2014

VOICE IN ESL ACADEMIC WRITING: AN INTERPERSONAL ANALYSIS

Audrey Hamoy
audreyhamoy@gmail.com

VOICE IN ESL ACADEMIC WRITING:
AN INTERPERSONAL ANALYSIS

A thesis submitted to
the Graduate College of
Marshall University

In partial fulfillment of
the requirements for the degree of
Master of Arts

In

English

by
Audrey Hamoy

Approved by
Dr. Jun Zhao, Committee Chairperson
Professor Ryan Angus
Dr. Kateryna Schray

Marshall University
May 2014

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

ABSTRACT

Voice in ESL Academic Writing: An Interpersonal Analysis

Social relationships determine every linguistic choice people make, regardless of the medium of language use. Hence, it is important to understand how these social relationships determine the linguistic features that are necessary for creating a proper voice when writing academically. This study uses the framework of Systemic Functional Linguistics in an attempt to understand intermediate English as a Second Language (ESL) learners' use of interpersonal features to create a voice in their academic writing and to see if it aligns with the voice typical of Western academic writing. In order to do this, the study uses twenty-four writing samples from eight participants (3 essays per participant) of varying native languages. Using the system of MOOD, the writing samples are analyzed for three specific interpersonal linguistic features: Subject, Adjunct, and Finite, to determine the amount of authority, objectivity, and abstractness the participants create in their writing. Finding that the participants were unable to create a voice consistent with Western academic writing, this study suggests some changes to current ESL pedagogical practices, in order to better prepare students academic study at the university level.

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview of Systemic Functional Linguistics

Understanding language means understanding the world around us. Using Halliday's theory of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL) to analyze language allows people to uncover the meaning of language based on the way it is used. Halliday (1973) states that language is a social system, where the meaning is created and changed by its users, based on the users' needs. It is in this way that language is seen as a functional grammar system, which differs from the formal view where language and grammar are based on a set of rules. In other words, this theory views language as descriptive in nature, where language and grammar do not fit into a specific set of guidelines, but instead its use creates the guidelines. The view sees language as fluid and evolving in accordance with the needs of its users.

In this theory, there are many components of language simultaneously working together. Language is a model of stratification. The top layer is genre, followed by register, then followed by the stratum of the metafunctions. This stratum is where language can be understood at the level of the grammar. The three metafunctions work together at one time to create meaning: ideational, or what is being talked about; textual, or how the text is created; and interpersonal, or the social relationships at play.

1.2 Interpersonal Metafunction and Voice

The focus of this study will be on the interpersonal metafunction, which helps understand the underlying social relationships that exist within the grammar. Language within the interpersonal metafunction is understood as exchange. This metafunction is important when

attempting to look at the grammar of a text, since the choice of language features will be determined by the user's social status in relation to either the listener or the reader. For example, the interpersonal language features a person uses while talking on the phone with a parent will be different from the language features they use while writing an email to their employer.

The MOOD system is used to understand these features and how they are different from one another. It is the main system of analysis for the interpersonal metafunction. Within this system, each part of the clause is broken down into a category, and each category serves a different purpose within the clause (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). The categories are Subject, Finite, Predicate, Complement, and Adjunct. The Subject is the entity that is responsible for the validity of the clause and is typically the first noun group. The Finite is the part of the verb group that holds the tense, polarity, and modality. The Predicate is the rest of the verb group, which contains the action verb. The Complement is another noun group that has the potential to be the Subject, and the Adjunct is usually an adverbial group or prepositional phrase that adds information, but is not necessary for the meaning of the clause.

This study focuses on the analysis of features of Subject, Adjunct, and Finite as linguistic features, in order to attempt to understand how intermediate ESL students create voice in their academic writing and whether or not that voice fits in with typical Western academic writing. For Subject, it is important to see where the speaker/writer is attributing responsibility in the clause. For example, "I broke the window" versus "The window broke." In the first clause, the "I" is the Subject, which places the responsibility on the speaker, but in the second clause "The window" is the Subject, which places the responsibility on a non-human entity, removing human accountability. In academic writing, the Subject should be impersonal, rather than personal, in order to shift the responsibility away from the writer. Typically, writers will write, "This paper is

about…" instead of "I am writing about…" to create an interpersonal distance and allow more abstractness. If a writer uses personal Subject, it can be broken down into two different categories: specific and general. Specific Subject points toward a known person, such as "I" or "we"; and general Subject is more of an abstract idea of people, such as "everyone" or "consumers." Typically in academic writing, the writer will rely on interpersonal and personal general Subjects in order to create an abstract voice with a high interpersonal distance.

The next feature is Adjunct, specifically mood Adjuncts. Mood Adjuncts allow speaker/writer opinion to be placed into the grammar, based on the categories of modality, temporality, or intensity. These are words such as "probably," "secondly," and "very," which reflect the true feeling of the speaker/writer. Mood Adjuncts are another way to show interpersonal choice. If someone says, "I'm going to the movies," the listener knows for sure that the speaker is going to the movies. If the speaker says, "I'm probably going to the movies," the listener cannot be one hundred percent sure that the speaker is going to the movies. Within that gray area created by "probably," the speaker's opinion is inserted into the grammar. Typically in academic writing, writers rely less on intensity Adjuncts. Overuse of these Adjuncts can create a conversational voice, instead of an academic one. Heavy use of other Adjuncts types can create a voice that is more subjective than objective, by placing more writer opinion into the text.

The next feature is modal Finite. This feature also creates a gray area between definite "yes" and "no" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 147.) Within these features, modal words are used to signify the obligation that the speaker/writing is placing on the listener/reader. The rank of obligation goes from low to high, where words like "should" and "could" lie on the low side of the obligation scale, "might" and "can" are mid-obligation words, and "need" and "must" are high-obligation words. Depending on the words the speaker/writer chooses, the amount of

authority they want to establish is created within the text. Typically in Western academic writing, low-obligation modals are used in order to avoid being rude, but still create the correct authority.

1.3 Current Study

Until now, the studies that have investigated voice in academic ESL writing have studied more on the system of APPRAISAL rather than MOOD (Coffin, 2002; Coffin & Hewings, 2004; Liu, 2013). Thus, this study attempts to understand ESL student voice using the MOOD system. In order to complete this study, eight intensive intermediate English students of various native language backgrounds provided a total of twenty-four essays in the categories of cause and effect, compare/contrast, and chronological order for analysis. Each essay was broken down into clauses and then analyzed based on the MOOD system for personal Subjects (specific and general), impersonal Subjects, mood Adjuncts, and modal Finites. The number of each was divided by the number of clauses for percentage information.

This study also attempted to answer if individual learners used similar or different linguistic features to create voice. To do this, the data was analyzed by individual participants, based on each category. What was found was that individual learners all seemed to have different ways of using these linguistic features to create voice. One definite pattern between all of the participants was the lack of interpersonal Subject and the heavy reliance on the personal Subject. Mood Adjunct and modal Finite use varied greatly among participants. All these patterns clearly indicate that those ESL learners could not create an appropriate voice for Western academic writing.

The next thing this study wanted to answer was how is the interpersonal relationship established overall based on the participants' use of Subject, Adjunct, and Finite, and whether

these choices are proper for Western academic writing. Impersonal Subject was still not used in the majority of clauses, but when personal Subject was used, the participants tended to rely on general Subjects instead of specific Subject. This use of Subject meant that they had some idea of creating abstract language, but they did not seem to fully comprehend how to do it. Their use of Adjuncts showed a reliance on intensity Adjuncts, such as "really" and "a lot," creating a conversational voice instead of an academic one. Lastly, their use of modal Finites showed an overuse of high- and mid-obligation Finites, instead of low-obligation, which is typical of Western academic writing, creating an incorrect authoritative voice throughout the writing.

This study then examined how the participants used these features to create a different voice based on the type of essay they were writing. Data analysis indicated that each feature tended to be used differently based on the writing assignment. One of the most interesting patterns was the use of personal Subjects in chronological-order essays was much lower than that in the other essay types. One reason for this difference could be that chronological order is explaining "how" and removing all personal opinions, compared to the "why" of the other essays. The next significant pattern found was the use of mood Adjunct in the chronological-order essays, which was probably caused by temporality Adjuncts, since these are used when explaining the order of something. The variety of use demonstrated that these features are used differently depending on the type of writing.

This study then suggests how ESL pedagogy can be changed to better help students prepare for university education. Teachers should integrate the interpersonal features of the MOOD system into their specific teaching of grammar by breaking down the features at the level of the clause. Teachers can teach these features with a variety of essay types to show students how a similar voice can be created with different uses of interpersonal features. Doing this type

of in-depth interpersonal look at specific essay types can help students succeed by preparing them for their academic future, which can be especially helpful if students analyze types of writing from their own educational field.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Systemic Functional Linguistics

The theoretical framework of this study is Systemic Functional Linguistics, a theory created by M. A. K. Halliday in the 1960s and 1970s, based on ideas of the linguist Firth and anthropologist Malinowski who view language not as a set of structured rules, but as a social interaction process embedded in context with meaning potential. At its base, "a language is a series of redundancies by which we link our ecosocial environment to nonrandom disturbances in the air (soundwaves)" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 26). Under the theory of SFL, language is used within specific contexts to realize meaning; social contexts cannot be separated from actual language use and the understanding of what is being communicated by the language user. According to Halliday (1978, p. 1), "the construal of reality is inseparable from the construal of the semantic system in which the reality is encoded." SFL views language as a semiotic system of language and the text produced as the realization of that system.

Eggins (1994) also claims that language is a semiotic coding system, in which language is organized as specific collections of grammatical choices. The meaning of each grammatical choice the user makes is only understood by comparing it to the choices the user did not make but could have been made. The context of the language use is how these unused choices are understood, when compared to the used choices. As Halliday states in his book *Language as Social Semiotic* (1978), the environments where language choices exist are paradigmatic; every language choice is related to the language features that weren't chosen. In this theory of language understanding, it is clear that language is a system that defines and constantly redefines itself. Halliday (1978, p. 129) states, "There is no point at which no further subcategorization of the

options is possible," meaning there are unlimited ways for language users to create meaning. The idea of unlimited meaning potential is important when analyzing language to compare the actual language choice to other choices that could have been made and analyze the personal or cultural decisions behind that choice.

In this way, SFL differs from the traditional, or formal, area of linguistic study. Language is not seen as a set of rules for users to follow, but as a way to understand how the user's world is shaped by the language they use. Language is viewed as functional, instead of formal, following a view of descriptivism. Formal linguists understand language in a way that removes the meaning from what is being said and focuses on language as a structure. Functional linguists view language differently than formalists as they believe that language exists to communicate meaning: language is a very large, multidimensional, metaredundant semiotic system. According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004, p. 5), "[i]t does no service to anyone in the long run if we pretend that semiosis—the making and understanding of meaning—is a simpler matter than it really is." The understanding of language as meaning and meaning potential provides a tool to understand human existence. Studying language with SFL framework helps us to better understand the human condition.

In SFL, many different components of language simultaneously work together within a given text: the verbal component, or what is actually happening (process), the way the text is communicated (written, spoken, etc.), and the social aspect of the text. These three things create a dynamic, multifaceted text, which, depending on the type of analysis, can show underlying themes within the grammar that were not visible previously. These findings can lead to a deeper understanding of the text, how the text applies to culture, and how culture is understood within the language around us.

Under SFL, the meaning of the language is analyzed at the level of the grammar, which is broken down into clauses (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). This theory relies on an interwoven system of language components, all working together to create meaning within a specific context, where meaning is within the language and doesn't come from some area of higher understanding and existence (Halliday & Matthiessen, 1999, p. 603). This system follows the model of "genre coordinating a complex interplay of complementary kinds of meaning (ideational, interpersonal, and textual) across language strata (register, discourse semantics, lexicogrammar and phonology/graphology) and across modalities of communication (language, image, music, spatial design etc)" (Martin & Rose, 2008, p. 258).

The area of language use that deals with the lexicogrammar is represented by three metafunctions, which work simultaneously to create an understanding of the text. These metafunctions allow us to analyze and understand the language around us by looking at the lexicogrammar. According to Schleppegrell (2004, p. 48), "in every English clause, three things are going on simultaneously: something is being talked about (ideational metafunction), social relationships are being established and maintained (interpersonal metafunction), and text is being structured (textual metafunction)."

According to Halliday (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 170-176), ideational metafunction is understood by recognizing the process, participants, and circumstances of a clause, using a system of TRANSITIVITY. The circumstance is realized as the adverbial group or prepositional phrase, the participant is the nominal group, and the process is the verbal group. This system takes experience and breaks it down into processes, allowing us to analyze and understand the actions happening in and around us. These processes are categorized into internal and external experiences, happening either within a person's conscience or happening

9

independently. These processes are Material, Behavioural, Mental, Verbal, Relational, and Existential.

Textual metafunction deals with the flow of information and the organization of language. This organization of information is found by analyzing clauses according to their Theme and Rheme structure. Theme is recognized as the beginning of the clause, which "locates and orients the clause within its context" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 64). The Rheme of the clause is the remaining part, which supplies previously unknown information and builds new information on the Theme. The Theme and Rheme work together to create an organization for the language, allowing the reader or listener to understand clauses within their specific context.

2.2 Interpersonal Metafunction

The focus of this paper is on the interpersonal metafunction and its realization in the lexicogrammar. In SFL, the interpersonal metafunction is the way that social relationships are understood and created through language. Within this metafunction, language is an exchange of information or goods-&-services. According to Halliday (1993, p. 107), interpersonal metafunction "builds up into a rich array of speech functions, modalities, personal forms, keys, and various dimensions of force and attitude by which the speaker enacts immediate social relationships and, more broadly, the whole pattern of the social system with its complexity of roles, statuses, voices, and the like." The interpersonal metafunction allows us to understand the relationships that speakers or writers have with the listeners/readers and what the speakers/writers hope to give or get from their language choice.

From this interpersonal scope of language, there are two different actions grammar can do: giving or demanding (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 107). The speaker or the writer is

either giving something, such as information, or he/she is demanding something from the listener/reader, such as information or goods-&-service. This idea is also interactive, as the speaker/writer has to trust that the listener/reader is willing to either receive the information or to give the information/goods-&-services. This type of interpersonal interaction allows four different functions of the language: offer, command, statement, and question (p. 108). These functions can be found in the different types of clauses: declarative (statements), interrogative (questions), and imperative (offers and commands).

Based on the different types of exchanges, the interpersonal relationship between the two language users can be revealed. A person of higher social ranking is more likely to use an imperative command for someone that is below them. For example, a mother telling a child, "Stop that!" or a teacher telling his/her students, "Write the answer on the board" is a normal social exchange. When the opposite happens, such as a student telling a teacher to "stop writing that," it causes a disruption in the usual social understanding.

To better understand the relationships of the language users within the language, further interpersonal analysis needs to be done within the MOOD system. In this system, discourse is broken down by categorizing lexical items on the basis of the clause into specific categories: Subject, Finite, Predicator, Complement, and Adjunct. According to Halliday & Matthiessen (2004, p. 115-124), within the MOOD system, each feature accomplishes something different within the scope of interpersonality. The Subject is the entity that is responsible for the clause's validity and is represented by a nominal group. The Finite element allows the clause to become "arguable" by placing it within a reference of time or personal position, which is seen in the tense, polarity, or modality. The Predicator represents the process happening within the clause, represented by a verbal group. The Complement is a nominal group that could potentially

become the Subject and carry the responsibility, and an Adjunct is usually either an adverbial group or a prepositional phrase that can represent speaker/writer opinion or can add additional information, but is not necessary to understand the overall meaning of the clause. In order to understand these categories, see Figure 1.1:

Sister Susie	's	sewing	shirts	for soldiers
Subject	Finite	Predicator	Complement	Adjunct
Mood		Residue		

Fig. 1.1. Example of MOOD system analysis (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 121).

Interpersonal analysis is a way to understand what viewpoint the author is coming from and help readers get a better understanding of why the text is written the way it is. This type of analysis discovers the active nature of the writing, determining how the writer feels, what he or she desires, and allows the writer to question or to enlighten. Language is an interactive tool (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 29-30) which uses specific grammar to communicate specific meanings, such as expressing emotion or showing a writer's judgement (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p. 11), even when the writer is not aware of it. Written discourse is typically thought of as an objective being, not influenced by the writer's own opinions. An interpersonal analysis, however, can show that this is actually not the case. All language, from an interpersonal standpoint, is active, as the speaker/writer is creating or maintaining a relationship with the listeners/readers through various grammatical choices.

Analyzing text with the MOOD system allows us to look at different parts of the clause based on their interpersonal function within the clause. Looking at the Subject of a clause is important for this type of analysis. For example, "This cup of coffee is what I'm drinking" versus

"I am drinking this cup of coffee." In the first clause, "This cup of coffee" is the Subject and in the second clause, "I" is the Subject. This Subject difference has different emphasis for both clauses. In the first clause, the responsibility for the validity of the clause lies on the cup of coffee, as opposed to the second clause, where the validity is on the "I." The difference between these two Subjects is placing the responsibility on a human versus a non-human entity, creating a way for the speaker/writer to strategically take or place responsibility, whether above or below his/her consciousness. The placement of the Subject can create a distance between the Subject and the argument that is being validated by it. An example in academic writing is, "This paper argues" versus "In this paper, I argue." In the first example, the Subject is the "paper" and in the second example, the Subject is "I." In the second example, the human Subject is taking the responsibility for the validity of that statement, where in the first example, the responsibility is on the paper itself, removing blame on the human being.

A way to look at what is important according to the writer/speaker is to look at the content of the Adjuncts within the MOOD system. According to Bloor & Bloor (2004, p. 52), Adjuncts are important, in regards to conveying information, but the grammar of the clause can still exist without them. They use the example, "Lowei [Subject] was [Finite] obsessed [Predicate] by the idea [circumstantial Adjunct]" (p. 53). In this example, "by the idea" is an optional part for the clause to be grammatically functional. If the reader only knows that "Lowei was obsessed," that is enough information for the reader to know in order to keep the information moving.

Adjuncts can be broken down into two different types: circumstantial and mood. Circumstantial, like the example above, helps give meaning to the clause by adding aspects such as place, time, or manner. They typically begin with prepositions (Bloor & Bloor, 2004). The

other type of Adjunct is mood. This type of Adjunct allows a speaker's or writer's feelings to be placed into the text, which creates a more interpersonal voice. Mood Adjuncts can be analyzed into different categories of modality, temporality, and intensity. Within modality, there are different focuses of modalization or modulation. These focuses fall within the gray area between "yes" and "no." Modalization is the abstract idea that pertains to propositions and the exchange of information. Modulation refers to proposals and commands, which relate to concrete ideas. Modalization is understood by looking at Adjuncts on the basis of probability and usuality, ("I'll probably go") and modulation relates to obligation and inclination ("I might go") (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004 p. 126-7, 147). The type of modality that is seen in Adjuncts related to modulation could also be seen within clause Finites.

Finites are the feature of a clause's verbal group in which polarity, temporality, or modality is placed. Like the mood Adjuncts, a modal Finite creates modality by lying somewhere between 'yes' and 'no' (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p. 147). The Finites that show this modality fall on a scale of low to high obligation: low, mid, and high. The higher the obligation that the speaker/writer places into the Finite, the higher the listener/speaker assumes the speaker's/writer's social status is. For example, if someone writes, "In order to be successful, you must invest in stock," the word "must" is an indication of higher social status. What this statement seems to say is that this person has already invested in stock, has become successful from investing, and believes that he or she has the upper hand within that social context. This language use can be compared to someone who says, "In order to be successful, you could invest in stock." The modality of "could" has a much lower obligation than "much," which makes the reader think that the person saying "could" is of a lower social status. The "could" represents

more of suggestion and falls under the "low obligation" category, where the "must" represents more of an insistence and falls under "high obligation."

2.3 Voice

When trying to define what "voice" is in writing, many teachers have a difficult time pinpointing the specific meaning of voice. The common understanding seems to be that having a good voice in writing creates a certain "flow" that makes the writing sound proper and academic. Even though teachers are grading students based on the voice created by the students, they themselves are unable to correctly identify what creates this "voice." Using SFL to analyze academic writing allows the features that create voice to be explicit and be understood in an objective way. Breaking these language features down gives teachers a way to teach the idea of "voice" and then properly grade the students based on how they use the features.

SFL understands language as a social, communicative process (Martin & White, 2005). Social roles/relationships are constantly being established during any form of communication. Modality features are where these relationships and roles are created. Improper use of these modality features can create a rift and debilitate communication as Coffin and Hewings (2004) argue that using these features incorrectly, without the correct balance, can cause the writer to be interpreted by the reader as rude or coarse, instead of knowledgeable and having expertise. For example, an email sent from a student to a professor would use different modality than a text message from the same student to a close friend. If a student tried to send an email to his/her professor using the same modality used in the text message, the professor could take this the wrong way, which might cause a problem in this situation. Understanding language this way "shows how social reality can be differently interpreted and indeed (in some cases) consciously manipulated through its linguistic encoding" (Coffin, Donohue & North, 2009, p. 228).

15

In typical North American academic writing, a writer's voice is determined by the features that he or she uses and how those features are read and interpreted by the reader. The use of these features makes academic writing as much of a social process as speech, even though there is no direct, instant communication. Unlike spoken communication, communication between writer and reader has the potential to occur generations and cultures apart, meaning that the writer has to create social distance, while still properly representing their social stance. "The primary task of casual conversation is the negotiation of social identity and social relations" (Eggins & Slade, 1997, p. 22), which is different from academic writing. In academic writing, even though writers have to negotiate social identity and relations within their writing, their primary task is to present information in an objective, authoritative voice. According to Smyth (1994, as cited in Coffin & Hewings, 2004), "[a]lthough the interpolation of the writer into a text may arise in the context of professionally or vocationally oriented disciplines…and in professional academic writing…, it is frequently discouraged in undergraduate writing" (p. 167).

Differences between these two types of communication are unique to each genre and can be seen within the different choices of linguistic features. Where speaking is a concrete thing, based on present and visual notions, body language, and temporal cues, writing is abstract, relying on generalizations, nominalizations and passives to include more information into a concise space. As a result, "writing an argument is, at the very least, a negotiation between the writer and the reader" (Lee, 2010, p. 71).

When trying to create a voice in academic writing, students who are newer to this medium tend to rely on conversational features, instead of writing-specific features, as argued by Schleppegrell (2004, p. 60) "[s]tudents who rely too heavily on dialogic features in their writing enact an interpersonal stance that may detract from the points they are making." An example of

16

this conversational feature is when writers use "I" or "you" as clause Subjects to talk about their personal feelings or to talk directly to the reader, which creates a conversational voice, instead of authoritative.

Another example of different features creating different voices can be found in the use of mood Adjuncts. If a writer relies too heavily on intensity mood Adjuncts, their writing will end up sounding conversational instead of authoritative. For example, intensity Adjunct in the following clauses are the bolded part, "The pyramids of Egypt are **very** large" or "**A lot** of people were angry about the Senate's behavior." These intensity mood Adjuncts give the writing less of an academic voice and rely more on conversational features, which is typical of writers who have not yet learned how to negotiate their voice within academic writing. Introducing modality into the writing has an effect on the relationship between the writer and reader. As Coffin (2002) says, "Modality, in other words, serves to introduce explicit negotiability into a proposition and hence, unlike the positive declarative, does not assume or simulate solidarity between writer and reader" (p. 14).

The voice that is typical in Western academic writing is one of objective authority and power, but writers need to maintain a balance in order to convey information, while not coming off as rude. According to Bloor & Bloor (2004), "The exertion of power by individuals with certain social roles in particular social situations is often revealed in the form of language, as is the corollary, lack of power" (Bloor & Bloor, 2004, p. 229). The main linguistic feature that shows power is modality. A high obligation modality, for example, will typically be used by a person with more power than the readers/listeners. In academic writing, the writer will portray him/herself as the authority, so he/she will typically use either mid or high obligation modals. The reason for using these modals is that the audience expects the author to be a person with

some amount of authority, but someone who also allows room for other options to be possible. This modality helps create the voice of the author, which can be a difficult concept for some ESL students to understand, as "modal verbs are problematic for ESL students, as their semantic and pragmatic meanings are highly variable and are also influenced by cultural norms" (Hinkel, 1995, as cited in Schleppegrell, 2000, p. 128). According to Coffin & Hewings (2004), non-Western cultures have a different way of integrating the writer into the writing, allowing a different approach to voice and authority. These cultural differences can cause issues in the beginning of their career for writers coming in and learning this style of writing.

2.4 Previous Studies

While there have been some studies on ESL student academic writing and voice, many of these studies have focused on the system of APPRAISAL instead of the interpersonal functions of Subject, MOOD, modality (Coffin 2002, Coffin and Hewings, 2004, Liu, 2013). Studies like Schleppegrell (2000) and Lee (2010) discuss the difficulties ESL students may have when trying to write academically.

Coffin's (2002) article "The voices of history: theorising the interpersonal semantics of historical discourses" shows that different types of authorial voices can be determined by an APPRAISAL system analysis. She states that evaluative meanings of texts allow students to write their own text with the correct interpersonal choices, therefore APPRAISAL system analysis can have significant use in educational areas. In order to confirm this idea, Coffin analyzed two essays from English L1 high school students' writing for a history class. The reason she chose to analyze history writing was to show that there are many prototypical interpersonal patterns within the findings. Her APPRAISAL analysis was broken down into four

categories: Judgment (sub-section of Affect, which is an emotional stance taken by the writer), Social Valuation (sub-section of Appreciation, which is the belief of an institution as a whole), Graduation ("turning the volume up or down" [p. 12]), and Engagement (creating a stance that is either shared by audience or the complete opposite of audience's stance).

The first essay falls under the voice category of "recorder," as the writer uses a very small amount of APPRAISAL items, showing that the writer is allowing the information to be conveyed without emotional interference. The APPRAISAL items that the writer relies on are Social Valuation and Judgment, realized through declaratives, limiting his or her own personal stance and trying to record the facts as honestly as possible. The second writer is categorized as "appraiser," as Coffin finds more APPRAISAL items in text 2, specifically in the categories of morally-charged Judgments. This category of "appraiser" is shown within his/her direct Judgment placed into the text, which is used to personally evaluate Leon Trotsky's role in the war.

Across her entire APPRAISAL analysis of student history writings, Coffin found that those who had limited use of Judgment and Social Valuation were considered "recorders." This group was able to create the interpersonal "objective" distance, creating a "neutral" voice. The other group of students ("interpreters" and "adjudicators") relied more on Judgment uses to place their own opinions of the subjects into their writing. Coffin states that these types of APPRAISAL values have an effect on how successful a student becomes. She states that teachers need to be aware of the effect these values have and teach their students how to write in different voices, allowing students to understand the interpersonal implications depending on their chosen voice.

Coffin and Hewings's article "IELTS as preparation for tertiary writing: distinctive interpersonal and textual strategies" (2004) analyzed both interpersonal and textual features of ESL writing of learners taking the IELTS test using the APPRAISAL system. The section of the text that Coffin and Hewings analyzed was argumentative essays written on a controversial issue. They analyzed fifty-six essays ranging between two hundred thirty and two hundred eighty words. Looking at the writers' uses of Themes, Coffin and Hewings established that the writers were adept at creating complex Themes. This type of use is typically associated with successful writers. The next feature they examined was the use of APPRAISAL within the identified Themes. Coffin and Hewings found that students used the APPRAISAL features of Pronounce (using their own opinion) and Hearsay (using others' opinions) multiple times, which is in contrast to typical academic English writing. Even though the academic writing produced by this text differed greatly from academic argumentative and persuasive writings with their interpersonal feature analysis, the students were given high marks for those essays within the IELTS context.

Though this study does not show how real-world learners produce academic writing, it does help to show that students are capable of adjusting their use of interpersonal features within their writing to create academic English essays. This study also shows that interpersonal features of writing are specific for specific types of writing and that the author's voice is expected to change, based on the type of essay they are writing.

Liu's article "Evaluation in Chinese university EFL students' English argumentative writing: an APPRAISAL study" (2013) focuses on the features of APPRAISAL in order to determine the interpersonal language used in Chinese EFL students' argumentative writing. Over thirty third-year English majors from a Chinese university wrote essays on a prompt (whether or

not the amount of information on the internet was a positive thing or a negative thing). They were given forty minutes to write a two hundred fifty-word essay explaining their stance and citing specific examples. The essays were graded by two of Liu's reliable Chinese ELT colleagues using the Test for English Majors Band 4. Liu found that APPRAISAL features, such as Affect, Capacity, Judgment, Engagement, Monoglossic, Graduation, and Attitude values had an influence on how student essays were graded. The more successful essays used these features correctly and when necessary, while the less successful ones were unable to utilize each feature successfully.

The Attitude analysis showed that students who were able to use more Appreciation values, rather than Judgment and Affect, were better able to avoid using their own ethical and moral judgments. These features made the text sound less emotional and judgmental and more appreciative. Three Authorial-Affect values were used, which created a clear writer identity and attitude. For example, one student wrote "As for use, especially judged from my own experience, I'm in favor of its use [+affect: satisfaction: authorial] as long as human have a certain limit or bottom line to it" (p. 45). In this example, the writer put his/her own personal feelings into the clause, creating less of an academic voice than the higher-level writers. Within the value of Judgment, both low- and high-rated essays had similar results. The difference between the two was that the higher-level writers used implicit judgments and the lower-level used explicit.

The next thing that Liu analyzed was Engagement. The finding was that the higher-level writers used two times more Engagement than lower-level writers, making the lower-level writers' essays sound more conversational and the higher-level writers' essays sound more "affirmative and authoritative" (p. 47). Their limited use of Engagement features allowed the higher-level writers to receive a better grade, since the writing prompt expected students to

21

create a stance. However, a problem arose with writers who used resources such as Counter, Deny, and Pronounce, as it made their voice too authoritative and were less persuasive to the readers.

The last thing Liu analyzed was Graduation. Liu found that the high-rated essays had a more balanced use of Graduation values, while the low-rated essays had a large number of Quantification, creating a more authoritative voice for high-rated essays, while the low-rated essays had weaker persuasive arguments. Liu's essay shows that more advanced writers understand and are better able to control the interpersonal functions of their writing. Because these factors play such an important role in a student's academic success, pedagogy should be adapted to meet these needs. Liu also states that "the interpersonal metafunction needs to be taken into consideration in EFL/ESL writing pedagogy" (p. 51).

Schleppegrell in her 2000 article "Challenges of the Science Register for ESL Students: Errors and Meaning-Making" discusses the difficulties ESL students have regarding what type of language they should be using for each specific context of writing. The reports were written by three upper-level ESL Chemical Engineering students for one of their classes. Schleppegrell used a report based on the same type of experiment written by a native English speaker as a reference. She compared them on the basis of modality, verb tense, and their clause-combining strategies. Each report was to have seven divisions and each division was given its own set of moves, as per the student syllabus.

Differences between the ESL student reports and the model report are seen in the Theory section of the report. First of all, ESL students do not have the same resources available to them to create assumptions as easily as native English students. For example, they do not have the same knowledge of lexical variety and use the single form of "assume," compared to the model

writer who used multiple forms of the word. When the writers were able to create proper assumptions in their text, they were held up by the clause-level grammar.

The Discussion section is the most important and complex part of the report. In this section, the ESL students' use of modality and verb choice make them unable to create proper interpersonal meaning. They also have difficulty with their clause-combining strategies, creating a lack of development. For example, Writer 2's use of possibility modalities mixed with poor verb choices creates a poor authoritative voice, caused by an interpersonal stance based on uncertainty. For Writer 1, the use of present tense makes the results seem as though they are generic, timeless examples and not related to the report he/she is writing. This writer also uses clause-combining strategies typical of spoken language. Writer 3, as in the previous section, creates the most successful report, but is limited by her grammatical resources. For example, instead of using modality and passive voice to create interpersonal objectivity, she does not use modality features and uses simple past tense.

Schleppegrell states that the difficulties ESL students have in creating an appropriate voice in their writing can affect the reader's interpretation of the text overall: "When infelicitous interpersonal meanings are interpreted as intentional, students can be seen as lacking confidence, on the one hand, or taking too strong a stance, on the other" (p.141). This study shows that the interpersonal choices that ESL students make affect how their writing is perceived. Even if the student doesn't realize that he or she is making the incorrect modal choice because of his or her limited resources, these features can have negative effects on the reception of the writing.

Lee's article, "Command strategies for balancing respect and authority in undergraduate expository essays" (2010) looks at mood and modality in undergraduate students' writing and whether or not they are successful at creating the writer's authority. The participants for the

study were six students from areas in East Asia. All but one were first year university students, grouped into three categories: high-graded (75%+), middle graded (65-74%), and low-graded (<64%). The essays included were the semester final 1000-word essay, a response to the prompt "Universities in Australia need to learn not only from Western intellectual traditions but also from those of other cultures in order to meet challenges of the 21st Century. Discuss." The features examined in these essays were "Evidence of interpersonal resources" and "Appropriate academic register" (p. 65).

Overall, in terms of commands, there was a large difference between the HGEs and the LGEs. HGEs used more interaction with their reader than LGEs. HGEs had a much higher use of modulation via nominalization, and therefore were more successful. Lee's analysis was focused on two writers: the top student (EAS 1) and the bottom student (EAS 6). EAS 1 was successful in his/her use of commands. The writer needs to use commands carefully, in order to remain socially below his/her teacher, while also creating an authority. As the writer's essay continues, he/she is able to make use of interpersonalized and depersonalized (nominalized) commands in order to create an essay that effectively creates authority, while managing social relationships. EAS 6's use of commands is dramatically different from EAS 1's. The writer uses modals such as "need" and "must," without respecting proper social relationships and creates too high of a degree of authority. This writer also uses the pronoun "we," which creates informality and a high degree of authority. This type of pronoun use is typically seen in native Chinese speaking constructions.

This study showed that many command strategies are required to create a proper voice of authority in academic writing, on the basis of "shouldness" and "interpersonal distance: formality" (p. 71). Less advanced academic writers rely too heavily on one (typically incorrect)

form of modality, which creates an impolite voice whose authority is too high. Lee states that "The results indicate that mood resources are vital in creating a critical voice in a formal tone" (p. 71).

2.5 Aim of the Current Study

One thing these studies show is that there is a distinct voice in academic writing. Writers who want to achieve this voice correctly must use many different resources for establishing themselves. These resources include modal features, which allow the writer's authority and knowledge to be established, while still creating a balance to talk to their audience without being pompous and impolite. Another way to establish a proper voice is to create an impersonal tone by not relying on personal pronouns and creating objectivity.

Many of these studies used the system of APPRAISAL to analyze their data. Almost no study examines Interpersonal metafunction using the MOOD system. This study's focus will be on the MOOD system. While both have to deal with interpersonal relationships, the MOOD system categorizes every feature of a clause as a way to establish social relationships. The features that will be focused on specifically in this study are Subject, Finite, and Adjunct and how their use in intermediate ESL student writing establishes their voice, and whether that voice fits in typical Western academic writing's style of objectivity and authority.

CHAPTER 3: STUDY

This study investigates intermediate non-native English speaking students' academic writing in order to understand how the students create voice in their academic writing, and how they use linguistic devices. The result could inform pedagogical practices.

3.1 Research Setting

The data collection took place within the Intensive English Program of a four-year university in a mid-Atlantic/Southern American state, in a building separate from the university buildings. At the time of this study, the program had 160 students from 17 different countries. The program is brand new and was open four months before the data collection. Students can be enrolled in the programs of General English, Academic English, or Pathways. Pathways students can take university classes pertaining to their major while also taking Academic English classes. There are six levels of learning, based on proficiancy, but current students are only placed into levels one through five.

Level 1 is for students who have little to no English language learning. Level 2 is for students who have some English experience, when they are no longer beginning English learners and have some basic understanding of the language, but do not understand more advanced language concepts. Their skills are mostly speaking, with little emphasis on writing. Level 3 is a middle level where students begin learning to write academic English. Students in this level are beginning to learn advanced verb forms and should be able to understand and participate in basic conversation and are considered to be at a low intermediate level. Level 4 is where students begin to learn college-level academic writing in order to prepare them for university, since they

are able to begin Pathway classes after successful completion of level 4. In this level, students are considered intermediate and are expected to be able to participate in conversation and are learning to give college-level presentations. The next level is Level 5. In this level, students can be introduced to a standard program that allows them to take English university classes while also being enrolled in Academic English classes. At the last level, Level 6, students are advanced English learners. These students are also able to enter an accelerated program, allowing them to take English university classes while simultaneously being enrolled into Academic English courses. The students in this study are all Level 4 students, which means they are part of the Academic English program only.

The writing that students are expected to produce in this program is academic writing. At each level, the students are expected to advance in their writing so they can move on to take university classes, but academic writing does not start to become prevalent in the curriculum until Level 3, when the students have a basic understanding of English. Each level has one to three sections, depending on the number of students placed into that level. Each student who is in the Academic English program only, and is not taking university courses, takes three classes, which are broken down into Reading/Vocabulary, Writing/Grammar, and Speaking/Listening.

Aside from classes being taught, there were also opportunities for them to participate in activities with other English learners from different cultures. For example, students are able to go on trips to cities such as New York and Chicago. They follow itineraries in order to see major American landmarks. There are also more low-key events for them to attend, such as a Super Bowl party or an Olympics-watching party. At these types of events, all students are invited to attend, including native English university students.

3.2 Research Questions

The current study attempts to understand how ESL students use voice in their academic writing. Studying student voice in academic writing is interesting, because it allows the researcher to determine whether the student's education, cultural background, or the type of writing contributes to a difference in how the student establishes a relationship with the reader. The focus is on whether their voice creates a persona appropriate for academic writing. The specific research questions of this study are:

1. Do individual ESL learners rely on the same or different strategies to create voice? Are there differences between their linguistic choices?

2. How do ESL writers express interpersonal relationship and voice in their writing, as indicated by their choice of personal/impersonal subjects, use of mood Adjunct and modality of the Finite element?

3. Are their linguistic choices proper for the impersonal voice required for academic writing or not?

4. Are writers' linguistic choices affected by the type of essay they are writing?

3.3 Participants

The participants of this study were eight non-native English speakers. Their ages ranged from early to late twenties. There were four males and four females. Their native languages were Portuguese, Arabic, Vietnamese, Spanish, and Chinese. One male Portuguese speaker and one female Arabic speaker had learned English from television and/video games. The female Portuguese speaker had studied English on and off for three years, but had not learned English in school. By contrast, some of the participants have been studying English in school for many

years. The female Spanish-speaking Colombian participant studied English in high school; the female Chinese speaker has been studying English for seven years and one male Arabic speaker has been studying English since he was eleven.

Each learner was placement-tested and enrolled in an intensive English program. Based on their placement test scores, all of the participants were placed at the same high-intermediate level. After completion of this level, the students are able to attend university as a Pathway student. At the time of participation, they had been studying English at the Intensive English Program for three to four months.

3.4. Procedure

Thirty-two students tested into the intermediate level where the data collection would take place. The students were divided into two sections, with 16 students in each section. The class that supplied that data was a two-hour writing and grammar class, taught three times a week by two teachers. One of the teachers was a native Russian speaker who studied TESOL in both Russia and the United States, at the same university where the intensive English program takes place. The other teacher was a native Arabic speaker, who also studied TESOL at the same university.

In order to get consent, each class was attended on the same day, for fifteen minutes, at the beginning of one and at the end of another. The study was introduced as if it was examining writing changes in ESL student writing, so that the learners wouldn't know the true intention. The requirements were fully explained and the fact that their participation would not affect their grades, making sure that each student understood what was being asked.

Twenty-three students signed Informed Consent papers, but only eight students participated. The students were not required to write anything extra for this study, but instead emailed previously-completed classwork to be analyzed. The students were able to email their assignments after Informed Consents were signed. Their email addresses were looked up in the directory, and a mass email was sent, BCCing the twenty-three students. The eight students who replied participated by sending the first three essays they had written for their writing/grammar classes. The essay types were chronological order, compare/contrast, and cause/effect. Each essay was between one and one and a half pages. The longest essay had sixty clauses, while the shortest had eighteen.

After receiving the files, the essays were coded by female or male, making sure all three essays stayed grouped together by author. Names were removed from the files and then kept in a secure location.

3.5 Data coding

A. **Breakdown of Essays**

The next step was to break down each essay into clauses, which is the standard linguistic unit of measurement in SFL. A clause is measured by finding the participant, process, and circumstance. Each clause is centered around a process, which acts as the nucleus and is required for the clause to become its own unit of measurement, which is represented by a verbal group. Clauses also contain at least one participant, represented by a noun group. The last part of a clause is the circumstance, but it is not required for a clause to stand independently.

After each essay was coded into numbered clauses, the next step was to analyze by the SFL interpersonal system of MOOD. This analysis required an understanding of what each part

of the clause was doing, by breaking them down into the categories of Subject, Finite, Predicate, Complement, circumstantial Adjunct, and mood Adjunct. Even though Complement and circumstantial Adjunct were not used in this type of analysis, it was important to mark these in the clauses in order to understand the function of each word/group and how the speaker was creating a complete meaning (sample analysis can be found in Appendix B).

The next step was to code the data into categories of MOOD analysis. These categories were: Personal Subject, which was further split into general and specific Subject, impersonal Subjects, mood Adjunct, and modal Finite. An example of a general Subject is something that talks about people in a general way, such as "consumers" or "the people of Istanbul." A personal specific Subjects is a Subject that talks directly to or about a person, such as "I," "You," or "We." An example of an impersonal Subject is an author using, "This paper states" or "The research suggests," which removes any humanness from the clause.

Mood Adjuncts are words, like adverbs or temporal connectors, which allow the writer's opinions to be realized in the grammar. Mood Adjuncts are features that are somewhere between "yes" and "no" and lie in a gray area, whose emphasis is determined by the word the writer decides to use. These Adjuncts can express probability, usuality, intensity, or temporality. For example, in a sentence by M1.3, "People who like to travel usually need a GPS," the word "usually" is a mood Adjunct. It is expressing the writer's opinion that GPS systems are things that are used by people who travel most of the time.

Modal Finite is another way for the writer to express opinion. Finites are part of the verbal group and express either polarity, temporality, or modality. This feature allows more of a hidden type of opinion, as it blends into the verb group. Words such as "could," "must," and

31

"should" are the types of words that represent a Finite. These words express a level of obligation that the writer is emphasizing to the reader.

B. Data Calculation

The first step to calculate the data was to sort each writing by author and essay: one page of data calculation contained one author with each essay calculated separately. Each essay was analyzed by individual author and was calculated for the number of clauses, the number of personal Subjects (specific and general), the number of impersonal Subjects, the number of mood Adjuncts, and the number of modal Finites. Hidden elements within the clauses were also marked.

Next was calculating percentages. The numbers that were transferred into percentages were the personal specific Subjects, the personal general Subjects, and the impersonal Subjects, mood Adjuncts, and modal Finites based on dividing the number by the total number of clauses in the essay.

The elements of mood Adjunct and modal Finite were analyzed both separately and in comparison to each other. Since each clause can have many mood Adjuncts, making the number of these into percentages does not allow for a complete analysis of the data. The mood Adjuncts were looked at individually and analyzed based on their meaning, to determine whether they were in the category of probability, usuality, intensity, or temporality.

The next step was to analyze the modal Finites, which was similar to the way that the mood Adjuncts were analyzed. Each of the modal Finites was analyzed individually based on their meaning and then categorized into levels of obligation: high, mid, and low. Obligation was categorized to tell the difference between writers' voices, since level of obligation determined

what type of voice and authority the writer was conveying and whether they fit appropriately with Western academic writing.

The next step was to calculate the sum of the modal Finite and subtract it from the sum of the mood Adjuncts in every essay. Since Finites are a more covert way for writers to create a voice than mood Adjuncts, it is important to compare the number of Finites to that of mood Adjuncts.

The totals created were then sorted by author, in order to look at how the individuals created voice in the writing. Percentages were calculated based on each of the categories presented: personal Subject (specific and general), impersonal Subject, mood Adjuncts, and modal Finites.

After that, the totals from all of the essays were added up. The same formula was followed: adding up all of the categories, making percentages of the Subjects, finding the numerical and meaning-based differences between Finites and Adjuncts.

After the total essay calculation was finished, each essay was labeled by type: chronological, compare/contrast, or cause/effect. The first type was cause and effect. In this essay, the writer is explaining why something took place. For example, the student F3 wrote a cause and effect essay about betrayal: "Betrayal is very complex to understand, but a lot of research shows three common causes of betrayal: expectations, lies and affairs." From this thesis statement, it can be seen that the writer's own opinion is that betrayal is caused by expectations, lies, and affairs.

The second type was compare/contrast essay. In this type of essay, the students discuss similarities and/or differences between two different things. In this essay, students do not overtly rely on their own personal opinions, but consult other sources for information. This student, M1,

compared two books for his compare/contrast essay: "*The Hunger Games (THG)* and *The Wardstone Chronicles (TWC)* are two fiction books which relate two societies and times. These two books differ in the way they discuss society, technology, and the main character's mind." This thesis statement shows that the student is comparing information from the books.

The third essay type was chronological order/process. In this type of essay, writers are trying to describe how something is done, step-by-step. This type of essay easily shows the level of the writer's academic English. For example, the author of this essay, F3, uses many imperative clauses in order to tell the reader what to do: "Be aware to maintain sufficient distance during talking, and do not forget your posture." The imperative is a way to command a person to do something, creating a sense of the writer talking directly to the reader. That makes this essay rely on a more personal voice. Low-level learners have a harder time applying other tactics to hide their personal voice.

Essays were then sorted into different types, where they were calculated to find the sum of each category for each type. The essays were then calculated for percentage of personal specific Subjects, personal general Subjects, and impersonal Subjects. The mood Adjuncts were analyzed based on probability, usuality, intensity, or temporality. The modal Finites were then analyzed for their amount of obligation. Then, the number of modal Finites was subtracted from the number of mood Adjuncts. Each type of essay's mood Adjuncts and Finites were compared to see if there was a difference in the type of voice created for each particular type of essay.

3.6 Data Analysis

When the data coding was completed, the number of clauses for the twenty-four essays totaled eight hundred twelve (812). The total number of personal Subjects totaled four hundred

twenty (420), with one hundred eighty-seven (187) specific Subjects and two hundred thirty-four

(234) general Subjects. The amount of impersonal Subjects totaled four (4). The total number of

mood Adjuncts was three hundred eighty-seven (387) and modal Finites numbered two hundred

fifty-six (256). When calculated into percentages, the total number of clauses that contain

personal Subjects is fifty-one point seven percent (51.7%). Further broken down, the percentage

of clauses that contain personal specific Subjects is twenty-three percent (23%) and the

percentage of clauses that contain personal general Subjects is twenty-eight point eight percent

(28.8%). While impersonal Subjects make up only point zero one percent (.01%) of all of the

clause Subjects. The percentage of mood Adjuncts compared to the number of clauses is forty-

seven point seven percent (47.7%). Finally, the percentage of clauses that contain a modal Finite

is thirty-one point five percent (31.5%) (See Table 3.1).

	Raw Numbers	Percentages
Total Number of Clauses	812	
Personal Subjects	420	51.7%
Personal Specific Subjects	187	23%
Personal General Subjects	234	28.8%
Impersonal Subjects	4	.01%
Mood Adjuncts	387	47.7%
Modal Finites	256	31.5%

Table 3.1. Overall data findings broken down by number and percentage

A. Individual Participant Data

The data were then broken down by author, in order to understand the similarities and

differences between the eight participants individually. The raw data is shown in Table 3.2 and

the percentages in Table 3.3.

	Clauses	Personal Subjects Overall	Personal Specific Subjects	Personal General Subjects	Impersonal Subjects	Mood Adjuncts	Modal Finites
F1	96	60	35	25	0	60	35
F2	72	34	19	15	0	41	23
F3	76	49	14	35	0	33	22
F4	121	63	35	28	4	66	30
M1	90	48	44	4	0	28	30
M2	110	38	14	24	0	40	35
M3	155	85	18	67	0	63	62
M4	93	43	8	35	0	57	20

Table 3.2: Writer Data by Number

	Clauses	Personal Subjects Overall	Personal Specific Subjects	Personal General Subjects	Impersonal Subjects	Mood Adjuncts	Modal Finites
F1	96	62.5%	36.5%	26%	•	62.5%	36.5%
F2	72	47.2%	26.4%	20.8%	•	56.9%	31.9%
F3	76	64.5%	18.4	46.1%	•	43.4%	28.9%
F4	121	52.1%	28.9%	23.1%	.03%	54.5%	24.8%
M1	90	53.3%	48.9%	.04%	•	31.1%	24.8%
M2	110	34.5%	12.7%	21.8%	•	36.4%	31.8%
M3	155	54.8%	11.6%	43.2%	•	40.6%	40%
M4	93	46.2%	8.6%	37.6%	•	61.3%	21.5%

Table 3.3: Writer data by percentage

Table 3.2 shows a breakdown of each writer by the separate categories. In Table 3.3, these numbers are translated into percentages. In academic writing, writers rely on non-human entities and generalizations to create an objective voice. If writers are effective at creating the objective voice, impersonal Subject will be a common feature. If the writers use personal Subjects, they will rely more on general Subjects and their use of specific Subjects will be far less.

In Western academic culture, writers use features that try to mask their own opinion in order to create objectivity. Features such as mood Adjunct and modal Finite are linguistic features that can show the opinion of the writer and create the incorrect voice, even if the writer does not realize it. Since modal Finites are subtler than mood Adjuncts, one can expect a more proficient academic writer to be able to use less mood Adjuncts and rely more on the use of modal Finites of the proper obligation.

F1 used sixty-two point five percent (62.5%) personal Subjects, compared to zero use of impersonal Subjects. Looking at the personal Subjects by type, the writer used personal Specific Subjects thirty-six point five percent (36.5%) of the time and personal general Subjects twenty-six percent (26%) of the time. The participant used mood Adjuncts sixty-two point five percent (62.5%) out of ninety-six clauses and also used modal Finites in thirty-six point five percent (36.5%) of the clause (see Table 3.4).

	Personal Subject	Specific Subject	General Subject	Impersonal Subject	Mood Adjunct	Modal Finite
F1	62.5%	36.5%	26%	•	62.5%	36.5%

Table 3.4. F1 percentages of each category

F2 used personal Subjects forty-seven point two percent (47.2%) of the time. Comparatively, the participant did not have any instances of impersonal Subject use. Twenty-six point four percent (26.4%) of all clauses had personal specific Subjects and twenty point eight percent (20.8%) had personal general Subjects. This writer used mood Adjuncts fifty-six point nine percent (56.9%) of the time and modal Finites in thirty-one point nine percent (31.9%) of the clauses (see Table 3.5).

	Personal Subject	Specific Subject	General Subject	Impersonal Subject	Mood Adjunct	Modal Finite
F2	47.2%	26.4%	20.8%	•	56.9%	31.9%

Table 3.5. F2 percentages of each category

Participant F3 had personal Subject use sixty-four point five percent (64.5%) of the time. This participant also did not have any instances of impersonal Subject. Looking at the personal Subjects, specific Subjects were used eighteen point four percent (18.4%) of the time, while general Subjects were used in forty-six point one percent (46.1%) of the clauses. Mood Adjuncts were used forty-three point four percent (43.4%) of the time and modal Finites were used in twenty-eight point nine percent (28.9%) of the clauses (see Table 3.6).

	Personal Subject	Specific Subject	General Subject	Impersonal Subject	Mood Adjunct	Modal Finite
F3	64.5%	18.4	46.1%	•	43.4%	28.9%

Table 3.6. F3 percentages of each category

F4 used personal Subjects in fifty-two point one percent (52.1%) of the clauses and impersonal Subjects in point zero three percent (.03%) of the clauses. Within the personal Subjects, specific Subjects were used in twenty-eight point nine percent (28.9%) of the clauses

and general Subjects were used in twenty-three point one percent (23.1%) of the clauses. Mood Adjuncts were used fifty-four point five percent (54.5%) of the time, compared to twenty-four point eight percent (24.8%) of the clauses used modal Finites (see Table 3.7).

	Personal Subject	Specific Subject	General Subject	Impersonal Subject	Mood Adjunct	Modal Finite
F4	52.1%	28.9%	23.1%	.03%	54.5%	24.8%

Table 3.7. F4 percentages of each category

M1 used personal Subjects in fifty-three point three percent (53.3%) of the clauses, but had no use of impersonal Subjects. Looking at personal Subjects, M1 used personal specific Subjects in forty-eight point nine percent (48.9%) of the clauses and personal general Subjects point zero four percent (.04%) of the clauses. The use of mood Adjuncts was thirty-one point one percent (31.1%) and modal Finite use was twenty-four point eight percent (24.8%) (see Table 3.8).

	Personal Subject	Specific Subject	General Subject	Impersonal Subject	Mood Adjunct	Modal Finite
M1	53.3%	48.9%	.04%	•	31.1%	24.8%

Table 3.8. M1 percentages of each category

M2 had personal Subjects in thirty-four point five percent (34.5%) of the clauses and did not use impersonal Subject in any clause. The participant's use of specific Subject was twelve point seven percent (12.7%) of the clauses and the use of general Subject was twenty-one point eight percent (21.8%) of the clauses. Mood Adjunct was used thirty-six point four percent (36.4%) of the time and modal Finite was used in thirty-one point eight percent (31.8%) of the clauses (see Table 3.9).

39

	Personal Subject	Specific Subject	General Subject	Impersonal Subject	Mood Adjunct	Modal Finite
M2	34.5%	12.7%	21.8%	•	36.4%	31.8%

Table 3.9. M2 percentages of each category

The participant M3 used personal Subject in fifty-four point eight percent (54.8%) of the clauses and did not use impersonal Subject at any time. The personal Subjects were broken down into specific Subject use, eleven point six percent (11.6%) of the time and general Subject use, forty-three point two percent (43.2%) of the time. The participant used mood Adjuncts forty point six percent (40.6%) of the time and modal Finites were used in forty percent (40%) of the clauses (see Table 3.10).

	Personal Subject	Specific Subject	General Subject	Impersonal Subject	Mood Adjunct	Modal Finite
M3	54.8%	11.6%	43.2%	•	40.6%	40%

Table 3.10. M3 percentages of each category

M4's use of personal Subject was forty-six point two percent (46.2%) of the clauses, while the participant did not use impersonal Subject in any clause. Broken down, the participant used personal specific Subject in eight point six percent (8.6%) of the clauses and personal general Subject in thirty-seven point six percent (37.6%) of the clauses. The mood Adjunct was used sixty-one point three percent (61.3%) of the time and the modal Finite was used in twenty-one point five percent (21.5%) of the clauses (see Table 3.11).

	Personal Subject	Specific Subject	General Subject	Impersonal Subject	Mood Adjunct	Modal Finite
M4	46.2%	8.6%	37.6%	•	61.3%	21.5%

Table 3.11. M4 percentages of each category

What can be seen from the breakdown of individual participants is how they each create a voice and whether or not that voice is consistent with a standard academic objective, authoritative voice (Schleppegrell, 2000, Coffin, 2002, Coffin & Hewings, 2004, Lee, 2010, Liu 2013). In SFL, the Subject is the entity that is responsible for the validity of the clause. This feature is a major factor in fulfilling the role of academic writing as being objective. When the Subject places the validity on non-human entities, objectivity is created. The Subject can also do the opposite to make academic writing more subjective by placing the responsibility onto human entities. The improper use of Subject can happen if the writer is new to academic writing, such as a freshman in college, and as in this study, if they are writing in their second language. Obviously academic writing will never be completely objective, but the goal is to try and present the information as factually as possible, minimizing individual human opinion, and in an abstract way. Learning to write academically is learning how to differentiate abstract ideas from concrete, speech-like patterns that are used in everyday language.

Proficient academic writers rely heavily on the impersonal Subject, such as: "This paper states…" and "The focus of this study…" in order to remove all human responsibility and to create objectivity. Writers who are not yet trained to remove human Subjects rely heavily on specific Subjects such as "I" or "you," which creates subjectivity by either explaining their own position or talking directly to the reader. Another option that does not completely remove human responsibility, but also does not point directly toward specific human Subjects is personal general Subjects. These are Subjects that place validity onto general populations, such as

"people" or "consumers." While these Subjects do not talk about a specific person, they do place responsibility onto a human population.

First looking at Subject, it is apparent that these participants do not understand the use of impersonal Subject. Only one participant, F4, had any use of the impersonal Subject, but it was only used in point zero three percent (.03%) of her total number of clauses. This specific participant's use of this feature does not mean that she was taught specifically to use it. She could have picked it up from reading other English academic writings and transferred it to her own writing. If these participants are going to be successful in academic writing, they must be taught to use impersonal Subject in their essays.

Comparing specific Subject and general Subject, fifty percent (50%) of participants were successful in creating a more objective voice and fifty percent (50%) of participants were unsuccessful. The participants who used more general Subjects were F3, M2, M3, and M4. The ones who were unable to create the more academic specific/general proportion were: F1, F2, F4, and M1. This statistic seems to show that students may not understand how to create an objective voice.

Although some writers used more general Subjects than specific Subjects, personal Subject use was still high for each writer. The lowest number of personal Subjects was participant M2 with a percentage of thirty-four point five percent (34.5%). Looking at the breakdown of this writer's personal Subjects, this writer used general Subject (twenty-one point eight percent [21.8%]) more than specific Subject (twelve point seven percent [12.7%]), which created a more academic voice. On the other side of this, participant F3 used personal Subject in sixty-four point five percent (64.5%) of clauses. Although there is a high use of personal Subjects, the breakdown shows that the use of general Subjects was much higher than specific

Subjects (forty-six point one percent [46.1%] compared to eighteen point four percent [18.4%]). Even though F3 had a much higher personal Subject use than M2, they both used more general Subjects than specific Subjects. Both of these participants are using personal Subjects more academically by not relying on specific Subjects and using more general Subjects, creating a more generalized, objective voice in their academic writing.

Looking at the mood Adjuncts, the percentages of individual participants ranged from thirty-one point one percent (31.3%) from M1 to sixty-two point five percent (62.5%) from F1, which is a thirty one point four percent (31.4%) difference. The more mood Adjuncts a writer has, the more subjective their voice is going to become, since more modality is introduced. F1 has more modal Adjuncts in her writing, which means that her essays are going to express her own opinion more overtly compared to M1.

The results of the mood Adjuncts for each individual were similar to the results of the Subjects. Half of the participants (F3, M1, M2, M3) had below fifty percent (50%) use of mood Adjunct, while half of the participants (F1, F2, F4, M4) had above fifty percent (50%) use of mood Adjuncts. Based on this statistic, it seems that many students do not realize that these linguistic features are actually creating a more subjective voice in their writing, rather than creating the objectivity that is required of successful academic writing.

The modal Finites between the participants show a somewhat different perspective. The participant with the highest use of modal Finites was M3 with forty percent (40%) and the lowest was M4 with twenty-one point five percent (21.5%). The difference between these is eighteen point five percent (18.5%), which is much smaller than the difference between high and low mood Adjunct use. The participants seem to understand the use of this linguistic feature more than mood Adjuncts, since no participant has an extremely high or extremely low use.

Comparing mood Adjuncts and modal Finites of the participants shows that there can be a large gap between individual student usage. The biggest distance between the two comes from participant M4, whose mood Adjunct use is sixty-one point three percent (61.3%) compared to modal Finite use of twenty-one point five percent (21.5%). This is a thirty-nine point eight percent (39.8%) difference between the two categories. The smallest difference between mood Adjuncts and modal Finites was from participant M3, whose mood Adjunct use was forty point six percent (40.6%), compared to a forty percent (40%) use of modal Finites (see Table 3.12).

M3	40.6%	40%
M4	61.3%	21.5%

Table 3.12. Difference Between mood Adjuncts and modal Finites

One thing this difference could mean is that writers like M4 do not realize they are using their own opinions within their writing to create a subjective voice. Another possibility is that writers like M3 do not distinguish between these linguistic features, since both are modal, which causes writers to use them interchangeably. What these differences show is that two writers can create a distinct voice by including features that cause subjectivity without their awareness. A way to counteract implicit subjectivity is to explicitly teach these linguistic features to students so they can become aware of what certain words can do to their academic writing.

The first research question this study attempted to answer was: Do individual ESL learners rely on the same or different strategies to create voice and are different voices created? Are there differences between them in terms of their linguistic choices? According to the data, each learner seems to have a different way of creating a voice in their writing, based on the

44

linguistic features they use. Some participants have high use of personal specific Subjects versus a low use of personal general Subjects, which seems to say they are unsure how to create interpersonal distance in their writing. Some students were better able to understand the idea of generalizing and creating abstractions with a higher use of personal general Subjects compared to personal specific Subjects, but their use of mood Adjuncts and/or modal Finites would be very high, which could cause their writing to be conversational, or to have too much of their own opinion in it. The only participant who attempted to use impersonal Subject also had a higher degree of specific Subjects versus general Subjects. Overall, those ESL students' writing seems to be very personal, with a small interpersonal distance between the reader and writer, which is atypical of Western academic writing. Even though the participants could use some features (general Subjects, for example) proper for academic writing, their individual use of features show that these learners cannot create an objective voice in their writing to a large extent.

B. Overall Analysis of Subject, Adjunct, and Finite

    1. <u>Subject</u>

In the twenty-four essays analyzed for this study, there were four hundred twenty (420) personal Subjects, compared to four (4) impersonal Subjects. When these categories are calculated into percentages, fifty-one point seven percent (51.7%) of the clauses had personal Subjects, while point zero one percent (.01%) of the clauses had impersonal Subjects. The remaining forty-eight point three percent (48.3%) of the clauses had Subjects that were not personal or impersonal and did not pertain to this study (see Figure 3.1).
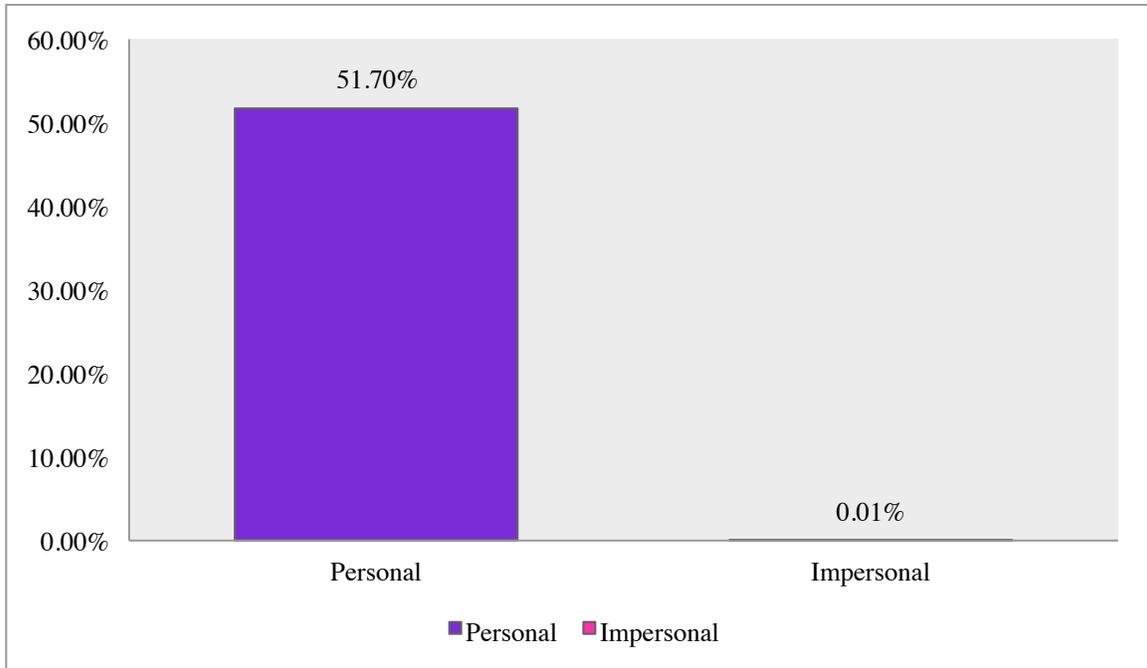
Fig. 3.1. Difference between personal and impersonal Subject

These numbers clearly indicate that these intermediate academic writers are not aware of how to create an accurate academic voice based on the Subjects they use. The participants rely on personal Subjects, which creates a voice that is subjective, rather than objective. Since proper Subject use is something they should have been taught, this analysis might point to a lack of teaching practices.

Personal Subjects were further broken down into two categories: specific Subjects and general Subjects. Specific Subjects made up twenty-three percent (23%) of all the clause Subjects and forty-four point five percent (44.5%) of all the personal Subjects. General Subjects made up twenty-nine percent (29%) of all clause Subjects and fifty-five point five percent (55.5%) of the number of personal Subjects (see Figure 3.2).

Personal Subject Overview

☐ Within Clauses ☐ Within Personal Subjects

	Within Clauses	Within Personal Subjects
General Subjects	29%	55.50%
Specific Subjects	23%	44.50%
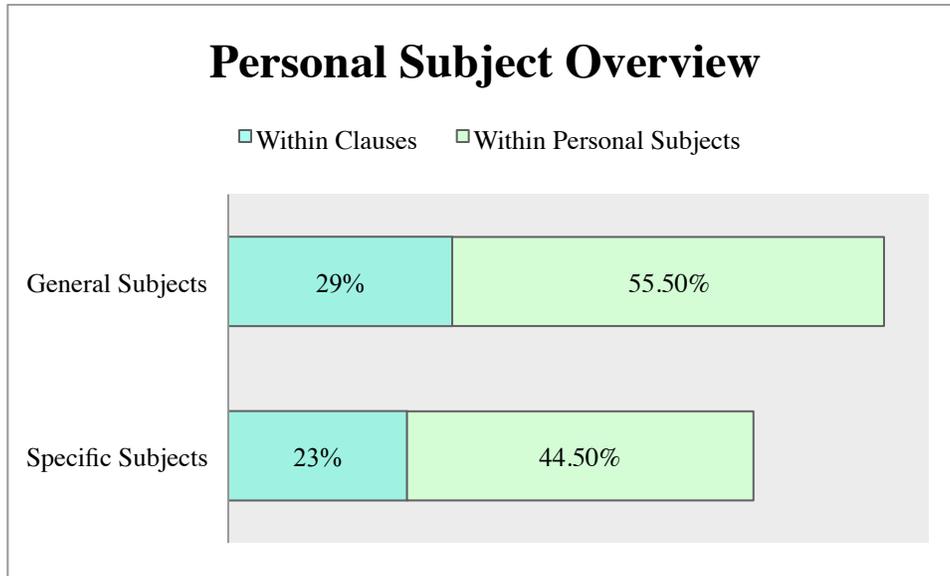
Fig. 3.2. Difference between number of personal Subjects in total clauses and total personal Subjects

Even though the participants used personal Subject more than impersonal Subject, breaking the personal Subjects into specific and general showed a different pattern: general Subject is used more often than specific Subject. The use of general Subject over specific Subject is important because the participants are using general Subject more than specific Subject, which makes their writing more academically acceptable. This Subject use allows the writing to be more abstract and to not rely on concrete ideas and concepts, which is what a writer aims to do in academic writing. This statistic could show that the idea of using general Subjects was taught to them in their previous education, but since there are still a high number of personal specific Subjects, this could be something the students learned by being exposed to English academic writing. Another possibility is that even if they were taught to use general Subjects, they did not fully understand the concept to be able to execute the use fully.

2. <u>Mood Adjunct</u>

The next thing analyzed were mood Adjuncts. Out of twenty-four (24) essays, there were three hundred eighty-seven (387) instances of mood Adjunct use. When the mood Adjuncts were sorted, the number that fit into the categories of probability, usuality, intensity, and temporality was one hundred eighty-nine (189). Adjuncts such as "however" or "so" that acted as information connectors were taken out of the total count.

The number of probability Adjuncts totaled eight (8), which equaled four point two percent (4.2%). Usuality Adjuncts totaled twenty-nine (29) or fifteen point three percent (15.3%) of the total. The intensity Adjuncts category had the most instances, which totaled ninety-two (92), a total of forty-eight point seven percent (48.7%). There were sixty (60) uses of temporality Adjuncts, which equaled thirty-one point seven percent (31.7%) (See Figure 3.3; numbers rounded).
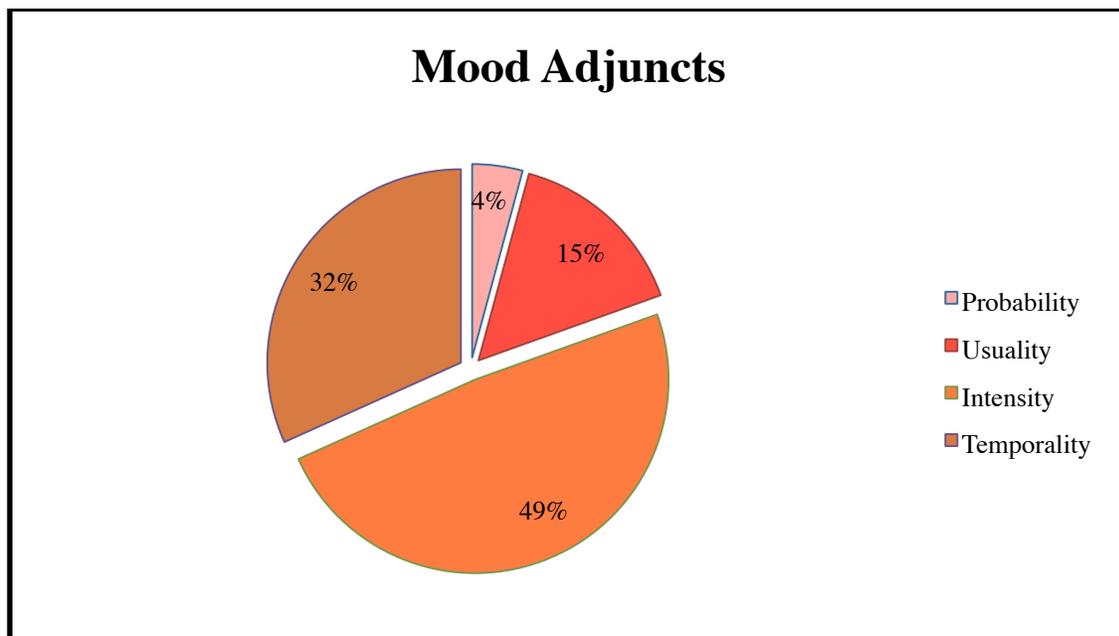

Mood Adjuncts

- Probability
- Usuality
- Intensity
- Temporality

4%
15%
32%
49%

Fig. 3.3. Mood Adjuncts broken down by type

The type of Adjunct that was used the most was intensity Adjunct, their total being almost half of all Adjunct types. Some examples of this Adjunct are "really," "very," and "so much." These features are typical of speech, which has features that are different than formal, academic writing. With so much of participant Adjunct use falling into the Intensity category, their writing could read more informal than academic, thus the voice they are creating is not typical of university academic writing. A reason for high use of intensity Adjunct could be that the participants have not had enough practice in academic writing to differentiate writing from speech. Another reason could be that it was not explicitly taught to them that academic writing has different features than speech, which means that the students are trying to understand how to write for a different context, but do not fully understand the concept.

The next highest category of Adjuncts was temporality. The high use of temporality Adjuncts could have been caused by of the type of essays that were written by the participants. One third of all essays were chronological order essays, which created a lot of Adjuncts that would mark a time shift, such as "first," or "secondly." These Adjuncts are a typical feature of academic writing in order to show a new thought or idea being presented, which means that the participants' use of this feature is accurate and is in line with typical academic writing. Since many of the students followed this pattern of use, it seems to be something they were taught in their English education.

Usuality was the third highest category of Adjunct used, followed by probability. Both of these features only equaled nineteen percent (19%) of total mood Adjunct use, so they were not that prevalent in participant writing. Usuality and probability are used to express the writer's opinion on whether or not they believe that something usually happens or the probability of it happening. The participants did not use these features as much as they used intensity to show

49

their own personal opinions about their topic. The high use of usuality Adjuncts could have been caused by the participants' need to expressing time, in a way that something usually does or does not happen and how often it happens, which means its use could have been related to writing chronologically.

3. <u>Modal Finite</u>

Overall, there were two hundred fifty-six (256) instances of modal Finites. Out of eight hundred twelve (812) clauses, thirty-one point five percent (31.5%) of all clauses used modal Finites. (see Figure 3.4; numbers rounded).
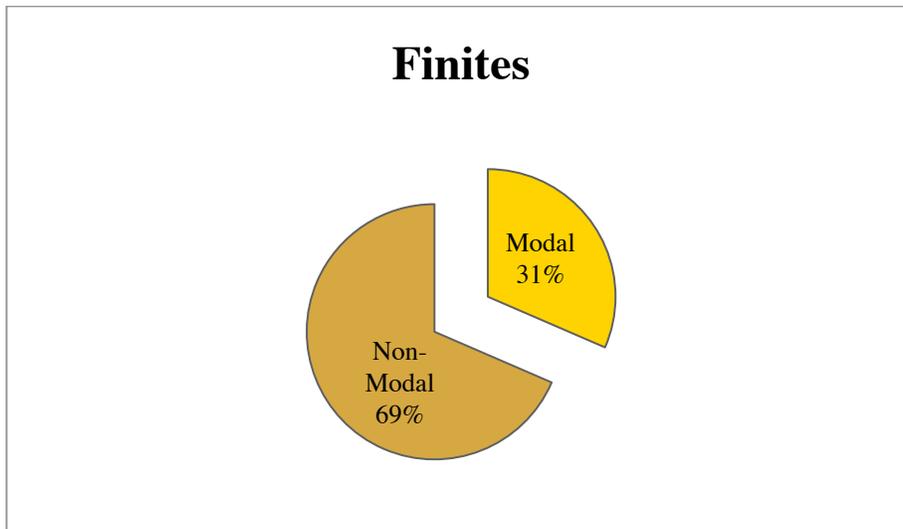
Fig. 3.4. Breakdown of modal Finites versus non-modal Finites

A further breakdown of the modal Finites shows the different levels of obligation used by the participants. Out of two hundred fifty-six (256) modal Finites, seventy-three (73) of them were low obligation, which totaled twenty-eight point five percent (28.5%), one hundred fifty-seven (157) were mid obligation, or sixty-one point three percent (61.3%), and there were

twenty-six (26) high obligation Finites, which equaled ten point two percent (10.2%) (see Figure

3.5; numbers rounded).
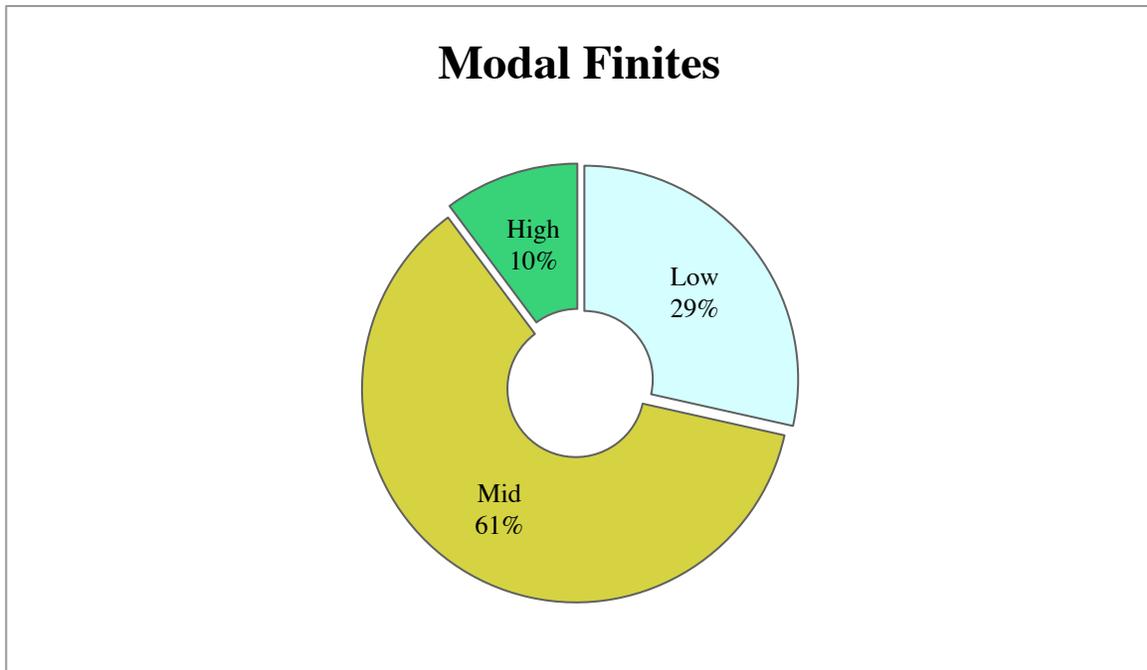
Fig. 3.5. Percentages of modal Finites by type

Mid-obligation Finites have the highest percentage of use within this data. These include

words such as "will" or "can." They are different than low-obligation, which contains words

such as "could" and "should," or high level which are words such as "must" and "need." In U.S.

academic writing, the most common type of modal Finite is low obligation, followed by mid

obligation, followed by high. The more obligation a Finite has, the more requirement the writer

is placing onto someone or something. For example, F2 uses high obligation Finite "have" in this

clause, which acts as a demand for the reader:

In conclusion [MOOD A] we [S] **have [F]** to watch [P] our diet [C]

Even though high obligation Finites were used ten point two percent (10.2%) of the time, that amount is probably too high for North American university academic writing. The voice that these types of Finites creates is too direct.

Since only twenty-eight point five percent (28.5%) of the Finites were low obligation and sixty-one point three percent (61.3%) were mid obligation, there is still a high degree of obligation being placed onto the text by the writer, just by the total number of mid-obligation Finites used.

The amount of obligation relates directly to the social distance between the reader and the writer. Since the writers in this study are students, the social distance between them and the teachers reading/grading their papers is significant. In typical academic writing, the writers will place themselves into the lowest level of obligation, using words like "should" and "would," as to avoid breaking the cultural social distance barrier.

The second and third research questions this study attempted to understand were: How do ESL writers express interpersonal relationship and voice in their writing, as indicated by their choice of personal/impersonal subjects, use of mood Adjunct and modality of the Finite element? Are their linguistic choices proper for the impersonal voice required for academic writing or not?

The data presented here suggest that these intermediate ESL students have trouble creating the academic voice that is expected of them as they move up and into the university. Many of the participants seemed unaware of the specific linguistic features required to create an objective, academic voice and relied on a voice that was more subjective and characteristic of spoken language. This reliance on conversational features was indicated by their reliance on personal Subjects, intensity Adjuncts, and mid- and high-obligation Finites.

Their Subject use relied heavily on personal Subjects instead of the impersonal Subject that is typical of academic writing, which created a voice that was conversational and did not have proper interpersonal distance. Even though their use of personal Subject was very high, their heavier reliance on general Subjects instead of specific Subjects showed that the students had some grasp of generalization and what was needed for successful academic writing. Overall, this analysis seems to show either that there are some features of academic writing that are easier for them to understand than others or that they have been taught it before.

Looking at mood Adjuncts, the students' use of these was inappropriate for academic writing. The interpersonal tone these created was one that was more conversational than academic. For example, the participants' overuse of intensity Adjuncts makes their writing informal, which does not create a voice that is typical for objective academic writing, but instead is speech-like and more conversational.

Within the category of modal Finite, there was a definite pattern among the data. The participants did not seem to understand the effects of their modal Finite use on the voice that they were creating. Many participants used high- and mid-obligation Finites, instead of low-obligation, which does not create the proper authority needed in their writing. These features gave their writing a rude or impolite voice, instead of a polite and authoritative voice proper for academic writing.

C. Essay Type Analysis

Each essay type shows a different type of breakdown when analyzed for Subject, Adjunct, and Finite. In the first type, cause and effect, the total number of clauses was two hundred ninety-two (292). The total number of personal Subjects was one hundred ninety-seven

53

(197), or sixty-seven point five percent (67.5%). There were ninety-eight (98) specific Subjects, which equaled thirty-three point six percent (33.6%) and ninety-nine (99) general Subjects, or thirty-three point nine percent (33.9%). The total number of impersonal Subjects was one (1), totaling point zero zero three percent (.003%). There were one hundred fifteen (115) mood Adjuncts, or thirty-nine point nine percent (39.9%). Ninety-six (96) clauses had modal Finites, totaling thirty-two point eight percent (32.8%).

In the compare/contrast essay, there were two hundred fifty-two (252) total clauses. There were a total of ninety-eight (98) personal Subjects, a percentage of thirty-eight point nine (38.9%). Of the personal Subjects, thirty-six (36) or fourteen point three percent (14.3%) were specific and sixty-two (62) or twenty-four point six percent (24.6%) were general Subjects. The total number of impersonal Subjects was one (1), totaling point zero zero four percent (.004%). There was a total of one hundred forty (140) mood Adjuncts, equaling fifty-five point six percent (55.6%) and a total of ninety-six (96) modal Finites, or twenty-five percent (25%).

The chronological order essays had a total of two hundred sixty-eight (268) clauses. There were a total of one hundred forty-eight (148) personal Subjects, totaling fifty-eight point seven percent (58.7%), which included ninety-nine (99), or thirty-six point nine percent (36.90%), personal specific Subjects and forty-nine (49), eighteen point three percent (18.3%) general Subjects. There were two (2) impersonal Subjects, totaling point zero one percent (.01%). The total number of mood Adjuncts was one hundred thirty-two (132), which equaled forty-nine point three percent (49.3%) and the number of modal Finites totaled ninety-seven (97), or thirty-six point two percent (36.2%) (see Table 3.13)

	Cause/Effect	Chronological Order	Compare/Contrast
Clauses	292	252	268
Personal Subjects	67.5%	38.9%	58.7%
Personal Specific Subjects	33.6%	14.3%	36.9%
Personal General Subjects	33.9%	24.6%	18.3%
Impersonal Subject	.003%	.004%	.01%
Mood Adjunct	39.9%	55.6%	49.3%
Modal Finite	32.8%	25%	36.2%

Table 3.13. Breakdown of types by percentage

The breakdown of these essay types makes it easier to see the difference between the varieties of academic writing. For example, cause and effect has the highest personal Subject use, followed closely by compare/contrast, which is dramatically different from the number of personal Subjects that the chronological order essays uses. A reason for the difference between writing types could be because in chronological order essays, writers are explaining "how" instead of explaining "why." Describing how something is done allows less personal opinions/analysis than describing why something is done.

In order to create a more academic voice in essays that are harder to create objectivity, such as cause and effect and compare/contrast, the writer should rely more on impersonal Subjects. Each of these essay types contained almost no use of the impersonal Subject, which made the students rely on other Subjects, such as personal. This Subject use created a voice that was not as abstract as it should have been within these essays and had lower interpersonal distance.

The type that has the most personal voice, based on Subject use is compare/contrast. The personal Subject is the second highest, with the general Subject being lowest and specific Subject used eighteen point six percent (18.6%) more. Again, impersonal Subject could have been used more, in order to create a more objective voice by increasing the interpersonal distance between reader and writer.

Looking at the use of mood Adjuncts in all three essay types, the one that had the highest use was chronological order, which could be caused by the use of temporal Adjuncts, such as "first" and "last." These Adjuncts were used in order to create a sequence of events in many participant essays. Another reason for the high use of mood Adjunct in the chronological order essays could be that the lower use of personal Subjects forced the participants to rely on mood Adjuncts to convey their own feelings.

Comparatively, the chronological order essays also had the least amount of modal Finite use, while the cause and effect and compare/contrast had almost equal use. A reason for the low amount of modal Finites could mean that the writers were trying to convince their audience that their opinions were correct, when explaining why something happened (versus the "how" of chronological order). By including more modal Finites, the participant is trying to convince the reader that they are knowledgable about their topic.

One can also compare mood Adjunct use to use of modal Finites. Mood Adjuncts are more objective, while modal Finites are more subjective. For example, if someone says "I might [FINITE] go" compared to, "I usually [MOOD ADJUNCT] go," they are moving from a more subjective statement to a more objective one. Following this idea, the chronological order essay would be the most objective essay written by the participants. There are thirty point six percent

(30.6%) more mood Adjuncts than modal Finites in this type, which means the participants' voice was the most objective.

The final research question this study attempted to answer was: Are writers' linguistic choices affected by the type of essay they are writing? The answer to this question seemed to be yes. For example, when writers are trying to explain "why" in their essays, their use of personal Subjects was much higher than when they were asked to explain "how," such as in the cause and effect essay versus the chronological order essay. In cause and effect, the writer's ideas and opinions are being used to analyze why something happened, but in the chronological order essay, the writer only has to explain the process of how to do something. Each type of essay is serving a different purpose, which can require different use of interpersonal features. Even though the features need to be used differently, they still have to successfully create an authoritative, objective voice that is typical of Western academic writing.

D. Overall Findings

The data presented here suggests that these intermediate ESL students have trouble creating the academic voice that is expected of them as they move up and into the university. Many of the participants seemed unaware of the specific linguistic features that are required to create an objective, academic voice and relied on a voice that was more subjective, and even more speech-like.

It seems that individually, and overall, the participants are not aware of how to use impersonal Subject to limit the responsibility placed on themselves or on other human Subjects. The proper use of impersonal Subjects will be expected of them as they move into the university, so it is something that should be taught to them.

One thing that the participants do well is using more personal general Subjects than personal specific Subjects overall in creating a more general voice. When looking at each essay type, it is not the case for the compare/contrast essay, whose specific Subject use is much higher than the general Subject use. The other types of essays show that it is possible for the participants to create the correct voice, even if they are not aware of it. These findings may mean attention is required from educators to understand what they need to teach in terms of using less personal specific Subjects and relying more on personal general Subjects.

When looking at the participants' use of mood Adjuncts, it can be seen that they tend to create Adjuncts that are typically used in speech. These include intensity Adjuncts like "really" or "so much," which does not create a voice that is typical for objective academic writing and is something that ESL students should know as they head into university.

Within the category of modal Finite, there was a definite pattern among the data. The participants did not seem to understand the effects of their modal Finite use on the voice created. Many participants used high- and mid-obligation Finites, instead of low-obligation. They did not realize the stance they should take when writing academically and how these linguistic features can directly affect the way their writing is perceived.

CHAPTER 4: DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

4.1 Discussion

As understood throughout this study, language is a social action (Halliday, 1978). Meaning does not come out of nowhere, but is created by speakers/writers in the context of use. According to Schleppegrell & Colombi (2002), the meaning of every type of text (spoken/written) in any genre or register is created by how the text is being used and the purpose it serves within specific communities. According to Schleppegrell & Colombi (2002), "The development of advanced literacy is also a social process of enculturation into the values and practices of specialist communities" (p. 2).

The purpose of this study is to understand how intermediate ESL students use interpersonal linguistic features to create (im)proper voice in their writing and whether their linguistic choices correspond with the typical use of interpersonal features in Western academic writing. SFL is chosen as the theoretical framework of analysis due to its power to analyze how the use of specific linguistic choices "contribute to the realization of social contexts" (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 18) by incorporating both linguistic and social features for their construal of meaning. This type of study is important since interpersonal features are often overlooked when it comes to education. Many students (both L2 and L1) are expected to understand these features just by participating in the world around them, since many teachers are not aware of their presence and the influence they can have on student writing. As Schleppegrell (2004) states that one of the biggest goals of SFL is to understand the language of academic contexts based on the linguistic features being used, and to uncover the difficulties students have when using those features.

Abstract, authoritative voice is the voice valued in academic writing. Long noun groups allow the writer to pack more information into a smaller space. Information is presented and represented, allowing a paralleled flow of time and causation to unfold events for the reader. The judgments stated in academic texts are not supposed to be explicit, but are presented within the grammar. Events are turned into nouns in order to remove human agency and responsibility, which are then placed onto abstract ideas (Schleppegrell, 2004; Fang & Schleppegrell, 2008).

As Coffin states in her book *Historical Discourse* (2009), linguistic features can be an important tool to study the way an author's stance is placed in historical discourse. These types of texts are now subject to greater scrutiny, as people are becoming increasingly aware of biases and power relationships within them that they had not previously recognized (Warren, 1998, p. 27, as cited in Coffin, 2009). Focusing on history texts, Coffin discusses questions brought up in this register: should history be presented by stories or analysis of past events? Are historians trying to understand and develop an appreciation for history by interpreting it as the person who was living it? Can historians truly claim objectivity, or are they inherently subjective (a product of their own time period), based on the idea that they have different ideologies and interpretations available to them than people living during that time? Coffin analyzes history texts using APPRAISAL to understand the interpersonal features at play and how the idea of an objective truth cannot exist when studying the language at the level of the grammar. Coffin (2002) also uses APPRAISAL to analyze the grammar of student writing based on the features of Judgment, Social Valuation, Graduation, and Engagement to see what writer attitudes are hidden within the writing.

Based on this work, it is clear why interpersonal studies are important. Understanding that texts can never truly be objective is important in helping students realize that interpersonal

features are a central part of language use. Recognizing the social aspect of a text can make it easier to show why certain linguistic features are chosen over others and for what purpose. Understanding these features can help teachers instruct students on how to use them to create an appropriate academic voice in their writing.

As stated above, the features of written discourse are very different from spoken discourse. One major difference between written and spoken language is that in spoken language, there is a mutual building of meaning from the participants. Spoken language happens in real time, whereas the reader and writer are not in direct communication. In written language, the writer creates the meaning and progression by continuously building information. Schleppegrell in *The Language of Schooling* (2004, p. 74) explains this idea effectively: "Language used in interaction has features that help create a context of everyday meanings, familiarity, and negotiation, while language used for the tasks of schooling typically realizes contexts of information display, authoritativeness, and high degrees of structure."

The differences between these types of texts can cause trouble for students learning to write academically, both ESL learners and L1 learners: "Learning new ways of using language is learning new ways of thinking" (Schleppegrell, 2004, p. 18). Many times students are given assignments to write before they are properly taught the specific linguistic features needed to complete such an assignment in a different context, which could cause students a lot of problems, such as poor grades or writing anxiety. Based on the pattern found in this study, it seems that students are unable to understand the interpersonal features required of written discourse and rely on the ones they know and have used in spoken discourse. There seems to be a disconnect between their everyday interpersonal relationships created in conversation and the distant, objective, detached interpersonal relationship they are expected to create in their writing.

61

This study attempted to answer questions about intermediate ESL student writing and the voice they created: Do ESL learners create voice differently, based on their use of Subjects, Adjuncts, and Finites, and is their use proper for Western academic writing, and are these features dependent on the type of essay they're writing? What the study found was that these students created a voice that was atypical of Western academic writing. Their overuse of personal Subjects did not allow for the correct abstractions, while their Adjunct use contained features typical of spoken language, and their authority created by the modal Finites was too strong. The type of essay they were writing had some effect on these features, but overall their voice was more conversational than academic. These findings are similar to the findings of Lee (2010) who also indicated that interpersonal features used by her ESL writers created a voice that was too conversational.

Although the participants lacked impersonal Subjects to create the detached, objective voice, they did seem to show some understanding of generalizing language and making academic writing more abstract, based on their use of general versus specific Subjects. However, this feature is only a small part of what is needed for successful academic writing, as students have to be able to balance their interpersonal features across the entire MOOD system to create an appropriate academic voice. Even though not all five of the features in this system were analyzed, based on the three analyzed features, the participants relied on the modal features they are used to using, which created an improper voice. Like Schleppegrell (2000); Coffin (2002); and Coffin & Hewings (2004) stated, interpersonal features have an effect on how successful students can become because their voice and authority affect how their writing is perceived and graded by their teachers.

4.2 Pedagogical Implications

Together with Lee (2010) and Schleppegrell (2000), the current study also points out that ESL writers are unable to use linguistic features to realize proper interpersonal distance and voice required for academic writing. What ESL teachers can do pedagogically to improve students' use of these features is learn what these features are and how they make meaning, based on the theory of SFL. Teachers should integrate this theory into the classroom by learning how to break down writing at the level of the clause and categorize the features based on Subject, Finite, Predicate, Complement, and Adjunct. Once the teachers understand how to break down these features into the five categories and how the MOOD system establishes academic voice, they can teach these skills to the students. One way for the students to understand these features is to analyze Western academic writing samples to see how they are used and how they should use them in their own writing.

Teachers could focus on one feature at a time. For example, analyzing Subject could be done first to show students how to take responsibility off themselves and place it on the paper to make their writing abstract. The next feature that could be addressed is Finite. The teacher could help the students understand the correct authority to establish by relying less on high-obligation Finites and more on low-obligation Finites. Next the teacher could address Adjuncts. Since there are many different types of Adjuncts, the focus could be on how Adjuncts allow the students' personal voice to come through and that intensity Adjuncts create a voice that is conversational, rather than academic.

ESL teachers should also use these features to help students understand how voices can be created for different purposes. To teach these different types of voices, teachers should use the

interpersonal features of the MOOD system to compare different types of writing. Using this system could show how authoritative, objective voices are created in multiple ways for different types of writing. One way to teach this way of understanding language is to break each essay type down by clause and compare the MOOD features to each other in order to allow the students to see how each uses the features differently. First, the teacher could compare Subjects, then Finites, and then Adjuncts separately. Next, they could compare them together based on the type and compare the overall numbers for each kind. If teachers used these linguistic features to analyze samples of writing from the disciplines that many of the students plan on studying, students could be better prepared for university. For example, if half of the students wanted to go into business and half into engineering, they should study the features of the writing within that academic discipline to understand how they need to be used.

To get an idea of how to teach these features based on writing type, teachers could use the Fang & Schleppegrell book: *Reading in secondary content areas: a language-based pedagogy* (2008). This book breaks down different texts (science, history, and math) on a very basic level for teachers who want to implement this theory and style of teaching. Though this book does not focus specifically on ESL pedagogy, their practices could easily be applied to the ESL classroom, since the focus is on helping teachers understand SFL pedagogy easily. Their focus is on the "patterns of language" (p. 4), also known as the grammar, throughout the texts of different disciplines. What the book does is break down these patterns for four different areas: science, history, math, and language arts. Teachers can use these patterns and apply them to different texts to see the differences between these four types of writing, which is important for ESL students, since their teachers are trying to prepare them for university. Learning to read and analyze and then write in these areas based on these patterns could help them as they move up.

This type of pedagogy would give students a repertoire of voices that they would be able to choose from depending on the type of writing they needed to create. According to Schleppegrell & Colombi (2002), educators should know what is required to teach English to ESL students beyond the skills of basic conversation so the students can learn better in more abstract and difficult learning contexts. These types of pedagogical changes could help students integrate better into the academic community and help with their overall academic success.

4.3 Limitations and Future Study

Though the study was able to answer the questions posed, there were some limitations. The first limitation of this study was that there was no L1 data to use for comparison. L1 data could have brought more validity to the conclusions and a more concrete basis for assumptions. Further research could include the L1 data in order to help cross-reference the results. Also, since this study had a small amount of participants and a small sample size, further research could be done with more L2 learner data. Using L1 data and increasing the sample size could give researchers a better understanding of the overall picture of voice in intermediate ESL academic writing. Combining both the L1 data and a larger data size could create a well-rounded study.

Another limitation is that the study focused only on the interpersonal metafunction. In order to get a full understanding of the voice that L2 learners create in their writing, all three metafunctions should be analyzed. This type of analysis will allow the researcher to fully understand what the learner's text is attempting to accomplish through the grammar. Further research could also look at writing within different disciplines. Since science writing is different than humanities and many students will be going into a field such as engineering, it could be important to understand how these learners are creating their voice and whether it is appropriate

within that discipline. Since many of the previous studies used APPRAISAL, another option would be to use both APPRAISAL and the MOOD system in collaboration.

Another limitation was that this study analyzed three different writing assignments, instead of focusing on one. It would have been better to choose just one essay type and analyze the essays, since the results showed that a couple of types had contrasting features, which could be a further area of research. Perhaps a single type could be analyzed, but either the amount of participants or the length of the essays would need to be greater.

The next limitation is that writers create different voices depending on the audience, which for these essays had only been the participants' teachers. If the participants had been writing an essay as part of a college admissions requirement, their voice may have been different. In this scenario, the writers could utilize different interpersonal features between the two types of writing, creating a different voice. In order to eliminate this limitation, further research could be done analyzing essays written for different purposes and different audiences.

Though these limitations show that this research is far from finished, it can help ESL teachers understand how they can better educate themselves and educate their students. Learning this theory can help teachers understand the interconnectedness between language features and meanings, which can give both teacher and student a greater knowledge of how language works in any academic setting.

REFERENCES

Bloor, T. & Bloor, M. (2004). *The functional analysis of English: a Hallidayan approach*. 2nd ed, London: Arnold.

Coffin, C. (2002). *The voices of history: theorising the interpersonal semantics of historical discourses*. Open Research Online, 22(4). 503–528.

Coffin, C. (2009). *Historical discourse*: *The language of time, cause and evaluation*. London, UK: Continuum Publishing Group.

Coffin, C., Donohue, J. & North, S. (2009). *Exploring English grammar: from formal to functional*. Routledge.

Coffin, C. & Hewings, A. (2004). IELTS as preparation for tertiary writing: distinctive interpersonal and textual strategies. In: Ravelli, Louise J. and Ellis, Robert A. eds. *Analysing academic writing*. Open linguistics series. London, UK: Continuum Publishing Group.

Eggins, S. (1994). *An introduction to systemic functional linguistics*. London: Pinter Publishers

Eggins, S. & Slade, D. (1997). *Analysing casual conversation*. London: Cassell.

Fang, Z. & Schleppegrell, M. J. (2008). *Reading in secondary content areas: a language-based pedagogy*. The University of Michigan Press.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1973). Language in a social perspective. In N. Coupland & A. Jaworski (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: A Reader and Coursebook*. 31-38. England: Palgrave.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1978) *Language as social semiotic*. *The social interpretation of language and meaning*. London: Edward Arnold.

Halliday, M. A. K. (1993). Towards a language-based theory of learning. *Linguistics and Education* 5(2). p. 93-116.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (1999). *Construing experience through meaning: a language-based approach to cognition*. London, New York: Cassell.

Halliday, M. A. K. & Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar*. London: Arnold.

Lee, S. (2010). Command strategies for balancing respect and authority in undergraduate expository essays. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes*. 9. 61-75.

Liu, X. (2013). Evaluation in Chinese university EFL students' English argumentative writing: an APPRAISAL study. *E-FLT,* 10(1). 40-53.

Martin, J. R., & Rose, D. (2008). *Genre relations: Mapping culture*. London; Oakville, CT: Equinox Pub.

Martin, J. R., & White, P. R. (2005). *The language of evaluation*. Basingstoke and New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Schleppegrell, M. J. (2000). Challenges of the science register for ESL students: Errors and meaning making. *Developing Advanced Literacy in First and Second Languages: Meaning with Power*. Mahwah, NJ, Lawrence Erlbaum**:** 119-142.

Schleppegrell, M. J. (2004). *The language of schooling: a functional linguistics perspective*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Schleppegrell, M. J. & Colombi, M. C. (2002). Theory and practice in the development of advanced literacy. *Developing Advanced Literacy in First and Second Languages*. Mahwah, NJ, Erlbaum**:** 1-19.

APPENDICES

Appendix A:

MARSHALL UNIVERSITY®
w w w . m a r s h a l l . e d u

Office of Research Integrity   FWA 00002704
Institutional Review Board
401 11th St., Suite 1300   IRB1 #00002205
Huntington, WV 25701   IRB2 #00003206

October 30, 2013

Jun Zhao, PhD
English Department

RE: IRBNet ID# 528228-1
At: Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral)

Dear Dr. Zhao:

Protocol Title: [528228-1] Voice in ESL Writing: An Interpersonal Analysis

Expiration Date: October 30, 2014
Site Location: MU
Submission Type: New Project   APPROVED
Review Type: Expedited Review

 In accordance with 45CFR46.110(a)(7), the above study and informed consent were granted Expedited approval today by the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/Behavioral) Chair for the period of 12 months. The approval will expire October 30, 2014. A continuing review request for this study must be submitted no later than 30 days prior to the expiration date.

This study is for student Audrey Hamoy.

If you have any questions, please contact the Marshall University Institutional Review Board #2 (Social/ Behavioral) Coordinator Bruce Day, CIP at 304-696-4303 or day50@marshall.edu. Please include your study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

Appendix B:

Sample Essay Analysis 1

1. Have [F] you [S] often [MOOD ADJ] regret [P] purchasing some items [C]?
2. Even [MOOD ADJ] you [S] don't [F] have [P] this kind of experience [C],
3. I [S] am [F] pretty sure [MOOD ADJ] you [C] heard of [P] your friends or family members saying such regretting words such as "I regret buying these books" or "I am very sorry I ever bought it". [CIRC ADJ]
4. "Consumer behavior is the process consumers go through in making purchasing decisions." (John D. Bunting, Luciana Diniz, and Randi Reppen 18).
5. Everyone [S] agrees [F/P] that there are a lot of external factors leading to it [C].
6. There [S] are [F/P] two types of factors [C]—the subjective and objective [CIRC A].
7. The subjective factors [S] include [F/P] the price of the products [C] and the quality of the products [C] as they depend on your own sense and experience. [CIRC ADJ]
8. The price of the products [S] is [F/P] one key factor [C] in influencing consumer behavior. [CIRC ADJ]
9. Where have discounts [CIRC A], there [S] will [F] have [P] consumers [C].
10. A lot [MOOD A] of consumers [S] will [F] compare [P] with the price [CIRC ADJ]
11. and *A lot [MOOD A] of consumers [S]* choose [F/P] cheaper ones [C] to save money [CIRC ADJ], especially [MOOD A] women [CIRC ADJ].
12. Everyone [S] knows [F/P] the women have become a major force in shopping, [C]
13. and every woman [S] likes seeing [F/P] two words "discount" and "free". [C]
14. Basic on price [CIRC ADJ], consumers [S] will [F] choose [P] one product [C] which has a high quality. [CIRC A]
15. The quality of the goods [S] is [F/P] another [MOOD A] major [MOOD ADJ] cause [C] of influences consumer's buying behavior. [CIRC ADJ]
16. The high quality [S] can [F] make [P] people [C] feel comfortable and safe [CIRC ADJ].
17. For example [MOOD A], you [S] have to repair [F/P] a roof on a house [C].
18. As a result [MOOD ADJ], you [S] will [F] choose a ladder which makes you feel safe,
19. and that [S] is [F/P] your choice [C].

20. Or maybe [MOOD ADJ] someday [MOOD ADJ], you [S] buy [F/P] a T-shirt [C],

21. and it [S] is [F/P] a random choice [C].

22. Then you [S] find [F/P] it [C] very comfortable and appropriate, [CIRC A]

23. so you [S] would [F] chose [P] the same brand [C] next time.[CIRC A]

24. Nowadays [MOOD ADJ], many [MOOD A] people [S] buy [F/P] luxury goods [C] just due to the reason they believe this brand would give them high creature comforts. [CIRC A]

25. Some consumers [S] will [F] only [MOOD ADJ] use [P] one brand [C] and

26. *consumers [S]* would [F] recommend [P] them [C] to their friends [CIRC A].

27. Speaking of friends' recommendation [MOOD A], it [S] is [F/P] an objective factor [C] which has the same function as the advertisement. [CIRC A]

28. Since [MOOD A] they [S] are [F/P] basic [C] on somebody who gives buyers advice [CIRC A]

29. and such advices [S] will [F] affect [P] consumers' decision [C].

30. For example [MOOD A], if your best friend tells you the products produced by certain companies are of high quality and low price [CIRC A], you [S] will [F] buy [P] it [C].

31. The same situation [S] will [F] come [P] to you [C] when you watch television. [CIRC A]

32. A famous singer star who is your favorite making a commercial on the TV [S] will [F] make [P] you buy it [C] because of her popularity [CIRC A].

33. As John D. Bunting, Luciana Diniz, and Randi Reppen said that "Every day, people make choices about what to buy. However, they are often unaware of the process behind their decision making." (19).

34. As a consequence [MOOD A], there [S] are [F/P] a lot of factors influencing consumers' buying behavior [C],

35. and that [S] could just [F] *be [P]* because of an emotion [C].

36. So it [S] is [F/P] very [MOOD A] important [C] to become a wise and rational consumer [CIRC A].

37. As a buyer [CIRC A], shopping around and thinking deeply [S] are [F/P] essential [C] in order to make sure your choice is the best [CIRC A].

38. Such behavior [S] will [F] help [P] you [C] to become a smarter, sharper consumer [CIRC A]

Sample Essay Analysis 2

1. "People who have activity limitations report having more days in pain, depression, anxiety, and sleeplessness and fewer days of vitality", claims Deborah Shapiro, "than people not reporting activity limitations."

2. Some of us [S] were [F] born [P] with that deficiency [C],

3. and others [S] acquire [F/P] it [C] sometime in their lives [CIRC A].

4. We [S] cannot [F] choose [P] between having and not having a physical disability [C],

5. but you [S] need to learn [F/P] how to live with it [C].

6. There [S] are [F/P] three ways [C] to acquire a physical disability [CIRC A]: by a genetic defect, an accident or a consequence of some disease [CIRC A].

7. Even if you have a family historic without any genetic problems [CIRC A], our children [S] can [F] born [P] with a defect [C] on their genetic code [CIRC A]

8. because the human body [S] is not [F/P] perfect [C].

9. Genetic defects [S] can [F] make [P] your son/daughter born with a deficient vision or even with a deficiency in the muscle of your arms/legs [C].

10. Sometimes [MOOD A] you [S] just can't [F] do [P] anything [C] but learn to live with your disability [CIRC A]

11. because it [S] will [F] be [S] with you [C] in your whole life [CIRC A].

12. Some deficiencies [S] can [F] be treated [P], like a vision problem [C],

13. but others [CIRC A] you [S] just can [F] learn [P] to deal with [C].

14. Life [S] is [F/P] a dangerous adventure [C],

15. and you [S] have to be [F/P] careful [C] with your choices [CIRC A].

16. Nobody [S] wants [F/P],

17. and that[S]'s why [F/P] it's called accident [C].

18. In the sea, streets or even in your home accidents can happen, and depending on the gravity of it [CIRC A] you [S] can [F] lose [P] one or more functions [C] of your body [CIRC A].

19. Today [MOOD A] you [S] can [F] go thru [P] a surgery [C] to try to recover some functions [CIRC A],

20. but it [S]'s not [F/P] possible [C] in some cases [CIRC A].

21. You [S] can [F] get [P] artificial arms/legs or even wheelchairs [C],

22. but it [S] still [MOOD A] will [F] be [P] a disability [C] that you must live with [CIRC A].

23. Accidents [S] are not [F/P] the only [MOOD A] way [C] to acquire a physical disability [CIRC A];

24. you [S] can [F] also [CIRC A] suffer [P] with a bad treatment [C] that can develop a deficiency [CIRC A].

25. There [S] are [F/P] some diseases [C] that can end in a bad way to your body [CIRC A].

26. Muscular diseases [S], for example [MOOD A], can [F] atrophy [P] your muscles [C] if not treated well [CIRC A].

27. The modern medicine [S] can [F] treat [P] almost [MOOD A] any disease [C],

28. but you [S] need [F] to look [P] for help [C]

29. if you [S] realize [F/P] that something is wrong with you [C].

30. You [S] must [F] be [P] careful [C] with your body [CIRC A],

31. and also *You [S] must [F]* be [P] always [MOOD A] alert [C] to any unusual change [CIRC A].

32. You [S] can [F] turn [P] yourself [C] into a physical disabled [CIRC A],

33. but you [S] can also [F] die [P] if you don't take care of your health [C].

34. To summarize [MOOD A], a physical disability [S] is [F/P] a limitation [C] that some people are submitted [CIRC A],

35. and it[S]'s [F/P] constantly [MOOD A] causing pain or discomfort [C].

36. Even if you acquire your limitation by a genetic defect, an accident or a sequel of some disease [CIRC A] you [S] need [F] to go on [P] with your life [C],

37. and also [MOOD A] *you [S]* must [F] learn to handle [P] with your limitation [C] to get a better life [CIRC A].