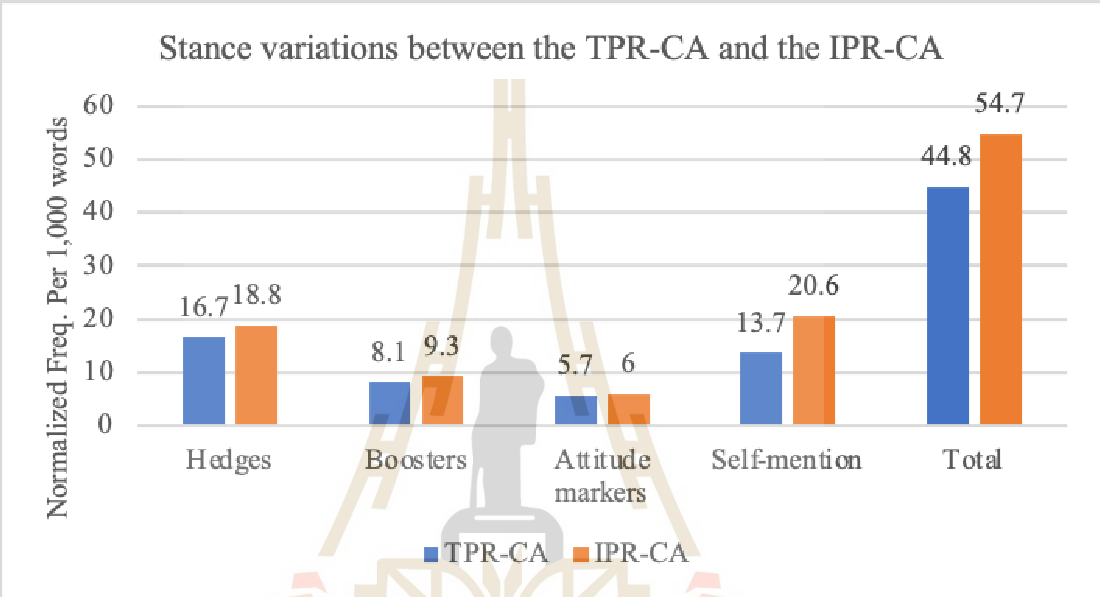


Figure 5.6 Frequency of each category of stance in the TPR-CA and the IPR-CA

However, although it is not significant, a difference can also be identified in the normalized frequencies of stance in terms of the total number and each of the four categories between the two subdisciplines. As seen in Figure 5.6, the frequency of the total number in the IPR-CA was higher than that in the TPR-CA. Specifically, all self-mention, hedges, boosters, and attitude markers presented higher frequencies in the IPR-CA than those in the TPR-CA. With regard to this difference, it can be attributed to the influence of the disciplinary variations on stance construction (Hyland, 1999, 2000, 2005). In the unit of Case Analysis, the translation students and the interpretation students aim to demonstrate the typical findings that they have found in their practice tasks via presenting case analysis. However, due to the different natures of translation and interpretation as aforementioned, interpretation is featured by the communication between human while translation is characterized by the communication between texts. As a consequence, there is apparent involvement of the interpreter in the interpretation, which might account for the result that self-mention was adopted more by the interpretation students in analyzing interpretation cases than the translation students did. Besides, interpretation is a real-time activity and context-based, the interpretation students possibly would reduce their absolute certainty in analyzing the typical cases by utilizing more hedges. In addition, interpretation emphasizes more on human interaction, which might account for the higher frequencies of boosters and attitude markers in the IPR-CA than in the TPR-CA.

In the following parts, the variations in terms of the qualitative use of the prevalent stance markers of each category in their contexts will be discussed. Table 5.12 presents the top five stance markers in the unit of Case Analysis.

Table 5.12 The top five stance markers in the unit of Case Analysis

Hedges		**Boosters**	
TPR-CA	**IPR-CA**	**TPR-CA**	**IPR-CA**
can (4.6)	should (3.5)	will (8.1)	will (2.2)
should (3.7)	can (3.4)	know (0.7)	know (0.9)
would (1.0)	would (1.8)	must (0.6)	must (0.8)
usually (0.8)	could (1.6)	find (0.5)	always (0.6)
often (0.7)	may (1.3)	show (0.4)	find (0.5)
Attitude markers		**Self-mention**	
TPR-CA	**IPR-CA**	**TPR-CA**	**IPR-CA**
important (1.0)	important (0.8)	the translator (4.5)	the interpreter (7.6)
clear (0.8)	even (0.7)	the author (4.5)	the author (5.1)
even (0.6)	clear (0.6)	we (2.0)	she (2.1)
common (0.6)	common (0.6)	I (1.3)	I (2.0)
great (0.4)	great (0.5)	the writer (0.6)	we (1.5)

Note: The figure in the parentheses indicates the normalized frequency, which is calculated on the formula "*Number of instances in the subcorpus / total number of words in the subcorpus* × *1,000*".

Hedges

As for prevalent hedges in the unit of Case Analysis, the modal "*can*" was used to hedge the way that the students recommended the translation/interpretation strategies in both of the two subdisciplines since it has the function of probability (Hyland, 1996). Excerpts (77) and (78) are offered as examples below.

(77) *This translation method **can** convey the referential meaning of the ST as accurate as possible and at the same time preserve its lexical features. (TPR-CA-2)*

(78) *The abundant background knowledge **can** aid the interpreter to exclude interference information and precisely get the meaning of source language, ---. (IPR-CA-4)*

Similarly, as Excerpts (79) and (80) show, the modal "*should*" was used to hedge the translation/interpretation behaviors that were assumed to be appropriate in conducting translation/interpretation by the students in the two subdisciplines.

(79) *In this way, translators **should** comprehend the original language features as a whole. (TPR-CA-19)*

(80) *The interpreter **should** comprehend the general information, get the key words and pay attention to the figures and events involved in the source message. (IPR-CA-15)*

Besides, in the unit of Case Analysis, the modal "*would*" was also frequently used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to predicate the possible problems or challenges that a student translator/interpreter would encounter under a certain condition. Excerpts (81) and (82) are provided as examples.

(81) *The coherence of the text **would** be broken and the realization of the translation purpose would also be influenced, ---. (TPR-CA-9)*

(82) *Furthermore, listeners **would** get bored and lose patience to listen to your interpretation. (IPR-CA-11)*

However, the adverbs "*usually*" and "*often*" were preferred by the translation students, while the modal words "*could*" and "*may*" were preferred by the interpretation students to hedge their opinions. In Excerpt (83), the adverb "*usually*" was used to withhold the translation student's complete commitment into the opinion to open an alternative option. On the contrary, in Excerpt (84), the modal "*could*" was used to indicate the possibility of an interpretation phenomenon.

(83) ***Usually**, Chinese sentences are shorter than English ones. (TPR-CA-27)*

(84) *The outstanding command of bilingual knowledge **could** lay a good foundation for an interpreter. (IPR-CA-18)*

Boosters

Similar to the use of the boosters in the previous units, the modal "*will*" was used frequently by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to strengthen their confidence in claims since boosters function to increase the writers' certainty in what they produce (Hyland, 2005). In Excerpts (85) and (86), via the modal "*will*", the truth of knowledge in translation/interpretation was emphasized by pointing out what effect would be caused by employing a specific translation/interpretation strategy.

(85) *If this sentence is translated mechanically and rigidly in accordance with word order in English---, the target text* ***will*** *sound obscure and unreasonable. (TPR-CA-6)*

(86) *Otherwise, the interpretation* ***will*** *be odd and the audience* ***will*** *be confused about the interpretation. (IPR-CA-28)*

In Excerpts (87) and (88), it was also found that the epistemic verb "*know*" was preferred by the students in the two subdisciplines to increase their voice in claiming the fact that is well acknowledged in translation and in interpretation in this unit.

(87) *I* ***know*** *very well that a translator should lay stress on conveying the idea of the original work ---. (TPR-CA-8)*

(88) *We* ***know*** *that escort interpreting is different from conference interpreting, in which the interpreter should translate timely and precisely. (IPR-CA-25)*

Besides, in Excerpts (89) and (90), the modal "*must*" was used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to stress the undeniable truth or fact in translation/interpretation, since boosters facilitate the writers' complete devotion into the proposition and close the discursive space for the alternative opinions (Hyland, 2005).

(89) *The translation* ***must*** *be faithful to the original text (TPR-CA-25)*

(90) *A qualified interpreter* ***must*** *ensure the successful communication between two parts using different language. (IPR-CA-4)*

However, the epistemic verb "*show*" was used frequently by the students in the translation subdiscipline to increase the force in stating a fact (Excerpt 91), while the adverb "*always*" was employed frequently by the students in the interpretation subdiscipline to strengthen a fact (Excerpt 92).

(91) *A comparative study of English and Chinese* ***shows*** *that English is hypotaxis and Chinese is parataxis. (TPR-CA-2)*
(92) *The difference* ***always*** *leads to improper expressions in interpreting, ---. (IPR-CA-11)*

Attitude Markers

Regarding the dominant attitude markers in the unit of Case Analysis, the adjective "*important*" was still the most prevalent attitude marker to express the students' attitude to a proposition in both of the two subdisciplines. Surprisingly, the adjective "*clear*" was frequently employed by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to deliver their attitudes towards the factors that would affect the qualities of a translation or an interpretation. Excerpts (93) and (94) are offered as examples below.

(93) *In the second sentence, the translator completes the information in order to make a* ***clear*** *understanding. (TPR-CA-19)*
(94) *During the interpreting service, the interpreter has to keep a* ***clear*** *mind in order to concentrate on the message the speaker is trying to express. (IPR-CA-2)*

Besides, the adverb "*even*" was found to be used frequently by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to increase the degree of the attitude towards the translation/interpretation matters. Excerpts (95) and (96) are offered as examples below.

(95) ---*the translator can adopt a technique of amplification or omission of words, phrases and* ***even*** *sentences in the translation to meet the needs. (TPR-CA-24)*
(96) *These noise sometimes is* ***even*** *louder than the voice of the speaker and will definitely affect the listening of the interpreter. (IPR-CA-18)*

Self-mention

As for the dominant self-mentions in the unit of Case analysis unit, "*the translator*" and "*the* interpreter" were most frequently used by the students in the two subdisciplines to analyze the translation/interpretation cases. The high frequencies of these two self-mentions were due to the fact that the writers (translators/interpreters) are executors of the translation/interpretation tasks. Since self-mention is the projection of writers themselves (Hyland, 2005), the employment of "*the translator*" and "*the interpreter*" are indications of the presence of translator/interpreter in the translation/interpretation cases. Excerpts (97) and (98) are provided below.

(97) ***The translator*** *combines two clauses "just a bit of slanted fencing" and "bound together by rusted wire" together,* ---. *(TPR-CA-13)*
(98) ***The interpreter*** *omits the last sentence to present concise introduction of the roundtable schedule. (IPR-CA-7)*

Besides, it was found that "*the author*" was commonly used by the students in the two subdisciplines with a high frequency in the unit of Case Analysis. Excerpts (99) and (100) are provided below.

(99) ***The author*** *adopted reverse-order, to put the "China's market reform" before the "accelerating in the 1990s" when translating into Chinese,* ---. *(TPR-CA-24)*
(100) *For instance,* ***the author*** *interprets "XXX" to "earlier arrangement, earlier planning, earlier action". (IPR-CA-24)*

In addition, it was found that the singular pronoun "*I*" was also frequently adopted by the students in both of the two subdisciplines although the use of "*I*" is usually considered as a subjective expression in writing. However, this high frequency of "*I*" indicates that the students in both of the two subdisciplines attempt to show their identity and presence in analyzing cases to claim the ownership and validity of their practice. Excerpts (101) to (102) are provided as the two examples below.

(101) *At last, **I** adjust the word order to make the English sentences smoothly. (TPR-CA-27)*
(102) *In this case, **I** added some verbs and conjunctions to make these sentences become complete so that ---. (IPR-CA-26)*

Regarding the differences in the prevalent self-mention in the unit of Case Analysis, it was interesting to find that "*we*" was preferred by the students in the translation subdiscipline while "*she*" was adopted frequently by the students in the interpretation subdiscipline. This is possible because the translation practice can be a group work while the interpretation practice was conducted by a single person, especially by the female student interpreter. Excerpts (103) and (104) are provided as examples below.

(103) *The two verbs are parallel, so **we** add the word and to connect the two subject-predicate structure. (TPR-CA-25)*
(104) *Every time when **she** encountered some phrases which could not be heard clearly, **she** politely asked the engineers to ---. (IPR-CA-4)*

The next section will move to investigate what stance features and variations are in the final unit of Conclusion.

5.7 Stance in the Conclusion Unit

5.7.1 Stance Features in the TPR-C and the IPR-C

As shown in Table 5.13, the quantitative distribution of stance in the unit of Conclusion also demonstrated a trend that self-mention had the highest percentage, followed by hedges, boosters, and attitude markers. This stance distribution was also affected by the generic nature of reports, which is featured by the apparent involvement of reporters and the direct and concise language (Bowden, 2004). Besides, since the rhetorical strategies serve to realize the communicative purposes in a specific genre (Bhatia, 1993; Swales, 1999), this stance distribution was inextricably related to the communicative purposes in this unit, which summarizes the report through reviewing the key elements in a report.

Table 5.13 Stance distribution in the TPR-C and the IPR-C

Corpus	N	Word Tokens		Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mention	Total
TPR-C	30	17,450	Raw Number	306	146	130	328	953
			%	32.1	15.7	13.6	34.4	100
			PTW	17.5	8.4	7.4	18.8	54.6
IPR-C	30	17,296	Raw Number	361	142	131	370	1,004
			%	36.0	14.1	13.0	36.9	100
			PTW	20.9	8.2	7.6	21.4	58.0

Note: N=the number of texts; %= percentage out of all stance items; PTW= Normalized frequency per 1,000 words

Specifically, the highest percentage of self-mention among the four categories of stance was because the presence of the reporters (translators/interpreters) is indispensable in writing the conclusions. Hedges demonstrated the second-highest percentage. This complies with the opinion that the stance of the writer is likely to be hedged in the conclusion sections (Crosthwaite, Cheung & Jiang, 2017). That is, the students in the MTI field tended to withhold the complete commitment to the propositions to show their concern of community norms and to present their rhetorical respect for the other's view (Hyland, 1998) when they claimed their findings. The information from the four student interviewees provided an insight into this point, one student (S1) said that

> *"the findings in the unit of Conclusion were based on my personal translation/interpretation practice, which had a limitation on the generalization to all translation/interpretation tasks. Thus, I tried to use hedges to reduce the risk of showing complete confidence in claiming my achievements."*

In terms of boosters, they covered a third-highest percentage, which indicated that the students in the MTI field demonstrated their less certainty and confidence in stating findings. Also, the students' attitudes or feelings were not evidently conveyed when they drew a conclusion on their reports, which accounted for the lowest percentage of attitude markers in this unit.

In terms of the normalized frequencies of the four categories of stance, the frequencies of self-mention were much higher than that in genre of RAs across eight disciplines (Hyland, 2005), that in the postgraduate dissertations across the six disciplines (Hyland and Tse, 2004), that in the disciplines of Economy and Political Theory (Lancaster, 2016), and that in Conclusion section in the dentistry research reports (Crosthwaite, Cheung & Jiang, 2017). Similarly, hedges, boosters, and attitude markers were annotated with the higher frequencies than those in genres mentioned above. As a consequence, it could be seen that each of the four categories of stance was more used in this unit than in RAs and dissertations from varied disciplines. It suggests that there was more overt interaction between the reporter (the translator/the interpreter) and the translation/interpretation findings or potential readers in the unit of Conclusion because of the constriction of the generic nature of reports and its specific communicative purposes.

5.7.2 Stance Variations Between the TPR-C and the IPR-C

As Figure 5.7 shows, similar to the previous units, the apparent similarity is the same distributional trend of the four categories of stance between the two subdisciplines, which self-mention covered the highest frequency, followed by hedges, boosters, and attitude markers. This similarity was caused by the reason that "stance is a community-influenced construct" (Jiang & Hyland, 2015, p.530). Given that the unit of Conclusion in the TPR or in the IPR was written by Chinese students in the MTI community who share the same socio-cultural and institutional background, the overall extent of linguistic devices used to express stance in the two subdisciplines would show a certain similarity. Another similarity is that boosters and attitude markers shared almost the same frequencies in both of the two sub-corpora. This might indicate that the students in either the translation or the interpretation subdiscipline showed the same extent in expressing their certainty, attitudes, and feelings when claiming findings in their Conclusions.

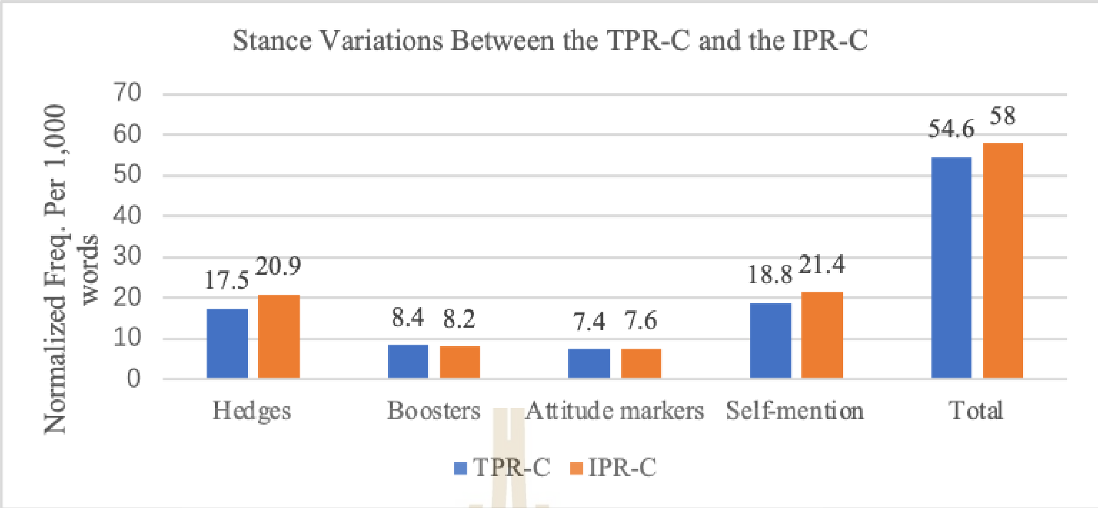


Figure 5.7 Frequency of each category of stance in the TPR-C and the IPR-C

However, two discrepancies in stance distribution can also be found. One is that self-mention in the IPR-C had a higher frequency than that in the TPR-C because reporting the interpretation achievements involves more presence of the "actor" than reporting the translation findings does. Another is that the frequency of hedges in the IPR-C is also higher than that in the TPR-C. This discrepancy is influenced by the different task natures between translation and interpretation. Compared with translation, interpretation is featured by "real-time", which will bring undeniable challenges to students who are taking the interpretation tasks. As a consequence, the interpretation students preferred to use more hedges such as "*can*" and "*could*" to propose their suggestions for dealing with the similar challenges in future interpretation task in the unit of Conclusion.

In the following part, the stance variations in this unit will be further illustrated through discussing the use of the prevalent stance items. Table 5.14 presents the top five stance markers in the unit of Conclusion.

Table 5.14 The top five stance markers in the unit of Conclusion

Hedges		Boosters	
TPR-C	**IPR-C**	**TPR-C**	**IPR-C**
should (7.8)	should (6.5)	must (1.1)	will (2.7)
can (4.1)	can (6.3)	find (0.8)	must (0.6)
may (1.1)	may (1.4)	will (1.0)	always (0.5)
could (0.5)	could (1.2)	know (0.7)	found (0.5)
might (0.5)	would (1.2)	always (0.5)	never (0.3)
Attitude markers		**Self-mention**	
TPR-C	**IPR-C**	**TPR-C**	**IPR-C**
important (1.3)	important (1.2)	the translator (6.8)	the author (9.6)
great (1.1)	practical (1.1)	the author (5.1)	the interpreter (4.9)
significance (0.6)	great (0.8)	we (2.3)	I (1.7)
appropriate (0.5)	even (0.7)	the author's (1.7)	she (1.4)
effective (0.5)	effective (0.6)	my (0.9)	the author's (1.0)

Note: The figure in the parentheses indicates the normalized frequency, which is calculated on the formula "*Number of instances in the subcorpus / total number of words in the subcorpus* × *1,000*".

Hedges

Similar to the previous units, the modal "*should*" was most preferred to hedge the suggestions or recommendations for the translation/interpretation activities. In Excerpts (105) and (106), the translator's/interpreter's voice in making suggestions was moderated by employing "*should*" for the sake of the politeness and for showing the respect for the authoritative knowledge since the writers of the TPR and the IPR are examinees who are applying for their master's degrees.

(105) *As a translator, there* ***should*** *be a high sense of responsibility to ensure the quality of the target text. (TPR-C-27)*
(106) ---, *a qualified interpreter* ***should*** *be able to quickly adapt himself/herself to new interpretation cases in the shortest time. (IPR-C-27)*

As can be seen from the two excerpts above, the modal word "*should*" is a linguistic device preferred by Chinese students to reach the rhetorical effectiveness of toning down their views. This linguistic option might be influenced by the first language interference when Chinese students express their recommendation or suggestion for future translation/interpretation practice. This was explained in the interview by Supervisor B who commented that

> *"possibly influenced by the transfer of mother language, Chinese students prefer to use 'ying gai', a Chinese expression that is equivalent to the English modal word 'should', to offer their suggestions".*

Besides, the modal "*can*" was found to be commonly used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to hedge the significance and the implications of the report. In Excerpts (107) and (108), with the function of telling the possibility, the hedge "*can*" was used to indicate the possible value of a translation/interpretation practice report through withholding the complete certainty to avoid the possible negation from the committee members and peers.

(107) *It is hoped that the readers of this report* ***can*** *benefit from the findings generated from my careful analysis of the Excerpts. (TPR-C-20)*
(108) *It is hoped that interpreters engaged in escort interpreting* ***can*** *benefit from this report. (IPR-C-27)*

Also, we can see that the modal "*may*" was used frequently in Conclusions by the students in both of the two subdisciplines. Compared with the modals "*should*" and "*can*", the use of "*may*" can tone down the reporter's voice more and reduce the risk of being overthrown in claiming opinions. Excerpts (109) and (110) are provided as examples below.

(109) *The report draws the conclusion that Skopostheorie* ***may*** *offer valuable guidelines applicable to effective translation of equipment operation manuals, ---. (TPR-C-22)*

(110) *So, the report* ***may*** *have some limitations in researching depth and width. (IPR-C-17)*

However, as can be seen in Excerpt (111), the modal word "*would*" was found to be used more to limit the generality of the opinions by the students in the interpretation subdiscipline.

(111) *Furthermore, listeners* ***would*** *get bored and lose patience to listen to your interpretation. (IPR-CA-11)*

Boosters

As for boosters, it can be found that the modal "*must*" was preferred by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to strengthen the certainty in claiming the qualities in translation/interpretation. However, due to the real-time nature of interpretation, the interpretation students used fewer "*must*" to increase their confidence in proposing opinions in Conclusions than the translation students. Excerpts (112) and (113) are provided as typical examples.

(112) *A qualified translator* ***must*** *know something of everything and everything of something. (TPR-C-14)*

(113) *A qualified interpreter* ***must*** *accurately convey the speaker's intention and ---. (IPR-C-30)*

In Excerpts (114) and (115), the modal "*will*" was also frequently used by the students in both of the two subdisciplines to increase the commitment to the proposition (Hyland, 2005). However, the modal "*will*" was used more by the interpretation students to make a prediction because the real-time interpretation involves more uncertainties than the text translation does.

(114) ---, *the quality of the translated version* ***will*** *be greatly guaranteed. (TPR-C-20)*
(115) *While interpreting, interpreters* ***will*** *often encounter some temporary and unpredictable problems. (IPR-C-27)*

Besides, despite a low occurrence, it was also found that epistemic verb "*find*" was used to present the students' reflection of the practice task in both of the two subdisciplines, but it was favored more by the translation students than their interpretation counterparts. Excerpts (116) and (117) are provided as typical examples.

(116) ---, *the translator* ***finds*** *that culture-loaded words and expressions don't have foreign equivalents. (TPR-C-4)*
(117) *The author* ***finds*** *that during the interpreting she should drop the form of language, but to focus on the meaning of the speaker. (IPR-C-17)*

Attitude Markers

The adjective "*important*" was also favored by the students in both of the subdisciplines to express the attitude of importance in the unit of Conclusion that has the communicative purposes to summarize the value of the task, the theories, and the strategies and so on. Excerpts (118) and (119) are provided as examples.

(118) *First, the text analysis is an* ***important*** *step for translation which should be done. (TPR-C-9)*

(119) *Preparation is a very **important** stage in interpreting activities. (IPR-C-13)*

Apart from the adjective "*important*", it was found that the adjective "*great*" was also frequently adopted by the students in the two subdisciplines to express the extent of the attitudes towards the difficulty or the importance in the translation/interpretation practice task. Excerpts (120) and (121) are provided as examples below.

(120) *This translation project has offered both a **great** challenge and a wonderful opportunity. (TPR-C-2)*

(121) --- *all these cultural phenomena pose **great** challenge to interpreter while also opening a window for spreading traditional Chinese culture. (IPR-C-22)*

However, it was found that the noun "*significance*" was frequently used by the students in the translation subdiscipline, while the adjective "*practical*" was used more by their interpretation counterparts. It could infer that the translation students tended to express their attitudes towards the value of the translation practice via the attitude marker "*significance*" since a translation task should make a certain contribution to the translation field. However, the interpretation students attempted to deliver their attitudes towards the practical value of the interpretation strategies via the attitude marker "*practical*" because the interpretation is featured by providing practical benefits or values. Excerpts (122) and (123) are provided to illustrate the use of the two attitude markers.

(122) *This is the social **significance** of the project. (TPR-C-14)*

(123) *This report presents a significant and **practical** meaning in exploring the interpretation strategy on press conference. (IPR-C-14)*

Self-mention

Similar to the previous units, the genre-specific self-mentions such as "*the translator*" and "*the interpreter*" were respectively used to refer to the writer (reporter) herself/himself by the students in the two different subdisciplines. Excerpts (124) and (125) shows the use of the genre-specific self-mentions.

> (124) *In conclusion, **the translator** benefits a lot from both translation skills and practice. (TPR-C-15)*
>
> (125) *Through accomplishing the interpretation task, **the interpreter** found that there has been still a long way to improve especially in the following aspects: ---. (IPR-C-10)*

Apart from these two discipline-specific self-mentions, "*the author*" was also frequently used to conclude activities and findings in Conclusions by the students in both of the two subdisciplines. Excerpts (126) and (127) are provided as examples below.

> (126) *According to the translation practice, **the author** puts forward the following three suggestions. (TPR-C-20)*
>
> (127) *In the process of the interpreting, **the author** has applied a lot of interpreting theories and techniques what she has learnt in the class into practice. (IPR-C-28)*

Besides, as shown in Excerpts (128) and (129), it was interesting to find that "*we*" was preferred by the translation students only, but the first singular pronoun "*I*" was favored by the interpretation students. This is mainly because the interpretation students intended to stress their ownership and responsibility for what they had obtained in their interpretation practice because the interpretation task was usually an individual work. This point was confirmed by Supervisor A in the interview who said that *"the use of 'I' rather 'we' can be understood as an indication that the interpretation students claim the ownership and the responsibility of their interpretation task in the way of stating 'what I have responsible for is what I have achieved'".*

(128) *When **we** encounter difficulties in translation, **we** should deliberate the version, refer to the relevant information, consult a professional, ---. (TPR-C-27)*

(129) *Through this interpretation practice, **I** gain a lot of valuable knowledge that cannot be learned from class and also find many shortcomings. (IPR-C-26)*

5.8 Summary

In this chapter, the results of the corpus-based stance investigation in the TPR and the IPR are reported and discussed from the two research aspects: the stance features and the stance variations, which is arranged in the sequence of the six units in the TPR and the IPR (i.e. six sets of sub-corpora) after the overall stance features and variations in the TPR and the IPR are reported and discussed.

In the first research aspect, based on the quantitative stance distribution in terms of the raw number, the percentage, and the normalized frequency of the four stance categories (i.e. hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention), the overall stance features in the TPR and the IPR and the specific features in each of the six units were disclosed by discussing the percentage distribution of the four stance categories, and by comparing the normalized frequency of each category of stance with those in the related studies. It was found that they showed the genre-specific features, which varied from those in genres in other fields.

In the second research aspect, the overall stance variations in the TPR and the IPR and the stance variations in each of the six units were reported and discussed by comparing the normalized frequency of each category of stance between the two subdisciplines, and by comparing the qualitative use of the prevalent stance markers in each category through providing the excerpts in their sub-disciplinary contexts. It was revealed that more similarities than differences existed between the two closely related subdisciplines in either the quantitative stance distribution and the qualitative use of the particular stance items. The reasons for these findings can be generally attributed to the community-based nature of genres (Hyland, 2008) and the disciplinary variations (Hyland, 1999, 2000, 2005), respectively.

Besides, the information in the interview was extracted to facilitate the discussion of the research results in the two research aspects above, which offered an additional insight into the particular findings from the insider informants.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS

The final chapter concludes the present study by making a summary of the main findings in the current study. Then, the implications contributed by the present study are addressed, followed by the limitations and the recommendations for future studies.

6.1 Summary of the Main Findings

6.1.1 The Findings of Corpus-based Move Analysis

The main findings of the corpus-based move analysis were summarized in Table 6.1, in which 29 moves and 84 steps identified in the 6 organizational units of the TPR and the IPR were proposed. Specifically, 6 moves and 11 steps were contained in *Abstract* that offered an informative summary of a TPR/IPR; 6 moves and 15 steps were identified in *Introduction* that provided a preview of the TPR/IPR; 5 moves and 19 steps were included in *Task Description* that described the nature of the practice task; 3 moves and 14 steps were revealed in *Process Description* that reported the practice procedures; 5 moves and 9 steps were postulated in *Case Analysis* that analyzed the representative translation/interpretation phenomena in the practice task; 4 moves and 16 steps were found in *Conclusion* that summarized the TPR/IPR.

Table 6.1 The proposed discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR

Units		Moves and Steps	Status		Variations
			TPR	IPR	
Abstract			***	***	✓
M1		**Making introduction**	*	**	✗
M2		**Presenting task**	***	***	✓
	M2S1	Indicating type and feature(s)	*	**	
	M2S2	Indicating background	*	*	
	M2S3	Indicating source	***	**	
M3		**Providing rationale**	**	*	✗
	M3S1	Claiming importance	**	*	
	M3S2	Indicating a gap	*	*	
M4		**Summarizing practice**	***	***	✓
	M4S1	Indicating purpose	**	*	
	M4S2	Indicating theory adopted	*	*	
	M4S3	Outlining practice report	**	***	
	M4S4	Reflecting on practice	*	*	
M5		**Indicating report structure**	**	**	✓
M6		**Drawing implications**	*	**	✗
	M6S1	Indicating significance	*	*	
	M6S2	Offering pedagogical implications	*	**	
Introduction			**	**	✓
M7		**Introducing context**	**	**	✓
M8		**Introducing rationale**	***	***	✓
	M8S1	Referring to literature	*	*	
	M8S2	Introducing a gap	*	*	
	M8S3	Giving reason(s) for task	*	*	
	M8S4	Claiming importance	**	**	
M9		**Introducing task**	***	***	✓
	M9S1	Introducing task type and feature(s)	*	*	
	M9S2	Introducing task background	*	*	
	M9S3	Introducing source of task	**	**	
	M9S4	Introducing task contents	*	*	
M10		**Demonstrating significance**	**	*	✗
	M10S1	Demonstrating significance in real world	*	*	
	M10S2	Demonstrating significance in this field	*	*	

Note: * indicating optional status; ** indicating conventional status; *** indicating obligatory status; ✓ indicating the similarity in unit/move status; ✗ indicating the difference in unit/move status

Table 6.1 The proposed discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR (Cont.)

Units		Moves and Steps	Status		Variations
			TPR	IPR	
M11		**Overviewing practice**	**	***	✗
	M11S1	Introducing purpose	**	**	
	M11S2	Introducing theory and method	*	*	
	M11S3	Introducing overall practice process	*	*	
	M11S4	Presenting reflection	*	**	
	M11S5	Providing pedagogical implications	*	*	
M12		**Introducing report structure**	**	**	✓
Task Description			**	***	✗
M13		**Describing context**	*	*	✓
M14		**Describing rationale**	**	*	✗
	M14S1	Referring to literature	*	*	
	M14S2	Indicating a gap	*	*	
	M14S3	Describing reason(s) for task	*	*	
	M14S4	Claiming importance	*	*	
M15		**Describing task**	***	***	✓
	M15S1	Describing the task type and feature(s)	**	**	
	M15S2	Describing the task source	**	**	
	M15S3	Describing the author	*	*	
	M15S4	Describing the readers	*	*	
	M15S5	Describing the text contents	**	*	
	M15S6	Describing the client	*	**	
	M15S7	Describing the audiences	*	*	
	M15S8	Describing the interpreting task	*	**	
	M15S9	Describing the task requirements	*	*	
M16		**Describing process**	*	**	✗
	M16S1	Describing the purpose	*	*	
	M16S2	Describing the theory and methods	*	*	
	M16S3	Describing overall procedures	*	*	
M17		**Describing results**	*	*	✓
	M17S1	Describing achievements	*	*	
	M17S2	Describing the significance	*	*	
	M17S3	Describing reflection	*	*	

Note: * indicating optional status; ** indicating conventional status; *** indicating obligatory status; ✓ indicating the similarity in unit/move status; ✗ indicating the difference in unit/move status

Table 6.1 The proposed discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR (Cont.)

Units		Moves and Steps	Status TPR	Status IPR	Variations
Process Description			***	***	✓
M18		**Describing pre-task**	***	***	✓
	M18S1	Describing the importance of the preparatory work	*	*	
	M18S2	Describing task-oriented preparation	***	***	
	M18S3	Adopting theory and strategies	**	*	
	M18S4	Formulating terminology list(s)	*	**	
	M18S5	Preparing skills and tools	**	**	
	M18S6	Preparing a task plan	*	*	
	M18S7	Describing the psychological preparation	*	*	
M19		**Describing during-task**	**	***	✗
	M19S1	Describing the on-site work	*	***	
	M19S2	Describing the translation process	**	*	
	M19S3	Dealing with the emergency	*	*	
M20		**Describing after-task**	***	**	✗
	M20S1	Having proof-reading and revision	**	*	
	M20S2	Describing quality control	*	*	
	M20S3	Having feedback and evaluation	*	*	
	M20S4	Making a summary	*	*	
Case Analysis			***	***	✓
M21		**Opening the Case Analysis Chapter**	**	**	✓
M22		**Offering a theoretical basis**	*	*	✓
	M22S1	Introducing the theory	*	*	
	M22S2	Describing key rules/principles of the theory	*	*	
	M22S3	Justifying the theory	*	*	
	M22S4	Claiming the applicability of the theory	*	*	
	M22S5	Summarizing the theory	*	*	
M23		**Providing an overview of translation/interpretation phenomena**	***	***	✓

Note: * indicating optional status; ** indicating conventional status; *** indicating obligatory status; ✓ indicating the similarity in unit/move status; ✗ indicating the difference in unit/move status

Table 6.1 The proposed discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR (Cont.)

Units		Moves and Steps	Status TPR	Status IPR	Variations
M24		**Illustrating one category of translation/interpretation phenomena**	***	***	✓
	M24S1	Describing the translation/interpretation phenomenon	***	***	
	M24S2	Describing the sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomenon	*	*	
	M24S3	Conducting case(s) analysis	***	***	
	M24S4	Summarizing the translation/interpretation phenomenon	*	**	
M25		**Closing the Case Analysis Chapter**	*	*	✓
Conclusion			***	***	✓
M26		**Reviewing the practice task**	**	***	✗
	M26S1	Reviewing the task type and feature(s)	*	*	
	M26S2	Reviewing the task context	*	*	
	M26S3	Restating the task source	*	*	
	M26S4	Reviewing the purpose	*	*	
	M26S5	Restating the theory and method	*	*	
	M26S6	Reviewing overall practice process	*	*	
M27		**Summarizing the practice task**	***	***	✓
	M27S1	Summarizing main findings	*	**	
	M27S2	Summarizing problems encountered	*	*	
	M27S3	Summarizing skills/strategies adopted	*	*	
	M27S4	Summarizing experience obtained	**	**	
	M27S5	Summarizing main contents of the report	*	*	
M28		**Evaluating the practice task**	**	**	✓
	M28S1	Making evaluation	*	*	
	M28S2	Claiming significance	*	*	
	M28S3	Stating limitations	**	**	
M29		**Deducting from the practice task**	**	**	✓
	M29S1	Making suggestions	**	*	
	M29S2	Providing pedagogical implications	*	*	

Note: * indicating optional status; ** indicating conventional status; *** indicating obligatory status; ✓ indicating the similarity in unit/move status; ✗ indicating the difference in unit/move status

The discourse structural variations between the TPR and the IPR were also summarized in Table 6.1 by marking the same unit/move status via "✓" and the different unit/move status via "✗". As can be seen, both the TPR and the IPR demonstrated the evident similarities in the discourse structures either at the unit level or at the moves level.

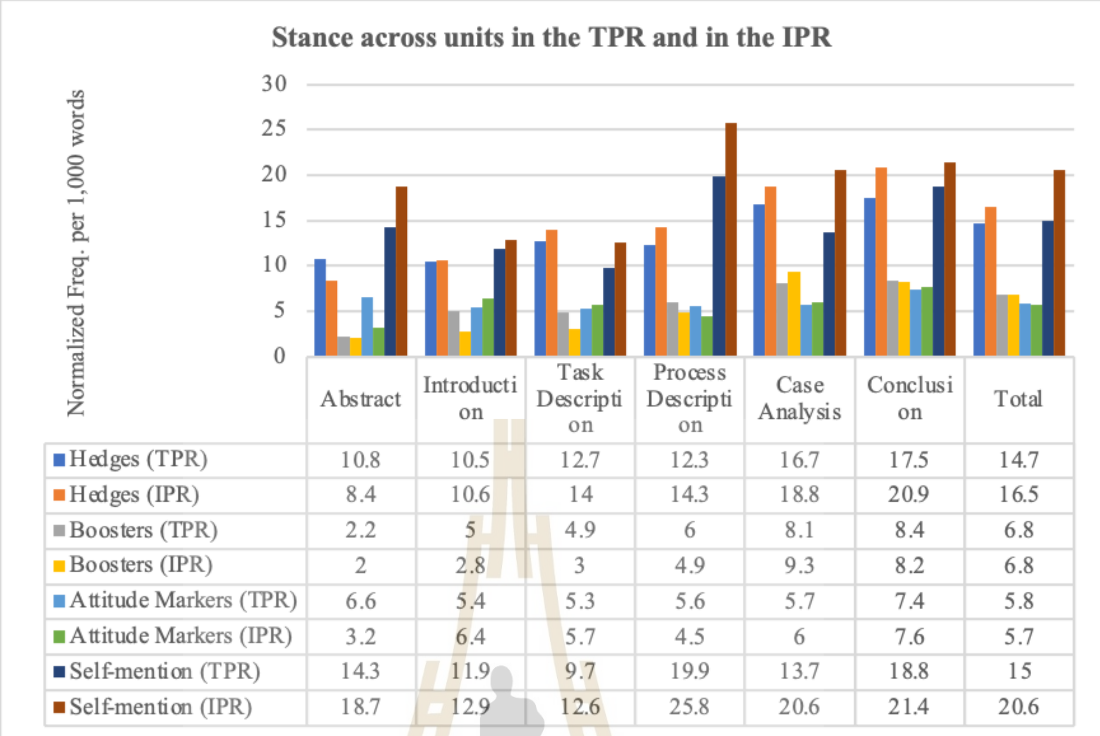
The variations of the discourse structures between the TPR and the IPR could be explained by several reasons. The similarities were basically caused by the community-based nature of genres (Hyland, 2008). Constrained by the genre nature, the TPR and the IPR produced in the same community would have a similar tendency in their rhetorical options. Besides, influenced by the fact that the writing conventions are confined by the genre community (Bhatia, 1993; Hyland, 2008; Swales, 1990, 2004), students in the same genre community tended to have a similar understanding of the writing conventions of the TPR and the IPR. Lastly, because the writers' academic habits are influenced by cultural settings (Hinkel, 2002; Uysal, 2012), the TPR writers and the IPR writers who have similar writing habit and literacy competence would display the similarities in the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR.

On the contrary, the discrepancies in the discourse structures are mainly caused by the disciplinary variations that the varieties of rhetorical structure and writing strategies exist among different disciplines (Hyland, 2000; Ozturk, 2007; Samraj, 2002, 2005). In addition, the different natures of the translation and the interpretation attributed to the differences in the discourse structures between the TPR and the IPR as well.

Meanwhile, the information from the supervisors and the students in the interview raised some themes that are interesting and useful for explaining the variations of the discourse structures between the two subdisciplines. For example, the “optional task” and the “contract task”, which are the two different categories of the practice task, were proposed to explain the different status of moves between the two subdisciplines. Besides, the features of the interpretation task that are market-oriented, real-time, instantaneous, and environment-constrained were commonly mentioned by the interviewees to explain the discrepancies in discourse structures between the two subdisciplines.

6.1.2 The Findings of the Corpus-based Stance Investigation

The main findings from the corpus-based stance investigation revealed that the use of stance was an important feature in the MTI Practice Report. Specifically, Figure 6.1 presents a summary of the whole corpus-based stance investigation. It demonstrates the distribution of stance, in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, across the six units and the two subdisciplines.



	Abstract	Introduction	Task Description	Process Description	Case Analysis	Conclusion	Total
Hedges (TPR)	10.8	10.5	12.7	12.3	16.7	17.5	14.7
Hedges (IPR)	8.4	10.6	14	14.3	18.8	20.9	16.5
Boosters (TPR)	2.2	5	4.9	6	8.1	8.4	6.8
Boosters (IPR)	2	2.8	3	4.9	9.3	8.2	6.8
Attitude Markers (TPR)	6.6	5.4	5.3	5.6	5.7	7.4	5.8
Attitude Markers (IPR)	3.2	6.4	5.7	4.5	6	7.6	5.7
Self-mention (TPR)	14.3	11.9	9.7	19.9	13.7	18.8	15
Self-mention (IPR)	18.7	12.9	12.6	25.8	20.6	21.4	20.6

Figure 6.1 Stance distribution across the units in the TPR and in the IPR

The findings disclosed that self-mention occurred with the highest frequency, followed by hedges, boosters, and attitude markers in terms of the total number in both of the TPR and the IPR. In terms of the stance distribution in each of the six organizational units, except for the unit of *Task Description* in which hedges were employed with the highest frequency, self-mention was used most frequently among the four categories in the units of *Abstract*, *Introduction*, *Process Description*, *Case Analysis*, and *Conclusion* in both of the TPR and the IPR. Correspondingly, hedges had the second-highest frequency in those five units. In the units of *Abstract*, *Introduction*, and *Task Description*, attitude markers were annotated with the third-highest frequency, but boosters were least used in both of the TPR and the IPR. On the contrary, in the units of *Process Description*, *Case Analysis*, and *Conclusion*, boosters were annotated with the third-highest frequency, but attitude markers were least employed.

Regarding the variations of stance between the TPR and the IPR in the six units, the findings revealed that (1) self-mention was more frequently used in the IPR than in the TPR across the six units. (2) Except for the unit of *Abstract*, hedges were used heavily in the IPR than in the TPR in the rest of the five organizational units. (3) Except for the unit of *Case Analysis*, boosters were more frequently employed in the TPR than in the IPR in the rest of the five organizational units. (4) In the units of *Abstract* and *Process Description*, attitude markers were more frequently used in the TPR than in the IPR. On the contrary, in the units of *Introduction*, *Task Description*, *Case analysis*, and *Conclusion*, attitude markers were more frequently used in the IPR than in the TPR.

Besides, the findings revealed the variations of stance between the two subdiscipline through discussing the qualitative use of the prevalent stance markers in the TPR and the IPR, in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, in each of the six organizational units. It demonstrates that more similarities than differences existed in the use of the specific stance items. In sum, as for hedges, the modality such as "*can*", "*should*", "*would*", and "*may*", and the adverb "*mainly*" were frequently used in both of the TPR and the IPR. In terms of boosters, the modality such as "*must*" and "*will*", the epistemic verbs such as "*know*", "*believe*", and "*find*", and the adverbs such as "*always*" and "*really*" were frequently adopted in both of the TPR and the IPR. As for attitude markers, the adjectives such as "*important*" and "*great*", the epistemic noun "*significance*", and the epistemic verb "*hope*" were frequently employed in both of the TPR and the IPR. Last, self-mention such as "*the author*" and "*the writer*" were commonly used in both of the TPR and the IPR.

Despite those similarities summarized above, some interesting discrepancies in the prevalent stance markers between the TPR and the IPR were found as well. For example, the modal "*could*" and the adverb "*somewhat*" were exclusively listed in the top five hedges in the IPR; the adverb "*never*" was listed only in the top five boosters in the IPR; the adjective "*interesting*" was exclusively listed in the top five attitude markers in the TPR, while the adjective "*essential*" was only annotated in the top five attitude markers in the IPR; the processive "*our*" was exclusively ranked in the top five self-mention in the TPR, but the pronoun "*she*" was exclusively annotated in the top five self-mention in the IPR.

The same reasons that accounted for the variations in the discourse structures could be used to explain the stance variations between the TPR and the IPR. Concerning the similarities, they were first attributed to the community-based nature of genres (Hyland, 2008). Because the stance frequency and the specific stance markers that were employed by the students in the MTI program to express their epistemic assessment, to deliver their attitudes, and to present themselves would be constrained by the community conventions in the MTI field. Secondly, those similarities were also caused by the similar communicative purposes of the TPR and the IPR because the writing conventions serve the communicative purposes of the genre (Bhatia, 1993, Swales, 1990, 2004). As for the differences, they were firstly caused by the disciplinary variations (Hyland, 1999, 2000, 2005) since the TPR and the IPR are the two sub-types of master's theses that written by the students in the two different subdisciplines. Secondly, those differences were caused by the different natures of the translation task and the interpretation task that were respectively described in the TPR and the IPR.

6.2 Implications

The current study may have some implications in the theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical aspects.

6.2.1 Theoretical Implications

From the perspective of the genre theory, the current study may have some theoretical implications. Since genre is "a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes" (Swales, 1990, p.58), which is featured by the key elements such as communicative purposes, discourse community, the audience, and the schematic structure patterns. The genre analysis of the MTI Practice Report in the current study has made a contribution to the genre knowledge by introducing and describing a newly emerging genre, which is formed by a group of texts with specific communicative purposes in Chinese academic community to meet the educational goals of translation and interpretation in China. Specifically, through a corpus-based genre analysis, the current study claims that the MTI Practice Report is a discipline genre in the following generic aspects. Firstly, as the most important element in genre identification, the communicative purposes of the MTI Practice Report are to report what a translation/interpretation student has conducted in a practice task on the one hand and aim to satisfy the academic requirement for a master degree in translation and interpretation field on the other hand, which is different from the academic genres on empirical studies and the professional genres on none-empirical studies. Secondly, serving for the communicative purposes, the discourse community of the MTI Practice Report, which is specific to Chinese translation and interpretation educational context, is formed as a socio-rhetorical network through a class of recurrent communicative events that are constrained by the conventions such as the educational policies and goals, academic and institutional norms, and the practical consideration in the MTI program in China. Thirdly, as the target of this genre, the audience of the MTI Practice Report not only includes the population of the report readers but also includes the committee members who play the role of judging whether a student is qualified for a master's degree. The double-facets of the audience are generated from the two facets of communicative purposes of the MTI Practice Report, which also makes the MTI Practice Report distinctive. Lastly, the schematic structure patterns of the MTI Practice Report, as one important feature in understanding a new genre, are revealed to be different from those of other academic genres and professional genres, which leads to the second theoretical contribution of the current study below.

One more important theoretical contribution of the current study is made by postulating a move-step framework to describe the structural patterns of this new genre. Specifically, by means of the corpus-based move analysis on 60 MTI Practice Reports collected from 30 universities in 16 provinces in China, the current study claims that a move-step framework, consisting 6 organizational units, 29 moves, and 84 steps, can describe how writers of this specific genre in this particular academic discourse community organize the overall communicative event. It is expected that this framework may add a new insight into genre knowledge by showing how writers typically use genre conventions to reach the communicative purposes in a specific discourse community.

Besides, one more contribution is made by the current study through revealing that the MTI Practice Report is a reporting genre, which is formed in the Chinese academic community to serve the educational goals of producing the professional translator and interpreter in the Chinese higher education system. For a new and unfamiliar reporting genre, the genre analysis in the current study offered the initial genre knowledge on this group of reporting texts with particular communicative purposes. It is hoped to draw attention to this reporting genre from the genre analysts and to establish a possible connection with other reporting genres, which benefits the expansion for more variety of the genre family.

6.2.2 Methodological Implications

From the methodological perspective, firstly, the current study realized the interface of the corpus linguistics and the genre analysis, which was strongly advocated by many scholars (e.g. Bhatia, 2004; Biber, et al, 2007; Flowerdew, 2005; Hüttner et al, 2009). On the basis of a set of corpora that were compiled systematically to represent the general writing of the MTI Practice Report (consisting of the TPR and the IPR) in the MTI field in China, both move analysis and stance investigation were respectively conducted at the macro-level and at the micro-level, with the aims to generalize the discourse organizational patterns and the linguistic features for a newly emerging genre. Secondly, the current study expanded the genre analysis to a new genre that was emerged in China by following the Swales' genre analysis tradition. To a certain degree, it would add a new insight to the ever-evolving genre knowledge by taking similar route adopted by the genre analysts in exploring the rhetorical structures of genres in academic and professional settings. Those ground-breaking genre studies can be listed from the study to propose CARS model for Introduction sections in RAs (Swales, 1990), the study to reveal the move framework for the promotional genre (Bhatia, 1993), and the study to propose the move model for the grant proposals (Connor & Mauranen, 1999) in the last decade of 20st century to the studies conducted in the latest years to disclose the rhetorical structures for the genre of student laboratory report (Parkinson, 2017), the genre of three minute thesis presentations (Hu & Liu, 2018), and the genre of broader impact sections in the grant proposals (Cotos, 2019). Hence, it is believed that the current study had a methodological implication for future studies on the rhetorical structure of the unknown or the underexplored genres. Thirdly, the current study, drawing on a corpus-based approach and employing Hyland's (2005) stance framework, extended the stance investigation to the TPR and the IPR to explore how Chinese student translators/interpreters expressed their epistemic assessments, attitudes, and the presence of themselves in a reporting genre in Chinese academic domain. This contributed a methodological implication on the stance study in genres that are not well-known as well. Lastly, the interview was adopted to integrate the insider informants' rhetorical understanding with the corpus-based text analysis, with a purpose to strengthen the validity of the research results. It is expected that the current study would offer useful implications from its methodological perspective.

6.2.3 Pedagogical Implications

From the macro-perspective of the MTI education in China, the findings of the current study might have an implication on the policymaking on the writing of the MTI Practice Report (consisting of the TPR and the IPR). Particularly, the move-step framework proposed in the current study may provide a useful reference for Chinese policymakers in the MTI field to witness the gap between the MTI writing manuals that were initiated from the policy perspective and the actual writing that was made by the MTI students. Similarly, the linguistic features, in terms of stance, obtained in the current study also reflected the actual status in which Chinese students in this field expressed their stance in thesis writing.

Additionally, the move-step framework proposed for the discourse structures of the TPR and the IPR in the current study could contribute to the improvement and the refinement of the framework advocated by Chinese scholars (Mu et al., 2012) in the way that it provides a holistic portrait of all sections that are included in an MTI Practice Report with a detailed description of the functions, linguistic features, and the frequency status. This had an implication on the development of the frameworks in obtaining the genre knowledge for a new genre. Especially, the current study extended the corpus-based genre study in exploring the general discourse structure and the stance features in the TPR and the IPR to the investigation of the disciplinary variations by comparing the research results achieved in each subdiscipline at the two levels. This demonstrated an implication on the genre studies from the cross-disciplinary perspective.

More importantly, from the micro-perspective of the MTI education in China, the findings of the current study would definitely have the pedagogical implications regarding that the purpose of the move analysis is motivated by the pedagogical concern particularly by the need to propose the appropriate models for genre teaching (e.g. Swales, 1990, 2000, 2004).

Firstly, the research findings achieved in the current study are expected to help raise the awareness of the students and the instructors in the MTI field in their writing and teaching writing theses (the TPR and the IPR) in aspects of the discourse structures and the use of stance.

Secondly, the current study revealed a holistic picture of the discourse structures and the general use of stance in the TPR and the IPR. It is hoped that the findings can provide a good reference for the design of the syllabus and the teaching materials on thesis writing for the MTI program in China.

Thirdly, the findings of the current study, either in terms of the move-step discourse structure or in terms of the stance features, can be pedagogically applied into the classroom teaching with the specific activities to empower Chinese MTI students to become proficient writers in satisfying the thesis requirement for their master's degree.

Specifically, in terms of the move-step framework proposed in the current study, the detailed description of the functions of 6 organizational units, containing 29 moves and 84 steps, can help students to acquire a basic understanding of the TPR and the IPR structures. Moreover, since a genre-based approach can bring the genre research results and the teaching of genre much closer (Hyland, 2008, p.544), the move-step framework proposed in the current study can be taken as a template to be integrated into the course of *MTI theses writing* to implement genre-based instruction. The specific classroom teaching activities are proposed by following the patterns of teaching move structure (Cheng, 2008; Peacock, 2011; Swales and Feak, 2004), which generally contained the procedures of *defining a move – illustrating the move function – providing the typical examples – analyzing linguistic features – noting the discipline-specific practices in the move*.

Regarding the findings of corpus-based stance investigation, because stance conventions are not always easily understood by foreign language learners due to a lack of explicit attention and practice (Hyland 2012), it is suggested to assist students to understand the genre-specific stance convention and the disciplinary variations through a systemic and effective instruction. For example, the corpus data obtained in the current study can be used to help raise students' awareness of stance expression through designing the writing materials with multiple-forms of exercises and through presenting the linguistic resources used for hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, which are underdeveloped in the writing of the TPR and the IPR by Chinese MTI students. Besides, the findings can be utilized to expose the students to the preferred stance expression with the specific examples and to enhance their discipline-specific learning of stance patterns by offering them with the authentic contexts for some particular stance items in the two different subdisciplines.

Most importantly, the findings of the current study can make some contributions to the translation and the interpretation field. As aforementioned, the pedagogical implications from both the policy level and the classroom teaching level will definitely benefit the education of the translation and the interpretation through solving the problems in writing a report as a master thesis in the MTI field in China. In doing so, more professional translators and interpreters, who are granted with the master's degree, can make their contributions to the development of the translation and interpretation industry not only in China but hopefully also worldwide. Meanwhile, the

MTI Practice Report as a thesis type for the translation and interpretation education, the move and step framework of this genre, and the linguistic features of this genre revealed in the current study can also shed light on the education and training of the professional translators and interpreters in other countries. This can contribute to the development of the translation and interpretation field by meeting the demand of qualified translators and interpreters to cope with the boom of the vibrant translation and interpretation activities all over the world.

6.3 Limitations and Recommendations for the Future Study

6.3.1 Limitations of the Study

As an exploratory study to probe the discourse structure and the use of stance in a newly emerging genre, it cannot deny that some limitations existed in the current study.

The most apparent limitation was related to the labels of moves and steps proposed in the framework of the TPR and the IPR. Although the naming of move/step labels was initially based on the contents in the framework advocated by Chinese scholars (Mu et al., 2012) and were further improved based on the pilot coding that was conducted by the researcher and the invited coder together, it should be acknowledged that there might be certain flaws in defining the moves and steps for a new genre due to the flexibility of moves and steps in the TPR and the IPR.

Similarly, it might bring regret in an exploratory genre study in probing the possible moves and steps without reporting the evolvement of the labels of moves and steps, which actually occurred in the current study. This decision was intentionally made by the researcher given that it would cause the possible negative effects on the clarity of moves and steps by reporting the complex and dynamic process of refining the move/step labels during the research.

One more limitation went to the texts sampled in the corpora, ranging from 2012-2017, which was in the initial stage of the MTI program in China. Although it is believed that the representativeness of the corpora was well guaranteed through a systemic sampling procedure, the generalization of the results of the corpus-based move analysis and the stance investigation was affected by the quality of the students' actual writing to a certain degree. On the one hand, the structural organizations in the collected texts varied greatly due to the different writing manuals adopted by the different universities during this period time. On the other hand, many obvious grammatical, lexical, and semantic errors were present in the sampled texts due to the MTI students' comparatively low writing competence. All these might affect the generalizability of the research findings to a certain extent.

Besides, as Hyland (1999) acknowledged that his proposed stance framework, in terms of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention, cannot cover all aspects of stance features in the corpus, the same limitation was also unavoidable in the current study. In consequence, the corpus-based stance investigation in the current study only focused on the overt stance markers in the TPR and the IPR.

Additionally, constrained by the word limits in a dissertation, it was a pity that the discussion of the discourse structural variations between the two subdisciplines at the step level was intentionally omitted. The same treatment was also adopted to the discussion of the corpus-based stance investigation, which was limited to the unit level rather than the move and the step level.

The last limitation was related to the interview in the current study in which the interviewees invited were the insider informants rather than the actual writers of the TPR and the IPR and their supervisors. It was a pity that it was impossible to contact the authors of the texts and their supervisors because the texts in the corpora were sampled via an online database from 30 universities in 16 provinces in China.

6.3.2 Recommendations for the Future Study

The current study, being focused on a new emerging genre, may bring a number of interesting areas that are worth further exploration. Based on the limitations aforementioned, several recommendations were made for future studies.

First, concerning that a suitable move-step framework should be improved and refined to maximize its pedagogical benefits, drawing on the move-step framework proposed in the current study, a future study with the latest and larger amount of the TPRs and the IPRs is expected to test, verify, and modify the moves and steps proposed in the current study. Also, it is expected that the move-step framework can be refined by identifying the new moves/steps, move/step sequence, and move/step embedment via genre-related research studies. In addition to this, a diachronic study on the evolvement of discourse structures in the TPR and the IPR is highly recommended.

Secondly, it seems that a systematic study on the linguistic features such as tense, voice, and lexical bundles in each organizational unit or each move proposed in the current study is highly needed. With this additional genre knowledge, the MTI students would be empowered to write their theses more proficiently.

Thirdly, apart from stance, a corpus-based study on other meta-discourse sources such as the interactive devices, which are important for the flow of the message in the TPR and the IPR, is worth being considered.

Fourthly, it is expected that the interview in future studies on the discourse structure and stance can manage to have the actual writers as interviewees. By doing so, the deep information of the writer's awareness of how they organize their texts, and how they express their opinions, attitudes, and present themselves in their texts would be captured.

Last but not least, based on the findings achieved in the current study, a future study on the effect of the genre-based instruction in aspects of the discourse structure and the use of stance in the TPR and the IPR is worth being conducted.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

A Preliminary Online Survey on the MTI Thesis Writing

(with an emphasis on the TPR and the IPR)

Instruction: Welcome to the survey on the Master of Translation and Interpretation (MTI) thesis writing, with an emphasis on the Translation/Interpretation Practice Report. The survey is only used for my dissertation research, which will not harm your own privacy. Thus, there is no right and wrong answer. Please select items according to your own situation. The survey will approximately take you 20 minutes. Thank you for taking the time to complete it.

Definition: For the purpose of the current study, the survey will focus on the MTI Practice Report, which is one of four types degree thesis admitted by the Administration of Education of PRC, that is Practice Report, Intern Report, Experiment Report and Research Theses. The definition of the **MTI Practice Report** is a report written by an MTI student on basis of his or her practical translation/interpretation practice, which aims to make a summative description about the whole translation or interpretation procedure, the problems encountered, and the corresponding theories or techniques adopted in the procedure. It has a purpose to propose some suggestions for future translation or interpretation practice. Thus, the MTI Practice Report in my research mainly includes the Translation Practice Report (TPR) and the Interpretation Practice Report (IPR). All questions in the survey are based on this basic definition.

i. The demographic information

1. What is your discipline? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Translation	42	87.5%
B. Interpretation	6	12.5%
Participants	48	

2. What grade are you in? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. 1	19	39.58%
B. 2	7	14.58%
C. 3	22	45.83%
Participants	48	

3. Is English your major before being enrolled in MTI program? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	42	87.5%
B. No	6	12.5%
Participants	48	

ii. Your understanding on MTI thesis

*1. Is MTI thesis important for you? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	45	93.75%
B. No	3	6.25%
Participants	48	

*2. Is MTI thesis difficult for you to complete? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	27	56.25%
B. No	21	43.75%
Participants	48	

3. Which types of MTI theses are admitted by Ministry of Education of the People's Republic of China? [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Practice Report	43	89.58%
B. Intern Report	43	89.58%
C. Experiment Report	39	81.25%
D. Research Theses	43	89.58%
E. All above	39	81.25%
Participants	48	

4. Which types of MTI theses are adopted by the committee to grant a MTI degree in your university? [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Practice Report	39	81.25%
B. Intern Report	34	70.83%
C. Experiment Report	27	56.25%
D. Research Theses	34	70.83%
Participants	48	

*5. Which type of MTI thesis do you prefer for your final degree thesis? [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Practice Report	30	62.5%
B. Intern Report	14	29.17%
B. Experiment Report	12	25%
C. Research Thesis	6	12.5%
Participants	48	

*6. Your preference in type of MTI thesis is decided by [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. My practical translation/interpretation practice	34	70.83%
B. My practical translation/interpretation internship	20	41.67%
C. The request from my university	30	62.5%
D. Its importance and significance in my study	28	58.33%
E. Its usefulness for my future career	28	58.33%
F. Its popularity in MTI program	25	52.08%
G. I can obtain much online information on this type	20	41.67%
H. I can obtain much online information on this type	20	41.67%
Participants	48	

*7. Which language is permitted to complete your MTI thesis in your university? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. English	46	95.83%
B. Chinese	2	4.17%
Participants	48	

*8. Which language do you prefer in writing your MTI thesis? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. English	24	50%
B. Chinese	24	50%
Participants	48	

*9. Your preference to using English to complete your MTI thesis because_____? [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Writing MTI thesis in English is easier than in Chinese for me	14	29.17%
B. Writing MTI thesis in English is suitable for this genre	23	47.92%
C. I am majored in English	38	79.17%
D. It is required by my university	23	47.92%
E. It can strengthen my language abilities	23	47.92%
F. Other	4	8.33%
Participants	48	

10. Your preference in using Chinese to complete your MTI thesis because_____? [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Writing thesis in Chinese is easier for me	34	70.83%
B. Writing MTI thesis in English is suitable for this genre	22	45.83%
C. I am used to using Chinese to express myself	6	12.5%
D. It is required by my university	13	27.08%
E. Other	10	20.83%
Participants	48	

iii. Your understanding on the MTI Practice Report

1. Do you know what the MTI Practice Report is before? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	43	89.58%
B. No	5	10.42%
Participants	48	

*2. Do you know the format or organization of the MTI Practice Report? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	27	56.25%
B. No	21	43.75%
Participants	48	

3. Is the Translation Practice Report same to the Interpretation Practice Report? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	10	20.83%
B. No	38	79.17%
Participants	48	

4. Between the Translation Practice Report and the Interpretation Practice Report, which do you prefer? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Translation Practice Report	42	87.5%
B. Interpretation Practice Report	6	12.5%
Participants	48	

5. The reasons for your preference to the Translation Practice Report are_____ [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Because of my discipline	37	77.08%
B. Because of the translation practice or translation internship I got	37	77.08%
C. Because of the request from my university	22	45.83%
D. Because of writing instruction and practice on Translation Practice Report I got	28	58.33%
E. Because I can obtain much online information on the writing of Translation Practice Report	12	25%
F. Because I have more opportunities in doing translation than doing interpretation	18	37.5%
G. Other	2	4.17%
Participants	48	

6. The reasons for your preference to the Interpretation Practice Report are_____ Because of my discipline [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Because of my discipline	16	33.33%
B. Because of the interpretation practice or interpretation internship I got	15	31.25%
C. Because of the request from my university	16	33.33%
D. Because of writing instruction and practice on Interpretation Practice Report I got	15	31.25%
E. Because I can obtain much online information on the writing of Interpretation Practice Report	12	25%
F. Because I have more opportunities in doing interpretation than doing translation	9	18.75%
G. Other	10	20.83%
Participants	48	

iv. Your difficulties and needs in writing the MTI Practice Report

*1. Is writing the Translation Practice Report challenging for you? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	39	81.25%
B. No	9	18.75%
Participants	48	

*2. Is writing the Interpretation Practice Report challenging for you? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	41	85.42%
B. No	7	14.58%
Participants	48	

*3. The difficulties in writing the Translation Practice Report exist in ______ [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. My insufficient translation practices	30	62.5%
B. Less opportunities in translation practice or internship for me	16	33.33%
C. I don't know how to organize my translation practice/internship into a Practice Report	27	56.25%
D. Less opportunities in translation practice or internship for me	18	37.5%
E. Writing Translation Practice Report in English is difficult for me	20	41.67%
F. Other	1	2.08%
Participants	48	

*4. The difficulties in writing the Interpretation Practice Report exist in_____ [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. My insufficient interpretation practices	37	77.08%
B. Less opportunities in interpretation practice or interpretation internship for me	28	58.33%
C. I don't know how to organize my interpretation practice/internship into a Practice Report	22	45.83%
D. Less instruction on writing Interpretation Practice Report	17	35.42%
E. Writing Interpretation Practice Report in English is difficult for me	13	27.08%
F. Other	6	12.5%
Participants	48	

*5. You solve the problems in writing you're the Practice Report as the MTI degree theses, including thesis format, contents and language, by means of _____ [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Instructions and suggestions from my supervisor	45	93.75%
B. Online resources such as CNKI	48	100%
C. Reading guide book for MTI theses writing	40	83.33%
D. Other	3	6.25%
Participants	48	

6. How often do you search online (e.g. CNKI) and read the model the MTI theses? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Never	0	0%
B. Less often	10	20.83%
C. Often	32	66.67%
D. Always	6	12.5%
Participants	48	

*7. Do you need more instructions on the format or organization of the MTI Practice Report? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	39	81.25%
B. No	9	18.75%

v. Your comments on practical education and instruction on the writing of the MTI Practice Report

1. Which are main writing tasks for you during your MTI program study? [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Essay writing	2	4.17%
B. Argumentative writing	31	64.58%
C. Technical writing	18	37.5%
D. Practice report	30	62.5%
E. Other	3	6.25%
Participants	48	

*2. Have you ever taken any writing courses on the MTI Practice Report? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	22	45.83%
B. No	26	54.17%
Participants	48	

*3. How often do you write a Practice Report? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Once a month	2	4.17%
B. Once a term	17	35.42%
C. Once a year	12	25%
D. Never	17	35.42%
Participants	48	

*4. Before writing your MTI theses, how prepared were you for writing a Practice Report? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. I felt well prepared	1	2.08%
B. I felt somewhat prepared	19	39.58%
C. I felt somewhat unprepared	23	47.92%
D. I felt unprepared	5	10.42%
Participants	48	

5. Has your university or your supervisor provided you with any materials on formatting and style of written the MTI Practice Report? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	38	79.17%
B. No	10	20.83%
Participants	48	

6. What types of materials, if any, have you been provided to assist you in writing your MTI Practice Report? [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Specific materials on format of a Practice Report	25	52.08%
B. Specific materials on language style of a Practice Report	20	41.67%
C. Models of previously written MTI Practice Report in full text	23	47.92%
D. Model sections of previously written MTI Practice Report	11	22.92%
E. Writing guide book that includes chapter(s) on a MTI Practice Report	27	56.25%
F. Regulations and instructions on MTI Theses writing	25	52.08%
G. None of the above	3	6.25%
H. Other	1	2.08%
Participants	48	

vi. Your understanding on "stance expressions" in the MTI Practice Report

*1. Have you ever heard "stance expression" before? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	15	31.25%
B. No	33	68.75%
Participants	48	

*2. Do you think "stance expression" is important in a successful MTI Practice Report? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	39	81.25%
B. No	9	18.75%
Participants	48	

*3. Do you agree that the difference of "stance expression' exists in a Translation Practice Report and an Interpretation Practice Report? [Single option]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Yes	38	79.17%
B. No	10	20.83%
Participants	48	

*4. In order to prove the value of your MTI thesis, how do you adopt and adjust your "stance expression" in your MTI Practice Report? [Multiple options]

Options	Counts	Percentage
A. Using stance adverb (ial)s expressing certainty, likelihood, attitude and style	31	64.58%
B. Using complement clauses controlled by stance verbs, adjectives, or nouns	40	83.33%
C. Using modal and semi-modals verbs	18	37.5%
D. Using premodifying stance adverb (stance adverb + adjective or noun phrase)	20	41.67%
E. Using prepositional phrase to modify stance noun (of + noun phrase or for + noun phrase)	21	43.75%
Participants	48	

APPENDIX B

A Preliminary Interview Protocol on the Writing of the MTI Practice Report (with MTI Supervisors)

Purpose: The purpose of the current interview aims to have a preliminary investigation on your comments and evaluation on the writing of the MTI Practice Report by your MTI students. The results of the present interview will serve as a preliminary step for my dissertation study that will consist exploring the rhetorical organization and linguistic features of stance expressions in the writing of the MTI Practice Report, which characterizes a successful thesis by Chinese MTI students. The finding of the present research may have pedagogical implications for learning and instructing thesis writing, especially for the Practice Report, for students majored in the MTI. The ultimate aim of the present interview is to collect the information about your comments on your MTI students' understanding and difficulties in writing their Translation/Interpretation Practice Report. It is hoped to obtain a valuable result in my dissertation research and narrow the gap between students' understanding and the requirement on the MTI Practice Report, which finally can shed a light on the MTI Practice Report thesis writing as a degree request for those students.

Contents:
In line with the research purpose, the interview will include the following contents: a) your understanding on the MTI Practice Report, b) your comments on MTI students' difficulties in writing the MTI Practice Report, c) your evaluation on the practical education and instruction of the MTI Practice Report, d) your comments on the MTI students' writing of the Translation Practice Report and the Interpretation Practice Report.

This interview includes approximately 15-20 questions and will cost you about 30-40 minutes?
This interview is going to be recorded. Will you permit me to do with that?

The warm-up questions:
1. How many years have you been a supervisor for the MTI students? Can you say something about being an MTI graduate' s supervisor?
2. In which aspects are your difficulties in instructing your MTI students' writing the MTI Practice Report? Can you give an example?

Your understanding on the MTI Practice Report

1. Which type(s) of the MTI theses are permitted to be written as an MTI student's degree thesis in your school? How do you think about it?
2. Is the MTI Practice Report writing important for your MTI students? How do you comment on it?
3. Do you think the MTI Practice Report is a new genre that poses challenges on the MTI students for their completing their degree theses? And in which way and why?

Your understanding about the MTI students' difficulties in writing the MTI Practice Report

1. How do you understand you're the MTI student's difficulties in writing the MTI Practice Report? Specifically, the difficulties in its report structure and its stance expressions?
2. Do you know how your MTI advisees usually solve their problems in writing the MTI Practice Report? Have you ever introduced some useful materials and resources to them, such as online database, books, guiding rules or something else?
3. In your opinion, what kind of MTI Practice Report is a successful degree thesis? Specifically, in its structure and stance expressions?

Your comments on the practical teaching and instruction on the MTI Practice Report:

1. What kinds of assignments do you usually assign to your advisees?
2. Are there any obligatory requests for the MTI students in Translation/Interpretation practice/internship during the whole MTI program? Can you tell me in detail?
3. Do you think your advisees have enough instruction on style of the MTI Practice Report, especially in the organization and stance expressions?
4. How do you help your advisees to write their translation practice or interpretation practice into a translation or interpretation practice report?
5. In your opinion, do you think your advisees have the same understanding of the structure and stance expression in the Translation Practice Report and the Interpretation Practice Report? Can you explain its reason?

APPENDIX C

A Preliminary Interview Protocol on the Writing of the MTI Practice Report (with MTI Students)

Purpose: The purpose of the current interview aims to have a preliminary investigation on the writing of the MTI Practice Report through collecting information from the MTI students in China. The results of the present interview will serve as a preliminary step for my dissertation study that will consist exploring the rhetorical organization and linguistic features of stance expressions in the writing of the MTI Practice Report, which characterizes a successful thesis by the MTI students. The finding of the present research may have pedagogical implications for learning and instructing thesis writing, especially for the Practice Report, for students majored in the MTI. The ultimate aim of the present interview is to collect the information about the MTI students' understanding and problems in writing the Translation/Interpretation Practice Report. It is hoped to obtain a valuable result in my dissertation research and narrow the gap between students' understanding and the requirement on MTI Practice Report, which finally can shed a light on the MTI Practice Report thesis writing as a degree request for those students.

Contents: In line with the research purpose, the interview will include the following contents: a) your understanding on the MTI Practice Report; b) your comments on the practical teaching and the instruction of the MTI Practice Report; c) your difficulties in writing the MTI Practice Report; d) your understanding about the distinction between writing the Translation Practice Report and the Interpretation Practice Report.

This interview includes approximately 13 questions and will cost you about 30-40 minutes. It is going to be recorded. Will you permit me to do with that?

The warm-up questions:

1) What is your major? Which grade are you in? Why do you choose to be an MTI graduate?
2) Have you began writing or thinking about your final thesis? If yes. Do you know the request of MTI thesis?
3) Do you know how many types of the MTI theses you are permitted to write as your degree thesis? Can you list them?

Your perception on the **MTI Practice Report**

1) Before this interview, have you heard about the MTI Practice Report before? If yes, can you say something about it?
2) Is the MTI Practice Report important or significant for you? If yes, in which way?

Your comments on the practical teaching and the instruction on MTI Practice Reports

1) Do you often have any translation or interpretation assignment or practice? If yes, what are they?
2) Have you assigned to write a report during or after you finish a translation or an interpretation practice? If yes, how did you complete the requirement?
3) Have you had the instruction on writing of the MTI Practice Report? If yes, in what forms or courses? Can you say something about them?
4) If you don't know how to write a Practice Report for your MTI degree thesis, how do you solve this problem?

Your difficulties in writing the MTI Practice Report

1) Is the MTI Practice Report difficult for you to write? If yes, in which way?
2) Do you know what main contents will be included in an MTI Practice Report? Is the structure of the MTI Practice Report difficult for you to follow? If yes, why?
3) Is the language style of the MTI Practice Report different from the traditional thesis writing? If yes, in which way?
4) Have you ever heard about "stance expression" in a thesis writing? How about your "stance expression" in your MTI Practice Report to persuade the committee members that you are worth for the MTI Degree

APPENDIX D

Translation Practice Report (TPR) Corpus

No.	Type of University	File Name	Name of University	Year	Geographic information
TPR1	Foreign Language Institution	T-FLI-1	Guangdong University of Foreign Studies	2017	Guangdong province
TPR2		T-FLI-2	Sichuan International Studies University	2015	Sichuan province
TPR3	985 Project Institution	T-985PI-1	Chongqin University	2017	Sichuan province
TPR4		T-985PI-2	Southeast University	2017	Jiangsu province
TPR5		T-985PI-3	Shandong University	2012	Shandong Province
TPR6		T-985PI-4	Jilin University	2013	Jilin province
TPR7		T-985PI-5	University of Electronic Science and Technology of China	2017	Sichuan province
TPR8		T-985PI-6	South China University of Technology	2014	Guandong province
TPR9	211 Project Institution	T-211PI-1	Guangxi University	2015	Guangxi Province
TPR10		T-211PI-2	Liaoning University	2016	Liaoning province
TPR11		T-211PI-3	Northwest University	2015	Shanxi Province
TPR12		T-211PI-4	Nanchang University	2014	Jiangxi province
TPR13		T-211PI-5	Southwest Jiaotong University	2017	Sichuan Province
TPR14		T-211PI-6	Yunnan University	2016	Yunnan Province
TPR15	211 Project Institution	T-211PI-7	Hainan University	2017	Hainan Province
TPR16		T-211PI-8	China University of Petroleum	2015	Beijing City
TPR17		T-211PI-9	Zhongnan University of Economics and Law	2017	Hubei Province

No.	Type of University	File Name	Name of University	Year	Geographic information
TPR18	Common Institution	T-CI-1	Qufu Normal University	2015	Shangdong province
TPR19		T-CI-2	GuangXi University for Nationalities	2015	Guangxi Province
TPR20		T-CI-3	Chengdu University of Technology	2016	Sichuan Province
TPR21		T-CI-4	Jiangxi Normal University	2017	Jiangxi province
TPR22		T-CI-5	Yanzhou University	2016	Jiangsu province
TPR23		T-CI-6	Ningbo University	2015	Zhejiang Province
TPR24		T-CI-7	Southwest Petroleum University	2017	Sichuan Province
TPR25		T-CI-8	Shenyang Normal University	2017	Liaoning Province
TPR26		T-CI-9	Yanshan University	2017	Heibei Province
TPR27		T-CI-10	Jilin Normal University	2016	Jilin province
TPR28		T-CI-11	Chongqin Normal University	2017	Chongqin City
TPR29		T-CI-12	Yunnan Normal University	2017	Yunnan Province
TPR30		T-CI-13	Yunnan Minzu University	2017	Yunnan Province
Total	4 types of universities		30 universities	2012-2017	16 provinces

APPENDIX E

Interpretation Practice Report (IPR) Corpus

No.	Type of University	File Name	Name of University	Year	Geographic information
IPR1	Foreign Language Institution	I-FLI-1	Guangdong University of Foreign Studies	2017	Guangdong province
IPR2		I-FLI-2	Xi`an International Studies University	2013	Shanxi province
IPR3	985 Project Institution	I-985PI-1	Jilin University	2015	Jilin Province
IPR4		I-985PI-2	Hunan University	2015	Hunan Province
IPR5		I-985PI-3	Shandong University	2014	Shandong province
IPR6		I-985PI-4	Dalian University of Technology	2014	Shandong province
IPR7		I-985PI-5	University of Electronic Science and Technology of China	2017	Sichuang province
IPR8		I-985PI-6	Huazhong University of Science and Technology	2015	Hubei Province
IPR9	211 Project Institution	I-211PI-1	Nanjing Normal University	2016	Jiangsu province
IPR10		I-211PI-2	Liaoning University	2015	Liaoning province
IPR11		I-211PI-3	Northeast Normal University	2015	Jilin province
IPR12		I-211PI-4	China University of Petroleum	2015	Shandong province
IPR13		I-211PI-5	Southestern University of Fiance and Economics	2016	Sichuang province
IPR14		I-211PI-6	Shanxi Normal University	2014	Shanxi province
IPR15		I-211PI-7	Ningxia Uiversity	2017	Ningxia
IPR16	211 Project Institution	I-211PI-8	Nanchang University	2015	Jiangxi province
IPR17		I-211PI-9	North China Electric Power University	2017	Hebei Province

No.	Type of University	File Name	Name of University	Year	Geographic information
IPR18	Common Institution	I-CI-1	Jiangxi Normal University	2015	Jiangxi Province
IPR19		I-CI-2	Chongqin Normal University	2017	Chongqin city
IPR20		I-CI-3	Guangxi University for Nationalities	2015	Guanxi Province
IPR21		I-CI-4	Yunnan Minzu University	2015	Yunnan province
IPR22		I-CI-5	China Foreign Affairs University	2017	Beijing City
IPR23		I-CI-6	Shenyang Normal University	2017	Liaoning province
IPR24		I-CI-7	Southwest University of Science and Technology	2016	Sichuang province
IPR25		I-CI-8	Shandong Normal University	2015	Shandong province
IPR26		I-CI-9	Hebei University	2017	Hebei Province
IPR27		I-CI-10	Chengdu University of Technology	2017	Sichuang province
IPR28		I-CI-11	Jilin Huaqiao University of Foreign Languages	2014	Jilin Province
IPR29		I-CI-12	Yanzhou University	2017	Jiangsu province
IPR30		I-CI-13	Xi Hua University	2017	Sichuang province
Total	4 types of universities		30 universities	2012-2017	16 provinces

APPENDIX F

The Coding of the Texts in the TPR Corpus and the IPR Corpus

TPR Corpus						IPR Corpus					
NO.	**File Name**	**Code**	**NO.**	**File Name**	**Code**	**NO.**	**File Name**	**Code**	**NO.**	**File Name**	**Code**
1	T-FLI-1	TPR1	16	T-211PI-8	TPR16	1	I-FLI-1	IPR1	16	I-211PI-8	IPR16
2	T-FLI-2	TPR2	17	T-211PI-9	TPR17	2	I-FLI-2	IPR2	17	I-211PI-9	IPR17
3	T-985PI-1	TPR3	18	T-CI-1	TPR18	3	I-985PI-1	IPR3	18	I-CI-1	IPR18
4	T-985PI-2	TPR4	19	T-CI-2	TPR19	4	I-985PI-2	IPR4	19	I-CI-2	IPR19
5	T-985PI-3	TPR5	20	T-CI-3	TPR20	5	I-985PI-3	IPR5	20	I-CI-3	IPR20
6	T-985PI-4	TPR6	21	T-CI-4	TPR21	6	I-985PI-4	IPR6	21	I-CI-4	IPR21
7	T-985PI-5	TPR7	22	T-CI-5	TPR22	7	I-985PI-5	IPR7	22	I-CI-5	IPR22
8	T-985PI-6	TPR8	23	T-CI-6	TPR23	8	I-985PI-6	IPR8	23	I-CI-6	IPR23
9	T-211PI-1	TPR9	24	T-CI-7	TPR24	9	I-211PI-1	IPR9	24	I-CI-7	IPR24
10	T-211PI-2	TPR 10	25	T-CI-8	TPR25	10	I-211PI-2	IPR 10	25	I-CI-8	IPR25
11	T-211PI-3	TPR11	26	T-CI-9	TPR26	11	I-211PI-3	IPR11	26	I-CI-9	IPR26
12	T-211PI-4	TRR12	27	T-CI-10	TPR27	12	I-211PI-4	IRR12	27	I-CI-10	IPR27
13	T-211PI-5	TPR13	28	T-CI-11	TPR28	13	I-211PI-5	IPR13	28	I-CI-11	IPR28
14	T-211PI-6	TPR14	29	T-CI-12	TPR29	14	I-211PI-6	IPR14	29	I-CI-12	IPR29
15	T-211PI-7	TPR15	30	T-CI-13	TPR30	15	I-211PI-7	IPR15	30	I-CI-13	IPR30

APPENDIX G

The Organizational Units in Various Section Labels in the 30 TPR Texts and the 30 IPR Texts

Organizational Units	No. of Text	TPR	No. of Texts	IPR
Abstract	**30**	**Abstract (30);**	30	**Abstract (30);**
Introduction	22	**Introduction (19);** Translation Project Introduction (1); Introduction to the Translation Project (1); Task Description (1);	20	**Introduction (20)**
Task Description	19	Analysis of the Source Text (2); **Task Description (10);** Text Analysis (1); Source Text Description (1); Introduction of The Project (1); Description of the Translation Project (1); Description of the Project (1); General Description of the Translation Project (1); Introduction of the Translation Report (1)	22	**Task Description (14);** Description of the Interpreting Project (1); Project Survey (1); Description of the Simulating Interpretation Task (1); Analysis of the Task (1); Task Description and Preparation Work (1); Introduction of the Practice (1); Description of the Project (1); Interpretation Project Description (1)
Literature Review	0		1	**Literature Review (1);**
Theoretical Background	10	Translation Approach (1); Ch'ien Chung-shu's Adaption to Triple-Adaption (1); **Theoretical Background (2);** Investigation on Translation Behavior (1); Skopos Theory (1); Theoretical Support (1); Translation Process to Achieve Aesthetic Representation (1); Overview of Functional Equivalence Theory (1); Relevant Theory (1);	8	Skopos Theory (1); The Interpretive Theory and its Application in this Practice (1); **Theoretical Background (2);** Introduction of Gile' s Effort Model (1); Theoretical Basis (1); Overview of Skopos Theory (1); Cross-cultural Pragmatic Failure (1);

Organizational Units	No. of Text	TPR	No. of Texts	IPR
Process Description	27	**Process Description (10);** Translation Process (7); "Curriculum Development" Translation Process (1); Description of the Translation Process (1); Task of the Translation Practice (1); Preparation before Translation (2); Process of the Translation (1); Task Procedures (1); Pre-translation Analysis (1); Translation Process Description (1); Pre-translation Preparation (1);	25	Interpreting Process (4); Description of the Interpreting Process (3); **Process Description (5);** Interpreting Process Description (1); Task Process (1); Content for Interpretation (1); Preparation before Interpreting (1); Descriptions of the Simulating Interpretation Process (1); Reflections on the Task (1); Process of the Practice (1); Pre-interpretation Preparation (1); Description of interpreting Task (1); Preparation before Interpretation (1); Process of the Museum Escort Interpreting (1); Process of the Project (1); Procedures of Practice Report (1);
Case Analysis	30	Case Study(ies) (6); Case Studies of Translation (1); **Case Analysis (13);** Case Analysis Based on Skopos Theories (1); Case Analyses of Translation Strategy (1); Translation Difficulties and Solutions (1); Analysis of Translation Process (1); Collaboration of Machine Translation and Human Translation (1); Translation Strategies (1); Difficulties: Aesthetic Representation in Formal System (1); Techniques Adopted (1); Translation Difficulties and Coping Strategies (1); Application of Relevance- Theoretic Approach (1);	30	Interpreting Analysis (2); Problem Identification + Solutions and Verification (1); Problems and Analysis/ Coping Strategies (1); **Case Analysis (9);** Difficulties and Coping Strategies (1); Case Study(ies) (2); Approaches Employed under the Guidance of the Interpretive Theory (1); Problems Encountered in the Project (1); Problems and Countermeasures in the E-C Interpreting Process / Problems and Countermeasures in the C-E Interpreting Process (1); A Case Study of the Press Conference of 2013 "Two Sessions" (1); Difficulties in TCM Interpreting and Coping Strategies (1); Case Analysis from the Perspective of Functional Equivalence; (1) Case Study and Countermeasures (1); Case Study and Interpreting Strategies based on Skopos Theory (1);

Organizational Units	No. of Text	TPR	No. of Texts	IPR
				Case Study of the Interpreting (1); Analysis of the Interpreting (1); Case Analyses from the Perspective of Skopos Theory (1); Problems and Solutions (1); Post-Task Summary and Analysis/Improvement of Interpretation Performance; (1) Interpreting Difficulties/Case Analysis of the Interpretation (1);
Conclusion	30	**Conclusion (26)** Summary and Reflection (1); Summary (3); Implication (1);	30	**Conclusion (26);** Summary of the Interpreting Practice (1); Summary and Reflections (1); Summary (1); Major Findings from the Interpreting Practice (1);

Note: The number in the parenthesis refers to the frequency that this section label that occurred in the 30 TPR texts and the 30 IPR texts; The bold one indicates the section label with the highest frequency in 30 TPR texts or 30 IPR texts

APPENDIX H

The Reference Model for Translation/Interpretation Practice Report Proposed by Mu et.al., (2012)

(Translated by the Researcher)

1. The Description of the Task	1.1 The background of the translation/interpretation task	
	1.2 The nature of the task	The nature and characteristics of the source text, i.e. language, style, culture and ect; The characteristics of interpretation task, i.e. domain, length of time, circumstance;
	1.3 The requirement of the client(s)	The required form; length of time; quality;
2. Description of the Translation/Interpretation Procedure	2.1 Preparation before translation/interpretation	Allotment of translation/interpretation; the arrangement of the translator/interpreter; the preparation of the translation/interpretation's tools; the formulation of the terminology lists; the choice of the translation/interpretation strategies; translation plan; the measurement about the quality of the translation/interpretation; Contingency plan
	2.2 Translation/Interpretation Process	How the translation/interpretation is conducted; how to deal with the emergency
	2.3 Relevant Issues after the Translation/Interpretation	The quality of the revision; designating of the revisers and the conduction of the

		proofreading (e.g. self-proofreading, proofread by others)
		The evaluation of the client(s)
3.(Translation/Interpretation) Case Analysis	3.1The types of problems in translation/interpretation process	The typical cases can be extracted from the target task; the categorization is based on the types of problem
	3.2 The theoretical application in solving the problems	Discussion about the translation/interpretation strategies techniques and skills by applying the theory
	3.3 Proposed suggestion: the strategies for a certain type of translation/interpretation problems	Making a general conclusion and giving a suggestive translation/interpretation strategy
4.Summary/Conclusion	4.1 Unsettled problems and corresponding reflection	
	4.2 Implication and suggestions for future work	
5.Reference		
7. Appendix	Appendix1: The source text of translation project (audio script) and output of translation/interpretation text	
	Appendix2: terminology list	
	Appendix 3: The list of the translation/interpretation tools	
	Appendix4: contract	

APPENDIX I

The Initial Coding Protocol for the TPR and the IPR based on the reference model proposed by Mu et.al. (2012)

Organizational Unit	Moves	Steps
Task Description	Background	
	Contents of the task	Language of the source text
		Style of source text
		Culture of the source text
		Domain of the task
		Length of the task
		Circumstance of the task
	Requirement of the client(s)	Final form required by the client(s)
		Deadline for the task
		Quality required by the client(s)
Process Description	Before-preparation	Task allocation
		Translator/Interpreter arrangement
		Tools preparation
		Formulating terminology lists
		Strategies selection
		Making plan
		Quality measurement
		Contingency plan
	Translation/Interpretation process	Conducting translation/interpretation
		Dealing with translation/interpretation
	Issues after translation/interpretation	Quality of the revision
		Designation of the revisers
		Conducting of the proofreading
		Evaluation of the client(s)
Case Analysis	Types of problems	Analyzing the types of problems
		Typical cases
	Theoretical application in solving the problems	Discussion on strategies
		Theory-based techniques and skills
	Proposing suggestion	Making a general conclusion
		Suggesting strategies for problem
Conclusion	Unsettled problems	
	Reflection	
	Implication	
	Suggestions	

APPENDIX J
Examples of Identifying Moves and Steps

Example 1: move and step identification in one IPR Abstract

The advent of globalization has had a significant impact on communication around the world, which interpretation plays an increasingly important role in the international arena, whether in the political, economic or diplomatic activities./ Note-taking as one of the most **important** auxiliary tools **is of great significance** during the interpretation process, especially for relieving memory burden and improving interpretation quality./ **However**, **improper** approaches to dealing with notes or **incorrect** understanding of notes may influence the understanding and analysis of the source language./ This practice report, **based on** the author's interpretation practice in **the Opening Ceremony of 2015 Fall Semester, School of International Education, DUT**./ Through combination with the effort model by Daniel Gile, **this report aims to analyze** the note-taking problems in the interpretation process from Chinese into English and summarizes principles, methods and feasible solutions to these problems so as to better guide interpretation practice and further improve interpretation quality in the future./ **This report comprises** four parts: task description, task process, case analysis and conclusion. **The first part** mainly introduces the background of the task; **the second part** mainly focuses on the pre-interpretation preparation and the task process; **the third part**, through case study, mainly analyses the major problems in note-taking during the interpreting practice and put forward corresponding solutions to these problems; **the last part** concludes the main principles and strategies for note-taking in consecutive interpretation. /

The author hopes that this report **can be a helper or enlightenment** for beginners and student interpreters who have problems in **note-taking of interpreting**. /(IPR-A-6)

M1: Making introduction

M3S1: Claiming importance

M3S2: Indicating a gap

M3: Providing rationale

M2S1: Indicating source

M2: Presenting task

M4S1: Indicating purpose

M4: Summarizing practice

M5: Indicating report structure

M6S2: Offering pedagogical implications

M6: Drawing implications

Example 2: move and step identification in one TPR Case Analysis

Chapter Four Cases Analysis Based on Skopostheorie

4.1 Applicable Translation Strategies

Equipment operation manuals are concise, comprehensive, informative, and expressive. They generally are full of **imperative sentences** to warn or stress on some important information. They are full of **long sentences** with technical terms confusing the readers and needs carefully handling. They frequently use passive voices sentences and modal verbs. Therefore, how to handle these sentences or words are very important. **In the following parts, the author would like to analyze reliable ways to handle these sentences to** better realize the STs social functions. /

M3: Providing an overview of translation/interpretation phenomena

4.1.1 Imperative Sentences

As is described above, a number of **imperative sentences** are usually applied in equipment operation manuals, ---. Here, takes the screw press manual as an example, the author turns to several translation methods to find out which one is the most suitable and can achieve social functions best. /

M4S1: Describing the translation/interpretation phenomenon

4.1.1.1 Free Translation VS Literal translation

Since in translation studies, **"Free Translation" & "Literal Translation"** arouse frequent debate. ---. For the former, free translation gives translators necessary freedom to realize the original purpose rather than blindly consider the faithfulness to the ST. It suits long sentences translation and sentences with modal verbs. ---. The latter conveys information and keeps the ST's styles for the purpose of retaining the original cultural characteristics. But it sometimes ---. Literal translation is not suitable to long sentences. --- /

M4S2: Describing the sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomenon

Example 1

ST: ------

TT1: ------

TT2: ------

M4: Illustrating one category of translation/interpretation phenomena

Analysis: This sentence is a typical impressive sentence with the thing as the subject. In translating sentences like this one, the author is in a dilemma on how to translate it. Since it belongs to technical sentences, its target text should avoid redundancy but be clear and concise and precise. And the sentence does not show any unique culture characteristics. Therefore, translators can be more flexible to translate this sentence. Here, the translator shows two translation text guided by Free Translation and Literal Translation. ---.

M4S3: Conducting case(s) analysis

Example 2

ST: ------

TT1: ------

TT2: ------

Analysis: ------

---/

As is explained above, in the translation of operation manuals, when handling imperative sentences, the translator should take the realization of its social functions or the purposes of the ST as the first place. **Therefore, the free translation method may be a reliable one**. /

M4S4: Summarizing the translation/interpretation phenomenon

4.1.2 Long Sentences

Long sentences always cover more information and much more complicated than short sentences. ---. In this part, the author would like to have a specific discussion on the translating methods of the **long sentences** in the product manuals. According to the research results on translating methods by researchers, there are mainly the following ways to the **long sentences**: linear interpretation; reverse translation; split translation. /

M4S1: Describing the translation/interpretation phenomenon

4.1.2.1 Linear Translation

In English to Chinese translation process, when the syntax structure and logical order of long sentences are basically identical to that of the Chinese expression, the translators can successively translate the sentences according to the original level. ---. /

M4S2: Describing the sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomenon

M4: Illustrating one category of translation/interpretation phenomena

Example 1

ST: ------

TT1: ------

Analysis: ---.

M4S3: Conducting case(s) analysis

4 .1.2.2 Reverse Translation

Due to the differences between English and Chinese on the syntactic structure, some English long sentences express order is different from Chinese, even the opposite. ---. /

M4S2: Describing the sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomenon

Example 1

ST: ------

TT: ------

Analysis: ---. /

M4S3: Conducting case(s) analysis

4.1.2.3 Split Translation and Combination

In English long sentences, sometimes the main clause and subordinate clause are ---. /

M4S2: Describing the sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomenon

Example 1

ST: ------

TT: ------

Analysis: ---

--------------- /

M4S3: Conducting case(s) analysis

APPENDIX K

The List of Stance Markers Adapted from Hyland (2005)

Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-mention
About	Actually	Admittedly	**He**
A kind of	Always	Agree	I
Almost	Believe	Agrees	me
Apparent	Believed	Agreed	my
Apparently	Believes	Amazed	mine
Appear	Beyond doubt	Amazing	our
Appeared	Certain	Amazingly	**She**
Appears	Certainly	Appropriate	The author
Approximately	Clear	Appropriately	The author's
Argue	Clearly	Astonished	**The interpreter**
Argues	Conclusively	Astonishing	**The interpreter's**
Argued	Decidedly	Astonishingly	**The reporter**
Around	Definite	**Believable**	**The reporter's**
Assume	Definitely	**Common**	**The translator**
Assumed	Demonstrate	Correctly	**The translator's**
Attempt	Demonstrated	Curious	The writer's
Broadly	Demonstrates	Curiously	we
Certain amount	Doubtless	Desirable	
Certain degree	Establish	Desirably	
Certain extent	Established	Disappointed	
Certain level	Evident	Disappointing	
Claim	Evidently	Disappointingly	
Claimed	Find	Disagree	
Claims	Found	Disagrees	
Can	Finds	Disagreed	
Could	**Hold**	Dramatic	
Couldn't	In fact	Dramatically	
Doubt	Incontestable	**Easily**	
Doubtful	Incontestably	**Effective**	
Estimate	Incontrovertible	Essential	
Estimated	Incontrovertibly	Essentially	
Fairly	Indeed	Even x	
Feel	Indisputable	Expected	
Feels	Indisputably	Expectedly	
Felt	**It is well known**	Fortunate	
Frequently	Know	Fortunately	

Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-mention
From my point of view	known	**Great**	
From our perspective	Must (possibility)	**Hope**	
From this perspective	Never	Hopeful	
Generally	No doubt	Hopefully	
Generally speaking	Obvious	Important	
Guess	Obviously	Importantly	
Indicate	Of course	Inappropriate	
Indicated	**Point out**	Inappropriately	
Indicates	Prove	Interesting	
In general	Proved	Interestingly	
In most cases	Proves	**Practical**	
In most instances	Realize	Prefer	
In my opinion	Realized	Preferable	
In my view	Realizes	Preferably	
In our opinion	Really	Preferred	
In our view	**Shall**	Remarkable	
Kindly	Show	Remarkably	
Kind of	Showed	Shocked	
Largely	shows	Shocking	
Likely	Shown	Shockingly	
Mainly	Sure	**Significant**	
May	Surely	**Significance**	
Maybe	Think	Striking	
Might	Thinks	Strikingly	
Mostly	Thought	**skillfully**	
Often	Truly	Surprised	
On the whole	True	Surprising	
Ought	Undeniable	Surprisingly	
Perhaps	Undeniably	Unbelievable	
Plausible	Undisputedly	Unbelievably	
Plausibly	Undoubtedly	Understandable	
Possible	**will**	Understandably	
Possibly	Without doubt	Unexpected	
Postulate		Unexpectedly	
Postulated		Unfortunate	
Postulates		Unfortunately	
Presumable		Unusual	
Presumably		Unusually	
Probable		Usual	
Probably			

Hedges	Boosters	Attitude Markers	Self-mention
Properly			
Quite			
Rather			
Relatively			
Roughly			
Seems			
Should			
Sometimes			
Somewhat			
Suggest			
Suggested			
Suggests			
Suppose			
Supposed			
Supposes			
Suspect			
Suspected			
Suspects			
Tend to			
Tended to			
Tends to			
To my knowledge			
To some extent			
To certain extent			
Typical			
Typically			
Uncertain			
Uncertainly			
Unclear			
Unclearly			
Unlikely			
Usually			
Would			
Would not			

Note: The bold ones are stance expressions that are discipline-specific in the TPR or the IPR, which are added by the researcher

APPENDIX L

A Post Interview Protocol on the Writing of the MTI Practice Report

(with MTI Students)

Purpose: The purpose of the current interview aims to collect information on your comments and evaluation on some particular results found in my Ph.D. research project on the writing of the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the Translation Practice Report (TPR) and the Interpretation Practice Report (IPR). The results of the present interview will only serve as the useful information to confirm and clarify some research results in my research, which will not harm your own privacy. Thus, there is no right and wrong answer.

Contents: In line with the research purposes, the interview questions will be arranged according to organizational units contained in the TPR and the IPR. It includes approximately 6 questions for each unit and will cost you about 20 minutes for each unit?

This interview is going to be recorded. Will you permit me to do with that?

Warming-up Questions:

1. Have you finished writing your TPR/IPR as your degree thesis?
2. What are the typical organizations of a TPR/TPR? That is, which chapters will be included in a TPR/TPR?
3. What kind of linguistic options (e.g. hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention) do you prefer in your TPR/IPR to make it convincible, effective and emotive?

Abstract

1. What are the typical organizations of an Abstract? That is, what kind of parts will you write into an Abstract of the TPR/TPR?
2. Which parts are the obligatory one? And which parts are optional one?

3. Can you provide your understanding about why______is so different between the TPR/TPR?
4. What are the possible reasons for high/low frequency of__________in the Abstract of the TPR/IPR?
5. Can you explain why________?

Note: The same sets of interview questions will be employed into seeking information for other organizational units in the TPR and the IPR, so the detailed lists of questions will be omitted intentionally.

APPENDIX M

A Post Interview Protocol on the Writing of the MTI Practice Report (with MTI Supervisors)

Purpose: The purpose of the current interview aims to collect information on your comments and evaluation on some particular results found in my Ph.D. research project on the writing of the MTI Practice Report, consisting of the Translation Practice Report (TPR) and the Interpretation Practice Report (IPR). The results of the present interview will only serve as the useful information to confirm and clarify some research results in my research, which will not harm your own privacy. Thus, there is no right and wrong answer.

Contents: In line with the research purposes, the interview questions will be arranged according to organizational units contained in the TPR and the IPR. It includes approximately 6 questions for each unit and will cost you about 20 minutes for each unit?

This interview is going to be recorded. Will you permit me to do with that?

Warming-up Questions:

1. Have you ever gave a course or lecture on MTI theses writing, especially the TPR/IPR?
2. Have you ever supervised any MTI students on writing their TPR/IPR as their degree thesis? Can you talk about it briefly?
3. In your opinion, what typical organizations should be in a TPR/TPR? That is, what kind of chapters should be included in a TPR/TPR?
4. How do you usually instruct your MTI students to organize the structure of a TPR/TPR?

5. What kind of linguistic options (e.g. hedges, boosters, attitude markers, and self-mention) should an MTI student have in his or her TPR/IPR to make it convincible, effective and emotive?

Questions for the unit of Abstract

1. In your opinion, what the typical organizations of the unit of Abstract should be in a TPR/TPR? That is, what kind of parts will be included into to make it a good and effective unit of Abstract of the TPR/TPR?
2. Which parts are the obligatory one? And which parts are optional one?
3. In your opinion, how your students should organize the order of those parts in the unit of Abstract?
4. Can you share your opinion about why______is different between the TPR and the TPR? Can you say something about it from the perspective of the disciplinary difference?
5. What are the possible reasons for high/low frequency of _________in the unit of Abstract in the TPR/IPR?
6. Can you share your understanding why_________?

Note: The same sets of interview questions will be employed into seeking information for other organizational units in the TPR and the IPR, so the detailed lists of questions will be omitted purposefully.

APPENDIX N

Examples of Steps in the Six Units in the TPR and the IPR

Abstract Unit

Move 1: Making introduction

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 2: Presenting task

M2S1: Indicating type and feature(s)

(1) *As a kind of contract text*, the preferred share purchase agreement *is also characterized by professional words, accurate meanings, and strict structures.*

(2) *Escort interpreting refers to the interpreting task in reception, tourism, visits, etc. Unlike conference interpreting, escort interpreting features more direct and longer communication among interpreters and people involved. Therefore, the content of escort interpreting tends to be more diverse and flexible.* (IPR-A-1)

M2S2: Indicating background

(3) *The Economist is a good magazine for English learners to learn native English and for translators to practice English-to-Chinese translation. Most articles of the magazine are written in the genre of argumentative essay and involve with economic and financial subjects.* (TPR-A-3)

(4) *The First Conference of Hebei Tourism Industry Development was held in Beijing West Leisure Resort from Sept. 23rd to 25th, 2016. This conference has the highest standard, the largest scale and the greatest landmark significance in the development history of Hebei tourism. Nearly 1800 people from all around the world went to the promotion conference of this grand conference.* (IPR-A-26)

M2S3: Indicating source

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 3: Providing rationale

M3S1: Claiming importance

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M3S2: Indicating a gap

(5) *Up to now, no English versions have been published.* (TPR-A-21)

(6) *When researching on previous studies, the author notices that current food culture translation concentrates on written translation and the focus lies mainly in the dish names' translation with few discussions on interpreting.* (IPR-A-22)

Move 4: Summarizing practice

M4S1: Indicating purpose

(7) *The report aims to improve the translation quality of the author in this field by analyzing the features and difficulties of CEE, taking Civil Engineering English for example.* (TPR-A-12)

(8) *The purpose of writing this report is to analyze representative problems and respective countermeasures in the interpreting process, which can also be a reference for other interpreting learners.* (IPR-A-27)

M4S2: Indicating theory applied

(9) *The report is under the guidance of Functional Equivalence Theory put forward by Eugene Nida. The theory focuses on the receptor' response. The criterion to evaluate the translation quality lies in the consistency between source text reader and the target text reader.* (TPR-A-7)

(10) *Divided into three stages which are comprehension, de-verbalization and reformulation, the Interpretive Theory (TIT) created by France has been applied broadly for better guiding interpretation practices.* (IPR-A-30)

M4S3: Outlining practice report

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M4S4: Reflecting on practice

(11) *By analyzing and translating the materials, the author thinks that the key point of the translation should be the stylistic feature, and the difficult point should be the translation of those proper nouns*. (TPR-A-28)

(12) *On the basis of the above research, it is believed that mastering solid language skills is far from enough to be a qualified interpreter, professional interpreters should strengthen their capability of cross-cultural interactions.* (IPR-A-27)

Move 5: Indicating report structure

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 6: Drawing implications

M6S1: Indicating the significance

(13) *This report introduces a new translation mode to MTI students and new translators. This kind of translation mode is easy to operate, what is more important, it provides high efficiency*. (TPR-A-1)

(14) *In conclusion, the report not only places great emphasis on the necessity of practical interpreting experience, but also attaches importance to the combination of practice and theory, thus gives some insights into translation and interpreting learning.* (IPR-A-5)

M6S2: Offering pedagogical implications

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Introduction Unit

Move 1: Introducing context

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 2: Introducing rationale

M2S1: Referring to literature

(15) *Over the centuries, numerous theorists have made countless attempts and proposed various theories and approaches to define and measure translation quality*. (TPR-I-2)

(No instance was found in the IPR-I)

M2S2: Introducing a gap

(16) *However, there is not much micro-study on academic work of "culture" and "civilization" and most work is on technology and specific cases.* (TPR-I-26)

(17) *The existing researches have been focused on written translation with few* studies *on interpreting of Chinese food culture*. (IPR-I-22)

M2S3: Giving reasons for a task

(18) *This unusual scenario really intrigues the writer of this translation project*, *and accounts for the reason why she chooses chapter two of* ---. (TPR-I-2)

(19) *The reason why the author of this paper chose this topic as the practice report material for interpreting is because* ---. (IPR-I-22)

M2S4: Claiming importance

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 3: Introducing task

M3S1: Introducing task type and feature(s)

(20) *Biography is a kind of literary form which systematically introduces and describes the life and mind of a typical figure. Such a literary work demands "truth, faithfulness and flexibility" to reflect the characteristics and the deep spiritual world of a personage.* (TPR-I-8)

(21) *Escort interpreting is a very specific practice, which plays a decisive role in cultural publicity. It requires the interpreters to acquire linguistic competence and improve the literacy of Chinese culture.* (IPR-I-13)

M3S2: Introducing task background

(22) *Entrusting party of the project is an English-training website working on producing bilingual texts to help Chinese students improve their English. --- .* (TPR-I-3)

(23) *The background of this project is as follows. ---. Amity Foundation, one of the earliest non-government organization since the reform and opening up, is where the author has completed her internship. ---.* (IPR-I-9)

M3S3: Introducing task source

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M3S4: Introducing task contents

(24) *The translation project focuses on the translation from Chapter 1 to Chapter 13. This part is mainly about mentality and preparation before the meeting as well as the specific suggestions during the communication. ---.* (TPR-I-15)

(25) *As the project partner, Amity assigned author to be the interpreter for Professor Stephen Neely during his time in Nanjing which would last for one week, and the author' s responsibilities included the daily liaison interpreting and consecutive interpreting (class interpreting).* (IPR-I-9)

Move 4: Demonstrating the significance

M4S1: Demonstrating significance in the real world

(26) *It also made several contributions to cultural exchange and dissemination. ---.* (TPR-I-4)

(27) *Accordingly, an escort interpreter plays a more and more significant role in assisting local companies to go global and foreign customers to know more about China.* (IPR-I-17)

M4S2: Demonstrating significance in the field

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 5: Giving an overview of the practice

M5S1: Introducing purposes

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M5S2: Introducing theory and method

(28) *The author choosed Relevance Theory because it supplied the greatest space for the translator to find the optimal relevance between two different languages.* (TPR-I-11)

(29) *In the analyses of the two strategies, the Schema Theory and the Effort Model, in which I have a profound interest, can serve as theoretical bases.* (IPR-I-20)

M5S3: Introducing overall practice process

(30) *During the process, the author used the theory to guide the translation of the caption---. In the translation, different strategies were discussed in order to make the audiences or the readers get the best cognitive context, ---.* (TPR-I-11)

(31) *During the task, the author was asked to interpret for a Chinese teacher ---. Class PPT, about 57 pages, had been provided to author in advance, ---. The class lasted for nearly 90 minutes, during which the teacher talked about many culture-loaded expressions related to Chinese food and culinary traditions.* (IPR-I-22)

M5S4: Presenting reflection

(32) *The translator realized many things after the translation practice. The translator must strengthen the ability of bilingual accomplishment and enrich cultural knowledge, especially some professional knowledge in further study.* (TPR-I-10)

(33) *By interpreting this, I have learned more knowledge about the development of China's networking industry and have acquired many in-depth interpretation skills and problem solutions---.* (IPR-I-10)

M5S5: Providing pedagogical implications

(34) *Moreover, the translator hopes that the translation report which summaries translation experiences will play a role in translation learning.* (TPR-I-19)

(35) *Hopefully, it could also provide some references for those who conduct the work of TCM interpreting in the future.* (IPR-I-16)

Move 6: Introducing report structure

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Task Description Unit

Move 1: Describing context

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 2: Describing rationale

M2S1: Referring to literature

(36) *After the Second World War, ---, researches on foreign trade English also begin to flourish. In the past twenty and thirty years, experts and scholars both at home and abroad have carried out a wide range of discussion on stylistic features of foreign trade English, and at the same time, researches on English contracts of foreign trade have also obtained certain achievements, and researches on contract translation are developing rapidly. In Formulation and Translation of International Business Contracts, Hu Gengshen, Wang Chunhui and Shen Yunzhen emphatically discuss ---; In 2005, Li Kexing and Zhang Xingong classified different types of legal texts ---. Song Dewen discusses --- in 2008. In Linguistic Features and Translation of Foreign Trade English, Zhang Wei analyzed ---. In recent years, ---- researches on the translation of English contracts, the relevant researches continue.* (TPR-TD-1)

(No instance was found in the IPR-TD)

M2S2: Indicating a gap

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M2S3: Describing reasons for task

(37) *The reasons why the author selected The China Boom: Why China Will Not Rule the World as the of translation materials mainly are based on the following two aspects:*

On the one hand, there is an objective urgency for translating such a book ---. On the other hand, the author is qualified to translate the book ---. (TPR-TD-24)

(No instance was found in the IPR-TD)

M2S4: Claiming importance

(38) *As the translation quality of the preferred share purchase agreement is closely related to the smooth performance of the contract, the accurate and appropriate translation of high quality can help promote the smooth development of economic activities.* (TPR-TD-1)

(39) *With the popularity of the network, the Prime Minister's press conference has received growing attention. In addition to gaining information about China's internal and external diplomacy, press conference also provides abundant study materials for interpreters and scholars.* (IPR-TD-15)

Move 3: Describing task

M3S1: Describing the task type and feature(s)

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M3S2: Describing the task source

(40) *This translation project is one of the programs of the client, Lijiang Publishing Limited, ---. The source text comes from the website of Wikipedia, which is mainly about the historical material of Auschwitz concentration camp ---.* (TPR-TD-9)

(41) *On June 15, 2014, the author was invited to undertake an interpreting task for Jiangzhong Pharmaceutical Co., Ltd during the visit of Mr. Bertie Ahern, the former Irish Premier.* (IPR-TD-16)

M3S3: Describing the author

(42) *2.3 Author of the Source Text*

The author of the source text, David D. Hale, who is a Chicago-based global economist known for his work in macro-economic analysis and policy, often lectures at the World Economic Forum, the Fortune Global CEO Conference, and the National Association of Governors ---. (TPR-TD-18)

(No instance was found in the IPR-TD)

M3S4: Describing the readers

(43) *2.4 Target Readers*

The target readers of the translated version of China' new dream are Chinese people such as ---, business people ---, and other people ---. (TPR-TD-18)

(No instance was found in the IPR-TD)

M3S5: Describing the text contents

(44) *1.2.1 Main Content of the Source Text*

According to Joanna Drugan, the book Quality in Professional Translation: Assessment and Improvement aims at ---. It consists of six chapters organized as follows: ---. (TPR-TD-2)

(No instance was found in the IPR-TD)

M3S6: Describing the client

(45) *The client of this escort interpreting task is Mr. David Baiun, a PLC programmer from ThyssenKrupp System Engineering. He is sent to DYK for adjusting work since a large portion of stations are bought from ThyssenKrupp---.* (IPR-TD-1)

(No instance was found in the TPR-TD)

M3S7: Describing the audiences

(46) *The audiences were consisting of professors and students from NASC, and some other students who were interested in these lectures.* (IPR-TD-3)

(No instance was found in the TPR-TD)

M3S8: Describing the interpreting task

(47) *He gave the students two lectures in total: one was ---, and the other was ---.*

The author served as an interpreter in these two lectures which were given in a meeting room of NASC in two separate days. The room could hold about fifty people, and in order to let audience hear clearly, the interpreter used microphone. Each lecture lasted about three hours; the task for the author was to do consecutive interpreting for Professor Reisinger. (IPR-TD-3)

(No instance was found in the TPR-TD)

M3S9: Describing the task requirements

(48) *The total length of my translation is around 30,000 words. The contract regulates that I ought to complete doing the translation of Book 9 by the end of last July and all my translation and proof-reading work should be up to their publishing standard and the translated version will be published in early 2013.* (TPR-TD-6)

(49) *In order to guarantee the quality of this interpreting task, the contact person of the company puts forward the following requirements:*

First, ---; Second, ---; Third, ---; Fourth, ---; Fifth, ---; Sixth, ---. (IPR-TD-16)

Move 4: Describing process

M4S1: Describing the purposes

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M4S2: Describing the theory and methods

(50) *By adopting skopos theory and its corresponding translation methods and techniques, the author translated The China Boom: Why China Will Not Rule the World into Chinese.* (TPR-TD-24)

(51) *For the interpreting practice, the writer adopted the Effort Model proposed by Daniel Gile, which largely reduced her pressure and helped her to complete the task to the best of her ability.* (IPR-TD-15)

M4S3: Describing overall procedures

(52) *Before the start of the translation, the author read the original text carefully for three times, ---. Then, the author started to translate the text with the help of some*

Internet resources and parallel texts, ---. After completing the translation of the text, the author proofread the translation several times, ---.

All in all, the author played an active role in the whole process of translation, so as to ensure the quality of the translation. (TPR-TD-1)

(53) *During the interpreting process, the interpreter mainly did consecutive interpreting from English into Chinese. And when some campers proposed questions, the interpreter would interpret from Chinese into English.* ---. (IPR-TD-4)

Move 5: Describing results

M5S1: Describing achievements

(54) *The translation of this memoir improves my translation ability and especially it improves my ability to translate long English sentences ---. Through the memoir translation work, I have learned the application of several translation techniques to overcome the barriers in long English sentences translation.* (TPR-TD-20)

(No instance was found in the IPR-TD)

M5S2: Describing significance

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M5S3: Describing reflection

(55) *In view of the four principles of interpreting, accuracy, completeness, smoothness and quickness, the author should pay more attention to the accuracy and smoothness. With accuracy, the interpreter is able to understand the speakers' speech and deliver it in the target language accurately. With smoothness, the interpreting is consistent with the expression of the target language.* (IPR-TD-28)

(No instance was found in the TPR-TD)

The Process Description Unit

Move 1: Describing before-task

M1S1: Describing the importance of the preparatory work

(56) *The translator holds that preparation before translation is necessary. To ensure the quality of translation, it is a crucial step. The preparation before translation practice can promote the understanding of the translated text, which is of practical significance to translators.* (TPR-PD-17)

(57) *Preparation beforehand plays a significant role in a successful interpreting and to some extent it determines whether an interpreter can do a good job.* (IPR-PD-5)

M1S2: Describing task-oriented preparation

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M1S3: Adopting theory and strategies

(58) *The understanding of some translation theory is also necessary before doing translation. As is mentioned above, the memoir text is a kind of literary text and partly performs expressive function of a piece of literature. Therefore, Nida's Functional Equivalence theory is chosen as the translation guidance.* (TPR-PD-20)

(59) *3.1.2 Theory Preparation*

Almost any practice need be guided by theory, and it is also true with interpreting activities. As a general theory of translation, Skopos Theory can be applied to interpreting. Hence, the author chooses the Skopos Theory as theoretical basis. (IPR-PD-12)

M1S4: Formulating terminology list(s)

(60) *3.4 Preparing a Glossary*

As a kind of technical writings, a lot of technical terms and symbols are applied to the manuals. In order to help the readers better understand the contents of the manuals, a corpus is built here. (TPR-PD-20)

(61) *3.1.2 Terminology Collection*

The author began to get familiar with the terminology according to the subject of the speech and the Power Point provided. In these two speeches, there were many terminologies in political field; the author should pay attention to some proper terms. The author mainly collected three kinds of terminology: abbreviation; political terminology; political jargon, listing as the following: ---. (IPR-PD-3)

M1S5: Preparing skills and tools

(62) *Besides, the translation tools such as Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English and The English-Chinese Dictionary are helpful in disposing those problems.* (TPR-PD-19)

(63) *In order to carry out this practice, the gel pen, notebook, computer and voice recorder should also be at hand.* (IPR-PD-12)

M1S6: Preparing a task plan

(64) *3.2 Translation Schedule and Plan*

The translator drafted the translation schedule at the begging of translation process in accordance with the request of school and her personal practice plan. The schedule is as follows: ---. (TPR-PD-10)

(65) *3.1.2 Route Planning*

The author has planned two alternative routes, the visitors can choose the appropriate one and make modest adjustments in accordance with time limitation and temporary arrangements ---. (IPR-PD-27)

M1S7: Describing the psychological preparation

(66) *3.1.2 Psychological Preparation*

Tense or nervousness is the biggest problem that frequently occurs before the interpretation task---. Hence, there is no doubt that if an interpreter does not have sufficient psychological preparation and cannot handle the problem properly, getting nervous is quite common before interpreting ---.

So how to overcome nervousness? -- (IPR-PD-11)

(No instance was found in the TPR-PD)

Move 2: Describing during-task

M2S1: Describing the on-site work

(See example in Chapter 4)

M2S2: Describing the translation process

(See example in Chapter 4)

M2S3: Dealing with the emergency

(67) *3.2.2 Dealing with Emergencies*

The interpreter also encounters some emergencies during the roundtable conference, the interpreter adopts feasible solutions to fulfill the interpreting task:

1) Requiring necessary information from the speakers; ---

2) Adjusting interpreting outcome based on the clients' requirements; ---

3) Offering useful information to the crew; ---. (IPR-PD-7)

(No instance was found in the TPR-PD)

Move 3: Describing after-task

M3S1: Having proof-reading and revision

(68) *After finishing the translation task, the translator revised and proofread the translation text for several times. Firstly, the translator checked it from the angle of grammar, words, structure in case that the translator misunderstood or failed to convey intentions of the author. Then, the translator read the translation text to see if there was any expressions or sentences sounds unnatural or any paragraphs did not logical. Lastly, my mentor, Associate Professor Yang Tao proofread it.* (TPR-PD-9)

(No instance was found in the IPR-PD)

M3S2: Describing quality control

(69) *2.2.2 Interpreting Quality Control*

The aim of interpreting quality control is to maintain the standard of consecutive interpreting by implementing the quality control plan made in the preparation stage in accordance with the specific situations. In order to control interpreting *quality, the author referred to an European professional interpreting text book Interpreting Asia, Interpreting Europe. In this book, the author learned that there were several standards for a qualified interpreter ---.* (IPR-PD-3)

(No instance was found in the TPR-PD)

M3S3: Having feedback and evaluation

(70) *3.2 Client's Feedback*

The client, ---, gave a feedback a few weeks after receiving the translation. They were quite satisfied with the translation which was finished on time. The general quality of the translation was good and the target text was readable and easy to comprehend for their staff and experts. The translation was loyal to the historical events and the information of the translated text was quite correct. Although a farther improvement can be made for the format of the target text, the client was quite happy for getting the information they want to know from the translated text. The feedback of the client proved that the strategy and translation methods used in the translation were correct. The intended function of the target text was realized. At last, the client approved the translation ability of the author and expressed the willingness of further cooperation. (TPR-PD-9)

(71) *3.3 Interpreting Feedback*

An assessment after consecutive interpreting practice is always of great benefit in improving the interpreter' interpreting skills. A thorough reflection can help the interpreter find out her strengths and weaknesses, and make the consecutive interpreting more perfect in forthcoming tasks. After the consecutive interpreting practice, the author made a comprehensive and objective evaluation based on the customer's feedback as well as the author's own assessment after interpreting.

2.3.1 Customer Feedback. ---

2.3.2 Self-assessment. -- (IPR-PD-3)

M3S4: Making a summary

(See examples in Chapter 4)

The Case Analysis Unit

Move 1: Opening the Case Analysis Chapter

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 2: Offering a theoretical basis

M2S1: Introducing the theory

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M2S2: Describing key rules/principles of the theory

(72) *The Skopos Theory mainly falls into three rules providing instruction on the translation process, namely, the Skopos rule, the coherence rule and fidelity rule. Among the three, the top-ranking rule is the Skopos rule, followed by the coherence rule and the fidelity rule. And the fidelity rule is subject to coherence rule. By these three rules, the author will introduce its application to this interpreting practice of Yang Lan One on One.* (IPR-CA-12)

(No instance was found in the TPR-CA)

M2S3: Justifying the theory

(73) *3.1.2 Application of the Theory*

The first chapter introduces the purpose of the translation is to publicize Liaoning, ---. Hans Vermeer has mentioned three rules that must be followed to achieve the purpose of translation, ---. Naturally, they are also the translation standards of the political documents specifically ---. (IPR-CA-25)

(74) *This model can serve as guidance for practitioners in interpreting as it is very specific and visualized and it also sheds light on the training of student interpreters in the field of the attention allocation* ---. (IPR-CA-8)

M2S4: Claiming the applicability of the theory

(75) *3.2 Application of Skopos Theory to Interview Interpreting*

As described in Chapter Two, 2.1.1, the Skopos Theory can be applied to interpreting based on the general theory of translation. And it is applied *throughout this whole simulated interpreting process. Before interpreting, the Skopos Theory taking the target text and audiences into consideration helps the author define the intended purpose of this task, i.e. making the simulated audiences get the main idea of the program. During the interpreting process, it directs the interpreter to carry out this task by its three rules and translation brief. After interpreting, it is used to evaluate the quality of interpreting.* (IPR-CA-12)

(No instance was found in the TPR-CA)

M2S5: Summarizing the theory

(76) *1.1.3 Summary*

This report applies two theories as its theoretical basis, namely the Interpretive Theory and the Effort Model of simultaneous interpreting.

The Interpretive Theory emphasizes ---.

Furthermore, based on the Effort Model, ---. (IPR-CA-8)

(No instance was found in the TPR-CA)

Move 3: Providing an overview of translation/interpretation phenomena

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 4: Illustrating one category of translation/interpretation phenomena

M4S1: Describing the translation/interpretation phenomenon

(77) *4.1.1 Imperative Sentences*

As is described above, a number of imperative sentences are usually applied in equipment operation manuals, which helps to directly convey to the readers some warnings or to stress on some important details. Here, take the screw press manual as an example, the author turns to several translation methods to find out which one is the most suitable and can achieve social functions best. (IPR-CA-22)

(78) *4.1.1 Syntactical Misunderstandings*

The author believes that syntactical misunderstandings in the practice mainly involve three kinds of problems: wrong figures, grammatical errors and miscomprehension. Misinterpretation indicates that interpreter has misunderstood the content and the accuracy and credibility of the interpretation were *compromised. After a careful analysis, three examples for wrong figures, four examples for grammatical errors and four examples for miscomprehension are selected. With regard to these kinds of errors, right interpretation could have been given if the author slowed down her utterance speed a little bit and took a comprehensive consideration before interpreting.* (IPR-CA-3)

M4S2: Describing the sub-category of translation/interpretation phenomenon

(79) *4.1.1.1 Free translation VS Literal translation*

Since in translation studies, "Free Translation" & "Literal Translation" arouse frequent debate. They have both advantages and weakness. For the former, free translation gives translators necessary freedom to realize the original purpose rather than blindly consider the faithfulness to the ST. It suits long sentences translation and sentences with modal verbs. But it sometimes overlooks culture characteristics of the ST. The latter conveys information and keeps the ST's styles for the purpose of retaining the original cultural characteristics. But it sometimes hinders translators in choosing translation strategies that for realization of the original purposes. Literal translation is not suitable to long sentences.

Since in operation manuals, imperative sentences are frequently employed. Imperative sentences are concise, professional and informative. Imperative sentences are characterized by directly conveying the information. They refrain from using redundant expressions and rhetoric devices. They are typical technical writings. Thus in order to handle such sentences, the author turns to the above two translation methods. (IPR-CA-22)

(80) *4.1.1.1 Figures and numbers*

Figures and numbers are commonly seen in varied interpretation occasions and sometimes may bring about problems to the interpreter. Figures usually stand for standards, quantity or trend, which are closely related to the key information of the speaker's lectures. It has to be admitted that the information behind the figures is more important than the figures themselves. Thus problems related to figures are of value and necessity in the interpretation analysis. Example 1 to example 3 in the following are selected as figure problems. (IPR-CA-3)

M4S3: Conducting case(s) analysis

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M4S4: Summarizing the translation/interpretation phenomenon

(81) *As is explained above, in the translation of operation manuals, when handling imperative sentences, the translator should take the realization of its social functions or the purposes of the ST as the first place. Therefore, the free translation method may be a reliable one.* (IPR-CA-22)

(82) *As the subject of the interpreting task, the interpreter's final purpose is to present the target language that fits requirements from the clients. Apparently, scattered sentences are neither appropriate for formal news report nor the reading habits of Chinese readers. Therefore, the interpreter adopts adding to achieve formality of the interpreting outcome.* (IPR-CA-7)

Move 5: Closing the Case Analysis Chapter

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Conclusion Unit

Move 1: Reviewing the practice task

M1S1: Reviewing the task type and feature(s)

(83) *International conference involves various forms, so that the language material of press conference tends to be professional, comprehensive, scientific, and, which has asked a higher demand of professional skills, background knowledge, and cognitive competence for the interpreters.* (IPR-C-14)

(No instance was found in the TPR-C)

M1S2: Reviewing the task context

(84) *With the development of globalization, as the mass media, news dissemination is playing a more and more important role. People can have a good knowledge about what is happening around the world through news.* (IPR-C-26)

(85) *In the globalized market, interpretation opportunities emerge with a large number of business opportunities.* (IPR-C-2)

M1S3: Restating the task source

(86) *In this translation report, the author takes the English legal text of a company' B2 Series Preferred Share Purchase Agreement as a case of translation*. (IPR-C-1)

(87) *This practice report is based on the simultaneous interpreting of the promotion conference of the First Conference of Hebei Tourism Industry Development on Sept 23rd, 2016*. (IPR-C-26)

M1S4: Reviewing the purpose

(88) *Two main purposes have been realized during this translation practice. The first one is ---. The second one is that ---.* (TPR-C-10)

(89) *The author analyzes the four problems in note-taking that interpreters have to face, namely --- in the interpretation practice.* (IPR-C-6)

M1S5: Restating the theory and method

(90) *Under the guidance of skopos theory, especially its three main rules—skopos rule, coherence rule and fidelity rule, the translator translates the source text from English into Chinese by adopting several concrete translation techniques such as conversion translation, negation translation, restructuring translation, amplification translation, omission translation, embodiment translation.* (IPR-C-13)

(91) *The report has applied Skopos Theory to the case study of on-site interpreting of Chengdu Research Base of Giant Panda Breeding.* (IPR-C-27)

M1S6: Reviewing overall practice process

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 2: Summarizing the practice task

M2S1: Summarizing main findings

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M2S2: Summarizing problems encountered

(92) *There are also many problems in the translation process. One problem has been exposed during this practice is the shortage in vocabulary and translation experience. Cultural realization of target language is also a very difficult part to translation work.* (IPR-C-10)

(93) *There were some problems and barriers encountered in the interpreting process, for instance, she was perplexed by terminologies, confused by complex structures and intensive information, etc.* (IPR-C-3)

M2S3: Summarizing skills/strategies adopted

(94) *In the cases analyzing part, the translator employs some strategies, such as words amplification and omission, words formation, the processing of long and difficult sentences and passive sentences, the translation of figures of speech and non-standard English translation. Restructuring is one of the most commonly used methods during the long and complicated sentences translation.* (IPR-C-19)

(95) *In documentary interpreting, in terms of culture-loaded terms, there is no standard interpreting strategy. Considering the background and context, strategies including literal translation, literal translation with notes, free translation, paraphrasing can be adopted selectively to make them intelligible to the target audience.* (IPR-C-29)

M2S4: Summarizing experience obtained

(96) *The translator gets a lot from this translating practice. It is a good chance to review the theories that we learnt from professors and from the books. And then it is also an essential experience to realize the combination of theories and practice. The translator meets so many obstacles and problems during the translation process which they did not notice during the process of theories learning. ---.* (IPR-C-10)

(97) *5.1 What I Have Learnt from the Interpreting Experience*

In the process of the interpreting, the author has applied a lot of interpreting theories and techniques what she has learnt in the class into practice. Although *the author knew these theoretical knowledges, there still some difference between theory and practice. During the practice, sometimes, there is no time to think about which theory and technique should be used. Interpreting needs a lot of practice to accumulate experience and improve competence. ------.* (IPR-C-28)

M2S5: Summarizing main contents of the report

(98) *This paper takes skopostheorie as a theoretical framework to find out reliable ways to translate product manuals. Starting with the description of the significance of this research,---. Based upon theoretical reflections of the translation process and drawing upon examples chosen from the original text, the report explores appropriate ways for translating different types of sentences. The report draws the conclusion that Skopostheorie may offer valuable guidelines applicable to effective translation of equipment operation manuals, ---.* (IPR-C-22)

(99) *This report gives a detailed description of the whole process, including the task background, preparations before the actual interpreting, difficulties encountered and their corresponding countermeasures.* (IPR-C-18)

Move 3: Evaluating the practice task

M3S1: Making evaluation

(100) *The project received the appreciation from the client, because it was finished timely and the translation met the requirement of them.* (IPR-C-9)

(101) *The whole interpreting process could be evaluated as a smooth work, and the interpreting performance, especially the field work, has been acknowledged by the client.* (IPR-C-1)

M3S2: Claiming significance

(102) *With the translation of the essays, Chinese readers will be informed of the economic pluralism and its lesson design---. This is the social significance of the project. Meanwhile, as for the academic meanings, the solutions to the problems encountered in the process of translating may benefit other translators who are interested in economic study.* (IPR-C-14)

(103) *As Press conference is an important branch of conference interpreting, whose interpreting quality will lead a direct influence to the whole effect and even to the political image of a country. Therefore, this report exists a significant and practical meaning in exploring the interpretation strategy on press conference.* (IPR-C-14)

M3S3: Stating limitations

(See examples in Chapter 4)

Move 4: Deducting from the practice task

M4S1: Making suggestions

(See examples in Chapter 4)

M4S2: Providing pedagogical implications

(104) *It is hoped that this report can provide some inspiration to translators in translating the similar text and to the relevant studies in the future.* (IPR-C-9)

(105) *It is hoped that interpreters engaged in escort interpreting can benefit from this report. Meanwhile, it is expected to be of some academic value and enrich the studies in escort interpreting.* (IPR-C-27)

APPENDIX O

Example of Annotating Stance Items

To provide a context in which stance items were annotated and classified according to the list of stance markers adapted from Hyland (2005), stance in TPR-C-3 is provided as one specific example below. Note that **H** indicates hedge, **B** indicates booster, **AM** indicates Attitude marker, and **SM** indicates Self-mention.

Chapter Five Conclusion

5.1 Lessons gained

The translator (SM) has learned a lot in this practice.

Firstly, the translation ability has been improved. At the very beginning of this translation practice, **the translator (SM) would (H)** spend a lot time on searching new vocabulary and wording in the translation process, and failed the CATTI examination in November 2014. But now **the translator** (SM) **can (H)** read and translate much more **easily (AM)** and quickly than before, and passed the CATTI level 2 in November 2015.

Secondly, **the translator (SM)** has also learned a lot of knowledge beyond the language when searching for background information and terms. This helped **the translator (SM)** to better understand authors' meaning, and brought **the translator (SM)** much confidence in communication with foreigners in real life.

Thirdly, through the practice of double adaption in the translation, **the translator (SM)** developed a translation method for overcoming difficulties of professional translation, especially when studying or working independently. **The translator (SM)** now has a method suitable to himself for the future study and work.

5.2 Problems to be solved

Yet, there are some limitations of the double adaption idea.

(1) This idea is mostly useful for translators who want be to a good professional translator or interpreter in some certain fields. Since searching for terms and background information **will (B)** cost a lot of time, it is not **suggested (H)** to spend much time on those bizarre terms or information, especially when translators have no interests in the area and **will (B) probably (H) never (B)** use the term again, otherwise the time **will (B)** be wasted.

(2) If this method will be used, the translator **should (H)** firstly find out what is the most suitable profession to him or her. Life is too short to learn everything of the world, and finding a good way is very **important (AM)**. And as **we (SM) know (B)**, many good professional translators or interpreters have already learned some professional knowledge before starting to learn translation or interpretation. Their first major is computing, mathematics, physics and so on. Therefore, if the translators who took language as the first major want to match with them, it is **suggest (H)** to find an **appropriate (AM)** profession so as to learn it quickly and effectively.

And some shortages **can (H)** be found within the translation practice and translation work of *The Economist,* which **should (H)** be solved in the following work and study.

(3) This translation practice is only for English to Chinese translation, but Chinese to English translation has not been practiced. To be a good translator or interpreter, both directions **must (B)** be practiced. Thus, the practice in the future **should (H)** cover both of them.

(4) **The author (AM)** has not read enough original Chinese articles when doing this translation practice. **The translator (SM)** has only used Chinese as outputting language, but has not input enough good Chinese. Therefore, sometimes **even (AM) the translator (SM)** wants to do well in wording, but eventually failed to write westernized Chinese words. This kind of problem **might (H)** be found in the following translation appendix. Henceforth, **the translator (SM) should (H)** read both good Chinese and English articles.

(5) The double adaption has not been used perfectly. Although **the translator (SM)** has **realized (B)** that learning terms and searching for background information are very **important (AM)**, some terms and information are still neither been covered nor translated well. And many mistakes are corrected thanks to Prof. Han. Thus, **the translator (SM) should (H)** further practice the double adaption with conscientious attitude.

CURRICULUM VITAE

Fengling Wang, female, born on 6th July, 1979, Yunnan, China. She graduated from Yunnan Normal University in 2003 with a B.A. degree in English Education. Upon graduation, as a lecturer, she has been teaching at the School of Foreign Languages and Cultures, Kunming University of Science and Technology, China.

In 2010, she achieved an M.A. degree in English Language and Literature from Yunnan Normal University, China. In 2011, she earned the Master degree of Teaching Chinese for Students of Other Languages from Yunnan Normal University, China.

During the period of July, 2016 to September, 2020, she has been enrolled in the Ph.D. program of English Language Studies at the School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. Her areas of interest include discourse analysis, genre analysis, as well as the writing of ESP learners. Her recent publication will appear in *Discourse and Interaction*.