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Faculty of Humanities

Evaluation in Academic Discourse:

An Analysis of Academic Book Reviews

in Linguistics and Psychology

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Katowice 2023

Uniwersytet Śląski w Katowicach

Wydział Humanistyczny

Ocena w dyskursie akademickim:

analiza recenzji akademickich publikacji książkowych z zakresu językoznawstwa i psychologii

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Katowice 2023

Acknowledgements

I would like to express my deep gratitude to Professor Ewa Bogdanowska-Jakubowska for her help, understanding, and guidance I have received throughout the process of writing and completing this thesis.

I also wish to thank my parents and siblings for their support and encouragement, which helped me reach this stage of professional growth and gave me a personal sense of fulfillment.

Most of all, I would like to thank Andrzej and Mikołaj for their patience and understanding and for the simple fact that they are present in my life. I could never thank them enough.

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INTRODUCTION

There are times when the otherwise peaceful life of academics might resemble a roller coaster. Like in the famous fairground attraction, scholars and researchers, senior and junior alike, experience their twists and turns, claim victories and titles or veer off course and feel disheartened. More often than not, feelings such as these are brought by the phenomenon of evaluation that penetrates the rigid walls of academic settings and finds its way into almost every academic activity. Therefore, the academic landscape is not as austere and objective as it might be thought, and the review genres are its bright spots where evaluation is at its most explicit, and it thrives.

At this point, it should be emphasized that evaluation is *not* solely limited to academia and academics, nor is it confined to some small group of individuals. Quite the reverse, as a great social equalizer, evaluation is experienced by all individuals and taking a stance towards a person, thing, or situation is a fundamental element of human perception, regardless of one’s background, status, resources, or education. However, as a highly subjective and personal act, evaluation differs from person to person and, most importantly, across communities, discourses, and all manner of communicative contexts.

Evaluative meanings are, for the most part, performed in language and carried across not only a whole range of individual lexical items but also longer phrases , sequences of words, and syntactic constructions whose careful analysis reveals *how* language works and how *form* and *meaning* join together to express our likes and dislikes, preferences and objections, praise and criticism. Within academic discourse, evaluation has proven to be an intriguing subject of research, and its role in the construction and dissemination of knowledge has been firmly established (e.g., Hyland, 2000; Bondi & Mauranen, 2003; Biber, 2006a; Hyland & Tse, 2009; Römer, 2009; Bednarek, 2008; Shaw, 2009; Hunston, 2011; Hood, 2011; Hyland & Jiang, 2018). Opinion-related language produced in published and unpublished academic writings is effective in creating and solidifying academic allegiances and connections. At the same time, however, expressions of praise and criticism, so abundant in the book review genre, carry a considerable risk of generating professional disputes and personal conflicts. On both levels, therefore, evaluation in academic settings involves skillful maneuvering between expressing an honest opinion and an objective critique of a fellow researcher’s performance. From this perspective, the essence of the reviewer’s work is not only to evaluate but also to maintain interpersonal interaction and be cognizant of the social consequences it may entail.

The presented doctoral dissertation, *Evaluation in Academic Discourse: An Analysis of Academic Book Reviews in Linguistics and Psychology*, delves into the vast territory of evaluation and takes as its prime focus academic review genres, specifically the book review, where instances of praise and criticism are particularly vibrant and visible. As a corpus-based study, this work has used two sets of corpora from the two academic disciplines, linguistics and psychology. The consideration of the two disciplines has been motivated by the following reasons. First, linguistics was chosen because of the close interest of the author in the study of language and meaning, which is reflected in her professional life. On the other hand, psychology was selected as an example of a field that could be described as a "neighbouring" area to linguistics. Having only two disciplines to investigate poses both risk and an opportunity for a researcher, but having two fields often regarded as similar or related to each other, at least much more connected than linguistics and biology will ever be, for example, presents a challenge worth undertaking and an objective worth achieving. As shown in the work, the book reviews collected consciously from the two sources only allowed the author to undertake an in-depth analysis of the research material and propose a thorough discussion of the findings.

The thesis is in two main parts, theoretical and practical, consisting of nine chapters altogether and accompanied by an Introduction and Concluding Remarks. Each chapter is also completed with its own Concluding Remarks, which serve the purpose of encapsulating what has been said thus far and indicating what is to follow. The overarching goal of this thesis has been to compare and contrast means of evaluation in the book review genre in the selected disciplines and to identify areas of divergence as well as points of connection in how reviewers from these fields use their linguistic resources to express praise and criticism of the reviewed book. To that end, a highly sophisticated and multi-layered annotation scheme was employed which served as a primary tool for identifying and interpreting both instances of evaluation. The scheme included a large number of parameters relating to two main categories: EVALUATION-TYPE and EVALUATION-OBJECT. The aim of the former has been to identify positive and negative polarities of evaluations and group the meanings into several grammatical constructions. The latter has been focused on seven main categories, each of which branches into a number of individual parameters, with the overarching purpose of ascribing evaluative meaning to an object of evaluation.

The electronic investigation was accompanied by a carefully conducted manual examination of the gathered evaluative constructions, which guaranteed the accuracy and reliability of the findings. The central hypothesis in the thesis claims that contrary to popular opinion, there are disciplinary variations in linguistics and psychology book reviews and that despite the apparent similarity between the two fields, reviewers tend to emphasize different aspects of books, employing different strategies to cover the meaning of praise and criticism. In what follows is a short overview of the structure of the dissertation.

Chapter One offers an insight into the concept of *value* seen from the philosophical perspective. It focuses on the usages of the words *value*, *values,* and *valuation* and points to their slow yet gradual shift in meaning towards other branches of knowledge. This chapter is concerned with the scope of axiology and the concept of *good*, which pertains to the all-important questions for humankind, namely, "What is *good?*" and "What is *bad?*" formulated in a variety of ways and given profound reflection throughout the centuries of philosophical thought.

Chapter Two is concerned with the major strands of academic research devoted to studying evaluative language, namely *stance, metadiscourse, APPRAISAL theory,* or *evaluation*. Although each of the perspectives offers a different understanding of the nature of evaluation, there are some general points of connection among these approaches on which the chapter chooses to elaborate. Further, it focuses on the definition proposed by Thomson & Hunston (2000), which serves as a springboard for further considerations on evaluation in academic discourse, treating *sets of values* as a foundation for the parameter-based analysis of evaluative language in the qualitative and quantitative analysis this work includes. The chapter also deals with identifying evaluation in lexical and syntactic structures, all of which are amenable to linguistic investigation thanks to the affordances of corpus linguistics tools and techniques. An important addition to the chapter is the discussion on evaluation in modal-like expressions, which are effective carriers of opinion-laden meanings in the English language. What is demonstrated by this aspect of research is the fact that evaluation may be uncovered not only through systemized electronic analyses but also by pure chance. Thus, serendipity in academic research creates new understandings and paves the way for a more detailed investigation in a new line of inquiry.

In Chapter Three, the journey into evaluation in academic discourse begins. As it starts, the chapter addresses the many definitions and understandings of the concept of *academic discourse,* drawing attention to its complexity and respecting the obscurity of the matter. From there, acknowledging that the essential quality of academic discourse is the continuous search for truth and knowledge and that the primary vehicle for searching for truth is *science*, the chapter looks at the various characteristics and qualities of science and scientific inquiry, as well as the nature of the relationship between science and values in academia. The latter part plays an essential role in the thesis, setting the groundwork for the parameter-based analysis of evaluative meanings in the academic book review genre.

Chapter Four makes a return to *discourse,* a concept that could be described as uniquely challenging as its complexity and diversity offer no easy description or classification. This time, the discussion on *discourse* involves examining the interwoven concepts of *discourse community* and *genre*. The chapter sees discourse as spoken and written language, as context, and as language beyond the level of a sentence, all of which indicate that discourse transcends borders of language and spreads to all forms of human experience. Central to discourse is the concept of genre, which is investigated from three linguistic perspectives: the one offered by Systemic Functional Linguistics, the one proposed by New Rhetoric and, finally, the one explored within the ESP tradition. It is also juxtaposed with other competing terms, such as *register* and *style*. In recognizing the ultimate importance of genre, particularly its role in constructing evaluative meanings in academia and, thus, identifying social communicative relationships found therein, one cannot but conclude that genre is central to academic performance. That being said, the chapter looks at the typologies of academic genres in both spoken and written contexts, focusing on the research article and the Ph.D. dissertation as examples of genres particularly relevant to the present thesis.

Chapter Five presents the review genres where, as has been already said, evaluation is seen at its best. The discussion begins with a short overview of the four review genres: the review article, the book review article, the book blurb, and the review of the literature in a Ph.D. dissertation, reflecting on their unique characteristics and the nature of evaluation they exhibit. Put front and centre in the chapter is the book review genre, its historical evolution, and the overall structure originally explored by Motta-Roth (1995). Then, the chapter attends to Hyland's (2000) categories of evaluation and Shaw's (2009) evaluative constructions, all of which have inspired the framework of parameters of evaluation used in this thesis. The discussion on the variables used in the conducted studies is presented here to which belong aspects of gender, authorship or negative evaluation. The last section of the chapter is devoted to presenting and discussing reviewer guidelines in selected English and Polish academic journals.

Chapter Six explores the representations of linguistics and psychology in numerous taxonomies of knowledge over the last century and addresses the nature of the two fields of study, elaborating on the points of connection and difference these disciplines exhibit. Of particular importance here is the compilation of the previous studies on academic book reviews encompassing the last thirty years, which includes details such as the number of the investigated books and the disciplines considered, the time span of the texts or the languages in which the book reviews were written. In so doing, the chapter presents the rationale for the choice of academic disciplines which, to the best of the author's knowledge, have not been investigated in depth in a one-to-one analysis. Then, the chapter presents the aims of the study and the research questions and delineates the details of the conducted analysis: the collection of the material, the complication of the corpus and the electronic tools used in the work. These are WordSmith Tools 7.0 (Scott, 2016), LancBox 6.0 (Brezina, Weill-Tessier & McEnery, 2021), and, finally, the basic software to this analysis: UAM (Universidad Autonoma de Madrid) Corpus Tool 6.2j (O'Donnell, 2008), referred to as UAMCT throughout the thesis. Additionally and as a vital point of reference, an auxiliary reference corpus was used, obtained from the academic journal *System* and used in the extensive description of the evaluation parameters of the UAMCT annotation scheme.

In presenting evaluative categories and parameters for the analysis, this work, as no other work before, at least to the best of the author's knowledge, introduces a third category that goes beyond a simple positive-negative polarity opposition, aiming to evaluate a nearly simultaneous presentation of positive and negative acts. The study has revealed that reviewers skillfully employ the "yes-but-no" and "not-but-yes" approach to evaluation.

The overall focus of Chapter Seven has been to present and discuss the first part of the analysis: a parametric analysis of book reviews from the field of linguistics. To that end, the parameters and categories proposed by the UAMCT annotation scheme have been used, and the findings have been shown in the form of tables and figures, each of which is discussed and interpreted. Additionally, the chapter presents the sentence from the corpora to fully illustrate the evaluative meaning and structure it occupies.

Chapter Eight constitutes the second part of the analysis of the two corpora and includes a parametric study of book reviews from the field of psychology. Similarly to the previous chapter, it presents the results from the UAMCT annotation scheme illustrated in tables and figures. Yet again, for ease of reference, corpus sentences are provided. At this stage of consideration, there are included some general observations about the two corpora, but the detailed comparative analysis and interpretation of the study findings are reported in Chapter Nine, the final chapter of the thesis. This chapter provides a general panorama of the distribution of evaluative parameters across the selected disciplines, drawing on the points of overlap and the areas of difference.

The thesis ends with Concluding Remarks that lay out the implications and limitations of the study, a list of references used throughout the work, lists of tables and figures, and a summary in English and in Polish.

PART ONE

CHAPTER ONE: Value and Valuation

Introduction

At the heart of the philosophical debate, without a doubt, lie inquiries about values, how they fit into the natural world, or how they relate to human life and experience. Of particular interest has always been the desire to ascertain what truly *value* is or what it stands for, what *valuation* is and what it means to say that something is *valuable*, *valued* or judged to have *value*. At the same time, one must not fail to notice the often confused and confusing ways of using the very term “value”, frequently used in the plural as well as in the singular, as a more concrete noun, or as an abstract noun. These and many more reflections have been sought to address one of the most age-old of questions, namely, what is *good* and what is *bad*, or, more precisely, what it is for a thing to be *good* and what it is for a thing to be *bad*. In considerations such as these, there is ample room for asking what such concepts genuinely are and where they come from, to what extent values are culturally or socially conditioned, or what role human perception plays in identifying, describing, and understanding values. The answer to the question is only seemingly simple, for “What is *goodness*?” and, conversely, “What is *badness*?” leave us with a much-needed yet challenging journey into philosophy and far beyond. A more detailed study on values centers around not only what is deemed *good* and what is deemed *bad*, but also how these concepts manifest in language and what linguistic tools are used to express them in writing and speech. A number of vital points to make regarding subjective and objective experience, human conceptualization process, or evaluative concepts and emotion concepts, and the relation between them is also of considerable significance here.

It is inevitable for any overview of values, even as brief and concise as the following, to take a philosophical perspective as its starting point and look at values through the lens of the philosophical concepts underpinning them. At the same time, no talk of values should feel complete without analyses of language mechanisms behind the expressions of values, the study of evaluative language, and investigations into lexical connections between value-laden concepts. The following Chapter focuses on the first aspect and is in five main parts. First, it analyzes the usages of the words *value, values,* and *valuation* both in the realm of philosophy and outside of it. Second, it briefly outlines values from the historical perspective, illustrating two main strands of the philosophical theories. Third, it looks at the concept of value in philosophy, briefly outlining the scope of axiology, its three levels of specificity, and the values that uniquely characterize each type. With it comes a hierarchy of values, which is fit for consideration both here and in the further parts of this thesis, as it shows how values are established and further interpreted or categorized. Fourth, the chapter goes on to the philosophical understanding of the concept of *good*. Finally, the discussion returns to the concept of *value* and offers preliminary reflections on its linguistic manifestations.

The overview of value and valuation presented here is by no means intended to be exhaustive; its main purpose is to function as a backdrop to the more detailed considerations on evaluation in language provided by the chapters and sections which follow. Throughout this chapter, *italics* refer to concepts such as *value* or *valuation* and a standard font for these words in a more general meaning.

1. The usages of *value(s)* and *valuation*

Those who research the concept of *value* and *valuation* are quick to discover that there is considerable disagreement among philosophers themselves over what *value* and *valuation* are and what they stand for. It should be, therefore, no surprise to say that researchers and theorists in other fields of study (e.g., social sciences and humanities and economics) find themselves equally confused and troubled by these two terms. As stated in the Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006), once clear and limited, *value* and *valuation* were originally technical terms confined to the broad area of economics, where *value* meant the worth of a thing, and *valuation* was an estimate of its worth. It is vital to note that the *worth*, understood from the economic standpoint, was not beauty, truth, rightness, or even goodness. As said in the Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006), it wasn't until the 18th-century political economy that a change in the usage of the two words *value* and *valuation* was triggered. With it came a gradual yet continuous shift of its meaning to the other fields of study, and philosophy took the lead. It was noticed that the many questions on value and what ought to be (often seen under headings such as *the good*, *the end*, *the right*, *obligation*, *virtue*, *moral judgment*, *the beautiful*, *truth*, and *validity*) belong to the same family of concepts and are best thought of as parts of a general theory of value and valuation. This theory covers broad areas of economics, ethics, aesthetics, education, jurisprudence, and, as some may insist, logic and epistemology. As a result of such changes, *value* and *valuation* have been put front and centre in the philosophical discussion and simultaneously spread to the social sciences or the humanities. One may also find ever-growing interest in *value* and *valuation* in everyday life discourse.

As far as philosophical usages are concerned, *value* and *valuation* have been used as abstract and more concrete nouns in various ways, both in a narrow and broad sense. For example, according to Lemos (1995:14), the term *value* may be used and interpreted in at least three ways, which are presented below:

- "I value *a*, you value *b*, and he values *c*", in which *value* is used as a verb;
- *"x* is *valuable"*, in which *value* is an adjective;
- "some of John's values are *a, b, c*", in which *value* is used as a concrete noun.

What follows from the examples above is that the term *value* almost always carries connotations of positive meaning rather than negative or neutral ones. In a broader sense, Lemos (1995) argues that to *value* something means to like this thing or regard it as good. Similarly, to say that "x is *valuable*" means that we consider this thing to be *good*. In the same vein, we could treat the *value* as a more concrete noun, which is shown in the third example: to say that some of John's *values* are *a, b, and c* means that he likes them or considers them to be *good*, in other words, he *values* them.

Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006: 637) indicates that *value* (in the singular) is used as an abstract noun both in a narrower and broader sense. In a narrower sense, it covers "that to which such terms as *good*, desirable, or *worthwhile* are properly applied". In the broader sense, *value* is used to cover all kinds of beauty, truth, obligation, rightness, virtue, and holiness. From the most general perspective, *value* can also be used as the generic noun for all kinds of positive or negative predicates and is contrasted with existence or fact (e.g., Perry, 1954). Such predicates are extensively explored in the theory of value. In its narrowest use, *value* covers only certain predicates and sees the value theory as a part of ethics (e.g. Lewis, 1946). It is worth noting that philosophers who look at values from a broader perspective distinguish between what they call "realms of value", and these include morality, the arts, the sciences, religion, economics, politics, law, and custom or etiquette. The various meanings of *value* correspond to the uses *good*, which are also referred to as "forms" or "varieties of goodness" (e.g., Von Wright, 1963). According to the Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006), there are many classifications of value or forms of goodness (see, e.g., Dewey, 1939; Lewis, 1946; Ross, 1930; Von Wright, 1963). For example, Lewis (1946, cited in EOP, 2006:637) distinguishes the following:

a. utility or usefulness for some purpose;
b. extrinsic or instrumental value (or being good as a means to something good or desirable)
c. inherent value or goodness (such as the aesthetic value of a work of arts which produces good experiences when admired)

d. intrinsic value (or being good or desirable either as an end or in itself)
e. contributary value (the value that an experience or part of an experience contributes to a whole of which it is a part)

To fully illustrate the above, let us consider the example, which may be shown as:

a stick of wood → violin → good music → the hearing of music → good time

If we find a stick of wood useful for making a violin (a), a violin may be extrinsically good in that it is a means to good music (b), the music may be inherently good when heard and contemplated (c), and the experience of hearing may be intrinsically good or valuable if it is enjoyed for its own sake (d), and it may also contribute to a good time (e).

As a more concrete noun, the term *value* is used twofold. First, it is used to describe what is valued, judged to have value, thought to be good, or desired. For example, in expressions such as “my values”, “their value system”, or “European values”, we refer to what I, or they, or the people in Europe think to be good. We may also use similar expressions to mean what we believe to be true or what we think is right or should be done. Used in such a way, the phrases imply that nothing really has objective value, for all we think or believe in is based entirely on our point of view, which is shaped by our individual experiences. Hence, *value* means being valued and *good* means being thought good. It is worth noting that, according to the Encyclopedia of Ethics (2001), the use and meaning of *value* in such contexts is not about making value judgements but rather indicating some sociological or psychological facts. Such statements are, therefore, merely expressions of a person’s convictions or preferences and *value* here is used in a non-evaluative way.

Second, *value* is used to mean what has value or is valuable or good, as opposed to what is considered or believed to be good or valuable. Then, *value* means “things that have value”, “things that are good”, or “goods”, and also things that are right, obligatory, beautiful, or true.

The term value is also used as a verb in expressions such as “to value”, “valuating”, and “valued”. Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006) defines *valuing* as a synonym of *valuation* or *evaluation* only when they are used to mean the very act of evaluating, not the result of it. The former is active use, while the latter is passive. This lies in disagreement with what is observed by Lemos (1995), for whom *valuing* and *evaluating* are two different actions which can occur independently of one another. When a person *evaluates* a thing, they *do not value* it but try to determine its value and the degree to which they (or others) should value it.

There are also contexts where *valuation* and *evaluation* are used in a more specific way; that is, they are used to refer to a certain kind of valuing, namely, one that includes reflection and comparison. In both cases, just like *value* used as a noun, *valuation* can be used in a narrower and a wider sense. For some philosophers, *valuation* covers judgements about what is right, wrong, obligatory and judgements about what is good, bad, desirable, or worthwhile (e.g., Dewey, 1939; Hare, 1952; Morris Eames, 1961). Lewis (1946) sees *valuation* only as the latter. He also distinguishes two senses of "to value". It means either to prize, like, cherish or hold dear or to apprize, appraise, estimate, evaluate, or valuate. The above-mentioned reflection and comparison are covered only by the second sense, not the first one. *Valuing* also refers to acts in which something is judged to be good or have value. For Perry (1926), "X is good" = "X has positive value" = "X is an object of favourable interest".

The duality of the verb *value* is also observed by Krzeszowski (1997), who not only points out its two distinctive senses but also distinguishes between values and things to which values are attributed, which he calls "bearers of value", which are entities. According to Krzeszowski (1997:23), in the first sense, to *value* something is 'to calculate the value, price of worth of', with the result of such calculations being positive or negative, as in the example:

- Do you own fine wines? Then, have your collection *valued* to discover how much it could be worth.

(examples mine)

As seen above, the valuation of somebody's wine collection can result in a positive or a negative assessment both for the owner and/or prospective buyer of the wine. The verb *value* is, therefore, closer in meaning to *estimate* or *calculate*. Hence, the noun *valuation* would be synonymous with *estimation*. It will, in turn, carry a more neutral connotation. However, the situation changes when *value* is used in the sense of 'to consider to be of great worth', which entails positive values attributed to the bearer of value. The example could be:

- I *value* my wine collection. I am not going to sell it to anybody.

(examples mine)

Here, employing the verb *value*, the speaker admits that their wine collection is precious to them, so what they do is attribute a positive value to the thing they own. Therefore, their wine collection becomes a bearer of value, and the process of attribution is called *valuation*. Unlike the previous example, it has only a positive meaning. What is also stressed by Krzeszowski

(1997) is the fact that values attributed to certain objects *are not* inherent in these objects themselves. Although on many occasions, people generally agree on what is or should be held in high or low regard, for example, a work of art in a renowned museum or an ailing car, it is never the object per se that is positive or negative, or, put differently, that has a positive or negative value. This effectively means that it is always a person's assessment of value that attributes some value to a certain entity. This point is also emphasized by Grünberg (2000), for whom the mental representation of objects is instrumental in attributing values to them. It is once more a living experience that plays a decisive role in identifying and describing values in the surrounding world. It can be argued, therefore, that values are conditioned by human perception. Equally important is another observation made by Grünberg (2000),) for whom values are not only personal assessments but also reflect a "collective conscience" of a human community. Therefore, values are not to be restricted to the preferences of one person only because the choice of an individual is almost always governed by the once-established criteria of the society one lives in.

1.2. Philosophical theories on value: a historical overview

Much of the philosophical debate on *value* and *valuation* has been of two kinds, and these are normative theories and metanormative theories. The former is about making value judgments or valuations, to say what is good and what is bad, what has value and what does not. The latter centers around analyzing value, valuation and the concept of good. It does not make value judgments or valuations, nor does it aim to describe to us what is good or what has value. The purpose of the metanormative theories is to elaborate on goodness and value and to investigate what it means to say that something is good or has value. According to the Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006:639), it is worth noting that many modern analytical philosophers hold the view that deliberations on value and valuation should be limited to metanormative discussions only, for normative theories, however vital, "have no place in philosophy proper".

The scope of both normative and metanormative theories can be broad or limited. In a broader sense, a normative theory seeks to show, however brief and general the description may be, what is good, bad, better or best, and also what is right, virtuous, obligatory, and beautiful. From a narrower point of view, it has been primarily aimed at the question of what is good in itself or as end or what has intrinsic value. The main concern has been to define what the good is, what has value for its own sake, what is the end of our pursuits or as the criterion of intrinsic worth. Reflections such as these fall into the broad scope of the hedonistic and the antihedonistic theories. The hedonistic theories of value held by thinkers such as Epicurus suggest that the end or the good is pleasure or enjoyment or that the criterion of intrinsic value is pleasantness or enjoyableness. This is to say that only experiences are intrinsically good, that all experiences that are intrinsically good are pleasant, and that the reason for them being intrinsically good is because and only because they are pleasant. There are also quasi-hedonistic theories which suggest that the end or the good is not pleasure but a feeling somewhat similar, such as happiness or satisfaction (e.g. Dewey 1939, Lewis 1946). The antihedonistic theories, as written in the Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006), are of two sorts. Some thinkers agree that there is only one thing that is good and good-making, but it is not pleasure or any other kind of feeling. For Aristotle, it is *eudaemonia* (sometimes termed as "well-being")*;* Augustine and Thomas Aquinas call it "communion with God"; for Benedict de Spinoza, it is "knowledge", "self-realization" for Bradley, and "power" for Nietzsche. Much more varied views are expressed in the works of Plato, Moore, Scheler, Hartmann, or Perry, for whom things that are good or good-making in themselves are many. Although the lists of such things are never identical, they almost always consist of two or more of the following: pleasure, knowledge, love, harmony, justice, friendship, beauty, truth, freedom, or self-expression.

The most fundamental philosophical inquires within the framework of metanormative theories seek to investigate what is goodness or value, the meaning or use of "good", what is valuing, and what we say or do when we make a value judgment. They are also about value judgements, the logic of moral justification behind them, and even the very nature of metanormative theory.

For some cognitivists or descriptivists in value theory, *value* and *good* stand for properties, natural or nonnnatural, ascribed to objects (including activities and experiences) in the process of making value judgments. These value judgments are descriptive or factual in that they can attribute properties truly or falsely based on our personal attitude (positive or negative) towards them. Value judgments are, therefore, property-ascribing statements. Among them are naturalists, who argue that the property is natural or empirical and can be defined. Views like these are reflected in an interest theory of value (e.g., Perry, 1954), according to which value is a property of an object of desire or interest. The affective theory of value (see, e.g. Lewis, 1946) holds that value is the quality of being enjoyed or enjoyable is some way. Other cognitivists (e.g. Scheler, 1973; Sidgwick, 1988; Moore, 1993; Hartmann, 1932;) conceive value or goodness as a metaphysical property beyond ordinary experience or empirical science. They believe that value belongs to objects regardless of being desired, enjoyed, or valued by us, and even God's attitude towards them. There are finally those for whom value derives from emotions even though being objective, and those who hold that value is an object of intellectual intuition (e.g. Laird, 1929; Ross, 1930; Hartmann, 1932; Scheler, 1973).

It is worth noting that there are also thinkers who believe that value does *not* stand for properties, natural or nonnatural; and that value judgements are *not*, after all, property-ascribing statements. For non-cognitivists or anti-descriptivists, the meaning and function of value and value judgments are altogether different. Some argue that value judgements are embodiments or expressions of attitude, emotion, or desire and/or instruments for eliciting such reactions in others (e.g., Russell, 1940; Stevenson, 1944; Ayer, 1956). For others, on the other hand, value judgements are to be seen as prescriptions, recommendations, acts of grading, or valuations, not something else (e.g., Urmson, 1950; Hare, 1952; Taylor, 1961).

As said earlier, one other question raised by the metanormative theories is about the justification of value judgements. Some value judgements are derivative, and so their meaning could be inferred, as in the example:

> What is good is pleasant.
>
> Knowledge is pleasant.
>
> Therefore, knowledge is good.
>
> Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006:640)

There are, however, nonderivative value judgements which cannot be justified by argument. Philosophers such as intuitionists argue that these judgements do not need to be justified at all since their meaning is known through intuition. For naturalists, on the other hand, value judgements are known through empirical evidence or by the very meaning of the terms used in a judgement. For metaphysical and theological axiologists, value judgments can be established by metaphysical argument, divine revelation, or definition. Some noncognitivists are of the view that basic value judgements are arbitrary and irrational and so incapable of any justification, while others talk of "intersubjective conventions" such as the said example of "What is pleasant is good" (see, e.g., Sartre, 1943; Ayer, 1956; Findlay, 1961)

1.3. The concept of *value* in philosophy

Axiology, also known as value theory, is a study of *value* or *goodness*, both terms understood in their broadest sense. Hirose & Olson (2015) are not mistaken to observe that this brief and general characterization poses a plethora of questions about the concept of value. Over the centuries, philosophers have been preoccupied with the desire to ascertain what things count as *good* and what things count as *bad*. Put differently and more precisely, they have been invariably urged to determine what makes a thing to be *good*, and, conversely, what makes a thing to be *bad*. As may be easily noticed, evaluative concepts of the good and the bad represent opposite ends of the spectrum or opposite poles. At one end of the spectrum, one may find the good, i.e., the desirable, the admirable, the courageous, and the like. At the other end, there is the negative side, i.e., the bad – the shameful, the despicable, the malevolent, the coward. Interestingly, as noted in the Encyclopedia of Philosophy (2006), *value* is used here, like *temperature*, to cover the whole range of scale, i.e., plus, minus, or indifferent. The plus side is considered to be a positive value, while what is on the minus side is called a negative value. Interestingly, the Encyclopedia of Philosophy remains silent on the indifferent aspect of value. An important observation is made by Grünberg (2000:17), who notes that "axiological temperature never reads zero". This is to say that indifference is not really possible as far as values are concerned, that once value is assigned to something, the final choice is ultimately inevitable, either good or bad. Seeing that a person's response is never neutral and always discards one in favour of the other, it may be argued that values are inherently characterized by polarity. The polar pairs may vary, be it the general "good-bad" distinction or a more specific one, for example, "justice-injustice", "acceptance-rejection", "moral-immoral", "beauty-ugliness", and so forth. Grünberg (2000) argues that denying a value at the one end of the spectrum implicitly suggests promoting the value at the opposite end.

1.3.1. The scope of axiology

According to Hartman (1967), axiology can be considered at the three levels of specificity, and these are: *formal axiology* (the system itself), *theoretical axiology* (the application of the system), and *applied axiology* or *applications of axiology* (the actual value situation where the application takes place). The three types of values are called systemic, extrinsic, and intrinsic, respectively. Formal axiology is concerned with value in general and in particular; it provides the definition of axiological terms such as "good" or "bad" and investigates the interrelation between them. It also includes an explanation of the value relations such as "better", "worse", "it is good that", or "ought" and deals with, among others, the hierarchy of values, rules of valuation, objectivity and subjectivity of values, rationality and irrationality of values, or the nature of the moral law. Theoretical axiology pertains to specific *values* (aesthetic and economic, ethical and psychological, metaphysical and technological) and looks at the multi-sided interrelationships between values and value aspects of natural sciences, for example, the relation between music and astrology in Pythagoras, between astronomy and theology in Plato, or between theology and chemistry in alchemy. Hartman (1967:109) argues that statements such as “To be good is to do God’s will” or “To be good is to be preferred” are also the subject matter of theoretical axiology. Applications of axiology refer to the phenomenal level of *valuation*, which, in turn, deals with singular values of these fields, for example, phenomena of economics and aesthetics or ethics and theology.

1.3.1.1.Formal specifics of value

Regarding formal axiology, Hartman (1967) distinguishes seven formal specifics of value presented in the form of oppositions. The first item of the pair describes *value* in general (in Hartmanian terms, it is referred to as “Value”), while the second item characterized *values* at other levels. These pairs are:

- Universal vs. Particular
- Absolute vs. Relative
- Rational vs. Irrational
- Objective vs. Subjective
- Axiological Agreement and Disagreement
- Optimism and Pessimism
- Goodness vs. Badness of the World

First, *value* is Value, or the Axiom, not a *kind* of value, and should not be confused with value in particular, such as ethical, metaphysical, economic, or the like. Second, General Value holds the predominant position and provides a point of reference or a platform upon which every other kind of value is measured. Third, Value is rational in that it can be adequately seen only by professionals in their field. This is to say that ignorance or lack of knowledge does not allow for a true valuation of a thing. Hartman (1967:110) argues that “knowledge and valuation go hand in hand”. If a thing is to be valued, then it first must be understood. By extension, if a thing is valued, it *can* be understood. Fourth, while Value is objective, its *application* is subjective. It follows that axiological interpretation in *subjective*, and axiological formalization is *objective*. This has to do with different personal experiences, which give rise to different observations and thus create variability. In other words, what is “good” for one person may be considered “bad” for another, and vice versa. According to Hartman (1967), it is the application of axiology, not axiology itself, that poses a challenge, and it is best explained in the following passage:

If a drunk sees four apples where I see two he does not invalidate mathematics, he only uses it wrongly: he is really confirming that science, just as I do. What he saw did not correspond to the number of four, and what I saw corresponds to the number of two. His mistake was in seeing, not in adding. In the same way, whenever anyone thinks a thing fulfills its definition, he will call it good, otherwise, he will call it bad, and thus he confirms axiology.

Whether he rightly or wrongly thinks a thing fulfills its definitions is a different question – not one of axiology, but one of its application.

Hartman (1967:110)

Intimately connected with the above are the fifth, sixth, and seventh specifics of value. As Hartman (1967) observes, agreement and disagreement are matters of application of axiology, not axiology as such. People's opinions and assessments may vary because of perceptual and conceptual disagreements. A thing may be thought of as "good" under a certain concept and "bad" under another concept. One may argue, then, that there have to appear certain circumstances under which things become either good or bad. It is worth noting that a thing remains the same; what changes is the way of looking at it, either optimistic or pessimistic. One illustration would be the famous case of the glass being considered either half empty or half full, a situation perceived in two different ways depending on one's point of view. An optimist is likely to see a half-full and thus show an optimistic and positive attitude to life. For a pessimist, however, the glass is half empty, an observation showing a somewhat less favourable outlook on life. What follows is that the way we see things depends largely on our individual perspective or the worldview of a particular community. It is also about finding a concept under which the same thing appears to be good or bad. Hartman (1967) firmly believes the world to be good; thus, finding things good, which characterizes optimism, is the right thing to do. This is not to say, however, that all the things in the world are good. As said earlier, since one thing can be good under one concept and bad under another, all the things in the world are both good and bad. Hence, the world around us, being axiologically good, contains a wide variety of things both good and bad.

1.3.1.2.Theoretical specifics of value

The value sciences and their interrelationships are referred to as theoretical specifics of value. Hartman (1967) distinguishes three kinds of concepts, each of which is connected with a different type of value in value sciences. The three kinds are *finite*, *denumerably infinite*, and *nondenumerably infinite*. The first group is called *definitions*, the second *expositions*, and the third *descriptions*. According to Hartman (1967), each of these three sets defines a specific kind of concept, and the fulfilment of such a concept defines a specific value. The first set characterizes formal concepts or things which are "constructions of the human mind". Such constructions are said to have only two values, *perfection* or *nonvalue*, and are called *systemic*. For example, as Hartman (1967) points out, a circle is a circle if it has all the properties of the concept "circle". Put differently, if a thing does not have at least one property of a circle, then it is not a circle. Values are systemic in that they are either true or false claims, with no third option. For this reason, they cannot be good or bad. Since values are limited to only two distinctions, either "x" or "non-x", what follows is an extremely restrictive, two-dimensional worldview in which people are limited, in Hartman's words, "value-blind". Because of such a limited perspective, the social consequences are many. The world becomes distorted, overly and unfairly simplified, imbued with prejudice, misrepresentation, or misjudgement. Hartman (1967) argues that systemic valuations characterize dogmatic thinking.

The *denumerably infinite* kind defines *abstract concepts* and *categories* and is concerned with the commonality of properties that could be found in two or more things. These properties come into existence while learning how to speak and are called *denumerable* (because they are abstracted one by one), but the very number of such properties is infinite. According to Hartman (1967), referents of such concepts are things from the everyday world. Although one thing may have infinite properties in common with another, in practice, valuation is only about a few of these properties. It is important to note that what is valued is not the thing in itself but whether the thing possesses the properties of the class. If a thing fulfils an abstract concept, then we speak of *extrinsic value* and *extrinsic valuation*, which characterizes everyday pragmatic thinking.

The *nondenumerably infinite* group is concerned with describing singular concepts, and these concepts correspond to singular entities; it means that they pertain to singular entities rather than the whole classes. Contrary to the previous group, they do not focus on the properties of an entity or the extent to which the entity possesses properties of its class but only on whether or not a thing fulfils a singular concept. For Hartman (1967), the fulfilment by a thing of a singular concept constitutes *intrinsic value*. Intrinsic valuation also called emphatic valuation, is found in the valuation of poets and artists, magicians and advertisers, or creative theologians and scientists.

Hartman (1967) sees systemic value, extrinsic value, and intrinsic value as the three value dimensions and puts them into a hierarchical order, "the valuation of value", according to the level of their "richness in qualities". It should be noted that "richness in qualities" is the definition of "better", while "poorer in qualities" is the definition of "worse". The definition of "ought" is "the worse ought to be better". Such a hierarchy of values could be represented in Figure 1:

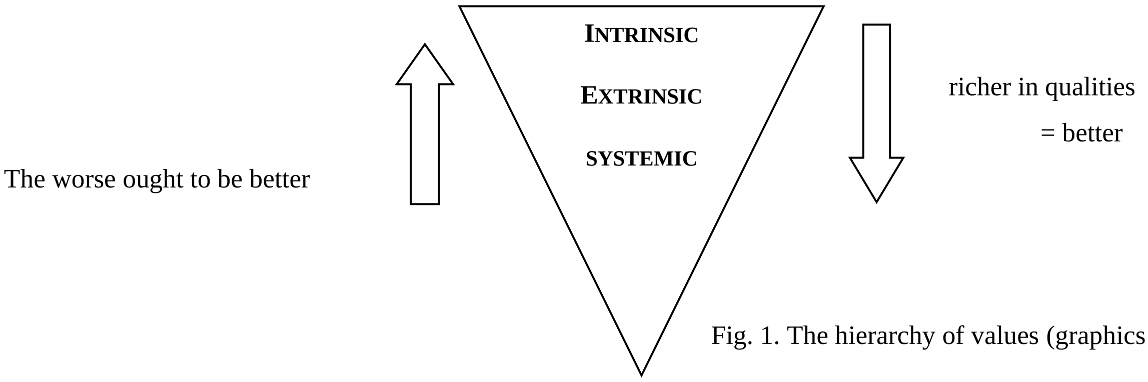


Fig. 1. The hierarchy of values (graphics mine)

Essential to what follows is that intrinsic values are richer in qualities (better) than extrinsic values, and extrinsic values are richer in qualities (better) than systemic values; systemic values ought to be extrinsic value, and extrinsic ought to be intrinsic. Hence, one may argue that the above hierarchy of values (a valuation of values) allows intrinsic values to be perceived as more valuable than extrinsic values and extrinsic values as more valuable than intrinsic values. It is interesting to note that Hartman's (1967) considerations go well beyond the scope of axiology. By introducing a hierarchy of values, he discusses what he calls four value sciences, namely, sociology, economics, ethics, and aesthetics, each of which is characterized by a different type of values presented above. Sociology and economics are about applying extrinsic values to groups of people and things, respectively. Ethics is about applying intrinsic values to the individual person, and aesthetics is about applying intrinsic values to individual things. From this angle, it is possible to argue that two sciences may be related and compared with each other, i.e., the ones that deal with people, namely, ethics and sociology, and the ones that deal with things, namely aesthetics and economics.

Furthermore, it is worth noting that values in these sciences comparable, too. For example, one may argue that, as far as ethics and sociology are concerned, the value of a person is higher than that of a group of people. Therefore, it is more valuable to be a good person than to be a good member of a community, say, a good plumber or a good artist. Similarly, as far as ethics and aesthetics are concerned, a person is more valuable than a thing, and therefore, the subject matter of ethics is of far greater importance than that of aesthetics. It is possible to compare relations between other value sciences, too. For example, in ethics and economics, the difference is between the application of intrinsic value to people and extrinsic value to things, respectively. Therefore, as Hartman (1967) observes, confusing moral and economic values is morally reprehensible. However controversial, he continues, one example may be a choice of degrading a moral value such as love by prostitution. It is equally morally wrong to prioritize an economic value over a moral one in a political system, for example. Whenever this happens, the system becomes axiologically *bad.*

At this point, it is worth noting yet another parallel distinction, as may be argued, proposed by Krzeszowski (1997), who looks at values from the perspective of cognitive linguistics. His model sees values operating on three modes of existence: generic (general), particular, and singular. These roughly correspond to the above-mentioned Hartman's distinction of systemic, extrinsic, and intrinsic values. Krzeszowski's threefold distinction could be illustrated as follows:

- Wine is an alcoholic beverage. (general)
- Italian wines are excellent. (particular class/category)
- She took a sip of her wine. (singular, i.e., specific

(examples mine)

At its heart, the distinction underlines the levels of specificity that are used when referring to things, i.e. one can talk about a thing in general (strictly as a concept), or about a particular thing, or a singular thing. Krzeszowski (1997) observes that the three modes of existence also differ in the degree of richness of qualities, i.e., the entity in the singular mode is richer than that in the particular mode, which is, in turn, richer than the entity in the general mode. The classification can produce three different types of valuations: *concept valuation*, *class valuation*, and *specimen valuation*. The examples could be:

- The car is a *good* thing. (the concept)
- What you see here is a *good* car. (a particular class)
- This car is *good.* (a singular specimen)

(Krzeszowski, 1997:39)

It follows that the first example involves the valuation of cars in general. In it, cars are generally good, and so the property of "good" is part of the concept of "car". The second valuation concerns some particular type of car, which is for some reason considered good and appreciated. Furthermore, it also implies that apart from good cars, there are also those which are *not* good, and so they do not belong to the class of cars mentioned above. The third example concerns a singular specimen, i.e., it is the valuation of a specific car, as indicated by a demonstrative pronoun "this".

Interestingly, Krzeszowski (1997) finds a number of essential differences in the way these valuations work. For instance, concept valuation is absolute, while class valuation is relative. Krzeszowski (1997) speaks of the "axiological charge" of an entity, both in terms of its concept and its linguistic expression. Although in everyday communication, the axiological charge of the word may not be registered or taken note of, it may be activated under certain circumstances, e.g., when discussing personal preferences in using different means of transport. As pointed out by Krzeszowski (1997), class valuation is relative because an entity is valuated in terms of specific criteria identified by the concept. For example, a car is good when it is fast, comfortable and easy on the eye. In other words, these are the fundamental properties that a good car ought to have. In this sense, “a good car” is a category on its own. Similarly, a car that does not meet the relevant criteria is not considered “good”. Notably, class valuation should not be confused with specimen valuation. The latter has to do with determining whether or not a given specimen of a category is *canonical*, i.e., its appearance and parts are what they should be. It follows that class valuation and specimen valuation correspond to the distinction between prototypical and canonical. Hence, a car may be good in terms of class valuation but bad in terms of specimen valuation—for example, a Lexus car with one of its tires flat or shredded.

1.3.1.3. Material specifics of value

The last level of specificity concerns material specifics of value, which are about applications of particular values in various phenomena in sciences such as economics, aesthetics, ethics, or theology. Hartman (1967) makes his point by discussing four value arguments: Anselm’s Proof of the Existence of God, a Proof of the Infinite Value of the Human Person, the Relationship of Moore’s and the Schoolmen’s Determination of Good (i.e., between God as a Nonnatural Property and God as a Transcendental), and Moore’s Open Question Test.

For reasons of space and relevance, this section will not elaborate on the details of all of these arguments; it suffices to say that the first one is concerned with the ultimate argument for God’s existence, who is neither a product of the human mind nor a projection of the human psyche (in Anselm’s words “id quo maius cogitari nequit”, that is, “there must be that [thing] the greater than which cannot be conceived”), for humans are not able to form a concept of God. Through the hierarchy of values discussed above, Hartman (1967) argues that if God is thought as thought (and so as systemic value, which refers to mental constructions), then there is a being which can be thought as better (i.e., one that is believed to as extrinsic value which relates to existing things). If so, God must be seen as existing. For Hartman (1967), God is intrinsic value and the value of values. The second value argument is concerned with the value of a human being in terms of the three types of values discussed earlier, and the point Hartman (1967) makes is that a human being is a rational being capable of combining an infinite number of concepts with an infinite number of objects. Thus, in so doing, a human being has infinite value.

1.4. The concept of *good* in philosophy

As has been said earlier, the prime focus in the philosophy of values is on the concept of the good and the bad. Philosophers distinguish between two families of concepts: the *evaluative* and the *deontic* (from the Greek *deon*, what is binding). The former, being part of the normative, includes the concept of *goodness* and *badness*, while the latter is a category that contains concepts such as *rightness*, *wrongness*, *obligation*, *requirement* or *obligatory*. In the second family of concepts, there is also the concept of what there is a reason to do and the concept of what ought to be done. In value theory, it is essential to look at the interrelation between the two families as well as the distinction between them. Tappolet & Rossi (2016) frame the question of how judgements of what is good or bad relate to judgements about what we ought to do. Intuitively, and perhaps quite naively, one would think that what we ought to do hinges on what is good or bad, and one ought to do what is best. Zimmerman (2015:15) looks in great detail at the relation between the *evaluative* and the *deontic* (i.e., "the good" and "the right" respectively), arguing that "the right is to be accounted for in terms of the good and the good is to be accounted for in terms of the right".

At this stage of consideration, it is vital to reflect on the very concept of goodness. Ross (1930) distinguishes between the *attributive* and the *predicative* uses of "good". To illustrate the point, one may consider the following example: someone could be a good signer but a bad pianist, a good teacher but a bad footballer, etc. In the attributive use of "good", what is "good" is good *relative to some kind.* This idea, however, has been challenged by Thomson (1997), who argues that it is an overstatement to say that someone is a good singer because they may be good at singing opera but bad at singing folk songs. Therefore, in the attributive use of "good", one may argue that whatever is good *in some way* rather than *relative to some kind*. On the other hand, the predicative use of "good" does not involve relativization and rests upon the idea of absolute truths. For example, as Zimmerman (2015) observes, to say that courage is good or pleasure is good does not mean that courage or pleasure are good relative to some standard but that they are good in an absolute sense.

Of fundamental importance in value theory is the distinction between what is good *in itself* and good *as a means*. This distinction has commonly been seen under the heading of the *intrinsic* and the *extrinsic* value and has been discussed in the previous section. Ever since antiquity, philosophical investigations on intrinsic value have been referred to as *valuable in* *itself, in its own right, on its own,* or *for its own sake*. By contrast, extrinsic value is described as what is valuable as a means or for something's sake. Some moral philosophers (e.g. Moore, 1903) argue that pleasure is good in itself, which is to be understood that an experience of pleasure always involves some good things, regardless of where the pleasure comes from or despite the consequences. Elsewhere, Moore (1922) also holds that pleasure is *intrinsically* good, which means if something is good in itself, it is the intrinsic properties that enable that thing to be good. However, as Rønnow-Rasmussen (2015) observes, Moore's idea has been disputed by other philosophers (see, e.g. Korsgaard, 1986; Kagan, 1998; Rabinowicz & Rønnow-Rasmussen, 2000), for whom "*finally* good" has become a term of preference. A more neutral "*finally* good" has been used to express the idea that something is good for its own sake, not for the sake of something to which it in some way relates. There is yet another distinction here to make, and that is the one between *final* and *nonfinal* values. According to Zimmerman (1996), to say that something is nonfinally good means that it is good in virtue of the final value of something it relates somehow. For instance, returning for a while to the previous example of pleasure, if pleasure is indeed finally good, as Zimmerman (2015) points out, then whatever is a means to pleasure (reading a book, for example) will be good as a means.

There is yet another important distinction here, which is related to the previous one. It is about what is good *for a particular person* and what is good *for the world* (e.g., Feldman, 2004). According to Zimmerman (2015), the good-for-a-person versus good-for-the-world the-world distinction can be illustrated by the following example: what is good for a person is to do with a person's well-being. To say that your being happy is *finally* good for you means that whatever the contribution to your being happy may be, it is *nonfinally* good for you. If your being happy makes me happy, then it, too, will be nonfinally good for me. Therefore, it is my happiness, not anyone else's, that is finally good for me. However, it is also possible to say that both your being happy and my being happy are finally good for the world, and whatever the source or contribution of your/my happiness is, it is nonfinally good for the world. It is interesting to note that what is good for the world makes it a better place, but what is good for a person does not necessarily make the person better. It is rather a person's well-being which is improved by what is good for a person.

If a substantial part of value theory is concerned with the fundamental distinction between the *good* and the *bad*, one may find it inevitable to address the many questions and doubts surrounding it. As said earlier, there is a considerable number of questions concerning the evaluative concepts and their relation to other kinds of concepts, for example, natural concepts (e.g., Moore, 1903; Smith, 1994), emotion concepts (see, e.g., Deonna & Teroni, 2016;

Sokol-Hessner & Phelps, 2016), or affective states (see, e.g., Mulligan, 1998). On the one hand, little doubt can be cast on the statement that *admirable, desirable*, or *shameful* are tightly connected to the concepts of *admiration, desire,* and *shame,* respectively. It stands to reason to assume that there is a lexical link between the evaluative concepts and emotion-related terms. On the other hand, however, one may find themselves asking about what it is exactly that forms the relation between evaluative concepts and emotion concepts, and a question such as this has been one of the most persistent ones in the philosophical pursuits of value. For philosophers of all persuasions, what has always been particularly interesting is that much of philosophical debate is entirely devoted to the distinction between them and their relation to other concepts, for example natural concepts, emotions, or affective states (see e.g. Moore, 1903; Smith, 1994; Ross, 1930; Krzeszowski 1997; Mulligan, 1998; Zimmerman 2015; Rønnow-Rasmussen, 2015, Rabinowicz & Rønnow-Rasmussen, 2016; Jakosz, 2016).

True to form, there are also relevant questions concerning evaluative judgements, such as "Knowledge is good", "She is admirable", or "Stealing is shameful", and evaluative language, i.e., the meaning and the function of terms like "good", "admirable", or "shameful", and the sentences which contain such terms. As may be observed from a real-life experience, evaluative judgements and evaluative language are closely linked in that they both trigger evaluative concepts. According to Tappolet & Rossi (2016), it is important to ponder the nature of such judgements, how they differ from other types of judgements, and whether or not they are related to motivation or action. The function of the evaluative sentences is also of importance here, as it is interesting to investigate if they can be assessed in terms of truth. More precisely, what is the function of the evaluative sentences as above, and how does it compare to the function of the sentences such as "X is blue" or "This is a square"? Assuming that evaluative sentences are not aimed at describing things, what is their true purpose? In other words, do they seek to express positive or negative emotions when used?

Apart from evaluative concepts, evaluative judgements, and evaluative sentences, there are also evaluative facts, which have generated much of the philosophical discussion on values. Evaluative facts are closely linked with evaluative properties, such as the property of being good, or the property of being shameful. What is a connecting theme between evaluative facts and evaluative properties is the discussion of *naturalism* and the questions it raises, i.e., how values fit into the natural world. The question that has been of particular importance for philosophers is whether there are objective evaluative properties that form genuinely objective evaluative facts. As Tappolet & Rossi (2016) observe, it may seem that these considerations are misguided, as values are not part of the world but are formed in people's minds.

1.5. Where does value come from?

The innocuous question, as the one opening up in this section, relates specifically to the human cognitive process and human thinking in which values and valuation play a pivotal role. As said earlier, the "good-bad" distinction has always been paramount in philosophy. It is interesting why this particular distinction has received so much interest and enthusiasm throughout the centuries of philosophical history, and the answer to this question may be hidden in the understanding of the very sense of human existence. Even a cursory glance at the "good-bad" pair reveals a lot about the subject matter. First, it is the most general and widespread scale of all, overriding (or incorporating) other hierarchies or distinctions, such as the "true-false" or the "beautiful-ugly." Second, an important observation is that the "good-bad" distinction is fundamental in performing categorizations, even those made as early as infanthood (Krzeszowski, 1997). There is no mistaking that a small baby, even one who cannot yet speak, is quick to discover that there are, in fact, two essential labels, or categories, of all the things around them and that these things can be labelled as either "good" or "bad". What follows from this observation is the fact that the two categories underpin all of the other much more detailed distinctions, which are bound to shape and transform later on in a person's life. Therefore, as Krzeszowski (1997) points out, one may be confident in saying that an inherent aspect of every categorization is valuation, and so categorizations are valuations, too.

Even though valuations are effectively formed in people's minds, it is only through language that they emerge in the outer world. Krzeszowski (1997) argues that values are the results of human conceptualization and exist only in the "phenomenological domain" as opposed to the "material domain". For Grünberg (2000), values are expressions of states of mind and subjective desires and preferences. Although they are not things, they cannot exist without their "material frame", in other words, some carrier, a bearer, or a messenger. For example, as Grünberg (2000) notes, beauty does not exist independently, for it is always a feature of something or someone, be it the human body, the landscape, or the natural phenomenon. On the other hand, however, value can outlive its physical frame, and such a situation is often seen in the case of great historical personalities or our loved ones who died but remain cherished in our memory.

To be able to *value* and *valuate*, or to say what is *good* and what is *bad*, one finds themselves in need of some platform, a point of reference or a yardstick upon which valuations can be measured. The connection between language and values is deserving of crucial attention and study, and as such, will be discussed in the further chapters of this thesis. At this point, a brief reference should be made to a system of values proposed by, for example, Puzynina (1982; 1992), who looks at values through the lens of linguistics and axiology, but only to a certain, limited degree. She studies what she calls "valuative words" and their meanings, and her analyses aim to show how valuations are expressed in the structure of written texts and in language. According to Puzynina (1982), language is instrumental in describing values and reflecting them in a person's life. Puzynina's scope of study is limited in that she focuses on values as *objects* of perception and investigation. For Krzeszowski (1997), however, the connection between axiology and linguistics is far more complex and elaborate. While he does not reject Puzynina's point of view, his focus on values is that of the cognitive perspective.

This intellectual debate on the language of valuing is later continued by Puzynina (2003), who offers her critique on Krzeszowski's (1997) *Fundamental Axiological Matrix*, short for FAMA. For Krzeszowski (1997:134), FAMA "makes it possible to predict actual axiological charge of various linguistics expressions of concepts arising from various schemata". In short, Krzeszowski (1997), drawing on Langacker (1987), argues that the *Fundamental Axiological Matrix* sees entities as either *trajectors* or *landmarks*, the former being more prominent than the latter. Both entities may have positive or negative values, and the relation between them may also be of positive or negative value. Importantly, the relation, whether static or dynamic, is expressed by means of prepositions, of which absolutely positive are, for example, *to, in, at*, *over/above,* and absolutely negative is represented by *from, out of, under/below, at the back of*. It is vital to note that the relation could be expressed by linguistics means other than prepositions, for example, nouns or verbs. To illustrate briefly the axiological schemata, let us take a look at Krzeszowski's (1997:135) three out of the many examples he proposes:

- *The convict went to prison.*
- *The convict in prison.*
- *The convict's imprisonment.*

In the first example, the absolutely positive relation between the trajector of "convict" and the landmark of "prison" is expressed by the dynamic verb *go to*. In the other one, by the preposition in and in the third by Saxon Genitive. For Puzynina (2003), the axiological relations proposed by Krzeszowski (1997), presented here only briefly and perhaps too sketchy, are lacking in some vital points of syntactic reference. According to Puzynina (2003), in relying on spatial representations and their metaphorical extensions, Krzeszowski (1997) fails to notice other essential aspects of axiological relations, evident in phrases such as "gasnący pożar"/"gasnące życie", in which the positive/negative value is predetermined not by the word "gasnacy/e" but the value of the described lexical item “pożar”/”życie”. Puzynina (2003) also takes issue with Krzeszowski’s reliance on prepositions such as *to* or *towards*, which in Polish (as in English) may not necessarily have positive meaning. Thus, she makes her point, arguing that the axiological domain of words or phrases we use to conceptualize the world around us *may* but does always *have to* show. It should be emphasized that the valuing of words is highly subjective and may be prone to drastic changes in meaning depending on a given context. Puzynina’s observations are consistent with those of Hunston (2007), who, although not focusing on values as such, highlights the importance of phraseology in language and argues that a word may have a positive or negative meaning depending on the lexical environment it occupies. For example, *persistent* in English may be understood positively or negatively, same as the adjective *fat*, which is positive when it describes animals or objects but negative when referred to people (Channel, 2000). Similarly, for Louw (1993), *build up* is positive when used transitively, as in *build up a better understanding* but negative when used intransitively, as in *toxins build up*.

As could be seen, the above discussion inevitably leads to reflections on language and linguistic structures employed in a variety of ways to convey positive and negative meanings. These aspects will be discussed at length in the chapter which follows.

Concluding remarks

As has been said, the concept of *value* has been the subject of extensive investigations ranging from philosophy to economics to psychology to linguistics. The sequence of these areas of study only apparently reflects the chronology of the origin of interest in the concept of value, its nature, intention, and extension. While it is beyond any doubt that philosophical inquiry into values originated well before any others, the above statement is by no means intended to suggest that investigations undertaken by linguists come last in a long chain of research on values. To support this view, one should admit that many of the philosophical deliberations on values are, in fact, unintentional reflections on language as a means of expressing values, a linguistic action often referred to as the act of evaluation. However, it should be remembered that the object of philosophical discussions was pertinent to ethical or aesthetic concepts, not language as such, since language was viewed only as a carrier of axiological meanings in value judgments.

CHAPTER TWO: Evaluation in Language

Introduction

In writing, as in speech, expressing personal feelings and assessments is an essential feature of language, but it is not always a straightforward matter to account for. For those who set out to explore opinion-related meanings, there is a wide range of terms in use, the choice of which hinges upon whether we address the speaker's or writer's positive or negative attitudes towards entities or commitment to propositions in terms of certainty, likelihood, trueness, or reliability. The former is an additional quality to the basic referential meaning of a word in question and is realized through a range of lexical items such as adjectives. The latter is an essential part of a proposition, shows greater structural variation, and thus is far more grammaticalized than the first. Hence, terms such as *affect* (Ochs, 1989; Besnier, 1990) on the one end, with *modality* (e.g. Halliday, 1994; Perkins, 1983; Palmer, 1990; Bybee & Fleischman, 1995), *intensity* (e.g., Labov, 1984), *evidentiality* (e.g., Chafe, 1986), or *hedging* (e.g., Crompton, 1997; Hyland, 1998) on the other, are those commonly found in the literature to talk about this phenomenon.

Of importance is not only terminology but also, and perhaps even more crucially, the question of how the relationship between the two types of opinion is viewed. There are two options at the researcher's disposal, each of which focuses either on points of difference or similarities and thus treats the two types of opinion respectively as separate phenomena or as broader aspects of the same phenomenon. This only adds to the complexity of the topic, especially when a number of divergent terms and taxonomies emerge, such as *appraisal* (Martin, 2000; Martin & White, 2005), *stance* (Biber & Finegan, 1989; Biber 2006a; Hyland, 2005a), *metadiscourse* (Crismore & Farnsworth, 1989; Hyland, 2005b;) or *evaluation* (Thompson & Hunston, 2000), to name only the most common.

Chapter Two uses the term *evaluation* to describe all manner of expressions of opinion towards both entities and propositions, in written and spoken language, in the realm of academic discourse and outside of it. The term has been adopted here after Thompson & Hunston (2000) and will be used consistently throughout the thesis from now on. One aim of this chapter is to outline the major strands of research on evaluation in English academic writing, focusing on points of agreement and difference, which serves as a backdrop to a more thorough analysis of evaluation in academic discourse provided by the chapters which follow. Another aim is to look at evaluation through the lens of lexis and grammar in order to ascertain the linguistic mechanisms used by speakers or writers to convey their personal assessments, what is included under the heading of "evaluative language", how it is identified, and how it might be interpreted.

Such observations lay the groundwork for the identification and analysis of evaluative meanings in academic book reviews presented in the empirical part of this thesis.

Throughout this chapter, *italics* refer to concepts such as *evaluation* or *stance* and a standard font for these words in a more general meaning. One exception is the APPRAISAL theory, which ordinarily labels its systems in LARGE CAPITALS, and so does this chapter.

2. The phenomenon of evaluation

One reason for the existence of various terminologies that are used to talk about evaluative language lies in the very understanding of what is meant by evaluation or, more precisely, what kind of phenomenon evaluation is taken to be. Let us now consider what is understood by evaluation in more detail. According to Hunston (2011: 10 – 11), some possibilities may be as follows:

- "Evaluation' is an action – something that a person does.
- 'Evaluation', or its near-synonyms, is the set of words and phrases which express evaluative meaning.
- 'Evaluation' is a set of meanings which might be expressed in a given text using a variety of language resources.
- 'Evaluation' a function performed by a text, or part of a text.

What lies behind these approaches are conceptual differences, which necessitate a variance in terminologies and descriptions in use. If evaluation is taken to be an action performed in language and if it is verbalized, it finds its realization in various language constructions and as such, could be the object of study. Englebretson (2007:3) argues that "stances are something people actively engage in", while Du Bois (2007) proposes the stance triangle, which describes a three-part action performed in discourse (evaluation, subjective positioning, and alignment with the audience).

If evaluation, or its near-synonyms, is the set of words and phrases through which evaluative meaning is expressed, the centrepiece of this view is the set of lexical resources. For example, Hyland & Tse (2004:157) conceptualize their focus as *metadiscourse* and define it as the 'linguistic resources used to organize a discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader'. For Conrad & Biber (2000:57) *stance* is "a cover term for the expression of personal feelings and assessments", while Hyland (2009:111) takes the view that *stance* includes "linguistic resources through which writers convey their judgements, opinion, and commitments".

In linguistics literature, evaluation is also conceived of as a set of meanings expressed in a given text by a wide variety of language resources. Martin & White's (2005:42) appraisal system is referred to as a "system of meanings" concerned with "how writers or speakers approve or disapprove, enthuse or abhor, applaud and criticize, and how they position their readers to do likewise" (Martin & White, 2005:1). The theory originates from the Systemic Functional Linguistics and identifies three modes of meaning, which are simultaneously textual, ideational, and interpersonal. The APPRAISAL system is concerned with the interpersonal in language.

Evaluation is also viewed as a function performed by a text or part of a text. For Thompson & Hunston (2000), it has a role of expressing opinion, building and maintaining relations, and organizing a discourse. Hyland's (2005) framework of interaction in academic discourse comprises *stance* and *engagement*, each comprising a variety of language devices performing different functions in an academic text. For example, *directives* make references to shared knowledge or draw the reader's attention to particular arguments in the text, *personal asides* are interruptions on the part of the author on the ongoing discussion, while *reader pronouns* such as *you* and *your* address the reader directly.

Perhaps the best way to illustrate what perspectives as these above mean in practice is to consider the famously-quoted sentence written by Randolph Quirk, analyzed at length by Sinclair (2004a) and rewritten here after Hunston (2011:11)

The implications are daunting.

In this sentence, a writer is performing an action and, in doing so, interacting with the reader. They make a reference to something that was said prior to that sentence, the *implications* of which they are commenting on. This reminds of the "interactive quality of language", which rests on creating and sharing meaning between two participants (Sinclair, 2004:83). The word *daunting* indicates the writer's personal opinion comes from a set of evaluative meanings of writer's choosing, and so it is subjective in nature. The sentence is dual in its function in that it not only evaluates something said previously but also "encapsulates" (Sinclair, 2004:83) a previous one, which indicates the organization of the text.

As signalled in the introduction to this chapter as well as above, there are a number of terms in use to talk about evaluative language; some of the most commonly known include, for example, *appraisal*, *stance*, or *evaluation.* Although all of these terms ultimately deal with language in use, in some way or another, conceptual differences behind them have led to the divergence of terminology. What follows is a brief overview of the major approaches to evaluative language in the context of academic discourse. First, let us look at the areas where consensus is said to have been reached without fail.

2.1. The common ground

Although the language of evaluation is said to possess a diverse array of characteristics, there are some common threads running in almost all approaches to it. Following Hunston (2011), let us consider six areas of agreement where these are manifest.

First and foremost, many approaches to evaluation describe it as both subjective and intersubjective. This view is clearly evident in Thompson & Hunston (2000:1), who talk about "positive or negative opinions", or in Martin & White (2005:42), who describe attitude as "ways of feeling". Hunston (2011) argues that evaluation is private and personal, and evaluative statements are endorsed only by their speaker. Evaluation is also intersubjective in that one of its vital functions is interaction. For Martin & White (2005), the APPRAISAL system construes the interpersonal meaning; Du Bois (2007) asserts that every act of evaluation forms an alignment between speaker and hearer, while Thompson & Hunston (2006:8) identify three primary functions of evaluation, of which one is about "building and maintain relations", Thompson & Thetela (1995) look at interaction in written texts, and, finally, Hyland (2005b) conceptualizes *metadiscourse* and stresses the importance of the relationship and interaction between the writer and an intended audience. Although many writers look at evaluation and interaction separately, all of them see the former as key to achieving the latter (e.g., Hunston, 1994; Thompson, 2001; Hyland & Tse, 2004)

Second, evaluation is looked at through the lens of ideology that is shared by the writer or reader, or speaker and hearer. Ideology refers back to subjectivity as evaluation takes place within a social and ideological framework. As Hyland (2005:175) notes, "personal judgements are only convincing, or even meaningful when they contribute to and connect to a communal ideology or value system concerning what is taken to be normal, interesting, relevant, good, bad, (…)". Some words take on a particular social value (see Channel, 2000 and her investigation of *fat*), and in so doing, they represent a cultural stance of a particular community. It follows that the act of evaluation should be in accord with the accepted mores of society. As far as academic discourse is concerned, some instances of evaluation are implicitly inferred, in which case it is likely that they are based on shared ideological assumptions, be it cultural or social.

In most cases, however, evaluation in academic discourse construes an ideology and relates to "how knowledge is made" or "what counts as good research" (Hunston, 2011: 13). Martin & White's distinction between *afforded* and *inscribed* appraisal rests on the idea that inferences are based on shared ideological assumptions. Evaluation and ideology are, therefore, intimately intertwined. In one sense, as mentioned above, readers are likely to infer evaluation because of the shared ideological assumptions. In another, ideology can be detected in the text by examining evaluation it contains (see, e.g., Hyland, 2009; Matsuda & Tardy, 2007). Finally, speakers and writers use specific evaluations on the understanding that hearers and readers share the same ideological positions as they do.

Third, evaluative meaning is expressed with a wide variety of lexical indicators, some of which are easily identified even out of context. For instance, *good* and *bad, wonderful* and *terrible* and the like are clearly evaluative in their nature. Indicators of evaluative meaning comprise a broad range of lexical items (not necessarily single words, but also longer sequences of words) and a range of grammatical structures. Some grammar patterns are also said to imply evaluative meanings (see, e.g., Hunston & Francis, 1996; Francis et al., 1998). In many cases, evaluation tends to be implicitly inferred rather than explicitly stated and is often negative, which is true for the phenomenon of *semantic prosody* (see, e.g., Louw 1993; Stubbs 2001; Hunston, 2011), the units of meaning proposed by Sinclair (1991, 2004), or Martin & White's *inscribing* and *invoking* attitude, for example.

Fourth, evaluation is contextually determined and cumulative. Put simply, the context decides the meaning. This means that a word in isolation does not provide reliable information as to whether or not it is evaluative, and even if it is taken as evaluative, it cannot be reliably identified as positive or negative. The following observation is not exclusively confined to evaluative meaning; quite the reverse, no meaning of any word is ever fully ascertained unless it is looked at in its natural-occurring environment. The importance of context is most readily seen in the case of polysemy, where words have several meanings, and so it might be problematic to identify the meaning of a given word when it is encountered in isolation. As Hunston (2011) observes, a speaker of English may find it difficult to explain what *horse* means or what its word class is when presented with an isolated word, so they look for some familiar context in which the word occurs. In the case of *horse,* it can be a field on which the animal is grazing, the stable where it is kept, or a horse race in which the animal is taking part, to name only the most obvious examples. This information is enough to establish the general meaning of the word and its word class, which is a noun. There are, of course, other possibilities as far as the contexts for *horses* are concerned. We may think about *rocking horse* or *horsing around*, in which case the meaning as well as the word class is different from that of *horse*. Hunston's (2011) example of *horse* may be taken even further to argue that *horse* and *hoarse* sound alike but are two entirely different words, which makes the identification of their meanings even more contingent upon the context.

Context is crucial for identifying evaluative meaning insofar as some neutral words may convey evaluative meaning. For instance, Hunston (2011) argues that in *Her performance was electric*, *electric* is an evaluative adjective, even though its basic referential meaning does not indicate evaluation. The same is true of other adjectives. For instance, *scholarly* has a neutral meaning as in *provoke scholarly debate*, and a positive meaning when it is used to evaluate somebody's work as in *this is a scholarly book* (Groom, 2004). The neutral-looking *student*, which is generally thought to be value-free, can be used to indicate evaluative meaning, both positive and negative. Thompson & Hunston (2000) note that a typically neutral phrase *high season,* which is used to describe the time of year when holidaymakers go on vacation, can, in fact, indicate a negative evaluation. Channel (2000) observes that a typically negative adjective *fat* as in *fat person* turns positive when it describes animals or objects as in *fat salary*. In the context of academic writing, more specifically in the introductions to research articles, Hood (2010) notes that a normally value-free adjective *traditional* implies a negative evaluation as in *The limitation of the study lies in its employment of the traditional methods of...* Shaw (2004) argues that a sentence such as *The farmer killed the duckling* is implicitly evaluative, whose evaluativeness and polarity is contextually-determined and reflected in a reader's value system. Shaw's analysis of explicit and implicit evaluation will be given more attention in Chapters Five and Six.

The importance of context is also noted by Wilson, Wiebe & Hoffmann (2005) and their distinction between "prior polarity" and "contextual polarity". The former describes the word out of context, which could imply positive or negative associations, while the latter is the meaning in a given phrase, which may be at variance with the prior polarity of the word. For example, *beautiful* has a positive prior polarity, while *horrid* has a negative prior polarity. There are two types of contexts where contextual polarity is not in line with prior polarity. Wilson, Wiebe & Hoffmann (2005) argues that this could be exemplified by the word *trust*, which has a positive prior polarity ("believe in the honesty of somebody or something") that changes into neutral contextual ("an organization'" polarity when used in the phrase *National Environment Trust*. Hunston (2011) argues, though, that *trust* and *Trust* may be well considered as two different words with the same spelling and pronunciation. A second context where contextual polarity runs counter to prior polarity involves negation; for example, the adjective *reasonable* loses its positive meaning in phrase such as *There is no reason to believe that polluters are suddenly going to become reasonable* (Wilson, Wiebe & Hoffmann 2005). It is worth noting that as far as evaluation is concerned, context is sometimes much more than the immediate environment of the lexical item in question, that is, the concordance line. Implicit evaluation tends to stretch across longer passages of texts, very often with no obvious evidence of attitudinal language (e.g., Hunston, 1993; Shaw, 2004; Hoey, 2005;). In many cases, then, only the perusal of a given text validates the presence of evaluation.

Closely bound with context is accumulation. In one sense, evaluative resources tend to cluster together, which is indicative of some form of evaluation taking place in a text. In another, with highly implicit evaluation, it is only the accumulation of evaluative evidence that alerts the reader to the existence of it.

Fifth, it has been generally agreed that evaluation involves a target, or object, and a source. In every act of evaluation, a person evaluates an object, and the nature of the evaluation will depend on the nature of the object (see Martin & White's on the distinction between JUDGEMENT – the value of actions and abilities, and APPRECIATION – the value of things). The source of evaluation is the person who is speaking or writing, but when we take into consideration the process of attribution, it is anything but a straightforward matter (see studies on averral and attribution in Sinclair, 1988; Tadros, 1993; Thompson, 1996; Hunston & Sinclair, 2000). Put simply, if a piece of language is averred, it comes originally from the writer or speaker, while if it is attributed, it is presented as belonging to someone other than the writer or speaker. All propositions are either averred or attributed (Sinclair, 1988), and evaluation may be expressed as much through attribution as through averral (Hunston & Sinclair, 2000). In many texts, attribution is multilayered, and so is evaluation.

Lastly, the sixth point of agreement concerns the distinction between the evaluative and the non-evaluative and whether there are any definite criteria for doing so. Since identifying evaluation is highly subjective, the interpretative procedures rest upon the decision of the analyst. This could be problematic because evaluative meanings are often hard to pin down, so identifying what counts as evaluation and what does not may be extremely difficult or not achievable at all. As Bondi & Mauranen (2003) note, evaluation is an elusive concept: although in some cases it clearly manifests itself through lexical items, there are contexts where it is less obviously exposed, for example, through conjunction, subordination, repetition, contrast, or concession. Furthermore, evaluation may not be expressed by words at all, making evaluative meaning conspicuous by its absence (Hyland, 2005). On the other hand, one might feel tempted to assume that essentially every utterance and every text indicates some form of evaluation, and so there might be no reason to insist on an evaluative–non–evaluative distinction but simply talk about "language" (Hunston, 2011). In the end, it seems that researchers are tasked with either drawing a line between what is evaluative and what is not or treating evaluation as a self-contained system, which is not without its limitations.

2.2. Major strands of research on evaluation in academic discourse

Although academic discourse is often perceived as lacking in explicit forms of evaluation, it is structured in a way that enables writers to present their work engagingly and meaningfully (Swales, 2004; Hyland & Diani, 2009). In many cases, however, text organization, as well as the structure itself, reveals much more than it might ever openly state. In so doing, academic discourse is said to be gradually losing its objective and impersonal form and image, becoming an interactive platform where the relationship between writers and readers germinates and thrives and an active ground for exchanging views on areas of scientific interest, with plausible representations of both the arguments and the academics themselves (Hyland, 2009). Crucial to uncovering instances of evaluative language is the methodological approach, which contributes to the understanding of how linguistic resources are created and deployed in academic writing.

The last two decades or so have witnessed a proliferation of studies on evaluation incorporating all manner of analytical frameworks and methodologies. The following section gives an outline of the four major strands of research into evaluation in academic discourse, namely *stance*, *APPRAISAL*, *metadiscourse*, and *voice*, all of which have been particularly valuable in the explorations of evaluative language in an academic environment.

2.2.1. Stance

Investigations into the expression of the speaker's or writer's personal attitudes and assessments under the heading of *stance* are associated most famously with Biber (see, e.g., Biber & Finegan, 1988, 1989; Biber at al., 1999; Conrad & Biber, 2000; Biber, 2006a; Biber & Conrad, 2009; Gray & Biber, 2012), and with Hyland (see, e.g., 1999, 2000; 2005a, 2007; 2009; Hyland & Guinda, 2012). Both writers and colleagues take particular interest in the differences between spoken and written forms of language. Other corpus studies on *stance* and stance markers, often quantitative and qualitative in their focus, include those undertaken by Barton (1993), Charles (e.g., 2003, 2006a,b), Precht (2003), Gablasova et al. (2017), Hyland & Jiang (2018), Szczyrbak (2019), for example. The concept of *stance* finds its origins in the two lines of research, namely *evidentiality* (Chafe, 1986; Chafe & Nichols, 1986) and *affect* (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1989;

Besnier, 1990), which laid the groundwork for a more detailed analytical framework of *stance* in later years. Put succinctly, *evidentiality* is concerned with evaluating knowledge in propositions, while *affect* centers on personal feelings, emotions, and attitudes. Chafe (1986) discusses the linguistic indicators of four major components of evaluations of knowledge, rewritten here after Gray & Biber (2012:16):

- The degree of reliability of knowledge;
- The source of knowledge, such as evidence, the language of others, and hypotheses;
- The manner in which the knowledge was acquired ('mode of knowing'), which includes personal beliefs, inductions or inference from evidence, hearsay from what we have heard or learned from others, and deduction from hypotheses;
- The appropriateness of the verbal resources for marking evidential meaning, in terms of both the match between the linguistic markers and the actual status of the knowledge, as well as the match with reader/hearer expectations.

On the other hand, *affect* is defined as "a broader term than emotion which includes feelings, moods, dispositions, and attitudes associated with person and/or situations: (Ochs & Schieffelin (1989:7), and is said to permeate language at all levels (e.g., phonology, morphology and syntax, and discourse). Ochs & Schieffelin (1989) distinguish between affect markers, which indicate the intensity of an utterance, and affect markers, which specify a particular emotion or attitude, such as anger, sorrow, or surprise.

For Biber & Finegan (1988, 1989), the two concepts above were instrumental in establishing the first model of *stance*, which comprises lexical and grammatical descriptions of personal attitudes and emotions (i.e. *affect meanings*, either positive or negative) as well as assessments of the status of knowledge (i.e. *evidential meanings*, indicating certainty or doubt). The model was used in the 1990s in a number of corpus-based studies on spoken and written language.

In the subsequent works, the framework was further extended to encompass a third category of *stance*. Conrad & Biber (2000:57) define *stance* as "a cover term for the expressions of personal feelings and assessments". They focus on adverbials associated with the speaker's or writer's attitude or stance and compare them in three different spoken and written corpora (collections of academic prose, news reportage, and conversations to which the authors refer as "registers"). Adverbial markers of stance are subdivided into groups according to two criteria: grammatical form (mainly adverb, prepositional phrase, and subordinate clause), and the domain of *stance* broadened now into include three categories: *epistemic stance*, *attitude stance*, and *style stance*.

Epistemic stance includes the speaker's opinions of certainty (or doubt), reliability, or limitations of a proposition, including comments on the source of information, for example, *probably, perhaps, apparently,* and thus corresponds to evidentiality and evidential meanings from the previous framework. Attitudinal stance conveys the speaker's attitudes, feelings, or value judgements, for example, *surprisingly, unfortunately,* which is in accordance with *affect* and affect meanings. A third category is style stance, which describes the manner in which something is said or written, for example, *honestly, briefly, in truth.* Conrad & Biber's (2000) findings show the importance of register to form and meaning. For example, the conversation has almost twice as many adverbial markers of stance than either academic prose or news reportage. In all three registers, the preferred expression of stance is epistemic stance. Unlike the two written registers, in conversation, the frequency of style adverbials (in particular, markers of doubt, imprecision, and actuality) is higher than that of attitude adverbials. These proportions are reversed in academic writing. Conrad & Biber (2000) note that the different preferences of each of the corpora are linked with their different communicative purposes.

In his later work, Biber (2006a:100 – 102) takes into account a broader range of stance markers, including modal verbs and verbs, nouns and adjectives that have that-clauses and to-infinitive clauses as complements (*conclude that, advise you, obvious that, necessary to, and assumption that)*. He focuses on four registers from the corpus: classroom teaching, class management talk, textbooks, and written course management language. His study is designed to show a comparison of stance markers according to two major parameters: physical mode (speech versus writing) and primary communicative purpose ("academic/instructional" versus student "management"). Biber's work is more quantitative in focus, and the research findings are compared for each register type; for example, stance markers are said to be more frequent overall in spoken registers than in written ones (Biber, 2006a).

Critical to investigating academic discourse are *stance* and *engagement,* which prioritize the interaction between writer and reader, the focus of which overlaps with that of metadiscourse (Hyland, 2005b; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Hyland, 2017). For Hyland (2009:111), *stance* concerns "writer-oriented features" of interaction and is viewed as an attitudinal dimension that includes linguistic resources through which writers convey their judgements, opinions, and commitments. The rhetorical choices from the *stance* option enable the author to make their presence either noticeable or concealed in the text. *Engagement*, a concept developed independently of that proposed by Martin & White (2005) yet overlapping with it to some extent, is considered an alignment dimension which relates to the ways writers connect and interact with their readers in the form of a virtual dialogue. It aims to provide guidance on how to interpret and evaluate the arguments and draws the reader's attention to the arguments proposed in the text. It is also concerned with how readers perceive the text and how they might react to what is offered by the writer, which effectively translates into including them as active discourse participants in a dialogue with the writer by taking into consideration potential objections they might raise and expectations they might hold. The key resources of *stance* and *engagement* are presented in Figure 2.

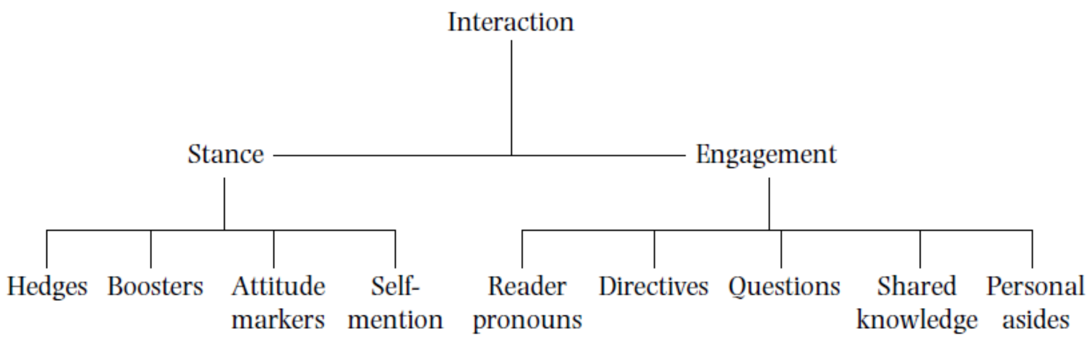


Fig. 2. Academic interaction (Hyland, 2005:177)

Stance is made of three main components: *evidentiality*, *affect*, and *presence*. Evidentiality is concerned with the reliability of the propositions expressed by the writer; affect refers to the emotive dimension towards what is being presented in the text; and presence relates to the degree to which authors make themselves present in their work. As seen from Figure 2 stance includes devices such as *hedges* (e.g., *possible*, *might*, *perhaps*), *boosters* (e.g., *clearly*, *obviously*, *demonstrate*), *attitude markers* (attitude verbs such as *agree*, *prefer*; sentence adverbs such as *unfortunately*, *hopefully*, adjectives such as *appropriate*, *logical*, *remarkable*), and *self-mentions* (the use of the first person pronoun and possessive adjectives). Engagement devices include readers' pronouns (the use of *you* and *your*, which clearly acknowledges the reader's presence), personal asides (the author's interjections so as to comment on what has been said, which reveal an element of the writer's personality), appeals to shared knowledge (when readers are requested to recognize something as familiar or accepted), directives (imperatives such as *consider*, *note*, *imagine*; modal verbs referring to obligation such as *should*, *ought to*, *must*, *need to*), and questions (rhetorical positioning of readers, that is, an act of posing a question to which the writer does not expect a response, but with which they simulate a dialogue).

Stance and *engagement* contribute to our understanding of academic discourse, and because they are "two sides of the same coin", there is, inevitably, considerable overlap between them (Hyland, 2005a:176). Since academic writers tend to use a variety of resources to plausibly represent their knowledge claims and themselves, the linguistic means they use can perform more than one function at a time. *Stance* and *engagement* are, in effect, used simultaneously as writers are keen to interact with their audience to create an impression of credibility, authority, and integrity in relation to both their area of expertise as academics and themselves as a person.

In his later works, Hyland (2007, 2009) focuses on *engagement* and takes a more quantitative approach to investigating the dialogic relationship between writer and reader in academic discourse. He is particularly interested in the directive devices used by expert and novice academic writers in research articles and student undergraduate reports in eight university disciplines: biology, mechanical engineering, information systems, business studies, economics, public administration, and social sciences. Hyland (2009) distinguishes between more precise functions of the directives, these being used to point the reader to a place in a text (e.g. *Please refer to the table below*), indicate a physical action (e.g. *It is important to use…*), or to direct the reader to carry out a cognitive act (e.g. *It is important to note that…*). By combining the corpora study with transcripts of student interviews, Hyland (2009) elaborates on the links each kind of directive has with both the ways disciplines conduct research and the undergraduate students as inexperienced academic writers.

With Hyland's (2007, 2009) investigations comes a number of vital points to consider. One observation is that the reader is not just a mere observer of the text as it unfolds. Quite the reverse, they are purposefully brought into the argument and are considered an active participant in the discussion. As Hyland (2009:126) notes, this means that the reader is "drawn into both a dialogue and a relationship with the writer". Another point is that the combination of corpus analysis and informant interviews offers novel insights into writing practices in a particular community by uncovering reasons and explanations for specific language choices made in the text. It follows that integrating corpus analyses with interviews or surveys, that is, adopting an ethnographic approach, provides a new perspective on how evaluation is created in a variety of texts and brings some of the sociocultural, educational, or cognitive aspects of writing into focus (see, e.g., Matsuda & Tardy, 2007; Lillis, 2008; Lancaster, 2016). This effectively shows that what Teubert (2005:2) argues about corpus linguistics wanting "to describe what cannot be explained" could be, and in fact is, balanced with the benefits of the ethnographic approach.

Overall, the linguistic resources of *stance* and *engagement* have been employed as a primary framework in the investigation of academic research articles across a range of disciplines, most notably in the humanities and social sciences (e.g. Hyland, 2001; Hyland &

Bondi, 2006, Sayah & Hashemi, 2014) or pure mathematics research articles (e.g., McGrath & Kuteeva, 2012).

2.2.2. Stance-taking

It is worth noting that the term *stance* is used in the literature in two distinct ways (Hunston, 2011). In one sense, as shown in the section above, *stance* resonates with the notion of *evaluation*. However, the term has also been interpreted as a social activity rather than as a set of markers of expressions (see, e.g., Englebretson, 2007; Du Bois, 2007). Du Bois (2007) proposes the "stance triangle" to represent the act of stance-taking in a spoken dialogue. Key to the stance triangle is a set of three entities (first subject, second subject, stance object) and a set of three actions (*evaluation, positioning*, and *alignment*), as shown in Figure 3.

According to Du Bois (2007), the three acts are not to be understood as separate types of stance but rather as subsidiary acts of a single act of stance. All of the three aspects are unified but distinguishable from the others. Du Bois (2007:163) notes that in taking a stance, "the stance-taker (1) evaluates the object, (2) positions a subject (usually the self), and (3) aligns with other subjects".

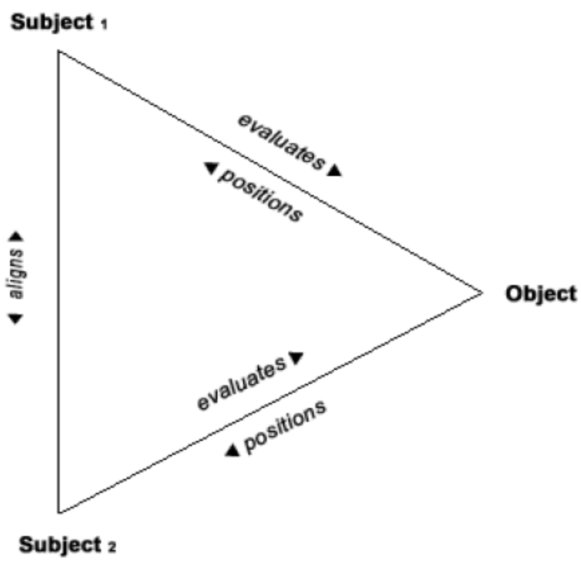


Fig. 3. The stance triangle (Du Bois, 2007:163)

To use the point of view of the first person, the definition of stance-taking would be as follows: "I evaluate something, thereby position myself, and thereby align with you" (Du Bois, 2007:163). Evaluating, then, necessarily indicates the relation between the speaker and hearer, which, in turn, relates to the ideological and interactional aspect of evaluation.

2.2.3. The APPRAISAL Theory

APPRAISAL has been developed to map evaluation in texts. It is a technical term to describe a set of systems placed within the broad outlines of Systemic Functional Linguistics, henceforth SFL (see, e.g., Halliday, 1976, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004; Martin & White, 2000; Martin & Rose, 2007). SFL is famously at its heart about choices between alternatives at all levels: language is represented as a system of choices, and meaning is construed (i.e., expressed and simultaneously "created") by making one choice out of a set of alternatives. The choices, as well as the system, are socially motivated, which reflects the paradigmatic view of language. One fundamental tenet of the SFL tradition (Figure 4 below) is that it regards language as performing three primary functions called *metafunctions*: construing a world of experience (the ideational metafunction), construing social relations between people (the interpersonal metafunction); and organizing the discourse (the textual metafunction). The discussion of APPRAISAL focuses on interpersonal meaning.

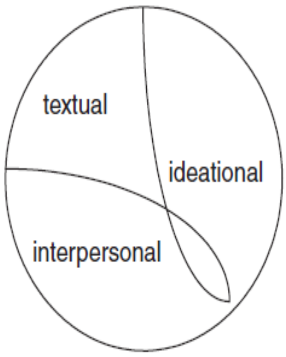


Fig. 4. Metafunctions (Martin & White, 2005:8)

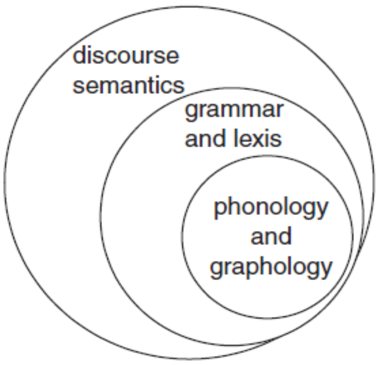


Fig. 5. Language strata (Martin & White, 2005:9)

SFL regards language as a stratified semiotic system which consists of three cycles of coding at different levels of abstraction (Figure 5). The first level of abstraction involves phonology (for spoken language), graphology (for written language), and signing (for the language of deaf people). The second level is referred to as lexicogrammar, which, as Martin & White (2005:9) note, is "realized through" phonological and graphological patterns rather than made up of them. They consider lexicogrammar as a pattern of phonological patterns, in other words, the more abstract level realized by a concrete one. The third level of abstraction is called discourse semantics, which is concerned with "meaning beyond the clause" (Martin & White 2005:9), i.e., with texts, and involves various aspects of discourse organization such as identification, conjunction, ideation, negotiation, and *appraisal* (the evaluative meaning).

APPRAISAL is an important framework for linguists who study evaluative language in that it allows them to investigate emotional, ethical and aesthetic aspects of evaluation, enables them to explore not only one source of evaluation but the play of voices in a text and across a range of texts, and traces the intensity and precision of evaluative meanings. An essential distinction of the APPRAISAL system is *inscribed* and *evoked* appraisal. Inscribed appraisal, or a direct expression of evaluation, is explicitly expressed in the text through the choice of vocabulary (*a bright kid, a vicious kid*), while with evoked appraisal, or a covert instance of evaluation, the evaluative is triggered by 'tokens' of evaluation, i.e. by reference to events or states that are typically approved (*a kid who reads a lot)* or disapproved *(a kid who tears the wings of butterflies*).

Martin & White (2005:34 –35) define APPRAISAL as "one of three major discourse semantic resources construing interpersonal meaning (alongside INVOLVEMENT and NEGOTIATION)". The linguistic resources for expressing appraisal are referred to as *appraisal resources*, and the system is used to "negotiate emotions, judgements, and valuations, alongside resources for amplifying and engaging with these evaluations" (White, 2000:145).

Some alternative frameworks within comparable areas of language include, for example, Labov's work on evaluation and intensity in the narrative (e.g. 1972, 1984), Lakoff's studies on *hedges* (Lakoff, 1973), Biber & Finegan's (1989) studies on *stance* across spoken and written language, later also Conrad & Biber's (2000) study on *stance*, as well as Biber 2006a, Precht 2003, Charles 2003, 2009), Chafe's research into *evidentiality* (e.g. 1986), Channel's investigations into *vague language* (e.g. 1994), Thompson & Hunston's explorations into *evaluation* (2000), and extensive research into what has been traditionally dealt with under the headings of *intensifiers*, *boosters*, *downtoners*, or *amplifier*s (see e.g., Labov 1984, Quirk et al., 1985, Hyland 2000).

The APPRAISAL system is constituted by the three interacting domains: ATTITUDE, ENGAGEMENT and GRADUATION; each has further sub-divisions that cover an extensive network of choices. Figure 6 shows the system in detail.

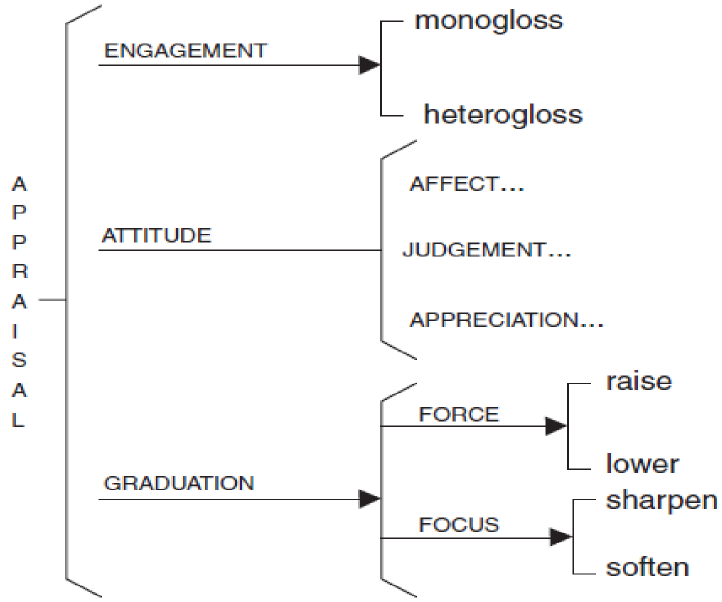


Fig. 6. The APPRAISAL System (Martin &White, 2005:27)

2.2.3.1.ATTITUDE

Central to the appraisal system is ATTITUDE, which involves three semantic regions concerned with emotion (positive and negative emotional responses), ethics (moral evaluations of behavior according to a set of norms), and aesthetics (evaluation of things, natural phenomena, and human individuals, but not human behaviour, according to a set of principles). These are covered by three sub-systems: AFFECT, JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION, respectively. Most simply put, AFFECT, JUDGEMENT, and APPRECIATION all encode feeling. The basic category is AFFECT to which are related more specialized sub-systems of JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION.

It must be pointed out that JUDGEMENt and APPRECIATION are considered institutionalizations or recontextualizations of AFFECT. In other words, according to Martin & White (2005), we may consider JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION as feelings institutionalized as proposals about behavior (some of which are formalized as rules and regulations, for example, these of the church and the state), and as propositions about the value of things (some of which are formalized as grades, prizes, awards, grants and the like). An outline of this orientation to AFFECT is shown in Figure 7.

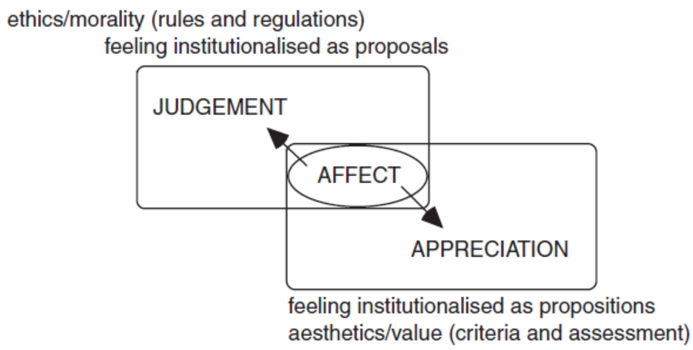


Fig. 7. JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION as institutionalized AFFECT (Martin, 2000:147

Some linguistic realizations of the ATTITUDE systems are illustrated below (examples after Marin & White, 2005).

AFFECT: *I'm happy./ I'm sad./ I love jazz./ She's proud of her achievements.*

JUDGEMENT: *a corrupt politician/ She was brave./ a genius/ a maverick*

APPRECIATION: *a beautiful woman/ a key figure/ convoluted sentences*

Martin & White (2005) sub-divide AFFECT, JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION into a number of different areas of meaning, each of which is further divided. AFFECT groups emotions into three major variables: that of (un)happiness ('affairs of the heart'), that of (in)security (eco-social well-being), and that of (dis) satisfaction (the pursuits of goals). JUDGEMENT falls into two major categories: social esteem (sub-divided into normality, capacity, tenacity) and social sanction (sub-divided into veracity and propriety). These can be positive and negative. JUDGEMENT is illustrated in Table 1.

SOCIAL ESTEEM	**POSITIVE [ADMIRE]**	**NEGATIVE [CRITICIZE]**
normality (custom) ''how special?'	lucky, fortunate, charmed …; normal, natural, familiar …; cool, stable, predictable…; celebrated, unsung, avant garde…	eccentric, odd, maverick…; unlucky, unfortunate…; dated, unfashionable
capacity 'how capable?'	skilled, clever, insightful…; athletic, strong, powerful…; sane, together…	stupid, slow, simple-minded…; clumsy, weak, uncoordinated…; insane, neurotic…
tenacity (resolve) 'how dependable?'	plucky, brave, heroic…; indefatigable, resolute, persevering…	cowardly, rash, despondent…; unreliable, undependable…; distracted, lazy, unfocussed…
SOCIAL SANCTION	**POSITIVE [PRAISE]**	**NEGATIVE [CONDEMN]**
veracity (truth) 'how honest?'	honest, truthful, credible…; authentic, genuine…; frank, direct…	deceitful, dishonest…; bogus, fake, deceptive…; obfuscatory
propriety (ethics) 'how far beyond reproach?'	good, moral, virtuous…; law-abiding, fair, just…; caring, sensitive, considerate…	bad, immoral, lascivious…; corrupt, unjust, unfair…; cruel, mean, brutal, oppressive…

Table 1. JUDGMENT categories: social esteem and social sanction (Martin &White 2005:53)

APPRECIATION is further divided according to three variables: reaction, composition, and valuation, each has a positive and negative dimension. Martin & White (2005) argue that we might think of APPRECIATION in relation to mental processes or metafunctions. *Reaction* is then concerned with affection/ interpersonal significance, *composition* is related to perception/textual organization and *valuation* involve cognition/ideational worth. The categories within APPRECIATION are shown in Table 2.

	Positive	**Negative**
Reaction: impact 'did it grab me?'	arresting, captivating, engaging	dull, boring, tedious
Reaction: quality 'did I like it?'	lovely, beautiful, splendid	plain, ugly, repulsive
Composition: balance 'did it hang together?'	balanced, harmonious, symmetrical	unbalanced, discordant
Composition: complexity 'was it hard to follow?'	simple, elegant, intricate	ornamental, extravagant, simplistic
Valuation 'was it worthwhile?'	challenging, profound, original	shallow, insignificant, conservative

Table 2. APPRECIATION categories (Martin, 2000:160)

One of the defining features of AFFECT, JUDGEMENT and APPRECIATION is their gradability. As far as AFFECT is concerned, gradability manifests itself in greater or lesser degrees of positivity or negativity, for example, *slightly upset/somewhat upset/very upset/ extremely upset.* In JUDGEMENT *good player/quite good player/extremely good player* and *attractive/beautiful/ exquisite* in APPRECIATION. In ENGAGEMENT, gradability is concerned with the up-scaling/down-scaling of values (meanings) to indicate the speaker's or writer's intensity or investment in the utterance, for example, *I suspect she betrayed us – I believe she betrayed us – I am convinced she betrayed us* or *I didn't hurt him – I never hurt him*. Martin &White (2005) observe that the semantics of GRADUATION is central to the APPRAISAL system.

2.2.3.2. GRADUATION

The appraisal system of GRADUATION and ENGAGEMENT has been inspired by Bakhtin's (1981) and Voloshinov's (1995) notions of dialogism and heteroglossia, according to which all verbal communication, whether spoken or written, is "dialogic". Underneath the notion of dialogism lies the belief that speakers or writers engage with hearers or readers by being influenced by and referring to what has been said/written before and simultaneously anticipating what an actual, potential, or imagined hearer or reader might say in response. According to Voloshinov (1995), dialogue transcends the personal, direct and verbal communication between persons, or essentially in any type of verbal communication, in that it can be understood in a much broader sense and scope. For example, a book, which is a verbal performance in print, is also an element of verbal communication. The "printed verbal performance" (Voloshinov, 1995:139) engages with readers by responding to something, anticipating possible reactions and objections, affirming or rejecting something, and so on. Hence, language is not to be considered as an isolated monologic utterance but rather as a "social event of verbal interaction implemented in an utterance or utterances" (Voloshinov, 1995: 139). On a similar note, Bakhtin (1981:281) argues that all utterances exist:

> against a backdrop of other concrete utterances on the same theme, a background made up of contradictory opinions, points of view and value judgements.

Key to the system of GRADUATION and ENGAGEMENT is then the dialogistic perspective, which explores the nature of the relationship between speaker or writer, or hearer and reader, especially the degree to which they acknowledge prior speakers or writers, the ways in which they engage with what has been said or writer before (the 'backdrop' of other utterances), or how they align and dis-align themselves with reference to other speakers or writers and their voices, points of view, and value positions. The primary focus of GRADUATION and ENGAGEMENT is how such positionings are realized linguistically.

The system of GRADUATION provides a framework for describing how speakers and writers adjust the degree of an evaluation by increasing or decreasing the intensity, or force, of their utterance and how they sharpen or soften the strength, or focus, of the semantic categorizations with which they operate. The former is referred to as grading according to the intensity or amount (FORCE), while the latter as grading according to prototypicality (FOCUS); for example, as Hood (2010) notes, the scaling of *important* from *important* to *very important* represents GRADUATION as FORCE (in this case intensifying a quality of *important-ness*), while under FOCUS the value of the categorical boundary of an abstract entity can be sharpened (e.g. *real research*), or softened (*sort of research*). Martin & White (2005: 37) provide the following examples.

FORCE	*so touchy, quite clinical, most dangerous, a little upset, somewhat upset*
FOCUS	*I was feeling kind'v woozy/ a true friend/ a pure folly*

FORCE is further divided into intensification and quantification. Intensification involves qualities, processes and verbal modalities and comprises assessments as to degree of intensity and as to amount. Some examples are: *slightly foolish – extremely foolish* (qualities); *slightly disturbed me – greatly disturbed me* (process); *it's just possible that, it's very possible that* (verbal modalities). The systems under FORCE are illustrated in Figure 8 and Figure 9.

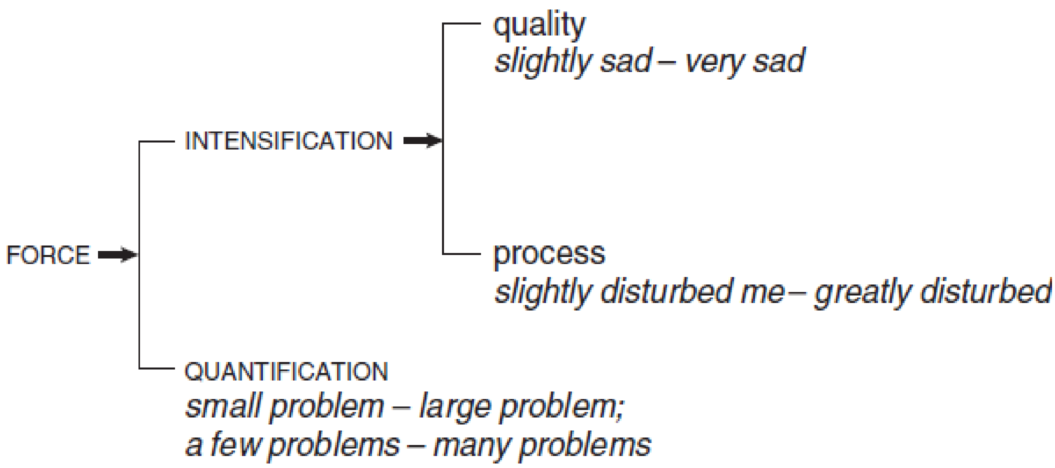


Fig. 8. FORCE: intensification (Martin &White, 2005:141)

Quantification is concerned with entities and involves assessments according to number (e.g. *a few miles, many miles*) and assessments according to size, weight, distribution, or proximity (e.g. *small amount, large amount, nearby mountain,* distant mountain*).*

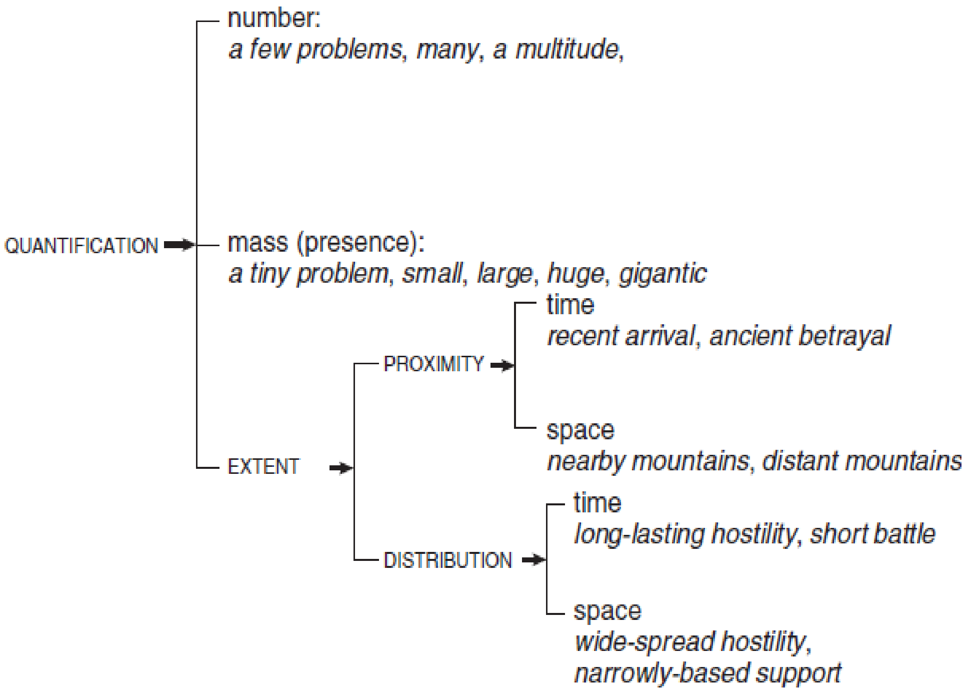


Fig. 9. FORCE: quantification (Martin &White 2005:151)

In contrast to FORCE, FOCUS operates in contexts which are not scalable. Martin & White's (2005:137) examples are:

They don't play ***real*** *jazz.*
They play jazz, ***sort of.***
They're ***kind of*** *crazy.*
*We'll be there at five-o-clock**ish**.*
He's a ***true*** *friend.*

The grading under FOCUS is realized through the semantics of category membership, that is, by adjusting the boundary of the semantic category. In the examples above, Martin & White (2005) argue that the membership in the *jazz music, crazy, five o'clock*, or *friend* category is a matter of degree viewed from the experiential perspective. Under FOCUS it is possible then to up-scale (or sharpen) or down-scale (or soften) a phenomenon by reference to the degree to which it is an exemplary instance of a semantic category (i.e. by construing core and peripheral types of things). If a phenomenon is assessed as prototypical, it is indicated via locutions such as *true*, *genuine*, or *real* as in *a true friend, a real father.* Locutions such as *kind of*, *of sorts, bordering on*, *effectively,* and the suffix *–ish* indicate that a phenomenon is assessed as lying on the outer margins of the category, for instance, *It was an apology of sorts*. Martin & White (2005) argue that if the term graduated under FOCUS is an otherwise non-attitudinal term (e.g. *jazz music, husband, father),* it is often given a positive attitudinal assessment *(real jazz music, a true father).* On the other hand, instances of softening typically indicate a negative assessment (e.g. *jazz of sorts, an apology of sorts)*. Whether or not the attitude is evoked is determined by the semantics of the graduated category. It is worth noting that some scalar categories, i.e., categories typically gradable according to intensity, could also be gradable according to prototypicality. For example:

a ***very*** *red carpet* (intensity)

a piece of ***genuinely*** *red carpet* (prototypicality)

I feel ***very upset*** (AFFECT; intensity)

I'm feeling upset, ***sort of/*** *I'm feeling* ***kind of*** *upset.* (prototypicality)

The last example construes the speaker's feelings as lying on the borderline of *upsetness.* Thus, *upset-ness* is identified as only a marginal or non-prototypical membership in the category.

2.2.3.3. ENGAGEMENT

ENGAGEMENT concerns a set of rhetoric resources with which speakers or writers vary their commitment to their utterances. The resources are dialogistic in that they are means by which speakers and writers represent themselves as engaging in a "dialogue" in, for example, acknowledging, responding, challenging, or rejecting prior utterances from other speakers or writers. In other words, the dialogistic resources, in various ways, help speakers or writers construe a backdrop of prior utterances, anticipated responses, or alternative points of view. Key resources in ENGAGEMENT are sub-divided into heteroglossic (multi-voiced) options and monoglossic (single-voiced) discourse. The examples are shown in Table 3.

Monoglossic	**Heteroglossic**
The banks have been greedy.	*There is argument through that the banks have been greedy.* *In my view, the banks have been greedy.* *Everyone knows the banks have been greedy.* *The banks haven't been greedy.*

Table 3. The monoglossic and the heteroglossic (Martin & White 2005:100)

The various meanings within the heteroglossic discourse of ENGAGEMENT are grouped under the headings of *Disclaim* (deny, counter), *Proclaim* (concur, pronounce, endorse,) *Entertain*, and *Attribute* (acknowledge, distance). The system is illustrated in Figure 10.

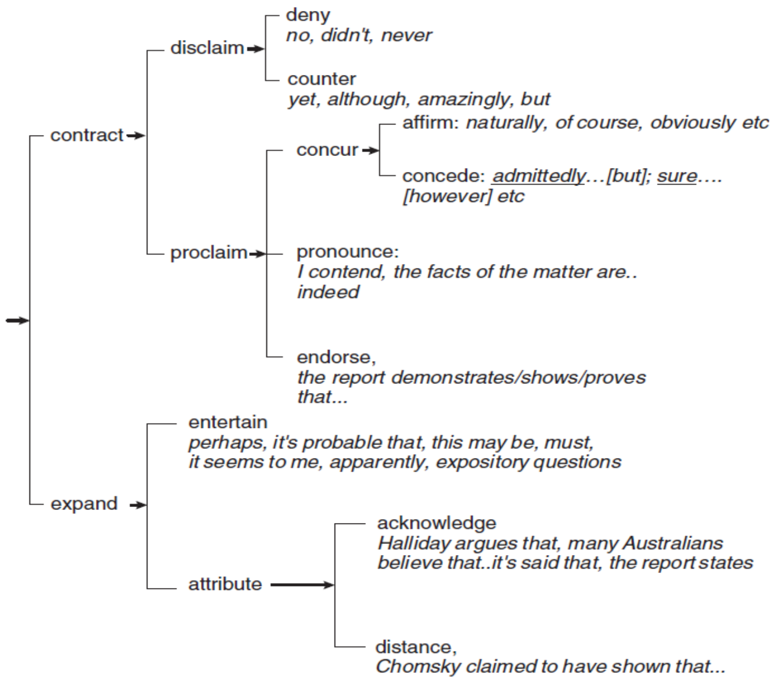


Fig. 10. The ENGAGEMENT system (Martin &White, 2005:134)

2.2.3.4.The APPRAISAL system in research

To sum up, APPRAISAL must be seen within broad outlines of the SFL tradition from which it has evolved and of which it is a vital part. As pointed out by Bednarek (2006), for analysts who are not well familiar with the theory, it might not be easily accessible. Nevertheless, as Thompson & Hunston (2000) argue, APPRAISAL proves that what appears to be a highly diverse group of lexical items can be, in fact, systematically organized. The comprehensive multilayered APPRAISAL framework is. Therefore, the only highly detailed and elaborate system of evaluative meanings and its vital contribution to the study of evaluation can hardly be overlooked. What APPRAISAL shows is the importance of context, the interpersonal character of evaluation and the central role it plays in communication. Most crucially, however, it gives a sense of how expansive the notion of evaluative language may be.

The system of APPRAISAL has been implemented and/or modified in a number of corpus-based studies as well as in-depth textual analyses, some of which are briefly outlined here. For example, Bednarek (2004) focuses her interest on evaluation in media discourse, creating her own parameter-based framework of evaluation developed as an alternative to the traditional appraisal system. She combines her approach with the concept of attribution and averral (Hunston 2000), and some aspects of evidentiality (Chafe, 1986). In her later work, Bednarek (2009) presents a modified version of the appraisal system with a view to investigating emotion terms and their patterns in a set of four registers (conversation, news reportage, fiction, and academic discourse). Her corpus-based study of appraisal is performed in a theory-neutral fashion that is outside of the SFL tradition. Bednarek (2009) effectively joins two perspectives, that of corpus linguistics and that of cognitive linguistics, and shows how the appraisal framework maps emotion across a corpus of texts. She is particularly interested in the systems of ATTITUDE and suggests that AFFECT should be further divided into OVERT AFFECT and COVERT AFFECT to provide a better framework for interpreting emotion talk in naturally occurring discourse.

Hood (2010) draws on the APPRAISAL theory to explore how evaluative language works in academic writing. She focuses on RA introductions in English across a range of disciplines to further develop FORCE and FOCUS, the resources of which enable academic writers to “flag” an attitudinal interpretation rather than state it openly when evaluating other research. According to Hood (2010:131), GRADUATION functions to ‘subjectify an objective meaning’. On the other hand, more explicit evaluation is used when referring to the object of study. Hood’s observations are particularly important in the context of academic writing, which, at least on the surface, appears to be an objective and de-personalized representation of knowledge.

The primary contribution of the study undertaken by Macken-Horarik & Issac (2014) in the context of literary stylistics poses three critical challenges to the APPRAISAL theory. The first issue concerns the need to analyze both implicit and explicit instances of evaluation in order to understand how they position readers of narratives. The second challenge is concerned with the different orders of evaluative choices in narrative texts – those realized *within* a text but also those made *by* the text. Closely related to that is the issue of whether to code evaluation locally or globally. The third point relates to the culture and institution-specific nature of evaluation and how it influences the evaluative choices within the appraisal system. According to Macken-Horarik & Issac (2014), the contextual nature of evaluation makes it necessary to extend the existing appraisal system in order to include those culture-related choices which are relevant.

Apart from the above mentioned, there is a large body of research making use of the appraisal framework or its modifications across a variety of discourses (see, e.g., Coffin & O'Halloran, 2006; Hood, 2006, Hood & Martin, 2007; 2012; Martin 2000; Martin & Rose, 2007; Derewianka, 2009; Swain, 2007; Oteiza & Pinuer, 2013; Painter et al., 2013, Oliver, 2015; Sheldon, 2018).

2.2.4. Metadiscourse

A prominent approach to investigating evaluation in written language is that of *metadiscourse* based on Hyland's framework (e.g., Hyland & Tse, 2004; Hyland, 2007). Metadiscourse takes as its focus the three-way relationship between the text, the reader, and the writer: it organizes the content of the text, engages with readers, and signals the writer's attitude to the imagined reader of the text as well as to the text itself (Hyland, 2007). The concept has made a worthy contribution to the study of evaluation in the context of academic and professional writing. It draws attention to the fact that academic writers set out not only to produce academic texts to represent their area of expertise plausibly but also to effectively represent themselves and engage with their readers on a social level. Intimately bound with the issue of interaction is the need to pre-empt the reader's potential objections to the new knowledge claims proposed by the writer and anticipate the reader's positions and assumptions to respond accordingly. Hyland (2005) is of the view that the essence of metadiscourse is communication, which goes well beyond the exchange of information, goods, or services. It effectively embodies the people who are taking the communicative task, their relationship to the message, as well as their personalities, attitudes, and opinions. Hyland (2005:3) argues that "language is always a consequence of interaction", and it is with the metadiscourse resources that writers actively create interactions or socially engage with readers in a particular context.

Studies on metadiscourse date back to the late 1950s when the term *metadiscourse* was coined by Harris (1959) to provide hearers or readers with guidance on how to understand the language in use. The concept was further developed in the mid-1980s by Williams (1981), Vande Kopple (1985), and Crismore & Farnsworth (1989, 1990). The latter discovered the ubiquity of metadiscourse, which revealed its presence in written expression dating from as early as antiquity through the Middle Ages to modern times. Metadiscourse was also found in various discourses, for example, in poetry, science, and biography, all of which bear little to no resemblance to one another. Indeed, metadiscourse has proved to be an essential concept and a powerful analytical tool in a wide range of research studies across different genres in the last three decades (see, e.g., Swales, 1990; Hyland, 2004; Mauranen, 2011), but there has been little consensus as to how exactly it is defined, categorized, and analyzed (Hyland, 2017).

Hyland & Tse (2004:157) define metadiscourse as "the linguistic resources used to organize a discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader". Drawing on Thompson (2001:158), they distinguish between *interactive resources* that "set out an argument to explicitly establish the writer's preferred interpretations" and *interactional resources* that "involve readers in the argument by alerting them to the author's perspective towards both propositional information and readers themselves". A model of metadiscourse in academic texts is presented in Table 4.

Category	**Function**	**Examples**
Interactive resources		
Transitions	express semantic relations between main clauses	*in addition/but/thus/and*
ame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences, or text stages	*finally/to conclude*
Endophoric markers	refer to information to other parts of the text	*noted above/see Fig*
Evidential	refer to source of information from other texts	*according to X/ Z states*
Code glosses	help readers grasp meaning of ideational material	*namely, e.g., such as*
Interactional resources		
Hedges	withhold writer's full commitment to proposition	*might/perhaps/possible/about*
Boosters	emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition	*in fact/definitely/it is clear that*
Attitude markers	express writer's attitude to proposition	*unfortunately/surprisingly*
Engagement markers	explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader	*consider/note/you can see that*
Self-mentions	explicit reference to author(s)	*I/we/my/our*

Table 4. A model of metadiscourse in academic texts (Hyland & Tse 2004:169)

Metadiscourse, frequently referred to as “writing about writing” (Williams, 1981:40) or “discourse about discourse” (Hyland, 2007:1), prioritizes the interaction between writer and reader through their use of language and is primarily, but not exclusively, concerned with English written registers, in particular, academic texts. Patterns of metadiscourse have been extensively used in academic book reviews, research articles, undergraduate theses, postgraduate dissertations, and university textbooks. For example, Hyland (2007) compares and contrasts selected metadiscourse resources in research articles and textbooks to observe noticeable variation across the two genres. He argues that hedges such as *possible*, *might* and *likely* are more frequent in the corpus of research articles than in academic textbooks. This has to do with the nature of the two academic productions.

In contrast to academic textbooks, research article writers are typically more sensitive to the limitations of their study, and so they tend to exercise greater caution in presenting their arguments as absolute truths. Similarly, the use of the first person pronoun is greater in research articles as writers want to make a name for themselves within the academic community. This stands in stark contrast to the relatively anonymous character of academic textbooks, whose primary goal is to familiarize novice students and researchers with the new material.

According to Hyland (2017), most recent studies on metadiscourse focus predominantly on academic registers, especially on research articles introductions and abstracts. For example, Gillaerts & Velde (2010) investigate interactional metadiscourse in research article abstracts, while Salek (2014) focuses on parts of native English research articles. What follows from the study is the observation that the rate of interactional discourse is more significant in abstracts, discussions and conclusions than in other sections. Gillaerts (2014) examines research article abstracts and observes an increase in boosters and attitude markers, while Li & Wharton (2012) investigate metadiscourse in academic essays of L1 Mandarin undergraduates. Junqueira & Cortes (2014) analyze metadiscourse in book reviews in Brazilian Portuguese and English from three disciplines and conclude that the Brazilian Portuguese corpus has less internal difference across the three registers than the English one. Crosthwaite et al. (2017) are interested in hedging, boosting, and self-mention in dentistry research reports by learners and experts and observe that expert writers used a narrower set of linguistic devices than student writers. Jiang & Hyland (2017) look at metadiscursive nouns such as *fact*, *analysis,* and *belief* in 240 research article abstracts from six disciplines. Changes in the use of evaluative *that* construction over three periods of time, 1965, 1985 and 2015, are the focus of Hyland & Jiang’s (2018) study, in which they observe a significant increase in the use of interactive resources and a significant decrease in the use of interactional resources.

Other genres that attract attention include essays and textbooks, with comparative analyses across various disciplines dominating the literature. Bal-Gezegin & Baş (2020) analyze metadiscourse markers in research articles and book reviews. Outside academic settings, metadiscourse is analyzed in news media and business communication (e.g., Vergaro, 2005; Vasquez, 2015).

Although an overwhelming majority of metadiscourse research focuses on written academic registers, studies on spoken academic discourse are gaining ground. For example, Ädel (2012) analyzes how the second person *you* functions in orienting the audience in lectures; Agnes (2012) examines metadiscourse in students' course presentations, and Mauranen (2011) investigates the use of metadiscourse patterns in student academic discussion by lingua franca speakers of English. In languages other than English, metadiscourse is frequently analyzed in Persian, Chinese, and Spanish (e.g., Hu & Cao, 2011; Mur Dueñas, 2011; Salas, 2015) and in a number of comparative studies (e.g., Ädel, 2006; Shokouhi & Baghsiahi, 2009; Hong & Cao, 2014).

2.2.5. Voice

In contrast to *APPRAISAL*, *metadiscourse* and *stance*, *voice* does not have a unified analytical framework, nor is it systematically organized into elaborate structures. The concept has gained greater currency in the last two decades and is most prominently associated with Matsuda, Tardy, and colleagues, whose analyses are mainly concerned with academic discourse, often concerning authorial identity and self-representation (see, e.g., Matsuda, 2001; Matsuda & Tardy, 2007; Tardy & Matsuda, 2009; Tardy, 2012; Matsuda & Jeffery, 2012). Other studies on voice construction in academic writing include, for instance, Prior (2001), Gea-Valor (2010), Jeffery (2010), Fløttum et al. (2006), Fløttum (2012), Lorés-Sanz (2012), Hyland & Guinda (2012), or Bondi (2012, 2014).

The concept of voice has appeared under the headings of "personal stamp" (Elbow, 1994), "signature" (Martin & White, 2005), or "idiolect" (Coulthard, 2008). The most recent work on *voice* comes from Hyland & Guinda's (2012) edited anthology *Stance and Voice in Written Academic Genres*, which sees voice as the pressing issue in contemporary written academic texts. *Voice* has been regarded therein as a "key marker of individuality and as an ideological expression of Western cultural hegemony" (Guinda & Hyland, 2012:1) and is intimately interlinked with the notion of *stance*, although it constitutes a much broader theme. Bondi (2012) argues that stance-taking is a chief element in the writer's voice, not only from an individual viewpoint but also from the cultural and domain- and genre-related perspective.

The many interpretations of *voice* centre around the writer's or reader's role in revealing authorial identity through the written text, making the concept an altogether challenging and slippery matter for those who wish to explore it. Studies into averral and attribution (see, e.g., Hunston & Sinclair, 2000) and stance and engagement (e.g., Bondi, 1999; Biber, 2006; Hyland, 2005a) offer an interesting vantage point for understanding how reader's identification and interpretation bring voice into existence.

Generally equated with authorial visibility or presence in the text, *voice* is often conceptualized as *effect*, *role*, and *empowering tool*, all of which are interrelated with one another (Guinda & Hyland, 2012). Some authors are of the view that *voice* is an impression which must be ascertained by the reader and depends on the reader's ability to decode it (e.g., Matsuda, 2012; Thompson, 2012; Silver, 2012). Matsuda (2001:40) defines voice as:

> the amalgamative effect of the use of discursive and non-discursive features that language users choose, deliberately or otherwise, from socially available yet ever-changing repertoires.

This view underlines the interaction between writer and reader, prioritizing the prominent role of the latter. Other researchers regard *voice* primarily through the lens of its role undertaken by the writer in discourse, genre, and discipline (Bondi, 2012; Hood, 2012). Finally, *voice* has come to be seen as a persuasive device empowering the writer to claim identity and recognition in the academic community (Hyland, 2012; Tse, 2012; Guinda, 2012).

According to Tardy (2012), there are three broad dimensions of *voice,* and these are *individual aspects*, *social aspects*, and *voice a dialogic*. The individual aspect of voice is often associated with authenticity and authorial presence within a text so that it could be thought of as the property of the writer. As noted by Jeffery (2010), teachers often associate voice with six language features: *literary* (e.g. figurative language), *rhetorical* (e.g. anecdote, rhetorical questions), *evaluative* (e.g. emotional language, point of view, reflection, stance, and tone), *adolescent* (e.g. cliché and hyperbole), and *global* (clarity, repetition, complexity). Hence, the individual aspect of voice overlaps with the attitudinal and propositional dimensions of *evaluation*.

Regarding the social aspects of voice, there are clear resonances here with the notion of *heteroglossia,* which is central to understanding the interplay of voices in the text. The social voice is not the property of the author but rather the ultimate result of the social worlds to which the text and the writer are linked. It follows that a text is created in a social context and carries multiple voices, not only those of the author but also those of the readers and their social communities. These voices blend intentionally and unintentionally as the text is brought into existence. The multiplicity of voice is noticed by Bakhtin (1981:294), for whom language is:

> not a neutral medium that passes freely and easily into the private property of the speaker's intentions; it is populated – overpopulated – with the intentions of others.

It is worth noting that the nature of voice is not entirely controlled by the writer nor determined by the social worlds within which the writer exists and writes, but rather a result and combination of both. Prior (2001) and Tardy (2012) note that conceptualizing voice as a dialogue takes us well beyond the writer and social context in that it draws attention to how the writer and reader interact. The role of the reader, who is instrumental in identifying and interpreting voice, is well seen in Elbow (1994:336), who notes that "voice in a piece of writing is always a matter of interpretation". Elbow's observation is particularly valuable as much of his discussion of voice focuses on a personal element in writer-reader communication. The reader's importance in co-constructing voice within a social setting is also evident in Burgess & Ivanovič (2010).

In the context of academic discourse, two influential studies on voice belong to Matsuda & Tardy (2007) and Tardy & Matsuda (2009), who take a reader-based approach to investigate voice construction in the blind peer review, an essential activity in the work of academics. The 2007 case study involves three participants: the anonymous writer of the manuscript and two experienced reviewers with whom Matsuda and Tardy held two interviews (the first immediately after the review and another close to a month later). The ethnographic approach to researching voice is of particular importance therein as it enables the researchers to credibly track down the reviewers' impressions of the anonymous manuscript's author and gather additional details and comments where necessary. The 2009 work is similar in concept but greater in scope. In it, Tardy and Matsuda adopt a survey methodology to investigate reviewers' impressions of authorial voice in manuscripts.

Similarly to the previous study, the reviewers make guesses about the author's identity in relation to, for example, experience in the field, age, gender, language, ethnic background, nationality, institutional affiliation and level of education. The overall findings suggest that the majority of readers do form impressions of the aspects of the author's identity when reading an anonymous text. However, such an observation must be heavily caveated. As Tardy (2012) points out, the impressions are not universal and unlikely to be static across *readers* or *tasks* (italics mine). While in both studies, there are some similarities to register and take note of, a couple of striking differences come to the surface, too. For example, an aspect (or a parameter) of "experience in the field" was equally considered by the two reviewers in the 2007 case study and a vast majority of respondents in the 2009 survey. It appears, then, that professional experience is a particularly significant feature regarding the blind peer review process. Tardy (2012) argues that this is also a telling example because while other researchers note the role of *genre* in voice construction, few consider *activity* or *task.* Regarding differences, *some* readers tend to focus on *some* aspects of author identity (again, italics mine); for example, assumptions on background, nationality or ethnicity of the writers come up in the survey but are not regarded as relevant to the 2007 study.

Although the two studies are not without limitations (they look at *voice* in a single genre and a single activity), they have offered interesting insights into the process of voice construction in the academic context, which may effectively reflect the ideological positions of the writer and reader. What has been shown is that *voice* is closely related to the knowledge that members of the disciplinary community share and is critical to the reception of academic texts.

2.3. Defining *evaluation*

For Thompson & Hunston (2000:6), *evaluation* is a concept unifying and integrating the attitudinal and propositional dimensions, and it is defined as:

> The broad cover term for the expression of the speaker or writer's attitude or stance towards, viewpoint on, or feelings about the entities or propositions that he or she is talking about. The attitude may relate to certainty or obligation or desirability or any of a number of other sets of values.

The above definition serves as a springboard for further considerations on evaluation in academic discourse, treating *sets of values* as a foundation for the parameter-based analysis of evaluative language in the corpus of academic book reviews undertaken in Part Two of this thesis. Drawing on Thompson & Hunston (2000), the section is concerned how evaluation is realized in language. First, the three-fold function of evaluation is outlined, and then the section moves on to identifying evaluation in lexis and syntax, providing the foundation for what follows in the next chapters.

2.3.1. Functions of evaluation

Evaluation is identified at a functional level and realized by a wide range of lexical or grammatical choices or both. It is vital to note that a single instance of evaluation can perform one or, two or three functions at a time. Therefore, the functions are not mutually exclusive. As noted by Thompson & Hunston (2000:6), the functions of evaluation are:

(1) To express the speaker's or writer's opinion, and in doing so, to reflect the value system of that person and their community;
(2) to construct and maintain relations between the speaker or writer and the hearer or reader;
(3) to organize the discourse.

One of the most obvious functions of evaluation is *to evaluate*, that is, to express opinion. As mentioned earlier, evaluation is closely bound up with ideology, which is revealed and reinforced by the act of evaluation. Therefore, to learn what the writer thinks or feels about something is to know the value system of the society from which the text originates. The ideology is often the reflection of a smaller community rather than a whole society. One example could be a group of academic discourse researchers who critically examine the value of academic work. It follows that an academic paper is best understood and assessed by fellow academics with formal qualifications and expertise in a given field of study rather than a group of uninitiated others. Evaluation establishes and maintains relations between the writer and reader, in particular by assuming shared values or, attitudes or reactions to what is communicated by the writer. This has been studied in reference to three areas: manipulation, hedging, and politeness (see, e.g. Lakoff, 1972; Holmes, 1984; Francis, 1994; Hyland, 1996, 1998; Hoey, 2000).

Readers are often manipulated into sharing a particular point of view or accepting certain evaluations as given. It is usually achieved by a skillful choice of words and a careful arrangement of sentences. For example, suppose the writer chooses to describe something as a "problem", "disaster" or "mistake". In that case, the reader will likely accept such a description without questioning the validity of it. Also, the reader's acceptance of certain evaluations is taken for granted when evaluation is not the main point of the clause (Hoey, 2000). If some information in the clause is already presented evaluatively, as in *the pomposity of the politics and media* (Thompson & Hunston 2000:9), it is highly unlikely for the reader to dispute it but rather take it as a valid and truthful point and follow the writer's description. As pointed out by Bednarek (2006), such manipulative techniques are particularly evident in the media discourse, especially in the tabloid press. Trajkova's (2019) study focuses on persuasive strategies in journalistic texts and argues that news media are guilty of manipulating the audience to achieve a particular political objective. More broadly, discourse and manipulation are addressed by van Dijk (2006).

Interestingly. Francis (1994) notes that so-called "discourse labels" could also be successfully used to manipulate the reader. The role of the discourse labels is usually that of summarizing previous text (*these words, this question),* but they may also be used to evaluate (*this nonsense, this claim*), in which case it is highly probable that the reader will accept them as a truthful evaluation. If that happens, whatever comes in the subsequent sentence is very likely to be accepted, too. Thompson & Hunston (2000) argue that the more implicit the evaluation, the higher the likelihood of successful manipulation. It is particularly true of conjuncts *and* and *but,* and subordinators *because* and *although*, all of which may express covert evaluation. In short, conjuncts and subordinators such as these above can sign specific connections between various parts of a text, be it written or spoken (see also Thompson & Zhou, 2000). In so doing, they form a dialogue between the writer and reader but may also manipulate the latter into accepting certain evaluations without questioning their validity. The use of conjuncts and subordinators is perhaps one of the scarce examples where evaluation takes the reader unawares.

To illustrate what manipulation may look like, let us consider the sentence from the *Guardian* that describes a road accident caused by a woman who committed suicide by running into traffic. The sentence is reprinted here after Thompson & Hunston (2000:9):

> In the statement read to the inquest, the coach driver … said he had something in the middle lane directly in front of him *but* could not do anything *because* he had a coach full of passengers.

At first glance, this sentence gives a neutral description of what must have been a tragic road accident, but a closer inspection reveals that it is not as innocent as it appears to be. It turns out that the accident is reported in a way that sufficiently imposes an interpretation of what happened on the road and who might be held into account for it. The use of *but* and *because* allows for the inference to be clear: the reader is positioned to sympathize with the coach driver and regard him as a sensible person regardless of what happened because of his not taking action. The conjunct *but* means "against expectation", i.e., the natural expectation to avoid something on the road and prevent hitting the woman. The subordinator *because* gives a good reason for not doing so: the driver did not wish to harm many people on the coach. Therefore, a pithy sentence as the one above allows, in fact, for a generous interpretation: the reader and the driver share the same values in not wanting to harm someone on the road and wishing to avoid putting other passengers' lives at risk.

The relationship between the writer and reader goes beyond the information given in what is written; it also exists in terms of the text itself. In other words, the writer informs the reader not only what they wish to share in the text but also how the text is structured and organized in a way that conveys the message and maintains the interaction with the audience. Therefore, the text itself stands as a testament to the relationship between the writer and the reader. For example, as Thompson and Hunston (2000) note, in a situation where a mother writes a letter to her daughter, there are two kinds of relationships: that between a mother and her child and that between discourse-producer (mother) and discourse-recipient (daughter).

Sinclair (1987) argues that both written and spoken expressions of evaluation occur at boundary points in discourse, which lends itself to organizing and monitoring the interaction between the writer and reader (or speaker and hearer). In dialogue, the monitoring function could be observed in a variety of short replies such as *Yes*, *That's right* (or more vague *Yeah*, *Mm mm*, *Sure*) to show that what has been said is accepted and not challenged. In a monologue, especially a written one, evaluation is found at the end of a paragraph to recapitulate what has been written and get the reader to accept the writer's commentary.

As far as monologic narrative is concerned, evaluation is said to indicate its significance (i.e. the *point* in Labov's terms). According to Labov (1972), the worst-case scenario in a story-telling situation is when the hearer asks, ‘So what?’, which means the *point* of the story remains unclear or poorly comprehended. Evaluation helps indicate which parts of the story are worth paying attention to so that the author may act preemptively to avoid the “So what?” question. However, it must be pointed out that Labov's use of evaluation is a more specialized term and thus slightly different than that of Thompson & Hunston (2000) in that it refers only to the textual patterns in analyses of narrative structure. Although evaluation in this sense overlaps to some degree with the notion of *evaluation*, the issue of the narrative structures will not be further elaborated as it is not the main concern of this thesis.

2.4. Identifying evaluation in lexis

Although the question of how to recognize evaluation may seem straightforward at first glance, answering it poses a difficulty. Even a modest attempt at so doing opens up a broad spectrum of both conceptual and linguistic reflections on the matter. Thompson & Hunston (2000) argue that from the conceptual point of view, evaluation is said to be comparative, subjective, and value-laden, and so identifying evaluation involves looking for signals of comparison, subjectivity, and social value. This, in turn, inevitably consists of looking at a wide range of lexical and grammatical structures through which evaluation is realized. If the evaluation of entities and propositions is to be treated equally or, at least, with equal interest, which is the core of the "combing approach" undertaken by Thompson & Hunston (2000) and adopted in this thesis, both grammar and lexis are taken as one organism, rather than as two separate spheres of language. As the present chapter unfolds, it should become clear that lexis and grammar are inseparably connected. The identification and analysis of evaluative meanings must be, then, looking equally at both lexical and grammatical features of the source material. While it is true that evaluative meanings are most frequently found in adjectives and adverbs, this is not to say that all adjectives and adverbs imply evaluation or that all instances of evaluation are identified in this way. Evaluation is also realized by a range of nouns and verbs, and, in many cases, it tends to be concealed and negative. Let us take a more detailed look at the lexical items which are said to indicate evaluation. This section focuses on some most common lexical and grammar links to evaluation.

It is interesting to look at adjectives in terms of their behavior in language and consider how this behavior relates to evaluation. Hunston & Sinclair (2000) argue that some features of behavior are associated with particular kinds of meaning, and some of these meanings are in turn, associated with evaluation. However, the relationship between the adjective and evaluative meaning is not one-to-one. Some features of adjectives and their relation to evaluativeness (affixes, gradedness, position, and complementation patterns) are briefly discussed below.

Some affixes frequently come together with evaluative adjectives. For example, the prefixes *hyper-, ill-, mal-, once-, over-, and well-* as in *hyperactive, ill-advised, maladjusted, once-famous, over-confident, well-adjusted* are said to indicate evaluation. The same is true of the suffixes such as *-ant, -off, -some, -stricken*, or *-worthy*, as in *arrogant, badly-off, famine-stricken, trustworthy*. Some affixes are often, but not always, associated with evaluation, and these will be presented in pairs, in which the former indicates evaluation and the latter does not. Some examples are: *-ary (extraordinary, auxiliary), -ful (beautiful, lawful),-ish (amateurish, feverish), -less (flawless, childless), super- (superhuman, supersonic) -ly (costly, earthly), un- (unacceptable, unpainted)*, etc.

One feature of an adjective with comparative and superlative forms is that it can be used with a grading adverb such as *rather, more, most, fairly, so, too* or *very*. If an adjective is graded, it is likely to be evaluative, too. However, it is not always the case, for example, *fairly interesting* is evaluative, while *fairly tall* is not. Hunston & Sinclair (2000) argue that gradedness indicates comparison, and comparison is associated with subjectivity which is, in turn, one of the contributors to evaluative meaning (see also Labov, 1972). When an adjective has two meanings and is graded in one meaning, but ungraded in its second meaning, the graded sense is often evaluative. For example, *original* is ungraded and thus non-evaluative as in *The original building was destroyed in Great Fire*, but graded and evaluative in another sense *The most original film in years.* As noted by Francis et al. (1998), graded adjectives are also found in several grammar patterns.

Adjectives typically occur in the attributive position or the predicative position. There are adjectives which almost always or otherwise very often occur in one position or the other, for example, *an <u>electric</u> fire; the boy was <u>asleep</u>*. Since evaluation is a matter of judgement (an extrinsic quality), evaluative adjectives usually come before other adjectives in the case when a noun is pre-modified, as in *<u>beautiful</u> white-scented blooms*. Non-evaluative adjectives occur in the attributive position, while evaluative adjectives occur in both: *one of the most <u>original</u> works*; *this is all true but not very <u>original</u>*.

According to Hunston & Sinclair (2000:95), many adjectives are often or always used with a complementation pattern. For example, the adjective *afraid* has four complementation patterns:

(1) prepositional phrase beginning with *of*, for example, *He was not afraid of death*;
(2) prepositional phrase beginning with *for,* for example, *I'm afraid for her;*
(3) that-clause, for example, *Everyone was afraid that he would kill himself;*
(4) to-infinitive clause, for example, *His son isn't afraid to speak up*.

Francis et al. (1998) note that the adjectives with complementation patterns usually indicate either subjective judgement or what someone feels, which means they are evaluative. As Hunston & Sinclair (2000) observe, it is evaluative adjectives that have complementation patterns, e.g., adjectives followed by a prepositional phrase beginning with *for* indicate how someone feels about a situation *(afraid, sorry),* that someone or something is judged (in)appropriate or (un)ready *(adequate, suitable, inappropriate, necessary),* or they indicate fame or notoriety *(famous, infamous).*

Evaluative meaning is also identified by a broad range of nouns and verbs, some of which are clearly evaluative, which means that evaluation is their primary function and meaning. For example*, success, failure, triumph, doubt, win,* or *lose,* whether written or spoken, are readily identified as expressing positive or negative evaluation. However, this is not to say that all lexical items are equally clear in meaning. Sometimes, the meaning is open to debate and difficult to ascertain through intuition or introspection only. For example, Thompson & Hunston (2000) argue that the interpretation of the nouns in two simple clauses, such as *Jane is a genius* and *Jane is a student* opens up a path to a couple of interpretations, each of which reflects an interesting (but different) point of view of the person who is making a judgement. The confusion originates from differentiating value-laden (evaluative) from value-free (non-evaluative) items, which appears to be relatively easy only at first glance. At the same time, it may be generally agreed that *genius* in the second clause is a positive instance of evaluation and a representation of a socially valued quality (one may hazard a guess that a genius is generally held is high regard in a society), *student* is more open to discussion and debate. In one sense, it could be taken as a value-free lexical item with a purely descriptive function. In another, it could be an instance of a positive evaluation expressed by someone with first-hand knowledge of the university experience, which is typically associated with hard work and diligence. Yet another interpretation of *student*, however, may produce a negative evaluation which originates from either personal experiences or the opinion about university students in general. It follows that a student may well be associated not with hard work or intelligence but with laziness, procrastination, lack of hygiene, or substance use.

Considerations such as these show that evaluation is not easily obtainable through intuition or introspection, mainly because personal connotations will likely differ from one language user to another. This view is emphasized by Stubbs (2002:198), who argues that words tend to have different personal associations. For instance, one person associates *cat* with being aloof and faithless, while for the other person, she is "small and fluffy". A more foolproof technique for recognizing evaluation is offered by a range of corpus linguistics techniques, particularly the analysis of concordance lines, which lends itself remarkably well to the identification of evaluative meaning and making new discoveries about language. In general, the affordances of contemporary technologies in corpus linguistics are conducive to our understanding of language and meaning synchronically and diachronically.

Returning for a moment to the student and genius pair, upon examination of a corpus of language data, Thompson & Hunston (2000) note that the lines for *genius* reveal overwhelmingly positive evaluation, none of which is the case as far as *student* is concerned. The evidence suggests that the noun *genius* is associated predominantly with positive lexis, which suggests that it is inherently evaluative, rendering the whole clause *Jane is a genius* evaluative, too. However, as Thompson & Hunston (2000) observe, it is still possible to use *a student* to indicate a negative evaluation, for example, in a short conversation they mentioned. One speaker, upon being asked who a particular person was, replied with *He's <u>just</u> a student at* *the University,* where *a student* was associated with negative evaluation. Interestingly, evaluation was not signalled by *student,* but by the comparator *just.* The evaluative role of *only, just, simply* and *merely* has also been investigated by Charles (2009) in her study on restrictive adverbs as stance adverbials.

It is very often the case that a lexical item reveals more information than evaluation only, and thus, its interpretation is more open to question and debate. It holds particularly true for nouns and verbs but is by no means limited to them. Put succinctly, some lexical items suggest approval or disapproval apart from the basic meaning they indicate. Some words are often taken to be synonymous because they are said to carry the same information. In fact, they suggest a different attitude on the part of the speaker or writer. As noted by Francis et al. (1996:198), there are verbs followed by the preposition *in* that have the meaning of "being involved in something or taking part in an activity" and reflect different evaluative values. These verbs are *assist, engage, meddle, participate, collude, interfere, join,* or *collaborate,* for example. Not only do they indicate a different evaluation, but also a different point of view of the people involved in a particular activity. This observation is particularly evident as far *assist in* is concerned, which can be used to evaluate somebody's involvement both positively and negatively, depending on whose point of view is taken into consideration. For example, as Thompson & Hunston (2000) note, assisting in a bank robbery is viewed negatively from the point of view of the bank staff, while it is evaluated positively from the point of view of the other robbers who take part in a robbery. The involvement is considered to be negative in the case of *interfere* or *meddle*, but only from the point of view of the people involved in an activity, i.e., a person who interferes may not consider their interfering to be necessarily negative, yet the person who is interfered with does. More neutral in meaning are *engage, collaborate* or *join,* which do not imply whether the participation is seen as good or bad. They make a strong contrast with *collude* which always indicates a negative evaluation of the activity as well as the involvement; for example, *collude in a fraud, collude in a scheme,* or *collude with the Mafia* are all negative evaluations of something dishonest, criminal, or morally wrong.

Thompson & Hunston (2000) argue that a shift in attitude is also generally observed in verbs such as *abstain, forbear,* or *refrain (from doing something),* all of which indicate that the absence of action is evaluated positively, e.g., not drinking alcohol or nor using drugs is generally approved in society. A reverse situation can be noticed in the case of *flinch, retreat,* and *shrink,* which show a negative attitude. For example, to *retreat* to some place is to hide from danger or avoid harm. It is worth noting that very often, two words carry the same information but indicate a different attitude; for example, *rebels* and *malcontents* both describe people who oppose the system, but only the latter indicates disapproval. Sometimes not only the attitude, but also the evaluative force is something that plays a role in the interpretation of a particular lexical item. For example, as the authors observe, there are a number of nouns describing the action of taking someone's life, such as *execution, assassination, killing, murder*, and *slaughter*. Thinking retrospectively about how these words are regularly used, it is relatively easy to notice that all of them differ in terms of their evaluative force. In other words, the sense of moral outrage is greater in the case *of murder* or *slaughter* than in the case of *execution* or *killing.*

All of these examples come to suggest that the association between a lexical item and evaluation is much more complex than it may appear and, as already mentioned, is not reliably retrieved by intuition. While it is possible to study evaluative language without corpora, it is corpus analyses that have provided novel insights into the nature of evaluation and the mechanisms behind language comprehension and production. A corpus of naturally occurring language investigates some pre-supposed assumptions about certain lexical items, creates room for discoveries, and reveals patterns that otherwise may have remained undetected or unaccounted for. The immediate result of the corpus studies on evaluation are observations of how certain words co-occur with others (collocation) or how frequently they favour certain grammatical environments (colligation). Intimately bound with the identification of evaluation is the role of phraseology and co-text (e.g., Biber et al., 1999; Sinclair, 2004; Stubbs, 1996; Hoey, 2005). Corpus-oriented work uses qualitative and quantitative approaches, which are particularly useful in the study of evaluation in language.

2.5. Identifying evaluation in grammar

It comes almost intuitively to those investigating evaluation to turn their focus on the lexical, rather than grammatical, sphere of language. A testament to such an approach is the growing popularity of studies on evaluative lexical items such as adjectives, nouns, or verbs and how these differ across genres and disciplines (e.g., Shaw, 2009; Bednarek, 2008; Giannoni, 2010; Moreno & Suárez, 2008a; Itakura & Tsui, 2011; Zasowska, 2019). However, lexical items do not exist on their own, for they are often part of the grammatical structure of the clause, and it is the structure itself that is very often a clear indicative of evaluative meaning. The picture that emerges from this view is the one that sees lexis and grammar as not truly distinct but rather as one organism (e.g., Hunston & Francis, 1996; Sinclair, 2004; Römer, 2009).

As mentioned in the introduction to this chapter, of the two main dimensions of evaluation, one – modality – is far more grammaticalized than the other. Modality is realized by a class of modal verbs, which are traditionally discussed under the heading of grammar, while affective evaluation focuses on lexis, such as adjectives, which show greater flexibility in the way they are used, interpreted and expanded. In other words, propositions are evaluated through more grammaticalized language structures, while entities are evaluated through lexis. As has already been mentioned, an irreplaceable aspect of any proposition of certainty or likelihood is modality, while the evaluation of goodness or desirability is an additional quality of an entity. For example, as Thompson & Hunston (2000) note, *fleabag* versus *cat* are two nouns that could describe the same entity, the choice of which depends on whether or not one wishes to incorporate an element of emotion into the basic meaning of the word. The same is true of nouns such as *brat* versus *child*, *shrew* versus *woman*, and so forth.

There is a multitude of studies concerning the grammar of modality (e.g., Halliday, 1994; Palmer, 1986; Stubbs, 1996; Bybee & Fleischmann, 1995), while studies on the grammar of affective evaluation are relatively thin on the ground (some examples, though, may include a local grammar approach by Hunston & Sinclair, 2000, studies on stance markers by Conrad & Biber, 2000 or a local grammar of affect by Bednarek, 2008). Links between grammatical areas and evaluation were noticed by Labov (1972: 378), for whom "departures from the basic narrative syntax have a marked evaluative force". These "departures" comprise:

- intensifiers, e.g. gestures, expressive phonology, quantifiers, repetition and ritual utterances (e.g., *And there it was*);
- comparators, such as negatives, futures, modals, quasimodals, questions, imperatives, or-clauses, superlatives, and comparatives;
- correlatives, including progressives, non-finite '-ing' clauses, double appositives, and attributives (e.g., *a knife, a long one, a dagger, a great big guy*);
- explicatives, i.e., clauses introduced by subordinators such as *while*, *though*, *since,* or *because* and other connections between clauses.

As Thompson & Hunston (2000) note, the association between comparatives and superlatives and the expression of opinion is relatively easy to establish yet, for the most part, intuitive and little described. As far as modality is concerned, there are some interesting overlaps with affective evaluation, e.g., Halliday (1994) focuses on *I think*, and *there is no doubt* *as* and investigates its metaphorical meanings. Similarly, the pattern beginning with *it* is said to be evaluative and a couple of different grammar patterns, too (Hunston & Francis, 1996).

Additionally, some interesting insights into grammar of evaluation come from Stubbs (1986), who looks at what he calls "modal grammar" or a "point of view". Thompson & Hunston (2000) regard Stubbs's (1986) view as aspects of evaluation. Stubbs (1986:1) argues that an investigation into language is:

> used …to express personal beliefs and adopt positions, to express agreement and disagreement, with others, to make personal and social allegiances, contracts, and commitments, or alternatively to disassociate the speaker from points of view, and to remain vague or uncommitted.

Stubbs (1986) is particularly interested in the interaction of lexis, grammar and pragmatic meaning. This area of interest covers:

- expressions of the source of propositions;
- phrases which limit commitments, such as *all being well*, *if I can*, *whatever that means*;
- ways of being explicit, e.g. through performatives or being vague;
- choice of progressive aspect of verbs of cognition;
- the modal meaning of 'private' verbs;
- logical connectors, such as *and*, *but*, *or*, *if*, *because*;
- past tense indicating remoteness;
- references for future time;
- tag questions.

Biber & Finegan's (1989:93) list of twelve 'stance markers' comprises lexical and grammatical opinion expressions. The markers are defined as "the lexical and grammatical expression of attitudes, feelings, judgements, or commitment concerning the propositional content of a message". These markers are:

- adverbs indicating affect, certainty, and doubt;
- adjectives indicating affect, certainty, and doubt;
- verbs affect, certainty, and doubt;
- hedges (i.e. vague language, e.g. *about*, *sort of*, *kind of*);
- emphatics (e.g. *really*, *for sure*)
- modals indicating possibility, necessity, and prediction.

It has become evident that a number of different grammatical structures of language have been identified as signals of evaluation. This takes us back to the three-fold nature of evaluation presented at the beginning of the section, where evaluation has been described as comparative, subjective, and value-laden. To reiterate some of the discussion here, the comparative characteristic of evaluation involves the comparators, which include morphological, grammatical and lexical expressions of negativity as well as comparative adjectives and adverbs, adverbs of degree. The markers of subjectivity include modal verbs and other markers of (un)certainty, non-identifying adjectives; certain adverbs, nouns, and verbs; sentence adverbs and conjunctions; report and attribution structures (with patterns *it* and *there*), and structures such as pseudo-clefts (Winter, 1982). The markers of value may be divided into two groups, namely lexical items with clear evaluative function and indications of the existence of goals and their (non-)achievement, i.e., something described as *good* helps us achieve our goal, while something described as *bad* is considered a hindrance to achieving a goal. It follows that the first and the second group is chiefly grammatical in nature, while the third is inherently more lexical.

2.5.1. Modal-like expressions and modalized verbs

An essential aspect of the study of evaluative language that ought not to go unnoticed in the discussion on evaluation in the English language lies in what might be referred to as "modal-like expressions". These are expressions carry modal meaning but do not consist of modal auxiliaries as traditionally defined. In her qualitative and quantitative study, Hunston (2011) makes an interesting observation in arguing that there are some verbs (or rather some sequences of verb forms often ending in *to*, *of*, or *in*) that act as "attractors" of modal meaning. This is to say that they invariably appear in the context of modal meaning much more often than other lexical verbs do. To illustrate this point, an example of the verb *preserve* is offered in the context of a sentence taken from the British newspaper The *Guardian* that says*:*

> (…) Paul Heinly explains his enthusiasm for heavy horses and talks about <u>the importance</u> <u>of preserving</u> rare breed of farm animals like the Suffolk Punch.

In the example sentence above, the word *preserving* is preceded by *the importance of* which, in turn, indicates a sense of obligation or duty. This modal meaning could be easily expressed with a modal verb *must* or *should*; however, it is not the case here. Hunston (2011) argues that a careful examination of the corpus indicates that the phrase *of preserving* is frequently followed by nouns such as *importance*, *aim*, *goal*, or *purpose*, while *in preserving* is frequently accompanied by *interest*, *role*, or *succeed/successful*. The examination of the concordance lines suggests that the sequence *of/in preserving* and its immediate surroundings express a sense of obligation, necessity or volition, i.e. something desirable that one needs or should or will seek to achieve. In short, a modal meaning is effectively expressed without a modal auxiliary.

In an earlier study, Hunston (2003) looks at the verb *decide* and the sequence of *decide* + wh-clause attracts modal-like meaning, especially an expression of obligation or possibility (e.g. *... should decide who to lead the country*, *... must decide whether to appoint him*, or *... can decide who wins*). Another piece of evidence emerges from the analysis of the verb *distinguish* in the sequences such as *distinguish + between*/ *distinguishing + between* with the overall observations looking alike – the lexical items to the left of the phrase were thought to express the modal-like meaning of necessity, obligation, and possibility, as in *to the importance of distinguishing between (...)*, *with the task of distinguishing between (...)*, or *we ought to distinguish between (...).*A closer look at the complementation patterns of *decide* and *distinguish* offers a tentative interpretation that the meaning of the two verbs might revolve around an idea of a "concerted mental process" and as such, attract modal meaning. The "concerted mental process" is understood here as a decision about a possible course of action or a process of distinguishing between two similar yet not identical things.

If a non-modal expression can successfully carry a modal meaning, another question (and perhaps also a challenge) is waiting to be framed. Which verbs exactly attract modal meaning? Are these verbs amenable to a more consistent search process? How to identify modal-like expressions in a set of corpus data? Knowing that modal meaning is a feature of both lexis and grammar and is found and analyzed across languages, one needs to acknowledge that modal-like expressions are far more elusive, if not unreachable, on a large scale, due to the lack of a principled search put in place. As Hunston (2011) observes, while one cannot say for certain that a particular verb will always or never have modal meaning, there seems to be reasonable hope for establishing a set of criteria that will categorize verbs into those falling into or out of a modalized category.

At this point, it is worth mentioning a study performed by Aijmer (2002), who argues that native speakers of English tend to use fewer modal auxiliaries than learners of English. The preferred choice seems to be consisting of other alternative lexical structures that express modal meaning in a way that is similar but not identical. One possible explanation for this could be sought in the general preference of native speakers to use less personal and less face-threatening linguistic devices in some situations, such as *it's essential to* instead of *you must* or *you should* to express obligation or necessity. Hunston (2011) argues that a modal-like expression *for fear of* and its modal counterpart *might* is even more telling, as it shows a clear example of negative evaluation in the former. Not only does it indicate a future contingency, but also a further negative evaluation that the event would possibly entail, as in *She never goes to the cinema for fear of picking up germs*, or *I couldn't even go for a walk for fear of being mobbed.* An obvious interpretation of these sentences is that picking up germs or being mobbed is considered highly undesirable, at the very least. It is worth noting that it is the word *fear* that guides us to the overall meaning being negative and negative only. Also, in yet another example sentence provided by Hunston (2011) *Would witnesses do nothing for fear of getting involved?* it is not stated directly that getting involved is something desirable or undesirable (in the simplest of terms, good or bad). Still, the phrase *for fear of* does imply that the meaning carries a negative evaluation. Furthermore, the phrase has a vital piece of information about who is making the judgment of possibility. A negative interpretation of 'getting involved' is thought to be made by the potential witnesses, not by the speaker himself. It is as if the speaker might want to secure an alternative interpretation for themselves.

In discussing modal-like meanings, another issue needs to be addressed, namely how exactly such meanings are identified in texts. Hunston (2011) argues that modal-like expressions are ordinarily found rather by accident than design, which does not sound particularly encouraging for those who would like to explore them. On the one hand, it is true that most modal-like expressions are identified as a "by-product" of different investigations and that, in the majority of cases at least, identifying them remains a game of chance and is revealed by a serendipitous eureka moment. After all, as convincingly observed by Kefalidou & Sharples (2016) and Kennedy, Whitehead & Ferdindand-James (2022), serendipity in research is not an unfamiliar phenomenon. On the other hand, however, there may be a way to effectively identify and analyze modal-like meanings in a more guided and systemized fashion, which draws on the stroke of luck but does not rest heavily upon it. To that end, one needs to make the best use of what is known already about modality, pattern and meaning (e.g., Quirk et al., 1972; Palmer, 1990; Francis, 1993; Halliday, 1994; Hunston & Francis, 1996) because therein lies a possible clue of how and where modalized verbs tend to occur most frequently. In other words, lexical items and grammatical patterns provide vital information on how (modal) meaning functions in language and the extent to which meaning and pattern overlap. The identification and examination of lexical patterns could also provide insights into how evaluation works in language and how it could be detected. Following Sinclair's (2004) words, one should simply "trust the text".

To sum up, modal-like expressions are an essential aspect of modal and evaluative meaning, proving how widespread and complex such meaning is in the English language. According to Hunston (2011), to recognize that modal-like expressions are not just a straightforward substitute for modal verbs is to realize how complex the interaction between the speaker and hearer can be and how researchers and scholars may benefit from it academically and professionally. Furthermore, modal-like expressions, as well as modality in general, cast new light on the positive and negative realizations of evaluation, which, in turn, proves that lexis and grammar are tightly interwoven.

Concluding remarks

Evaluation in language is an elusive phenomenon, but this is not to say that it completely defies description, as it has been successfully investigated under a number of concepts, including but not limited to *evaluation*, APPRAISAL, *metadiscourse*, or *stance*. Unique as they are, the following approaches to exploring evaluative meanings in language display a number of mutual characteristics, agreeing that evaluation is subjective, ideology-bound or cumulative, to name but a few.

Evaluative meanings are realized through lexical and grammatical structures and this thesis views lexis and grammar as one interrelated organism rather than two separate spheres of language. It is worth remembering that evaluation could be explicit or implicit, in each case posing a challenge for language users and an opportunity for researchers as evaluative expressions are diverse, context-specific and, more often than not, culturally dependent and socially determined.

One effective way of identifying evaluation in texts is the investigation of corpora, particularly the analysis of concordance lines, which provides vital information on lexical items and their immediate environment. The dissection of concordance lines, followed by a more laborious manual analyses, may bring about unexpected findings about language and discourse, revealing more about people as language users, the community they belong to, the interaction they engage in, and the social identity they establish for themselves. All of these have taken us closer to the topic of communication in discourse and the role evaluation plays in it. The aspect of what Shaw (2003) calls "intellectual environment" will be explored in depth in the next chapters.

CHAPTER THREE: The Values of Academia

Introduction

In an academic setting, the communication of knowledge is just as important as its production. Any piece of new knowledge produced within academia, be it an article, a book, or a thesis, is ordinarily subject to review by other members of the community, specifically those in a higher position of expertise. Each disciplinary community is governed by its own rules, conventions and a recognized culture and develops ways of disseminating as well as formulating and evaluating knowledge (Becher, 1989; Hyland & Bondi, 2006). Evaluating academic productions is, therefore, a fundamentally essential aspect of academia. The term *academia*, used hereafter by Gravett & Petersen (2007) and Giannoni (2010), is especially fit for purpose as it fully embraces all of the elements of the academy, namely, the social, the cultural, and the institutional dimensions. As Bazerman (1988) observes, the wording of a piece of academic writing is not just a result of an individual's choice; it is instead the ultimate reflection of the concepts and beliefs of a community one belongs to.

An extensive body of research has shown that authors are well equipped with a variety of linguistic tools at their disposal to signal their allegiance to a particular community (see, e.g., Thetela, 1997; Hyland, 2009; Hyland & Diani, 2009; Römer, 2009; Łyda, 2007; Łyda & Warchał, 2014). However, it is of paramount importance to note that well before evaluation is put to paper, one must think not only of *how* it is done but also through the prism of *what* it takes place. This inevitably has to do with *values* inherent in academia, and academia is, as will be shown in this chapter, an integral part of the world of science.

As said in the Introduction, the following thesis is about evaluation in academic discourse. And just as has been signalled above, the discussion on evaluation in an academic setting should never commence without identifying and discussing values which are enshrined in it. Challenging as the task is, the present chapter makes a humble attempt at doing so. First, it examines what academic discourse is and why it is important. It briefly outlines the concept and provides several definitions from the relevant literature. Second, it looks at science in more detail, focusing on its distinct characteristics and qualities. Third, the chapter is concerned with the intricate relationship that exists between science and values and the way this relationship has been addressed in literature. It serves as a point of departure for a more detailed discussion of values that are inherent in scientific research. Fourth, the chapter looks at *academia* as the leading place of dissemination of knowledge and values that permeate its settings. Finally, values which are vital in academic communication are identified and discussed. As is the case in the previous two chapters, *italics* is used to refer to the concepts, for example, *academic discourse* or *language* and a standard font for words in a more general meaning.

3. Academic discourse

It is a bit of a paradox that a closer investigation into *academic discourse* both helps and hinders deeper reflection on the phenomenon. Academic discourse is not easy to define, and, as an abundance of literature shows, the attempts at so doing have been many. On the other hand, however, its importance in science and the production and communication of new knowledge is registered almost on an intuitive level. In a similar vein, the impact of academic discourse on the life of academia cannot be denied. Why is it, then, that *academic discourse* has been such a challenging concept to grasp? Where does the confusion come from? Before an answer is given, let us consider some reflections on the matter.

Discourse lies at the core of academic life and has been an indispensable part of the academic landscape. It plays a number of roles, the most prominent of which relate to creating disciplinary knowledge and making contributions to the construction of academia. It is through academic discourse that new knowledge is communicated, not only to fellow professionals but also to society as a whole. Hyland (2009) argues that a new discovery, invention, or understanding is of no importance unless it is available to the public. Similarly, an individual's achievement is appreciated only when it is made accessible through publication and so it reaches a broader audience. Knowledge is valuable when it is shared.

Academic discourse, without a doubt, is instrumental in forming and maintaining the social practices of academics. It is the beating heart of the university, the vibrant element in all forms of academic enterprise, and the rigid custodian of scientific research. It is, finally, the *code* that establishes intellectual achievement, elevates professional reputation, and fosters academic camaraderie.

As already said, the studies and research on academic discourse are many and varied. The concept has received an impressive amount of academic interest and it is still a subject of ongoing scholarly debate (see, e.g., Huddleston, 1971; Bartholomae, 1986; Holland, 1988; Swales, 1990; Elbow, 1991; Duszak, 1997; Biber et al., 1999; Łyda, 2007; 2013; Łyda & Warchał, 2014; Warchał 2015; Szczyrbak, 2014; Hyland, 2000; 2007; 2009; 2019). Much of the confusion and uncertainty about how to precisely define academic *discourse* stems from the fact that it has repeatedly been reduced to or equated with academic *writing*, a view which seems to hold true only as far as *language* is considered (see, e.g. Elbow, 1991; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Atkinson, 1999; Swales, 1990).

Academic discourse has also been approached under the terms such as “academic settings”, “research settings”, “academic environment”, “academic contexts”, or “scholarly ways” (see, e.g. Bartholomae, 1986; Swales, 1990; Paltridge, 1997; Duszak, 1997; Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002; Gravett & Petersen, 2007). Bartholomae (1986:4) refers to “academic contexts”, which are “the peculiar ways of knowing, selecting, **evaluating**, reporting, concluding, and arguing that define the discourse of our community” (bold type mine). Paltridge (1997:2) talks of “research settings” by arguing that they are “the writing up and publication of the results of experimental research”, making a clear reference to written communication as the tool for disseminating knowledge.

One famously-quoted definition is proposed by Holland (1988:72), who argues that academic discourse is

> a search for truth through questions and answers designated to rectify, using logic, the evidence of observed data with the assertions of theory. Academic discourse is, then, both Aristotelian and Platonic: Aristotelian in its empiricism and its appeal to logical relationships claimed between particular instances and general truths; Platonic in its commitment to an intersubjective search for truth through dialectic.

Holland’s perspective has been met with both applause and resistance. For Łyda (2007), fair as it is, the presented approach is rather one-sided, as it focuses entirely on the process of pursuing and discovering the truth, failing to notice the essential context of society where the academic discourse exists and thrives. The element of the society could be found in Sandeman-Gay (1996), but is given rather scant attention:

> writing (and speaking) informed by analysis, critical and reflective thinking, speculation and synthesis of ideas and information within disciplines-specific and wider social and cultural contexts (…)

A much broader perspective is given by Hyland (2009:1), who emphasizes the power of academic discourse by arguing that it

> refers to the ways of thinking and using language which exists in the academy. Its significance, in large parts, lies in the fact that complex social activities like educating students, demonstrating learning, disseminating ideas and constructing knowledge, rely son language to accomplish. Textbooks, essays, conference presentations, dissertations, lectures, and research articles are central to academic enterprise and are the very stuff of education and knowledge creation.

With that definition come three possible points of interpretation. First, it follows that academic discourse is not limited to language, be it written or spoken, nor should it always be *only* about language. Hyland's note on "thinking language" aptly suggests that academic discourse may not necessarily have to be verbalized. But it is nevertheless present in the academia. Second, academic discourse uses language as a tool for teaching and doing research, both activities demanding a fair degree of social and cultural awareness. Third, closely connected with the previous one, "educating students" or "demonstrating learning" stresses the role of the provider of knowledge, who is an academic and the recipient of it, who is a student. On the whole, Hyland's definition is truly comprehensive and addresses the full range of academic activities.

The importance of society and social roles is also noted by Gee (1996:8), who observes:

> To appreciate language in its social context, we need to focus not on language alone, but rather on …discourses. Discourses include much more than language. They are ways of behaving, interacting, **valuing**, thinking, believing, speaking, and often reading and writing that are accepted as instantiations of particular roles…by specific groups of people. Discourses are 'ways of being in the world'; they are 'forms of life'.

(bold type mine)

Gee (1996) notices that discourse transcends language; it is comprehensive and multi-faceted, including, among others, *valuing*, which is an essential trait of academia. On a similar note, emphasizing the role of language resources in the creation of knowledge, Hyland (2007:98) argues that "discourse conventions embody the particular *sets of values*, practices and beliefs which are held by, and help define, academic disciplines" (italics mine).

The definitions selected for this section make a clear reference to knowledge and truth. They, too, highlight the role of society both as a participant in academic discourse and a recipient of knowledge. Hence, it may be argued that both knowledge and truth are *delivered* by science and *communicated* through academic discourse, which contributes to our *understanding* of them. Academic discourse goes where language does not – it stands at the crossroads of science and society, the word and the action. The present discussion must not continue without giving the former well-deserved attention, focusing on its pivotal role in social development and academic life. Let us now have a closer look at science, its distinct characteristics and values that could be observable throughout the many faces of scientific research. The discussion will help dissect the relationship between academia and its values in the sections which follow.

3.1. Defining *science*

By and large, science brings knowledge and truth about the world and is a crucial element of civilization shaped culturally and historically. Scientists are driven by curiosity and imagination, fueled by desire and passion, and invariably prompted by ideas and questions that arise from their work. Doing science requires determination and creativity but also a note of serendipity and luck. Scientific inquiry is never a task completed, a closed book with its pages filled, or a final verdict on the argument. In one way, scientist's work might resemble Sisyphus's labour because it is never-ending and ever-growing. Contrary to Sisyphus, however, the work is hardly ever futile: it brings a new understanding of a certain concept or, at the very least, a useful insight into what has been known to date. Seen from this perspective, science comes with a sense of achievement and pride, offers undiluted joy and accords a privilege. Therefore, it should be no surprise to argue that science is intimately tied up with values. It is worth considering how else science has been addressed and described and how these descriptions fit into the talk on values in academia presented in the further sections of this chapter.

Christophorou (2002:156-163) distinguishes and describes at length several characteristics of science, some of which could be described as metaphorical. Below is a brief overview of these qualities. They are as follows:

- Science is an adventure.
- Science is beautiful.
- Science is not retrograde.
- Science is pragmatic.
- Science is unpredictable.
- Science is utilitarian.
- Science is conservative and revolutionary.
- Science is not skepticism.
- Science is not hierarchical.
- Science is cooperative.
- Science is universal.
- Science is society's heritage of common knowledge.

Science is an adventure because it constantly challenges our intellectual abilities and whets our appetite for knowing more. It is not possible to stop wanting more of knowledge; a human being faces an unquenchable desire to pursue their natural curiosity and to always take what they know a step further. What follows is that science is not retrograde because whatever has been discovered or invented cannot be undone. It stays with people for all time and "grows like a tree, ring by ring" (Holton, 1988). While it is true, without a doubt, that some wish to modify, expand, or otherwise improve whatever has been found or created, there is no chance that a discovery repeats itself or is erased from the awareness of society. Christophorou (2002) argues that every scientific discovery is unique and affects the next scientific contribution in an equally unique way. Furthermore, there is no end to science, no finishing line, or the final conclusion one may be keen to draw, as science is open-ended, ever-growing, and always incomplete. According to Christophorou (2002), every discovery brings about another one, and another piece of novelty supersedes novelty. It follows, then, that science and its findings can fall out of use, i.e., whatever is held in firm belief now will likely be reshaped or extended with a more modern and promising idea in the future. This is abundantly evident in physics, chemistry, and, most importantly, computer science, for example. It may be argued that transience is the essence of science. With a rapid and ever-growing expansion of computerized platforms, whatever people will witness in fifty or a hundred years will, in all likelihood, be entirely different to what we know for a fact now.

Science is beautiful, although some would resist such a description, as this adjective appears somewhat incongruous in rigid scientific definitions. Science unravels the natural beauty of the world, which otherwise would have remained unknown and inaccessible. Scientific endeavours have shown what is beyond the scope of the human eye, overriding our physicality and urging us to look beyond what is considered normal or feasible for the ordinary human senses. By removing such limitations, one may discover boundless and immense beauty, and nothing else epitomizes the beautiful diversity of the world better than science itself.

Science is also said to be pragmatic, and it is pragmatic in a number of unique ways. It uses common sense and uses it effectively for anything that can be described as relevant or useful. This means science does not make false moves; it is concerned with what has a chance of success and is considered important both within science and outside of it. It is also pragmatic because it leaves little room for falsifying scientific facts. A scientific lie is never long-lasting and remains undetected only for a short time because verifiability is an inherent trait of the scientific process. Steneck (2007) argues that plagiarism is one of the three core categories of scientific misconduct. For Christophorou (2002:158), science is "a self-correcting system". This view is also seen in Brown (2020:intr), who argues that science "has the capacity to self-correct" but only when it is given the proper environment to do so, that is, through the actions of scientists and society. Brown (2020) also gives an elaborate account of the issues of racism, bias, and white supremacy that have been prevalent in the processes of science and scientific careers.

Science is said to be independent of the individual scientist. By way of an example, Christophorou (2002) refers to two very well-known and accomplished scientists, Newton and Einstein, and two all-time artists, Michelangelo and Beethoven. It is possible to give a different shortlist of equally accomplished historical figures, such as Leonardo da Vinci, Maria Skłodowska-Curie, William Blake, or Nicolaus Copernicus. Christophorou (2002) points out that if a physicist or chemist of our choice had not discovered what they discovered, someone else would have discovered it sooner or later. However, a piece of art or music created by a painter or a composer would not have been made if they had not done it. Given the stark contrast between these statements, Christophorou (2002) claims that it is incumbent upon a scientist to be more modest and humble than it is for an artist, a composer, or a painter. Hence, it may be argued that whenever creative work comes into play, it is more subjective, opinionated, or personal. By contrast, scientific work should be described as impersonal and unbiased. As will be shown shortly, this is rather a hasty conclusion.

Second and third, science is pragmatic in that it "knows the nature of the knowledge it provides" and "knows its boundaries" (Christophorou 2002:159). These statements mean that science does not offer any explanation of the meaning of existence, nor is it useful to elaborate on the aims of society. It does not discover values or norms, as its primary role is to provide us with an understanding of the world. De Regt (2020) argues that understanding that comes with the scientific explanation is one of the primary epistemic aims of science. Yet, we may argue that science is *driven* by values, and this point will be given more attention in the next section.

Unpredictability is the next characteristic of science. Christophorou (2002) likens science to the human spirit, both being variable and unpredictable. Science does not respond to the scientist's wishes. As hinted before, many a discovery are made purely by chance, or as a by-product of another experiment. Roentgen's discovery of X-rays could be a good illustration. Contrary to science, however, scientific knowledge is characterized by regularity and predictability, and science, as Christophorou (2002:159) notes, "is concerned with what is *common* among events" (italics author's). It follows that scientists engage with critical thinking, testing alternatives, and resolving ambiguities to establish the facts, prove or disprove arguments, and accept or refuse a knowledge claim.

Yet another feature of science is being utilitarian. As said earlier, science is characterized by its capacity to grow and constantly develop. Its different forms and the essence of discovery make a powerful impact on human life. One striking example could be the discovery of the atomic bomb and the nuclear reactor. As Bradley (2019) observes, science-based technology has changed the conditions of life and will continue to do so. It is worth mentioning the unprecedented development of Artificial Intelligence, which is the epitome of 21st-century computer science. There are voices that say computer-controlled robots will soon revolutionize many, if not all, aspects of modern life, making the world grow more AI-dependent.

Science is also simultaneously conservative and revolutionary. It cannot be denied that some scientific inventions are still valid and have not expired, for example, Newton’s Laws of Motions or Faraday’s Law of Induction. The prior knowledge is never rejected or disregarded; it is through constant change that it reshapes and transforms, reaching a new level and delivering new understandings of the concepts and ideas which have been the subject of scientific investigations. In it, it shows its revolutionary character.

The view that science is not skepticism means that in science, it is an “honourable thing” to doubt, but science, at its core, is not about persistently looking for reasons to doubt (Oppenheimer, 1954). Put differently, it behooves a scientist to be skeptical and to look at the implications of their skepticism by noticing previously overlooked or misinterpreted facts that could lead to another discovery, but deliberate and persistent disbelief and questioning of the truth of what has been learned is not the aim and object of science Paraphrasing Brown (2020), no theory is immune to doubt, and so a degree of skepticism when contemplating new theories, hypotheses or evidence is advisable and lies in the best interests of science on the whole. However, this does not mean that scientists should make doubting a regular practice. Merton (1942) refers to it as *organized skepticism* which constitutes one of the norms that guide scientific research and behaviour (the reader is referred to section 2.1.3) Although the Merton’s model has been revisited and reformulated since its publication, it was effective in raising legitimate discussion on norms and principles (values) of science.

It is also argued that science is not hierarchical, which is to say that it is neither democratic nor monopolistic. What follows is that science rests upon *knowledge*, and knowledge does not differentiate between authority, age, or position. Yet again, Merton’s norm of *universalism* shows. Christophorou (2002) argues that a discovery made by a lower-status scientist may prove to be given more credit and have a more significant long-term impact than a senior scientist's. The informed opinion of the whole body of scientists is what science is about, not the authority or status of an individual.

Science is cooperative and universal, both of which make it liberating. It stands to reason to discuss all three qualities as one because they all pertain, in one way or another, to people as the doers of science. The cooperative quality of science is seen in teamwork and team spirit, two essential factors in managing and doing science. It is worth noting that effective and honest scientific collaboration has given rise to the emergence of hybrid disciplines such as astrophysics, computer science, and biomedical engineering. Apart from being cooperative, science is also universal because it is built through the concerted effort of men and women of all nations, their resilience, determination, patience, passion, and vision (Smyth, 1950, cited in Christophorou, 2002). Scientific methods speak one language, and so do validity and validation. It is interesting to mention what Halliday & Martin (1993:11) observe, i.e., “the language of science has become the language of literacy”. Equally interesting is to refer to more recent observations, particularly those of Brown (2020), about *scientific racism* throughout the centuries of history and philosophy. Propelled by the belief that there are racial differences in mental capabilities, scientific *racists* created a hierarchy of races, according to which white people were given predominance and highest importance. Brown’s account provides a compelling read and presents evidence of the impact of social prejudice on science and its fruits.

Last but not least, science is liberating. According to Christophorou (2002), science is a liberating force in society, both from the material and spiritual dimensions. The material needs have been satisfied thanks to technological developments such as the discovery of the laws of thermodynamics, which was a springboard for the invention of the steam engine or, most recently, the breakthrough innovations of television, computers, or the World Wide Web. It is hard not to agree with Christophorou (2002) when he states that the very essence of civilization lies in science and the fact that it is being done without compromise. Indeed, science makes room for the empowerment of humanity, its emancipation and freedom from fear or prejudice. This is well reflected in the words of the French philosopher Rousseau, who famously said “The freedom of Mankind does not lie in the fact that we can do what we want, but that we do not have to do that which we do not want”.

Science is also instrumental in meeting the spiritual needs of people by allowing them to liberate themselves from the oppression of political regimes. The collapse of the Iron Curtain could be an excellent example of science and its powers to end people’s isolation and suffering. Christophorou (2002) insists that not only is science a “facilitator of freedom”, but it also needs freedom to thrive and flourish. It should be free from religious or political influence and economic or societal pressures. A similar point of view is held by Minazzi (2022:122), who argues that “*knowledge* and *human freedom* are closely interwoven and always connected” (italics author’s), and they represent two faces of modernity.

The last characteristic of science is that it is the heritage of common knowledge of society. As has been said, science is universal and capable of transcending generations. Christophorou (2002) argues that science always belongs to all humanity. Scientific knowledge is available for everyone who wants to use it, as evidenced by modern computerized communications, for example. Science exists and is done for the betterment of society as a whole. The heritage of common knowledge embodies unity, hope, and the constant growth of humanity, being a powerful instrument between the past, present, and future.

3.2. Science and values: preliminary reflections

So far, it has been shown that science makes a powerful impact on human life in ways which are both direct and indirect. There may be a temptation to alter the statement to argue that these ways could also be beneficial or destructive. Following Stevenson & Byerly (2000) in their reflection on the profound ambivalence people express towards science, science could be a source of hope and fear, optimism and pessimism, prosperity and demise, and many more contrasting viewpoints. Whichever is the case, science affects humans dramatically, and since human life is awash in values, be it social, cultural, religious or other, it is reasonable to assume that there exists an intimate connection between values and science worthy of investigation.

However, the relationship between values and science is neither clear nor straightforward. Some argue that there is no relationship at all because "science tells us what is, and values tell us what ought to be" (Derry, 1999: 156). Much of the discussion on science and values revolves around the conventional wisdom that science is value-neutral. The view has its roots in Merton's Ethos of Science, in which he put forward four norms of "good scientific practice" (briefly discussed in section 3.2.2.). Merton's account has been a bone of contention and an influential point of reference for many other debates on values in science. On the one hand, science is thought to be value-free, and scientific behaviour should reflect no bias or personal interest. For Davies (1968:8), "science is a structure built upon facts", a view further elaborated by Chalmers (1999:18), who argues that scientific knowledge is "founded on a secure basis, solid facts firmly established by observation". On the other hand, however, there are voices that strongly oppose value neutrality in science, calling it a "myth" (Oreskes, 2019), arguing that science and values mutually influence each other (Brown, 2020) or that their roles are complementary (Derry, 1999). For Priest (2018:63), neutral scientific information is "almost unachievable", while Stevenson & Byerly (2000:254) conclude that "scientific knowledge has tended to refine our moral sensibilities". In a similar vein, Longino (2004:127) opposes the ideal of “value freedom” in science and suggests that “we should stop asking whether social values play a role in science and instead ask which values and whose values play a role and how”. As can be seen, all of these reflections give an interplay full of nuances and complexities. Somewhere between these two views, as if trying to reconcile the irreconcilable, Elliot & Steel (2017:3) observe that “values can be a serious threat to the objectivity of science, but they can also play an essential role in responsible scientific research”.

In such wilderness of views, it is not easy to navigate and find a resolve to the challenges that values raise. Likewise problematic appears to be the fact that the literature on science and values remains undecided on whether values can be divided into *epistemic* and *non-epistemic* (Kuhn, 1977; McMullin, 1982; and e.g., Rooney, 1992, 2017; Longino, 1996, 2004; Lacey, 1999, 2017; Brown, 2020; Elliot, 2022). Furthermore, many values overlap with one another, both in and outside of science, and so a net-like structure they create is not easy to disentangle. A subtle differentiation between *scientists* and *academics* only adds to the confusion. This section looks at values which are predominant in science and in academia and discusses their vital points of connection. However, before it begins, at least two caveats should be made.

First, following Reydon’s overview (2019), knowledge is traditionally seen to be produced solely in the natural sciences, not in areas outside of them. Therefore, some academic investigations may fall out of the scope of science in a strict sense since not all academic research is devoted to physics, chemistry, or biology. However, as Reydon (2019) observes, talk of science should not exclude academic work because all areas of academic investigation produce epistemic content, i.e., knowledge. Christophorou (2002:233) highlights the role of university as a “citadel of reason” and points out its enormous contribution in producing knowledge and securing freedom of thought. Reydon (2019) argues that the scope of academic work is broader than that of scientific research as it involves, for example, evaluating scientific papers and manuscripts, thus affecting the epistemic content of the community. From such a perspective, *science* and *academia* are closely intertwined, and their overarching point of connection is knowledge and search for the truth. Furthermore, as Shaw (2003) observes, science is represented by genres such as lectures, textbooks or, most crucially, popular science books (a point emphasized also by Hyland, 2009). That being said, Shaw (2003:3) argues that scientific discoveries are “translatable as non-fiction” to a larger public, who indirectly participates in a scientific inquiry.

A second caveat to be made concerns the distinction between *epistemic* and *non-epistemic* values, which has its roots in the works of Kuhn (1977) and McMullin (1982). Epistemic values are indicators of knowledge or truth, while non-epistemic values do not reliably promote the attainment of truth. Examples of epistemic values could be qualities such as accuracy, coherence, explanatory power, logical consistency, or simplicity. Brown's (2020) list of core scientific values opens with consistency and empirical control, both of which are clearly epistemic. The list of non-epistemic values is much longer and perhaps beyond completion. As McMullin (1982:29) admits, such a list is "as long as the list of possible human goals". Elliot & Steel (2017) note that ethical, political or religious values are typically described as non-epistemic values. It has been argued that epistemic goals of science are achieved only through epistemic values, and so the production of knowledge and truth is dependent on very few factors. However, Elliot & Steel (2017) argue that the matter is far from being straightforward. Given that the contrast between epistemic and non-epistemic is clearly defined, it is not always possible to ascertain decisively what qualities should be regarded as epistemic values and that a value could be epistemic in one context but non-epistemic in another. Steel (2010:18) distinguishes between *intrinsic epistemic values*, which are indicators or requirements of truth, and *extrinsic epistemic values*, which "promote the attainment of truth without themselves being indicators of truth". For Steel (2010), examples of the former are predicative accuracy and internal consistency, while external consistency (i.e., consistency between a theory and a scientist's other views) could be treated as an example of the latter. Douglas (2013) further distinguishes epistemic values, which fall into two contrasting categories: those that are "minimal criteria" and those that are "ideal desiderata"; those that apply directly to theories and those that apply to the relation between theories and evidence. According to Elliot (2022), a theory is epistemically acceptable if it meets minimal criteria, for example, internal consistency or empirical adequacy. On the other hand, even if some desiderata that apply to theories (e.g. having a broad scope) are not themselves indicators of truth, they help assess the truth in theories. Values can, therefore, potentially *facilitate* the assessment of truth (italics mine). As reported in Elliot (2022), Longino (1996) argues that the identification of "pure" epistemic values is not doable, which ultimately disproves Kuhn and McMullin's value-neutral distinction. Lacey (2017) proposes a distinction between cognitive and social values, whereas Rooney (2017) highlights the importance of context, which means the distinction between epistemic and non-epistemic hinges upon a scientific field where the investigation takes place. According to Rooney (2017), many values occupy a grey area, being neither clearly epistemic nor non-epistemic. The above has shown that the distinction between epistemic and non-epistemic is highly negotiable and, therefore, not always helpful.

3.2.1. The University and Academia

In choosing to discuss science and values, it is imperative to highlight the role of the university in the process of creation and dissemination of knowledge and in securing freedom of scientific communication. So far unaddressed directly, the university is one of the oldest human institutions whose role in gaining and communicating knowledge is exceptional and undeniable. The mission of the university is to provide a sanctuary for freedom of thought and expression, a beacon of hope and an opportunity in troubling times. The university is a seat of learning that affords an environment conducive to acquiring education, and it is an intellectual centre where research flourishes. It is, finally, *the* place where science and values meet.

The structure, however, is much more than a mere physical institution; it embodies the spirit of a community and a sense of unity and fellowship acquired from its recognized culture. It is capable of resisting political upheavals and social unrest; its faith in knowledge and searching for truth is unwavering, and its driving force lies in freedom and independence.

From such a perspective, the word *academia* best reflects the social, cultural and institutional dimensions of the system. For Giannoni (2010), *academia* is the preferred term in his discussion of academic values in various disciplines, and so is for Reydon (2019), who elaborates on good academic practice in the production of knowledge. For reasons just given, the term *academia* will be used from now on to mean educational, social, cultural, and institutional aspects of the university-based community.

As noted by Christophorou (2002), academic freedom and disciplinarity are two decisive elements that shaped modern science and the way it is conducted. Enshrined in academic freedom is the right to have, teach, explore or debate new ideas, and the ability to pursue various scientific paths of reasoning should always be free from political or social influence. Academic freedom discards ignorance, bias, or silencing others in favour of knowledge, intellectual curiosity, and listening to other voices, however dissenting they might be. It is well reflected in the words of Pake (1971: 908), who argues that

> academic freedom is the freedom of the scholar to search for the truth, to reach his conclusions with intellectual honesty, and to retain his rights and privileges as scholar and teacher however unpopular his professional conclusions may be.

The university enjoys much of its power thanks to being disciplinary-oriented. It comprises separate departments, each dealing with a separate scientific discipline. Most recently, the hybridization of disciplines has accelerated scientific research and development. The scientific disciplines have significantly contributed to generating and sharing new knowledge, facilitating teaching, and communicating research. Therefore, science and academia are intimately intertwined, shaping society and standing at the forefront of producing, assessing, and using new knowledge.

The somewhat idealistic picture of academia as the one above has to be given some critical reflection, too. Modern universities and their research centers have undergone dramatic change of their overall character, goals, and standards, or even time-honoured traditions. Radder (2010) addresses the pressing problem of the *commodification* of academic research and the commercialization of American universities. Hyland & Jiang (2019) elaborate on the marketization of knowledge, arguing that technological innovations, expansion of academic publications, increasing numbers of researchers, and a growing pressure to publish are the most significant facilitators of change. Notably, such high expectations and the pressure to "publish and prosper" have brought about the emergence of what Starck (2017) calls "predatory journals", which allow for publishing virtually any piece of research, regardless of its quality and significance for the discipline, providing that the writer pays a publication fee. The immediate conclusion is that all these aspects must play a role in the process of producing and communicating knowledge. Although the "entrepreneurial" university or the details of publishing policies are not the concern of this thesis, it is worth remembering the changing face of science and modern academia to better understand the motivations guiding academic behaviour and academic communication.

3.2.2. Merton's Ethos of Science

Critical to the discussion on values in science and prominent to the reflection of exemplary scientific practices and behaviours is Merton's Ethos of Science. In his 1942 article entitled "A Note on Science and Democracy", Merton laid out four norms which should guide scientists in their pursuits of knowledge. Since its publication in 1942, Merton's account has been thoroughly discussed, revisited, reformulated, applauded or criticized. Despite the controversy, it has remained a powerful point of reference for many other contributions to the topic and a starting point of the many discussions on values in science. It stands to reason, therefore, to give it some attention, however brief it might be.

Originally sociological in nature, Merton's four scientific norms (elsewhere referred to as "institutional imperatives", "mores", and "values" by Merton himself) are as follows:

- Universalism
- Communism
- Disinterestedness

- Organized scepticism

The first norm is *universalism*, which guarantees open access to science, unrestricted and unaffected by issues of nationality, ethnicity, religion, sex, or any other personal qualities. The only prerequisite for engaging in scientific research is talent and sufficient intellectual ability. Thus, in evaluating knowledge, claims should only be based on impersonal criteria. The norm of *universalism* readily suggests that access to science should be *universal*, thus unimpeded by prejudice, discrimination, or exclusion.

The second norm is *communism*, which means that scientific findings are not "owned" by anyone, as they are the ultimate result of collective effort and collaboration of the scientific community. According to *communism*, scientific discoveries should never be kept in secrecy and isolation; quite the reverse, scientists should promote an environment conducive to the free flow of information. Thus, *communism* is about open and honest communication practices in which sharing knowledge and expertise is ingrained in the scientific culture.

The third norm is *disinterestedness*, which should not be confused with the lack of individual motivation. As Radder (2010) notes, there are many motivations scientists may have, from a sense of achievement to general recognition, to fame and fortune to ideological commitment or beliefs. Whichever is the case, institutional controls such as peer review (evaluation), publication, and the reproduction of research results must secure the quality of the findings to ensure that no individual motivation distorts or otherwise damages the truthfulness and objectivity of the results.

The fourth and last norm is *organized scepticism*, which is realized through critical reflection on any knowledge claim. The word "organized" means that the norm should be verified at the institutional level, that is, by the scientific community as a whole. *Organized scepticism* involves exercising caution while considering new theories, methods, or models used in a scientific study. The ability to reserve judgement when necessary is what the community of scientists must be capable of doing until the whole verification process ends.

The main criticism levelled at Merton's Ethos of Science is that his account created an ideal yet unattainable standard for scientific performance. Another point of objection included the demonstration of the existence of the "counter-norms", namely, particularism, secrecy, interestedness, and dogmatism, all of which stand in sharp opposition to Merton's norms. While this section will not elaborate on the detailed critiques of this approach (see, e.g. Mulkay, 1980; Sismondo, 2004; Radder, 2010), suffice it to say that Merton's values have been regarded as too vague and too abstract, and, as a result, not fully applicable to all scientific practices.

However, despite strong criticism, the system remains a powerful point of reference in discussions on ethics and values in science.

3.3. The core values in science

The available literature on values in science presents both a challenge and an opportunity for those who want to set off on a journey to explore the topic. Every journey, even the longest and most strenuous, begins with a first step. Below is the first step: an outline of values that come to the forefront of science.

One of the most prevalent values in the community of scientists is **honesty**. Although it is not exclusively limited to science, the role it plays is of crucial importance mainly because of its natural opposition to dishonesty. Derry (1999) argues that giving honest information and presenting scientific findings in a factual way is a fundamental prerequisite for any scientific research. The scientific environment seems to be working on a simple premise that everyone is telling the truth, and so the veracity of scientific conclusions is often taken as read. If evidence is fabricated, contrived or otherwise manipulated with a view to producing a desired result, no fair debate is possible, and no progress can be made. Scientific research and the expansion of knowledge, therefore, rest on the assumption that scientists perform their work with nothing but diligence. Honesty is also about acknowledging the contributions of others and giving them credit. For Brown (2020), *due credit* is paramount and one of the core scientific values. Reydon (2020) reports on the *European Code of Conduct for Research Integrity* created by the European Science Foundation, which lists the following as the foundation of research integrity:

> honesty in communication; reliability in performing research; objectivity; impartiality and independence; openness and accessibility; duty of care; fairness in providing references and giving credit; and responsibility for the scientists and researchers of the future.
>
> (ESF/ALLEA, 2011:5 in Reydon, 2020:19)

Similarly, as Steneck (2007) reports, the *Introduction to the Responsible Conduct of Research* from the Office of Research Integrity mentions accuracy, honesty, efficiency, and objectivity as the prime shared values that “bind all researchers together”.

Closely connected with honesty is **reliability** of scientific research. An essential part of a scientific landscape has to do with how reliable research findings are. They can inspire trust and earn respect if presented honestly and transparently. They, too, can be used not in accordance with their intended purpose, in ways which are manipulative and thus misleading the public. Elliott & Steel (2017) address the issue of the ambivalence of scientific research. They note powerful vested interests in the tobacco industry, which aims to generate as much profit as possible. In so doing, the said industry has been guilty of disseminating misleading research about its products by questioning the harms of smoking. Most recently, with the expansion of e-cigarettes and other devices, the vaping industry has undertaken a similar, morally dubious course of action. Through colourful advertisements and celebrity endorsements, vapes are presented as a less harmful and, thus, a safer and more pleasant substitute for regular cigarettes; a view that science has disputed. This voice, however, has been effectively silenced by aggressive selling campaigns and marketing gimmicks. There are also cases where scientific research is given financial support to generate results more favourable to a specific industry. By default, such research stands in opposition to independently funded enterprises (see, e.g., Lesser et al., 2007; Sismondo, 2008). Examples like these show that scientific data are prone to manipulation or, at the very least, subjective selection and interpretation. While the reasons for such deliberate manipulation are not clear (prioritizing profits over principles is only one of them), there are reasons to suspect that if some information is distorted or remains undisclosed, it is not to be fully trusted.

Curiosity as a value is not as clear-cut as honesty and poses a more serious problem in science. On the one hand, science flourishes because there are people curious enough to engage and pursue a certain concept or phenomenon, unapologetically and regardless of political or societal pressures. On the other hand, however, curiosity may lead to discovering knowledge which is dangerous and harmful and communicating such knowledge makes a serious ethical choice (see Derry, 1999; Reydon, 2022; Elliot, 2022). The moral dilemma of whether a particular scientific idea should be pursued or nipped in the bud before it further germinates belongs to an individual or a community and is a vastly open question. Stevenson & Byerly (2000:262) note that there are three fundamental reasons for a scientist who wants to know something: *simple curiosity*, *theoretical interest* and *potential usefulness*. In choosing to pursue a scientific problem, there are reasons against it as well as in favour of it. For example, as Bradley (2019) notices, humans stand at the cusp of taking complete control of their lives, and such control inevitably involves ethical questions on *in vitro* fertilization or cloning, to name a few. Modern science, for example, cell and molecular biology, genetics, or cybernetics, is not free from ethical issues and moral choices. What is more, a seemingly value-free area of scientific research can quickly transform into a heavily value-laden issue (Oreskes, 2019). Although Derry (1999) puts forward somewhat anecdotal evidence by quoting a popular adage in which "curiosity killed the cat", it may be argued, in all seriousness, that unrestrained scientific curiosity may lead to uncharted waters of science from where there is no return. As said earlier, science does not move backwards.

Knowledge is effectively separating those in the know from the uninitiated, and such a demarcation line shows **responsibility**. Reydon (2020) argues that academic attitude involves two vital and closely connected areas of responsibility that lie on the scientists' shoulders, namely that of *having* knowledge and that of the context of *producing* knowledge (italics author's). Responsibilities that arise from having knowledge are connected with the application of knowledge. One example could be, as Reydon (2020) notes, the invention of the atomic bomb and the fact it was used in the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki during World War II. The devastation and agony that followed were the subjects of not only scientific debate, posing a problematic yet valid question of whether potentially lethal consequences of scientific work should be kept under tighter control or, perhaps, never see the light of day. The rationale behind such thinking lies in the fact that since scientists are the ones who *produce* particular items of knowledge and are privy to information otherwise inaccessible to other members of society, the ultimate responsibility for the fruits of such knowledge rests with the scientists themselves. In other words, knowledge comes with privilege, whose extension is a great obligation and a sense of duty to the public. Ideally, and perhaps idealistically, this should be the case. If that had been the case, the atomic bombings of Hiroshima and Nagasaki would have never happened, and people's anguish and suffering could have been prevented. In reality, though, science is generated and used on multiple levels, both theoretical and practical, in ways which are commendable and in ways which are morally reprehensible. The atomic disasters are not the first items in the long chain of similar practices; the use of gas chambers during the Holocaust could be the next grim example. Knowledge is dangerous when it is misused. From this perspective, responsibility overlaps with the value of curiosity and, to a degree, with open-mindedness. Filled with the desire to know more about the unknown, should we take our thoughts any further than thoughts? Does the unknown cease to be unknown once it is unravelled? Or does it show its more obscure face? These questions remain unanswered. An interesting insight into the human nature is offered by Queen Elizabeth II:

> Some people believe a long life brings wisdom. I'd like to think so. Perhaps part of that wisdom is to recognize some of life's baffling paradoxes, such as the way human beings have a huge propensity for good, and yet a capacity for evil.
>
> (Queen Elizabeth II's 2018 Christmas Message retrieved from: https://www.royal.uk/)

Reydon (2020) advocates for close examination of all the possible consequences that might arise from using knowledge. It is a form of service to the public, and such an attitude should be promoted and cultivated in academia.

Scientists are also in a unique and privileged position to *produce* knowledge. Paraphrasing Reydon (2019), in the context outside of academia, to say that a producer is responsible for the quality of their work is not a statement to disprove; quite the reverse, it is reasonable to assume that such responsibility is taken for granted. The situation is a bit more complex as far as academics are concerned. Reydon (2022) illustrated his point by giving plagiarism or "gift authorship" as an example. It has been generally acknowledged that plagiarism is intellectual theft and, as such, constitutes an egregious breach of academic conduct. Paradoxically, however, in committing plagiarism, a pretend author is not taking responsibility for "their" work simply because the work is not theirs. Reydon (2022) notes that the author-product relation is broken, and the responsibility is shifted. In so-called "gift-authorship", a publication is given the name of an academic who has not contributed to the presented studies. Therefore, so-called gift authors cannot be responsible for *producing* knowledge since they were not involved in the process of producing it.

All of the above come to suggest that good academic practice involves responsibility, which, in its essence, comes down to a **choice**. Brown (2020:35) argues that "contingency and choice are ubiquitous throughout the research process", while for Christophorou (2002:227) "the elegance of choosing" constitutes one of the values of "old human habits". It is not difficult to imagine that each stage of the research process is about making some form of a choice, from the early decision that involves a research area to the formulation of the topic, to the final phase where the conclusions are drawn. Although, as said earlier, science is believed to be based on facts and cool logic, there are very few situations, if any, when this is the case. In reality, scientists are not deprived of individual preferences or partiality, even in matters which demand objectivity and rationality. Throughout their work, scientists are invariably faced with choices of what to investigate and how to investigate it, what methods to employ and what hypothesis to examine. Among many other questions, they ask themselves how to collect data, when to stop collecting it, how to deal with findings, and how to formulate conclusions. All of these choices could be value-related and, as such, are a testament to an individual's values. This is not, however, where choosing comes to an end. The development of scientific knowledge confronts us with increasingly complex and dynamic situations where people, as the producers and recipients of knowledge, face choices of an ethical and moral nature.

Essential to navigating through an array of choices is **open-mindedness**, a vital beacon on a scientist's value compass. It guides the decision-making process and ensures originality of thought and expression. For Brown (2020), it is one of the core values in science involving the willingness to explore new ideas and concepts, debate alternative perspectives or undertake less travelled scientific routes. Derry (1999) notices that open-mindedness is also connected with the ability to change one's mind when evidence and data speak clearly against a certain hypothesis or assumption. Having an open mind means that true scientist can revisit their opinions and reformulate their theories, regardless of personal feelings and outside expectations. The value of open-mindedness is also what defines a true scientist: a person who alters their view in response to evidence. Interestingly, as Derry (1999) notes, a change of heart is not necessarily met with acceptance or understanding in areas outside of science, for example, politics.

Last but not least, Christophorou (2002:227-229) argues that science cultivates new attitudes, which centre around what he describes as "the value of old human habits". These values are:

- a habit of truth;
- the value of self-criticism;
- the necessity of discipline;
- the importance of open-mindedness;
- receptivity to new ideas;
- the pride of collective achievement;
- the recognition of originality;
- the significance of factual exactness;
- the elegance of choosing;
- the challenge of exploring;
- the anticipation of change.

On the one hand, it may be argued that the above constitutes a well-crafted summation of what has been said thus far about values in science and, as such, reveals nothing new. On the other hand, it is only partially true because what Christophorou (2002) does is presenting the interplay of science and values at its most intriguing. It may be argued that the values of old human habits represent a cycle of a scientist's life. According to Christophorou (2002), a scientist who sets their heart on gaining new knowledge is under constant self-doubt and self-criticism. Such criticism manifests in continuously reassessing and revisiting one's open mind and simultaneously being receptive to new ideas. These qualities allow for correcting errors, resolving ambiguities, formulating and testing new theories, or accepting different viewpoints. How to truly *listen to* (not only hear) other points of view, including the contradictory ones, requires maturity, responsibility and an open mind. The capacity to listen to others is connected with the value of collective achievement.

Scientists can work independently, but science thrives through teamwork and camaraderie in scientific engagement. According to Christophorou (2002), the help and assistance of other colleagues and sharing one's work, knowledge, and expertise is a cornerstone of science and a proud accomplishment of the scientific community. The communities are active and dynamic bodies filled with desires for originality, which gives independence. Such independence is worth fighting for; its mark is powerful and enduring. As hinted in the previous section, fundamentally, science is liberating, and its liberating quality shows yet again – in creating choices. With choice comes greater responsibility, as the more chances to choose, the more decisions a person has to make. The quintessence of science is also the urge for exploration. It encourages people to follow their natural instinct to (re)examine existing knowledge and explore the uncharted territory of science. By cultivating a natural instinct for exploration and "pursuing unexpected possibilities suggested by existing knowledge" (Polanyi, 1967:533, cited in Christophorou, 2002), society becomes a society of explorers.

3.4. Values and science

So far, the ubiquitous presence of values in science has been acknowledged. Values alone do not make an opinion; they are activated as a value judgement. To further analyze different roles of values, it is necessary to discuss the concept of value judgement. According to Elliot (2022), value judgements are value-laden decisions made to assess a particular quality or the extent of a particular quality in or of something. Commonly associated with assessments of necessarily ethical or social nature, value judgements are, in fact, complex choices of different kinds, which can take many forms and are not rule-governed (see, e.g., Scriven, 1974; Kuhn, 1977; Ward, 2021). For example, value judgements can be concerned with assessing the extent of the desirability of a certain quality in a particular context. Elliot (2022) provides various examples of such questions: how desirable is it for a theory to be simple? Or how important is it for scientific findings to be publicly available? This shows how value judgements work in practice. By way of asking oneself questions about fulfilling certain criteria or qualities, it is possible to arrive at valid conclusions. Another kind of judgement is the assessment of whether a particular quality has been achieved, and if so, to what extent. Another kind of judgement involves comparing and contrasting different values with each other. Again, Elliot (2022) wonders, by way of example, whether it is more important for a model to be predicatively accurate or broadly applicable.

A vital point of contribution to the present discussion is Elliot's (2022) representation of major ways in which values relate to science. It is used here for illustrative purposes and as an important point of reference to further investigating values in academia.

As shown in Figure 11, there are four categories of science with which values can be associated. These categories involve *steering*, *doing*, *using*, and *managing* science. On closer inspection, it may be argued that the proposed categories incorporate values discussed earlier. The following graph must be looked at with caution. Elliot (2022) notes that the categories themselves, broad as they are, need to be examined critically and might require further investigation. This is to say that the boundaries between *steering* or *doing* science or *doing* and *managing* science are not sharply defined. Quite the reverse, they blur into one another, and because of it, they are not intended to be taken as mutually exclusive. Nor do they exhaust all possible avenues of interpretation.

It is worth discussing briefly what roles values may play in each of the proposed categories. Following Elliot (2022), let us first consider the possible ways values can *steer* scientific research. This involves funding and prioritizing certain research projects and, what seems to be even more important, choosing what research questions are to be asked and how to investigate them. In other words, scientists guided by certain values may consider some questions more worthy of attention and scientific discussion. In the same vein, certain research projects may appear more scientifically "attractive" and are given priority in funding. Elliot (2022) provides some examples to illustrate that, one of which is the scientific response to the COVID-19 pandemic. The way the health situation was given both financial and scientific support readily shows that COVID-19 was considered of high importance, relevance, and priority. The coronavirus pandemic has been given considerable academic attention, too.

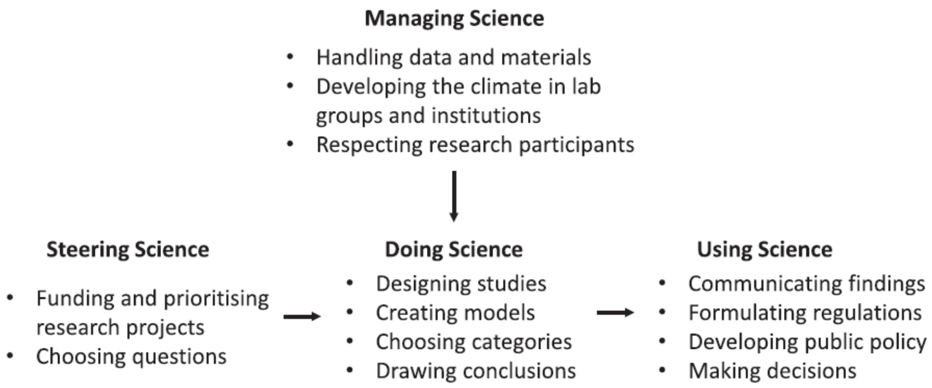


Fig. 11. A representation of how values can relate to science (Elliot, 2022: 8)

It has been generally argued that the second category, *doing* science, is the core of science itself, as it involves the design of studies, the analysis of data, and the interpretation of findings, which is ultimately about drawing conclusions from evidence (see, e.g. Douglas, 2000; Anderson, 2004; Cho, 2006; Elliot, 2009). It follows that, to varying degrees, values are relevant to achieving these goals. For example, the researcher's value-laden judgements can be instrumental in conceptualizing a particular phenomenon in ways which are either positive or negative. As Anderson (2004) observes, most of the earlier studies on divorce have shown a predominantly negative attitude towards it, while a more feministic approach has seen divorce as a more neutral phenomenon. What Anderson (2004) proves is the fact that the way a given subject is thought of and addressed can ultimately affect the overall conclusions as well as the collection and analysis of data. Another example given by Elliot (2022) concerns environmental pollution projects which involve active participation and collaboration between academic researchers and members of the community. It follows that the degree to which academics are responsive to the concerns of the community may affect the design and shape of their studies. The way values influence the amount of data and evidence is also interesting here. Most recently, Staley (2017) argues that physicists make active value-laden decisions when deciding how much evidence there needs to be to announce a discovery, such as identifying a new particle. There are two ways scientists usually go about it. They can either delay the announcement, in which case their research may be hindered or hastily announce that a discovery has been made. In either case, timing is of crucial importance, and it is directly linked with the amount of information that, in turn, allows a scientist to make public announcements.

The third category is *managing* science, which is about respecting research participants, structuring research groups, or handling initiatives that benefit scientists. According to Elliot

(2022), these values are of different kinds. Ethical values related to diversity, equality, and inclusion, for example, play a significant role in the ways scientific departments are structured to create a positive atmosphere for scientists of all races, colours, or genders (see, e.g. Settles et al. 2018; Cech et al. 2021). Values involving fairness, justice, allocation of credit, or career advancement are crucial in informing decisions about the authorship of scientific papers (Settle, 2018).

Finally, there is *using* science concerned with communicating findings, formulating regulations, developing public policy, and making decisions. Elliot (2022) provides a number of examples to illustrate his point, most of which concern risk assessment policies, financial decisions, or cost-benefit calculations, to name but a few. Since this thesis concerns *communicating* knowledge, aspects such as formulating regulations or developing policies are intentionally left aside.

As seen in Hyland (2009), the promotion of knowledge and the establishment of reputation hinge upon what Becher & Trowler (2001) call "communication", which is then described as "the lifeblood of academia". Communication involves a review process that aims to either accept or reject a knowledge claim. Such a claim, be it a theory or a hypothesis, takes the form of a carefully crafted argument with findings and conclusions presented in a way which is academically sound, rigorous and acceptable. The argument must also reflect what academics recognize as part of their culture and community. Communicating knowledge is, therefore, communicating science. It is not without difficulty to identify values that are inherent in the process of academic communication. Challenging as it is, the following section provides an attempt at so doing.

3.5. Academia and its values

Throughout this chapter, it has been attempted to demonstrate that values have a legitimate place in the production of knowledge. The previous section has shown that values permeate different aspects of scientific work. The presence of values could be explicit or implicit. It has been argued that the categories themselves are not separate from or indifferent to one another. Even if one chooses not to follow Elliot (2022) in all threads of his reasoning, it is hard to challenge the argument that values intersect with science in its many forms.

The pressing issue remains what values come to the surface in academic communication and, by extension, how they can be measured. On the one hand, just like in the discussion on value neutrality in science, academic communication has generally been considered impersonal, objective and, therefore, almost value-free. And just like in the case already mentioned, there is an opposite end of the spectrum according to which academic communication is loaded with interpersonal meanings (Łyda, 2007; Warchał, 2015). Academic authors actively take stance, negotiate concepts, weigh arguments, express praise or criticism, engage in exchange of information and cooperate. In so doing, they make a distinct departure from neutrality of any kind. Hyland (2005b:66) argues that academic texts are not mere representations of reality but representations "always filtered through acts of selection and foregrounding". Such a selection inevitably involves a degree of personal judgement, whether on the importance of the presented facts, the relevance of the findings, the accuracy of the conclusions, the novelty of the proposed theory, or the accuracy of the language. The creation of knowledge is invariably done in the presence of others, that is, readers, fellow academics, research colleagues, and authors themselves. Academic values may, therefore be a reflection of the professional, social and cultural domains of the academy across a range of disciplines. Academic communication is consequently the bedrock of academic values.

Warchał (2015) observes that to understand the workings of a community's communication practices, one needs to be cognizant not only of the peculiarities of discourse but also of values underpinning these practices. These values may be associated with politeness towards a discourse community, respect, or academic honesty. For example, handling the data for the research or giving credit for the contributions of others indicates a scholar's respect for the work of others and appreciation of their knowledge. It is also important to note that academic effort consists of simultaneously acknowledging a current state of disciplinary knowledge and putting forward a well-crafted knowledge claim, which casts new light on the object of study and, as such, seeks the acceptance and approval of other community members. An academic contribution appears in print only when it has successfully undergone the process of evaluation, which could vary among disciplines. The primary aim remains to assess whether an argument is credible, reliable, and academically accurate. Hyland (1994:241) notes that a successful academic contribution should be "both original and closely related to the concerns and methods of current research, achieving a balance between the profound, but hazardous, and the correct, but insignificant".

There are several candidates for opening up a preliminary list of values in academic communication, the most suitable of which seems to be the following trio:

- goodness (the value of being *good)*
- novelty (the value of being *new*)
- relevance (the value of being *relevant*)

To illustrate the reason behind selecting these values, let us consider the C.A.R.S. model (Swales, 1990). In his much-cited model, Swales (1990) proposes a three-stage process essential to achieving success in academic life. In the Creating a Research Space model, one may discern various values that underpin each of the proposed stages. Put briefly, in Creating a Territory, which is Move 1; a researcher establishes their presence within a particular domain of research by reflecting on prior studies and pointing out why the topic of choice is worthy of attention. In Establishing a Niche, which is Move 2, a researcher identifies a gap in the current research and argues that it may shed new light on the object of study. Occupying the Niche, which is Move 3, is about claiming that the proposed research will effectively contribute to the existing knowledge and provide a new understanding of the topic. What follows is that central to academic communication is the ability to balance two motivations: the search for consensus and the need to form disagreement (Warchał, 2015).

As far as the C.A.R.S model is concerned, it can be argued that essential to academic contribution is *goodness* (the value of being good), *novelty* (the value of being novel, new and original), and *relevance* (the value of being *relevant* or *important* or *significant* to the research field). The value of being *good* is seen in Move 1, where a researcher provides not so much a review as a careful reflection on the existing research. The value of *novelty* emerges from Move 2, which is about finding a niche in the study, a gap that, once filled, creates a new and original piece of research that paves the way for developing a new understanding. Finally, Move 3 unravels the value of *relevance,* where a researcher is tasked with assessing to what degree their observation or discovery is relevant to their fellow community members. It is worth emphasizing that the C.A.R.S model is not limited to these three values only, nor does it serve as the only point of reference where these could be found.

Another source helpful in identifying academic values could be the reviewer guidelines from the *Linguistica Silesiana,* an international journal of linguistic studies. It comes in three parts, of which the middle is a set of questions that a reviewer is requested to answer either affirmatively or negatively. The form comprises questions of whether or not the subject of study is worthy of investigation, if the content is new, or if the study itself is relevant to the existing research in the area of investigation. Yet again, the value of *goodness*, *relevance*, and *novelty* show. Out of the many different aspects a reviewer is asked to take note of, the value of *novelty* and *relevance* seem to play a central role and, in a sense, overshadows the rest. As said, one of the requirements for publication is to deliver some new and fresh ideas to the discipline. The new findings aim to cast new light on a given topic and make a meaningful contribution to the community as a result. The value of *goodness* shows a bit different character, though. On the one hand, it may be argued that whatever is regarded as *novel* or *relevant* to the existing knowledge in the field is at the same time *good*, and so the value of *goodness* constitutes the most comprehensive, all-embracing quality of all. On the other hand, it is possible to look at the value of *goodness* from a much broader perspective and consider *why* a given idea is worthy of investigation and, as such, deserves attention and study. The question *why* is pertinent to the discussion because it draws attention to the many features of the work under review, all of which are considered good *for some reason*. The reasons are many and range from the questions concerning the appropriateness of data selection and methodology used in a study to the language of presentation to the overall structure of the paper, as shown in the further sections of the *Linguistica Silesiana* reviewer form. The above list of values may be therefore extended into:

- appropriateness (the value of being *appropriate*)
- accuracy (the value of being linguistically *accurate*)
- reliability (the value of being *reliable*)
- precision and clarity (the value of being *precise* and *clear*)
- honesty (the value of being *honest*)
- truth (the value of being *truthful*)

and, on reflection, further extended into:

- usability (the value of being *usable and practical*)
- size (the value of *big, large, small,* etc.)

The list, however incomplete it might be, includes a set of values in academia used to evaluate academic productions prior to publications.

Concluding remarks

Human life is imbued with values, and so is every human activity. One of its forms is concerned with gaining new knowledge and searching for the truth. The place in which such activity flourishes is *academia,* broadly understood in terms of the social, cultural and institutional dimensions of the university. The activity in question is *science*, and it has been given close attention throughout this chapter. It has been argued that knowledge is communicated through *academic discourse,* which is much more than mere language; its essence lies in a sense of togetherness and the willingness of a community to follow a shared code of conduct.

Science is a double-edged sword. Its fruits can be a powerful tool in the hands of those who use them wisely and a destructive weapon in the hands of those who misuse them. A moment's reflection will show that what has been written at the beginning of this chapter must now be changed into: Knowledge is *powerful* when it is shared. Despite its neutral and objective façade, scientific research is saturated with values, the most prominent of which are honesty, curiosity, reliability, open-mindedness, responsibility, and choice. Central in the process of communication of such findings is the value of *goodness*, *novelty*, and *relevance*, accompanied by the values of *accuracy*, *reliability*, *appropriateness* or *precision*, to name only the most conspicuous. The immediate conclusion must be, then, that values shape academic content, influence the dissemination and replication of knowledge and are a pertinent factor in all form of academic communication.

CHAPTER FOUR: Genres of Academic Communication

Introduction

Discussing a topic which has been thoroughly examined in an abundance of sources could be compared to following a path that has been much travelled: its route is comfortably familiar, albeit unsurprising. However, in choosing a familiar path lies a secret challenge, too. This challenge may involve seeing what has been overlooked or, most importantly, revisiting what is naturally bound to change.

Although already briefly outlined in the previous chapter as a form of academic identity, *discourse* enters the discussion yet again. Its comeback is not accidental, as it should be no surprise to observe that the very wording of "academic discourse" strongly suggests looking at its second element, too. The perspective now adopted is necessarily much broader than that of the previous chapter, including the three vital notions of academic communication: discourse, discourse community and (academic) genres. To some, discussing these essential points might resemble a domino effect, where analyzing one concept naturally leads to the analysis of the other. Therefore, the discussion on discourse segues into the notion of discourse community and its crucial characteristics. From there, there is only a small yet difficult step to the concept of genre and all the complexity that comes with it, ranging from the multitude of studies to the variety of approaches undertaken in its vast analyses. The overarching point of connection in all these notions is language – a key element in the linguistic landscape and far beyond.

At its heart, academic communication is about making connections, establishing relationships and seeking comfort from the presence of fellow academics in pursuance of shared goals. It is interesting to explore what lies at the core of such behaviour, what makes a discourse community, or what role social situatedness plays in an academic setting. Over the years, aspects like these have been given close attention by native and non-native scholars alike (see, e.g., Brown & Yule, 1983; Swales, 1990, 2004; Bhatia, 1993; 2004; van Dijk, 1997, 2009; 2014; Bruce, 2008a; Łyda, 2007; 2013; Warchał, 2018). Yet, the very same concepts have shown a slightly different face in each contribution, proving that travelling on a familiar path could be as interesting as exploring the unknown.

This chapter offers a modest contribution to the extensive discussion on the famous trio: discourse, discourse community and genre. All of these notions present serious definitional problems and defy easy classification, so the present discussion, however much desired, will not be easy. First, this chapter outlines the concept of discourse and its various characterizations, focusing on the main approaches that take language and context as their primary focus. Second, it looks at the concept of the discourse community and where it stands among other related concepts. Then, the discussion moves to the concept of the genre from the three main linguistic and rhetorical perspectives and, from there, proceeds to academic genres, focusing briefly on their written and spoken modes, presenting main typologies and attending to the two of them, i.e., the research article and the Ph.D. dissertations. Yet again, italics are used to represent concepts such as *discourse* or *genre* and a standard font for the words in a more general meaning.

4. Defining *discourse*

Discourse is as complex as it is diverse. Although intuitively conceived of as language, it is not without difficulty to give *discourse* a fair and definitive characterization, for almost all concepts that pertain to language use are said to be vague and elusive by nature. Indeed, in many of its accounts, *discourse* has been repeatedly described as “fuzzy”, “slippery”, or “nebulous”, which is a testament to its multi-sidedness and diversity.

In the vast and growing literature on the notion of *discourse,* we see a parade of definitions and a plethora of interpretations, each of which is vital in its own right but all together, creating a labyrinth of various concepts, vantage points, and threads of reasoning. Discourse is therein used as an abstract and a concrete noun, willingly employed in a number of various disciplines or juxtaposed with a power struggle or a vehicle for ideology. It is not easy, then, to lessen the burden of confusion and ambiguity when venturing into such wilderness of approaches rooted in both linguistic and non-linguistic traditions, ranging from applied linguistics to pragmatics to social sciences to sociolinguistics to cognitive psychology, to name but a few most prominent.

Studies on discourse, also often referred to as *discourse analysis*, are concerned with the many questions surrounding the concept of ‘language in use’, both spoken and written, which aim at investigating *how, when, why, where,* or *by whom* it is used (e.g. Brown & Yule, 1983; van Dijk, 2009). Some analyses focus exclusively on written discourse to examine its textual and lexico-grammatical properties and look at how language is regulated socially, culturally, and institutionally (Bahtia, 1999, 2004, 2014). Of importance is also the examination of language that goes beyond the sentence level and the relationship between language and socio-cultural context (e.g. Swales, 1983; Schiffrin, 1994; Duszak, 1997; Sinclair, 2004; van Dijk, 2011; 2014; Paltridge, 2012; Conley, O’Barr & Riner, 2019). Elsewhere, discourse is perceived as ‘language-in-society’, being an essential *social practice* or a *social process* (Blommaert, 2005:14). Within the broad studies of critical discourse analysis, the concept is explored through its links to power and ideological bias (e.g., Foucault, 1981; Fairclough, 1995; van Dijk, 2008; Wodak, 1989; 2013). The Polish-language contributions to discourse analysis comprise, for example, the works of Miczka (2002), Sławkowa (2006), Szymańska (2011), Witosz (2015), Synowiec (2013), Brzozowska (2014); Witczak-Plisiecka (2018), or Czachur (2020, 2022), for whom discourse is situated in a broad social and cultural context and should be perceived from a multidimensional perspective.

Extensive studies on discourse provide elaborate accounts of the dynamics of this multi-faceted concept, its meaning, scope and structure, as well as its purposes and functions. For reasons of space and relevance, aspects of ideological bias, social prejudice or injustice as forms of discourse will not be discussed here. This section offers a brief outline of the most relevant language- and context-related aspects of discourse which fall into the scope of this thesis. It is important to note that the proposed views of discourse are not mutually exclusive but complementary to one another.

4.1. Faces of discourse

4.1.1. Discourse as spoken and written language

For Brown and Yule (1983:3), the analysis of *discourse* is about the analysis of 'language in use', both written and spoken. Language is produced in two principal ways, speech and writing, each governed by a different set of rules and mechanisms. Halliday (1985:97) describes these ways as "two grids on experience". As far as spoken language is concerned, the speaker relies not only on the words they utter but also on the modulation and intonation of their voice through which they can form a certain impression on the hearer. The speaker is also able to observe and assess the reaction of the hearer to adjust their language accordingly. In written language, as Brown & Yule (1983) note, the writer enjoys the luxury of pausing between words, choosing or contemplating a particular word, using the dictionary if needs be, or even changing the conception of their writing if they wish to; none of which is readily available in spoken language.

Furthermore, it is customary for the speaker to feel some tension or pressure when making a speech during a pre-allocated period of time, while the writer ordinarily does not feel such pressure, as they work leisurely and reflectively. The writer, on the other hand, may feel inconvenienced when they see no immediate reaction of the reader and must, therefore, imagine or otherwise project it in their mind, which is a severe obstacle in forming a relationship with the reader. It is also important to note that speech is characteristically dynamic and dialogic, while writing is essentially static and monologic. These qualities result in speech being regarded as unpredictable and volatile, whilst writing as more rigid and procedural. The list of differences between spoken and written language could be long and elaborate; these given above are only used for a general reference and a further discussion on discourse and its two modes.

Spoken and written language play a number of different roles. Brown & Yule (1983) note that language is characterized as having many communicative functions, most notable of which are its *transactional* and *interactional* roles. Language whose aim is to convey a message is said to be *primarily transactional*, while language concentrated on establishing and maintaining social relationships is *primarily interactional*. The following distinction is as clear-cut as it can be and provides a reliable indicator of how language can be used in a variety of situations. According to Brown & Yule (1983), everyday life communication is said to be more interactional than transactional. One typical example could be weather talk, which is not aimed at exchanging meteorological information but rather the speaker's readiness to make conversation and establish a friendly rapport with their interlocutor. Brown and Levinson (1978) stress the importance of relationship bonding strategies, the overall purpose of which lies in agreeing on points of view and establishing points of connection, often by *repeating* what the other speaker has said (italics original). The situation is often reversed as far as written language is concerned. Written communication tends to be more transactional in nature: the writer's main goal is to *communicate* information rather than express the willingness to engage in a social relation. As Brown & Yule (1983) note, the relationship between speech and writing is quite straightforward. The former is characteristically short-lived and transient, while the latter is more permanent. Thus, a piece of writing is a more reliable and convenient medium for carrying out its author's intentions if such intentions include formal occasions or circumstances that demand tangible evidence, for example, in documents, laws, or contracts. Spoken language, however, is generally more effective in creating bonds between people in the way written language does not, nor will it ever be able to. These two modes of language, although inherently different regarding language production and reception, perform an essential role in preserving communication and interaction between and among people in their social circles.

While set in a completely different paradigm, Van Dijk's (1997) concept of discourse also assumes the presence of interaction and transaction. Van Dijk (1997:2) argues that discourse is at least a three-dimensional phenomenon that is:

- language use;
- communication of beliefs (cognition);
- interaction in social situations.

It follows that discourse is a form of language use which serves the purpose of communicating ideas and beliefs in a complex social event of interaction. Discourse is, then, an essential dimension of these language-oriented events and lies at the core of human communication and interaction. According to Van Dijk (1997), discourse is not limited to spoken language and comprises written language, too. Van Dijk (1997:3) stresses the importance of "talk and text in context", the former being the product of speech and the latter the product of writing.

4.1.2. Discourse as context

So far, it has been shown that discourse is characterized as having two basic modes, spoken and written and that these two modes affect the understanding of language. What has also been argued is that *context* is a decisive element as far as *understanding* is concerned. For Harris (1952), who coined the term *discourse analysis*, the study of language should consist of a close examination of the language beyond the level of the sentence and "the relationship between linguistic and non-linguistic behaviour", which means that a person knows how to interpret a certain piece of language from a situation they are in. Van Dijk (2011) observes that the understanding and interpretation of the same discourse may differ from person to person and is contingent upon the particular social or cultural situation in which it has been used. Paltridge (2012) provides Harris's illustration to support this view and argues that the sentence spoken by an air traffic controller, "The runway is full at the moment", is of at least dual interpretations, depending on the producer and the recipient of the message. One likely interpretation is that the message is an instruction addressed to a pilot, in which case it means that the landing of the plane is not possible. Another interpretation may be that the sentence is said by a passenger who comments on the plane being late due to the queue on the runway. There is perhaps a third or fourth plausible interpretation of the sentence, which inevitably leads to one conclusion: language takes on a particular meaning in a particular situation. Van Dijk (2011) argues that contexts are not objective but rather intersubjective and hinge upon the participants and the community they belong to.

The importance of context, also referred to as the "environment" or "circumstances", has been noticed by Brown & Yule (1983), for whom discourse is context-dependent. The *discourse-as-process* approach is the view which takes the communicative function of language as its prime focus. For Brown & Yule (1983), linguistic form is a dynamic structure responsive to ever-changing circumstances and configurations of human relationships. The dynamic approach stands in sharp contrast to a more static approach, such as the *sentence-as-object* and the *text-as-product* view. The former, being the focus of the study of sentence-grammarians, does not account for the aspect of behaviour as far as language is concerned. Language is primarily viewed as a set of objects which can exist independently of any individual speaker (see Chomsky, 1968). It is vital to mention that in the *sentence-as-object* approach, there are no producers or receivers of language. In the *text-as-product* approach, which, as Brown & Yule (1983) note, is less extreme, there are producers and recipients of language, but the analysis focuses solely on the *product*, which is text. No consideration is given to *how* the text is produced or received by its recipient. The *discourse-as-process* approach takes as its primary task the process of understanding the language both by the producer and the recipient, who, at the same time, contribute to the creation of discourse by "conveying meanings and accomplishing actions" (Schiffrin, 1987:6).

At this point, it should be added that all texts, whether they are spoken or written, are produced against the background of other texts that had been produced before (Lemke, 1992). The intertextual relationship is also noted by Bazerman (2004:23), who argues that:

> we create our texts of the sea of former texts that surround us, the sea of language we live in. And we understand the texts of others within the same sea.

In the process of producing a piece of writing or speech, the author positions themselves in relation to the sources they use, whether intentionally or unintentionally. A piece of language, then, is simultaneously a reflection of the author's stance and beliefs, and beliefs and values of the community of which they are part. The ultimate conclusion may be that *discourse* is a melting pot of various influences, cultures, social strategies, beliefs and values displayed in various language productions that come into life.

4.1.3. Discourse as language beyond the sentence level

One of the most explicit voices advocating that discourse goes beyond the level of the sentence belongs to Stubbs (1983:1), who argues that discourse is "language above the sentence or above the clause". His perspective is in agreement with the structural approaches, which "characterize discourse at several levels or dimensions of analysis and in terms of many different units, categories, schematic patterns, or relations." (van Dijk, 1985:4). This perspective is further elaborated in Schiffrin (1994:39), where she claims that "Discourse is utterances. This view captures the idea that discourse is 'above' (larger than) other units of language". This power of the meaning is replicated by Bazerman (2010:xii), for whom genre highlights the "individuality of each situated utterance" and is further elaborated in his discussion on communicative action.

That discourse (and, by extension, genre as the system within) transcends the level of the sentence is noted in Harris (1951), for whom discourse is the next level in a hierarchy of morphemes, clauses, and sentences. The structure is what differentiates discourse from a randomly produced sequence of sentences, and patterns within the structure occur and recur in relation to each other.

Schiffrin (1994) argues that relying on the *sentence* as the unit of discourse is not without theoretical complications or limitations, particularly in spoken language, where chunks of speech may not always take the form of a carefully crafted piece of writing. The problem of the analysis of "spoken texts" is also noted by Brown & Yule (1983), for whom the transcriptions of speeches are devoid of suprasegmental features, for example, details of intonation and rhythm and paralinguistic features that roughly may correspond to "voice quality", i.e., information on pausing, hesitation, and the like. Qualities like these are crucial in interpreting the meanings of spoken language. Of particular interest is establishing whether language has been produced cordially, with a friendly attitude, or said harshly and disagreeably, which clearly creates the opposite impression. Therefore, it may be argued that the overall impression of the interlocutor is instrumental in understanding and interpreting what has been said. On the speaker's part, voice modulation or intonation may play a decisive role in communicating ideas and emotions in ways which are inaccessible as far as writing is concerned. While it is reasonable to assume that details of intonation, pause, or rhythm structure are ordinarily rendered into written language following the conventional editing rules, i.e., punctuation, italicization, or paragraphing, Schiffrin (1994) argues that these efforts have met with uneven success, as they do not provide the complete and accurate representation of the actual words clustered together in spoken language. As said earlier, spoken language is characterized as a dynamic and unpredictable process, which means spoken phenomena may not be easily transposed into writing. Schiffrin (1994) also observes that the view that discourse is language above the sentence has its conceptual and analytical consequences, too. While this section will not expand on the details of these lengthy theoretical considerations, suffice it to say that discourse may not be structurally similar to the sentences it comprises (Stubbs, 1983).

Of particular importance here is the term "sentence" and the object it refers to, and the distinction between "text-sentences" and "system-sentences", the former referred to as "the products of ordinary language behaviour" (Lyons, 1971). System sentences are described as "the well-formed strings that are generated by the grammar", while text-sentences are "context-dependent utterance-signals (or parts of utterance-signals), tokens of which may occur in particular texts" (Lyons, 1977:385, 622). The view that discourse is language beyond the level of the sentence embraces the meaning of “sentence” in a “text-sentence” and not the ”system-sentence” sense. According to Brown & Yule (1983), discourse analysis that sees discourse as language beyond the text-sentence focuses on the mental processes involved in the production of language as well as the physical and social contexts in which these sentences occur. In a similar vein, Schiffrin (1994) argues that viewing discourse as a unit above the sentence is not only a definition of discourse but also a methodological approach.

4.1.4. Dimensions of discourse

Closely connected with the view that views discourse as ‘language in use’, yet linking it more to social situatedness, is the perspective adopted by Czachur (2022:87), who argues that discourse could be examined from four different perspectives. It is worth mentioning that these perspectives are frequently overlapping with one another, so they should not be taken as mutually exclusive but rather interrelating. Particularly important is the observation that each of the proposed dimensions sees discourse as language constituted and shaped by factors normally falling outside the scope of language, such as political influence, ideology, or the institution. These dimensions are:

- institutional
- substantial
- thematic
- ideological

Specific forms and strategies of communication govern the institutional dimension. Relevant examples may include *political discourse*, *educational discourse*, *administrative discourse*, *military discourse*, or *academic discourse*, each of which is governed by a set of pre-determined rules and conventions. As argued in the previous chapter, *academic discourse* transcends language in that it forms a special professional and interpersonal bond in the community of individuals who share a recognized culture and common goals. To be part of the community requires sharing these goals and understanding the culture, which is reflected, as in a mirror, the language and behaviour of the institution.

The substantial dimension relates to the “carrier” of discourse, which simultaneously shapes and is shaped by language. Here, examples may include *radio discourse*, *Internet discourse*, or, put more generally, *media discourse*. The thematic dimension is centred on the dominant *theme*, which, for reasons known to the community, is held essential and relevant, for example, *cost-of-living discourse*, *the coronavirus discourse*, *the discourse on the situation in Ukraine*, or *feminist discourse.*

Czachur's (2022) approach to discourse is in agreement with the view presented by Paltridge (2012), who argues that social identity is built through discourse and that different styles of languages give rise to what he calls "social languages" (see also Gee, 1996). What follows is that the social situatedness of discourse makes it a dynamic process where identities and activities are revealed and preserved. This interplay of particular ways of acting, interacting, and feeling is also noted in Gee (2011:36), who, drawing on speech act theory and the linguistic and philosophical contribution of Austin, refers to it as "dance" and "performance" and further continues that:

> Discourse is a 'dance' that exists in the abstract as a coordinated pattern of words, deeds, **values**, beliefs, systems, tools, objects, times, and places in the here and now as a performance that is recognizable as just such a coordination. Like a dance, the performance here and how is never exactly the same. It all comes down, often, to what the 'masters of the dance' will allow to be recognized or will be forced to recognize as a possible instantiation of the dance.
>
> (bold type mine)

It follows that discourse uses language as a powerful tool for building social identities, which are constructed socially rather than naturally, including the construction of self-identity. This view of discourse as a predominant factor in self-identification and recognition is also stressed in Cameron (1999:144), who observes that people "are who they are because of (among other things) the way they *talk*, not because of who they (already) are' (italics mine). This idea corresponds to the views held by Pennycook (2007:70), who argues that "we are not who we are because of some inner being but because of what we do" and later, "in doing the identity is produced" (Pennycook, 2010). Particularly relevant here appears to be Heidegger's view that "we do not speak languages, but rather languages speak us", as noted by Bex (1996:61).

4.2. Discourse community

The term *discourse community* owes its widespread recognition to Swales's "Genre Analysis" and has been associated with it ever since. However, *discourse community* is not alone in a range of community-related concepts and is not free from definitional problems. Among other concepts that roughly relate to purpose-driven groups of individuals using language for communication are *speech community* (Hymes, 1972, 1974), *interpretive community* (Fish, 1982), or *community of practice* (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998), for example.

As a concept, discourse community derives from speech community and interpretive community but does not sit comfortably between them. Speech community refers to "actual people who recognize their language use as different from other language uses" (e.g. British English speakers vs Australian English speakers), while interpretive community refers to "an open network of people who share ways of reading texts, primarily literary texts" (Borg, 2003:398). The term "interpretive" highlights the social aspect of interpretation. Community of practice, unlike discourse and speech communities, is characterized by a "mutual engagement" and a "joint enterprise" (Wegner, 1998:78). These requirements separate the concept of community of practice from Swales's discourse community, which is more disparate (Bruce, 2008a). Elsewhere, a community of practice has been described in more length as a "particular model of learning, namely, learning in which people, through a process of legitimate peripheral participation, take up membership in and identity with a community which serves as the home of these shared practices" (Hoadley, 2012:299).

Swales (1990:9) puts forward his definition of discourse communities as "socio-rhetorical networks that form in order to work towards sets of common goals". In a similar vein, Porter's view (1986:38) is not dissimilar to that of Swales's when he holds that a discourse community is "a group of individuals bound by a *common interest* who communicate through approved channels and whose discourse is regulated" (italics mine). Whether "common goals" are to be equated with "common interests" is a matter open to dispute; however, as Borg (2003) suggests, these two terms are not equivalent and not synonymous. Porter (1992:106) continues that discourse community "is a textual system with stated and unstated conventions, a vital history, mechanisms for wielding power, institutional hierarchies, vested interests, and so on".

In his take on discourse community, Swales (1990) differentiates his concept from the concept of speech community for reasons which are briefly outlined below. Discourse communities are groups of a socio-rhetorical nature, while speech communities are more sociolinguistic. In a sociolinguistic speech community, the communicative needs of the *group* (italics original), such as socialization or group solidarity, come to the fore as far as its discoursal characteristics are concerned. Linguistic behaviour is, then, more socially determined. In a socio-rhetorical discourse community, linguistic behaviour is functional, which means it seeks to achieve objectives prior to those of socialization or solidarity. In a discourse community, the communicative needs of the *goals* (italics original) prevail as far as its discoursal characteristics are concerned.

Furthermore, in terms of the fabric of society, to use Swales's (1990) wording, speech communities are centripetal, whilst discourse communities are centrifugal. The former relates to speech communities as a group of people clustered together into one structure. In contrast, the latter corresponds to a group of people separated into occupational or speciality-interest groups.

Swales (1990:24–27) elucidates discourse community by elaborating on its six essential characteristics. According to these characteristics, the discourse community:

1. has a broadly agreed set of common public goals.
2. has mechanisms of intercommunication among its members.
3. utilizes and hence possesses one or more genres in the communicative furtherance of its aims.
4. in addition to owing genres, it has acquired some specific lexis.
5. has a threshold level of members with a suitable degree of relevant content and discoursal expertise.

Discourse communities are frequently regarded and associated only as forms of scholarly groups, which, as Swales (1990) puts it, is a false impression. To defend his argument, he takes as an example *The Hong Kong Study Circle* discourse community to which he himself belongs. It is a community of philatelists from around the world who never meet in person but are nevertheless united by a shared interest in collecting stamps of Hong Kong. Although the collectors never gather physically, they share a newsletter that could be considered a physical meeting substitute. The newsletter takes a particular form and structure, thus forming a genre on its own and serving the purpose of unifying group members worldwide. Therefore, it is a crucial medium of communication in pursuance of common goals. It is worth noting that the community includes people from all walks of life who, apart from their shared interest in stamps, have nothing else in common, at least not to Swales's knowledge. The members are well-versed in stamp collecting and boast a high level of expertise in the hobby.

In light of the above, the discourse community of stamp collectors conforms to the six criteria presented by Swales (1990). Unlike a speech community where membership is pre-established by virtue of a shared language, members of a discourse community usually exercise choice as part of their membership. Also, unlike an interpretive community, members of a discourse community actively communicate with other members and exchange ideas that help pursue their common goals. What also emerges from the description of a discourse community is the fact that it uses written language as a means of communication. The analysis of the discourse community communication naturally focuses on the study of written language only. This aspect is further revisited by Swales (1998), where he differentiates between *discourse communities* and *place discourse communities* united by both spoken and written communication. This modification is of crucial importance because it looks at how the community reproduces itself and how it admits novice members into the fold (Borg, 2023). In the context of academic communities, as Borg further (2003) notes, admitting new members as a survival mechanism is a significant element. To be admitted into a community, aspiring members must acquire knowledge of the expectations of a community either by analysing and teaching written texts or through the process of apprenticeship (see also Atkinson, 1997; Wenger, 1998).

While it is interesting to look at how Swales's original conception of discourse community has evolved since its first publication (mainly in his further works of 1993, 1998, but also in 2004) and how it has been revisited or contested by other scholars (e.g., Porter, 1992; Bex, 1996, Johns, 1997; Bhatia, 2002; Borg, 2003) or juxtaposed with different views of social networks (see, e.g., Milroy's 1987 concept of *close-knit* and *loose-knit memberships* in Bex, 1996), this section will not pore over the details of these considerations and critiques. Suffice it to say that some criticism has been formulated by Bex (1996), who remains unconvinced whether Swales's view of the *discourse community* would also embrace the *academic community*. Furthermore, he argues that the boundaries of a discourse community have not been clearly defined, nor has its size. This argument is also reiterated by Borg (2003), who challenges Swales's (1990) concept, arguing that the number of community members is a matter not clearly resolved. Other issues concerning speech as a prerequisite for maintaining a discourse community or questions of how stable a community and its genre are have also been brought into greater focus.

Even a cursory look at the structure and dynamics of discourse community enables us to see that the study of these hinges upon their vital element: *genre*. Genre embraces language which is socially and culturally motivated and, in so doing, provides a wealth of information about culture and the relations within social arrangements and their various meanings seen and explored both from an individual and collective perspective.

4.3. The concept of *genre*

Pivotal to Swales's approach to genre study are three interrelated concepts: discourse community, communicative purpose, and genre. Genre is regarded as a "property of a discourse community" used "in the communicative furtherance of common goals" (Swales, 1990:9). According to Swales (1990), a genre belongs to discourse communities, not to individuals or other kinds of groupings of individuals. A genre fulfils a particular social function (as seen in the case of *The Hong Kong Study Circle'*s newsletter distributed among its members) where it uses language as its prime instrument in enabling members of a discourse community to achieve the communicative purposes and thus consolidate the feeling of belonging in a particular socio-cultural setting.

However, the richness of the concept creates a picture of *genre* that is far more complex and intricate than it may initially be assumed. Apart from its obvious linguistic allure, genre and genre-based investigations could be traced back to antiquity, folklore studies or literary traditions (Swales, 1990). The concept has undergone a remarkably long journey on its way to the present form, suffering from uncertainty (Swales, 1990) and instability (Kress, 1993), being sensitive to disciplinary variation (Bhatia, 2004), or shaped by various pedagogical imperatives (Swales & Feak, 2000). Interestingly, as Bazerman (2010) observes, even the etymology of the word *genre* reflects the competing views that dominate the landscape of genre analysis. On the one hand, *genre* has been defined as a classificatory tool or conceived of as a label or container for meaning through its connection to the Latin word *genus*, which refers to “kind” or “a class of things”. On the other hand, however, through its connection to the Latin *gener*, which means “to generate”, *genre* has also been seen as a “shaper of texts, meanings and social actions” (Bazerman, 2010:4) and understood as a form of cultural knowledge.

The last forty years of research have not softened the confusion around genre; quite the reverse, it may be argued that the proliferation of studies augmented this confusion even more. Linguistic and rhetorical approaches to genre have been carried out from at least three different traditions: that of Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1978; Martin, 1985; Frow, 2006), that of applied linguistics, especially in the area of English for Specific Purposes (Candlin & Hyland, 1999; Swales, 1990, 2009; Swales & Feak, 2000; Bhatia, 1998, 2004, 2008), and that of Rhetorical Genre Studies, also known as New Rhetoric or North American Genre Theory (e.g., Freedman & Medway, 1994; Artemeva, 2004). Notwithstanding the differences among these approaches, an overwhelming point of connection is reflected in their shared understanding of *genre* as inextricably linked to social situatedness.

Given that the term *genre* has not been used unanimously in linguistic studies and that it has frequently been discarded in favour of the term *register* or juxtaposed with a related yet much broader concept of *style*, the section will provide a brief outline of these terms and the conceptual differences they exhibit. Also, as convincingly demonstrated by Hyland (2002), since investigations of genre differ in their emphasis given to either text or context or how they view the role of texts and their structure in social communities, a short overview of the rationale underlying each of the perspectives will be presented.

4.3.1. Genre and register in Systemic Functional Linguistics

One problem that arises with the linguistic conceptualization of *genre* is that it has been heavily entangled with the concept of *register* (see, e.g., Halliday, 1978; Martin, 1997; Ventola, 1978; Frow, 1980), a term of greater longevity and usage, especially in the field of Systemic Functional Linguistics. Over the years, the two competing terms have gained much linguistic attention but no general consensus. Some linguists exclusively use the term *genre* (e.g., Biber, 1988; Swales, 1990, 2004; Bahtia, 1993, 2004), while others favour the term *register* (e.g., Hymes, 1984; Biber et al. 1999; Conrad, 2001; Biber & Grey, 2016).

In an effort to draw a line between genre and register, a note should be taken of the perception of language according to the SFL tradition. At its core, the systemic perspective views language as inextricably intertwined with social context. A critical clue to understanding language use is a culture within which it operates with the aim of serving and realizing a social purpose. At the same time, social purposes and contexts realize language, which manifests in social actions and meanings (Bawarshi & Reiff, 2010).

One of the most influential figures in the SFL tradition is Michael Halliday, for whom language is a form of socialization that allows and enables individuals to perform meaningful actions in the context of a situation. According to Halliday (1976:29), a situation is not an isolated occurrence but rather a cluster of similar events which form "situation types", for example, phone orders or bedtime storytelling. These social situations require using specific "semantic configurations", consisting of lexio-grammatical patterns Halliday (1976) famously calls *register*. Elsewhere, register, also referred to as functional language variation, has also been defined as "contextual category correlating groupings of linguistic features with recurrent situational features" (Gregory & Carroll, 1978:4, quoted in Swales, 1990:40). Register has been studied in terms of three variables: *field* (the type of activity in which discourse operates), *tenor* (the social relations between the participants within the discourse), and *mode* (the role of language in a channel of communication).

As discussed in Chapter Two, the SFL tradition sees language as having three "metafunctions": ideational, interpersonal, and textual. Martin (1997) convincingly demonstrates how the linguistic level (metafunctions) blends with the socio-cultural level (register)—the overall picture of language and social context is presented in Figure 12.

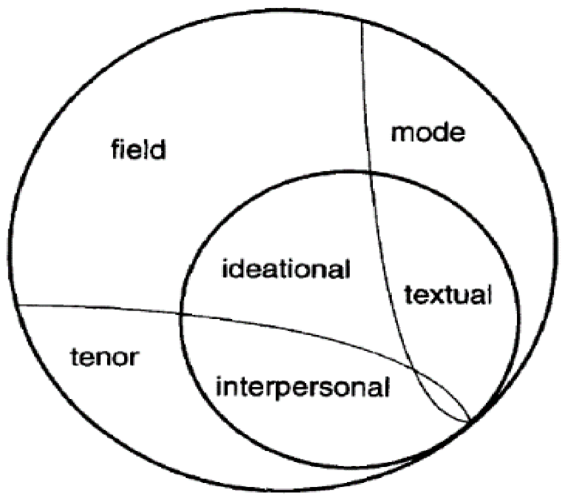


Fig. 12. Language and social context in SFL tradition (Martin, 1997:5)

It follows that the ideational metafunction corresponds to the *field* of register, the interpersonal metafunction refers to *tenor*, and the textual metafunction corresponds to *mode*. The categories of register, as Swales (1990) observes, offer a framework and guidance for analysis, but they are not kinds of language. Elsewhere, Bawarshi & Reiff (2010) take note of the "scientific register" being not only a specific style of language but also the patterns of interaction and social communications in a specific context. Context-dependent language in a social situation is also noted by Lewin, Fine & Young (2001), who give an example of the structure of social greetings in which individuals could employ a variety of different registers: 'Good morning, hello, hi', all of which depends on the relationship between or among the interlocutors.

The systemic approaches to the genre were influenced mainly by the works of Martin, Rothery, and Couture. In his earlier work, Martin (1985:250) argues:

> Genres are how things get done when language is used to accomplish them. They range from literary to far from literary forms: poems, narratives, expositions, lectures, seminars, recipes, manuals, appointment-making, service encounters, news broadcasts and so on. The term genre is used here to embrace each of the linguistically realized activity types which comprise so much to our culture.

Martin (1985) sees genre, register and language as three inextricably linked with one another systems, arguing that "genres are realized through register, and register are realized through language" (Swales, 1990:40). Thus, genre is viewed as a "system underlying register" (ibid:40). In his later work, Martin (1997:13) defines genre as "staged, goal-oriented social process through which social subjects in a given culture live their lives".

Couture's (1986) view somewhat differs from Martin's (1985), where she argues that register and genre concepts must be kept separately, for register influences the linguistic level of lexis and syntax, while genre operates on the level of discourse structure. Couture (1986:82) argues that

> unlike register, genre can only be realized in complete texts or texts that can be projected as complete, for a genre does not more than specify kinds of codes extant in a group of related texts; it specifies the conditions for beginning, continuing and ending a text.

Following Couture (1986), Swales (1990) takes as examples of genre a research report, explanation or business reports, as they all exhibit a structure that can be complete or, to quote the author's words is "completable". Registers, on the other hand, could be seen in the language of scientific reporting, language of newspaper reporting, or bureaucratic language, and they are more to do with stylistic choices. These characteristics are also acknowledged by Biber & Conrad (2009)for whom genre emphasizes the conventional features of whole texts, while register emphasizes variation in use as far as linguistic features are concerned. Having the form of complete texts, genres are characteristically divided into three components: the beginning, the middle, and the end. Each of these parts may exhibit a range of linguistic features of the register.

Couture (1986:87 quoted in Swales, 1990:41) observes the differential relationship between genre and register on a scale which is highly explicit on the one end and highly elliptical on the other and gives the following example:

> Since the two sides of the scale are independent, a writer could select a genre that implies a high level of explicitness (like a business report) and at the same time select a register that demands less explicitness (such as bureaucratic language). In doing so, the writer must decide which criteria of explicitness he or she wishes to dictate linguistic choice (clear hierarchical development of message and support demanded by the report genre or implicit expression of the cultural values of impartiality, power and prestige with bureaucratic style).

What follows is that the same piece of writing can be analyzed in terms of its genre and its register, and these two variables may show different critical clues about the text itself and the sociocultural setting in which it has been produced.

4.3.1.1. Genre, register, and style

Biber & Conrad (2009) distinguish *genre*, *register* and *style* as three separate and independent variables according to which the same texts or varieties could be analysed. However, elaborate as it is, Biber & Conrad's (2009) take on register, genre, and style does not put forward a distinctive conceptualization of genre.

The three perspectives are given close attention and are exemplified with a number of representative texts or text samples. Table 5 presents these three perspectives.

Defining characteristic	**Register**	**Genre**	**Style**
Textual focus	sample of text excerpts	complete texts	sample of text excerpts
Linguistic characteristics	any lexio-grammatical feature	specialized expressions, rhetorical organizations, formatting	any lexio-grammatical feature
Distribution of linguistic characteristics	frequent and pervasive in texts from the variety	usually once-occurring in the text, in a particular place in the text	frequent and pervasive in texts from the variety
Interpretation	features serve important communicative functions in the register	features are conventionally associated with the genre: the expected format, but often not functional	features are not directly functional; they are preferred because they are aesthetically valued

Table 5. Defining characteristics of registers, genres, and styles (Biber & Conrad, 2009:16)

As shown in Table 5, the four parameters refer to (1) the texts selected for the analysis, (2) the linguistic characteristics considered for the analysis, (3) the distributions of those characteristics across the text, and (4) the interpretation of the linguistic differences. Regarding genre, the textual focus is on the structure of complete texts, whereas register and style are concerned with the pervasive linguistic characteristics in text excerpts. The genre perspective takes as its focus the linguistic characteristics that occur only once in a text, and so the interpretation of these features is ordinarily associated with a particular variety. Following Swales (1990), Biber & Conrad (2009) argue that a business letter could be a suitable illustration of a genre, and its analysis will fall on the textual conventions with which the letter is produced, i.e., the conventional ways to begin and end a text.

What follows is that the main difference between genre and register perspective lies in the textual focus: that of a complete text and that of a text excerpt, respectively. Register, which uses text excerpts, renders genre analysis inadequate, as it is too short and incomplete to contain all the linguistic conventions that define genre. The register perspective allows for an analysis focusing more on the typical features of a particular context. These linguistic features are traceable throughout any text sample, so no complete texts are necessary. Interestingly, complete texts that are used for genre analysis can also be used for analyzing registers. Biber & Conrad (2009) demonstrate that a newspaper story follows the genre conventions as far as its whole structure is concerned and shows the linguistic features typical of the register of news reporting, e.g., past tense verbs or passive voice. Since these features are ubiquitous in news reports regardless of their part, they can be found in complete texts and text excerpts alike.

The style perspective is similar to that of register but differs in interpretation. It concerns the typical linguistic features identified in samples of text excerpts. Still, the interpretation of these features is to do with the aesthetic preferences and aesthetic purposes which are achieved through the manipulation of language. Styles could be detected within a genre or register alike and are particularly evident in genres or registers of fiction. For example, stylistic features may include a tendency on the part of the author to write elaborate and complex sentences or, on the contrary, very short, simple sentences. An individual author, historical period or a socio-cultural context for novels may, too, be reflected through style. Biber & Conrad (2009) demonstrate that there exists a difference between the fictional styles of the 18th century and the contemporary ones, but these linguistic differences are not functional but rather stylistic.

As noted by the authors, the genre, register and style perspective could be adopted to analyze the same texts or varieties, which could be observed as far as the scientific research article is observed, for example. From the genre perspective, it could be studied in terms of its conventional structure; from the register perspective, it could focus on the identification of its pervasive linguistic characteristics (passive verbs, nominalizations, long noun phrases); and from the style perspective, it could be concerned with the linguistic features typical of a particular author or a socio-cultural context.

4.3.2. Genre in New Rhetoric

Unlike the systemic-functional approach, the new rhetorical perspective reconceptualizes genre and redefines it as a "typified social action rather than as conventional formulas" (Devitt, 2000:697), allowing researchers to focus on the ways "particular discourses are socially motivated, generated, and constrained" (Coe & Freedman, 1998:137). The new rhetoricians are more interested in what discourse does rather than how it is represented, which is considered of secondary importance. Therefore, the object of study within the new rhetorical approach falls on the socio-cultural context in which texts are produced rather than linguistic descriptions of the text structure or its regularities. Artemeva (2004) observes that the new rhetorical perspective offers an interesting insight that views genre as more than just a textual form. Bazerman (1997:19) puts it as follows:

> Genres are forms of life, ways of being. They are frames for social action. They are environments for learning. They are locations within which meaning is constructed. Genres shape the thought we form and the communications by which we interact. Genres are the familiar places we go to create intelligible communicative actions with each other and the guideposts we use to explore the unfamiliar.

From this perspective, genres are a communication strategy characterized as a flexible and dynamic phenomenon where textual regularities are socially dependent and constitute human activity. (Bawarshi, 2000). Genres are central in constructing the attitudes, beliefs and values in the communities of text users, so the methodologies used to investigate genres are more ethnographic than text analytic (Hyland, 2002).

Interestingly, Bazerman's characterization of genre gave rise to Swales's (2004) revision of the concept, which he began to view metaphorically. "Genre as frame" was one of Swales's metaphors according to which genre *promises* a social action (italics mine) but does not guarantee that it will be accomplished.

4.3.3. Genre in the ESP tradition

The ESP approach to genre sits between Systemic Functional and New Rhetoricians in that it takes as its focus the text structure with its communicative purposes and employs the notions of intertextuality (Hyland, 2002). Among the most notable contributions in this area is Swales's *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings* (1990) and his subsequent volume *Research Genres: Explorations and Applications* (2004), which have been a constant source of inspiration for many other genre analyses within the field of linguistics and beyond. In defining genre, Swales (1990:58) argues that:

> A genre comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes. These purposes are recognized by the expert members of the parent discourse community, and thereby constitute the rationale for the genre. This rationale shapes the schematic structure of the discourse and influences and constrains choice of content and style. Communicative

> purpose is both a privileged criterion and one that operates to keep the scope of a genre as here conceived narrowly focused on comparable rhetorical action. In addition to purpose, exemplars of a genre exhibit various patterns of similarity in terms of structure, style, content and intended audience.

It follows that the communicative purpose of the discourse community is, by and large, identifiable and is a key factor in determining whether a text is an example of a particular genre (Paltridge, 2012). The communicative purpose is given the utmost priority, and its overt formulation is almost taken for granted, which, as it turns out later, may not always be the case (Askehave & Swales, 2001; Bhatia, 2004). In the early studies on genre, the elusiveness of the communicative purpose was not yet discerned, and researchers failed to take note of the multifunctionality of the purpose and its multi-layered nature.

Back to Swales's first conceptualization of genre, the communicative purpose is seen as the defining quality of genre, which not only helps the members of a community achieve and pursue their goals but also regulates the survival of a community by admitting new members and initiating them into the knowledge and a culture of shared goals. The understanding of the communicative purpose is the ultimate reflection of the genre under analysis; it is its essence and foundation. As noted by Bawarshi & Reiff (2010), the communicative purpose has been regarded as an essential quality of genre and its structure and is often a point of departure for genre analyses rooted in the ESP tradition. It is customary for researchers to start their genre analysis by identifying a discourse community and defining the communicative purpose it serves. The next step involves analyzing the schematic structure of a genre and the textual and linguistic features manifest in these patterns. Elaborating on Swales's definition, Bhatia (1993:49) emphasizes that genre is "highly structured and conventionalized with constraints on allowable contributions in terms of their intent, positioning, form and functional value". To undertake an analysis of genre, Bhatia (1993:63-80) proposes a seven-step framework which consists of the following:

1. Placing the given genre text in a situational context
2. Surveying the existing literature
3. Refining the situational/contextual analysis
4. Selecting corpus
5. Studying the institutional context
6. Levels of linguistics analysis (Level 1: Analysis of lexico-grammatical features; Level 2: analysis of text-patterning or textualization; Level 3: structural interpretation of the text genre)
7. Specialist information in genre analysis

These steps provide a broad framework of genre analyses, and although researchers may vary in their decision about the extent to which the steps are followed or the very order of the points presented above, the framework offers valuable insight into the nature of such investigations. By moving from contextual to textual analysis, the ESP researchers gain a comprehensive view of the genre and are able to determine its structural, lexio-grammatical and textual form. One of the most influential analyses comprising aspects of structure, language and text is proposed by Swales (1990) in his investigation of the research article. Particularly pertinent is the research article introduction in which Swales (ibid) seeks to identify the typical "moves" the author ordinarily makes at the very beginning of their articles. Swales & Feak (2000:35) define a "move" as a "bounded communicative act that is designed to achieve one main communicative objective" embedded in the larger communicative objective of the genre. Following his C.A.R.S model, Swales (1990) aims to analyze the patterns and lexio-grammatical features of the article introduction, for example, patterns of citation that the research article author uses to give credit to other writers or the frequency of reporting verbs with which the research article author summarizes the previous research and their findings.

As signalled above, the communicative purpose poses much more difficulty than it was initially assumed. In recognizing the multi-sidedness of the communicative purpose, Askehave & Swales (2001:199) argue that

> we are no longer looking at a simple enumerable list or 'set' of communicative purposes, but a complexly layered one, wherein some purposes are not likely to be officially 'acknowledged' by the institution, even if they may be 'recognized' – particularly in off-record situations – by some of its expert members.

The first conceptualization of genre has had to undergo a necessary correction in acknowledging that there may be a "sets of communicative purposes", each of which influences the network genres create. It is also worth emphasizing that this reformulation is not the only one in Swales's overall approach to genre. In his later work, Swales (2004:61) discards the earlier readiness to pursue a definitional depiction of genre and argues that genres are, in fact, "essentially metaphorical". In recognizing the symbolic nature of genre, Swales (2004:61) argues that "definitions can prevent us from seeing newly explored or newly emergent genres for what they really are". The discussion on the emerging genres is held by, for example, Miller & Kelly (2017) and Pérez-Llantada (2021), who take stock of the new digital media environment. However, language change and transformation, in particular genre evolution, was long envisioned by Bakhtin (1990:294 quoted in Lewin, Fine & Young, 2000:10), who aptly argues that "language is something that is historically real" and " a process teeming with future and former languages".

The ESP approach to genre analysis has been particularly influential in expanding knowledge on discipline-specific genres, specifically research articles and what Swales (1996) refers to as “occluded genres”, such as application letters, submission letters or evaluation letters for tenure or promotion. Such knowledge casts new and invaluable light on life in the academic community, and with such knowledge comes a greater understanding of the workings of academia.

4.4. Academic genres

The earlier discussion on *academic discourse* started in Chapter Three and continued through the preset chapter by looking at discourse from a broader perspective, including *discourse community* and *genre* provides inevitable links to the neighbouring topic, i.e., that of academic genres. Yet again, academic production comes into view, but this time, it shows a fuller, more comprehensive face.

In the analysis of academic genres, the emphasis is laid on social context and the way it shapes and influences the relationship between the writer and reader and how it maintains cultural authority and sheds light on purposes and strategies for negotiating knowledge (Swales, 2004). Academic genres and their written and spoken contexts offer a wealth of information about the construction of knowledge, research activities and social practices within academic communities (Hyland, 2000). Genre analyses provide aid and guidance to graduate students and junior researchers interested in t mastering academic English. It should also be noted that the knowledge of text structure and its lexico-grammatical features is not sufficient in genuinely knowing what genre is. Swales (2004:21) argues that researchers at various levels of professional development “get a more nuanced and more exact set of understandings of their genre sets”, which echoes Fairclough’s (1992) suggestion that genre analysis must involve knowledge about the process of its production in a discourse community. His view, in turn, chimes with that of Hyland (2004:2), who argues that the study of the process of knowledge production reveals “social behaviours and epistemic beliefs”. An obvious conclusion is that academic genres must be deeply anchored in a system of values of the community.

Perhaps the easiest way to catch a glimpse of the wide variety of academic genre activities is to look at Swales & Feak’s (2000) network, which is shown in Figure 13.

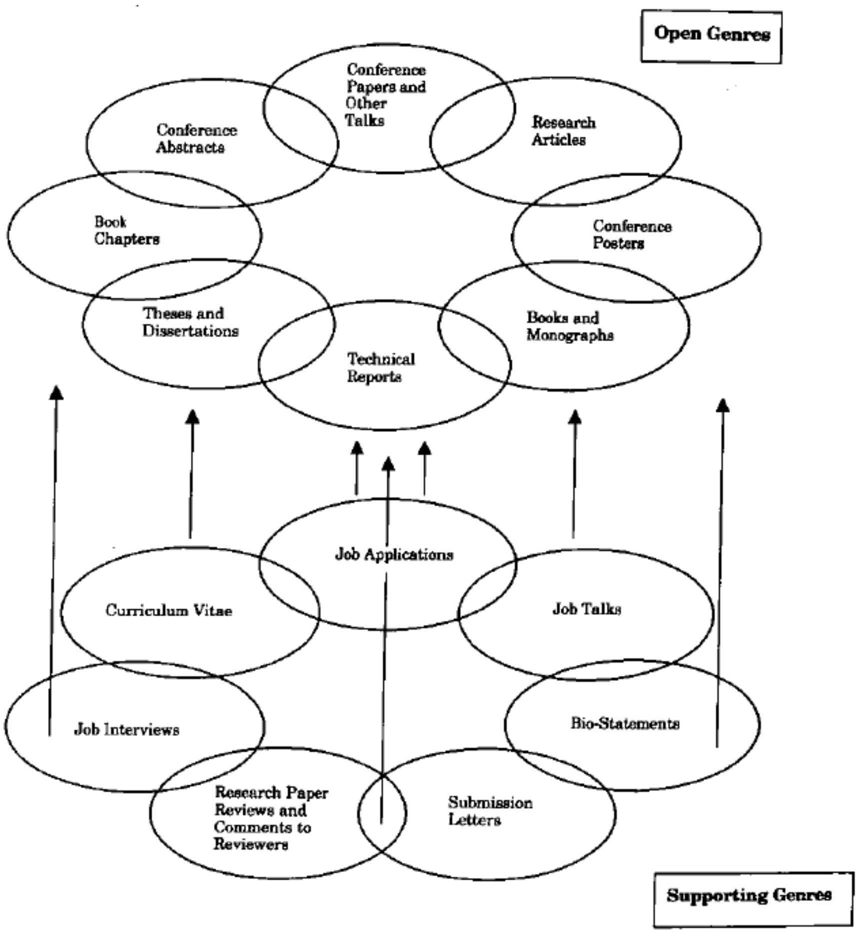


Fig. 13. Academic genre network (Swales & Feak, 2000:8)

For Swales & Feak (2000), genres could be roughly divided into two broad categories, namely "open" and "supporting" genres. Another classification, perhaps more widely known and acknowledged, comprises "occluded" and "non-occluded" genres (see, e.g., Swales, 1996). The word "occluded", deriving from the Latin *occludere* and meaning "closed", refers to genres that are typically hidden, confidential and "out of sight" from the eyes of the public (Swales, 1996). Therefore, occluded genres correspond to supporting genres presented in Figure 13. In opposition to occluded genres stand non-occluded ones, which are, by contrast, widely available in the public domain and not kept confidential. In an academic setting, non-occluded genres play a central role in the research publication process and contribute to the dissemination of knowledge. Figure 13 shows that open/non-occluded genres include research articles, theses and dissertations, books and monographs, or conference talks. At the other end of the spectrum, occluded/supporting genres remain more on the sidelines of knowledge construction. Still, they may play a decisive role in advancing academic careers and establishing professional standing. Their strong links to the life of academia, therefore, cannot be denied, nor should they be underestimated. Exemplars of these include job applications, submission letters, research paper reviews or evaluation letters for tenure or promotion.

Swales & Feak (2000) also note that academic genres may be written, spoken, or both. It is important to note that both written and spoken genres could be occluded and non-occluded. For instance, a conference talk or a lecture is ordinarily held in the public domain, and they belong to the non-occluded category, as do job interviews, job talks or phone conversations between editors and authors, which are occluded genres. In writing, conference abstracts, theses and dissertations or books are non-occluded because all are public, often published and, as such, easily visible in academic settings. In contrast, submission letters, curricula vitae or evaluation letters for tenure or promotion are not published and are intended to be kept in professional secrecy. Thus, they belong to the occluded genres.

A closer look at Figure 13 reveals much more than just a rough sketch of *types* of genres (italics mine). On closer inspection, several observations emerge. One particularly interesting is to do with "conference papers and talks" that belong to "open" genres. For any academic, a conference is an event of profound importance both from professional and personal perspectives. It can steer one's career and build up relationships, fostering a sense of belonging among its members, both fully-fledged academics and aspiring candidates. That being so, the conference forms a unique academic experience. In attending sessions and presenting papers during a conference, one may witness how various forms of academic communication and activities blend into one another and, as Hyland (2009) notes play a key role in the dissemination of academic research findings. The conference is an intriguing hybrid between different types of academic communication, both written and spoken, formal and informal, planned and improvised, public and private, and many more. It may be argued that a conference presentation is a key event in the otherwise uneventful lives of academics. Hyland (2009:76) convincingly dissects what he calls the „conference experience" and argues that the conference presentation is a "genre of uncertain boundaries" and, as such, could constitute a distinct genre on its own.

In reflections on academic discourse and its genres, there are usually two ways one may choose to go. The first could be a long and elaborate route that offers careful and detailed considerations, while the second could be a shorter, much more concise way which provides a rough sketch of the topic but leaves minute details aside. For reasons of relevance, this section is concerned with the latter, not forgetting, however, about the central point of this thesis – evaluation in academic book reviews– and giving it the full attention it deserves in the chapter that follows.

4.4.1. Written and spoken genres

It is worth addressing several issues before discussing some of the types of written and spoken genres. The first is connected with a commonly held view that research genres are divided into spoken and written modes. On the face of it, the distinction corresponds to spoken and written modes of language (Brown & Yule, 1983; Halliday, 1985). However, as Swales (2004) observes, this widespread assumption may not be wholly accurate and perhaps needs reconsideration. In the same vein, Hyland (2009:24) notes that the obvious differences between speech and writing "have to be treated with caution", and thus, the distinction itself could be oversimplified. There are a number of factors that come into play when analyzing contemporary academic genres that may shake the traditional dichotomy. For instance, Swales (2004) takes note of research speech and research writing, which differ significantly in their form and structure. Research writing, for example, research article, is dominated by a strictly formal and neutral narrative (Montgomery, 1996, cited in Swales, 2004) that necessitates the use of passive voice and the lack of personal stance.

On the other hand, speech writing takes on a more personal touch where authors are more willing to admit to being uncertain, unconvinced or misguided, offer apologies and lay out the limitations of their study (Rowley-Jolivet, 1999). Hyland (2009) focuses on the issue from a slightly different angle, taking a closer look at differences in the register, purpose and formality of particular academic genres. For example, academic speech in the form of planned lectures or conference presentations is a carefully scripted piece of language, which, in spite of its spoken form, shows a patterned structure and a note of formality. However, this is not to say that a lecture or a conference talk are entirely formal from start to finish. On the other hand, academic speech in the form of seminars or supervisory meetings resembles casual conversation, which is more spontaneous and does not show patterns of rigid formality, as is the case with speeches to a wider academic audience.

According to Hyland (2009), differences between spoken and written discourse have mostly been considered through cases on the two opposite ends of the spectrum, i.e., face-to-face conversations on the one hand and expository writing on the other. In reality, as Hyland notes (2009:24), "differences should be seen on a continuum rather than as polar opposites of mode".

Yet another point of difference is that of visual support. Swales (2004) observes that the spoken mode tends to use more visual aids than the written one. Although he caveats his argument by acknowledging the difference among various disciplines in their varying reliance on visual aid technology, the overall tendency is that visual support is more pervasive in speech than in writing research. Relevant examples may include lectures or conference talks, which are conducted mainly in verbal terms with the help of PowerPoint presentations or the like. As noted by Kress et al. (2001), meaning is created by a joint effort of linguistic means and visual modes. Notwithstanding the obvious advantages of technological support, the transformation in the distribution of knowledge has its pitfalls, too. Issues concerning technology and its impact on genres are promptly addressed by Meyers (2000:184, quoted in Swales, 2004:7), who argues that

> (…) the written text, produced by the machine, has become *the star*; I am reduced to an *unseen voiceover of* my own lectures. That may not matter in a business setting, where different people from sales or personnel may be called upon to speak the same words. But for a university lecturer, it marks a shift in what Goffman (1981) called footing; that is, I am seen as *the animator* rather than the source of the utterance. Instead of my speaking with the aid of some visual device, the text is speaking with my aid.
>
> (italics mine)

Meyer's (2002) view could be regarded as somewhat extreme or radical, but is nevertheless painfully accurate in what Swales (2004:7) describes as "blurring the boundaries between the academic and the commercial". It has also proved prophetic as the "unseen voiceover" and "the animator" faithfully reflect a drastic change in the social interactional processes and academic relationships that came over twenty years later.

Another issue concerns the hierarchy of genres and the perception of their quality and worth. Paraphrasing a popular Orwell quote, not all research genres are equal, and some *are* more equal than others. Swales (2004) speaks of "constellations of genres" in which certain hierarchies and networks emerge and vary from discipline to discipline. While hierarchical orders come and go, there remains a valid question of how the value of a specific genre changes and how this change affects academia.

One example, as already signalled above, is the conference presentation paper, whose academic value undoubtedly increased in the late 1990s and early 2000s and which proved to be one of the central academic genres and a vital academic format. The conference presentation paper stood in stark contrast to, for example, the academic monograph, which was regarded more as the crowning individual achievement rather than an interactive discussion format. The monograph remained the bedrock of academic reputation (Swales, 2004) and, as far as linguistics is concerned, was very often accompanied by research articles published by reputable journals. Most recently, however, Pérez-Llantada (2021:3) addresses the issue of the gradual disappearance and loss of book monographs and the research articles coming to the forefront, viewed as the 'enhanced publications' considering the technological affordances of the Internet. Her view chimes with that of Hyland (2019), for whom the ‘publish and proper’ policy and the explosion of academic publishing, mostly in co-authored articles, has changed the way academics search for information, their writing practices and reading patterns.

Genre analysis is incomplete without even a cursory look at issues concerning genre networks or what Hyland (2009:27) calls “clusters of dependence” that comprise genre sets and genre chains. The former is a concept originally proposed by Devitt (1991), which refers to the set of written or spoken genres that are used by a class of individuals in an official setting. For example, as noted in Hyland (2009), textbooks, lab reports and lectures could form a genre set for students of science. Genre chains refer to a short or long succession of spoken and written genres that come one after another in a given social context, for example, the conference presentation, which typically starts with a call for abstracts and ends with a publication of a paper, encompassing the review process of an abstract and the conference talk in between.

Building on the notion of intertextuality (Bakhtin, 1986), Swales (2004) convincingly demonstrates how genres are interrelated with one another and how they are endlessly transforming and reshaping, forming a network of genres. For example, dissertations are often preceded and followed by published articles, which, at the same time, provide a practical groundwork for dissertations. Another example concerns shorter book sections or subchapters, which can be transformed into longer, more elaborate articles. Similarly, stand-alone articles, essays or presentations could be reworked and incorporated into a book. In a similar vein, Bhatia (2012) discusses the appropriation of doctoral theses for research articles. An endless round of transformations like these genres shows their flexibility and adaptability and great potential for the effective dissemination of knowledge.

4.4.2. Typologies of genres

Among variously formulated typologies of academic genres, perhaps the most widely known and certainly the most often cited one is that of Swales’s (1990, 2004), which comprises three categories of primary genres, secondary genres and occluded genres in both spoken and written discourse. Primary genres are intended for peer-to-peer communication, secondary genres are for educational purposes, and occluded genres are forms of academic communication teetering on the verge of informality. For example, the category includes situations such as external evaluation, which is most probably carried out in an official setting, and phone calls that may or may not have to occur in an institution. The full typology with the examples is shown in Table 6.

PRIMARY GENRES	SECONDARY GENRES	OCCLUDED GENRES
WRITTEN		
research article journal abstract monograph conference abstract dissertation thesis chapter in edited book case report book review review article editorial	textbook post-introductory text course descriptions lecture notes handout	external evaluation evaluation letter for tenure or promotion book or grant proposal review review of articles submitted to refereed journals research grant proposal initiating or responsive e-mail application, invitations, request, submission and editorial – response letters
SPOKEN		
conference presentation plenary lecture thesis defense	lecture tutorial seminar	discussion between examiners initiating or responsive phone call

Table 6. Swales's taxonomy of academic genres (after Swales 1990; 1996; 2004)

On closer inspection of Swales's typology, it may be argued that it is based on at least two important criteria: that of a purpose and that of "visibility". The latter corresponds to occluded genres, which, as has been pointed out earlier, are commonly held out of sight of the public. Therefore, they are not visible to a wider audience. "Primary" and "secondary" genres relate to non-occluded genres, as has also been presented in Table 6. This time, however, they are categorized according to the degree of importance, hence the wording. It is vital to note that the research article reigns supreme in the category of primary genres as it is the most prominent and prestigious genre of the academy whose doubtless contribution to disciplinary knowledge makes it a "master of our time" (Hyland, 2009 after Montgomery, 1996). On the other hand, however, Swales (2004:13) argues that his placing the research article at the very top of the pyramid of importance back in 1990 now "seems a simplification". These issues will be given more attention in the section devoted to the research article per se.

The category of occluded genres is now more comprehensive as it contains invitations, external evaluations, research grant proposals, or submission and editorial-response letters, the content of which is not divulged to the public. Still, Swales (2004) argues that the list is only partial and has been compiled according to the "order of seniority". This means that academics of long experience and expertise are more likely to be involved in all genre types, ranging from external evaluations for academic institutions to evaluation letters to applications to discussions between examiners, while junior researchers and novice academics typically need more time and practice to climb up the “academic ladder” confidently.

In his considerations on academic genre analysis, Hyland (2009) proposes a slightly different approach and distinguishes between research discourses, instructional discourses, student discourses and, surprisingly, popular discourses, each comprising a number of distinct genres. Hyland’s typology is shown in Table 7.

RESEARCH DISCOURSES	**INSTRUCTIONAL DISCOURSES**	**STUDENT DISCOURSES**		**POPULAR DISCOURSES**
research article conference presentation scientific letters books reviews electronic journals	university lectures seminars undergraduate textbooks	undergraduate genres	postgraduate genres	TV documentaries popular science books science-related articles
		essays dissertations oral presentation	theses & dissertations dissertation defence acknowledgments	

Table 7. Typology of genres (after Hyland, 2009)

Hyland’s typology is more purpose-oriented and does not differentiate between spoken or written ones, although it takes note of their existence. Interestingly, Hyland (2009) also chooses to focus on popular science discourses and argues that much of people’s views of academic work are shaped by popular science proper. For a layperson, popular science articles and documentaries cast a new and interesting light on the otherwise inaccessible or incomprehensible scientific research findings and bring people together in a mutual understanding of the world. Hyland (2009:152) convincingly argues that science is not a “monolithic entity” but rather a “social construct”, all of which echoes the discussion on science and its characteristics in Chapter Three. According to Hyland (2009), popular science should not be dismissed but seriously considered as it helps recontextualize academic research and reconfigure academic discourse.

As said, Hyland (2009) does not distinguish between written and spoken the way Swales (1990) does but includes both spoken and written genre types in almost every category (except popular science discourse that is mainly concerned with written productions). It may be argued, therefore, that there is more harmony than discord between the two proposed typologies.

Since the following thesis is concerned with academic book reviews, whose key aspects will be discussed separately later, the following subsection will focus mainly on the two relevant written genres: research article and PhD dissertation. The reasons behind choosing these are at least twofold. First, considering that an academic book is either a single-authored book or comprises a number of (co-)authored research articles, it is reasonable to look at these two important genres in greater detail. Second, since the present PhD dissertation is a genre on its own, it seems justifiable, too, to give it more attention.

4.4.3. The research article

The research article (RA, hereafter) is often described in the apt words of Montgomery (1996), who refers to it as "the master narrative of our time". Indeed, an impressive volume of academic research devoted to studying the RA structure and linguistic and stylistic features is a testament to its popularity and appeal among researchers and academics. In Hyland's (2009:67) words, the RA is the "pre-eminent genre of the academy", and the fact that it has been vigorously investigated throughout the decades renders the task of giving it a fairly short summary particularly difficult.

The RA dates back to the mid-seventeenth century when it was still in its infancy and took the form of informative letters published in *The Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society*. In his *Genre Analysis*, Swales (1990) looks at the RA in minute detail, both from a historical and linguistic perspective, which results in the longest and most elaborate chapter of all included in the book and by far the most detailed account of the RA at the time. Although not without its limitations, which Swales (2004) later refers to as "overgeneralizations", the chapter on the RA and the whole book remains a constant source of inspiration for academics and researchers from various fields of study. In revisiting his original account of the RA, Swales (2004) argues that his new perspective needs "a more nuanced" approach and that over the years, the RA has come to be seen not as a single monolithic genre but rather a set of shorter theoretical and experimental papers, incorporating yet another genre, namely the review article. At the same time, however, as noted by Swales (2004), one point overlooked back in the 1990s now merits attention: not all RAs are experimental or empirical in nature, and often they cannot be. Thus, an article in astrophysics, mathematics or economics does not follow the standard Introduction-Methods-Results-Discussion format. For this reason, their structure differs from the structure of a standard RA written in the field of applied linguistics, for example.

It is, too, worth emphasizing that the structure of the RA seldom has been examined as a whole, which is to say that more often, it has been intentionally defragmented into smaller yet largely independent units. These "part-genres", as Swales (2004) calls them, have been thoroughly investigated across the English language and languages other than English, within one discipline and across disciplines. Put chronologically; exclusive emphasis has been laid on the RA abstract (see, e.g. Hyland, 2000; Huckin, 2001; Al-Harbi & Swales, 2011; Bondi & Lorés-Sanz, 2014; Gillaerts, 2014), the introduction (e.g., Cooper, 1985; Duszak, 1994; Anthony, 1999; Lewin, Fine & Young, 2001; Samraj, 2002a; Stotesbury, 2006; Swales, 2011; Bondi & Cavalieri, 2012; Warchał, 2018), and the main body of the text that includes the presentation of the selected methods and materials, and the discussion of the research findings and conclusions (e.g. Brett, 1994; Bloor, 1999; Martinez, 2003; Bruce, 2008b, or Cotos, Huffman & Link, 2017; Sheldon, 2018).

The overall aim of the RA abstract is to spark readers' interest in what follows in the main body of the paper and keep their attention throughout. As noted by Hyland (2009), a central part of the abstract construction makes references to novelty and relevance, which aim to gather colleagues' attention and prove one's professional expertise. However, as also observed by Hyland (2009, they might at times resemble self-promotional marketing techniques and thus draw a point of connection to marketing and the promotion of goods.

The RA introduction has been invariably associated with Swales's (1990) three-part C.A.R.S model, an enormously successful and influential framework which lays out instructions and guidance on how to "create a research space". Originally developed for the English-language RA introductions in the field of linguistics, the C.A.R.S model has made its way to other disciplines, where it has become, as Swales (2004) notes, prototypical, including medicine (Nwogu, 1990), computer science (Lewis, Fine & Young, 2001), or biology (Samraj, 2002b). Since the model is widely known, it will not be replicated here; suffice it to quote Swales (1990:142) himself when he argues that writers:

> need to re-establish in the eyes of the discourse community the significance of the research field itself, the need to 'situate' the actual research in terms of that significance, and the need to show how this niche in the wider ecosystem will be occupied and defended.

As far as the main body of the RA is concerned, a Methods section, if there is any, outlines the materials and procedures adopted in a study. From the point of view of the writer, the methodological description could be either "fast" or "slow" (see the concept of *speed* in Swales & Feak, 1994) and varies in terms of the amount of detail included. From the point of view of the reader, as Bloor (1999) notes, an elaborate methods section will likely take more time and effort to be fully digested than its "slower", more clipped counterpart. A Results section aims to present the research findings clearly and comprehensively, which are further analysed in Discussions. As Berkenkotter & Huckin (1995; quoted in Swales, 2004) observe, the Discussion section offers a reversed order of the C.A.R.S model in the Introduction: it places emphasis on the niche, reestablishes the niche, and finally establishes additional territory.

The full exploration of the RA is not complete without analysing its linguistic or stylistic features. These include, among many, studies on hedging (e.g., Salager-Meyer, 1994; Crompton, 1997; Hyland, 1996, 1998), citation (e.g., Hyland, 2000), anticipatory 'it' (e.g., Hewings & Hewings, 2002); mechanisms of persuasion (e.g. Hyland, 2000), evaluative language (e.g., Hunston, 1993; Stotesbury, 2003, 2006; Hyland & Tse, 2005), stance and engagement (Hyland, 2005a; 2007; 2009), *let-us* imperatives and the use of verbs with first-person pronouns (e.g. Fløttum, Kinn & Dahl, 2006), tense (e.g., Malcolm, 1987; Salager-Meyer, 1992; Okuyama, 2020; Jiang & Hyland, 2022a) the authorial presence (e.g., Fløttum, 2009), the use of personal pronouns and possessives (e.g., Sala, 2012), or negation (Jiang & Hyland, 2022b).

In this day and age, of interest remain issues concerning the gradual evolution of the research article, propelled by the emergence of e-journals, the arrival of open access, increased multiple-authorship, or the offering of financial incentives for the authors, all of which have dramatically changed the quality of the RA and, perhaps, questioned its academic prestige.

4.4.4. The Ph.D. dissertation

At the Ph.D. level, different authors choose to use the terms "dissertation" and "thesis" interchangeably (Paltridge, 2002), and so does this thesis as well as the present section. A Ph.D. dissertation is the final outcome of a laborious and occasionally nerve-racking process of writing which culminates in submitting a Ph.D. thesis and defending it during an oral examination, that is the Ph.D. defense, also known as *viva voce*. Thus, in the process of receiving a doctorate, there are two modes of genres, both written and spoken. The doctoral thesis is the crowning achievement of a junior academic and researcher and tangible evidence that they have scaled the heights in the academic world.

There are a number of reasons that make the genre analysis of the Ph.D. thesis particularly problematic. As Paltridge (2002) observes, these reasons typically concern the length of the text itself, the accessibility of the theses, which are difficult to obtain from the university libraries, considerable disciplinary variations, or even the supervisor's personal preferences for the final format of the paper. His view is in agreement with that of Thompson (2005), who also notices difficulties concerning the size of the thesis and the fact that there is no unanimous way of writing it, both within and across disciplines. One more factor, as

Paltridge (2005) continues, which may prevent a reliable analysis of this genre is the fact that areas of study, interests, trends, requirements or expectations are bound to change with the passage of time. His observation chimes with Swales's (2004:110), who argues that doctoral dissertations are "in a state of considerable flux", hastened by technological change that drastically transforms traditionally crafted texts of a dissertation.

Of importance is also the awkward position of the Ph.D. authors themselves. On the one hand, they have spent several long years honing their research and academic skills and thus are justified in claiming to be an expert in their field. On the other hand, they are not yet fully fledged academics and their knowledge, however vast in their opinion, is put to the test and thus subject to an external assessment by the reviewers and the examination board. The social context of the Ph.D. genre is aptly described by Thompson (2005:32), who argues that:

> It is important therefore to assume a tone of authority, and, at the same time, establish that the writer is entitled to adopt a tone of authority. Claims must be backed up with evidence, and a comprehensive understanding of thinking, approaches and knowledge in their chosen fields of specialization must be demonstrated, in order to persuade the most immediate readers (the examiners) that the thesis is worthy of the award of a doctorate.

Regardless of the obstacles and restrictions, however, the genre of Ph.D. thesis has been the subject of academic investigation, and these focus on either the macro-structure of the text (e.g., Dudley-Evans, 1994; 1999; Ridley, 2000; Bunton, 2002; Paltridge, 2002; Swales, 2004; Hyland, 2009; Paltridge, et al. 2012; Thompson, 2016) or particular sections of it, such as the introduction (e.g. Dudley-Evans, 1986; Preece, 1994; Bunton, 2002; Gil-Salom, Solem-Monreal & Olivares, 2008), the conclusion (e.g., Hewings, 1993; Bunton, 2005). A number of studies focus on the spoken mode of the genre, e.g. the Ph.D. supervision meetings (e.g., Björkman, 2016, 2018; Paltridge & Starfield, 2020) or the Ph.D. defenses (e.g., Mežek & Swales, 2016)

Regarding the macro-structure, Paltridge (2002) identifies four basic types of theses: traditional simple, complex traditional, topic-based and anthology. They have been compiled in Table 8.

It is vital to note that due to considerable disciplinary variation and, to a degree, national variation in the Ph.D. writing convention, studies on the Ph.D. theses have been carried out on texts from different parts of the academic world, e.g., the universities from Hong Kong, Australia, the UK, the USA, As Swales (2004) notes, the analyses have revealed considerable differences in terms of the text structure, the use of linguistic and rhetorical features, style, bibliography or the level of citation across a number of disciplines (e.g., linguistics, biology, psychology, science and engineering, physics or mathematics).

TYPE	FUNCTION	TYPICAL MACRO-STRUCTURE
simple traditional	reports on a single study	Introduction→Review of the Literature→ Materials and Methods→ Results→Conclusion
complex traditional	reports on more than a single study	Introduction→Review of the Literature→ General Methods (optional) → Individual Studies →General Conclusions
topic-based	uses topics or themes to structure chapters	Introduction →Review of the Literature (optional) → Theory (optional) →Sub-topic →Conclusions
anthology	series of research articles	Introduction→Review of the Literature→ General Methods (optional) → Individual Studies→General Conclusions

Table 8. Four basic thesis types (Hyland, 2009:141)

To sum up, despite a range of variables concerning the structure and form of the Ph.D. thesis, it may be argued that it is an interesting genre in both its written and spoken mode and, most importantly, an intriguing illustration of where and how the personal and the institutional factors meet.

Concluding remarks

Although fraught with difficulties, the journey through the academic landscape can be safely navigated by following and recognizing its vital signposts. To these undoubtedly belong discourse, discourse community, and a variety of academic genres.

Regardless of the challenge therein, a point made throughout this chapter unravels an essential quality of discourse: it stands at the crossroads of the word and the action. The complexity of the phenomenon is better understood through careful consideration of its written and spoken contexts that go beyond the level of a single sentence or even a single utterance and, more often than not, show the peculiarities of the socio-cultural setting.

The communicative purpose is what defines and shapes a discourse community. It gives its members a solid foundation that lies in recognizing the language used in social interaction. Understanding the genre involves not only the linguistic and rhetorical features of its written and spoken contexts but also the awareness of social situatedness and the meaning of collective practices, academic research culture, and many more. Following the words of Bazerman (2010:xi) on genre, “The more you work with it, the more it reveals”.

In considerations of academic communication, one must also take a broader look at the academic world seen through the rapidly changing technology, globalization, and the new media environment, all of which dramatically change the face of academic research and the dissemination and exchange of its findings which, consequently, cannot be ignored.

CHAPTER FIVE: The Book Review as a Review Genre

Introduction

One of the intrinsic features of the academic landscape is that of reviewing the works of others. This statement should come as no surprise as the willingness to formulate a personal judgement is as old as time itself, and academics, like any other individuals, are given to expressing opinions. Nowhere else in the academic landscape is evaluation more visible and thriving than in the realm of the review genres. These genres are built around the expression of a personal assessment, and it is precisely what makes them so intriguing, particularly in the context of academic discourse and the air of formality it exudes.

Central to this chapter is the book review, the “unsung” genre of academia, as Hyland (2000) happens to call it. Apart from its obvious evaluative function, the book review is instrumental in creating a multi-sided platform that serves the interests of at least four parties: that of the reviewer, that of the author(s), that of the reader and the community, and that of the publisher. In so doing, the book review establishes an arena not only for expressing words of praise and criticism, whether deserved or undeserved, overt or covert, but also an interpersonal encounter fraught with risk of personal conflict and academic dispute (Hyland, 2000). Although the protagonists of the conflict may or may not meet in person, their interaction and connection formed in the published book review persist and have social consequences. On the reviewer's part, the task of skillful maneuvering between expressing an expert and unbiased opinion and personal judgement is an undertaking of great magnitude and responsibility. On the part of the author(s), the acceptance and acknowledgement of the reviewer’s opinion come with the inevitable risk of taking offence, which only shows the confrontational character of the book review. The intended audience of the book review are both witnesses and participants of this scholarly debate, drawing on the insights it brings and dissecting the information it offers.

In looking broadly at the book review genre, this chapter will be focused on its structure and form as well as a range of rhetorical devices for expressions of evaluative meanings. First, the four review genres are given a general survey, considering their main characteristics and the communicative purpose of each. Then, the chapter looks at the book review from a historical perspective to trace its evolution and transformation into a modern review genre. The next section aims to examine the textual structure of the academic book review, analyzing the often-cited framework proposed by Motta-Roth (1995) and discussing a number of other cross-cultural studies that followed the same conception. Then, the various expressions of praise and criticism and the intricacies of value-laden meanings scattered across the book review show their multi-faceted nature when examined in minute detail. Finally, the chapter offers an insight into the reviewer guidelines, the analysis of which reveals a set of criteria a book has to meet to successfully undergo the review process and be published for a wider audience.

5. Review genres

If given a chance, each review genre could easily pass under a different name. For one, it would be “the bridge”; for another, “the hybrid”; for yet another “the Cinderella genre”; and some other “the puff piece”. There is only one left that has not yet been granted a pseudonym, most probably due to its limited public visibility and less academic interest as a result. It is worth adding that the terms just given are not misnomers but accurate if slightly informal, descriptions of the nature and status each enjoys. Following conventional terminology, though, the review genres in question are the review article, the book review article, the book review, the book blurb, and the review of the literature in a Ph.D. thesis, respectively.

Shaw (2009) observes that evaluative genres can be interested or disinterested. The former type gives exclusively positive evaluation and is characterized by a particular vocabulary that centers on extreme lexical items such as “ideal”, “brilliant”, or “fantastic”, as is evident in the book blurbs, for example. The latter type presents a more balanced approach where expressions of evaluation are both positive and negative. Thus, the text is more credible and trustworthy than its biased counterpart.

The analysis of each review genre provides vital insights into the workings of academia and the mechanisms of the effective dissemination and exchange of knowledge. It encourages questions and demands answers, compares and contrasts a variety of approaches and perspectives, unravels an abundance of lexico-grammatical devices critical to formulating words of praise and criticism, traces the many voices of the text, allows for keeping abreast with the latest developments, sheds light on undetected or untreated aspects of research, and, most importantly, encourages the members of the academic community to critically engage with the richness of information it provides.

Each and every review genre is unique in its own right and opens up a broad spectrum of reflections and ruminations on the subject matter. Although evaluation is a defining feature of all review genres, turning to Orwell again, it should be noted that all review genres are evaluative, but some are *more* evaluative than others. In what follows is an outline of the four review genres that serve as a backdrop to a further, more thorough discussion on the book review and the research interest it has generated.

5.1. The review article

The review article, already briefly mentioned in the previous chapter, is also referred to as a "review essay", "general article", "report article", "systematic review", "state-of-the-art paper", or "state-of-the-art survey", stands in sharp contrast to its immediate cousin, the research article, and almost any other academic publication. It is a peculiar genre, and the fact that there is no unanimous terminology speaks volumes about its unclear status.

Studies on the review article are few and far between (see Myers, 1991; Noguchi, 2006; 2009), and seldom have they been brought to the forefront of academic attention. By far the most detailed and comprehensive account of the review article is offered by Noguchi (2006), who, building on her doctoral thesis from five years before, examines a corpus of twenty-five scientific review articles and, with the aid of specialist informants, classifies them into four categories:

1. History: Presenting a historical overview of a facet of the field
2. Status quo: Describing the current situation in the field
3. Theory/Model: Proposing a theory or model to resolve some issue in the field
4. Issue: Calling attention to some issues in the field

(Noguchi, 2001: 142, quoted in Swales 2004: 209)

Noguchi's (2001) pioneering study has greatly contributed to the overall understanding of the review article genre. Building on her doctoral dissertation and treating it roughly as a "flexible frame" for any future analysis of this genre, Swales (2004) puts forward his alternative parameters in review articles, including history, current work, theory and issue. They are shown in Figure 14.

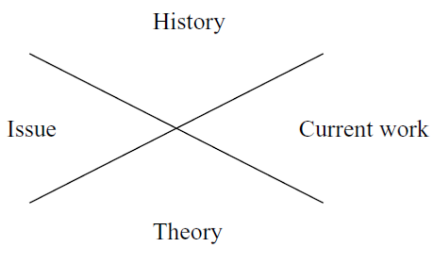


Fig. 14. Parameters in review articles (Swales, 2004: 209)

Upon closer examination of Noguchi's four categories, or Swales's parameters, it becomes evident that the review article does not offer new and original research findings and, as such, does not contribute directly to the production of new knowledge. Instead, it aims at consolidating what has been known in a given field of study or drawing attention to some aspect that might have been overlooked. In that, the review article is essentially a literature survey whose overall purpose lies in summarizing and synthesizing the magnitude of studies and research with the view to providing a greater understanding of the subject matter and expanding academic horizons. Apart from its apparent summative character, the review article is an evaluative genre and requires fine academic writing skills that help structure a well-organized, coherent, and readable academic text (Swales, 2004). The evaluative quality of the review article may be evident in skillful maneuvering between objective reporting and persuasive critique.

The review article is specially commissioned by the journals. In linguistics, it is, for example, *The Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *The Annual Review of Informative Science*, or *Language Teaching* (Hyland & Diani, 2009). As a rule, the solicited article is written by a well-known and experienced scholar who does not have to follow restrictive space limitations and the standard IMRD format and, thus, enjoys more freedom and flexibility as to the final length and structure of their text. While this undoubtedly creates an advantageous position for the writer regarding a publishing opportunity, it is not without drawbacks. According to Hyland & Diani (2009), the review article does not usually attract a sophisticated readership and is mainly referred to by students or junior researchers rather than expert academics. This, however, might no longer be the case. Most recently, Hyland & Jiang (2019) report on the researchers' changing reading patterns, who have become highly selective in their online and offline search for information. It might be reasonable to assume that the need for a condensed synthesis will increase.

Interestingly, Swales (2004) draws parallels between review articles and plenary lectures, which merit closer attention. Both result from an invitation and allow the author or the speaker to acquaint a wider audience with their knowledge and expertise in a given field. The review article text and the plenary talk highlight and emphasize various aspects of earlier studies and draw attention to their importance and impact. Both the article and the talk do justice to the issues that have been undetected or untreated in the existing literature and show the author's or the speaker's contribution to the field. Significantly, as Noguchi (2006) observes, the review article could be termed a "bridge genre" as it directs attention to something which may have been regarded as insignificant or irrelevant. Furthermore, even though neither the review article nor the plenary lecture offers new research findings per se, they *can* blaze the trail in their fields by casting new light on existing studies or pointing out future trends and, in so doing, making a name for the authors.

What emerges from the above description is that the review article seems somewhat contradictory to what Hyland & Diani (2009) argue about its practical quality and the little prestige or credit that comes with it. Even Swales (2004) himself appears to be rather undecided on the issue. On the one hand, he highlights the importance of the review article structure, particularly that written by an experienced scholar. Dissecting Hyland's (2002) introductory review literature, Swales (2004) notes that smooth as it is, it may pose some reading hurdles for junior researchers, who, quite naturally, do not possess what Swales (2004) calls "depth perception". It is customary for a distinguished scholar to provide a review of literature spanning twenty or thirty or forty years whose emergence they themselves can vividly remember and very often actively contributed to it. It may be argued that the review article written by an individual with such expertise is an academic production worthy of the highest merit. With the great wit and wisdom that come with age, Swales (2004) shows that whatever now seems to be an outdated or even archaic piece of knowledge was once revolutionary and unique in its own inimitable way. The value of the review article and the insights it provides are intimately connected with its author, their experience, mentorship, and knowledge. They are also reflected in the reader's willingness to see through the written word and take stock of what lies beneath.

On the other hand, however, as Swales (2004) notices, the review article may be conceived of as a production that relates more to the past than to the future. The celebratory mood of the past, therefore, may not be widely acknowledged, nor is it always welcome. From this perspective, it might be safer to assume that it is not the worth or quality of the review article but its status that remains open to personal interpretation.

5.2. The book review article

The book review article is often referred to as a "hybrid" due to its mixed origin and, consequently, much indeterminable character. It comes as a cross between the book review and the review article and, as every hybrid creature, takes on some characteristics from each of its constituting elements to ultimately embrace a new, autonomous identity.

Diani (2007) observes that the book review article may appear in the book review section of academic journals, but since it is not regularly published there, discursive studies on this particular genre have not been extensive. Among journals that tend to publish book review articles, as Diani (2007) reports, are the *Journal of Linguistics*, *International Journal of Sociology*, *Journal of Sociolinguistics*, and *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*.

Hyland & Diani (2009) argue that the book review article is a relatively rare genre in the hard sciences and, as the journal titles confirm, is often found in the humanities and social sciences.

In her studies on the book review article, Diani (2004; 2007; 2008; 2009; 2014, 2017) notes that the critical function of this review genre is to evaluate the knowledge claims of other researchers by making references to their publications. This function sharply distinguishes the book review article from the book review; the latter focuses more on evaluating a number of features of the book. Interestingly, evaluation in the book review article takes the form of a dialogue between the reviewer and the author of the book, as well as other voices of the community and the readers. The idea of a single voice and multiple voices "speaking" in or through the written text echoes Sinclair's (1988) distinction between averral and attribution and, further, Thompson's (1996) discussion on textual voices. According to Sinclair (1988), attribution is ubiquitous in academic discourse and almost always a marked option. Therefore, attributing an opinion entails investigating *why* it has been attributed in the first place (Thompson, 1996). Most importantly, perhaps, the textual voices resonate with Bakhtin's/Voloshinov's notions of dialogism and heteroglossia (Bakhtin, 1981; Voloshinov, 1995), as mentioned in Chapter Two.

In the context of the book review article, the dialogistic perspective shows when the reviewer creates a space where their voice and the voices of actual or potential readers and members of the community mix and interact with the author's knowledge claims presented in the book. Such a dialogue carries what Martin & White (2005) refer to as "the value position", which manifests itself as a plurality of opinions that could be accepted or contested by a particular audience. For investigative reasons, it is interesting to trace the dynamics of such a dialogue and discover linguistic and rhetorical devices beneath each of the constructed voices. Diani (2009) looks in detail at what she calls a "textual polyphony" of the academic book review articles and argues that what this somewhat neglected or even ignored review genre does is effectively create a forum for academics to exchange their viewpoints, explore new perspectives, and engage in argumentative practices.

Hyland & Diani (2009) argue that the book review article also serves as a convenient point of departure for the reviewer in which they offer a critical assessment of the author's ideas presented in the book and the possible impact of those ideas on the discourse community. In so doing, the reviewer, following Swales's (1990) C.A.R.S. model, establishes their own "research space" for a multi-voiced interaction in academic discourse.

As an ultimate product of the reviewer's intentions, the book review article is characterized by the widespread use of reporting verbs and direct references to the position of the reviewer, often in the form of first-person pronouns. These references function as alternative viewpoints and help engage in a critical analysis of the other views presented by the book's author and those referred to by the reviewer. The first-person reference will also be given attention in the analysis of book reviews in the empirical part of this thesis, which starts in Chapter Seven.

Returning to the topic, in his account of textual voices, Thompson (1996) looks at five types of voice: a spectrum self, specified other(s), unspecified other(s), community and unspecifiable other(s). Diani (2009), drawing on this distinction, examines the voice of the reviewer and their dialogue with other textual voices. The voice of the reviewer, as it turns out, is mainly expressed by the explicit use of the first person pronoun *I*, rather than *we*, a clear indication of the reviewer's willingness to maintain authority or, as Hyland (20001) would call it, the "authorial persona". Most recently, the authorial presence has been investigated by Šandová (2019) in her cross-cultural study of possessive pronouns and first-person singular and plural pronouns in a corpus of English and Czech academic book review articles.

On the whole, the reviewer's dialogue with other textual voices of the reviewed book, that of the author, that of the reader, and that of the discourse community demonstrates a plurality of audiences that undertakes a variety of argumentative roles and discoursal identities as the text unfolds.

5.3. The book blurb

Perhaps the best way to present the character of the book blurb is to compare and contrast it with its pair genre, that is, the book review. Both refer to the contents of the book, and both summarize and evaluate its knowledge claims for potential readers. However, the list of similarities ends fairly quickly. As Shaw (2009) observes, if the book review lies at one end of the scale of interestedness and gives an honest, if personal, evaluation, the book blurb is situated at the very opposite end, being clearly favourable and almost always positive.

It is interesting to trace the origin of the blurb, specifically the provenance of the very word, which seems to be rather ill-suited to be used in academic discourse governed by the rules of formality. Bhatia (2004) notes that the book blurb dates back to the early 20th century when Gellet Burgess, an American humorist and illustrator, decorated his comic book with a drawing of an attractive young lady whom he referred to as *Miss Blurb*. Later on, Burgess famously described a "blurb" as "a flamboyant advertisement", "an inspired testimonial", and "fulsome praise" characterized by the excessive number of adjectives and adverbs and intentionally used as promotional bait for unsuspecting readers. The *Oxford Dictionary of the*

English Etymology (Burchfield et al., 1972) defines a blurb as "a brief descriptive paragraph or note of the contents or characters of a book, printed as a commendatory advertisement, on the jacket or wrapper of a newly published book". In the *Longman Dictionary of Mass Media and Communication*, as further noted by Bhatia (2004), the blurb is described as a "commendatory publicity release or advertisement, one which is often inordinate in its praise or boosting of a new subject; also called *puff piece*, often appearing on a book jacket".

That the book blurb has swiftly, and perhaps stealthily, made its way from advertising discourse to academic discourse, traditionally conceived of as non-promotional, was anticipated by Fairclough (1995:139), who argues that "the genre of consumer advertising has been colonizing professional and public service orders of discourse on a massive scale". The colony of promotional genres is extensively discussed by Bhatia (2004), who argues that the book blurbs are its primary member, alongside celebrity endorsements in advertisements or sales promotion letters. It should, therefore, be emphasized that book publishing, in general, and academic publishing, in particular, are not immune to commercial interests. More broadly, the "marketization of academic discourse" (Fairclough, 1993) has given rise to the emergence of hybrid genres, with the book blurb being a striking, but not sole, example of them. As Gea-Valor & Ros (2009) aptly observe, promotion seems to be the driving force in the highly competitive publishing environment and is essential for its survival. Since the book blurb takes one of the two most conspicuous outside parts of the book, i.e., the back cover, it directly contributes to garnering readers' interest, which then translates into the purchase decision.

In the context of academic discourse, the overt commercial purpose of the book blurb and the influence it exerts on the reader has been a subject of considerable interest and debate, as is evidenced by a number of studies. They have mainly concentrated on the structural features and rhetorical content and organization of blurbs (e.g., Gea Valor, 2005); evaluation (e.g., Cacchiani, 2007); the authorship of the blurb (Bhatia, 2004; Cronin & La Barre, 2005); the influence of blurbs on the purchase decisions (e.g., Grupetta, 2008); or disciplinary variation (Gesuato, 2007). An interesting perception of the genre is offered by Basturkmen (2009:71), for whom the blurb could be "a window on cultural values" and suggests looking beyond its communicative purpose to consider the values of the community the blurb might represent.

To sum up, though mainly perceived through its commercial and thus highly biased input, the book blurb may reveal much more than initially assumed, thus proving to be an interesting area of academic research not only in the context of review genres but also from a broader perspective of socio- or psycholinguistics.

5.4. The review of literature in a Ph.D. thesis

Unlike any other review genre discussed in this section, the review of literature in a Ph.D. thesis is less public, if public at all, which means it does not attract a wide readership. However, like any other review genre, it has its own characteristic features, and it is important academically, socially, and institutionally.

Thompson (2009) argues that the defining feature of the literature review lies in its social context. The Ph.D. candidate is evaluating the works of others *and* awaiting to be evaluated (italics mine), which carries great personal significance and a sense of purpose for the writer but also comes with a risk of failure. The social context of this review genre plays a key role in the professional life of a junior researcher and proves that the final assessment of their performance has its natural consequences.

The literature review could be written either in a *dedicated* or *recursive* approach (Ridley, 2008). In the former type, it is included in a single chapter, while in the latter type, it constitutes a set of related chapters, each of which provides a descriptive and evaluative summary of one or more aspects of some area of study. Since the literature review is not technically an independent piece but part of a larger text, Thompson (2009) argues that it should properly be regarded as a *sub-genre* rather than an autonomous one. Be as it may, the literature review plays a crucial role in the whole text structure as it lays out the framework for the writer's empirical study and situates this new piece of research in the context of the current research, existing theories and relevant concepts. The candidate, therefore, must be able to skillfully summarize, analyze and evaluate a magnitude of works they have chosen to refer to and critically engage with the viewpoints of other scholars and researchers expressed therein. In so doing, the candidate proves they are worthy of a doctorate and deserving of academic credit.

As already said in the previous chapter, genre analysis of the Ph.D. theses has been troubled by shortcomings related to the limited availability of the theses or the size of the documents. Similarly, the review literature, being an essential part of the thesis, has met the same fate. Despite the lack of open access to the dissertations, the research material has been successfully obtained, and a number of studies emerged, mainly in terms of the review structure, lexicogrammatical patterns, or discipline variation (e.g., Kwan, 2006; Thompson, 2005; 2009; Ridley, 2008; Bhatia, 2012) or at a cross-cultural level (e.g. Ono, 2012).

All in all, the literature review in a Ph.D. thesis presents a demanding yet insightful thread of research in which it shows how evaluation is performed by a junior researcher and how their voice resonates and blends with other voices of the academic community.

5.5. The book review: preliminary reflections

Although the popularity of the book review seems to be past its prime time, mainly due to the unprecedented demand for research articles that overshadow other forms of academic publications, the genre still has much to offer. However, regardless of the current status of scholarly monographs per se and, by extension, academic book reviews, the treatment of the latter has always been somewhat unfairly lukewarm. Even a brief look at the literature on the academic book review genre reveals a list of creative yet unprepossessing names or pseudonyms it has earned. For example, only in the context of academic books, Motta-Roth (1995) refers to the “unremarkable character” of the book review; Orteza y Miranda (1996) mentions it has been seen as “parasitic” on the reviewed book; Lindholm-Romanstschuk’s (1998) broad historical overview includes various mentions of the “second class citizen”, “low status” or “derivative literature”; Hyland (2000; 2009) admits the book review is “the unsung genre of the academy” and elsewhere describes it as “ignored” and “potentially threatening”; while for Swales (2004), it is “problematic”. Finally, perhaps the most potent description comes from East (2011), who ponders whether the book review is “the academic Cinderella”. In all probability, the list of names is not complete but serves as a vital reminder of the relative status of the book review as a form of academic publication.

The primary reason scholars have repeatedly found fault with the book review is its obvious inability to provide new research that could count as original scholarship, the most coveted attribute in academia. While it is doubtless true that the book review does not contribute *directly* to the production of new knowledge, its role in the creation of academic engagement and intellectual debate should not be denied. Literature shows that the genre analysis of the book review has proven to be a prolific ground for research, resulting in an impressive body of studies both in the English language and languages other than English, within a single discipline or culture and from the cross-disciplinary and cross-cultural perspective. As Hyland (2000) aptly notes, the book review is more evaluative than any other of its review genre companions, and it is emblematic of how explicit and confrontational evaluation can be. This is to say that the formulation of praise and criticism comes as a highly delicate task, especially when performed in a widely public document that directly influences the reputation of both the author and the reviewer.

This section is concerned with the many facets of the book review, ranging from its historical outline to the overall textual structure to a range of linguistic and rhetorical features that lie therein to the previous research it has generated. One must not forget about the role the book review plays in the dissemination of knowledge, evaluation of publications, the establishment of standards and academic reputations, and a scholarly dialogue across the communities. In other words, this section examines the communicative purpose(s) of the book review genre.

5.5.1. The book review genre: a historical overview

Although the presence of the book review in the academic landscape dates back to ancient Greece, it was not until the mid-seventeenth century that the book review gained ground due to the expansion of learning and the increased production of books in general (Orteza y Miranda, 1996). The contemporary book review bears little resemblance to its distant ancestor from over three hundred fifty years ago, and its evolution on its way to a modern genre is a testament to its remarkable history.

To keep its readers abreast with the developments in *all* fields of studies (italics original), the Parisian *Journal of Scavans* (1665) included an instructive summary of the new books, regardless of their overall quality (Roper, 1978). The initial form of the review was rather unassuming: its text was a comprehensive chronicle that solely focused on providing a complete and accurate description of the contents of the book. During that period, the reviewers did not engage critically with the knowledge claims presented by the author, nor did they attempt to raise any form of intellectual dialogue with the readers, all of which came in the years ahead. Other journals, as further noted by Orteza y Miranda (1996), such as the *Analytical Review* (1796) and the *Monthly Epitome* (1797), followed suit and were later seen diligently fulfilling the role of the book transcribers, a profitable but not intellectually demanding task, which soon labelled the reviewers as “drudgers” or “penny-a-liners” (Roper, 1978). Although these allegations turned out to be unsubstantiated, they were lavishly circulated at the time.

The emergence of a new journal, *The Edinburgh,* in 1802 saw a drastic rhetorical shift in the language and style of the book review and its function. From then on, not every book was given an automatic public review; on the contrary, a more careful selection of the books to review was introduced. This, in turn, significantly raised the bar for both authors and reviewers and earned the journal a reputation as an incisive commentator. Furthermore, *The Edinburgh* took on an entirely new and contentious at the time policy of writing that essentially encouraged the reviewers or even required them to submit more lengthy and highly opinionated texts; the more critical, the better. The book reviews started to be centered on the reviewer’s opinion, and it was the opinion, however loosely connected with the original book, that mattered most.

It is important to remember that the 17th and 18th century book reviews were reserved for only a fraction of society, those educated and capable of making their own judgement. With the rapid change in the political, social and technological landscape that brought about the establishment of public education and its subsequent growth and expansion came the increased production of books that heightened the need for a review a public, more literate than ever before, could rely on. The importance of the readership and the reading preferences were seriously considered, which led to a broader understanding of the publishing market and the profits it promised.

The profession of the reviewer was formally established and given a higher social status and a wider public appeal. The universities saw greater pressure to publish, which, in turn, increased the production of new knowledge and strengthened the importance of separating the good works from the poor ones. It is worth emphasizing that the role of universities in educating society and facilitating the expansion of knowledge has already been outlined in Chapter Three, part of which proves to be tightly connected with the present discussion. Orteza y Miranda (1996) argues that the new era of book reviewing also posed ethical dilemmas for the reviewers who must ask themselves a series of pertinent questions, all of which revolved around issues of honesty and objectivity in the process of reviewing. In other words, the question of whether an unbiased analysis of the book is ever achievable was under consideration, and if not, what are the factors preventing the reviewer from formulating an objective account of the book? For example, one pressing issue was whether the reviewer knew the author personally and whether such an acquaintance could have contributed to a more favourable or unfavorable review. Or, whether the personal interests mattered in any way in the review; should the review advance the reviewer's opinions, thus putting their presence front and centre in the text, or should it not? But the most fundamental question was, as Orteza y Miranda (1996) remarks, about the very purpose of the book review: what is it for?

Book reviewing attends to the needs of at least four parties: that of the author, that of the reviewer, that of the reader (who is the author as well) or, broadly, the community, and that of the publisher. While the reader's motivations or preferences remain, for the most part, hard to establish, the reviewer's role is another proposition. The ultimate form, structure and language of the book review is the sole product of the reviewer's making, their overall opinion and critical assessment of the knowledge claims and argumentation the author puts forward and the quality of the written text submitted to a publisher. The reviewer, being a scholar and a researcher themselves, sets out on a difficult journey fraught with numerous challenges, whether connected with personal stakes (Hyland, 2000), the expectations of the community (Swales, 1990), or their commitment to scholarship (Lindholm-Romanstschuk, 1998).

In a good critical review, which Orteza y Miranda (1996:196) likens to a "guided tour", the reviewer juxtaposes the book with the other contributions in the field, inviting the reader to join and enjoy an intellectual debate they are provoking, urging to ponder on the various intentions of the author, those stated explicitly and those that might have been left unwritten. In such reading between the lines, the discussion takes on a multi-sided dimension, successfully escaping the frame of the original book and the rigid boundaries it sets.

However, that a review is not a mere description has not always been unanimously agreed upon by the members of the academic communities. Hyland (2000:43) stresses the uncertainty around the genre, arguing it is a "somewhat unsung genre of the academy". At the same time, Lindholm-Romanstschuk (1998) provides a historical overview of the scholar's perception of book reviewing in the 1970s and 1980s, which turns out to be overwhelmingly negative. The picture of the book review that emerges from the outline she gives is rather bleak and uninviting: the book review was conceived of as a "second class citizen", "a mere individual expression of opinion", or "secondary literature", not worth much academically or societally. Hyland (200:43) somewhat disputes Swales's (1996) classification of the book review as one of the "occluded genres" of academic life and follows Paul Theroux's view of it as a kind of "public correspondence between reviewer and reviewed that no one else reads". On a more positive note, as Romanstschuk (1998) observes, the book review has also been regarded as an important vehicle for keeping the disciplinary communities well-informed about the newest developments in a field and as a crucial element in elevating or undermining reputations.

All of these claims come to suggest that the book review has had to go through a turbulent time not only when it emerged as an independent piece of writing, but also, and particularly so, when it was firmly established and continued its growth as a genre. This came with the publication of North's (1992) "On book reviews in rhetoric and composition", in which he suggested that the book review should be part of academic genres due to its distinctive discursive features. In his considerations on book reviews, North (1992:352) regards reviews as an effective means to enter the academic community:

> reviewers are sure one of an editor's tools in this shaping process (of the field). They can be used to recruit new writers […] and represent a good way of breaking in or staying active.

As noted by Gea-Valor (2005), another influential reflection on the book review genre is that of Johnson (1992:51), who stresses the importance of the communicative nature of the genre and the interactions it facilitates:

> Peer reviews are a fact of life in academia. Accomplishing them in a way that is critical and insightful, yet appropriately polite at the same time, is a goal of most conscientious reviewers.

Equally important is the view held by Belcher (1995:140), for whom the book reviews have a "vital informative and evaluative role" that consists of "the time-saving sorting out that the disciplines, with their ever-increasing influx of new publication, always require".

5.5.2. The structure of the book review

Drawing on Swales's (1990) definition of the genre, Motta-Roth's (1995) pioneering study on sixty book reviews from the disciplines of linguistics, economics and chemistry has resulted in a schematic description of four rhetorical moves and their correspondent steps in the overall structure of the text. The analysis of Moves and Steps is shown in Figure 15, accompanied by a short overview of her research findings.

Move 1 INTRODUCING THE BOOK
Step 1 Defining the general topic of the book
and/or
Step 2 Informing about potential readership
and/or
Step 3 Informing about the author
and/or
Step 4 Making topic generalizations
and/or
Step 5 Inserting book in the field

Move 2 OUTLINING THE BOOK
Step 6 Providing general view of the organization of the book
and/or
Step 7 Stating the topic of each chapter
and/or
Step 8 Citing extra-text material

Move 3 HIGHLIGHTING PARTS OF THE BOOK
Step 9 Providing focused evaluation

Move 4 PROVIDING CLOSING EVALUATION OF THE BOOK
Step 10A Definitely recommending/disqualifying the book
or
Step 10B Recommending the book despite indicated shortcomings

Fig. 15. Schematic description of rhetorical moves in book reviews (Motta-Roth, 1995:8)

As can be seen, the four moves are: (1) *Introducing the book,* (2) *Outlining the book,* (3) *Highlighting the book,* and (4) *Providing closing evaluation of the book*. They are easily identifiable in the textual structure of the review, as each occupies a separate paragraph or a number of paragraphs in the text. Hence, Move 1 takes the first opening paragraph of the review and follows its five crucial steps that give general points of information about the reviewed book. With a certain degree of variation in order, as Motta-Roth (1995) observes, the reviewer identifies and defines the general topic of the book; informs about the potential readership; provides information on the authorship of the book, i.e., if it is a single-authored or multiple-authored book, as well as, optionally, the author's background, experience or expertise. Finally, the reviewer informs how the new research relates to the existing knowledge in the discipline, and to do so, they can either make topic generalizations or insert the book in the field.

The next Move, *Outlining the book,* is usually a few paragraphs long description of the book. Following the three basic steps, the reviewer offers a detailed description of the structure and organization of the book, i.e., the number of chapters, sections or subsections or any additional structural information about the book, such as figures, tables, graphs, or pictures that are included in the book; identifies the underlying topic of each chapter; and refers to information on extra material of the book that is not in the main text such as bibliography, tables, graphs, or appendices. As Motta-Roth (1995) observes, the book reviews from the field of chemistry are characteristically shorter than those written in the field of economics and linguistics. Out of the three disciplines under consideration, the linguistic book review turn out to be the longest, containing more detailed, often evaluative, descriptions of the specific chapters. Conversely, the chemistry book reviews include more concise descriptions and less lengthy sentences. Motta-Roth's observation is that the chemistry reviews are more descriptive than evaluative, which more often than not demand a more elaborate or complex argumentation. Another point of difference in her corpus relates to the references to additional material used in the book. Here, the chemistry reviews are distinctly dissimilar from the other two fields in their emphasis on the presence of appendices with references or extra data provided in the book. It may be explained in the very nature of the discipline, where reliance on visual help and illustrations is far greater than in linguistics or economics.

From a generally descriptive Move 2, the reviewer goes on to Move 3, which is clearly evaluative. In *Highlighting parts of the book*, the reviewer formulates and expresses words of praise and criticism in ways which are either explicit or implicit, tentative or more direct. According to Motta-Roth (1995), Move 3 is an independent stretch of discourse in which the reviewer is openly subjective in their judgments, following a range of lexical or grammatical devices to support their argumentation and successfully make their point in the text. What Motta-Roth (1995) also observes is the fact that evaluation in the book review could be found in any place in the text and is mostly performed in terms of Aristotle's "terms of praise and blame" (Aristotle, Book 1, 1991:48 quoted by Motta-Roth, 1995:13) In the context of the construction of disciplinary knowledge, terms of praise and blame are used to account for what is desirable or undesirable, important or unimportant or, more broadly, good or bad, in the field, which echoes the discussion on *value* presented in Chapter One. As said, Motta-Roth (1995) notes that the book review may be evaluative throughout the whole text, but she emphasizes that in Move 3 that evaluation is cumulative and best seen as a result. Interestingly, in her cross-disciplinary analysis, Motta-Roth (1995) observes a difference in the argumentation for negative evaluation. As far as linguistics is concerned, reviewers tend to write longer critical comments, carefully elaborating on their reasoning. On the other hand, in chemistry, as has been already observed, reviewers do not expand on their criticisms, leaving the interpretation of their comments up to the reader.

Finally, in the last move *Providing closing evaluation of the book,* the reviewer makes a final decision as to their acceptance, rejection or a combination of the two, as is indicated in the two steps. The last part of the review is also evaluative, but evaluation here does not expand into longer sentences or paragraphs; it is somewhat more concluding and conclusive and, perhaps, easier to analyze. Of the three areas, economics has shown larger parts of the review devoted to evaluation than with linguistics and chemistry. Motta-Roth (1995) also notices that in the field of chemistry, a crucial factor in overall evaluation is recency in publication and how it responds to the newest disciplinary developments. Yet again, it could be explained by the nature of the discipline. In linguistics, on the other hand, the reviewer makes far more references to the potential readership and whether or not the author has duly attended to the needs of their readers. Linguistics proves to be a discipline where the reader's opinion matters far more than in the other two fields under investigation.

5.5.2.1. Move Analysis in the previous research

Motta-Roth's (1995) study has proved to be an essential and highly influential piece of research upon which many other related studies are conducted. Her analysis has helped identify and recognize the basic organization of the review and its vital components, each has great potential for expressions of evaluation. The comparative analysis of the three dissimilar fields of study has led to formulating vital observations regarding the text structure, linguistic devices used in each of the parts, and, more broadly, the overall realization of evaluation.

A number of studies have replicated, revisited, or further amended Motta-Roth's framework, giving rise to a variety of analyses from both a single or cross-disciplinary perspective. For example, Nicolaisen (2002) examines sixty book reviews from the six social sciences spanning the thirty-year period (1971-2001). The research material comes from the fields of business, economics, history and philosophy of science and social science, library and information science, psychology and sociology. To the original Moves and Steps description Nicolaisen (2002) adds three more steps (neither recommending nor disqualifying the book; disqualifying the book despite indicated positive aspects; and definitely disqualifying the book) and, upon detailed inspection of these, makes a number of vital observations about the pace of growth or the dynamics of each of the disciplines, and the relation between the text structure and the disciplinary environment.

Suárez & Moreno's (2008) analysis of the one hundred twenty English and Spanish academic book reviews of history and law has revealed considerable differences between the English and Spanish use of the descriptive moves and the overall Spanish tendency for more favourable evaluation than that included in the English reviews. The authors also observe that the Spanish book reviews are characterized by more Steps than the original framework assumes and tend to fuse Move 2 and Move 3. In another, much smaller study that roughly replicates the findings from the year before, Suárez & Moreno (2009) observe that Move 2 and Move 3 are characteristically different in the two sub-corpora, with the former obligatory in the Spanish reviews and largely omissible in the English ones. Move 3, on the other hand, is more predominant in the English review, while the Spanish corpora show a preference for joining the two moves in a cyclical mode. In their study, Suárez & Moreno (2009) make use of the information they have gathered from the English and Spanish reviewers themselves that could account for the discrepancies between the two corpora in terms of negative evaluation. A likely explanation may lie in the fact that the Spanish academic communities are noticeably smaller and more culturally integrated than the English ones, which comes to suggest that the reviewers err on the side of caution when expressing criticism. This observation is consistent with Hyland's (2000:41) note on the disciplinary engagement the book review creates, particularly where "interpersonal stakes are much higher".

An interesting but relatively small cross-cultural study comes from Junqueira (2013), who performs a gender-based investigation of the English and Brazilian-Portuguese book reviews in applied linguistics, history and psychology. Her analysis reveals that the book reviews overwhelmingly follow the original Motta-Roth's framework; however, the evaluative Move 3 turns out to be cyclical, not linear, as initially proposed. A particularly interesting observation is made about the English and Brazilian-Portuguese negative evaluation. According to Junqueira (2013), English book reviews are more critical than their Brazilian-Portuguese counterparts, in which avoiding confrontation is a common pattern.

5.6. Parameters of evaluation in book reviews

In book reviewing, the reviewer not only assesses the merits and detriments of a colleague's work but also situates themselves in the midst of the academic debate, where expressions of praise and criticism are both a source of joy and strain. On the one hand, evaluation can enhance an individual reputation; on the other, it is powerful enough to seriously undermine it. It could be, then, as Hyland (2000) notes, "potentially threatening", which recalls the concept of the politeness theory and Face Threatening Acts (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The reviewer undertakes an important mission when they are to judge the book in terms of its quality, currency, or value to the field (Hyland, 2000) and present it to a wider audience in ways which are academically sound, disciplinary useful, and socially accepted. For Gea Valor (2005), the essence of the book review lies in the communicative nature of the genre that highlights the interaction between the two immediate participants of the text: the reviewer and the author of the reviewed book. She also reflects on the sense of solidarity and rapport among the participants of the academic communities.

Inevitably, the words of praise and criticism may vary, but all play a crucial part in the text, and their importance grows even further when a human element is considered. In the context of academia, it is interesting to observe how the two vital aspects of academic life, that of the construction and communication of disciplinary knowledge and that of social interaction, weave together to create an intricate network of interconnected communities where various motivations come into play. Myers (1989) observes that knowledge claims, criticism and rejection of claims are examples of FTAs for both the readers and a wider disciplinary audience and, therefore, writers must use tentative language such as hedges, indirectness, personal attribution, or solidarity pronouns to soften the threats to face.

In their politeness model of interaction that heavily draws on Goffman's (1967) concept of face, Brown & Levinson (1987) argue that writers seek to protect both positive and negative aspects of their own face and the face of their readers. At the heart of the politeness theory lies the notion of face, which is an individual's public self-image, "something that is emotionally invested and that can be lost maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction" (Brown & Levinson, 1987:66). Since a person's face is vulnerable and social interaction is rife with numerous FTAs, one must consider a balanced approach to satisfy the face needs of themselves and the interlocutor. While criticism may seriously undermine one's positive face, praise can contribute to saving it. This is not to say, however, that complementing is not without its risks, as applauding someone or something implies a position of authority and power that enables the individual to express their judgement.

In her extensive studies on a construct of face and face-threatening acts, Bogdanowska-Jakubowska (2016) looks at the process of social interaction, arguing that factors influencing a person's face are divided into two main categories: those relating to the self and those to the other. The importance of subjective interpretation of the social situation is reflected in an individual's behaviour and the way they choose to treat others. In the context of book reviews, an aspect of social interaction comes into light, too, i.e., in the academic encounter between the reviewer and the reader. Elsewhere, Jakubowska (2001) argues that face in itself is a "social norm" and a "value" that individuals should safeguard at all times.

Following Brown & Levinson's (1987) model of face maintenance, Hyland (2000) argues that complementing or criticizing in book reviews may take the form of a carefully managed politeness strategy that affects the overall form and vocabulary across the written text and simultaneously responds to the demands of both the genre and the community. Importantly, as Hyland (2000) further notes, the degree or intensity or strength of both praise and criticism should be given attention since being extremely critical can put the reviewer at a disadvantage and question their professional competence. In much the same vein, too much lavish and indiscriminate praise can signal that the reviewer is lacking in authenticity, experience, and critical thinking and is not, as Shaw (2009) emphasizes, a disinterested judge.

There are a number of different aspects the reviewer may choose to consider when evaluating a book review to employ praise or criticism. For this thesis, particularly useful has been Hyland's (2000) framework of six categories used in his cross-disciplinary analysis of book reviews from the soft and hard sciences, as shown in Table 9. They have served as a working framework for the empirical analysis presented in the empirical study of this thesis, more of which will be said in Chapter Six.

In his investigation of praise and criticism in book reviews, Hyland (2000) demonstrates that most of the evaluations concern the contents of the book, which is, as he admits, not at all surprising information. What he finds particularly interesting, however, is that positive evaluation is concerned with general features of the book, while critical comments tend to be more specific, focusing on particular content issues or textual features of the reviewed book. This tendency is observable in all eight disciplines Hyland (2000) has chosen for the analysis, which are: philosophy, sociology, applied linguistics, marketing, electronic engineering, mechanical engineering, physics and biology.

Focus	Description
CONTENT - general - specific	 Overall discussion: e.g., coverage, approach, interest, currency, quality Argument: e.g., insight, coherence, explanatory or descriptive value
STYLE	Exposition: clarity, organization, conciseness, difficulty, readability and editorial judgements
READERSHIP	Value or relevance for a particular readership, purpose or discipline
TEXT	Extent, relevance and currency of references, the number, usefulness and quality of diagrams, index items, tasks and exercises
AUTHOR	Writer's experience, reputation, qualifications or previous publications
PUBLISHING	Price, quality and production standards of the book

Table 9. Categories of evaluation in book reviews (Hyland, 2000:47)

That positive evaluation is predominantly realized globally across the whole text, and criticism focuses on smaller, more specific features, proves the dual purpose of the book review genre: to provide an outline of the book and pinpoint some problematic aspects that are useful in furthering a knowledgeable discussion on the topic. In the event of a reversed situation, i.e., global negative evaluation dismisses the whole work and restricts praise only to a few aspects of the book, the reviewer and the author could risk losing their professional face, and this, in turn, would have its interpersonal consequences. In avoiding too direct and not entirely objective critique, the reviewer also presents his professional standing and experience in the field of reviewing. As emphasized by Orteza y Miranda (1996:197), a good book review is an:

> instrument for creating a psychological climate for examination, investigation, correction, modification, creation and invention of idea and theoretical constructs regarding current theoretical problems, professional practice and policy statement.

Of particular significance to this thesis is also what Hyland (2000) gathers from his corpus data about the overall distribution of praise and criticism in the soft and hard sciences respectively. It follows that the soft sciences, such as philosophy and sociology, are far more critical than the hard sciences in general. A possible explanation may be that reviews in the hard sciences are given less space than in the soft sciences. Therefore, space restrictions pose a considerable difficulty in providing a lengthy argument, as is evident in the soft knowledge papers. However, as Hyland (2000) notes, criticism, regardless of its form and force, has been mitigated with the use of redressive strategies that tone down the negativity of the evaluation and the threat that it entails. To these belong praise-criticism pairs, hedges, personal opinion (or what Myers, 1989, calls "personal attribution"), attributing criticism to an abstract reader or general audience, metadiscourse, and limited praise that implies a negative evaluation. All of these strategies are often used in combinations with one another, and only through the inspection of the co-text is their meaning detected. The mitigation strategies will be discussed in more length with the use of the sentences from the corpus compiled for this thesis.

As far as the other parameters are concerned, linguistic, marketing and sociological reviews tend to focus more on the stylistic features of the books and the overall readability of the text, while hard scientists are more concerned with publishing issues such as price and print quality. Furthermore, linguists, engineers and hard scientists criticize the use of visual materials and references in the book. Part of this observation could be surprising considering Motta-Roth's (1995) note about the attention that linguists, chemists, and economists pay to the extra material of the book. As has already been said in the previous section, her study shows that citing extra material is more predominant in chemistry reviews, which is hard science, rather than in linguistics.

On the whole, as Hyland (2000) argues, disciplinary differences in evaluation are consistent with the nature of the sciences under review. Given that the social sciences and humanities are characteristically more language-oriented ant thus more attentive to discussion and debate, their book reviews turn out to be more lengthy, more discursive, more quality-related, and ultimately more confrontational. The hard sciences that sit at the other end of the spectrum are ordinarily concerned with demonstration and experiment and physical proof or hard evidence and consequently, their reviews show less discussion and less evaluation on the whole. Observation such as this works in favour of the rationale behind the empirical analysis in this thesis. Since the differences between the hard and soft sciences are almost intuitively comprehended, there seems to be less interest in investigating evaluation in the two confronting disciplines. Therefore, comparing and contrasting fields that bear more similarities, however superficial these might be, seems to be an auspicious area of research.

Yet another crucial point of difference that Hyland (2000) registers is the relative status of books as a means of communicating new knowledge in the two disciplines. As far as the hard sciences are concerned, book publishing seems to be on the decline, and the books themselves are regarded to lie on the periphery of the mainstream construction of knowledge. This might explain a greater tendency for mild criticism and more overall attention to the extra visual materials in the book, such as diagrams, tables or appendixes, often used by students and junior researchers or professional academics as a convenient way of familiarizing oneself with an unknown area of study. These conclusions are replicated by Hyland & Jiang (2019:16) in another work, where he elaborates on global publishing and "the demise of books" in modern scholarship.

5.6.1. Evaluative constructions in book reviews

A number of studies have shown that the analysis of positive and negative meanings should concentrate not only on the variety of lexical items such as adjectives, adverbs, or nouns whose evaluative force is, for the most part, obvious to intuition but also take a much broader look at the syntactic signals of evaluation (see, e.g., Hunston & Francis, 1996; Hunston & Sinclair, 2000; Römer, 2008; 2011). Some language patterns have a clear evaluative structure, and some are intentionally manipulated to convey specific meaning (i.e., using semantic prosodies or other textual clues). More broadly, however, the investigation of evaluative meanings should encompass lexis, syntax, context and co-text (see, e.g., Sinclair, 1987; 2004; Channel, 2000; Hunston, 2011; Hoey, 2000; Shaw, 2004; Groom, 2005, 2009; Römer, 2008) particularly when evaluative function and the polarity of a word hinges upon its immediate environment and further distribution or replication throughout other parts of the text.

While the previous section has been meant to provide an example of a framework for analyzing evaluative meanings, the focus of this one falls on a variety of lexical and grammatical aspects that are usually taken into consideration in the study of evaluation in book reviews. Furthermore, it will be shown that book review analyses have been performed concerning issues such as gender, authorship, or time, providing vital insights into the workings of the review construction.

Shaw (2009) concentrates on the three types of clauses in book reviews. These are:

- a general particular;
- a clause followed by another performing the same function (referred to as "chained clause" in the empirical study of this thesis),
- a concession.

Following Shaw (2009), the example of a general-particular clause may be: *This is a good book: it does not give many equations*. The second type is where a general clause is followed by several matched clauses, each of which functioning as a support for the claims made by the reviewer: *[…]it is full of relevant coloured illustrations, it does not give many equations, and* *it sensibly avoids technical terms that may discourage younger readers*. An example of a concessive could be: *This a good book, but it does not give many equations*. While the first and second examples are clearly positive, the grammar of the third one clearly indicates an unfavourable evaluation because of the contrast brought by the conjunction *but*. Shaw (ibid.) argues that contrast relations are particularly common in reviews; his observation is in agreement with that of Hyland (2000) and Diani (2007), both of whom draw attention to the praise-criticism pairs as a means of softening the negative evaluation.

In his manual analysis of book reviews, Shaw (2009) proposes a set of categories for the components of evaluation in book reviews, which is shown in Table 10. It follows that the seven categories Shaw (2009) puts forward are more linguistically oriented than the parameters proposed earlier by Hyland (2000). However, both frameworks contain a clear reference to the authorship as well as some other broad similarities. For example, Shaw's EVALUATOR, who is typically the reviewer or the reader, corresponds to Hyland's evaluator function in the mitigation strategies in which criticism is performed by a remote third party, not the reviewer themselves. As said before, shifting the negative opinion from the reviewer to an abstract reader or general audience softens the critical comment and is less face-threatening. Similarly, MODIFICATION OF EVALUATION may serve the same purpose.

Term	**Example**
THING EVALUATED	*Smith is right* ***to draw this conclusion***
EVALUATIVE ITEM	***This book*** *might be interesting for some readers*
EVALUATING RESPONSE	*Negative: This book is* ***boring****. Smith writes* ***badly.*** *The book* ***fails to*** *examine […]* *Positive: Smith is* ***right*** *to draw this conclusion… the* ***sophistication*** *of this argument. Your reviewer* ***was surprised*** *at the sophistication of this argument*
FLAG (POSITIVE OR NEGATIVE)	***Item: In*** *this book's* ***favour*** *one can say that […]* ***Response:*** *it is* ***a pity*** *that*
MODIFICATION OF EVALUATION	*This book is* ***quite i****nteresting.*
EVALUATOR	***I/Your reviewer*** *was surprised at the sophistication of this argument*
AUTHOR (EVALUATION CARRIER)	***Smith*** *is right to draw this conclusion*

Table 10. Realizations of the parts of an evaluation (Shaw, 2009:219)

In his analysis, Shaw (2009) also considers the positive and negative polarity of evaluative expressions, arguing that negative evaluation should not be confused or equated with negative clauses or other grammatical constructions with negative markers. For example, in writing *This Book has no faults*, the reviewer does not make a critical comment but expresses a word of compliment.

Interestingly, as far as negation is concerned, a particularly intriguing might be a grammatical construction known as litotes, also referred to as a “negated negation” or “the denial of the opposite” (see, e.g. Lanham, 1991; Wouden, 1997; Łyda & Warchał 2011; Szczygłowska, 2020). The examples of the litotic constructions may be *not unwelcome, not unreasonable, not infrequently, not without significance*, etc. Litotes is a rhetorical figure that corresponds to understatement and is used to express a certain reluctance on the part of the reviewer to criticize the author’s writing severely. Also, it may produce some ironic or sarcastic effect, either intentionally or unintentionally, and yet manipulate the reader’s opinion of the contents of the book. From such a perspective, the existence of litotes in book reviews and the number of effects it might produce is worthy of further consideration.

To the realizations of evaluative responses, Shaw (2009) refers as FLAGS that could be positive or negative. Their function is to preface or post-label an utterance with words such as “merit” or “problem”, which indicate the polarity of the statement.

The overall research findings of the diachronic study allow Shaw (2009) to formulate a couple of observations. For example, the formal resources used in the two corpora (from 1913 and 1993) do not show considerable differences in style or language. This conclusion corresponds to another piece of research provided by Salager-Meyer et al. (2007), who also report no significant differences in their diachronic analysis of the medical book reviews. Another observation concerns positive and critical comments that are boosted and mitigated, respectively, which aligns with the politeness theory and face-threatening acts. Also, as Shaw (2009) remarks, it does not come across a particular revelation that negative evaluation is predominantly softened. A more puzzling issue is the fact that book reviews reveal a relatively high amount of praise that is accompanied by criticism. According to Shaw (2009), such a blame-praise pair may indicate not so much mitigation of criticism as the willingness on the part of the reviewer to sound more balanced or decisive.

5.6.2. Variables in book review analyses

While implicit and explicit expressions of praise and criticism have been the subject of numerous corpus analyses, it is the latter that has sparked particular academic curiosity. Literature shows a significant amount of studies that have been devoted to investigating the various ways in which academic book reviews make negative evaluations, often in terms of a third variable, for example, gender, authorship, academic identity or language of the book review (see, e.g., Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza & Berbesi, 2007; Salager-Meyer & Alcaraz Ariza, 2003; Giannoni, 2006; Salager-Meyer, 2006; Römer, 2005; Giannoni, 2006; Tse &

Hyland, 2006; Mackiewicz, 2007; Tse & Hyland, 2009; Itakura & Tsui, 2011; D'Angelo, 2012; Kanda, 2013; Junqueira & Cortes, 2014; Zasowska, 2019). Expressing what may be called professional criticism has often been regarded as a more task than the act of complementing, especially in terms of the already mentioned FTAs, for both the reviewer and the author, who has no possibility to produce a public response.

A useful but somewhat surprising insight into the study of negative evaluation through gender lenses has been provided by Römer (2005). In her corpus of two hundred and twenty-two linguistic book reviews, she distinguishes four types of criticism that centre around the keyword "book": nominal criticism (e.g., *shortcomings, weakness, the absence of X*), verbal criticism (e.g., *suffers from X, might hinder readers from*), adverbial criticism (e.g., *abruptly, unnecessarily*), and adjectival criticism (e.g., *vague, confusing, unclear*). Focusing exclusively on adjectival criticism, Römer (2005) lays the emphasis on negative evaluative adjectives used by male and female reviewers in their task of assessing the quality of the book. In investigating adjectival criticism and its possible correlation with the reviewer's gender, the author has had to confront a traditional assumption according to which women are less critical and use more mitigation strategies than men. Surprisingly, the evidence that emerges from Römer's (2005) corpus-driven analysis runs counter to this traditional belief and shows no striking differences between the two genders in their use of negative adjectives. Thus, gender does not appear to constitute a relevant factor in academic book reviews, at least as far as criticism is concerned.

Römer's investigation is not alone in gender-oriented studies on evaluation, which, for the most part, have failed to produce conclusive evidence for the existence of gender discrepancies in academic discourse. On the one hand, then, her findings are consistent with Rubin & Greene's (1992) or Francis, Robsen & Read's (2001) analysis of male and female writing styles, all of whom found little difference in the argument construction between men and women students. On the other hand, however, the author might have been inspired by the studies that did show gender variations, such as Roen & Johnson's (1992) analysis of complementing, in which the authors report on more positive evaluation on the part of the female student reviewers, or Rubin & Greene's (1992) study on writing styles in male and female undergraduates. It follows that since evidence for gender impact on academic discourse has been mixed and inconclusive, perhaps a binary approach fails to fully explain the differences in male and female use of language in both written and spoken contexts. Römer (2005) suggests a continuum with prototypes be used to better account for the observed linguistic variations. Her study findings are a vital reminder that preconceived ideas in conventional wisdom should not stand in the way of objective research because these may hinder the research process and obscure the formulation of the conclusions. Römer (2005) also calls for more corpus-driven comparative analyses, which could guide the researchers to discover hidden facts about language and lead to a more contextualized approach to gender differences in linguistics or sociolinguistics.

Another piece of research that looks at the connection between gender and evaluation in more detail is provided by Tse & Hyland (2009), who investigate the role of gender and discipline in the construction of academic identity in book reviews. Supplemented with the interviews with reviewers and editors in these fields, the analysis focuses on corpora from the two contrasting areas of philosophy and biology. Of particular interest has been to compare how male and female reviewers use evaluative patterns when reviewing male and female authors and how they represent themselves throughout the text.

Overall, Tse & Hyland (2009) report greater similarity *within* each discipline and more variations *between* them (italics original). The features of evaluation have been put into four broad categories according to their function: hedges, boosters, attitude markers and engagement markers. The analysis has shown that men and women employ similar resources in their texts, with males using more evaluative devices in the three categories, except attitude markers, predominantly used by female reviewers. Interestingly, both men and women use more features when reviewing female authors. Out of the four categories of evaluative devices, boosters represent the widest area of difference. It has been demonstrated that female reviewers use boosters to intensify praise, thus expressing positive evaluation, contrary to males, for whom boosters are used to highlight their confidence and expertise in the field. Tse & Hyland (2009) note that men are more vocal about their opinions presented in a strong and self-assured manner and more concentrated on stamping a personal authority onto their views. The authors link these observations with a level of seniority and status in the fields where there is a considerable gender imbalance rather than some abstract gendered behaviour. The interviews with their informants have confirmed Tse & Hyland's (2009) assumptions about the strict hierarchical environment in the field of biology, where few women oversee research projects or hold high-level positions. On closer analysis, a clearly male-dominated field of philosophy has replicated similar observations.

The two contrasting fields of study have also shown interesting variations. For one thing, book reviews in philosophy are more lengthy than those produced in biology, which recalls Hyland's (2000) observations about rhetorical conventions in hard and soft sciences discussed earlier. In philosophical book reviews, the male reviewers are seen to adopt a more personal and authoritative style, while females show more tentative language and a reasoned evaluation.

Unlike in the field of philosophy, biology gives priority to journal articles as the prime vehicle for negotiating knowledge, which means books are used rather for consolidating what has been known to date rather than reporting new research findings, and this translates into a distinctly different style of writing and argumentation between the two fields. Hyland & Tse (2009) note that biological book reviews are intended for student readers and are not as argumentative as their philosophical counterparts. Despite a relatively small amount of evidence, biology book reviews show that male reviewers are more critical of the book written by other men. This may be explained by intense competition within the profession and, yet again, male dominance in the field.

Overall, Tse & Hyland's (2009) research has produced significant and revealing findings in the context of book reviews and, broadly, in academic discourse. The many-angled analysis has proven that there is no straightforward generalization about language use and gender and that other important factors come into play and greatly influence the text and the evaluation within. Such factors are seniority, power, the nature of the discipline, social situatedness, and, importantly, a person's individual make-up. Thus, evaluation is a multi-faceted phenomenon that does not offer clear-cut answers or explanations and always ought to be looked at with an open mind. Tse & Hyland (2009) conclude that it is unlikely that gender is a decisive element as far as academic writing is concerned and that language variation between genders is the ultimate result of different social practices and forces that effectively construct, negotiate and transform the way men and women speak, write, and communicate.

In their cross-cultural analysis, Junqueira & Cortes (2014) use Hyland’s (2000) framework and focus on metadiscourse features such as attitude markers, emphatics, interpersonal markers, relational markers and hedges in the three corpora of linguistics, history and psychology in the English and Brazilian Portuguese. The study has shown a considerable difference in using interpersonal metadiscourse markers in the English corpus while a more balanced representation in the Brazilian Portuguese. Junqueira & Cortes’s study is has turned out to be a vital point of reference to the present thesis as the corpora chosen for the analysis comprise linguistics and psychology. Their analysis compared to the finding from the study this thesis proposes will be given more attention in the next parts of this work.

5.7. The reviewer guidelines

Yet another factor essential in the discussion on book reviews is that of evaluation guidelines, which directly affect the structure of the review and reveal a set of criteria a manuscript or paper needs to meet to be granted a publication. A valuable contribution to this aspect of book review research is offered by Gesuato (2009), who analyzes review guidelines of scientific journals in terms of their organization and evaluation strategies as well as size and recognizability. It is important to note that, as Gesuato (2009) also reports, some journals do not have any review guidelines or refuse to disclose them.

In those widely accessible online, such as *Reviewer's Guide* from *Sage Journal* or *Guidelines for Reviewers of Manuscripts submitted to the Journal of Second Language Writing*, the reviewer is given practical advice on how to review a paper, starting from an initial impression to a more in-depth analysis. The *Reviewer's Guide* is a short five-page booklet made of four main parts (*Initial Impression*, *Sections of the Paper*, *Your Feedback*, and *Ethics and Responsibility*). Each piece has various questions concerning the subsequent stages of the review process, each offering insightful hints, comments, and suggestions that lend themselves to an objective and constructive review. Elsewhere, Starck (2017) provides comprehensive instruction on how to write peer reviews in ways which are effective, ethical and academically responsible. An equally valuable insight into the book reviewing process is provided by the reviewers themselves (e.g., Tracy, 1997; Kitchin & Fuller, 2007; Bev, 2010; Chenail, 2010; Lewis, 2020), who tell inside stories about their profession as book reviewers and, in so doing, shed more light on what the process of reviewing looks like in practical terms.

As rightly observed in the *Reviewer's Guide*, a good reviewer is the "quality controller" of the research world who ensures that a submitted paper complies with the rules and standards of the journal and the academic community. The reviewer must declare that the research has been conducted in the absence of any personal, professional or financial relationship that could be construed as a potential conflict of interest with any party involved in the manuscript. The reviewer must decide whether the paper is relevant to the journal, its research significant, and the work presented as new and original. The following questions take the lead and boomerang through almost every review guideline, which should come as no surprise since the expansion of knowledge is contingent upon originality and the freshness of ideas. Only then can it expand and enrich both academic communities and society as a whole. The sections of the paper should be looked at with precision, diligence and an eye for detail, leading to an objective, intellectually robust and honest assessment of the text. The ultimate task of the reviewer is to make a recommendation, either to approve of the publication of the work or reject it. Ethics and responsibility are crucial areas where the reviewer must act decisively, drawing on their knowledge and expertise as well as commitment to scholarship. This means that instances of plagiarism, insufficient acknowledgement, copying material without permission or dubious authorship should be immediately reported and thwart the chances of academic success.

Gesuato (2009) focuses on the structure and characteristics of the review guidelines and their main formats, which could be a list of evaluative items, a list of question prompts, a list of statement prompts and descriptions of evaluative dimensions, or a combination of these. On a much similar note, let us first take a look at the guidelines obtained from the official website of the *Linguist List*, presented in Table 11 (bold type mine).

Your review should consist of the following parts in this order (but without numbers). A summary of the book's purpose and contents. For example, if you are reviewing a textbook, indicate what audience it is intended for, and briefly what it covers. If it is a monograph, summarize its main points without going into technical detail. If it is an edited collection of papers by different authors, state what each paper is about, and how they fit together. An evaluation of the book. A high-quality review will normally include pointing out some of the **book's merits and shortcomings, identifying problems, asking questions, and presenting positive or negative implications of the analyses**. LINGUIST reviews are often the first evaluations of a book available to the linguistics community, and unlike paper journals, LINGUIST encourages authors and readers to reply and offers them the immediate opportunity to do so. In keeping with standard LINGUIST policy, reviewers must keep the tone of reviews scholarly, and **avoid attacking persons and institutions**. This **does not mean that the reviewer should avoid controversy or criticism, only that the tone of that criticism must be professional and scientific**. Reviews that do not meet LINGUIST standards for scholarly discourse will be returned to the author for revision. When you write your evaluation section, consider the following questions: • Have **you** been **explicit** about whether the author(s) have **achieved their goals** with the book? • Is there a **specific kind of audience** the book would be especially **good (or bad)** for? • Have you contextualized the book, i.e., explained how **it fits with other literature** on the topic? • Does the volume **cohere** or **not**? (This is especially important for edited volumes.) • Is there **potential future research** that this work opens up or suggests, either empirically or theoretically? • Have **you** exemplified the points you raise in the evaluation **clearly** and **concretely**?

Table 11. The *Linguist List* reviewer guidelines

The *Linguist List* reviewer guidelines make it clear that the submitted review must conform to the standards of the community and keep their criticism “professional and scientific”. It may be deduced that some reviews have failed to meet these criteria and have been rejected as a result. Interestingly, the *Linguist List* allows the authors and readers to respond to a review. Also, the guidelines offer a helpful checklist for the reviewer in their evaluation section, including questions about relevance to the field, the interest of an intended audience, the overall coherence of a text and indications that the findings presented in the book may be useful in future research. The guidelines are also helpful in self-assessment and encourage retrospective consideration once the review has been written but not yet submitted.

Another example of the reviewer guidelines comes from the *Linguistica Silesiana*, an international journal of linguistics studies. Its middle part is concerned with the content and format of the review and takes the form of checklist questions to which the reviewer answers affirmatively or negatively. The guidelines are presented in Table 12. (bold type mine)

Content and format (Please click appropriate boxes)

1. Is the subject **worthy of investigation**? yes no
2. Is the study **relevant** to existing research in the area? yes no
3. Is the content **new**? yes no
4. Are the sources cited **relevant t**o the topic? yes no
5. Are the sources cited **up-to-date and complete**? yes no
6. Are critical concepts defined **appropriately**? yes no
7. Is theoretical background provided? yes no
8. Is the argument presented **clearly**? yes no
9. Is experimental methodology described **appropriately** (if applicable)? yes no
10. Are research questions reflected in the discussion/conclusions of the study? yes no
11. Is the research methodology described **effectively**? yes no
12. Are the data presented **in an appropriate manner** (if applicable)? yes no
13. Is the language of the presentation **appropriate**? yes no
14. Is the overall structure of the presentation **sensible**? yes no

Table 12. The *Linguistica Silesiana* reviewer guidelines

Already briefly discussed in Chapter Three, the reviewer guidelines from *Linguistica Silesiana* identify as many as fourteen evaluative dimensions, which take the form of an enumerated list. On closer inspection, it becomes clear that the questions are arranged in order of importance: the first three questions are the most significant ones as far as the construction of knowledge is concerned. The evaluation involves the subject matter of the work, its relevance to the field, and the novelty and originality of the findings. The reviewer is also requested to assess the work’s sources, theoretical background, style, and argumentation used to support the presented views. Of importance to the review is also the research methodology, the presentation of data, the quality of language, or the overall structure of the work. Because of the adjectives used in the questions, it may be argued that the formulation of the question itself is suggestive of an answer on the part of the reviewer.

As far as the Polish review guidelines are concerned, a useful source of reference comes from *Heteroglossia*, a journal of cultural and philological studies in Bydgoszcz. The questions are presented in Table 13. In *Heteroglossia*, the order of importance appears to be preserved, although the question arrangement differs from that of *Linguistica Silesiana*. Here, the very first one is whether the work meets the standards for publication with or without minor or major revisions, the second focuses on whether the tile properly reflects the subject of the work, and the third one is about the length of the work and the reviewer's opinion whether the text is appropriate or should be shortened or extended. The novelty and relevance of the research findings to the field appear in the fourth question.

1. Czy praca **kwalifikuje się do opublikowania**? □ □ □
   – bez zmian? □ □ □
   – po wprowadzeniu istotnych zmian? □ □ □
2. Czy tytuł pracy jest **prawidłowo** sformułowany i zgodny z jej treścią? □ □ □
3. Czy objętość pracy odpowiada **randze** jej treści? □ □ □
   – Czy pracę należałoby skrócić? □ □ □
   – Czy wskazane byłoby rozbudowa jej? □ □ □
4. Czy praca wnosi **elementy nowości** do nauki? □ □ □
   – Czy zawiera **ważne** informacje naukowe? □ □ □
5. Czy plan i organizacja pracy są **prawidłowe**? □ □ □
6. Czy streszczenie i abstrakt zawierają **właściwe** informacje? □ □ □
7. Czy rysunki są **przejrzyste** i w należyty sposób opisane? □ □ □
   – Czy podpisy rysunków sformułowano **właściwie**? □ □ □
8. Czy tablice są **poprawne, zwięzłe i istotne** dla treści pracy? □ □ □
   – Czy są **właściwie** opisane? □ □ □
9. Czy w pracy przedstawiono wyniki i zastosowaną metodykę badań? □ □ □
10. Czy interpretacja wyników i wnioski są **właściwie** udokumentowane? □ □ □
11. Czy **styl i język** spełniają wymogi pisarstwa naukowego? □ □ □
12. Czy literatura jest **dobrze dobrana i prawidłowo cytowana**? □ □ □

Table 13. The *Heteroglossia* reviewer guidelines

In the remaining part, the reviewer is asked to assess and make their judgement about the structure and organization of the work, the summary and the abstract included, the clarity of the extra materials used in the work such as graphics, figures or tables, the methodology of the research, the interpretation of data, the inclusion of latest research to the literature review, and the quality of language. Like in *Linguistica Silesiana*, *Heteroglossia* provides the reviewer with a list of pre-determined questions, which is doubtless helpful on the one hand and a bit problematic on the other. The reviewer might be inclined to respond to the most powerful word in a question, thus copying the ready-made evaluation rather than expressing their own.

In the empirical study of this thesis, which will be discussed in the forthcoming chapters, the corpora come from the linguistics and psychology journals. Table 14 shows the *Open Psychology* journal guidelines. The guidelines take the form of an elaborate instruction that contains four descriptive paragraphs and a short list of question prompts. According to the guidelines, the reviewer must assess the authenticity and originality of the work and take measures to ensure that it is not plagiarized. Experiments and analyses as well as interpretation of the results must be performed in accordance with the journal standards and the reviewer is requested to make judgements about whether findings are accurate and the author's interpretation valid. The language of composition should be clear, coherent, and grammatically correct, and the authors are advised to seek some proofreading services, if necessary, before submitting the revised version of the article for publication. The question prompts included in the guidelines concern whether the text is written in a comprehensive manner, the data is representative, the literature review and the methodology used in the paper.

Reviewers are advised to consider the following important aspects of a manuscript when conducting the review.

1. Reporting of Original Results:
The results reported in the manuscript must be original and authentic work of the authors. They should be devoid of any plagiarism and the material should not have been published earlier. Studies which report some reproduced results, for example a new clinical trial, may also be considered for publication.

2. Experiments and Analyses:
Experiments and other analyses should meet the recognized technical standards and must be described systematically. The research presented in a manuscript should facilitate in reaching accurate conclusions from the statistics. Methods and experiments as well as reagents should be documented in detail.

3. Interpretation of Results:
Authors should present and interpret the results and conclusions in an appropriate and comprehensive manner, clearly explaining the results and outcomes of their study. Incomplete interpretation of results may result in rejection of the manuscript.

4. Language of Composition:
The manuscript should be written in English in a clear, direct and active style, free from grammatical errors and other linguistic inconsistencies. All pages should be numbered sequentially, facilitating the reviewing and editing of the manuscript. Authors should seek professional assistance for correction of grammatical, scientific and typographical errors before submission of the revised version of the article for publication. Professional editing services may also be sought by the team available at Bentham Open at an extra charge.
IMPORTANT POINTS TO CONSIDER
Reviewers are expected to provide advice on the following points in their review reports:

- Is the **manuscript written comprehensively** enough to be understandable? If not, how could it be improved?
- Have **adequate** proofs been provided for the declarations?
- Have the authors addressed the previous findings **fairly**?
- Does the paper offer enough details of its **methodology** to reproduce the experiments?

Table 14. The *Open Psychology Journal* reviewer guidelines

As seen from the samples provided, the communicative purpose of the reviewer guidelines is to elicit and register professional evaluation of the work in a corresponding genre, the review. While essentially divergent in form and structure, all guidelines identify three main types of referent: the paper as a whole (e.g., article or manuscript), parts of the paper (e.g. abstract, summary), and/or its content or characteristics (e.g., organization, presentation, methodology, literature review), as observed by Gesuato (2009). The paper submitted for a review and all the components it consists of, reviewer guidelines and a final review of the work constitute a genre chain (Swales, 2004) of article/book publication.

Concluding remarks

Out of the five academic genres that focus on reviewing the works of others, it is the book review that has been regarded as the most evaluative and, thus, the most confrontational. Its structure and character show considerable disciplinary variation, and so do variously formulated expressions of praise and criticism found therein. The existence of book reviews is inextricably linked to the academic book, a genre chain that has suffered a visible decline in the last decade. Nevertheless, the book review remains a vital tool for assessing the validity and integrity of research. It strengthens individual achievement and celebrates collective success in supporting the manufacture and dissemination of disciplinary knowledge. It is also essential in creating a forum for academics who lend their voices to the community and listen when the community reaches out to them.

The book review has been extensively studied in smaller and larger corpora, within one discipline and across various dissimilar fields, synchronically and diachronically, in the English language and through comparative analyses with other languages. Aspects such as negative evaluation, complementing, gender variation, or authorship have inspired a significant amount of valuable research that has offered a new understanding of the genre. The book review has been investigated almost from every angle. Yet, it still presents a challenge for scholars and an opportunity for researchers.

What follows in the next chapters is an empirical study conducted on a total of two hundred forty book reviews from linguistics and psychology. Although there is some overlap between these two disciplines as far as their shared interest in language and communication is concerned, for example, it may still be argued that linguistics and psychology come from different directions of knowledge. The rationale for the study lies in opposing a certain unwritten expectation that drives researchers to juxtapose entirely dissimilar ideas or objects together in the hope of finding contrast and analogy. This study aims to find points of similarity and difference in what appears to be related disciplines of knowledge.

CHAPTER SIX: Aims, Materials, and Methods

Introduction

The introduction to the theoretical parts of a thesis and the commencement of an empirical study do not bear much similarity, nor are they expected to do so. In the former, there is ample room for observation and reflection of the subject matter that helps situate an individual perspective amidst the array of perspectives of others. In the latter, by contrast, the chief focus falls on the cold facts: the research objectives accompanied by a description of the materials and the selected methods. In some way, a Ph.D. thesis may be a curious example of how sense mixes with sensibility, almost in equal measure and magnitude.

As it starts, the chapter aims to set the scene for the analysis of evaluation in book reviews. One aim is to present and discuss the materials and methods employed by the author; another is to analyze in greater detail the two disciplines that make up the corpora of book reviews: linguistics and psychology. Equally important is to elaborate on the rationale behind choosing these disciplines over any others. As hinted earlier, linguistics and psychology, as the humanities and the social sciences disciplines, respectively, may be considered more similar than dissimilar from each other. At the very least, the relationship between them is more obvious than in any pair from two visibly contrasting fields. While there is a bridge between linguistics and psychology that encompasses all manner of research methods or interdisciplinary connections, for example, this is not to say that the boundaries between them cannot be delineated. If humanities and social sciences are said to be distinct on the methodological, conceptual and philosophical levels (Lindholm-Romantschuk, 1998), part of this distinction must show in the case of linguistics and psychology, too.

The fact that both fields share a certain area of knowledge, ultimately dealing with human subjects, language, and communication in one way or another, has played a decisive factor in selecting the corpora for the thesis. Furthermore, the decision has been motivated by a willingness to analyze two language-oriented fields that have not yet been investigated in such scope and detail (at least to the best knowledge of the author). It is interesting to see whether, and if so, how linguistics and psychology communicate across the boundary that divides them and how they are similar and different to each other as far as academic discourse is concerned, in particular, the book review genre.

This chapter is in five parts. First, it looks broadly at the map of the disciplines in general and the places linguistics and psychology have occupied throughout the years, discussing the significant points where they diverge as well as the areas where they meet and overlap. Second, the materials used in the thesis are presented, followed by the research objectives and the selected methods. Finally, the parameters of the analysis are fully illustrated in the form of the annotation scheme, with each of its branches described in detail and further represented with the aid of a reference corpus.

6. On the map of disciplines: linguistics and psychology

Although the categorization of linguistics as a humanities discipline and psychology as a social science has not been universally agreed upon (see, e.g., Hegel, 1817; Spencer, 1864; Peirce, 1903; Hooper, 1906; Bliss, 1929; Beth, 1959; Kedrov, 1965), there are pragmatic reasons as well as historical and epistemological arguments why the classification exists. As Lindholm-Romantschuk (1998) observes, it has also been argued that these two sciences are distinct from one another on the methodological, conceptual and philosophical levels. The two disciplines, however, have followed parallel paths. Before linguistics and psychology are given a brief characterization and their points of similarity and difference are discussed, it is worth looking more broadly at how they have been represented on the maps of disciplines and how they communicate across the boundaries.

Categorizing and characterizing human knowledge could be traced back to antiquity, with Aristotle's *Distinctions* as one of the first efforts to do so. Throughout more than two thousand years, knowledge has expanded enormously and new disciplines have emerged, and so have the taxonomies that grew more intricate and elaborate to reflect the complexity of the disciplines they represent. A tree with branches is one of the most common illustrations of knowledge, where branches grow in different directions and sub-divide into smaller branches, each of which represents a different field of knowledge (Machlup, 1982). Among numerous schemes, maps and taxonomies of disciplines proposed in the last century, four are particularly worth considering as they demonstrate the varied perceptions of knowledge and science and the place linguistics and psychology have been given in the discipline classifications.

Hooper's (1906) classification comes from the pre-deSaussurian period and takes the form of a circle that consists of four main inner spheres: Anthropological (the core of a circle), Zoological, Biological, and Cosmological (the most outer sphere). Psychology (underlined in yellow) is located in the Zoological sphere, together with physiology, optics, or acoustics. Linguistics (underlined with blue) is referred to as "Philology", and Hooper (1906:209-2010) argues that "it may be divided into lexicology, which treats of the spelling and derivation of words, […], and grammar, which discusses the parts of speech, their inflexions, and the correct methods of combining then in sentences”. Psychology is divided into “casual psychology” and “formal psychology”, the former “treats consciousness, either as determined by physical conditions or as determining the bodily actions of men and other animals” (Hooper, 1906:177), while the latter “treats of the actual contents of the current of consciousness; of sensation and thought, as such, but of their physical conditions; of motive feelings and conscious purposes, as such, but their physical effects” (Hooper, 1906:180).

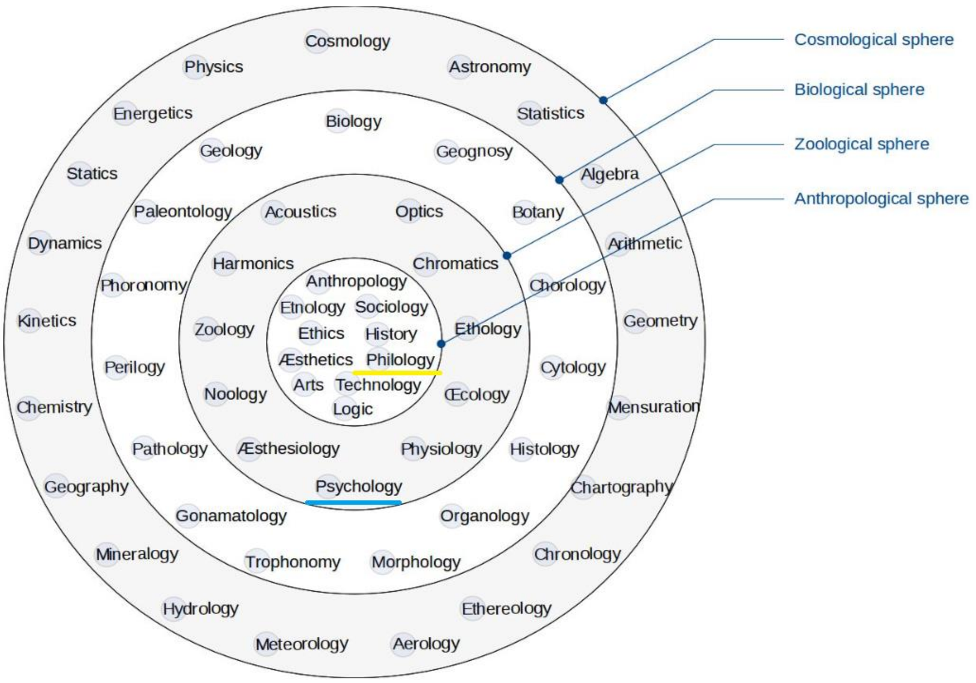


Fig. 16. Hooper’s classification of sciences (by Sandoz, retrieved from https://atlas-disciplines.unige.ch)

A highly elaborate classification is proposed by Bliss (1929), who divides Knowledge into six main categories: Philosophy, Formal sciences, Natural Sciences, Applied sciences, Arts, Literature and Language, and Human Sciences. Psychology, defined as “the science of mind” (Bliss, 1929:251), is part of the Human Sciences and is further divided into General Psychology, Special Psychology, Applied Psychology, and Occult Psychology, each of which is divided further into a number of sub-categories. Linguistics, defined by the author as “the study of language”, is located in the Arts, Literature, and Language branch of knowledge, which is divided into Fine Arts and Philology, with linguistics situated in the latter, accompanied by oratory. For reasons of space, Bliss’s enormously detailed classification will not be replicated here but can be accessed in full at https://atlas-disciplines.unige.ch/.

Strumilin (1954) offers a classification in which science is divided into nine main branches, each including several disciplines. Strumilin’s (1954) taxonomy places linguistics among Socio-historical Sciences and psychology among Anthropological Sciences. As shown in Fig. x., Socio-historical Sciences, apart from linguistics, comprise seven other disciplines: ethnography, archaeology, history, jurisprudence, art and literature, economy and statistics. Anthropological Sciences, on the other hand, apart from psychology, consist of embryology, anatomy and physiology. This classification shows that psychology is placed among sciences that focus on the physical and mental mechanisms of a human being, while linguistics has more to do with social and historical contexts of human development.

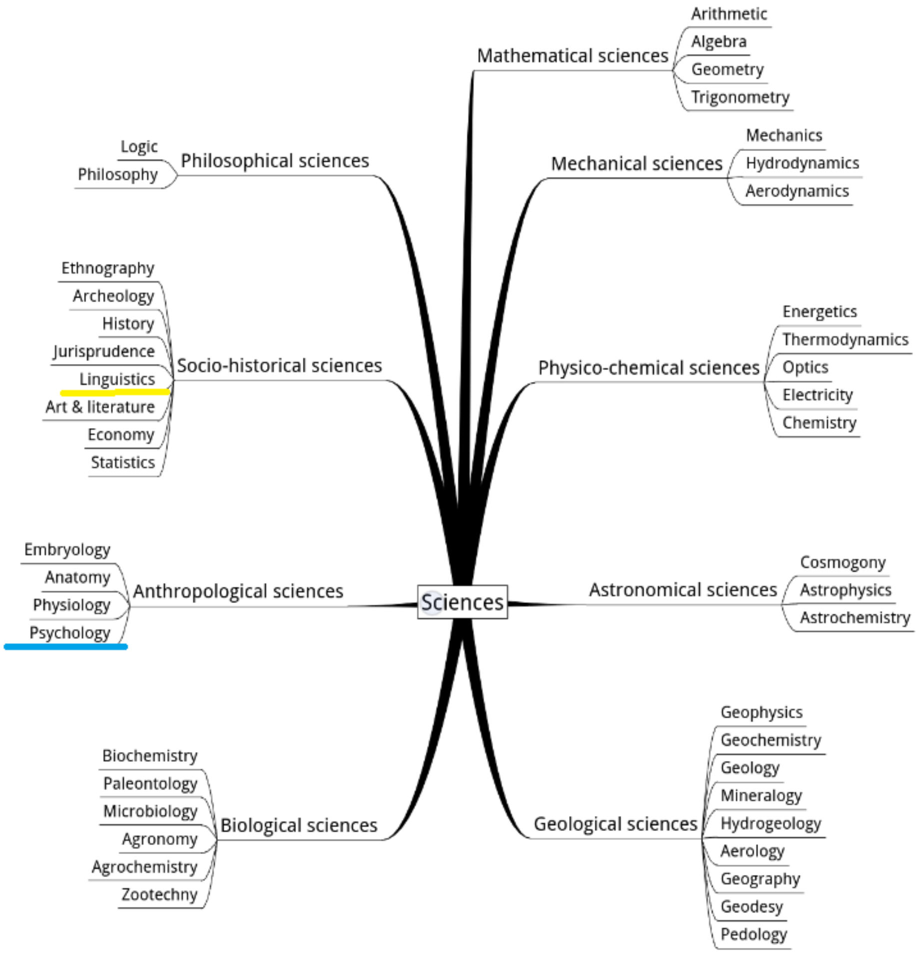


Fig. 17. Strumilin's classification of sciences (by Sandoz, retrieved from https://atlas-disciplines.unige.ch/)

For Beth (1959), linguistics and psychology belong to the Sciences of Man (see Figure 18), which branch into Social Sciences that comprise four disciplines, including linguistics and psychology as an independent discipline. According to Beth's classification, linguistics as a social science is tied up with sociology, history and economy more than psychology itself. Kedrov's classification (Figure 19) places both linguistics and psychology into Social Sciences, together with eight other disciplines: history, archaeology, ethnography, statistics, economy, politics, history of art and literature.

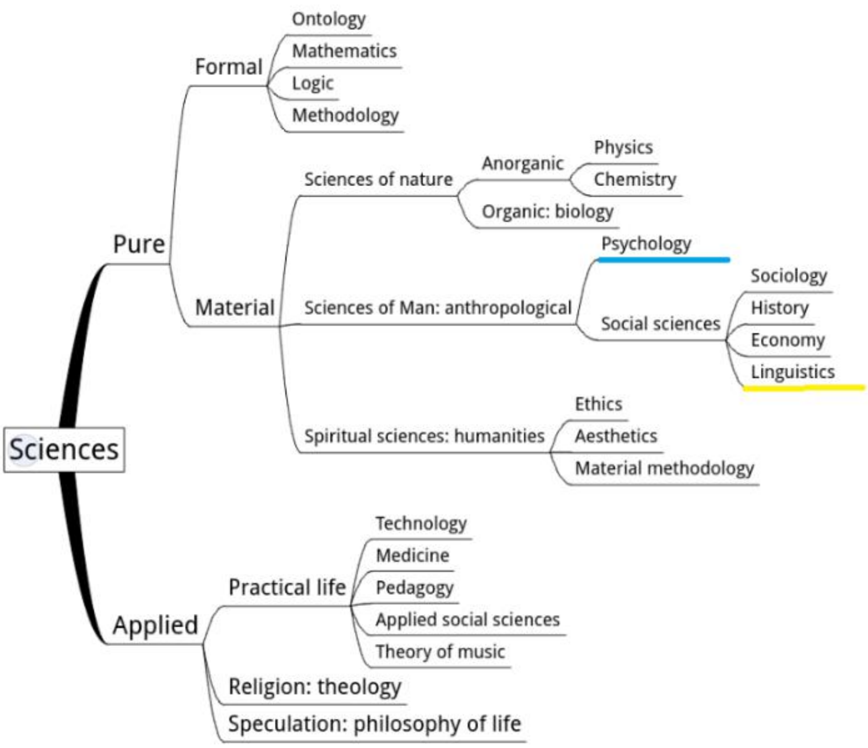


Fig.18. Beth's classification of sciences (by Sandoz, retrieved from https://atlas-disciplines.unige.ch/)

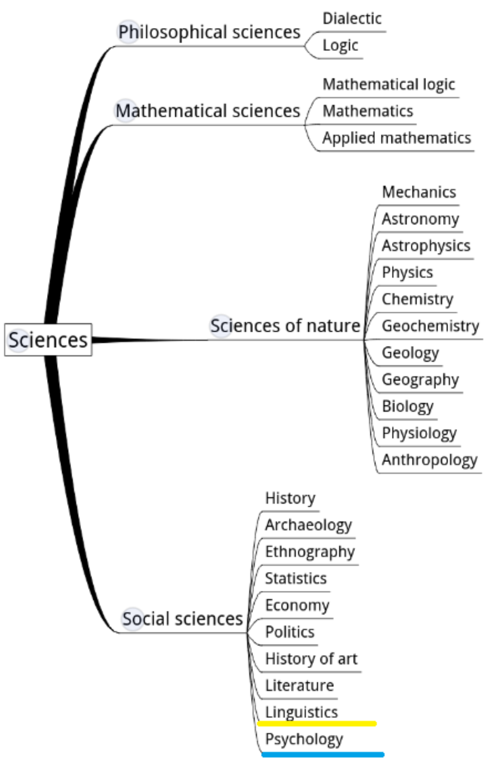


Fig. 19. Kedrov's classification of sciences (by Sandoz, retrieved from https://atlas-disciplines.unige.ch

6.1. Dimensions of knowledge

Drawing on the wealth of existing classifications and testing the unspoken assumption that there exists a hierarchy among scientific knowledge fields, 20th-century scientists and researchers have studied the systems from a more empirical perspective. Among variously formulated taxonomies of academic knowledge, at least four deserve more attention.

Pantin (1968) makes a two-fold categorization into the restricted and the unrestricted sciences. In explaining the difference between the two, Pantin (1968) remarks:

> There is one real, and graded distinction between sciences like the biologies and the physical sciences. The former are unrestricted sciences and their investigator must be prepared to follow their problem into any other science whatsoever. The physical sciences, as they are understood, are restricted in the field of phenomena to which they are devoted. They do not require the investigator to traverse all other sciences.
>
> Pantin (1968, quoted in Becher & Trowler, 2001:32)

What follows is that in the restricted sciences, for example, in the field of physics or chemistry, the scientist is studying a certain subject that is restricted by the phenomena of the field. In unrestricted sciences such as biology, the scientist takes the subject of inquiry as far as it takes them, which necessitates crossing the interdisciplinary boundaries. Becher & Trowler (2001) note that the restricted sciences are characterized by complex theoretical structures and are conducted with the use of elaborate technical facilities. The unrestricted sciences, on the other hand, are less theoretical.

Kuhn's (1962) theory of science has led him to develop the concept of a paradigm that is central to his classification of scientific disciplines. The four phases of science involve a pre-paradigmatic phase, normal science, crisis, and a scientific revolution. Normal science is defined by the existence of a paradigm that refers to the body of theory, concepts, and methods in a given field of study. The main scientific activity can be seen as solving scientific puzzles within the rules of a paradigm. During this phase, scientists are not critical of the paradigm itself but trust its efficiency and reliability. A pre-paradigmatic phase, as the name indicates, is the phase before the establishment of a paradigm. Since there is no shared body of assumptions, scientists work individually, with different background assumptions and different concepts, which results in an abundance of opinions and a general lack of consensus among them. Once scientists fall in line behind a single set of ideas, a paradigm comes into existence and defines all future scientific activities. On the one side, then, as Becher & Trowler (2001) note, there are "mature" sciences with clearly established paradigms; on the other, there are those areas of research that are still in the pre-paradigmatic phase of development. For Kuhn (1962), physical and biological sciences are paradigmatic, while the humanities and social sciences are pre-paradigmatic, i.e., the areas in which a difference of opinion is common.

While Pantin's and Kuhn's taxonomies are based on some unspecified observation of how researchers explore their domains of knowledge, Biglan's (1973a, 1973b) classification derives from a questionnaire data analysis and is one of the most cited taxonomies for academic disciplines with the higher education system to date. Biglan (1973a, 1973b) identifies three dimensions on which disciplines vary and distinguishes between hard and soft sciences, the pure and applied, and life-system and non-life-system sciences. The hard/soft dimension is consistent with Kuhn's (1962) notion of a paradigm and refers to the degree to which a paradigm exists; that is, hard sciences are characterized by a high degree of consensus, while soft sciences by a low degree of consensus. As observed by Doberneck & Schweitzer (2017), soft sciences are more open to a variety of methodological approaches and interpretations. The pure/applied dimension is concerned with immediate practical applicability of the disciplinary knowledge; that is, pure sciences are less concerned about practical application than applied sciences. The life/non-life dimension refers to sciences that are concerned with living organisms and those that are not. The three-dimensional classification is shown in Table 15.

Task area	Hard		Soft	
	Nonlife system	Life system	Nonlife system	Life system
Pure	Astronomy Chemistry Geology Math Physics	Botany Entomology Microbiology Physiology Zoology	English German History Philosophy Russian Communications	Anthropology Political science Psychology Sociology
Applied	Ceramic engineering Civil engineering Computer science Mechanical engineering	Agronomy Dairy science Horticulture Agricultural economics	Accounting Finance Economics	Educational administration and supervision Secondary and continuing education Special education Vocational and technical education

Table 15. Academic disciplines in three dimensions (Biglan, 1973:207)

As becomes evident from Table 15, original Biglan's (1973a, 1973b) classification categorized psychology under soft/pure/life sciences. In the extended version of the scheme, as noted by Doberneck & Schweitzer (2017), "linguistics and language" were categorized as soft/pure/non-life sciences. Biglan's scheme has enjoyed widespread use in many academic analyses and remains a key organizational mechanism of subjects at universities in the UK and the USA (Simpson, 2015) and a valid framework for studying academic diversity (Stoecker, 1993). The scheme has met with criticism as well as acknowledgement, but nevertheless, it is a crucial vantage point in the organization of scientific disciplines and their perception of them.

Kolb's (1981) model is similar to Biglan's (1973a, 1973b) as far as the two dimensions are concerned but differs significantly in terms of its development. Biglan (1973a, 1973b) was concerned with the perception of knowledge fields by academic themselves, and Kolb (1981) used a psychometric test to measure "learning styles across two basic dimensions of abstract/concrete and active/reflective." Despite a different approach, Kolb's findings have turned out to be consistent with those of Biglan (1973a, 1973b). Kolb (1981) proposea a framework that consists of the commonly accepted division into abstract (hard) and concrete (soft), adding one more dimension, i.e., active-reflective. Following Lindholm-Romantschuk (1998), the two dimensions of disciplines presented in a four-cell model are shown in Table 16.

	hard/ abstract	**soft / concrete**
pure/reflective	natural sciences, mathematics	humanities; social sciences
applied/active	engineering sciences	social professions

Table 16. Typology of disciplines based on two dimensions (Lindholm-Romantschuk, 1998:28).

As can be seen, the natural sciences and engineering sciences exemplify the hard sciences, while the humanities and social sciences represent the soft sciences. Engineering sciences and social professions are called applied/active dimensions, while the natural sciences, humanities, and social sciences belong to pure/reflective dimensions.

6.2. Linguistics and psychology in spatial representations

Apart from a tree of knowledge, there are a number of studies of the scientific or scholarly disciplines that use topological metaphors that lend themselves to a better portrayal of the fields of knowledge. These metaphors include, for example, "neighbourhoods" (Polanyi, 1958), "territories" (Becher, 1989), or "islands in an archipelago" (Berger, 1972). Clearly geographical in concept, the metaphors convincingly represent a spatial location of the disciplines in an "intellectual territory", and are a helpful visual representation of the cross-disciplinary relationships between them.

A particularly useful contribution to such a representation of the disciplines has been offered by Lindholm-Romantschuk (1998) in her cross-disciplinary study of information flow within and among academic disciplines in the social sciences and humanities, specifically in the genre of the book review. These maps are intended to show the inflow and outflow of information into and from a discipline in order to trace intra- and interdisciplinary communication. The inflow of information into a discipline, as defined by Lindholm-Romanstschuk (1998:86), is “the public utilization of any scholarly text originating in another disciplines (the source discipline) in a forum whose primary audience consists of scholars in the target discipline, for instance, a disciplinary audience”. The outflow of information from a discipline is analogously defined as “the utilization scholarly texts originating in the source discipline in a forum whose primary audience consists of scholars in the target discipline”.

To represent the direction of information exchange and communication patterns within and among book reviews from the two sciences, Lindholm-Romantschuk (1998) proposes two spatial maps, with each discipline represented by a circle and the flow of information among them indicated by an arrow. The width of an arrow indicates the volume of the flow. Social and behavioral sciences are shown in Figure 20, with psychology marked in blue (blue colour mine). The size of the circle indicates how big the corpora are (small, medium or large). In Lindholm-Romanstschuk’s (1998) study, psychological book reviews comprise five hundred reviews, which labels them as a medium-sized discipline. According to Romanstschuk (1998), the central disciplines in social sciences are sociology, economics, political science, and psychology, to a degree, as the author observes. On the left-hand side of the map are behaviorally oriented disciplines to which psychology belongs. On the right-hand side are the politicoeconomic disciplines, with sociology acting as the “bridge” between them. It could also be seen that psychology shows a reciprocal relation with health science and sociology (a two-way arrow), while information science and education are disciplines that contribute to psychology.

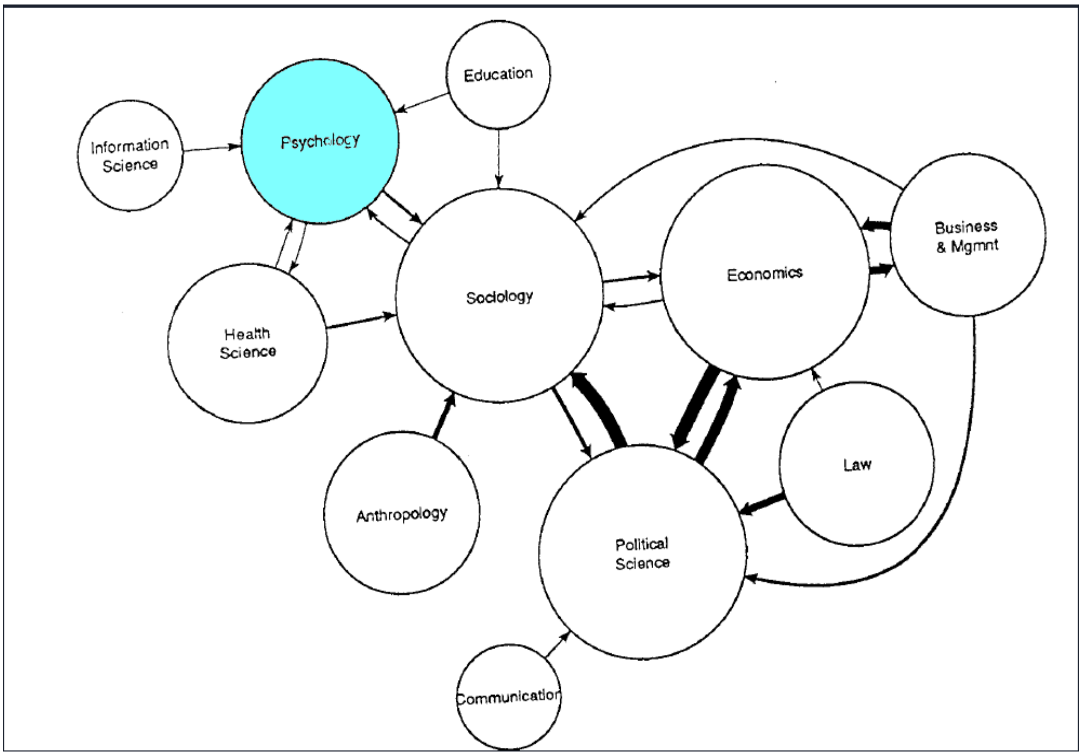


Fig. 20. Psychology among social sciences disciplines (Lindholm-Romantschuk, 1998:100).

The map of the arts and humanities is more complex and dynamic and shows more links among the disciplines included. The central discipline here is history that displays the direction of the flow of information primarily *into* the discipline (from all the discipline with the exception of linguistics and dance), and the outflow of information only to one discipline, namely, religion. A similar observation could be made about literature, which has an inflow of information from all the disciplines, excluding history/philosophy of science, dance and history. There is a reciprocal relationship between religion and philosophy and between literature and American and English literature. Lindholm-Romantschuk (1998) notes that some disciplines are quite “isolated”, including linguistics, in that they have no inflow, only outflow of information. The map of the arts and humanities, with linguistics in yellow, is shown in Figure 21.

As far as communication patterns across the two sciences are concerned, Lindholm-Romanstschuk’s (1998) study has shown that the main flow of information is from the social sciences to the humanities, with sociology, political science and anthropology being the three main disciplines of interest to the humanities. The author observes that the social sciences appear to have little interest in drawing on information outside of their disciplines, while the humanities tend to be more open and receptive to ideas from the social sciences. These trends, however, may have changed over time, and the communication patterns across the humanities and social sciences may be now different.

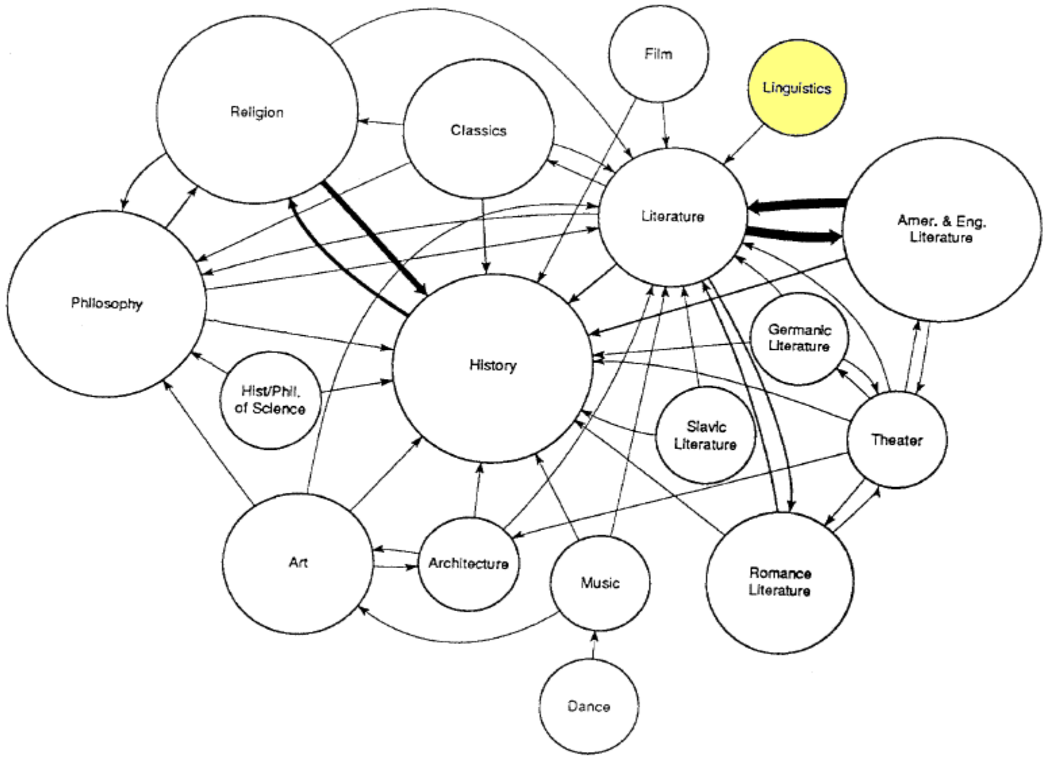


Fig. 21. Linguistics among humanities disciplines (Lindholm-Romantschuk, 1998:101).

6.2.1. Points of connection and areas of divergence

Classifying disciplines into humanities and social sciences is a convention that can vary depending on the context or a particular perspective adopted. This results in a multiplicity of different structures and classification models, as only presented briefly in the previous section.

In the context of the Polish higher education system, there have been noteworthy transformations concerning the classification of linguistics as a humanities discipline and psychology as a social science during the last two decades. It is crucial to acknowledge that the official categorization of scientific fields and disciplines in Poland between 2005 and 2011, as outlined in the resolution of the Central Commission for Academic Degrees and Titles on December 10, 2008 (*Uchwała Centralnej Komisji do Spraw Stopni i Tytułów* z dnia 10 grudnia 2008 r. (Dz. U. of 2008 r. nr 97, poz. 843)), initially positioned linguistics and psychology under the same category of humanities. However, a significant shift occurred with the promulgation of the Minister of Science and Higher Education's regulation on August 8, 2011, on the domains of knowledge, scientific and artistic disciplines (Dz.U. od 2011 r. nr 179, poz.1065). This decree resulted in the reassignment of linguistics and psychology to distinct academic fields, namely humanities and social sciences, respectively.

What follows is that any division of science is not universally agreed upon, even within the same society or state, and different institutions or scholars may use different classifications. Irrespective of the classification or approach, there exists a bridge between linguistics and psychology, however incomplete it might be. This section attempts to sketch some general points of connection between the two disciplines and identify how these two fields diverge and follow their own paths.

Linguistics as a humanities discipline can be characterized as a science with a strong focus on language and culture. Linguistics often emphasizes the study of language as a system of communication, its structure, historical development and its relationships with culture and society. As it is, these areas of investigation align with the traditional concerns of the humanities disciplines (see, e.g., Risager, 2005 on language and culture in applied linguistics or Sharifian, 2017 on the notion of cultural linguistics). Further, linguistics is distinguished by its interpretative and analytical approach to studying language usage. These methods are associated with the humanities disciplines and their emphasis on critical thinking, interpretation, and hermeneutics. Finally, linguistics, probably unlike psychology, resorts to historical and comparative analysis in that it frequently examines the historical development and the evolution of languages, as well as performs comparative studies of different languages and language families. The historical and comparative approach resonates with the focus of the humanities disciplines on understanding the historical context and cultural evolution.

Psychology as a social science gives a clear focus on human behaviour and cognition. Psychology primarily investigates human behaviour, cognition, emotions, and mental processes (e.g., Myers, 2008; Hergenhahn, 2009; Goodwin & Goodwin, 2016). It explores how individuals think, feel and behave in social, cognitive and emotional contexts, which aligns it with the interests of social sciences. Secondly, psychology can be distinguished from other sciences on the basis of its empirical and scientific methods. The discipline strongly emphasises empirical research, employing systematic observation, experimentation, and statistical analysis to investigate human behaviour and mental processes. Consequently, this empirical approach aligns with the scientific methods commonly associated with social sciences (e.g., Schinka, Velicer & Weiner, 2003). Among these, there are at least two. The first could be described as interaction and influence within social contexts, which means that psychology examines how individuals interact with each other, form relationships, and are influenced by social, cultural and environmental factors (e.g., Grzyb & Dolinski, 2022). The focus on social interactions and examining how individuals are shaped by their social contexts is a characteristic of social sciences perspectives. Secondly, many theoreticians point out the aspect that could be described as applied research and intervention (e.g., Brawley, 1993). This applied “dimension” of psychology is clearly visible in the fact that the discipline often seeks to apply research findings to understand and improve human well-being, mental health or education. The emphasis on practical applications is consistent with the focus of social sciences on addressing social issues and positive change for the betterment of society (e.g., Goodwin & Goodwin, 2017).

From what has been said, it may be argued that linguistics and psychology are not remotely distinct and that there is a bridge between them, ready to be crossed in at least five areas. First, both disciplines exhibit interdisciplinary connections with other fields. With varying degrees, linguistics and psychology alike intersect with cognitive science, anthropology, computer science, neuroscience, education, language acquisition or anthropology, for example (e.g., Napoli & Kegl, 1991; Eysenck & Kean, 1995; Bolshakov & Gelbukh, 2004). A vital illustration of the interrelatedness of linguistics, psychology and other fields is presented in Figure 22.

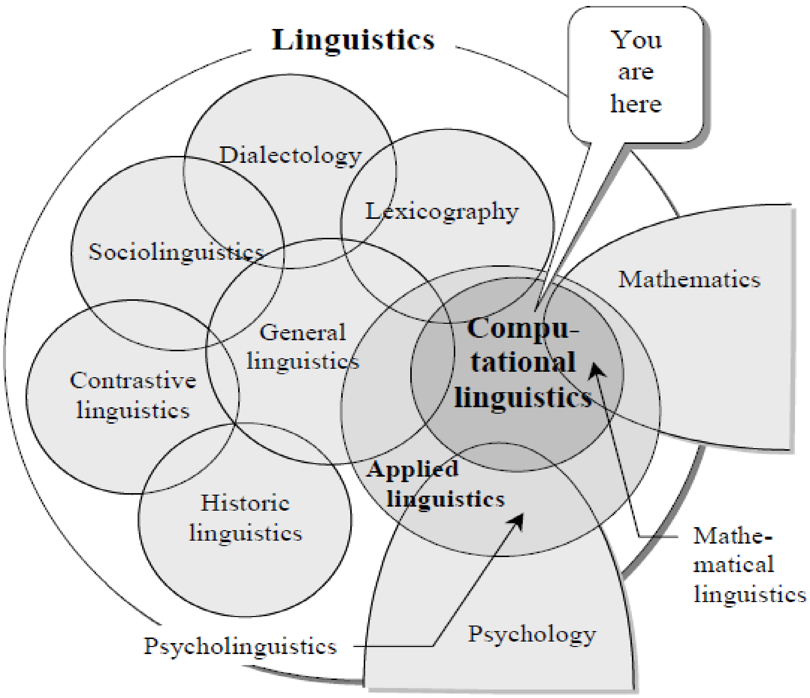


Fig. 22. Structure of linguistic science (Bolshakov & Gelbukh, 2004:18

At this stage, it should be noted that there are many scientific areas of inquiry that simply cannot be studied within one area of knowledge and that, in turn, necessitates undertaking a more holistic and comprehensive approach to investigation. For example, in the context of the disciplines mentioned above, the phenomenon of synesthesia will be an accurate example, a study of which overlaps with the fields of neurology, psycholinguistics, biology or cognitive linguistics, to name but a few of the most pertinent. Seen from this perspective, the weaving of two or more disciplines is natural, thus inevitable, proving that any classification of the fields of knowledge is a broad framework rather than a rigid boundary.

Second, both disciplines display a shared interest in studying language and communication. While linguistics focuses on the structure and language use, psychology examines how language is processed, acquired and used cognitively in social interactions. Common in the two fields is also a shared number of research methods. Both make use of experimental studies, surveys, observations, corpus analysis, and other empirical methods to gather data and test hypotheses. Another point of connection lies in their reliance on statistical analysis and data interpretation in the research process. Finally, as much as psychology, linguistics is concerned with understanding aspects of human behavior. While linguists are primarily keen on analysing language-related behaviour, psychologists turn their focus on a broader range of mental processes such as cognition, emotion, development, personality, or social interaction. Again, the boundaries of these two areas of interest are to be treated tentatively. As has been shown in Chapter One, the study on values overlaps with at least three areas of knowledge, while evaluation encompasses not only written or spoken structures but also non-verbal language, emotions or cognitive processes, all of which are crucial points of interest for both linguists and psychologies in almost equal measure.

The abundance of similarities between the two disciplines should not obscure the fact that there are differences between them, however loosely defined. Paradoxically, what serves as a mutual area of interest is, at the same time, a point where the two disciplines diverge. A crucial differentiation between linguistics and psychology lies in the focus and scope of research each field exhibits. If linguistics primarily investigates language structure, with its many forms and variations, both spoken and written, psychology sets out to explore a wider range of topics, including cognition, perception, memory, personality, developmental process, psychopathology or social behaviour. On the one hand, as has just been said, these areas may be interpreted as parallel paths because they are, in fact, vigorously examined by both theoreticians and researchers in the two fields (e.g., Cytowic, 1993; Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1996; Burr, 2002; Eagleman, 2011; Głaz, 2012; Airenti, 2015; Bjorklund, 2018; Gabryś-Barker, 2021). However, it is the *extent* to which both disciplines treat those areas as points of departure for further investigations. For linguists, social aspects of behaviour, as has already been discussed in the context of academic discourse, are vital additions to the study of language and significantly contribute to understanding what is said or written in an academic setting. For psychologists, though, it is the social aspects that come to the forefront of a research inquiry, treating other behaviour-related elements, such as language, of secondary importance, at least as far as primary research is concerned. Thus, in looking at the same thing, linguists and psychologists may not necessarily look in the same direction, with each scientist attaching various levels of importance to the aspects that lie on the periphery of interest for the other.

As a point of digression, a relevant example of how scientific theories merge and feed on one another is the spread of the prototype theory. A thorough understanding of the prototype theory starts with a proper understanding of a classical model of categorization, sometimes referred to as the Aristotelian model, most famously explored by Wittgenstein (1953) in the philosophy of language. In psychology, the prototype theory was first proposed by Rosch (1973), for whom every category is characterized by a degree of membership, starting from the central or prototypical members to the least prototypical members. As a word of caution, it should be noted that the prototypical members may show cultural variations. Every object to be considered a member should meet the requirements based on how different or similar they are to their prototype. The prototype theory has spread to cognitive linguistics and gave rise to the formulation of linguistic categories (e.g., Langacker, 1987; Geeraerts, 1989; Taylor, 2004).

The scope of research and the extent to which it is implemented by linguists and psychologists is also reflected in terms of methods and data. Linguistic research often relies on the analysis of language patterns and features through the manual and computerized analysis of corpora, surveys and interviews but is also open to exchanges of methods between linguistics and other fields using experiments or statistical analysis (see, e.g., Schilling 2013; Levon, 2013; Johnson, 2013; Paltridge & Phakiti, 2015; Mehdi Riazi, 2016). In testing hypotheses and refining theories, psychologists use all manner of descriptive, correlational, and experimental methods in case studies, surveys, clinical assessments, naturalistic observations, experimentation, neuroimaging, or behavioral observations (e.g., Myers, 2008; Schinka, Velicer & Weiner, 2013).

It would also be unjustified to ignore the historical aspects of the development of the two disciplines. In order to explain language structure and usage, linguistics encompasses different theoretical frameworks and subscribes to schools of thought such as generative grammar, functional linguistics or cognitive linguistics. Psychology incorporates perspectives offered by behaviorism, cognitive psychology, psychoanalysis, humanistic psychology and social psychology, for example (see, e.g., Airenti, 2019). Yet another point of divergence concerns the applicability of research. Psychology has a stronger emphasis on practical applications and interventions in areas such as clinical psychology, counselling, educational psychology, industrial-organizational psychology or forensic psychology. Linguistics, on the other hand, while also having applied areas such as computational linguistics or language teaching, tends to focus more on theoretical and descriptive aspects of language.

As has been shown, both linguistics and psychology are highly heterogenous fields which reflect the present status of knowledge and which should be treated more as a strength rather than a weakness. It should also be remarked that the similarities and differences outlined above are only broad generalizations and may show greater variation for individual scholars and researchers in pursuance of their research objectives. In the context of the present thesis, this brief and certainly not exhaustive outline of how the two disciplines converge and diverge in their approach to scientific research may suggest that the disciplinary discourses should also exhibit similarities and differences in the academic genres they share, including book reviews.

6.2.2. Previous research on academic book reviews

Evaluation in academic book reviews within linguistics and other fields has been studied by many researchers, both by native speakers of English and non-native speakers, in terms of a number of variables such as gender, authorship, or authorial identity. Analyses have been conducted on smaller and larger corpora within one discipline and across various dissimilar fields, synchronically and diachronically, in the English language and through comparative analyses in different languages. The scope of studies, the disciplines under investigation, and the temporal context are shown in Table 17, which has served as a useful point of reference for the author throughout the analytical part of this dissertation.

As can be seen, most studies have been centred on the English language and carried out predominantly in the field of linguistics. Some have been accompanied by two or more other disciplines, including or excluding linguistics. The field of psychology has not attracted much attention as it appears only in two studies (Nicolaisen, 2002; Junqueira & Cortes, 2014).

It is worth noting that in some cases (e.g., Motta-Roth, 1995; Nicolaisen, 2002; Zuccala & Leeuwen, 2011; Junqueira, 2013; Etaywe, 2018), the main objective of the research has been not so much evaluation as the analysis of the overall rhetorical structure of the book review, but it nevertheless overlapped with the identification of evaluative meanings. Similarly, it should be noted that studies conducted by Diani (2009) and Šandová (2019) have primarily focused on book review articles but are included in the compilation as they both touch upon evaluation in one way or another.

AUTHOR/ YEAR	NUMBER OF BOOK REVIEWS	LANGUAGE OF BOOK REVIEWS	THE TIMESPAN OF TEXTS	DISCIPLINE(S) UNDER ANALYSIS
Motta-Roth (1995)	60	English	1990	Linguistics, Economics, Chemistry
Gea Valor (2000a)	25	English	1994 – 1998	Linguistics
Hyland (2000)	160	English	unspecified	Philosophy, Sociology, Linguistics, Marketing, Engineering, Physics, Biology,
Carvalho (2001)	unspecified	English Portuguese	no data obtained	Literary Theory
Nicolaisen (2002)	60	English	1972 – 2001	Economics, History, Philosophy of science, Social science, Library & Information science, Psychology, Sociology
Salager-Meyer & Alcaraz Ariza (2003)	150	English; French; Spanish	1930 – 1969 1970 – 1999	Medicine
Shaw (2004)	unspecified	English	1913; 1993	Economics
Gea Valor (2000b)	25	English	1994 – 1998	Linguistics
Römer (2005)	222	English	unspecified	Linguistics
Tse & Hyland (2006)	84	English	unspecified	Philosophy, Sociology, Biology
Mackiewicz (2007)	48	English	no data obtained	Business
Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza & Berbesi (2007)	100	French	1890 – 1900 1990 – 2000	Medicine
Suárez & Moreno (2008)	40	English, Spanish	2000 – 2002	Literature
Alcaraz Ariza (2009)	50	English	1990 – 2000	Medicine
Diani (2009)	129	English	1999 – 2000 2000 – 2003	Linguistics, History, Economics
Groom (2009)	4702	English	1999 – 2003 1994 – 2003	History, Literary Criticism
Shaw (2009)	unspecified	English	1913; 1993	Economics
Moreno & Suárez (2009)	130	English, Spanish	2000 – 2002	History, Law
Alcaraz Ariza (2009)	50	English	1990 – 2000	Medicine
Tse & Hyland (2009)	56	English	unspecified	Philosophy, Biology

Römer (2010)	1500	English	1993 – 2005	Linguistics
Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza & Pabón (2010)	60	English	1890 – 1899 1950 – 1960 2005 – 2008	Medicine
Vassileva, I.	10	German	unspecified	Linguistics
Alcaraz Ariza (2011)	30	English	2000 – 2009	Medicine
Itakura & Tsui (2011)	40	English, Japanese	2002 – 2007	Linguistics
D'Angelo (2012)	172	English Italian	2000 – 2011	Linguistics, Economics, Medicine, Law
Itakura (2013)	40	English, Japanese	2002 – 2007	Linguistics
Zuccala & Leeuwen (2011)	unspecified	English	1981 – 2009	History, Literature
Lorés-Sanz (2012)	60	British; Spanish	2000 – 2007	History
Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza & Briceño (2013)	150	English	1890 – 1900 1950 – 1960 2000 – 2010	Medicine
Junqueira (2013)	20	English, Brazilian Portuguese	2001 – 2010	Linguistics
Junqueira & Cortes (2014)	180	English; Brazilian Portuguese	2001 – 2010	Linguistics, History, Psychology
Suárez & Moreno (2015)	120	English Spanish	2000 – 2004	History, Law
Bal-Gezegin (2015)	150	English Turkish	1990 – 2015	Educational Sciences, History, Law, Language, Literature, Medical sciences, Philosophy, Political Sciences, Sociology, Theology
Bal-Gezegin (2016)	150	English Turkish	1990 – 2015	Educational Sciences, History, Law, Language, Literature, Medical sciences, Philosophy, Political Sciences, Sociology, Theology
Etaywe (2018)	30	Arabic	1997; 2002; 2005; 2011; 2012; 2015	Pedagogy, Sociology, Economy, Literature & Culture, Law, Politics, Defense& International Affairs
Šandová (2019)	40	English, Czech	2015 – 2017	Linguistics
Zasowska (2019)	100	English	2012 – 2013	Linguistics

Table 17. Studies on academic book reviews in the last thirty years

Regarding the selection of disciplines, of particular relevance to the present thesis appears to be the study by Junqueira & Cortes (2014), which has been undertaken within the fields of linguistics, history, and psychology. It becomes evident that the choice of linguistics and psychology overlap with the selection of the corpora for this thesis, except for history. In providing the rationale for selecting the three disciplines, Junqueira & Cortes (2014: 94) argue that "we view the soft-hard distinction as a continuum rather than a clear-cut dichotomy", which, as the authors observe, resonates with Hyland's (2000:30) view that a continuum is "a convenient way of examining similarities and differences between fields without positing rigidly demarcated categories". Drawing on Hyland (2000), the authors consider history as the end of the soft knowledge continuum, applied linguistics as its middle, and psychology moving towards the hard knowledge end.

Of interest is also the number of book reviews under investigation, which range from a modest sample size of ten or twenty reviews to as high as four thousand texts. While most researchers choose to investigate approximately fifty book reviews (e.g., Motta-Roth, 1995 Alcaraz Ariza, 2009; Tse & Hyland, 2009; Itakura & Tsui, 2011; Šandová, 2019), some have used a larger set of texts, equaling or exceeding a hundred source texts (e.g., Bal-Gezegin, 2016; Junqueira & Cortes, 2014; Moreno & Suárez, 2009). Interestingly, Römer (2005, 2010) has analyzed more than two hundred texts and a thousand and five hundred, respectively, while Groom (2004) has reached an impressive number of more than four thousand and seven hundred book reviews. At the other end of the scale, there are studies that focused on relatively small corpora comprising thirty or fewer source texts (e.g., Gea Valor, 2005; Vassileva, 2010; Alcaraz Ariza, 2011; Junqueira, 2013). Each author provides their own explanation for the selection of the corpus; for some, a smaller text collection is more manageable for manual genre analyses (see, e.g., Junqueira, 2013); for others, larger corpora are better suited for more robust computerized investigations (e.g., Römer, 2010).

A vital point of information is the time span of the texts used in these analyses. As shown in Table 17, the time range of the book reviews has been considerably varied. Some works have concentrated on a longer period of time, yet the word "longer" may be relative and, thus, not adequately precise for the purpose of the research review. Table 17 shows that most analyses comprise texts from an up to five-year period (e.g., Gea Valor, 2000a, 2000b; Suárez & Moreno, 2008; Groom, 2009; Šandová, 2019) or an up to ten-year period (e.g., Alcaraz Ariza, 2011; Lorés-Sanz, 2012; Junqueira & Cortes, 2014). There are some studies whose analysis of book reviews concentrate on a more than ten years (e.g., Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza & Pabón, 2010; Salager-Meyer, Alcaraz Ariza & Briceño, 2013) or those that analyze texts from a particular year (e.g. Motta-Roth, 1990; Shaw, 2004, 2009) or two years (e.g., Zasowska, 2019). Zuccala & Leeuwen's or Bal-Gezegin's (2015, 2016) analyses span a twenty-eight and twenty-five-year period, which may be interpreted dually. On the one hand, a diachronic study may reveal interesting language features and conventions that could be overlooked when analyzed over a shorter period of time. On the other hand, if it is assumed that the evolution of generic conventions is not a rapid process, more than two decades could be too long to provide a reliable and credible synchronic description of the genre under analysis.

It is also evident that a significant number of studies have been conducted cross-culturally, including comparative analyses between the English language and a language other than English, such as Spanish, Portuguese, Brazilian Portuguese, Czech, or Italian (e.g., Suárez & Moreno, 2008; Giannoni, 2006; Junqueira, 2013; Šandová, 2019). In the context of cross-cultural and/or cross-disciplinary studies, it is also worth noting the importance of "comparing corpora that are really comparable", as observed by Moreno (2008), or *tertia comparationis*, as Connor & Moreno (2005) call it. The appropriate selection of the corpora in a contrastive study consists of six phases (Moreno, 2008) and, secures the credibility of the information and provides reliable and trustworthy research findings.

To sum up, as has been said and shown in the previous chapter as well as in Table 17, book reviews have inspired a significant amount of research that has offered valuable insights into the workings of the genre. One might even be tempted to argue that the book review has been investigated almost from every angle. Yet, this is not entirely the case. The genre still presents a challenge for scholars and an opportunity for researchers, especially in the context of the corpora selected for the investigation. A closer look at the compilation of research shows that book reviews have been analyzed within a single discipline, across three disciplines or more than three fields, for example, six or eight. However, studies focused solely on two disciplines have been relatively limited and do not encompass the fields of linguistics and psychology. To the best of this author's knowledge, evaluation in linguistics and psychology book reviews has not been analyzed on a corpus of over two hundred source texts in a one-to-one analysis.

6.3. Materials

At the time of planning the study, much thought was given to delineating the scope of research and selecting appropriate research materials for analysis. The primary assumption was to gather a diverse and sizeable corpus of book reviews from recognized academic journals within the disciplines of linguistics and psychology, ensuring a representative sample. However, as has already been signalled, the number of academic books and manuscripts has been diminishing, leading to a corresponding reduction in the number of book reviews, as shown in an analysis of publication practices in the social sciences in the 2010s by Savage & Olejniczak (2022). The authors have demonstrated that the book/article ratio changed drastically between 2011 and 2019, as shown in Figure 23.

The reason for his change in publishing practices lies, according to Savage & Olejniczak (2022:13) in:

> The influence of performance-based research assessment systems on faculty publishing and research decisions in also likely related to the increase in journal article production and the de-emphasis on book production.

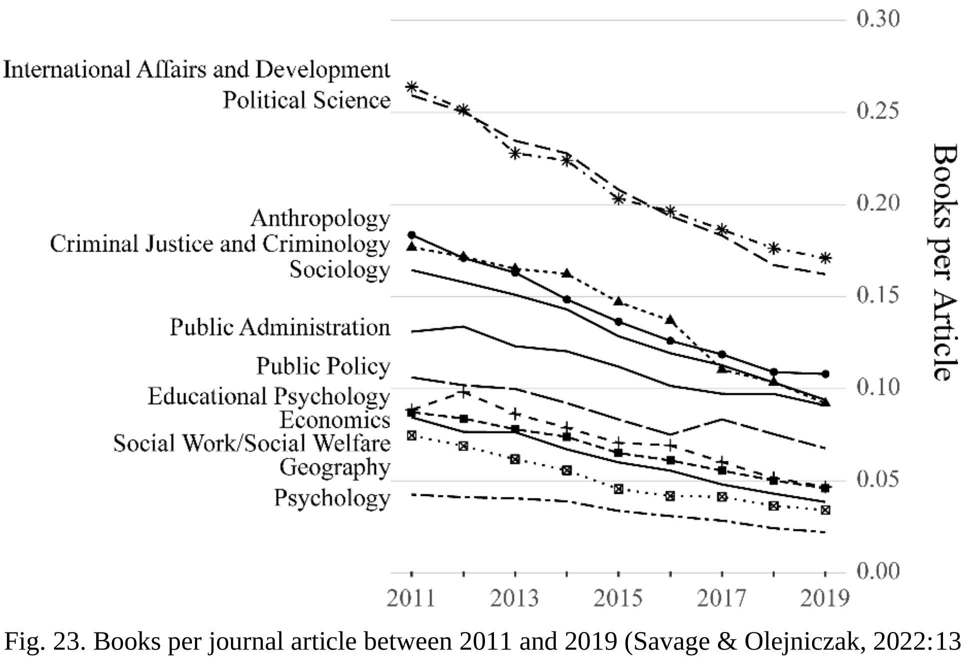


Fig. 23. Books per journal article between 2011 and 2019 (Savage & Olejniczak, 2022:13)

Savage & Olejniczak's (2022) view is consistent with that of Hyland & Jiang (2019), who argue that the market for books in STEM subjects (i.e., science, technology, engineering and medicine) and the soft knowledge fields has been shrinking, as has already been remarked in this thesis. The hard and soft science authors are drifting to journals that have a clear preference for research articles, a more concise, more digestible and, above all, more visible medium for dissemination of knowledge in a rapidly growing technology-dominated world of science. Thus, research articles are thought to be more measurable for career advancement. Pérez-Llantada (2021) observes that books, monographs, and doctoral dissertations, contrary to journal articles, do not undergo innovation or change in digital environments, which makes them a stand-alone genre in the online world.

While it is premature to herald the death of an academic book, declining book publication seem to have a detrimental effect on the existence of 'minor' academic genres such as the book review. Tomaselli (2022:1) note that:

> book reviewing is becoming a lost art. Globally, many academic journals have terminated their book review sections due to the difficulty of extracting reviews, from always tardy reviewers, a lack of volunteers, or for space considerations.

Therefore, because of the paucity of books in recent years, the present study could not have focused on book reviews as systematically as it was originally planned. The initial idea of the present author was to analyze book reviews in journals with high-impact factors that determined the influence and prestige of the journal. Following the scientometric indices, the selection of journal should have included the top ones in each discipline. Table 18 presents a complication of ten linguistics journals ranked by their respective impact factor (provided by Journal Citation Report).

JOURNAL	THE STATUS OF BOOK REVIEWS
Communication Research	no book reviews
Journal of Communication	book reviews online only
Linguistic Inquiry	no book reviews
Artificial Intelligence Review	no book reviews
Modern Language Journal	no book reviews
Journal of Second Language Writing	no book reviews
Language Learning	no book reviews
Natural Language and Linguistic Theory	no book reviews
Journal of Memory and Language	no book reviews
Studies in Second Language Acquisition	no book reviews

Table 18. The list of top ten linguistics journals with the highest impact factor in 2021 (retrieved from https://www.scimagojr.com/journalrank/

Concerning psychology journals, presented below in Table 19 is a complication of the top ten journals ranked by their highest impact factor within the respective field category.

JOURNAL	THE STATUS OF BOOK REVIEWS
Annual review of clinical psychology	no book reviews
Psychological Bulletin	no book reviews
Advances in Methods and Practices in Psychological Science	no book reviews
Psychotherapy and Psychosomatics	no book reviews
Annual Review of Psychology	no book reviews
Psychological Review	no book reviews
Psychological medicine	no book reviews
Clinical psychological science	no book reviews
Depression and Anxiety	no book reviews
Journal of Child Psychology and Psychiatry and Allied Disciplines	no book reviews

Table 19. The list of top ten psychology journals with the highest impact factor in 2021 (https://libguides.anu.edu.au/psychology/journals/high-impact/

As can be seen, these journals, with the exception of one, do not accept book reviews. Consequently, the design of this study research was refined to accommodate these realities while striving to maintain scholarly rigour and validity in the selection. The ultimate selection of book reviews for analysis hinged upon two critical factors: the sustained presence of book reviews within the publications of a given journal and the accessibility of electronic versions of these journals. The empirical study in this Ph.D. thesis has been carried out on two corpora of academic book reviews sourced from journals in the disciplines of linguistics and psychology and encompassing a decade-long span from 2008 to 2018. In each corpus, there are one hundred twenty journals. The titles of the linguistics journals as well as the number of the journals in each year are presented in Table 20 and Table 21.

JOURNAL	ABBREVIATION USED IN THE STUDY
Discourse and Communication	DAC
English for Specific Purposes	ESP
Journal of English Linguistics	JEL
Journal of English for Academic Purposes	JOAP
Lingua	LNG
Language Teaching Research	LTR
Journal of Sociolinguistics	JOS
Journal of Linguistics	JOL
World Englishes	WEN

Table 20. The linguistics journals used in the study

LING	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**	**2016**	**2017**	**2018**	**Total**
DAN	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2			18
ESP				2	2	2	2	2	2	2		14

JEL					2	2	2	2	2	2		12
JOAP	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2			18
LNG		2	2	2	2	2	1	1				12
LTR	2	2	2	2	1	1	1	1				12
JOS			2	2	2	2	2	1	1			12
JOL	2	2	2	2	2							10
WEN			2	2	2	2	2	2				12
Total	8	10	14	16	17	15	14	13	9	4		**120**

Table 21. The number of linguistics journals from 2008 – 2018

Similarly, the psychology journals used in the study and the number of the journal in each year are shown in Table 22 and 23, respectively.

JOURNAL	**ABBREVIATION USED IN THE STUDY**
Archives of Clinical Neuropsychology	ACN
Applied Psychological Measurement	APM
Brain, Behaviour, and Immunity	BRAIN
Cognitive and Behavioral Practice	CBP
Evolution and Human Behaviour	EHB
Intelligence	INTEL
Journal of Economic Psychology	JEP
Personality and Individual Differences	PID
Psychosomatics	PSS

Table 22. The psychology journals used in the study

PSYCH	**2008**	**2009**	**2010**	**2011**	**2012**	**2013**	**2014**	**2015**	**2016**	**2017**	**2018**	***Total***
ACN	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2		1	2	19
APM		2	2	2	1	1	1	2				11
Brain	2	2		2	1	2	3	3				15
CBP	1	3	3		1	2						10
EHR	2	2	2	2	2							10
INTEL	3	1	2	2	2	2	1	2	3			18
JEP					2	2	2	2	2	1	1	12
PID		2	2	2	2	1			2	1		12
PSS	1	1	2	3	2	3				1		13
Total	11	15	15	15	15	15	9	11	7	4	3	**120**

Table 23. The number of psychology journals from 2008– 2018

The time range and the issues per year of the linguistics and psychology journals are shown in Figure 24 and Figure 25.

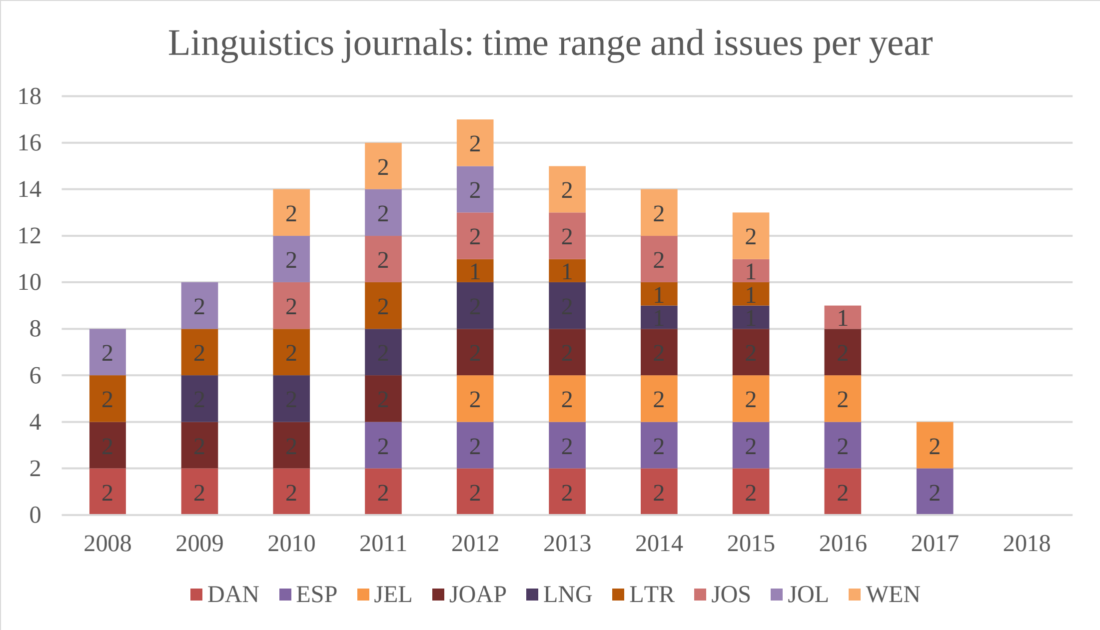


Fig. 24. Linguistics journals: time range and issues per year

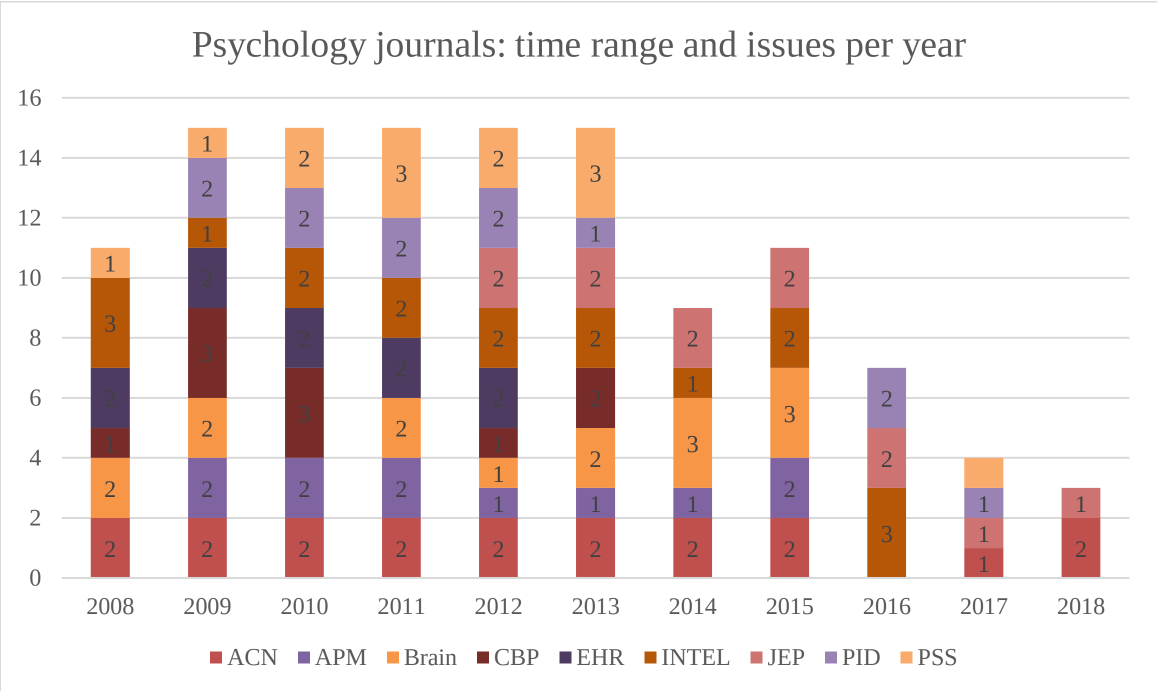


Fig. 25. Psychology journals: time range and issues per year

6.4. Aims of the study and research questions

The primary objective of this research is to analyze the ways in which the academic book review genre is realized in English-language journals. The focus of the analysis revolves around journals that pertain to two discrete yet, as indicated earlier, partially interconnected disciplines, namely linguistics and psychology. By undertaking this investigation, the study seeks to provide insights into the intricate mechanisms through which book reviews are expressed within these scholarly contexts.

In pursuit of the stated objective, two corpora of book reviews have been collected adhering to Sinclair's (2004b) methodological recommendations that encompass various essential criteria. These criteria include the nature of the text (book reviews), the domain and language of the reviews (academic and English, respectively), the temporal context (the time range of the texts), the size of the corpora (120 book reviews in each corpus), and as such they ensure a balanced representation.

These corpora have been compiled with the intention of using them as research materials in qualitative and quantitative analyses conducted in Chapter Seven and Chapter Eight. These analyses focus on exploring specific textual features that have been proposed based on an initial investigation of a reference corpus comprising 120 texts from the renowned linguistics journal *System*.

It has been argued that while previous research has extensively examined book reviews within single disciplines or across multiple fields, studies of book reviews exclusively within linguistics and psychology remain very limited in their number and range. As a matter of fact, the only study that includes psychology is a cross-disciplinary and cross-linguistic study by Junqueira & Cortes (2014) in the fields of psychology, history and linguistics concentrating solely on interpersonal metadiscourse in book reviews written in Brazilian Portuguese and English. However, it is worth noting that the size of the corpus was fairly insignificant as each discipline and language were represented by as many as 30 book reviews only. Thus, it has become evident that further exploration is requisite in this area. It is proposed here that the research should expand beyond the examination of interpersonal discourse markers in book reviews in the two disciplines to encompass other relevant aspects. Additionally, it has become apparent that it is necessary to increase the size of corpora to yield more comprehensive results.

The overall aim of this thesis is to examine and describe evaluative strategies employed in psychology and linguistics book reviews. Due to the affinity between the two disciplines, often classified as "soft sciences", and the apparent disparities in their research focus and scope, it is hypothesized that reviewers in both fields may emphasize certain evaluation objects over others and employ different structural and lexical realizations of evaluative acts when referring to similar evaluation objects in their reviews. This gives rise to several research questions.

The overarching research question is as follows:

(1) What are the differences in the way the evaluation of books is conducted in linguistics book reviews and psychology book reviews?

To answer this overarching question, the following subordinate research questions will be addressed in this thesis:

(2) Are there disciplinary differences in the frequency and distribution of positive (praise) and negative (criticism) acts in book reviews?

(3) Are there disciplinary differences in the structural realizations of evaluative acts?

(4) Do linguistics and psychology book reviews target the same evaluation objects?

By addressing these research questions, this thesis aims to shed light on the variations in evaluative practices between linguistics and psychology book reviews and contribute to a better understanding of the distinct characteristics and patterns in both disciplines.

It has now become evident that the analysis will focus on examining the structure and lexical realizations of evaluative acts, their correlation with positive and negative polarity, and the nature of the evaluative objects. However, it should be remarked that the aforementioned questions serve as an initial starting point for a more thorough exploration that might give rise to a broader range of additional inquiries as it unfolds.

6.5. Methods and tools

In the course of research material collection, corpus compilation, corpus annotation, and data analysis several electronic tools were used including WordSmith Tools 7.0 (Scott, 2016), LancBox 6.0 (Brezina, Weill-Tessier & McEnery, 2021), and finally the basic software to this analysis: UAM (Universidad Autonoma de Madrid) Corpus Tool 6.2j (O'Donnell, 2008), henceforth UAMCT.

As described in the previous section, two corpora of 120 book reviews were compiled on the basis of electronically available reviews published in 10 academic journals in the fields of linguistics and psychology. The reviews were obtained from the full-text scientific database of *Science Direct Elsevier* as PDF files. Due to the requirements set by UAMCT, it was necessary to convert the PDF files into plain text format, which was accomplished either by the ”Save as …” option or by the conversion with the help of WordSmith Tools 7.0.

As the study does not concentrate on Move Analysis (see, e.g., Motta-Roth, 1995), irrelevant data such as the title of the journal, the bibliographical information, the name and the affiliation of the reviewer were removed from the text as shown in Figure 26.

~~Applied Psychological Measurement 35(6) 480–482 © The Author(s) 2011~~

~~Ronald H. Heck and Scott L.Thomas. An Introduction to Multilevel Modeling Techniques (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Routledge, 2009. 268 pp.~~
~~Reviewed by: Shelley A. Blozis, University of California, Davis~~

The need for statistical methods that address hierarchical data structures is predominant in education and the behavioral and social sciences. Added to this is often a necessity to account for the fallible nature of observed variables taken as measures of theoretical constructs. In addition to multilevel data structures and data measured with error, variables may also be measured according to interval or categorical scales. Heck and Thomas (2009) provide an introduction to these topics taking a multilevel structural equation modeling approach. In its second edition with 8 years between editions, this book expands previous material to include multilevel models for categorical data (including dichotomous and ordered categories), as well as mixture models to handle population heterogeneity. The book

Fig. 26. The removal of irrelevant data: reviewer’s name and affiliation

Other irrelevant pieces of information included mathematical data and equations, acknowledgements and lists of references, all shown in Figure 27.

As the reader will note, this book contains both a didactic and a practical format. One might consider it a treatment manual of sorts, although it does not constrain the clinician with a session-by-session approach. Rather, the reader is presented with a set of effective techniques, the use of which should be guided by a thorough assessment and conceptualization of the patient's condition. As a result of this format, the volume is likely to be of great interest to students, clinicians, and researchers alike. If there is a shortcoming, it is that the implementation of exposure and response prevention, which are widely accepted as the key components of effective treatment for OCD (e.g., Abramowitz, 2006a) are given short shrift. Fortunately, additional resources which describe the nuts and bolts of exposure-based treatment are available elsewhere (e.g., Abramowitz, 2006b).

~~References~~
~~Abramowitz, J. S. (2006a). The psychological treatment of obsessive-compulsive disorder. Canadian Journal of Psychiatry, 51, 407-416.~~
~~Abramowitz, J. S. (2006b). Understanding and treating obsessive-compulsive disorder: A cognitive-behavioral approach Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.~~
~~Rachman, S. (1997). A cognitive theory of obsessions. Behaviour Research and Therapy, 35, 793-802.~~

Fig. 27. The removal of irrelevant data: references

The texts were subsequently annotated by means of UAMCT, which has been successfully used in a number of linguistic studies such as Deng & Liu’s (2022) analysis of move-bundle-connection performed in Conclusions sections of research articles, Sun & Crosthwaite’s (2022) exploration into the role of negation in carving a niche in Ph.D. thesis introductions, or Bal-Gezegin’s (2015) Ph.D. dissertation on book reviews in English and Turkish.

The UAMCT is an open-source software for text annotation at multiple layers, such as a single word, clause, sentence, and the whole document. Accordingly, the tool is particularly suitable for annotating the regularly overlapping subtypes of evaluation acts. As seen from Figure 28, there are a few layers of annotation of segments corresponding to sentence, clause, and even clause fragments.

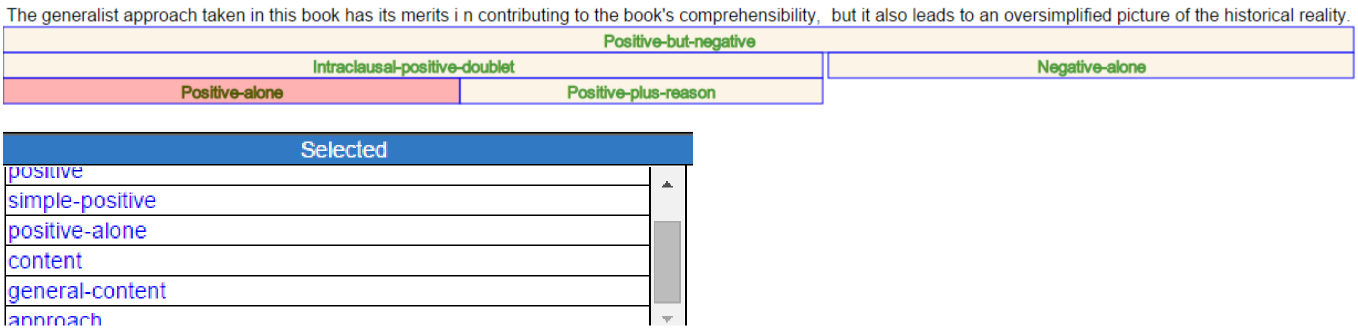
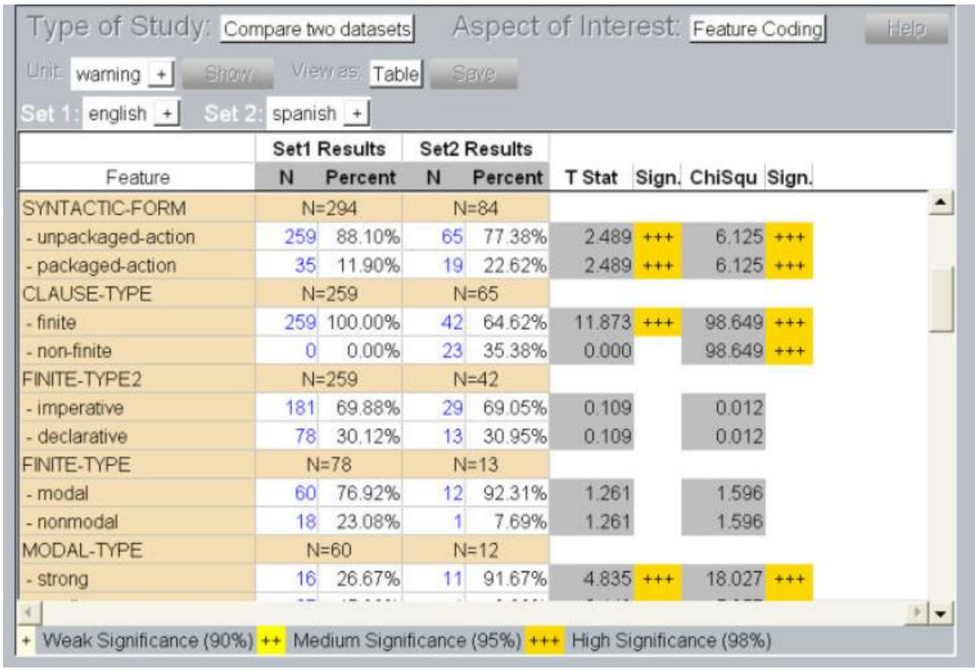


Fig. 28. The annotation segments in the UAMCT software

Another advantage of this software is that the same annotation scheme can be used for comparative analysis of two or more language corpora. Furthermore, the software also offers comparative statistics across sub-corpora and subsets of the corpora, e.g., contrasting evaluation object types in two corpora under analysis or in two languages. This feature is shown in Figure 29.



Feature	Set1 Results N	Set1 Results Percent	Set2 Results N	Set2 Results Percent	T Stat	Sign.	ChiSqu	Sign.
SYNTACTIC-FORM	N=294		N=84					
- unpackaged-action	259	88.10%	65	77.38%	2.489	+++	6.125	+++
- packaged-action	35	11.90%	19	22.62%	2.489	+++	6.125	+++
CLAUSE-TYPE	N=259		N=65					
- finite	259	100.00%	42	64.62%	11.873	+++	98.649	+++
- non-finite	0	0.00%	23	35.38%	0.000		98.649	+++
FINITE-TYPE2	N=259		N=42					
- imperative	181	69.88%	29	69.05%	0.109		0.012	
- declarative	78	30.12%	13	30.95%	0.109		0.012	
FINITE-TYPE	N=78		N=13					
- modal	60	76.92%	12	92.31%	1.261		1.596	
- nonmodal	18	23.08%	1	7.69%	1.261		1.596	
MODAL-TYPE	N=60		N=12					
- strong	16	26.67%	11	91.67%	4.835	+++	18.027	+++

Fig. 29. The UAMCT features

Summing up, UAMCT has emerged as the primary tool for data annotation and analysis, owing to its extensive range of capabilities. Meanwhile, additional software such as LancBox 6.0 has been utilized to explore lexical elements in evaluative statements in the book reviews, with more detailed explanations of their use to follow in the forthcoming chapters. The evaluative comments, ranging from single words to sentences, have undergone an analysis on the basis of the parameters to be discussed in the next section and have been coded accordingly.

It is crucial to emphasize that these tools do not offer interpretations to researchers; rather, their purpose lies in facilitating the organization, sorting, structuring, and analysis of substantial textual data. The tools serve as aids to researchers in efficiently managing and handling the data without imposing any inherent meaning or conclusions. Thus, the inferences derived from the analysis conducted using these criteria rests entirely on the responsibility of the analyst themselves.

6.6. The UAMCT annotation scheme

This thesis proposes a novel and extensive modification of existing evaluation frameworks that is based on a preliminary analysis of *System* reference corpus. To a degree, the proposed structured parameter annotation scheme represents an advancement over "the categories of evaluation" introduced by Hyland (2000:47) and the "evaluative scheme" put forth by Bal-Gezegin (2015:55). First, the scheme includes an unexplored or, at the very least, underexplored, parameter of the "syntax of evaluation" combined with evaluation-type, i.e., the positive or negative polarity. Second, it develops a more nuanced system of evaluation-object parameters, which, as is hoped, might facilitate a better understanding of evaluation in academic writing.

The preliminary analysis of the reference corpus has helped to identify recurrent evaluation parameters, thus enabling the formulation of a structured featured annotation scheme. Figure 30 (see p. 205) provides an overview of the conceptual framework, which consists of two overarching classifications: EVALUATION-TYPE and EVALUATION-OBJECT, each divided into a number of lower-rank categories and parameters. The former pertains to the identification of whether evaluation has a positive or negative polarity and how it is realized on the syntactic level, and the latter refers to the object of evaluation. As can be seen, the objects comprise diverse aspects such as the content, the style or the author, to name but a few. Consequently, the assessment of evaluations are initially identified, followed by the identification of the EVALUATION-OBJECT.

Although not exhaustive at this stage, the scheme will play a crucial role in a comprehensive examination of the book reviews collected in the two corpora and, hopefully, facilitate the systematic assessment and comparison of their linguistic and evaluative elements.

The primary focus of this analysis is on the concept of "polarity" in evaluative acts, which refers to the positive or negative value attributed to aspects or sub-aspects of a book under review. This thesis follows the definition put forward by Moreno & Suárez (2008a, 2008b), who were the first to describe polarity as the expression of "positive or negative remarks concerning specific aspects of a book in relation to an evaluation criterion with varying degrees of generality" (Moreno & Suárez, 2008b:18). Lorés-Sanz (2012) also supports this definition, where the "polarity of the value" is determined by whether the evaluative acts are classified as praise (positive) or criticism (negative).

Additionally, it is crucial to acknowledge Hyland's (2000) foundational work in analyzing book reviews based on praise and criticism, which laid the groundwork for studying this academic genre. Hyland (2000:44) credits Holmes (1988) for characterizing compliments, which, in turn, gives rise to defining praise as "an act that attributes credit to another for positively valued characteristics, attributes, skill, etc." Criticism involves expressing "dissatisfaction or negative comment on the volume". This understanding forms the basis for the positive-negative opposition in the present analysis.

Furthermore, this study, as no other study before, introduces a third category that goes beyond a simple positive-negative opposition, aiming to evaluate a nearly simultaneous presentation of negative and positive evaluative acts, as exemplified in the sentences such as "The book is long, but it is a valuable contribution to the field". Although it might be tempting to classify this category as a realization of concession, it is more intricate. Łyda's (2007) work convincingly demonstrates that concession involves complex interpersonal and discoursal relations going beyond a mere expected vs unexpected opposition. Reviewers skillfully employ this "yet-but-no" or "no-but-yes" approach to evaluation, which will be explored further in this analysis.

Another noteworthy aspect is that this study goes beyond identifying evaluative acts confined to individual sentences. Instead, it seeks rhetorical and logical units, such as exemplification or justification, that support evaluative claims beyond the boundary of a sentence. This view echoes presented in Chapter Four discussion of discourse as language beyond the sentence level. Evaluation as part of discourse transcends the rigid frames of written or spoken sentences. This approach also aligns with Suárez's (2006:153) view, who defines an evaluative act as:

> any structural unit, irrespective of its lexico-grammatical configuration that contains both the (sub)aspect commented upon what is said.

That being said, there still remains a basic question concerning the very identification of an evaluative act. As Shaw (2004) observes, in the literature, there have been two opposing views on "evaluativeness":

> The genre-schemas and Hyland's investigation depend on the idea that some sentences realise explicitly evaluative acts and others are non-evaluative. Against this there is the view that all texts are full of evaluation, (Hunston 2000), in the sense that each sentence comments on and supports or undermines its predecessor.

While agreeing with both of the views, obviously from different theoretical standpoints, Shaw (2004) points out that in the case of the book review genre the crucial element of evaluation is the element of "praise or blame" (Hyland, 2000), which leads him to accept the following position:

> However, in book reviews one particular dimension of evaluation is in focus, the one Hyland calls 'praise or blame' and in common with the writers cited in the first paragraph, I am claiming that there are acts in book reviews which do not evaluate the book on this dimension, but describe it.
>
> (Shaw 2004: 121).

Thus, the identification of the praise-blame aspect of "acts in book reviews" is essential for recognizing them as either positive or negative evaluation.

While there exist a promising group of explicit indicators of evaluations such as these provided by Motta-Roth (1998) and classified as evaluative nouns (s*hortcomings, weakness, criticism, problem, advantage, strength,* etc.), verbs (*fails, lacks, succeed, marvel at*) or attitude adverbials (*unfortunately, surprisingly, admirably*), some of these explicitly evaluative expressions, as Shaw (2004:123) observes, remain underdetermined in terms of their positive-negative polarity. A case in point is the word *remarkable*, which while undoubtedly evaluative, acquires its polarity only after contextual cues have been accounted for.

It becomes evident that evaluations can be categorized along a scale of explicitness, ranging from explicit to implicit. Shaw (2004:124) identifies four stages on this scale:

> 1. expressions with evaluative lexemes whose polarity is invariable like negative *dull, too (short)* or *fails to* and positive *excellent, sufficiently,* or *demonstrates that.*
> 2. expressions which appeal to generally held values, like *old-fashioned,* whose polarity depends on the specific context […]

3. expressions which depend on lexical material that is not unambiguously evaluative (like *neo-classical)* , or is evaluative but ambiguous in its polarity (like *remarkable*) but which are interpretable with more or less guidance from semantic prosodies (Louw 1993), textual cues and from the (constructed) reader's subject-specific knowledge or value-system.

4. Expressions […] which are so deadpan that they rely entirely on the reader's knowledge or value-system.

What follows from this short discussion of the relation between evaluation and polarity is that in most cases, it is indispensable to account for the context of an evaluation act understood broadly and encompassing not only textual context but also the concept of beliefs, norms, and values. Failing to take this extensive context into consideration may lead to incomplete or misleading evaluations, hindering the overall effectiveness and validity of the evaluation identification and, more broadly, research findings.

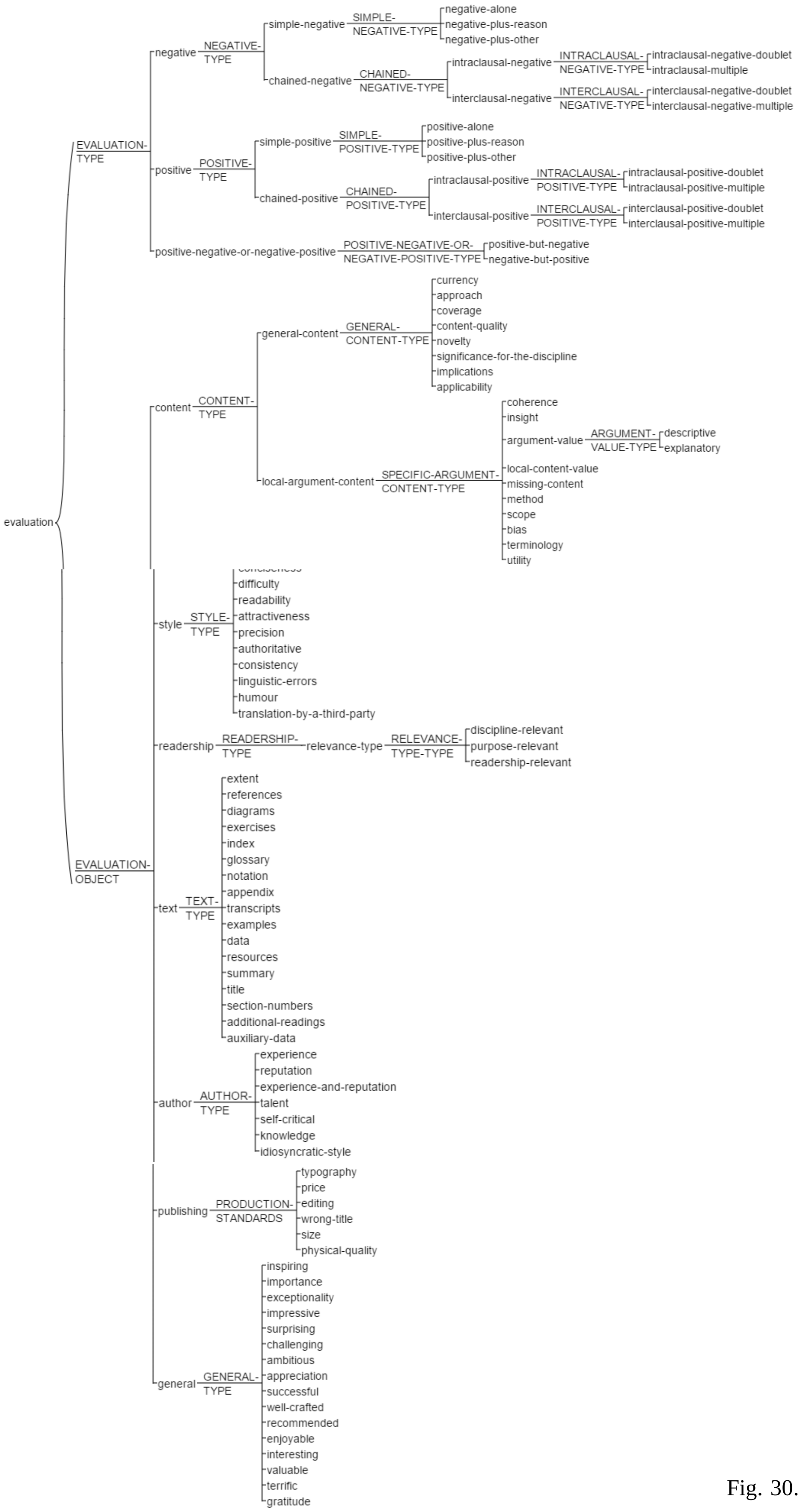


Fig. 30. The UAMCT annotation scheme: evaluation categories and parameters

6.6.1. EVALUATION-TYPE

As shown in Figure 31, the first major category, which forms the highest layer of the evaluation annotation scheme, is the EVALUATION-TYPE.

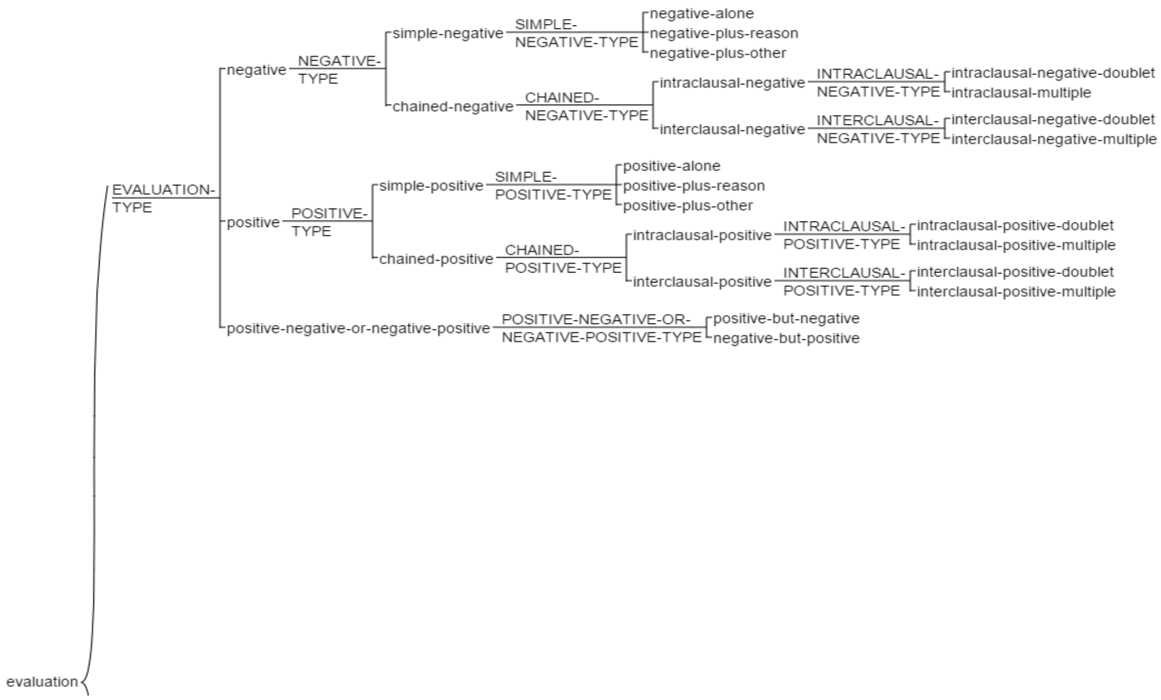


Fig. 31. The categories and parameters of EVALUATION-TYPE

6.6.1.1. POSITIVE-TYPE and NEGATIVE-TYPE

This category comprises the second (lower) layer parameters related to the polarity of evaluative acts in book reviews. Two obvious parameters are POSITIVE-TYPE and NEGATIVE-TYPE, which correspond roughly to the distinction of praise and criticism (Hyland, 2000). These are illustrated with a few examples from the *System* reference corpus.

(1) In the Afterword, John Swales **makes insightful comments** on the influences which shape the academic abstracts discussed throughout the volume. (POSITIVE-TYPE)

(2) **The analysis is clear and convincing**, demonstrating the overwhelming popularity of Anglo-American pop culture among French university students. (POSITIVE-TYPE)

(3) **I am not convinced**, however, by the author's repetitive and **unjustified claim that** there should be more quantitative studies on identity […] (NEGATIVE-TYPE)

(4) **My second criticism** is that **the volume would have benefitted from an index of proper names**, so that readers could more easily follow up references. (NEGATIVE-TYPE)

While acknowledging the fundamental distinction between positive and negative evaluations, a new category within the same layer has been suggested, which does not necessarily go beyond the positive-negative opposition but rather seeks to combine them. In so doing, the category aims to explain situations where both positive and negative evaluative expressions are presented almost simultaneously within a single sentence. This category is referred to as POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE and is illustrated by the following examples:

(5) Readers looking for a quick overview of the distinction between these three **would be disappointed to find that all three are also missing from the index** [NEG], although **there are several entries under 'strategy instruction**' [POS]. (POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE)

(6) I am being a little unfair as, after all, both the bar and my guard about textbooks had been raised somewhat high but, **despite a few impressive features** [POS], **I was largely underwhelmed** [NEG]**. (**POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE)

However, it should be noted that the fact that such evaluations are combined by means of *although*, *despite*, *even though* and *but*, does not allow their classification only as concession since they may convey a wide range of contrastive relations such as antithesis, negative causality, adversativity or contrast (for a detailed discussion see Łyda, 2007). For example, in:

(7) Even though the introduction clearly states that the aim of the book is not to evaluate the CPH (Critical Period Hypothesis, MZ) [?], the age factor is discussed and is returned to in every chapter [?].

it remains unclear whether any of the two facts (1) *the introduction clearly states that the aim of the book is not to evaluate the CPH,* and (2) *the age factor is discussed and is returned to in every chapter* is evaluated positively or negatively, or whether intended negative evaluation is supposed to follow from the juxtaposition of the two incompatible facts. However, what is important about the category POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE is that sentences realizing this pattern are relatively frequent in reviews. As shown in Łyda (2007), their function cannot be reduced to a simple combination of apparently contrasting qualities, but it extends to creating interpersonal meanings. This aspect will be further investigated in the analysis.

6.6.1.2. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE/ SIMPLE-NEGATIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE

The third layer of the annotation scheme is common to NEGATIVE-TYPE and POSITIVE-TYPE. It differentiates between singular or multiple instances of evaluative acts within a syntactic unit like a clause or sentence. This layer includes four parameters: SIMPLE-NEGATIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE for NEGATIVE-TYPE and SIMPLE-POSITIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE for POSITIVE-TYPE. These parameters help describe how evaluations are distributed and how frequently they occur within a single syntactic unit.

In SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, there can be identified only one evaluation per syntactic unit, whereas in CHAINED-POSITIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE the reviewers chooses to combine two or more evaluations of the same polarity.

POSITIVE-TYPE

SIMPLE-POSITIVE

(8) **The interesting example** of using “pattern books” is introduced.

(9) It offers a compilation of research by **a wealth of renowned academics**.

CHAINED-POSITIVE

(10) It is both **comprehensive** and **accessible** and **offers a great deal of interesting data** from a variety of research projects in Europe and beyond.

(11) The book **offers a wide range of perspectives** on the use of subtitles in language learning and teaching and **gives food for thought** for future studies on the same topic.

NEGATIVE-TYPE

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE

(12) The only shortcoming of this book seems to be a lack of new conceptualizations of the subsystems of language **teacher beliefs** […]

(13) Two sections identically entitled ‘learner-directed sessions’ **can be a bit confusing**.

CHAINED-NEGATIVE

(14) It was as **a struggle to stay focused** at times with **the number of syntax errors** as well as **the complex commentary, which tended to distract me** from **the not always easy task of keeping up with the flow of logic** and the details of the research.

6.6.1.3. POSITIVE/NEGATIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE/ NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE/ NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER

For the parameters SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, another lower-rank layer has been proposed that represents three cases: (1) POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE; (2) POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON; and (3) POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS OTHER, respectively.

As the name suggests, POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE refer to the cases if evaluative acts that occur singly in a syntactic unit and are left without a further comment to follow.

POSITIVE-ALONE

(15) It **constitutes a welcomed response** to the need to counteract the dearth of teacher education initiatives for autonomy

NEGATIVE-ALONE

(16) More seriously, the description of Chapter 3 in the Introduction (page xvii) **seems to refer to a different paper** entirely.

(17) There is **much less focus** on qualitative work.

(18) **There is no mention of** the task literature in child L2, or the literature related to learning from peers, or siblings, or the literature on identity development.

POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON

These two parameters refer to evaluative acts whose polarity assigned by the reviewer receives an explanation within the same or an adjacent unit. REASON is a fairly broad category that includes a number of subtypes, such as cause and effect, reason and consequence, motivation and result, and circumstances and consequence (Quirk et al. 1985: 1104 – 05). In essence, the inclusion of REASON aims at clarifying the underlying basis for a specific evaluation.

POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON

(19) This book **makes an ideal course book** because explanations are clear.

(20) The **most prominent one is the structuring of materials of the two corpora into a number of textual genres, speaker groups and communicative functions.** This step is beneficial for the authors to analyze and to interpret the data with the discursive, cognitive and sociolinguistic theories.

NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON

(21) It **might have been better to group the chapters based on criteria other than critical and corpus-based approaches** because the fusion of both is increasingly practiced by some intercultural rhetoricians these days.

(22) **At times I found the style aggravating** (because it seems to imply that language teachers would not understand normal academic discourse).

(23) Perhaps a minor weakness in this part is that limitations of **some procedures are not discussed in detail.** For example, in cases where an eye-tracker is used to explore the processing of auditory stimuli, e.g. Marian, Blumenfeld, & Boukrina, 2008), the visuals on the screen could potentially be a source of interference to the processing of the auditory stimuli.

6.6.1.4. POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER

Finally, the parameter of POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER describes the cases in which the evaluative acts are accompanied by a reviewer’s comment different from an explanation. This comment can take various forms, such as a paraphrase, an example, an additional specification, and so on.

POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER

(24) In fact, **the later use of river water as an analogy is wonderfully illuminating**: just as scientists can indisputably conduct reliable experiments despite a river's ever-changing composition, so too with the web.

(25) In Chapter 3 on Texts, **it might be greatly appreciated by teachers to see analyses of example EAP texts**, each complete with commentary on one key feature.

NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER

(26) **There are also a number of minor errors** which should have been picked up at the proof-reading stage, for example, spelling errors.

(27) Finally, I have already mentioned that **the sequencing of the papers does not provide a clear progression for the reader to follow**, which means that the book is one to dip into rather than read from cover to cover.

6.6.1.5. INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE/NEGATIVE-TYPE and INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE/ NEGATIVE -TYPE

As mentioned earlier, CHAINED-POSITIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE refer to situations where two or more evaluations occur within the confines of a single syntactic unit. This can be within the same clause, or it can involve two or more clauses within the same sentence. Depending on the polarity, the former case is referred to as INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE or INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE and the latter as INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE and INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE. Additionally, the annotation scheme takes into account the number of evaluations within these units, which can be two or more. Consequently, the lowest lawyer of the annotation scheme consists of eight parameters:

INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET,

INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE,

INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET,

INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE,

INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET,

INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE,

INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET,

and

INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE.

Examples of each parameter, derived from the reference corpus wherever available, are illustrated below.

CHAINED-POSITIVE:

INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE:

INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET

(28) Another **stimulating** *(1+)* and **clearly written** *(2+)* contribution is by Theron Muller (Chapter 13).

(29) This book is **written in an accessible style** and **deserves a wide readership.**

(30) All in all, [this book **offers a clear** *(1+)* and **novel account** *(2+)* of human consciousness] which is crucial in understanding some of the key constructs in second language acquisition (e.g. noticing, monitoring, information processing,), etc.

(31) The value of the book also lies in the editors' provisional model for social language learning in institutional settings [which is both **comprehensive** *(1+)* and **yet concise** *(2+)*.]

INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE

(32) I am happy to recommend it both **as an accessible** and **comprehensive introductory guide** for new teachers and aspiring TESOL practitioners and **also as a very informative** and **comprehensive overview** of the association, its history and its own aspirations.

INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE:

INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET

(33) This book makes an ideal course book because **explanations are clear** and **the relevant research literature is discussed in some detail.**

(34) **[...] the contents of the articles are highly engaging** and **this book**, as an example of the synthesis of different fields, **will not be out of place on the bookshelf of scholars from many disciplines.**
It offers an overall picture of the issue and **opens the ground for** further debates and discussions.

INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE

(35) To conclude, it is my firm view that **this book presents a solid research project** which was **executed with great attention to detail** , and **it offers great deal of insight and practical implications not only from the findings and L1-specific descriptors, but also from various aspects of research methodology**.

(36) Firstly, **the book is very practically orientated** and in each chapter, **the author provides a great deal of sound pedagogical advice** following **succinct explanations of pertinent key concepts.**

CHAINED-NEGATIVE:

INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE:

INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET

(37) It is far **too theoretical** and **cerebral**.

(38) On the cautionary side, **many of the studies are purely exploratory** and/or **have too few participants for any firm conclusions to be drawn.**

(39) Two gaps are worthy of mention: **(a) the lack of a comprehensive description of disciplinary variation,** and **(b) the lack of research on the within-discipline linguistic variation relating to different types of articles.**

INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE

(40) The book **lacks clarity**, **style** and **organisation**.

(41) There is, for instance, little sense of timescale, of pilots, of the data collected, and consultations pre and post analysis.

INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE:

INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET

(42) **The coverage is relatively limited**, and the concluding chapters **offer only a minor and insignificant addition** to the volume.

INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE

(43) [it] suffers from a few shortcomings such as **neglecting recent contributions** from computer simulation "formulaic" in this model, **lacking sufficient attention** toward genetics research [and] **ignoring the serious critiques** on the roles of the mirror neurons.

(44) This **would have afforded greater coherence to the book**, **focusing it more clearly on the notion of classroom change**, and **giving the reader more concrete examples of conditions and contextual elements that favour or impede it**.

6.6.1.6. POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE-TYPE

Finally, the lowest layer of POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE contains two parameters marking the order of the positive and negative evaluations, namely POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE.

POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE

POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE

(45) Conversely although **there are links between the chapters**, **the book does not present a comprehensive overview** of the project.

(46) The heavily psycholinguistic and quantitative **approach gives the book a sharp and narrow focus** but perhaps a more balanced approach to methodology or even more focus on methodological issues **would have brought out some need to consider qualitative studies.**

NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE

(47) Listening may be **under-researched**, yet this skill is given **more attention than any of the other three** in every one of the textbooks analysed.

(48) Overall, in spite of questions that might be asked about the **limited geographical and socio- cultural scope of the contributions, the over-detailed research reports in some chapters, and some structuring and presentation problems in the volume**, **the book does successfully highlight the place of cultural understandings in English.**

6.6.2. The parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT: CONTENT-TYPE

In this thesis, the parameter of the CONTENT of a book under review refers to the information, ideas, arguments, or, very rarely, the narrative that an academic book from the fields of linguistics and psychology contains. It encompasses the subject matter, topics, themes, and concepts that are addressed within the pages of a book. Generally, defining the content of a book involves providing a broad overview or summary of the key elements and subject areas covered. Among these, an important step consists in the identification of the main subject, which is almost always announced by the author or the editors of the volume in the opening pages. Practically, this identification involves an assessment of the congruity of the announced subject and its actual textual representation. In the case of multi-chaptered and multi-authored volumes such identification is generally performed on the level of major sections or chapters that make up the structure of the book. In a general perspective, such an assessment may be helpful in the understanding of the book organization and the flow of the content. However, in this thesis these two have been consigned to a class of their own pertaining to style rather than content.

The category of CONTENT includes two subcategories: GENERAL-CONTENT and LOCAL (SPECIFIC)- CONTENT /ARGUMENT. The former refers primarily to content accuracy and use of evidence, research, and sources to support claims (CONTENT-QUALITY), and the range and depth of information (i.e. COVERAGE) in relation to the general subject matter of the book reviewed. It also subsumes the author's research APPROACH, including the methodology employed by the author, up-to-dateness of the information and ideas presented in the book (CURRENCY), and the important aspect of academic research related to novel perspectives and generating new knowledge (NOVELTY). Finally, the category of content includes the parameters of SIGNIFICANCE FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE, measured in terms of how well the book addresses current debates and challenges existing knowledge, IMPLICATIONS reaching beyond the field or the discipline, and APPLICABILITY understood as transferability or adaptation of knowledge to different contexts or situations. The parameters of GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE are shown in Figure 32.

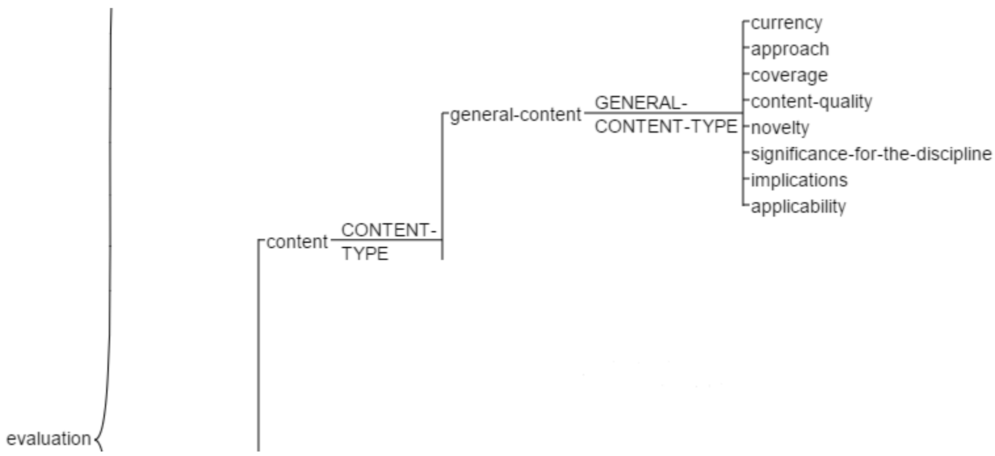


Fig. 32. The parameters of GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE

This system of parameters is partially replicated in the case of the subcategory of LOCAL-(SPECIFIC) CONTENT/ARGUMENT.

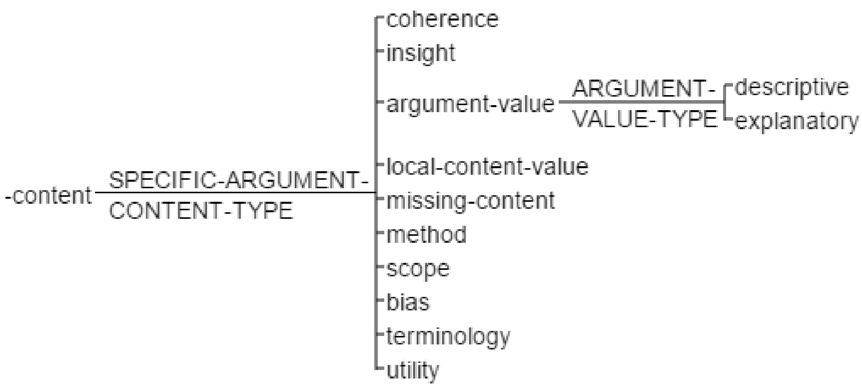


Fig. 33. The parameters of LOCAL (SPECIFIC)-CONTENT/ARGUMENT

Nevertheless, it is important to note that in this context, the term "content" takes on a more localized meaning, referring to either self-contained sections of the book like chapters or to even smaller units such as specific details, case studies, empirical evidence, examples, or specific analyses presented within individual chapters.

In some instances, the local parameters exhibit consistency with GENERAL-CONTENT parameters despite being assigned different labels. This is a result of the constraint imposed by the UAM software, which prohibits the utilization of identical names in two separate locations within the annotation scheme. As a consequence, the parameter denoting APPROACH assumes the designation of METHOD, while the parameter pertaining to COVERAGE is denoted as SCOPE. Similarly, the local content counterpart of APPLICABILITY is referred to as UTILITY. Lastly, the term INSIGHT corresponds to the previously mentioned concept of NOVELTY. Among new parameters, the reader will find COHERENCE, which, if maintained, ensures that each section, paragraph, and sentence should contribute to the overall coherence of the book, ARGUMENT VALUE and its descriptive and explanatory potential, MISSING-CONTENT referring to the absence or omission of significant information, arguments, data, or perspectives, BIAS as a particular perspective or inclination that indicates a lack of objectivity and impartiality in the assessment, and, finally, TERMINOLOGY, i.e., terminology employed to convey concepts assessed in terms of their appropriateness or consistency. All these parameters are described and illustrated in the following section.

While considerable effort has been devoted to establishing clear and well-defined parameters for assessment, it is important to acknowledge the inherent complexity and difficulty in precisely delineating their boundaries. The challenge lies not in the ambiguity or vagueness of the parameters but in the fact that they could be viewed from different perspectives and as such they may intersect or imply one another. A case in point is the often cited parameter of relevance (see, e.g., Giannoni 2010), which is absent from the evaluation scheme proposed here due to its underspecification, visible, for example, in its OED definition “pertinency to an important current issues”. Equally underspecified is the meaning of “relevant” described by OED as “bearing upon, connected with, pertinent to, the matter in hand”. Such a level of underspecification invites a multitude of potential referents to which relevance may refer.

A simple concordance search for *relevance* and *relevant* in sixty-two book reviews in *System* journal, which is not included in the corpora under analysis and serves only as an auxiliary reference corpus, has produced seventy-two occurrences of *releva** collocating with such expressions as *_issues in other chapters*, *_topics*, *_to students*, *_to the purpose of*, *_to the theme of the chapter*, *_for less-commonly taught languages*, *_to my understanding of theories*, *_to those working on quantitative longitudinal studies*, *_literature produced on both sides of the Atlantic*, etc, as in:

(49) …which contains several cross-references to **relevant issues** in other chapters…

(50) …concludes with a comprehensive review of **relevant research studies** on the…

(51) … which are illustrated with **relevant supporting evidence**. Tokowicz then …

(52) … and in-depth review of previous models and **research relevant to** bilingual lexical…

(53) The six chapters in Part IV contain updated and **relevant details** about the field of…

(54) …presents a lot of general truths that **can be relevant mostly to** teachers with no formal…

This short analysis illustrates that within the realm of academic books (reviews), the term "relevance" pertains to the significance, applicability, and importance of the book's content for the book itself, the field of study or a wider academic community. The relevance of an academic book aligns with the disciplinary discourse, its focus on key questions or issues, its timeliness, practical applicability, scholarly impact, audience relevance, and a meaningful contribution to the field. It is precisely due to the inherent "semantic openness" of the concept of "relevance” that its particular facets have been represented in this thesis under other labels such as currency, applicability, readership and significance for the discipline.

In the forthcoming section, a brief outline of the analytical parameters will be provided, complemented by illustrative instances of evaluative statements extracted from *System* journal.

6.6.2.1. The parameters of GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE

COVERAGE has been defined as the range and depth of information as it relates to the general subject matter of the reviewed book. This range also referred to in this thesis as the breadth, will count as positive if it addresses various subtopics and dimensions or presents multiple perspectives (including the integration of relevant knowledge by the discussion of existing literature) so that the reader should gain a comprehensive understanding of the topic as a whole.

(55) … and the nine chapters of this volume bring together **a comprehensive overview of the research, current thinking** on the topic, and suggestions for future research and practice in the field.

(56) Overall, Gray's book is a unique contribution to the literature on academic discourse, **comprehensive in coverage**, rich in detail, and convincing in interpretation.

(57) From my perspective there was only one major gap in **this extensive book** and that was the topic of second language acquisition (SLA)

The other aspect of COVERAGE, i.e., the depth of the analysis, should be understood as going beyond the surface level of discussions and offering insights and explanations that would leave few gaps in the reader's understanding.

(58) there is little basic about the analysis, which for the most part runs **penetratingly deep.**

(59) Written in an accessible style, most chapters successfully synthesise the key literature, provide explicit descriptions of the relevant methodological tools and processes, **offer in-depth analyses** supported b

(60) sufficient corpus data and deliver insightful reflections on both the present limitations and future directions…

The parameter of APPROACH has been briefly defined as the methodology employed by the author. This should be understood as encompassing the author's overall strategy and perspective in approaching the topic and contributing to shaping the content, analysis, and arguments in the book. APPROACH reflects the author's theoretical, disciplinary, or methodological orientation and informs the reader about the perspective adopted by the author and the framework provided in examining the subject matter.

(61) **The heavily psycholinguistic and quantitative approach gives the book a sharp and narrow focus** but perhaps **a more balanced approach to methodology or even more focus on methodological issues would have brought out some need to consider qualitative studies more explicitly**.

(62) **This methodology leads to a more comprehensive understanding** of linguistic variation across registers and disciplines

(63) Written in an accessible style, most chapters successfully synthesise the key literature, **provide explicit descriptions of the relevant methodological tools and processes**, offer in-depth analyses supported by

sufficient corpus data and deliver insightful reflections on both the present limitations and future directions…

CURRENCY, as signalled above, refers to the timeliness of the information and ideas presented in the reviewed book. Yet again, the somewhat unruly term “relevance” comes into view as CURRENCY refers to the relevance and applicability of the content of the book in relation to the current state of knowledge, research, and developments in the field.

(64) All in all, this monograph is a **timely** and useful contribution to L2 acquisition studies.
(65) The volume certainly **showcases the current trends** in language teacher identity research.
(66) While mostly well written, they **did not quite seem to connect to current academic discussions** this comprehensive handbook is **a much-needed addition to the blossoming field** of Bilingual …

One of the paramount academic values, commonly encompassed within the parameter of NOVELTY, can be most effectively defined in terms of Swales’s C.A.R.S. model (Swales, 1990), and more specifically its Move 2. This move emphasizes the generation of new knowledge when a researcher successfully challenges prior investigations, identifies a research gap, put forward unasked or unanswered questions, or extends existing research. Broadly speaking, novelty in academic research pertains to originality, uniqueness, or innovative characteristics exhibited in the findings as well as in the ideas, methodologies or approaches presented in a research study. When assessing novelty in academic research, several aspects related to different phases of research are typically considered. First, they may refer to the originality of the research questions. Second, NOVELTY may consist in innovative methodologies or approaches such as the use of novel techniques, tools or interdisciplinary approaches to gather data or analyze existing information. Moving to the final stages of research, NOVELTY may consist in unprecedented findings or challenging existing theories, offering alternative explanations, or presenting unexpected correlations or relationships. In terms of the impact of the discipline, novelty can signify advancements in theory or conceptual frameworks, albeit rare. Lastly, NOVELTY may manifest in practical applications its impact, although such occurrences are relatively infrequent in fields such as linguistics or psychology.

(67) Taken together, while **some of the findings might not be entirely new to the field of SLA** at large, **there is some novelty in each study** which can at least enhance the readers' knowledge of the Chinese language and CFL studies.
(68) Vanderplank's work remains fresh and **relevant**, and the volume will be of great interest to students and researchers interested in L2 learning,

(69) Chapter 11 sets out to investigate whether it is more effective to teach English vowel sounds together with a coloured association and I did think **that this was a worthy research question**.

(70) This volume, with most chapters (co-)authored by leading national and international corpus linguists, attempts to encapsulate the most salient and **intriguing advancements** of corpus studies in China, and, as such, provides much food for thought.

(71) The above statement **is indeed revolutionary presenting a challenge to the many classroom-centered paradigms** in SLA today.

SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE, measured in terms of how well the book addresses current debated and challenges existing knowledge, signifies that the research or scholarly contribution has been recognized as having a meaningful and substantial impact on the field of academic discipline in which it falls. This evaluation suggests that the book has made valuable contributions that extend beyond its immediate context and hold implications for advancing knowledge, theory, methodology, or practice within the discipline.

(72) **The main contribution of this study lies in the theoretical value attached to corpus linguistics, indicating that it is not a theory-free approach.**

(73) Some pioneering attempts (e.g., Read & Carroll, 2012) have been made to tackle this challenge: (semi-) automatic annotation tools **that may prove useful in future inquiries.**

(74) I am convinced that this volume will be considered **a milestone in LMOOC history**.

IMPLICATIONS is a parameter that refers to implications reaching beyond the field or the discipline. It suggests that the book has broader ramifications and relevance that exceed the specific boundaries of the field of study. It indicates that the findings presented in a book, arguments, or perspectives have the potential to impact or contribute to other disciplines, domains, or areas of knowledge outside of the immediate research context.

(75) I found **worthy because of the broader implications that they hold.**

(76) For researchers, **policy makers, and language educators** who want to understand English education beyond classroom practices, **this is the book.**

Finally, APPLICABILITY is to be understood as transferability or adaptation of knowledge to different contexts or situations. By addressing practical challenges and meeting the needs of practitioners and professionals, an applicable academic book offers recommendations or strategies that readers can implement or utilize in their professional practice or decision-making.

(77) **Although applicable to only some contexts around the world**, the advocacy of linguistic interdependence between heritage languages and English, based on a purposeful alternation of the languages of input and output and resulting in the simultaneous development of literacy skills in the two languages seems very convincing.

(78) Given its rich content, **it will stand as an ideal resource and practical guide for teachers and practitioners,** and an in-depth textbook for students enrolled in such programs as TESOL, TESL, and TEFL.

6.6.2.2. The parameters of LOCAL-ARGUMENT/CONTENT

In the introductory part of this chapter, COHERENCE has been defined as the feature that ensures that each section, paragraph, and sentence is connected logically and conceptually, with clear connections and transitions between ideas. The content of a coherent book remains focused and avoids unrelated digressions. Viewed from a different perspective, it is used in this thesis to refer to the quality of the alignment of the content of a book, structure, and analysis with its stated purpose or objectives. It ensures that every aspect of the book contributes to fulfilling the intended goals.

(79) **It is unclear how the ideas and concepts expressed link together to provide a coherent examination** of the use of video in teacher training.

(80) Thirdly, **some practical contributions linked with methodological and pedagogical practices are provided in some chapters** for L2 learning and teaching,

(81) The book is organized in a straightforward, **coherent**, and easy-to-follow fashion, with each chapter discussing one stage of the publication journey.

(82) This book is highly recommended **as a coherent and approachable primer** for the central issue of literacy in second language acquisition.

Due to the aforementioned restriction on the use of identical labels in two different sublayers of the same annotation scheme in the UAM software, it became necessary to change the name of the parameter NOVELTY to INSIGHT for the local sections of the reviewed book. Generally, these two are meant to have a similar intention, yet it should be remembered that they refer to two conceptually and physically different portions of a text. In other words, NOVELTY is reserved for the book as a whole, while INSIGHT refers to particular claims, sections, or chapters.

This is not to say that these quantitative differences do not entail any qualitative dissimilarities. First, in the context of a chapter in a multi-authored book or a claim in an academic article, the term “insight” typically refers to a novel and valuable understanding, interpretation, or observation that offers a meaningful and original contribution to the subject matter under discussion. Second, an insight can provide a fresh perspective, reveal unobvious connections, or generate new knowledge within the context of the whole volume. Third, in an academic article, which is often a synonym of a chapter in an edited volume, an insight could represent key findings, a theoretical background, or a significant discovery that advances the understanding of the field and prompts further investigation. Generally, the term "insight" signals the presence of original thinking and valuable intellectual content, elevating the overall quality of a scholarly work.

(83) It offers a **great deal of insight** and practical implication, not only from the findings.
(84) **This section is insightful** as the sections discuss studies which were conducted in a variety of different subjects and locations.
(85) **Following the insightful discussion**, a large number of cognitive theories are examined in Chapter 3.
(86) **The discussion provides insights** into common politeness strategies of face maintenance and the various face idioms that express shame at five distinct stages of the face-loss experience.

ARGUMENT-VALUE and its descriptive and explanatory potential constitute another parameter of LOCAL CONTENT/ARGUMENT category. While they can be seen as aspects of insight, they can actually be distinguished by their even more "local" character and structure. As for the latter, Hinton (2021:52) defines them as follows:

> An argument must contain two things: a set of premises and a conclusion which is drawn, or inferred, from them. Without a conclusion, an argument has no purpose, without premises, it is merely a statement, an unsupported standpoint or opinion.

The 'locality' of argument is relative: a claim put forward on the opening pages of a book may, rare as it is, be given a conclusion on its final pages with a number of premises in between. Alternatively, the premises can be followed by a conclusion even within the same sentence.

In this thesis, two types of arguments have been distinguished on the basis of their respective goals and functions in presenting information or ideas. It is assumed here that a DESCRIPTIVE argument aims to provide an objective and comprehensive account of a particular subject. It focuses on describing and presenting facts and characteristics related to the topic under discussion. Its primary purpose is to inform, and offer a clear understanding of the subject matter without necessarily advocating for a particular viewpoint.

(87) The author rightly observes that a learner's positioning can both encourage and impede learning opportunities and, that what is most interesting for practitioners, may have a detrimental effect
(88) The author has a valid point that online measures should be used when investigating learning processes.

By contrast, an EXPLANATORY argument goes beyond a mere description by providing an explanation or interpretation of why and how something occurs or exists. It aims to offer insights into the underlying reasons or mechanism that explain the observed phenomenon. It often involves presenting hypotheses, theories, or models to support the explanation.

(89) Listing syllabus components, McCarthy states that courses should be “fine-tuned to the needs of learners and to specific learning contexts” (p. 100) and, using the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA), he presents a compelling argument as to why low-frequency grammatical structures should be excluded.

(90) but because it refers only to the surface level, it does not go far in explaining why certain types of inflectional morphology are rarely borrowed.

MISSING-CONTENT is a parameter that refers to the absence or omission of significant information, arguments, data, or perspectives. It implies that the book or its section fail to provide a comprehensive examination of the topic they aim to cover. This shortfall can be seen as a negative evaluation because it limits the ability of the book to contribute to the existing body of knowledge and undermines its scholarly credibility. MISSING-CONTENT may take different forms ranging from absence to incompleteness to lack of depth.

(91) Treatment of methodological issues is somewhat uneven. A great deal of space is devoted to methodological issues in language proficiency research but elsewhere**, the methodological shortcomings of research are only briefly mentioned and more detail would have been welcome.**

(92) **It would have been valuable to include** a conclusion chapter, perhaps by a non-member of the Flagstaff school.

Although the term “bias” may not have a negative connotation of unfairness and may not necessarily imply a lack of objectivity but rather a deliberate stance taken by the author, in this thesis BIAS is a parameter denoting an inclination towards a particular perspective or a viewpoint, which may lead to an unbalanced representation or misrepresentation.

(93) There are, perhaps, a few areas where the collection might have been stronger. Firstly, **there is a bias towards the application of written corpora for language studies,** whereas the potential affordances of spoken corpora for linguistic research remain underexplored.

When a book is evaluated in terms of its TERMINOLOGY, it means that the evaluation focuses on the specific language, vocabulary, and terminology used by the author/authors throughout the book. The term may refer to the appropriateness, clarity, consistency, and effectiveness of the terms employed to convey concepts, ideas, and arguments.

(94) … **some key words are defined in different chapters in different ways.** In Chapter 3 'didactic action' is described in a paragraph whereas in Chapter 7 it is simply defined as 'teaching activities.

(95) It is here that the reader might encounter what I found to be the main drawback of the book in that the **terminology tends to be esoteric**.

As stated above, the remaining LOCAL-CONTENT parameters are identical with their more global counterparts. Their different labelling was enforced by the UAM software architecture. For the sake of presenting the whole list of local parameters, it remains to be remembered that APPROACH equals METHOD, the parameter of SCOPE is identical with COVERAGE, and finally, the local content counterpart of APPLICABILITY is UTILITY. These three local parameters are illustrated below:

(96) Thirdly, **the well-designed method in this study**, which plays a key role in empirical research, is a very good example in variation studies.

(97) … as well as with the linguistic analyses in Chapters 5 and 6, **which creates a comprehensive register description.**

(98) Comprehending basic mathematical or statistical principles of these data analyses **is extremely helpful for test developers** especially at entry level.

6.6.3. The parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT: STYLE-TYPE

As signalled in the previous chapter, the annotation scheme for identifying evaluation presented here has been inspired to some extent by Hyland's work (2000:47). However, it is important to note that the categories of evaluation used by Hyland (2000) in the context of book reviews lacked definitions or explanations. This research seeks to address this limitation by defining as closely as possible these parameters. While the parameters of CONTENT have been defined above, the present sections will be focused on defining and exemplifying parameters of STYLE.

In the realm of language studies, there are numerous definitions of 'style'. Style can be viewed from different perspectives, ranging from "the in a person's speech or writing" (Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics 2002: 575) to the explanation of situationally distinctive linguistics features (Crystal, 2008). The concept of *style* has also been addressed briefly in Chapter Four with regard to Biber & Conrad's (2009) analysis of genre, register, and style.

For the purpose of this analysis, a particularly valuable definition of "style" emerges from the Collins Dictionary (collinsdictioanry.com), where style is delineated as "the manner in which something is expressed or performed, considered as separate from its intrinsic content, meaning, etc." This definition clearly draws a line between style, content, and meaning, emphasizing the distinctiveness of the expression or performance.

Figure 34 presents the set of the parameters of STYLE identified in the course of the data collection.

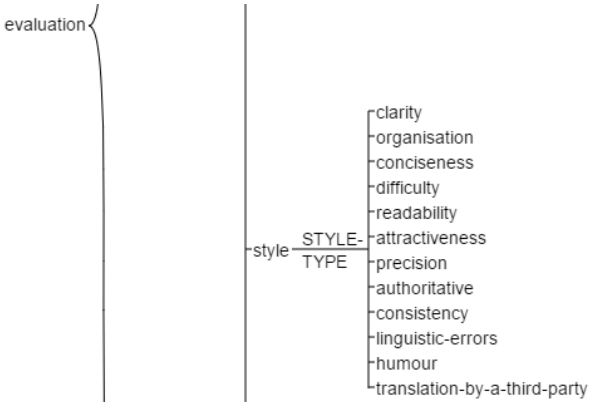


Figure 34. The parameters of STYLE-TYPE

In contrast to the categorization of parameters as GLOBAL and LOCAL, as observed in the annotation scheme of CONTENT, the parameters of STYLE are not differentiated within these two categories. This follows from the inherent dissimilarity in style across different authors making it challenging to expect congruence in individual styles within multi-author publications.

The first of the parameter, namely CLARITY, as a feature of an academic book, refers to the quality of writing and presentation that enables readers to comprehend and understand its content easily. Clarity can be measures in terms of effectiveness: a book that demonstrates clarity effectively conveys its ideas and arguments to the intended audience.

(99) … while individual chapters do provide research which could be of interest to these groups, **its efficacy is adversely affected by its overall lack of clarity.**

(100) **I was deeply impressed by her clarity in explicating complex issues** …

(101) This book makes an ideal course book **because explanations are clear** and the relevant research literature is discussed in some detail…

ORGANIZATION, which is the second parameter of STYLE in the scheme, refers to the presentation of ideas. Ideally, the book or a book chapter should have a logical flow of ideas, with a well-designed arrangement of content in order to contribute to its coherence and readability in an effective manner.

(102) Readability also emerges from **an extremely clear organization at the chapter and overall manuscript levels. Chapters follow purposefully predictable pattern** consisting of a reflection on a given ID in light of recent research, a systematic review of that ID and a summary of recent developments and trends moving study of that ID into the future, if a future exists for it

(103) The editors have **successfully organized these chapters into five thematically-distinct blocks** which, if desired, which, if desired, may be read as separate units.

CONCISENESS denotes a feature of style which consists in effective conveying ideas and information in a succinct manner, avoiding verbosity. A concise style consists in brevity while ensuring that the content remains clear and understandable. Its negative evaluation is usually related to redundancy and wordiness, which may overwhelm readers to the extent that they cannot efficiently grasp the content of the book.

(104) The value of the book also lies in the editors' provisional model for social language learning in institutional settings which is both comprehensive **and yet concise.**

(105) At things stand, a substantial amount of space is devoted to reviews of previous research **while only brief discussions are given in each chapter on the connection of the literature reviewed and the theory.**

DIFFICULTY, as an evaluative parameter introduced by Hyland (2000) within the domain of style of book reviews, has been found problematic due to its conceptual ambiguity and potential overlap with clarity. While both parameters bear interrelated qualities, it is crucial to acknowledge both their distinctiveness and their non-mutually exclusive nature. Occasionally, the juxtaposition of clarity and difficulty can evoke tension, as a clear presentation does not always equate to ease of comprehension, particularly in the context of intricate subject matter. It is proposed here that difficulty refers to how challenging it is for readers to comprehend and assimilate the content presented by the author(s).

(106) There may be some who will object to the book, arguing that Hyland tends to repeat himself, that scholars are familiar with plenty of the content from their daily experiences and do not have to read a book about it, that **the style can be a little too challenging**, or that the chapter conclusions should be more to the point, without introducing new insights or citation.

(107) As the chapter is full of references to adult ESL teachers' certifications in the Canadian context, it may be **a difficult text to grasp** by non-native teachers of English.

READABILITY can be defined as an estimation of how difficult a text is to read by measuring its complexity. While readability has been an object of intensive research and numerous readability tests have been proposed, such as the *Flesch-Kincaid Readability Test*, the *Gunning Fog index*, or the *Automated Readability Index*, it is unlikely that such tests could be performed by book reviewers. In this thesis, READABILITY is a kind of subjective value measured in terms of the use of language appropriate for the target audience. A book positively evaluated in terms of readability means that the book can engage and inform readers.

(108) **Written in an accessible style**, most chapters successfully synthesize the key literature provide explicit

descriptions of the relevant methodological tools and processes, offer in- depth analyses supported by sufficient corpus data.

(109)**The book's readability comes about not just through language that does its best to keep from being overly obscure,** although some basic understanding of linguistics and psychology can be helpful.

Although ATTRACTIVENESS as a parameter of evaluation is not listed by Hyland (2000), the presence of this feature in the reference corpus, where it took on a sense somewhat different from READABILITY, prompted its inclusion in the current system of the parameters of evaluation. In this thesis, ATTRACTIVENESS refers to a book or a book section that exhibits a well-crafted and engaging writing style that captivates the reader, or at least the reviewers themselves. ATTRACTIVENESS entices readers to delve further into the text.

(110)I have gained a lot of insights from this book written **in accessible and entertaining language**…

(111)…**the contents of the articles are highly engaging** and this book, as an example of the synthesis of different fields…

(112)Overall, **the engaging** and easy-to-digest writing style of …

PRECISION is understood here as the precision of the style of the author, who pays close attention to detail and ensures that the information presented is factually accurate. Additionally, the parameter of precision refers to a high level of rigour that the author maintains in the presentation of their research and argumentation.

(113)An introduction to the background in which each model comes into being is provided first, followed by **a detailed description of its characteristics and functions**.

The parameter called AUTHORITATIVE (STYLE) concerns a writing approach in which the author shows confidence and expertise. When positively evaluated, AUTHORITATIVE (STYLE) described the style free from absolute claims or unsupported generalizations, yet presenting the credibility of the author.

(114)In an engaging, highly readable **yet authoritative prose** Sockett describes how changes in technology have allowed for unprecedented out-of-classroom access to a wide-range of pop-culture…

(115)John Truscott's Consciousness and Second Language Learning is an excellent, readable **and authoritative monograph.**

CONSISTENCY concerns a quality of style that translates into the author’s attempt to maintain uniformity in terms of style, concepts and methods to ensure a unified presentation of ideas.

(116)However, **the absence of an integrated or consistent research method** makes it rather difficult to compare chapters and previous literature.

(117)This is the best of the empirical chapters as **it addresses in the most consistent manner the twin concerns** of the book, namely autonomy and assessment.

The two remaining parameters of STYLE, HUMOR and TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY seem to play a marginal role. As a matter of fact, only one instance of HUMOR as an element of STYLE has been found in the reference corpus. This should not be surprising given that academic writing is ordinarily associated with a formal and serious tone. Be as it may, some academic authors may decide to incorporate humor in order to captivate the reader's attention and add a touch of levity to otherwise complex and grave subjects.

(118)… authors' thoughtful and encouraging advice, **illustrative anecdotes** and personal accounts, as well as helpful activities included in each chapter make Paltridge and Starfield's book an appealing resource …

TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY is designed as a parameter evaluating correctness of translations of originally non-English books or book chapters translated into the English language.

6.6.4. The parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT: TEXT-TYPE

The "text" of an academic book refers to the written material or the words on the pages as different from the content, being the intellectual substance presented within the text. TEXT encompasses the entire written material, including sentences, paragraphs, headings, subheadings, citations, footnotes, diagrams and any other components that constitute the book. TEXT is, then, the medium through which the content is communicated to the readers.

Figure 35 presents the parameters of the TEXT-TYPE that have been distinguished in the annotation scheme. It should be remembered that the above list does not exhaust all possibilities but comprises those that have been identified in the corpora.

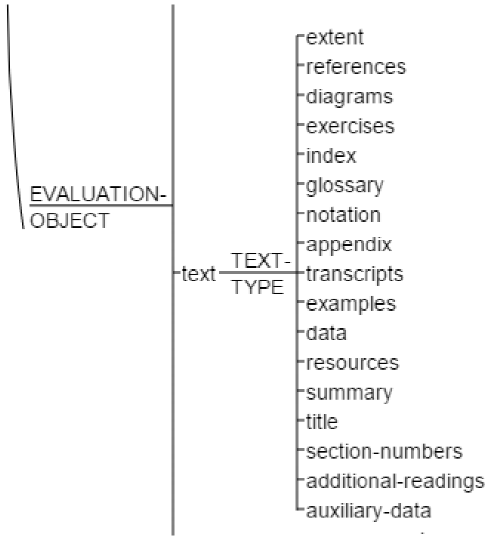


Fig. 35. The parameters of TEXT-TYPE

The parameter of EXTENT refers to the volume of the text of the reviewed book or its section and typically can be measured in terms of the number of words or pages. The extent can vary widely depending on the nature of the academic book, i.e., whether it is a concise monograph or a comprehensive volume of several hundred pages. Whether the extent is considered satisfactory or not is ultimately determined by the reviewer's assessment in which they evaluate whether the text meets the needs of the intended readership.

(119)In general, Martin Wedell and Angi Malderez have attempted to provide **a highly accessible textbook**: written in simple English, **with short chapter sections**, graphic figures provided to illustrate complex concepts

(120)The chapters are approximately **equal length (**about nine pages), and hence can be briefly and enjoyably read as sources of insight and inspiration.

REFERENCES add credibility and validity to the research presented in the book. When the references are limited or poorly selected, i.e., containing outdated or irrelevant sources, they may weaken the evaluation of the book as they fail to reflect the latest research and developments in the field.

(121)The whole chapter and particularly the overview of the phenomena of interest to researchers in ELT classroom interaction is studded with **references** to recent academic publications.

(122)Perhaps a limitation of the glossary is that the **references** offered are not as up-to-date as those readings recommended in the survey of pertinent issues in Chapter 3.

A number of other parameters of TEXT listed below are self-explanatory as they constitute typical elements of an academic text.

DIAGRAMS refer to visual representations of information and data. Here, the term refers to graphs, charts, and tables.

(123)… results are illustrated with a number of **well-presented graphs, figures, tables and diagrams**.

As the book under review can be designed as a textbook, containing exercise, EXERCISES refers to tasks to be performed or solved in order to develop skill and understanding.

(124)… in addition **there are follow-up exercises and thought-provoking questions** in highlighted sections labelled Your Turn. Teacher trainees and trainers will greatly appreciate these links to educational practice.

INDEX refers generally to an alphabetized list of subjects (general index) or of authors.

(125)My second criticism is that **the volume would have benefitted from an index of proper names**…

GLOSSARY is a parameter denoting an alphabetical list of terms peculiar to a field of knowledge with accompanying definitions.

(126)Perhaps **a limitation of the glossary is that the references offered are not as up-to-date** as those readings recommended in the survey of pertinent issues in Chapter 3.

The parameter of NOTATION refers to a system of figures or symbols used to represent the specific values of a discipline, such as phonetic transcription in linguistics.

APPENDIX refers to a collection of supplementary material which is typically placed at the end of the book.

127)**It is also noteworthy that appendices are added**, where relevant, at the end of chapters to demonstrate how approaches and methods are reflected in textbooks by materials developers

TRANSCRIPT is another textual parameter related to conventions of systematic representation of spoken language in written form, typical of text from the area of discourse analysis, interactional linguistics, or sociolinguistics.

(128)Description and extracts from classroom **transcripts give a taste of what happened**, and Schwab is able to conclude that CLIL can indeed work well.

The parameter of EXAMPLES is related to the presence or absence of a specific instance or case that serves to illustrate or demonstrate a particular concept or phenomenon.

(129)In particular, **the authors laudably give specific examples** of course structure from TESOL programmes in a spectrum of American universities, ranging from certificate level to undergraduate and graduate levels.

(130)**Vivid examples are used** to clarify the distinction between classroom and non-classroom discourse.

DATA encompasses diverse forms of information, including statistics, research findings, and other pertinent details that are aimed to support the central argument of the author.

(131) Written in an accessible style, most chapters successfully synthesise the key literature, provide explicit descriptions of the relevant methodological tools and processes, offer in-depth analyses **supported by sufficient corpus data** …

RESOURCES refers to a wide range of valuable materials or references proposed by the author to enhance the reader's understanding of the content.

(132) For readers, **these samples serve as exemplary resources,** adding appeal to this volume.

SUMMARY is another parameter related to the structure of a text that provides the reader with a concise overview of essential information from the book or its chapters.

(133) They have provided **an excellent summary** of the preceding chapters and they tease out the issues explored over the six chapters of the book.

Another textual parameter is the congruity of the text and the title. When evaluated positively, the parameter TITLE represents the situation in which the title of an academic book reflects the main theme or subject matter of the book or its chapters.

(134) That is not to say that the book does not contain a number of valuable insights, **but rather the title led to me to expect a different book from that which I actually read.**

SECTION NUMBERS is an element of text formatting, which can happen to be used too excessively or inconsistently, making it harder for the reader to see the overall structure of the text.

(135) The final "Pause for Reflection" encourages readers to look for answers by checking the preceding pages, with particular sections referred to by number.

ADDITIONAL READINGS offer references to resources considered valuable by the author for readers interested in reading up on the subject yet not crucial for comprehending the main content of the paper.

(136) **Another list of classic texts and further readings are provided** for those interested in exploring the issue further.

(137) The authors have selected **readings that are, in their opinion, 'comprehensive, accessible and/or current'**.

AUXILIARY DATA denotes other types of resources, including web-based resources such as links to corpora, online exercises, or corpus linguistics tools available online.

(138) Notably, the authors have developed **resources to promote effective language learning abroad that are freely available online, including pre-sojourn materials that incorporate the case studies of high-gaining students, as well as the LANGSNAP corpus, containing all the LANGSNAP L2 production data.**

6.6.5. The parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT: AUTHOR-TYPE

Another dimension of evaluation is related to the persona of the AUTHOR of the book or a chapter of the book. This dimension encompasses seven distinct parameters: EXPERIENCE, REPUTATION, a joint category of EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION, TALENT, SELF-CRITICAL STANCE, KNOWLEDGE, and, finally, IDIOSYNCRATIC STYLE. For an evaluative statement to qualify as related to the author, it is necessary that explicit reference to the author(s) be present within the review. The parameters of the AUTHOR-TYPE are presented in Figure 36.

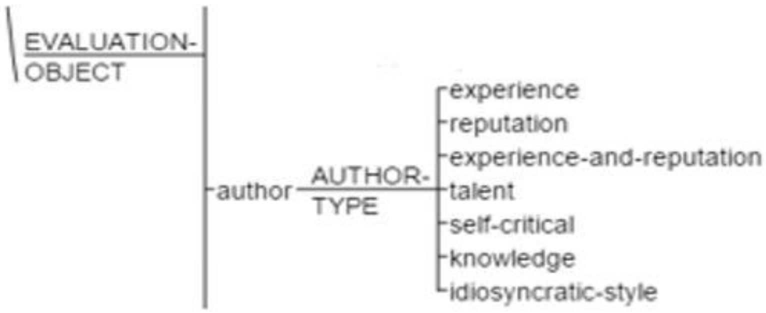


Fig. 36. The parameters of AUTHOR-TYPE

The parameter of EXPERIENCE of the author suggests that the author has a significant level of expertise and skill in his field measured in terms of the length and quality of their scholarly work.

(139) Yet, **considering the editors' wide experience in investigating LLA**, some readers would have perhaps appreciated separate contributions on their research by the editors' themselves.

REPUTATION indicates that the author is well-regarded and respected within the academic community for their scholarly achievements.

(140) It offers a compilation of research by **a wealth of renowned academics**.

Although EXPERIENCE-REPUTATION seems to be an uncommon parameter, in some contexts, separating one of the qualities from the other would be impractical. Such lexemes as *eminent* or *leading* in *leading scholar* generally refer both to experience and reputation within the field of expertise.

(141) Nonetheless, her afterword is thought-provoking indeed and it is certainly to the editors' credit that such **an eminent scholar** has agreed to contribute her evaluative comments to the volume.

(142) This volume, with most chapters (co-)authored by **leading national and international corpus linguists**, attempts to encapsulate the most salient and intriguing advancements of corpus studies in China, and, as such, provides much food for thought.

TALENT as a parameter referring to the author(s) denotes their ability or aptitude in their field of research and/or communicating research.

(143) She projects competence and **has a talent for communicating a message of significant** complexity in few words.

The parameter of SELF-CRITICAL STANCE refers to the reflective approach of the author to their own work. It involves being able to recognize and acknowledge one's own limitations, as is often done in the Limitation Sections of academic works, where authors do not shy away from admitting any potential weakness or gaps in their work. In another sense, SELF-CRITICAL STANCE may denote a kind of restraint on the part of the author in formulating unsubstantiated conclusions.

(144) Valeo reports no advantage of form-focused grammar learning in terms of language gains for the FF group and **is careful not to generalize the findings**.

KNOWLEDGE is defined here as the author's acquaintance and understanding of the existing body of literature and research relevant to the topic under discussion.

(145) Drawing on a **deep knowledge of relevant literature produced on both sides of the Atlantic across several decades**, and leavening his arguments with insights from his own professional experiences, Freeman constructs a text notable for clarity in both its writing and overall structure.

Even if the parameter of IDIOSYNCRATIC STYLE could be inserted in the parameters of STYLE, the fact that it is mentioned with a direct reference to the author seems to justify this decision. IDIOSYNCRATIC STYLE denotes a distinctive way of communication, as is the case of John Swales's diction analyzed by Hyland (2008) in "Small bits of textual material: a discourse analysis of Swales's writing" or, as already mentioned briefly in the previous chapter, Hyland's literature review analyzed by Swales (2004) in his analysis of review article.

6.6.6. The parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT: READERSHIP-TYPE

Another of Hyland's (2000) categories, again left without much description, concerns the role of readers or, more generally, readership as a factor influencing the evaluation of the book by the reviewer. Hyland (2000:47) identifies three types of readership that he describes as those with a "value of relevance for a particular readership, purpose, or discipline". To refine and expand upon Hyland's (2000) tripartite framework of readership, the present analysis proposes the following parameters: DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT, PURPOSE-RELEVANT, and GENERAL READERSHIP-RELEVANT. They are presented in Figure 37.

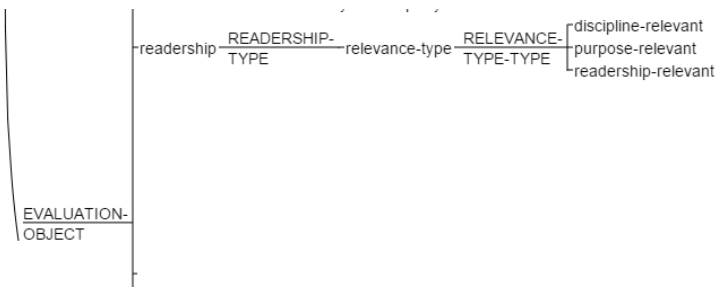


Fig. 37. The parameters of READERSHIP-TYPE

It is important to note that these boundaries are not sharp and the readership groups may overlap. However, in any case, the author needs to maintain a delicate balance in addressing the diverse requirements of distinct readership groups.

The parameter of DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT refers to readers who are related to the relevant academic discipline and, as such, possess relevant knowledge, expertise and familiarity with the subject matter discussed in the book.

(146) To this end, the book is rewarding for anyone who is **involved in the field of teaching, may it be student teachers, new as well as experienced teachers, graduate students** who wish to pursue a career in teacher education, and teacher educators.

The parameter of PURPOSE-RELEVANT readership refers to the assessment of the value of the book for the readers who, in the author's opinion, are designed as the intended audience. They may belong to the same field or the related fields and may wish to find knowledge from the content of the book.

(147) Each chapter is divided into seven sections which renders it particularly **suitable for its intended readers**: **graduate students** and **upper level undergraduate students.**

Lastly, the parameter of GENERAL READERSHIP-RELEVANT encompasses a broad audience, including individuals with a general interest in the subject matter who may not possess specialized knowledge or professional expertise in the field. As a result, it necessitates that the content should be accessible and understandable to them.

(148)The introduction promises that the book will be about a 'different kind of grammar' than the reader may be expecting (p.1), **and indeed, for the general reader, it will probably live up to that promise.**

(149)Although certain themes […]were left untouched, this book is **written in an accessible style** and **deserves a wide readership**.

6.6.7. The parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT: PUBLISHING: PRODUCTION-STANDARDS

The category of PUBLISHING refers to the quality of production standards, and in this thesis, it is measured by reference to six parameters: EDITING, TYPOGRAPHY, WRONG TITLE, SIZE, PHYSICAL QUALITY, and PRICE. The parameters are shown in Figure 38.

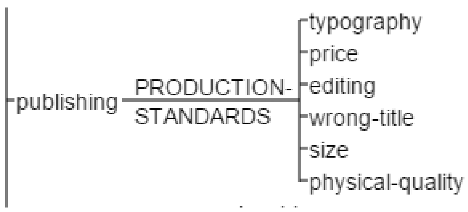


Fig. 38. The parameters of PUBLISHING: PRODUCTION-STANDARDS

EDITING is a parameter used to evaluate a book in terms of the attention given by its author(s) and the editorial team to various aspects of language use and the structure of the book in the editing process.

(150)**The absence of careful editing** is, unfortunately an obstacle to engaged reading. … which may not seem important in themselves, but which nevertheless give an impression **of lack of care in the editing process**.

The parameter of TYPOGRAPHY is related to the evaluation of typographical elements of the reviewed book, such as its layout, type and visual elements in terms of their legibility and readability.

(151)It's a shame that the book's editors allowed **quite a few typographical errors** (or rather passages with missing words) to slip through the editing process.

WRONG TITLE is a parameter of evaluation of the book in terms of its accurate representation of the content. If a book receives criticism for its wrong title, then the title is found to be inaccurate or misleading.

(152)**From the title, this edited collection does not give much indication** of whether the book offers a new perspective on language teacher cognition.

PRICE is also present in Hyland's (2000) list of categories of evaluation. When too high, it can prevent potential readers from purchasing the book.

(153)Last but not least, **we really wish that the book publishers would price the book more affordably**. Had we not requested a review copy, we would definitely have missed such a valuable book to address our personal concerns and inform our professional practice.

Two final parameters proposed here are related to the book as a physical object. These are SIZE and PHYSICAL QUALITY.

6.6.8. The parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT: GENERAL-TYPE

The final subgroup of parameters, shown in Figure 39 below, is related to evaluations whose object has not been defined or has been defined on the level of the book rather than its particular components. Due to their general evaluative nature, these parameters, often taking an adjectival form, are referred to as GENERAL-TYPE. In terms of Martin & White's (2005:56) APPRAISAL Theory, a vast majority of them could be classified as textual realizations of APPRECIATION, which "can be divided into our 'reactions' to things (do they catch our attention; do they please us?), their 'composition' (balance and complexity), and their 'value' (how innovative, authentic, timely, etc.)"

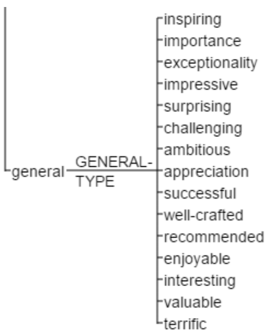


Fig. 39. The parameters of GENERAL-TYPE

The group consists of miscellaneous parameters: INSPIRING, IMPORTANCE, EXCEPTIONALITY, SURPRISING, CHALLENGING, AMBITIOUS, APPRECIATION, SUCCESSFUL, WELL-CRAFTED,

RECOMMENDED, ENJOYABLE, INTERESTING, VALUABLE, TERRIFIC. Since they generally belong to the same categories of the APPRAISAL system, only three will be illustrated with examples from the reference corpus.

(154)Finally, the chapters in this volume not only enlightened me on the theoretical basis of the WM construct but also **gave me some food for thought for my future research endeavors**. INSPIRING

(155)This is an and **highly interesting** and informative study on identity negotiation and maintaining balance between different professional identities. INTERESTING

(156)This book is **highly recommended**. RECOMMENDED

Concluding remarks

Linguistics and psychology are academic disciplines that have experienced separation and unity, as evidenced in numerous taxonomies of knowledge proposed throughout the centuries. Nowadays, as two distinct branches of science, they may not always go hand in hand but still show strong points of connection, which are manifest in the shared interest in studying language and communication, for example. On the other hand, however, both disciplines display a number of sharp differences, specifically in how research objectives are stated and pursued. For this reason, investigating evaluation in areas of knowledge that are close enough to each other for a researcher to notice commonality between them, yet, at the same time, unmistakably different to register strong areas of divergence, is an interesting avenue of research the present author committed herself to undertaking.

Evaluation has proven to be a peculiar phenomenon, especially in the realm of the book review genre, where expressions of praise and criticism are powerful tools of academic communication. The parameters selected for the analysis in this thesis do not only centre around the expected POSITIVE-NEGATIVE polarity but also incorporate a third category, namely, POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE, which has turned out to be a prolific ground for evaluative meanings, as has been observed thanks to the highly sophisticated UAMCT software.

PART TWO

CHAPTER SEVEN: A Parametric Analysis of Linguistics Book Reviews

Introduction

The following chapter is the first of three chapters devoted entirely to presenting and discussing the findings obtained from the quantitative and qualitative analyses of the corpora selected for this thesis. The focus of this chapter is to offer a parametric analysis of the linguistics book reviews. Before presenting the discussion of the material analysed, a layout of the subsequent discussion will be presented in this section.

The analysis adheres to the structure proposed in the annotation scheme; that is, it concentrates on the POSITIVE-TYPE with all its underlying variants, NEGATIVE-TYPE with all subtypes it includes, and finally, POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE-TYPE. Each of the EVALUATION-TYPES will be subjected to analysis in terms of its frequency, distribution, and the specific objects of evaluation to which they correspond. Whenever possible, statistical data pertaining to statistically significant results will be presented. As a point of reference and in order to offer a more comprehensive understanding of the evaluation patterns and the analytical work they required, examples from the corpus will be provided. Also, for the sake of convenience, some of the UAMCT functions will be shown, accompanied by extracts from the software presented in the form of figures.

7. General Statistics

The analysis conducted using WordSmith Tools 7.0 on the LING corpus, which consisted of 120 book reviews containing a total of 222,700 words, revealed interesting findings. These reviews used 15,736 words, resulting in a type/token ratio 7.24. The shortest review, DAN_008, had 890 words, while the longest, LNG_009, was nearly nine times as long, with 7,928 words. In total, there were 8,198 sentences, with the shortest review containing 37 sentences and the longest having as many as 279 sentences. On average, each review consisted of 68 sentences.

7.1. EVALUATION-TYPE: POSITIVE vs. NEGATIVE polarity

The opening section of this chapter provides an overview of how POSITIVE and NEGATIVE polarity evaluations are distributed within the reviews. The results obtained from the UAMCT analysis revealed that the LING corpus contained 2,545 evaluations, representing three polarity types, as shown in Figure 40 and Table 24.

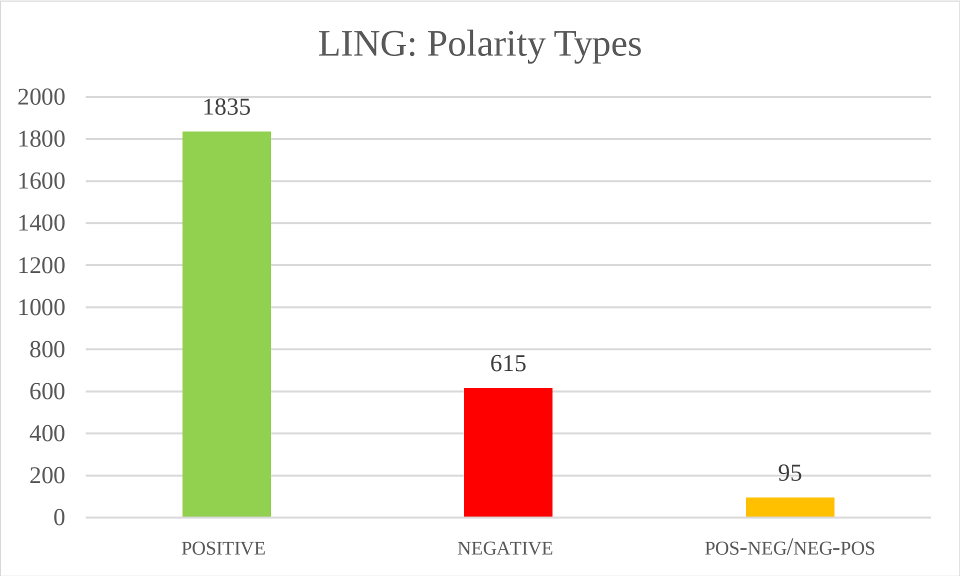


Fig. 40. The division of polarity types in the LING corpus

EVALUATION-TYPE	N	%
POSITIVE	1835	72.1
NEGATIVE	615	24.2
POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE	95	3.7
TOTAL:	**2545**	**100.0%**

Table 24. Polarity-type statistics in the LING corpus

These three types are illustrated below with two excerpts from the LING corpus.

POSITIVE-TYPE

(1) However, new chapters on Enoch Powell, Ronald Reagan, and Barack Obama have been added, making this edition more complete than the first [Linguistics/DAN_013_2014.txt].

(2) Watson interestingly applies this to contemporary analyses such as the textual representations (transcripts) of talk-in-interaction used by conversation analysts [Linguistics/DAN_008_2011.txt].

NEGATIVE-TYPE

(3) However, the study also features a number of theoretical and analytical weaknesses [Linguistics/DAN_002_2008.txt].

(4) I noticed only one missing contact type on the list of contact phenomena: the multilingual urban varieties that are spoken largely by the youth in some major African cities, and surely elsewhere in the urban world, are not mentioned [Linguistics/JEL_001_2012.txt]

POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE TYPE

(5) While the organization of these two analytical chapters is easy enough to follow, the sheer volume of the discussion is somewhat overpowering [Linguistics/DAN_016_2015.txt]
(6) Unfortunately, Pennycook does not address these crucial questions, though we are treated to thought-provoking but also primarily abstract theorizing [Linguistics/JOS_003_2011.txt]

Among these, 1,835 were categorized as POSITIVE polarity segments, while 615 were labelled as NEGATIVE polarity segments. The instances of the POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE pattern were relatively infrequent, totalling 95 occurrences. It should be remembered, though, that this pattern consists of at least one instance of each of the two polarities, which also enter the count for POSITIVE and NEGATIVE categories. When viewed as a combination of such evaluations, each representing a single segment, the cumulative count of segments reaches 323, as shown in Table 25.

Length	**POSITIVE**	**NEGATIVE**	**POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE**
Number of segments	1835	615	323

Table 25. The division of three polarity types in the LING corpus

The positiveness and negativeness of the evaluation segments find confirmation in the analysis of their subjective positiveness, which is based on the MPQA subjectivity lexicon proposed by Wilson, Wiebe & Hoffmann (2005). In UAMCT, subjective positiveness is described as a measure of the positiveness of the words in the text. It operates on a scale where -1 is very negative, 0: is balanced, and +1: is very positive.

Subjectivity	**POSITIVE**	**NEGATIVE**	**POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE**
Subjective Positivity	0.419	0.035	0.221

Table 26. Subjective positivity indices for the three polarities in the LING corpus

As can be seen from Table 26 above, POSITIVE evaluations have the highest index of positiveness, followed by the mixed POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE and NEGATIVE segments.

The data presented in Figure 40 and Table 26 indicate that POSITIVE polarity is the prevailing type of sentiment found in linguistics book reviews. The frequency of POSITIVE polarity occurrences in linguistics book reviews is observed to be approximately three times higher than that of NEGATIVE polarity, with a calculated value of 2.98. These results are largely consistent with the findings of previous researchers (see Hyland, 2000; Bal-Gezegin, 2015), which lends support to their respective studies. However, what may be considered surprising is the noticeable disparity in the proportion of positive to negative evaluations. In Hyland's (2000) study, this ratio stands at 1.14, whereas in Bal-Gezegin's research, it rises to 1.75.

One possible explanation for such a significant variance lies in the divergence in the scope of their investigations. Hyland's (2000) work focuses solely on applied linguistics, while Bal-Gezegin analyzes the broader field of language studies. Hence, dissimilarity may arise from discrepancies in how the boundaries of linguistics are defined in their respective studies.

Another possible reason is that the present study does not consider the distinction between native speakers (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) of English, a factor that D'Angelo (2012) has shown to be influential in the distribution of what she refers to as praise (positive appraisals) and blaming (negative appraisals) in reviews by NS and NNS across four fields, including applied linguistics. D'Angelo (2012:89) reports that NNS's reviews in the four disciplines were not only longer than those by NSs, but they were also found to have more positive appraisals than the reviews by NSs. It was observed that NNS reviewers employed twice the number of positive appraisals (PAs) as negative appraisals (NAs), while for NS reviewers, the ratio stood at only 1.59.

Another finding that comes from the UAMCT analysis of the LING corpora concerns the difference in the length of the evaluation segment, which was found to be statistically significant, as shown in Table 27. For POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE, the average segment length equals 5.1.

Text Complexity	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	22.37	25.64	12070.67	0.0000	+++

Table 27. POSITIVE and NEGATIVE: text complexity in the LING corpus

Another useful measure calculated by UAMCT is the Reference Density Index, which indicates the percentage of words referencing the first-person pronoun (*I, me, mine, we, our, us, ours*). This type of reference to the first-person pronoun can be seen in the following examples:

(7) However, **I think** she has to some extent, confounded contextualization cues with the activities (e.g. teasing) that they are signalling.

(8) And if **I have a regret**, it is that there is no chapter dealing with the uncertain reception of research emanating from the semiperiphery.

Reference Density	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.35%	0.49%	5.77	0.0163	+++

Table 28. The first-person pronoun index for POSITIVE and NEGATIVE polarities and T-stat results in the LING corpus

As can be seen from Table 28, there is a statistically significant difference between POSITIVE and NEGATIVE. For NEGATIVE, the index is higher. This result aligns with Hyland's (2000) observation that reviewers employ a strategy of expressing critical remarks as personal opinions in order to mitigate the impact of criticism. This approach enables them to assume a less authoritative stance, repositioning themselves and their expertise by responding as typical readers rather than "experts". As can be expected, the figure for POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE falls in between, yielding a value of 0.221. If we compare how POSITIVE and NEGATIVE evaluations are enacted in terms of the basic parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT, a clear distribution pattern comes to light, as illustrated in Figure 41.

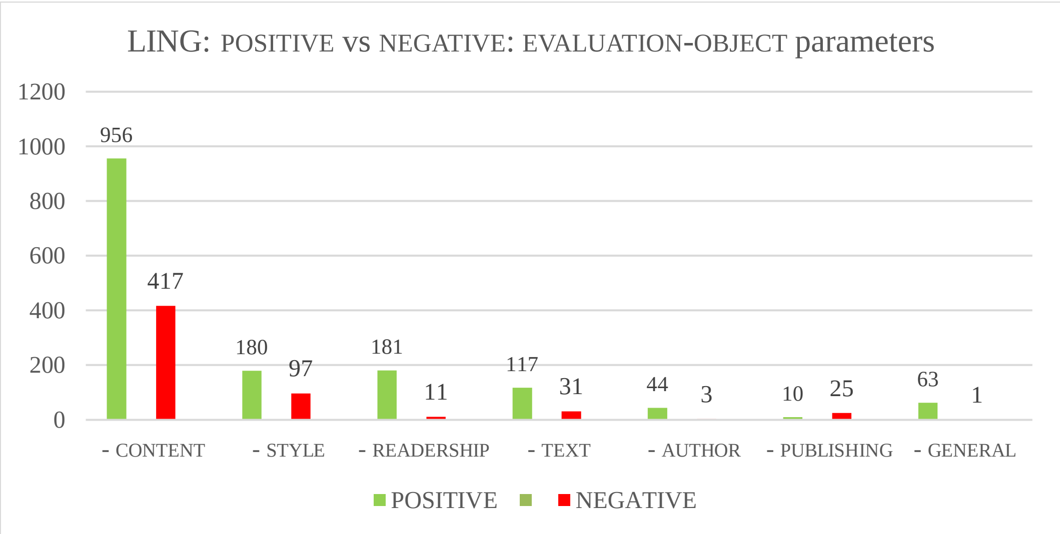


Fig. 41. The distribution of major EVALUATION-OBJECTS in terms of polarity: total number of evaluations in the LING corpus

Table 29 demonstrates that in terms of sheer numbers (N), positive evaluations outnumber negative ones across various aspects, except for PUBLISHING. However, a more intricate pattern emerges when analyzing the proportions (%) within the POSITIVE and NEGATIVE categories.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CONTENT	956	52.0	417	67.8	46.46	0.0000	+++	0.323
STYLE	180	9.8	97	15.8	16.41	0.0000	+++	0.180
READERSHIP	181	9.9	11	1.8	41.52	0.0000	+++	0.370
TEXT	117	6.4	31	5.0	1.43	0.2312		0.057
AUTHOR	44	2.4	3	0.5	8.92	0.0028	+++	0.171
PUBLISHING	10	0.5	25	4.1	40.59	0.0000	+++	0.258
GENERAL	63	3.4	1	0.2	19.34	0.0000	+++	0.292

Table 29. Division of EVALUATION-OBJECT in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Put statistically, the category of CONTENT tends to receive more negative evaluations, accounting for nearly 68% of negative evaluations. CONTENT is also a parameter most often referred to in positive evaluation, but it accounts for only 52% of all positive acts of evaluation. Similarly, criticism is more commonly associated with STYLE (15.8% vs. 9.8%) and PUBLISHING (4.1% vs. 0.5%). By contrast, parameters such as READERSHIP, AUTHOR, and GENERAL tend to be evaluated positively. For all these cases, there has been observed statistical significance. The only parameter with almost equal chances for evoking both praise or criticism is TEXT.

The CONTENT-TYPE parameter comprises two distinct categories, including aspects associated with the general content of a reviewed book, as well as its more local manifestations, including chapters, sections, and even singular arguments. Table 30 shows a tendency where positive evaluations, illustrated in (9) and (10), are more commonly directed towards the overall content as compared to negative evaluations. Conversely, negative evaluations (examples 11 – 12 below) tend to centre around more “minor” sections of the books.

(9) The authors not only provide comprehensive surveys of previous studies, but also present possibilities, challenges and suggestions for future work. [Linguistics/DAN_006_2010.txt]

(10) This is an in-depth, qualitative study of language alternation in a coherent set of informal digital writing. [Linguistics/DAN_002_2008.txt]

(11) Both chapters have very little to say about diglossia and language contact, which reshape the syntax through borrowing and code-mixing. [Linguistics/JOL_003_2010.txt]

(12) Conversely, the linguistic topics are covered in a way that is unusual (and perhaps controversial) in linguistics. [Linguistics/LNG_006_2009.txt]

The observed trend is supported by an analysis of the GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE, shown in Table 30 and Table 31.

CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
GENERAL-CONTENT	601	32.8	67	10.9	111.11	0.0000	+++	0.546
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	355	19.4	350	56.9	316.84	0.0000	+++	0.798
TOTAL:	**956**	**52.1%**	**417**	**67.8%**				

Table 30. CONTENT-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

It can be observed that positive comments most often focus on CONTENT-QUALITY, followed by COVERAGE, APPROACH, NOVELTY and SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE. On the other hand, when negative evaluations occur, the primary criticism tends to target APPROACH, followed by COVERAGE and CONTENT-QUALITY. Other parameters play a minor role.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CURRENCY	38	2.1	6	1.0	3.14	0.0765	+	0.091
APPROACH	94	5.1	21	3.4	3.01	0.0827	+	0.085
COVERAGE	114	6.2	17	2.8	10.84	0.0010	+++	0.170
CONTENT-QUALITY	196	10.7	16	2.6	38.08	0.0000	+++	0.342
NOVELTY	72	3.9	3	0.5	18.34	0.0000	+++	0.259
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	67	3.7	2	0.3	18.63	0.0000	+++	0.271
IMPLICATIONS	17	0.9	2	0.3	2.17	0.1411		0.079
APPLICABILITY	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.01	0.3156		0.081
TOTAL:	**601**	**32.8%**	**67**	**10.9%**				

Table 31. GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Table 31 also shows that there is a statistically significant difference between four parameters, namely, COVERAGE (illustrated in example 15), CONTENT-QUALITY (illustrated in example 16), NOVELTY (illustrated in example 17), and SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE (illustrated in example 18), which are likely to be evaluated positively rathe rather negatively. There has also been observed a weak statistical significance ($p < 0.1$) for the parameters of CURRENCY (illustrated in example 13) and APPROACH (illustrated in example 14). No statistically significant difference between positive and negative evaluation types has been revealed for IMPLICATIONS and APPLICABILITY. The examples are:

(13) The present volume is a timely contribution to research dealing with intensive target-language exposure[Linguistics/LTR_015_2015.txt]

(14) On the one hand this approach clearly has the advantage of opening readers' eyes to the myriad elements from all kinds of different levels that are at stake in a particular example [Linguistics/DAN_001_2008.txt]

(15) It is by far one of the most comprehensive works on discourse I have ever read. [Linguistics/DAN_009_2012.txt]

(16) In this book, Staples successfully achieves her goal of finding out about the linguistic features of IENs' discourse in the context of a nurse-patient interaction. [Linguistics/ESP_012_2016.txt]

(17) Chapter 9 presents a fairly novel approach to sociolinguistics and asks: how is sociolinguistics embedded in linguistic theory? [Linguistics/JEL_005_2014]

(18) The discussion provides a theoretical basis for further qualitative study of the relationship between traditional genres and new Internet technologies. [Linguistics/ESP_007_2014.txt]

(19) […] This section may therefore well serve to stimulate and guide reform at all levels of pre-service EFL teacher education [Linguistics/LTR_013_2014.txt

(20) The volume offers fine exemplars of how CA can be used to serve an interventionist agenda across many institutional contexts[Linguistics/DAN_012_2013.txt]

The parameter of SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE comprises a long list of features. As can be seen from Table 32, the probability that the evaluation unit employed is positive is high only for INSIGHT (illustrated in example 21). Conversely, features such as COHERENCE (illustrated in example 20), ARGUMENT-VALUE (illustrated in example 22), MISSING-CONTENT (illustrated in example 24), SCOPE (illustrated in example 26), and BIAS (illustrated in example 27) demonstrate a tendency for negative evaluation, which has been shown in a chi-square test. Four parameters, namely LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE (illustrated in example 23), METHOD (illustrated in example 25), and UTILITY (illustrated in example 29), have not shown statistical significance.

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
COHERENCE	4	0.2	10	1.6	16.06	0.0001	+++	0.162
INSIGHT	67	3.7	6	1.0	11.42	0.0007	+++	0.187
ARGUMENT-VALUE	69	3.8	95	15.4	100.64	0.0000	+++	0.417
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	187	10.2	74	12.0	1.63	0.2016		0.058
MISSING-CONTENT	0	0.0	137	22.1	414.49	0.0000	+++	0.898
METHOD	10	0.5	5	0.8	0.54	0.4614		0.033

SCOPE	11	0.6	18	2.9	21.31	0.0000	+++	0.189
BIAS	0	0.0	4	0.7	11.95	0.0006	+++	0.161
TERMINOLOGY	2	0.1	2	0.3	1.32	0.2507		0.048
UTILITY	2	0.1	0	0.0	0.67	0.4126		0.066
TOTAL:	**355**	**19.2%**	**350**	**56.9%**				

Table 32. SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

(20) Unfortunately, the understanding of the term finiteness does not seem to be the same in every contribution [Linguistics/JOL_001_2009.txt]

(21) Language and Professional Identity offers an interesting insight into the complexity of the way groups function in institutional interaction and how group identities are talked into being [Linguistics/DAN_001_2008.txt].

(22) She has not explained how she made those identifications, but it would have been useful to do so [Linguistics/DAN_003_2009.txt]

(23) [...] and the author does a good job of dissecting the wide array of contextual elements in message boards that can influence interactional strategies [Linguistics/DAN_016_2015.txt].

(24) Second, a surprising omission in this book is the cross-cultural nature of Internet genre [Linguistics/ESP_004_2012.txt]

(25) Salazar combines the MI score with frequency criteria in an attempt to overcome the shortcomings of each method (Biber, 2009) but the effectiveness of this methodological choice is unclear[Linguistics/ESP_011_2016.tx]

(26) In this chapter, only a single paragraph is dedicated to grammaticalization, i.e. the semantic bleaching and reanalysis of a lexical item as a functional category (37-38) [Linguistics/JOL_003_2010.txt].

(27) More generally, the book suffers from a considerable degree of one- sidedness [Linguistics/JOL_003_2010.txt]

(28) Some unfortunate use of terminology includes the use of the ethnic name 'Tolai' to refer to the language spoken by the Tolai, which they prefer to be called 'Kuanua' (pp. 179passim) and the wholesale adoption of the Eurocentric concept 'adjective' [Linguistics/JEL_005_2014.txt]

(29) There are helpful guidelines for getting teachers to accept the SLOs emerging from the NA Linguistics/ESP_014_2017.txt]

The two categories within ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE offer a clear perspective on the prevailing polarity of evaluations. Whether dealing with DESCRIPTIVE or EXPLANATORY arguments, the prevailing expectation leans towards criticism rather than praise, as shown in Table 33 below.

ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DESCRIPTIVE	28	1.5	23	3.7	11.06	0.0009	+++	0.141
EXPLANATORY	41	2.2	72	11.7	93.88	0.0000	+++	0.398
TOTAL:	**69**	**3.8%**	**95**	**15.4%**				

Table 33. ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

As explained in the previous chapter, STYLE is a broad category comprising twelve parameters. Table 34 below provides a concise overview of their values; not all are found in both POSITIVE and NEGATIVE evaluations. While the negative polarity of evaluations of LINGUISTIC ERRORS (illustrated in example 39) could be expected, it is interesting to note that the parameter of PRECISION (illustrated in example 36) is addressed exclusively in positive terms. ChiSqu statistics show that negative evaluations are also likely to refer to ORGANIZATION (illustrated in example 31) and CONCISENESS (illustrated in example 32). No statistical significance has been found for CLARITY (illustrated in example 30), DIFFICULTY (illustrated in example 33), READABILITY (illustrated in example 34), ATTRACTIVENESS (illustrated in example 35), AUTHORITATIVE-STYLE (illustrated in example 37), CONSISTENCY (illustrated in example 38), HUMOR (illustrated in example 40), and TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY (illustrated in example 41).

STYLE-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CLARITY	57	3.1	26	4.2	1.76	0.1842		0.060
ORGANISATION	50	2.7	32	5.2	8.73	0.0031	+++	0.129
CONCISENESS	6	0.3	12	2.0	16.65	0.0000	+++	0.166
DIFFICULTY	2	0.1	3	0.5	3.24	0.0717	+	0.074
READABILITY	32	1.7	14	2.3	0.71	0.4007		0.038
ATTRACTIVENESS	10	0.5	4	0.7	0.09	0.7647		0.014
PRECISION	14	0.8	0	0.0	4.72	0.0298	++	0.175
AUTHORITATIVE STYLE	5	0.3	1	0.2	0.23	0.6329		0.024
CONSISTENCY	3	0.2	2	0.3	0.59	0.4422		0.033
LINGUISTIC ERRORS	0	0.0	3	0.5	8.96	0.0028	+++	0.140
HUMOUR	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.34	0.5625		0.047
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**180**	**9.8%**	**97**	**15.8%**				

Table 34. STYLE-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

(30) Another strength of this volume is that all articles are written in a clear, accessible and engaging style [Linguistics/DAN_005_2010.txt

(31) The resulting imbalance is visible in the basic organization of the book [Linguistics/JOL_002_2008.txt]

(32) The survey of the common basis of the phonology of the individual Semitic languages (pp. 64--80) is commendable for its brevity [Linguistics/LNG_013_2015.txt]

(33) Only the sections dedicated to phonetics may be difficult for readers with no background in linguistics [Linguistics/WEN_011_2015.txt]

(34) Yet, while the introductory chapters are very accessible, the later chapters constitute heavier reading [Linguistics/JOL_003_2010.txt]

(35) All of the volume's ten chapters, which range in topic from language politics and ideology in Indonesia to the question of indigenous cultural education in Brazil, are engaging [Linguistics/JOS_003_2011.txt]

(36) At all times, Portner's presentation is detailed [Linguistics/LNG_002_2010.txt]

(37) It has an "authoritative" feel to it [Linguistics/WEN_002_2010.txt]

(38) This is where Shohamy and Gorter's skills as editors to utilize the topics and space in this volume to demonstrate the strengths and weakness of LL lead to support the possibility of more stringent LL methodologies [Linguistics/JOS_005_2012.txt]

(39) More consistency in presentation would have been desirable [Linguistics/LNG_009_2013.txt]

(40) Perhaps the main weaknesses of this volume are formal: several chapters display stylistic problems or even syntactic errors, a problem that might have been addressed with more rigorous peer review and editing [Linguistics/LTR_008_2011.txt]

(41) In addition to numerous examples, anecdotes and […][Linguistics/LNG_005_2009.txt]

READERSHIP is another high-level-layer parameter associated mainly with POSITIVE polarity, as shown in Table 35. Positive evaluations related to readership make up nearly 10% of all positive evaluations. By contrast, evaluations from a comparatively minor fraction of negative polarity comments comprised 1.8%.

READERSHIP-TYPE	**POSITIVE**		**NEGATIVE**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
RELEVANCE-TYPE	181	9.9	11	1.8	41.62	0.0000	+++	0.371
TOTAL:	**181**	**9.9%**	**11**	**1.8%**				

Table 35. READERSHIP-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Although the overall trend leans toward positive evaluations of RELEVANCE, evident in the data for DISCIPLINE-RELATED (illustrated in examples 42 and 43) and READERSHIP-RELATED RELEVANCE (illustrated in examples 46 and 47) in Table 36, this tendency shows a somewhat diminished strength in the case of PURPOSE-RELATED RELEVANCE (illustrated in examples 44 and 45).

RELEVANCE-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	38	2.1	0	0.0	12.94	0.0003	+++	0.289
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	30	1.6	5	0.8	2.21	0.1368		0.076
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	113	6.2	6	1.0	26.79	0.0000	+++	0.304
TOTAL:	**181**	**9.9%**	**11**	**1.8%**				

Table 36. RELEVANCE-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

The examples of RELEVANCE-TYPE are provided below.

(42) The book will be of primary interest to EPAP professionals and discourse analysts [Linguistics/JOAP_008_2011.txt].

(43) […] and it should also immediately capture the attention of semanticist, especially those who have concentrated their research on purely semantic approaches to DAR sentences [Linguistics/LNG_007_2012.txt]

(44) But there will remain some confusion about the intended audience of the text [Linguistics/JOAP_014_2014.txt]

(45) […] but such criticism would miss the point that the book is intended for pedagogical use, not as a literature review for researchers [Linguistics/JOAP_010_2012.txt]

(46) In this way, the handbook offers the readers with both updated information for a specific field of study and inspiration for further investigation [Linguistics/DAN_006_2010.txt].

(47) Furthermore, it will be a good resource for the general public and for organizations who want to achieve more effective communication in web-mediated environments [Linguistics/ESP_007_2014.txt

When evaluating TEXT, reviewers commented on a vast array of parameters describing not only its extent but also textual elements practically indispensable in linguistic books such as tables, examples, useful references, etc. Although positive comments surpass negative evaluations in absolute terms, as can be seen in Table 37 on the next page, their representation within their respective polarity categories remains comparable, with 6.3% for POSITIVE polarity and 5.0% for NEGATIVE polarity.

TEXT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXTENT	3	0.2	10	1.6	18.66	0.0000	+++	0.175
REFERENCES	19	1.0	7	1.1	0.05	0.8305		0.010
DIAGRAMS	5	0.3	0	0.0	1.68	0.1949		0.104
EXERCISES	20	1.1	3	0.5	1.80	0.1799		0.069
INDEX	2	0.1	0	0.0	0.67	0.4126		0.066
GLOSSARY	7	0.4	1	0.2	0.68	0.4100		0.043
NOTATION	0	0.0	1	0.2	2.98	0.0841	+	0.081
APPENDIX	5	0.3	1	0.2	0.23	0.6329		0.024
TRANSCRIPTS	1	0.1	1	0.2	0.66	0.4168		0.034
EXAMPLES	29	1.6	3	0.5	4.27	0.0388	++	0.112
DATA	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.01	0.3156		0.081
RESOURCES	12	0.7	0	0.0	4.04	0.0443	++	0.162
SUMMARY	5	0.3	0	0.0	1.68	0.1949		0.104
TITLE	1	0.1	3	0.5	5.30	0.0213	++	0.093
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	1	0.2	2.98	0.0841	+	0.081
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.01	0.3156		0.081
AUXILIARY-DATA	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.34	0.5625		0.047
TOTAL:	**116**	**6.3%**	**31**	**5.0%**				

Table 37. TEXT-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Some of the evaluations of TEXT are presented below.

(48) Nevertheless, the amount of space devoted to them seems rather disproportionate. [Linguistics/JOL_002_2008.txt] EXTENT

(49) Here and elsewhere throughout the volume, more cross-chapter references would have been desirable, as numerous phenomena are discussed in more than one chapter in connection with different issues. [Linguistics/JOL_002_2012.txt]. REFERENCES

(50) Additionally, the book offers 80 informative tables and figures, presenting a wide range of valuable information, for example, distributional patterns of grammatical features across registers and time periods. [Linguistics/JOAP_18a_2016.txt] DIAGRAMS

(51)A third aspect that could be improved is the amount and type of exercises provided. [Linguistics/LNG_011_2014.txt] EXERCISES

(52) A well-organized index is necessary in a quasi-encyclopedic text like this and, though there is just one main index, it is more than satisfactory [Linguistics/JOL_005_2009.txt] INDEX

(53) There is a glossary of terms that is particularly useful in light of the large number of abbreviations and acronyms that come up in discussions of specific programs and practices. [Linguistics/LTR_007_2011.txt] GLOSSARY

(54) Equally problematic is the choice to continue using an in-house system of pronunciation symbols when globalization would recommend adoption of the International Phonetic Alphabet (IPA), which is

much easier to use, especially for readers whose primary language is not English. [Linguistics/JEL_006_2014.txt] NOTATION

(55) Regarding methods, each appendix provides invaluable details about the data, summarizing how often leaders used, for example, personifications or metaphors of light and darkness. [Linguistics/DAN_013_2014.txt] APPENDIX

(56) Interesting data are presented throughout the book in the form of transcripts of excerpts of interaction among children and between children and teachers which include playful talk. [Linguistics/DAN_003_2009.txt] TRANSCRIPTS

(57) What teachers will likely appreciate most about this book, however, is the plethora of textual examples drawn from the BAWE corpus, many of which are complete or nearly so. Linguistics/ESP_006_2013.txt] EXAMPLES

(58) The book uses a huge range of cross-linguistic data to illustrate the approach taken, something that this review has been unable to do justice to for reasons of space. [Linguistics/JOL_001_2008.txt] DATA

(59) Finally, the useful resources section contains exactly what one would hope to see: a list of print documents and websites covering everything from legal issues to classroom materials.[Linguistics/LTR_007_2011.txt] RESOURCES

(60) Each chapter includes a helpful summary of the most important data points and the issues discussed. [Linguistics/JOL_002_2012.txt] SUMMARY

(61) To begin at the beginning, it probably has the wrong title [Linguistics/JOL_001_2010.txt]

(62) Finally, the volume may have been easier to navigate if chapters were numbered. [Linguistics/LTR_008_2011.txt] SECTION-NUMBERS

(63) IES offers exercises at the end of every chapter as well as recommended readings. [Linguistics/JEL_005_2014.txt]

(64) […] practical analysis and production tasks in each chapter to apply.[Linguistics/JOAP_010_2012.txt] AUXILIARY-DATA

As indicated in Table 37, statistical significance has been found for the association between polarity type and EXTENT, EXAMPLES, RESOURCES and TITLE. The parameters of EXTENT and TILE tend to attract criticism, whereas EXAMPLES and RESOURCES tend to receive praise in reviews.

In the analysis of the seven parameters identified as referring to the author of a book or chapter, negative evaluations are notably infrequent. Authors are most often complimented on their experience, reputation, and knowledge. Yet, the relative share of the evaluations of AUTHOR, regardless of their polarity, remains modest, constituting a mere 2.4% of the aggregate positive evaluations and a mere 0.5% of negative evaluations. There has been found no statistical significance at p <.05.

AUTHOR-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXPERIENCE	10	0.5	1	0.2	1.51	0.2194		0.067
REPUTATION	8	0.4	0	0.0	2.69	0.1009		0.132
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	12	0.7	1	0.2	2.11	0.1464		0.081
TALENT	4	0.2	0	0.0	1.34	0.2464		0.093
SELF-CRITICAL	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.34	0.5625		0.047
KNOWLEDGE	7	0.4	0	0.0	2.35	0.1250		0.124
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	2	0.1	1	0.2	0.11	0.7425		0.015
TOTAL:	**44**	**2.4%**	**3**	**0.5%**				

Table 38. AUTHOR -TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

A handful of examples illustrate how these evaluations are performed.

(65)[…] relies on his decades-long experience in research, which now he brings to bear on the specific issue of identity construction [Linguistics/JOAP_013_2014.txt] EXPERIENCE

(66) Baker, a prominent corpus linguist who specializes in critical discourse analysis, has written extensively on the language of gender, sex, and sexuality (e.g., Baker 2004, 2008, 2013) [Linguistics/JEL_007_2015.txt]

(67) Written by a prolific and established scholar his volume is a valuable addition to the field […]

(68) […] has the insight to have produced a more well-rounded work of either kind [Linguistics/JOL_002_2008.txt]

(69) […] who takes the time to challenge preconceptions, as well as to confront and dare to revisit his own past assumptions while boldly building bridges across disciplines [Linguistics/JEL_003_2013.txt]

(70) […]provides evidence of D.'s comprehensive knowledge of the burgeoning literature in Spanish pragmatics [Linguistics/LNG_004_2011.txt]

(71) […] with the eloquence that the author is famous for [Linguistics/LNG_005_2009.txt].

An interesting contrast between positive and negative evaluation has been observed in relation to the parameter of PRODUCTION-STANDARDS. Generally, comments on this parameter are negative, with a relatively high share in all negative evaluations, with a value of 4.1%. By contrast, positive evaluation concerns only two features: EDITING (illustrated in example 74) and TYPOGRAPHY (illustrated in example in 72). Notably, these are exactly the two categories for which statistical significance has been found, as shown in Table 39.

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	POSITIVE N	POSITIVE %	NEGATIVE N	NEGATIVE %	Comparison ChiSqu	Comparison P	Comparison Signif	Effect Size
TYPOGRAPHY	3	0.2	13	2.1	26.99	0.0000	+++	0.211
PRICE	0	0.0	1	0.2	2.98	0.0841	+	0.081
EDITING	7	0.4	10	1.6	10.34	0.0013	+++	0.132
PHYSICAL- QUALITY	0	0.0	1	0.2	2.98	0.0841	+	0.081
TOTAL:	**10**	**0.5%**	**25**	**4.1%**				

Table 39. PRODUCTION-STANDARDS in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

The examples of PRODUCTION-STANDARDS are provided below.

(72) Spelling errors, where a wrong word is used in a context, occur frequently enough to be distracting, for example, collaborate/corroborate, cloths/clothes, principle/principal, dinning/dining, boarder/border, sang/sung, hang/hung, that/than, forth/fourth, dully/duly, tag of war/tug of war, signalled/singled, seized/ceased, cue/queue, defused/diffused, international/interactional [Linguistics/DAN_003_2009.txt]. TYPOGRAPHY

(73) It deserved a wide readership, but this may be inhibited by the hefty price-tag.[Linguistics/ESP_010_2015.txt] PRICE

The final parameter in the annotation scheme is referred to as GENERAL-TYPE, and it is realized by means of lexical expressions, which, as cautioned by Shaw (2004), possess explicit evaluative qualities yet lack a predetermined polarity. Consequently, their interpretations necessitate an analysis of contextual cues. Such an analysis has demonstrated that GENERAL-TYPE evaluations exhibit a positive polarity with one exception. The only negative evaluation was realized as a not negation of *impressive*. The results are shown in Table 40.

GENERAL-TYPE	positive N	positive %	negative N	negative %	Comparison ChiSqu	Comparison P	Comparison Signif	Effect Size
INSPIRING	11	0.6	0	0.0	3.71	0.0542	+	0.155
IMPORTANCE	7	0.4	0	0.0	2.35	0.1250		0.124
EXCEPTIONALITY	4	0.2	0	0.0	1.34	0.2464		0.093
IMPRESSIVE	21	1.1	1	0.2	4.99	0.0254	++	0.134
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
CHALLENGING	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.34	0.5625		0.047
AMBITIOUS	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.01	0.3156		0.081
APPRECIATION	2	0.1	0	0.0	0.67	0.4126		0.066
SUCCESSFUL	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.01	0.3156		0.081
WELL-CRAFTED	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.34	0.5625		0.047
RECOMMENDED	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.34	0.5625		0.047
ENJOYABLE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.34	0.5625		0.047
INTERESTING	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.01	0.3156		0.081
VALUABLE	4	0.2	0	0.0	1.34	0.2464		0.093
TERRIFIC	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
GRATITUDE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.34	0.5625		0.047
TOTAL:	**63**	**3.4%**	**1**	**0.2%**				

Table 40. GENERAL-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

The examples of GENERAL-TYPE evaluations are presented below.

(74) […] and it may well inspire at least some to reconsider their previous perspective on language and translation, a perspective that views language and translation in terms which render them essentially, and problematically, invisible [Linguistics/JOS_004_2011.txt]

(75) In conclusion, let me repeat that this is an important book [Linguistics/JEL_001_2012.txt]

(76) Emi Otsuji's outstanding chapter - '"Where am I from": Performative and "metro" perspectives of origin' (pp. 186-93) - certainly resounds with me on this score [Linguistics/LTR_009_2012.txt]

(77) All in all, despite the few points raised above, this is an impressive volume [Linguistics/ESP_007_2014.txt]

(78) Language as a Local Practice is a challenging book, where this adjective should be intended in three distinct but interrelated senses [Linguistics/WEN_004_2011.txt]

(79) This is an ambitious book [Linguistics/LNG_008_2012.txt]

(80) Despite my caveats, I congratulate Geeraerts [Linguistics/JOL_002_2011.txt]

(81) […] but it is also successful [Linguistics/WEN_001_2010.txt]

(82) This well-crafted volume entitled Educating for Advanced Foreign Language Capacities relies on both theoretical and applied linguistics as it treats timely issues regarding advanced language acquisition [Linguistics/LTR_002_2008.txt]

(83) As a whole, Talk in Action: Interactions, Identities and Institutions is a highly recommended [Linguistics/DAN_010_2012.txt]

(84) this collection is informative, accessible, and enjoyable [Linguistics/WEN_012_2015.txt]

(85) […] are all interesting and make significant contributions. [Linguistics/JOAP_002_2008.txt]

(86) These two chapters are extremely valuable. [Linguistics/ESP_011_2016.txt]

(87) […] and thank him for this book [Linguistics/JOL_002_2011.txt]

7.2. POSITIVE-TYPE vs NEGATIVE-TYPE: syntactic complexity: SIMPLE vs CHAINED

7.2.1. SIMPLE-POSITIVE vs CHAINED-POSITIVE

The segments of the annotation scheme pertaining to evaluation types assume a differentiation between evaluations that take place individually within a clause or sentence and their realizations within the same unit – either as pairs or as a sequence of three or more evaluations. At this stage, there is no distinction made between chains of evaluations accomplished as INTRACLAUSAL chains and INTERCLAUSAL ones.

To begin the discussion, let us turn to the analysis of positive evaluations. Among these, 1,544 have been recognized as SIMPLE-POSITIVE instances, while 291 are identified as CHAINS.

The former category constitutes more than 60% of positive evaluations that fall outside the POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE pattern.

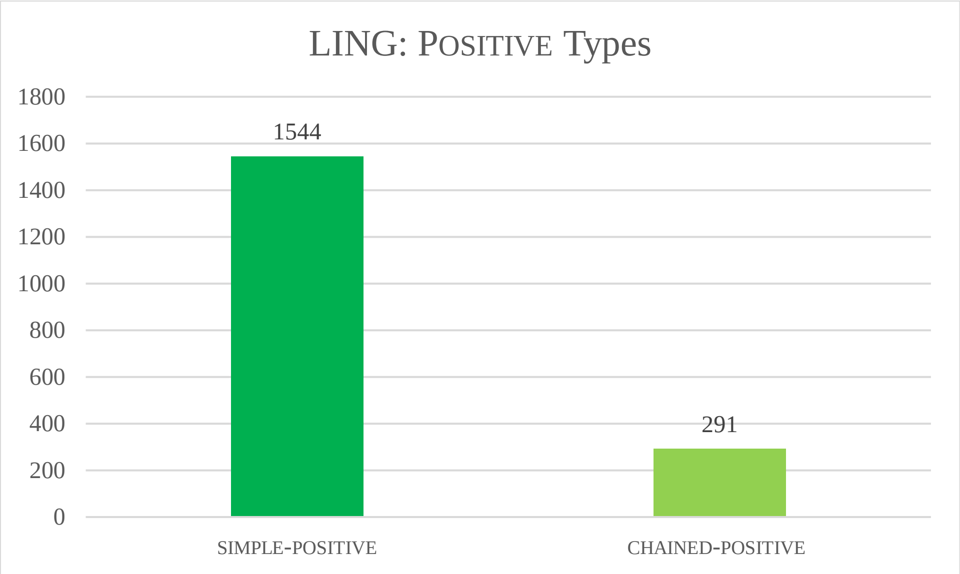


Figure 42. The distribution of POSITIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

POSITIVE-TYPE	**N**	**%**
SIMPLE-POSITIVE	1544	60.6
CHAINED-POSITIVE	291	11.4
TOTAL:	**1835**	**72.1%**

Table 41. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE: general statistics in the LING corpus

Some examples include:

(88) In the rest of the book, she draws on her rich body of data to explore the use of playful talk among the children and teachers [Linguistics/DAN_003_2009.txt].

(89) Finally, this volume's multi-disciplinary characteristics are remarkable [Linguistics/DAN_007_2011.txt]

(90) For the most part, the analytic chapters are nicely bounded, can stand alone, and read rather fluidly for a seasoned scholar in the domain [Linguistics/DAN_004_2009.txt]

(91) The book is well-organized and provides a solid, well-rounded treatment of the genres presented [Linguistics/ESP_006_2013.txt

The observable contrast in the distribution of simple positive evaluations versus chained positive ones has been verified through a statistical examination (https://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/chisquare/default2.aspx). This analysis demonstrated a chi-square statistic of

601.5587, yielding a p-value of less than 0.00001, which is statistically significant at a confidence level of p < .05. Furthermore, considering the Yates correction, the chi-square statistic becomes 600.1193, with a corresponding p-value of less than 0.00001, also signifying statistical significance at a confidence level of p<.05.

Another difference between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE concerns the length of the evaluation segment, which, as expected, has become shorter for chained-positive evaluations. The T-test results are shown in Table 42 for reference.

Text Complexity	SIMPLE-POSITIVE	CHAINED-POSITIVE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	21.22	17.63	12958.09	0.0000	+++

Table 42. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE: text complexity in the LING corpus

7.2.2. SIMPLE-NEGATIVE vs CHAINED-NEGATIVE

If the focus of the analysis is shifted to the distribution of SIMPLE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE evaluations, an even greater quantitative difference is noticeable, as the negative type includes 587 SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations, compared to merely 30 instances of CHAINED negatives. The data are shown in Figure 43 and Table 43 below.

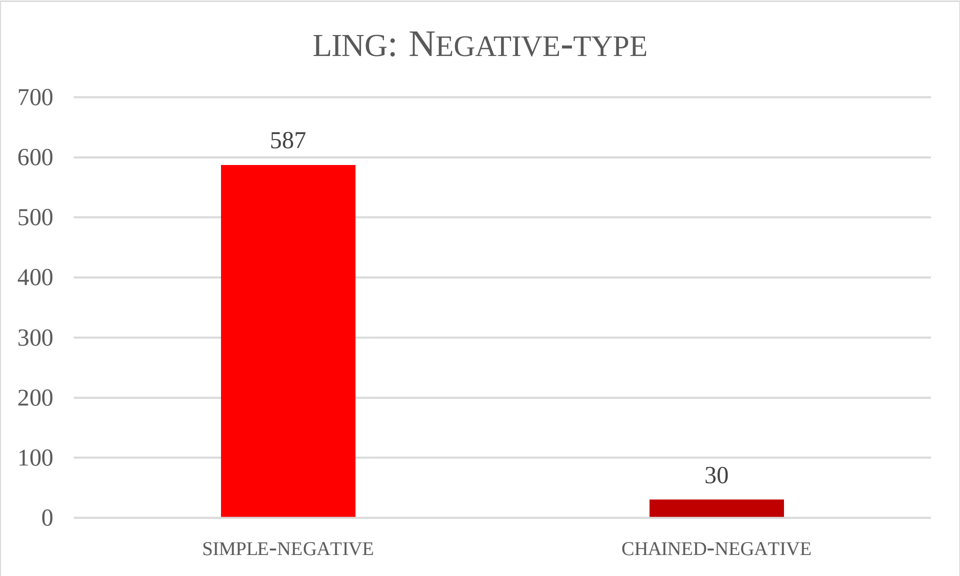


Figure 43. The distribution of NEGATIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

NEGATIVE-TYPE	N	%
SIMPLE-NEGATIVE	587	23.0
CHAINED-NEGATIVE	30	1.2
TOTAL:	**615**	**24.2%**

Table 43. SIMPLE-NEGATIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE: general statistics in the LING corpus

The illustrations of SIMPLE-NEGATIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE evaluations are below.

(92) Turning to code-switching, I was not entirely convinced that identity-related CS constitutes 'an entirely different type' that complements situational and metaphorical CS [Linguistics/DAN_002_2008.txt].

(93) It is not clear why these two chapters were not combined into one [Linguistics/DAN_017_2016.txt].

(94) The rationale for including this is therefore confusing and seems a bit dated [Linguistics/DAN_016_2015.txt].

(95) What this chapter does not do is give a clear sense of the kinds of patterns Walker's system cannot generate, nor does it compare the predictions of her model to those of other theories that might be brought to bear on vowel harmony [Linguistics/LNG_008_2012.txt].

The findings clearly indicate that while combining positive evaluations within one unit is more common, clustering negative evaluations is relatively rare. However, when it is enacted in the review, the subjective positivity of the CHAINED-NEGATIVE evaluation is predictably lower than a SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluation, as shown in Table 44.

Subjectivity	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE	CHAINED-NEGATIVE
Subjective Positivity	0.04	-0.039

Table 44. Subjective positivity indices for SIMPLE-NEGATIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE in the LING corpus

7.2.2.1. SIMPLE-POSITIVE vs SIMPLE-NEGATIVE compared

Out of a total of 1,835 positive segments, 1,542 (84.1%) fall under the category of SIMPLE-POSITIVE. Similarly, out of 615 negative segments, 587 segments (95.1%) are classified as SIMPLE-NEGATIVE. These findings indicate that the evaluation pattern characterized by SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE is clearly the predominant trend (see Figure 44 and Table 45).

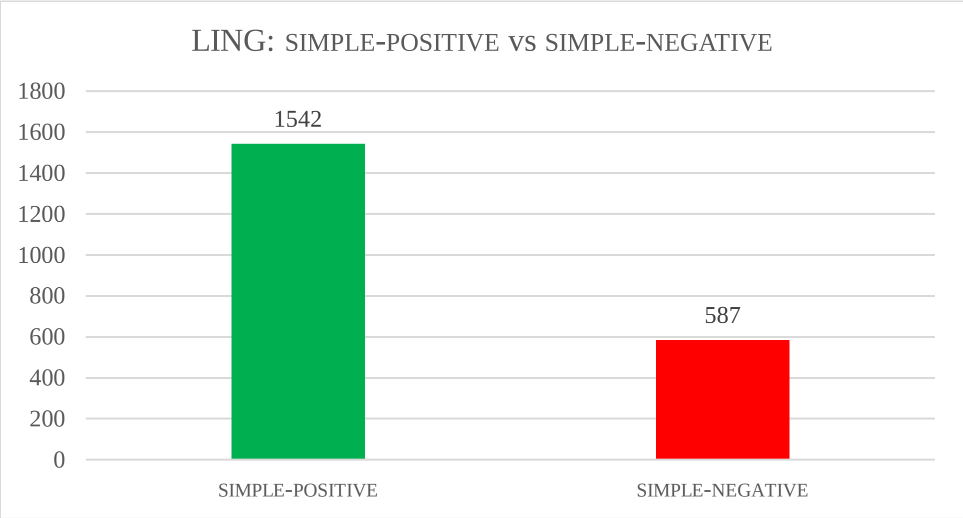


Figure 44. The distribution of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE in the LING corpus

EVALUATION-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE	
	N	%	N	%
POSITIVE	1542	100.0	0	0.0
NEGATIVE	0	0.0	587	100.0
TOTAL:	**1542**	**100.0%**	**587**	**100.0%**

Table 45. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE: general statistics in the LING corpus

Some examples are as follows:

(96) In the rest of the book, she draws on her rich body of data to explore the use of playful talk among the children and teachers [Linguistics/DAN_003_2009.txt].

(97) Finally, this volume's multi-disciplinary characteristics are remarkable [Linguistics/DAN_007_2011.txt]

(98) These lapses may be minor [Linguistics/DAN_013_2014.txt]

(99) The introductory grounding capitalizes on outdated generalizations such as 'language of CMC' [Linguistics/DAN_002_2008.txt]

Considering the average segment length, there is a statistically significant difference between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations, shown in Table 46 below.

Text Complexity	SIMPLE-POSITIVE	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	21.22	25.16	13135.39	0.0000	+++

Table 46. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE: text complexity and T-stat results in the LING corpus

Again on the level of this layer, there is a statistically significant difference between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE significance in Reference Density concerning the first-person pronouns, as shown in Table 47.

Reference Density	SIMPLE-POSITIVE	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.36%	0.5%	4.95	0.0260	++

Table 47. The first-person pronoun index for SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE and T-stat results in the LING corpus

Other differences between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE are related to the distribution of their subtypes. The descriptive statistics of both categories identified in the corpus are presented in Figure 45 and Figure 46 and Table 48.

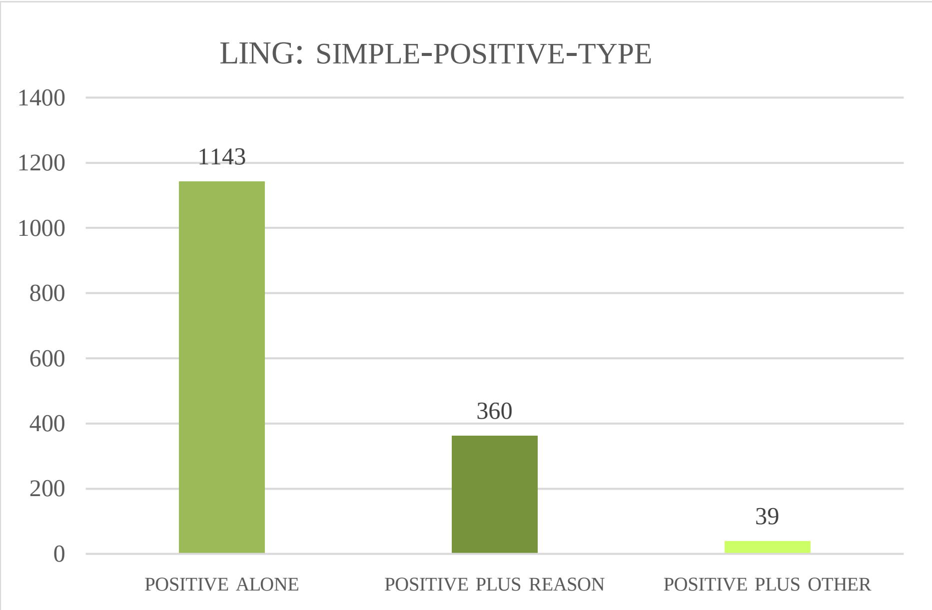


Figure 45. The distribution of SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

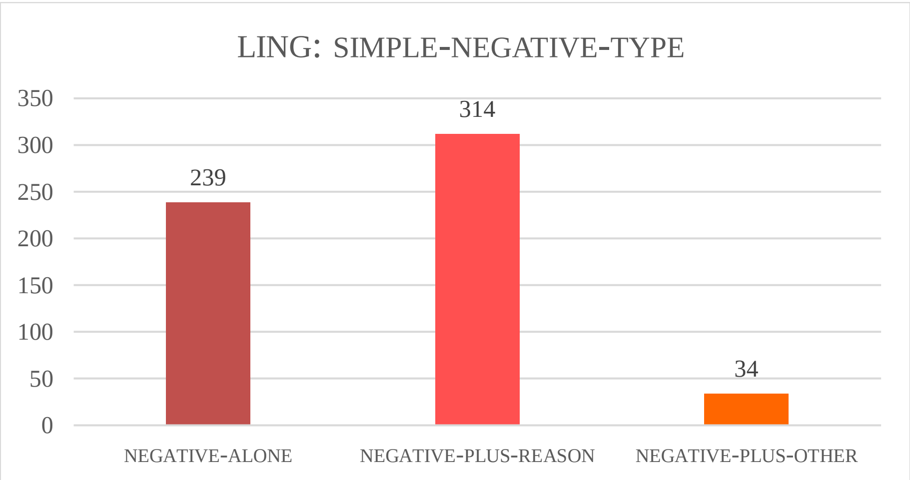


Figure 46. The distribution of SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE	
	N	%
POSITIVE-ALONE	1143	74.0
POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	360	23.4
POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	39	2.5
TOTAL:	**1542**	**100.0%**

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE	
	N	%
NEGATIVE-ALONE	239	40.9
NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	314	53.3
NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	34	5.8
TOTAL:	**587**	**100.0%**

Table 48. SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE compared

In terms of the three subtypes, the linguistics book reviewers demonstrate very different trends in their deployment of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE resources. To start with, while in both cases, reviewers display their weakest preferences to express their evaluations through POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER, they employ the remaining "valuation" resources in a different way. Again, even if the share of the POSITIVE-ALONE and POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON on the one hand and NEGATIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON on the other one is comparably high, reaching the value of 97.5% and 94.2% respectively, POSITIVE-ALONE is by far more frequently used than POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON. For SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, an opposite trend may be observed as the cases of NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON outnumber NEGATIVE-ALONE.

To test the statistical significance of the distribution, a chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between "simple" polarity and the simple polarity patterns (https://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/chisquare2/default2.aspx). The X^2 was 204.9964. The p-value was <0.00001. The result is significant at p <.05. This suggests a statistically significant association between the types within SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE groups. Equally interesting are statistical tests performed to study potential correlations between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE with EVALUATION-OBJECT TYPE, as they uncover several meaningful variations between these two evaluation categories.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison		
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif
CONTENT	952	61.5	415	70.9	16.33	0.0000	+++
STYLE	177	11.5	97	16.6	9.91	0.0017	+++
READERSHIP	183	11.7	11	1.9	50.09	0.0000	+++
TEXT	116	7.5	32	5.3	3.23	0.0721	+
AUTHOR	43	2.8	3	0.5	10.36	0.0013	+++
PUBLISHING	10	0.6	26	4.3	34.49	0.0000	+++
GENERAL	63	4.1	1	0.2	22.24	0.0000	+++
TOTAL:	**1542**	**100.0%**	**587**	**1000,0%**			

Table 49. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE EVALUATION-OBJECT: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

The first of the differences concerns the parameter of CONTENT. While the total number of SIMPLE-POSITIVE evaluative acts, their proportional representation differs notably. SIMPLE-NEGATIVE constitutes nearly 71% of all content evaluations, whereas the corresponding proportion for SIMPLE-POSITIVE is lower, at 61.5%. This result was found to be statistically significant.

STYLE, listed here as the second of the EVALUATION-OBJECT parameters, also highlights a difference between SIMPLE-POSITIVE (11.5%) and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE (16.6%). As before, this was found statistically significant.

The data collected from the UAMCT analysis show a clear difference, particularly regarding the parameter of READERSHIP: negative evaluations are extremely rare. While positive evaluations related to READERSHIP account for 11.7%, the proportion of negative evaluations concerning READERSHIP is notably low as it stands at only 1.9%. This difference is also statistically significant.

The differences pertaining between the evaluations pertaining to the parameters of AUTHOR, PUBLISHING and GENERAL are equally statistically significant, meaning they hold a 98% confidence level (with a 2% possibility of error). While the evaluation of PUBLISHING typically leans towards negativity, the evaluation of AUTHOR and the overall qualities of a book (GENERAL) tend to be more positive.

To sum up, if there is an identifiable trend in the distribution of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE patterns concerning EVALUATION-OBJECT, it can be explained as follows: reviewers employ SIMPLE-POSITIVE pattern, characterized by relatively shorter and less subjective segments, to assess various aspects of such as CONTENT, READERSHIP, AUTHOR and, overall, QUALITY. Conversely, when using the simple pattern, evaluation of elements such as STYLE or PUBLISHING inclines towards a negative perspective.

Moving on to more specific aspects, shown in Table 50 below, it is worth analyzing how SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE are distributed across different parameters of CONTENT-TYPE.

CONTENT-TYPE	**SIMPLE-POSITIVE**		**SIMPLE-NEGATIVE**		**Comparison**		
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**
GENERAL-CONTENT	599	38.8	65	11.1	151.51	0.0000	+++
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	351	22.7	350	59.8	264.35	0.0000	+++
TOTAL:	**950**	**61.5%**	**415**	**70.9%**			

Table 50. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Table 50 shows that SIMPLE-POSITIVE evaluations tend to appear in reference to the GENERAL-CONTENT rather than LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT. On the other hand, SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations concerning LOCAL-CONTENT are over five times as frequent as those referring to GENERAL-CONTENT of the reviewed book.

As shown in Table 51, the strongest effect has been observed for CONTENT-QUALITY (0.394), followed by SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE (0.303), NOVELTY (0.292) and COVERAGE (0.216). For the parameter of approach, there has also been observed statistical significance at a 98% confidence level. The only parameters where no statistically significant difference has been shown by chi-square tests are IMPLICATIONS (significant at 90% confidence level) and APPLICABILITY.

When shifting the focus to the parameter of SPECIFIC ARGUMENT-CONTENT TYPE, it could be anticipated, drawing from the previous findings, that instances of SIMPLE-NEGATIVE would outweigh positive-negative. This expectation holds true, as the prevailing pattern is that of SIMPLE-NEGATIVE whenever the evaluation pertains to COHERENCE, ARGUMENT-VALUE, MISSING-CONTENT, SCOPE, and BIAS. The sole parameter where SIMPLE-POSITIVE instances were more prevalent was INSIGHT. Notably, no statistically significant difference has been found for the parameters of LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE, METHOD, TERMINOLOGY and UTILITY. Table 51 summarizes the results.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	**SIMPLE-POSITIVE**		**SIMPLE-NEGATIVE**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
CURRENCY	38	2.5	5	0.9	5.53	0.0187	+++	0.130
APPROACH	94	6.1	21	3.6	5.18	0.0228	++	0.117
COVERAGE	113	7.3	16	2.7	15.66	0.0001	+++	0.216
CONTENT-QUALITY	195	12.6	16	2.7	46.52	0.0000	+++	0.394
NOVELTY	72	4.7	3	0.5	21.50	0.0000	+++	0.292
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	67	4.3	2	0.3	21.62	0.0000	+++	0.303
IMPLICATIONS	17	1.1	2	0.3	2.76	0.0964	+	0.093
APPLICABILITY	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.088
TOTAL:	**599**	**38.8%**	**65**	**11.1%**				

Table 51. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE GENERAL-CONTENT TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
COHERENCE	4	0.3	10	1.7	13.66	0.0002	+++	0.160
INSIGHT	67	4.3	6	1.0	14.07	0.0002	+++	0.217
ARGUMENT-VALUE	69	4.5	95	16.2	82.67	0.0000	+++	0.404
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	183	11.9	74	12.6	0.25	0.6142		0.024
MISSING-CONTENT	3	0.2	136	23.2	369.48	0.0000	+++	0.918
METHOD	10	0.6	5	0.9	0.26	0.6102		0.024
SCOPE	11	0.7	18	3.1	17.65	0.0000	+++	0.184
BIAS	0	0.0	4	0.7	10.58	0.0011	+++	0.166
TERMINOLOGY	2	0.1	2	0.3	1.02	0.3125		0.045
UTILITY	2	0.1	0	0.0	0.76	0.3838		0.072
TOTAL:	**351**	**22.7%**	**350**	**59.8%**				

Table 52. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE SPECIFIC ARGUMENT/CONTENT: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Table 53 presents statistics for the parameter of ARGUMENT-VALUE. Once again, it can be anticipated that the frequency of positive comments on the logical flow of arguments would be lower than that on the presence of logical inconsistencies or argument weaknesses. Indeed, this expectation has proven accurate, as evaluations more often focus on flawed arguments rather than sound ones, irrespective of the fact that they are DESCRIPTIVE or EXPLANATORY.

ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DESCRIPTIVE	28	1.8	23	3.9	8.14	0.0043	+++	0.129
EXPLANATORY	41	2.7	72	12.3	78.64	0.0000	+++	0.390
TOTAL:	**69**	**4.5%**	**95**	**16.2%**				

Table 53. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Another analytical parameter that deserves attention concern STYLE. Among twelve subcategories ranging from CLARITY to PRECISION to TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY, differences between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, four have been shown to be statistically significant, namely, ORGANIZATION, CONCISENESS, PRECISION and LINGUISTIC ERRORS. The differences are shown in Table 54.

STYLE-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CLARITY	57	3.7	26	4.4	0.64	0.4231		0.038
ORGANISATION	47	3.0	32	5.5	6.99	0.0082	+++	0.121
CONCISENESS	6	0.4	12	2.1	13.99	0.0002	+++	0.163
DIFFICULTY	2	0.1	3	0.5	2.66	0.1029		0.071
READABILITY	32	2.1	14	2.4	0.21	0.6497		0.022
ATTRACTIVENESS	10	0.6	4	0.7	0.01	0.9267		0.004
PRECISION	14	0.9	0	0.0	5.34	0.0209	++	0.191
AUTHORITATIVE STYLE	5	0.3	1	0.2	0.35	0.5525		0.031
CONSISTENCY	3	0.2	2	0.3	0.39	0.5300		0.029
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	0	0.0	3	0.5	7.93	0.0049	+++	0.143
HUMOUR	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.38	0.5381		0.051
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**177**	**11.5%**	**97**	**16.6%**				

Table 54. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE STYLE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

While it is STYLE that ranks first as an evaluation parameter with a relatively similar distribution for SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, as shown in Table 54, there are notably more negative evaluations related to ORGANIZATION, CONCISENESS, and LINGUISTIC ERRORS. The only area where praise outweighs negative comments is PRECISION. Statistical analysis indicates no significant difference in the case of CLARITY, DIFFICULTY, READABILITY, ATTRACTIVENESS, AUTHORITATIVE STYLE, CONSISTENCY, HUMOR, and TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD PARTY.

The evaluation of READERSHIP, understood as relevance of a book under review, is another category worth investigating. The findings from UAMCT analysis are strongly unanimous: if READERSHIP is the object of evaluation by means of SIMPLE-POSITIVE/NEGATIVE type, then, the tendency leans towards positive evaluations rather than negative ones. Table 55 illustrates the results.

READERSHIP-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
RELEVANCE-TYPE	181	11.7	11	1.9	50.09	0.0000	+++	0.424
TOTAL:	**181**	**11.7%**	**11**	**1.9%**				

Table 55. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE READERSHIP-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Analyzing the three underlying parameters of RELEVANCE, it becomes apparent that the negative evaluation by means of SIMPLE-NEGATIVE takes on very low values, and only in the case of RELEVANCE defined in terms of the stated goal of the authors, where the differences not found to be statistically significant at a 95% confidence level.

RELEVANCE-TYPE-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	38	2.5	0	0.0	14.66	0.0001	+++	0.315
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	30	1.9	5	0.9	3.11	0.0779	+	0.095
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	113	7.3	6	1.0	31.84	0.0000	+++	0.345
TOTAL:	**181**	**11.7%**	**11**	**1.9%**				

Table 56. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE RELEVANCE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

The parameter of TEXT refers to seventeen categories that form the highest layer of the annotation scheme of evaluation. In four cases, the differences in the distribution of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE have been found to be statistically significant, as shown in Table 57.

TEXT-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXTENT	3	0.2	10	1.7	16.05	0.0001	+++	0.174
REFERENCES	19	1.2	7	1.2	0.00	0.9492		0.003
DIAGRAMS	5	0.3	0	0.0	1.90	0.1682		0.114
EXERCISES	20	1.3	3	0.5	2.43	0.1190		0.085
INDEX	2	0.1	0	0.0	0.76	0.3838		0.072
GLOSSARY	7	0.5	1	0.2	0.90	0.3417		0.052
NOTATION	0	0.0	1	0.2	2.64	0.1042		0.083
APPENDIX	5	0.3	1	0.2	0.35	0.5525		0.031
TRANSCRIPTS	1	0.1	1	0.2	0.51	0.4753		0.032
EXAMPLES	29	1.9	3	0.5	5.34	0.0208	++	0.132
DATA	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.088
RESOURCES	12	0.8	0	0.0	4.57	0.0325	++	0.177
SUMMARY	5	0.3	0	0.0	1.90	0.1682		0.114
TITLE	1	0.1	3	0.5	4.54	0.0331	++	0.092
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	1	0.2	2.64	0.1042		0.083
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.088
AUXILIARY-DATA	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.38	0.5381		0.051
TOTAL:	**116**	**7.5%**	**31**	**5.3%**				

Table 57. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE TEXT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Within this category, criticism is more likely to occur in relation to the parameter of EXTENT and an inadequately chosen TITLE, while praise occurs much more often when commenting upon the presence and quality of EXAMPLES and other RESOURCES proposed in the text.

AUTHOR is another parameter of evaluation of STYLE. Among seven qualities proposed for this parameter, the most commonly applied one is EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION, followed by EXPERIENCE and REPUTATION. Furthermore, there have been six positive comments highlighting an author's erudition. As Table 58 shows, negative comments are noticeably rare. This aligns with the typical academic ethos where criticisms are directed towards ideas rather than the authors themselves.

AUTHOR-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXPERIENCE	10	0.6	1	0.2	1.88	0.1708		0.078
REPUTATION	8	0.5	0	0.0	3.04	0.0811	+	0.144
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	12	0.8	1	0.2	2.57	0.1089		0.094
TALENT	4	0.3	0	0.0	1.52	0.2179		0.102
SELF-CRITICAL	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.38	0.5381		0.051
KNOWLEDGE	6	0.4	0	0.0	2.28	0.1311		0.125
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	2	0.1	1	0.2	0.05	0.8201		0.011
TOTAL:	**43**	**2.8%**	**3**	**0.5%**				

Table 58. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE AUTHOR-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

In contrast to the pattern of positive and negative evaluations regarding AUTHOR, the distribution of remarks concerning PRODUCTION-STANDARDS leans towards negativity, with a focus on TYPOGRAPHY and EDITING. Positive evaluations barely touch on PRODUCTION-STANDARDS, but the proportions rises to over 4% for negative ones. However, significant statistical differences have only been noted in TYPOGRAPHY and EDITING. Table 59 shows the results in detail.

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
TYPOGRAPHY	3	0.2	13	2.2	23.39	0.0000	+++	0.211
PRICE	0	0.0	1	0.2	2.64	0.1042		0.083
EDITING	7	0.5	10	1.7	8.45	0.0037	+++	0.127
WRONG-TITLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
SIZE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		

PHYSICAL-QUALITY	0	0.0	1	0.2	evaluatio2.64	0.1042		0.083
TOTAL:	**10**	**0.6%**	**25**	**4.3%**				

Table 59. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE PRODUCTION-STANDARDS: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Lastly, concerning the most ambiguous category of GENERAL-TYPE evaluations, the direct comparison between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations makes it evident that negative evaluations are infrequent. With a ratio of 63:1 in favour of positive evaluations, it become clear that the evaluations are predominantly positive. Two of them have been found statistically significant, as shown in Table 60.

GENERAL-TYPE	**SIMPLE-POSITIVE**		**SIMPLE-NEGATIVE**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
INSPIRING	11	0.7	0	0.0	4.19	0.0407	++	0.169
IMPORTANCE	7	0.5	0	0.0	2.66	0.1028		0.135
EXCEPTIONALITY	4	0.3	0	0.0	1.52	0.2179		0.102
IMPRESSIVE	21	1.4	1	0.2	5.87	0.0154	+++	0.151
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
CHALLENGING	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.38	0.5381		0.051
AMBITIOUS	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.088
APPRECIATION	2	0.1	0	0.0	0.76	0.3838		0.072
SUCCESSFUL	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.088
WELL-CRAFTED	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.38	0.5381		0.051
RECOMMENDED	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.38	0.5381		0.051
ENJOYABLE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.38	0.5381		0.051
INTERESTING	3	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.088
VALUABLE	4	0.3	0	0.0	1.52	0.2179		0.102
TERRIFIC	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
GRATITUDE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.38	0.5381		0.051
TOTAL:	**63**	**4.1%**	**1**	**0.2%**				

Table 60. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE GENERAL-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

7.2.3. POSITIVE-ALONE VS NEGATIVE-ALONE

As indicated in Chapter Six, the parameters of POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE signify a single instance of evaluation within the boundaries of a sentence such as in:

(100) **An asset of this book** is that it is an up-to-date review of current trends within the writing field [Linguistics/ESP_009_2015.txt

(101) References to intonational differences in English across Britain and Ireland **are very scattered** across the volume [Linguistics/JOL_005_2009.txt]

Table 43 below, presented here again for ease of reference, shows that POSITIVE-ALONE pattern is the prevailing form for positive evaluation, while NEGATIVE-ALONE holds the seconds position in terms of frequency for negative evaluation.

SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE	
	N	%
POSITIVE-ALONE	1143	74.0
POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	360	23.4
POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	39	2.5
TOTAL:	**1542**	**100.0%**

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE	
	N	%
NEGATIVE-ALONE	239	40.9
NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	314	53.6
NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	34	5.8
TOTAL:	**587**	**100.0%**

Table 43. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE compared

Considering the average length of a segment, there is a statistically significant difference between POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE evaluations, shown in Table 61 below. When the figures are compared with the results for SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, it can be observed that when an additional explanatory element is added, it results in an obvious increase in the length of a segment.

Text Complexity	POSITIVE-ALONE	NEGATIVE-ALONE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	18.51	19.09	793.29	0.0000	+++

Table 61. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE: text complexity in the LING corpus

Contrary to what could be seen for positive and negative evaluations, there is no statistically significant difference in the use of the first-person pronoun between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, as indicated in Table 62 below.

Reference Density	POSITIVE-ALONE	NEGATIVE-ALONE	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.43%	0.44%	0.01	0.9256	

Table 62. The first-person pronoun index for POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE and T-stat result in the LING corpus

The following discussion will primarily centre around parameters whose distribution within the corpus does not conform to the patterns observed in the higher-order parameters of POSITIVE- and NEGATIVE-ALONE types. Table 63 presents the results.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CONTENT	676	59.1	161	67.4	5.59	0.0180	+++	0.171
STYLE	154	13.5	46	19.2	5.32	0.0210	++	0.157
READERSHIP	129	11.3	5	2.1	19.08	0.0000	+++	0.395
TEXT	88	7.7	15	6.3	0.58	0.4462		0.056
AUTHOR	30	2.6	0	0.0	6.41	0.0113	+++	0.325
PUBLISHING	10	0.9	11	4.6	18.35	0.0000	+++	0.245
GENERAL	54	4.7	0	0.0	11.75	0.0006	+++	0.438
TOTAL:	**1143**	**100.0%**	**239**	**100.0%**				

Table 63. The division of EVALUATION-OBJECT in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Table 63 demonstrates that except for TEXT, where the distribution of parameter across the EVALUATION-OBJECT class shows no statistically significant difference, the remaining parameters consistently adhere to the previously identified patterns. Specifically, references to CONTENT, STYLE, and PUBLISHING tend to occur proportionally more frequently within the NEGATIVE-ALONE category compared to the POSITIVE-ALONE category. It is worth noting that in terms of the absolute frequency of occurrence, POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations outnumber NEGATIVE ones nearly fivefold.

Analogous to the distribution observed in the positive and negative types, a similar pattern of evaluations emerges within the parameter of CONTENT-TYPE. In particular, negative evaluations tend to focus on the LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT, as exemplified in Table 64.

CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
GENERAL-CONTENT	455	39.8	34	14.2	56.58	0.0000	+++	0.592
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	221	19.3	127	53.1	119.88	0.0000	+++	0.723
TOTAL:	**676**	**59.1%**	**161**	**67.4%**				

Table 64. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

A brief comparison of Table 50 (SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE CONTENT-TYPE, page 250) and Table 65 below unveils an interesting nuance: the previously statistically significant difference between positive and negative types is now strikingly absent. There has also been observed a slight drop in significance in the case of APPROACH and COVERAGE. Still, these two parameters are more likely to get more favourable evaluations than unfavorable ones.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CURRENCY	26	2.3	4	1.7	0.34	0.5620		0.043
APPROACH	62	5.4	6	2.5	3.59	0.0582	+	0.152
COVERAGE	88	7.7	9	3.8	4.69	0.0304	++	0.172
CONTENT-QUALITY	162	14.2	9	3.8	19.75	0.0000	+++	0.381
NOVELTY	54	4.7	2	0.8	7.68	0.0056	+++	0.255
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	48	4.2	2	0.8	6.41	0.0113	+++	0.230
IMPLICATIONS	14	1.2	2	0.8	0.26	0.6101		0.039
APPLICABILITY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.21	0.6474		0.059
TOTAL:	**455**	**39.8%**	**34**	**14.2%**				

Table 65. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Out of the ten parameters, POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations exhibit a higher total occurrence for six parameters, excluding COHERENCE, MISSING-CONTENT, SCOPE, and BIAS. However, their distribution within this category remains dissimilar. The ChiSqu test results shown in Table 66 below demonstrate a statistically significant difference for COHERENCE, ARGUMENT-VALUE, MISSING-CONTENT, SCOPE, and BIAS.

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
COHERENCE	1	0.1	3	1.3	9.34	0.0022	+++	0.165
INSIGHT	38	3.3	4	1.7	1.83	0.1763		0.107
ARGUMENT-VALUE	44	3.8	22	9.2	12.47	0.0004	+++	0.222
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	121	10.6	34	14.2	2.63	0.1049		0.111
MISSING-CONTENT	0	0.0	54	22.6	268.75	0.0000	+++	0.991
METHOD	5	0.4	0	0.0	1.05	0.3057		0.132
SCOPE	8	0.7	9	3.8	15.29	0.0001	+++	0.223
BIAS	0	0.0	1	0.4	4.79	0.0287	++	0.129
TERMINOLOGY	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.42	0.5175		0.084
UTILITY	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.42	0.5175		0.084
TOTAL:	**221**	**19.3%**	**127**	**53.1%**				

Table 66. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Within the category of ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE, the trend towards negative evaluations of explanatory arguments remain intact, despite the overall count of positive evaluations being greater than negative ones.

ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DESCRIPTIVE	21	1.8	8	3.3	2.19	0.1386		0.096
EXPLANATORY	23	2.0	14	5.9	11.22	0.0008	+++	0.204
TOTAL:	**44**	**3.8%**	**22**	**9.2%**				

Table 67. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE SPECIFIC ARGUMENT/CONTENT: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

The contrast in STYLE-related values, between POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE instances is not statistically pronounced, paralleling the trends seen in POSITIVE- and NEGATIVE-type patterns. Once more, positive evaluations outnumber negative ones twofold. However, their proportions within the overall count of STYLE-related evaluations diverge. NEGATIVE-ALONE evaluations constitute 15.8% of all style evaluations, whereas this figure decreases to 9.8% for POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations, as illustrated in Table 68. Interestingly, NEGATIVE-ALONE evaluations have not been observed here, which seems to suggest that they are realized by other patterns, which require an additional comment.

STYLE-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CLARITY	52	4.5	15	6.3	1.28	0.2583		0.077
ORGANISATION	36	3.1	13	5.4	3.03	0.0817	+	0.114
CONCISENESS	6	0.5	5	2.1	6.15	0.0132	+++	0.145
DIFFICULTY	1	0.1	2	0.8	5.12	0.0236	++	0.124
READABILITY	28	2.4	6	2.5	0.00	0.9560		0.004
ATTRACTIVENESS	10	0.9	3	1.3	0.31	0.5796		0.037
PRECISION	13	1.1	0	0.0	2.74	0.0976	+	0.214
AUTHORITATIVE STYLE	4	0.3	0	0.0	0.84	0.3597		0.118
CONSISTENCY	3	0.3	2	0.8	1.81	0.1786		0.081
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
HUMOUR	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.21	0.6474		0.059

TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**154**	**13.5%**	**46**	**19.2%**				

Table 68. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE SPECIFIC STYLE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

The READERSHIP aspect is predominantly characterized by POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations (129 versus 5, and 11.3% versus 2.1%), which suggests that a majority of book authors demonstrate adeptness in crafting their works, according to the reviewers. The only parameter for which no statistically significant difference has been found is PURPOSE-RELEVANCE. The results are shown in Table 69 and Table 70.

READERSHIP-TYPE	**POSITIVE-ALONE**		**NEGATIVE-ALONE**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
RELEVANCE-TYPE	129	11.3	5	2.1	19.08	0.0000	+++	0.395
TOTAL:	**129**	**11.3%**	**5**	**2.1%**				

Table 69. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE READERSHIP-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

RELEVANCE-TYPE-TYPE	**POSITIVE-ALONE**		**NEGATIVE-ALONE**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	28	2.4	0	0.0	5.98	0.0145	+++	0.314
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	23	2.0	2	0.8	1.54	0.2150		0.101
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	78	6.8	3	1.3	11.11	0.0009	+++	0.304
TOTAL:	**129**	**11.3%**	**5**	**2.1%**				

Table 70. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE RELEVANCE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

When considering TEXT, various statistically significant differences observed between positive and negative evaluations lose their validity. The only exception is the parameter of EXTENT. Nonetheless, positive evaluations still outnumber negative ones. Once again, reviews tend to center around the presence or absence of textual elements like EXAMPLES, EXERCISES, or REFERENCES. Table 71 shows the results in detail.

TEXT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXTENT	1	0.1	5	2.1	18.37	0.0000	+++	0.231
REFERENCES	17	1.5	6	2.5	1.26	0.2608		0.074
DIAGRAMS	4	0.3	0	0.0	0.84	0.3597		0.118
EXERCISES	12	1.0	1	0.4	0.85	0.3577		0.076
INDEX	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.42	0.5175		0.084
GLOSSARY	6	0.5	0	0.0	1.26	0.2616		0.145
NOTATION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
APPENDIX	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.63	0.4278		0.103
TRANSCRIPTS	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.21	0.6474		0.059
EXAMPLES	25	2.2	2	0.8	1.88	0.1701		0.114
DATA	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.42	0.5175		0.084
RESOURCES	6	0.5	0	0.0	1.26	0.2616		0.145
SUMMARY	4	0.3	0	0.0	0.84	0.3597		0.118
TITLE	1	0.1	1	0.4	1.50	0.2210		0.070
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.63	0.4278		0.103
AUXILIARY-DATA	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.21	0.6474		0.059
TOTAL:	**88**	**7.7%**	**15**	**6.3%**				

Table 71. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE TEXT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus in the LING corpus

When considering parameters with entirely positive evaluations only, AUTHOR-TYPE stands out, as no NEGATIVE-ALONE evaluations has been recorded for it. The top four parameters that consistently receive positive comments within this category are EXPERIENCE-AND REPUTATION, EXPERIENCE, REPUTATION and KNOWLEDGE. The results are shown in Table 72.

AUTHOR-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison				
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif		Effect Size
EXPERIENCE	8	0.7	0	0.0	1.68	0.1946			0.168
REPUTATION	6	0.5	0	0.0	1.26	0.2616			0.145
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	6	0.5	0	0.0	1.26	0.2616			0.145
TALENT	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.42	0.5175			0.084
SELF-CRITICAL	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.21	0.6474			0.059
KNOWLEDGE	5	0.4	0	0.0	1.05	0.3057			0.132
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.42	0.5175			0.084
TOTAL:	**30**	**2.6%**	**0**	**0.0%**					

Table 72. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE AUTHOR-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

As far as PRODUCTION-STANDARDS are concerned, when examining either POSITIVE-ALONE or NEGATIVE-ALONE evaluations, two parameters emerge as noteworthy: EDITING and TYPOGRAPHY. Importantly, no statistical significant different has been identified for three parameters. Table 73 shows the results.

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
TYPOGRAPHY	3	0.3	4	1.7	7.81	0.0052	+++	0.157
PRICE	0	0.0	1	0.4	4.79	0.0287	++	0.129
EDITING	7	0.6	6	2.5	7.64	0.0057	+++	0.162
WRONG-TITLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
SIZE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
PHYSICAL-QUALITY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**10**	**0.9%**	**11**	**4.6%**				

Table 73. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE PRODUCTION STANDARDS: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

In conclusion, the parameter of GENERAL-TYPE is predominantly characterized by POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations. However, a statistically significant difference has been found only for the category of IMPRESSIVE, as indicated in Table 74 below.

GENERAL-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
INSPIRING	9	0.8	0	0.0	1.89	0.1687		0.178
IMPORTANCE	5	0.4	0	0.0	1.05	0.3057		0.132
EXCEPTIONALITY	4	0.3	0	0.0	0.84	0.3597		0.118
IMPRESSIVE	20	1.7	0	0.0	4.24	0.0394	++	0.265
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
CHALLENGING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
AMBITIOUS	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.63	0.4278		0.103
APPRECIATION	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.42	0.5175		0.084
SUCCESSFUL	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.42	0.5175		0.084
WELL-CRAFTED	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
RECOMMENDED	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.21	0.6474		0.059
ENJOYABLE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.21	0.6474		0.059
INTERESTING	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.63	0.4278		0.103
VALUABLE	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.63	0.4278		0.103
TERRIFIC	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
GRATITUDE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.21	0.6474		0.059
TOTAL:	**54**	**4.7%**	**0**	**0.0%**				

Table 74. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE GENERAL-TYPE: general and descriptive statistic in the LING corpus

7.2.4. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON vs NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON

As defined earlier, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON refer to evaluative acts where the reviewer's evaluation is explained either by the same segment or a neighbouring one. Essentially, the inclusion of REASON aims to provide clarity regarding the rationale behind a particular evaluation.

SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE N	SIMPLE-POSITIVE %
- POSITIVE-ALONE	1143	74.0
- POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	360	23.4
- POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	39	2.5
TOTAL:	**1542**	**100.0%**

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE N	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE %
- NEGATIVE-ALONE	239	40.9
- NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	314	53.6
- NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	34	5.8
TOTAL:	**587**	**100.0%**

Table 48. Simple-positive and simple-negative compared

Table 48, presented here again for ease of reference, illustrates that the combination of positive evaluation with an accompanying reason constitutes the second most frequently employed form of positive evaluation. Meanwhile, the pairing for negative evaluation with an associated reason holds the top position among the three fundamental categories of SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations.

Considering the average length of a segment, there is a statistically significant difference between POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON evaluations, shown in Table 75 below. When the figures are compared with the results for SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, it can be observed that the fact that additional explanatory element is added results in an understandable increase of the segment length.

Text Complexity	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	28.97	29.09	191.50	0.0000	+++

Table 75. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON: text complexity in the LING corpus

It is also interesting to note that the inclusion of the reason segment results in the increased value of the first-person reference density in the case of the NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON. Table 76 shows this result.

Reference Density	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.24%	0.58%	14.17	0.0002	+++

Table 76. The first person reference index for POSITIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON polarities and T-stat results in the LING corpus

Although the general number of positive evaluations is lower by three times and of negative ones higher than for the category of POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE, respectively, the general trend identified for positive and negative evaluations remains unchanged, i.e., CONTENT is proportionally the most often evaluated element, as shown in Table 77.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CONTENT	248	68.9	229	72.9	1.32	0.2499		0.089
STYLE	18	5.0	50	15.9	22.06	0.0000	+++	0.370
READERSHIP	47	13.1	6	1.9	28.75	0.0000	+++	0.462
TEXT	27	7.5	15	4.8	2.13	0.1446		0.114
AUTHOR	13	3.6	3	1.0	5.10	0.0239	++	0.187
PUBLISHING	0	0.0	10	3.2	11.64	0.0007	+++	0.359
GENERAL	6	1.7	0	0.0	5.28	0.0216	++	0.259
TOTAL:	**360**	**100.0%**	**314**	**100.0%**				

Table 77. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON EVALUATION-OBJECT: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

However, a few minor changes have been noticed. Previously, STYLE was noted as one of the parameters frequently receiving positive feedback. Now, it has been noticed that STYLE receives fewer positive evaluations. On the other hand, there has been a rise in the count of negative evaluations for CONTENT. The parameters that display statistically significant difference in the Chi-square test are presented in Table 77.

The distribution of positive and negative evaluations continues to reflect the trend mentioned earlier expressing a relatively higher proportion of negative evaluations for LOCAL-CONTENT and positive ones when GENERAL-CONTENT is considered, as shown in Table 78.

CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
GENERAL-CONTENT	128	35.6	29	9.2	65.02	0.0000	+++	0.660
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	120	33.3	200	63.7	62.00	0.0000	+++	0.617
TOTAL:	**248**	**68.9%**	**229**	**72.9%**				

Table 78. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Changes in the evaluation of content are influenced by shifts in individual component parameters. Consequently, a slightly higher share of CONTENT-QUALITY and APPROACH in the total positive evaluation is apparent. When considering negative evaluations, a noticeable rise in such assessments is observable for APPROACH, accompanied by a decrease for the parameters of CURRENCY and CONTENT-QUALITY. For a few parameters, already marginally represented earlier, no negative evaluations have been noted. These are NOVELTY, SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE, and IMPLICATIONS. Table 79 below shows the results.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CURRENCY	10	2.8	1	0.3	6.32	0.0120	+++	0.222
APPROACH	29	8.1	15	4.8	2.95	0.0857	+	0.135
COVERAGE	21	5.8	7	2.2	5.47	0.0193	+++	0.188
CONTENT-QUALITY	29	8.1	6	1.9	12.86	0.0003	+++	0.298
NOVELTY	16	4.4	0	0.0	14.29	0.0002	+++	0.425
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	18	5.0	0	0.0	16.13	0.0001	+++	0.451
IMPLICATIONS	3	0.8	0	0.0	2.63	0.1050		0.183
APPLICABILITY	2	0.6	0	0.0	1.75	0.1859		0.149
TOTAL:	**128**	**35.6%**	**29**	**9.2%**				

Table 79. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

For most of the parameters included in SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT, the trend observed earlier is maintained. However, there has been a very marked shift in the proportion of positive and negative evaluations. While in the case of POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE the number of evaluations was 221 and 127 respectively, for this category it is at 120 versus 200. However, taking into account their share, the proportion between then within this category has further widened, as negative evaluations in this category account for 63.7% of all negative evaluations. Noteworthy is the substantial rise in both negative and positive evaluations for one parameter, specifically ARGUMENT-VALUE. A similar increase in positive evaluations for INSIGHT has also been registered.

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
COHERENCE	3	0.8	7	2.2	2.24	0.1348		0.117
INSIGHT	29	8.1	2	0.6	21.04	0.0000	+++	0.416
ARGUMENT-VALUE	24	6.7	70	22.3	34.12	0.0000	+++	0.461
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	58	16.1	37	11.8	2.59	0.1073		0.125
MISSING-CONTENT	0	0.0	67	21.3	85.29	0.0000	+++	0.960
METHOD	4	1.1	5	1.6	0.29	0.5872		0.042
SCOPE	2	0.6	7	2.2	3.57	0.0590	+	0.151
BIAS	0	0.0	3	1.0	3.45	0.0631	+	0.196
TERMINOLOGY	0	0.0	2	0.6	2.30	0.1294		0.160
UTILITY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**120**	**33.3%**	**200**	**63.7%**				

Table 80. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Within the category of ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE, the consistent pattern of negative evaluations for both EXPLANATORY and DESCRIPTIVE arguments remains intact. Yet, a significant difference becomes apparent when examining the overall evaluation count within this category – negative evaluations surpass positive ones by a factor of three, as shown in Table 81.

ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DESCRIPTIVE	7	1.9	14	4.5	3.51	0.0609	+	0.146
EXPLANATORY	17	4.7	56	17.8	29.86	0.0000	+++	0.434
TOTAL:	**24**	**6.7%**	**70**	**22.3%**				

Table 81. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Interesting findings are reported in the analysis of evaluation of STYLE, presented in Table 82. The pattern with the component of REASON is practically marginal, which contrasts with the results obtained from the analysis of POSITIVE-ALONE. This implies that reviewers find themselves content with the mere suggestion of stylistic excellence, deeming it an implicit attribute. By contrast, the frequency of critical assessments aligns closely with that observed for negative ones.

STYLE-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CLARITY	3	0.8	11	3.5	5.88	0.0153	+++	0.194
ORGANISATION	8	2.2	19	6.1	6.39	0.0114	+++	0.198
CONCISENESS	0	0.0	6	1.9	6.94	0.0084	+++	0.277
DIFFICULTY	1	0.3	1	0.3	0.01	0.9228		0.007
READABILITY	4	1.1	8	2.5	1.98	0.1594		0.109
ATTRACTIVENESS	0	0.0	1	0.3	1.15	0.2839		0.113
PRECISION	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
AUTHORITATIVE	1	0.3	1	0.3	0.01	0.9228		0.007
CONSISTENCY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	0	0.0	3	1.0	3.45	0.0631	+	0.196
HUMOUR	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**18**	**5.0%**	**50**	**15.9%**				

Table 82. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON STYLE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Moving on to the subsequent parameter, namely RELEVANCE-TYPE, the overarching trend for positive and negative evaluations remains unaltered. Once again, the assessment by READERSHIP predominantly leans towards positive evaluations.

RELEVANCE-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	10	2.8	0	0.0	8.85	0.0029	+++	0.335
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	7	1.9	3	1.0	1.12	0.2894		0.084
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	30	8.3	3	1.0	19.61	0.0000	+++	0.390
TOTAL:	**47**	**13.1%**	**6**	**1.9%**				

Table 83. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON RELEVANCE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

READERSHIP-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
RELEVANCE-TYPE	47	13.1	6	1.9	28.75	0.000	+++	0.462
TOTAL:	**47**	**13.1%**	**6**	**1.9%**				

Table 84. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON READERSHIP-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

While the general proportion between POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON is very much the same, it is important to note that the number of positive evaluations when compared with POSITIVE-ALONE is much lower (27 versus 88). However, a statistically significant difference has been found only for the parameter of RESOURCES, as shown in Table 87. A broad inference drawn from the data is that positive evalution of TEXT commonly lack an accompanying component of REASON.

TEXT-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXTENT	2	0.6	4	1.3	0.98	0.3220		0.077
REFERENCES	2	0.6	1	0.3	0.21	0.6446		0.036
DIAGRAMS	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
EXERCISES	8	2.2	2	0.6	2.88	0.0895	+	0.139
INDEX	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
GLOSSARY	1	0.3	1	0.3	0.01	0.9228		0.007
NOTATION	0	0.0	1	0.3	1.15	0.2839		0.113
APPENDIX	2	0.6	1	0.3	0.21	0.6446		0.036
TRANSCRIPTS	0	0.0	1	0.3	1.15	0.2839		0.113
EXAMPLES	4	1.1	1	0.3	1.43	0.2316		0.098
DATA	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
RESOURCES	5	1.4	0	0.0	4.39	0.0361	++	0.236
SUMMARY	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
TITLE	0	0.0	2	0.6	2.30	0.1294		0.160
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	1	0.3	1.15	0.2839		0.113
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
AUXILIARY-DATA	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**27**	**7.5%**	**15**	**4.8%**				

Table 85. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON TEXT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

The parameter of AUTHOR is predominantly evaluated positively even though the count of positive evaluations is fewer when compared to POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations (the reader is referred to Table 48). It is interesting to note that three NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON evaluations have appeared in this category. This indicates that while terms like “experience” and “renowned” suffice for describing positive attributes without stating any reason, negative evaluations call for an explanation. Table 86 below shows the results.

AUTHOR-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXPERIENCE	2	0.6	1	0.3	0.21	0.6446		0.036
REPUTATION	2	0.6	0	0.0	1.75	0.1859		0.149
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	6	1.7	1	0.3	2.97	0.0850	+	0.146
TALENT	2	0.6	0	0.0	1.75	0.1859		0.149
SELF-CRITICAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
KNOWLEDGE	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	0	0.0	1	0.3	1.15	0.2839		0.113
TOTAL:	**13**	**3.6%**	**3**	**1.0%**				

Table 86. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON AUTHOR-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

The category of PRODUCTION-STANDARDS has been completely dominated by negative-plus-reason evaluations, yet 8 out of 10 concern only the parameter of TYPOGRAPHY. It would be worth recalling that the number of POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations reached the level of 10. This allows one to venture a conclusion that "positive" is viewed as a norm that does not require a justification. Table 87 shows the data.

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
TYPOGRAPHY	0	0.0	8	2.5	9.28	0.0023	+++	0.321
PRICE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
EDITING	0	0.0	1	0.3	1.15	0.2839		0.113
WRONG-TITLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
SIZE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
PHYSICAL-QUALITY	0	0.0	1	0.3	1.15	0.2839		0.113
TOTAL:	**0**	**0.0%**	**10**	**3.2%**				

Table 87. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON PRODUCTION-STANDARDS: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

Finally, in the case of the GENERAL-TYPE category, there can be observed a clear reversal of proportions as compared to PRODUCTION STANDARDS (Table 87). While positive evaluation was completely absent in the latter case, negative evaluation is absent in the case of GENERAL-TYPE. The data are presented in Table 88.

GENERAL-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
INSPIRING	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
IMPORTANCE	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105

EXCEPTIONALITY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
IMPRESSIVE	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
CHALLENGING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
AMBITIOUS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
APPRECIATION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
SUCCESSFUL	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
WELL-CRAFTED	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
RECOMMENDED	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
ENJOYABLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
INTERESTING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
VALUABLE	1	0.3	0	0.0	0.87	0.3500		0.105
TERRIFIC	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
GRATITUDE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**6**	**1.7%**	**0**	**0.0%**				

Table 88. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON GENERAL-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

7.2.5. POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER VS NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER

The concluding section of this chapter on the parameters of POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER will adopt a slightly different format. Following the presentation of overall statistics regarding the length of a segment and positivity and negativity, there will be a comparative examination of the three initially identified patterns: POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER. It is expected that this analysis will enable the description POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER, while simultaneously highlighting variations in the enactment of these patterns.

SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE	**SIMPLE-POSITIVE**	
	N	**%**
POSITIVE-ALONE	1143	74.0
POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	360	23.4
POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	39	2.5
TOTAL:	**1542**	**100.0%**

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE	**SIMPLE-NEGATIVE**	
	N	**%**
NEGATIVE-ALONE	239	40.9
NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	314	53.6
NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	34	5.8
TOTAL:	**587**	**100.0%**

Table 48. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE compared

Table 48, presented here again for ease of reference, illustrates that the combination of POSITIVE/NEGATIVE EVALUTION-PLUS-OTHER segments is poorly represented in the corpus, accounting for 2.5% of all positive evaluations and 5.8% of negative ones.

As indicated in Table 89, the mean segment length for negative evaluations is larger, and this difference is statistically significant. This observation already implies that offering criticism demands more words than expressing praise.

Text Complexity	POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	27.24	30.97	710.10	0.0000	+++

Table 89. POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS OTHER: text complexity in the LING corpus

As previously, NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER exhibits the least subjective positivity index up to this point.

Subjectivity	POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER
Subjective Positivity	0.295	-0.005

Table 90. POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS OTHER: subjective positivity index in the LING corpus

Equally unexpectedly, it also displays a diminished reference density, suggesting a higher number of occurrences of the first-person pronoun references in positive comments. As a matter of fact, “other comments” tend to display the reviewers’ personal comments, as in:

> (102) Potentially, this book could inspire a significant shift in genre theory's emphasis, so I highly recommend it for any scholar or graduate student pursuing research in this area. [Linguistics/ESP_004_2012.text]

Reference Density	positive-plus-other	negative-plus-other	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.36%	0%	3.91	0.0480	++

Table 91. The first-person reference index for POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS OTHER and T-stat results in the LING corpus

Taking into account EVALUATION-OBJECTS, there has been found the following distribution of praise and criticism, shown in Table 92 and Figure 47 below.

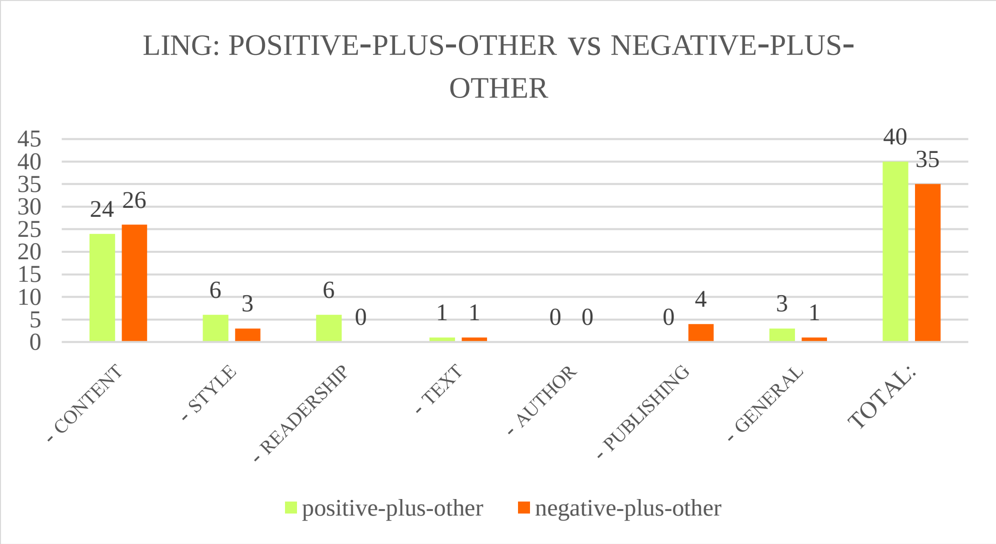


Figure 47. The distribution of major EVALUATION-OBJECTS in terms of polarity: POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER vs. NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in the LING corpus

EVALUATION-OBJECT	POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CONTENT	24	58.5	26	74.3	2.08	0.1492		0.336
STYLE	6	14.6	3	8.6	0.66	0.4149		0.191
READERSHIP	6	14.6	0	0.0	5.56	0.0184	+++	0.785
TEXT	1	2.4	1	2.9	0.01	0.9096		0.026
AUTHOR	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
PUBLISHING	0	0.0	4	11.4	4.95	0.0262	++	0.690
GENERAL	3	7.3	1	2.9	0.75	0.3854		0.208
TOTAL:	**40**	**97.6%**	**35**	**100.0 %**				

Table 92. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON EVALUATION-OBJECT: general and descriptive statistics in the LING corpus

What follows is that differences between POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER versus NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER are statistically insignificant with the exception of READERSHIP and PUBLISHING.

Turning to the upper-layer parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT it can be observed that POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER plays a very insignificant role in positive evaluations accounting for as little as 40 occurrences out of over 1500 positive evaluations. Most of them focus on CONTENT, and are followed by positive evaluations of STYLE and readership. Three of them belong to the GENERAL-TYPE and only one refers to TEXT.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CONTENT	676	59.1	248	68.9	24	58.5
STYLE	154	13.5	18	5.0	6	14.6
READERSHIP	129	11.3	47	13.1	6	14.6
TEXT	88	7.7	27	7.5	1	2.4
AUTHOR	30	2.6	13	3.6	0	0.0
PUBLISHING	10	0.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
GENERAL	54	4.7	6	1.7	3	7.3
TOTAL:	**1142**	**100.0%**	**360**	**100.0%**	**40**	**100.00%**

Table 93. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in EVALUATION-OBJECT: comparison

A similar comparison of EVALUATION-OBJECT for the three types of negative evaluations presents a very similar picture although the share of NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER is markedly bigger when compared with the share of POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER. However, negative evaluations refer to different parameters than the positive ones do. While their major part refers to CONTENT and STYLE, unlike the negative ones, they are used to criticize PUBLISHING rather than AUTHOR. Table 94 shows the results in detail.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CONTENT	161	67.4	229	72.9	26	74.3
STYLE	46	19.2	50	15.9	3	8.6
READERSHIP	5	2.1	6	1.9	0	0.0
TEXT	15	6.3	15	4.8	1	2.9
AUTHOR	0	0.0	3	1.0	0	0.0
PUBLISHING	11	4.6	10	3.2	4	11.4
GENERAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.9
TOTAL:	**238**	**100.0%**	**313**	**100.0%**	**35**	**100.0%**

Table 94. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in EVALUATION-OBJECT: comparison

As in the cases described earlier, POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER is the least represented parameter for GENERAL-CONTENT when compared with other positive types. Its different types have a fairly even distribution ranging from two to four occurrences, with no hints in the corpus for IMPLICATIONS and APPLICABILITY.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CURRENCY	26	2.3	10	2.8	2	4.9
APPROACH	62	5.4	29	8.1	3	7.3
COVERAGE	88	7.7	21	5.8	4	9.8
CONTENT-QUALITY	162	14.2	29	8.1	4	9.8
NOVELTY	54	4.7	16	4.4	2	4.9
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	48	4.2	18	5.0	2	4.9
IMPLICATIONS	14	1.2	3	0.8	0	0.0
APPLICABILITY	1	0.1	2	0.6	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**455**	**39.8%**	**128**	**35.6%**	**17**	**41.5%**

Table 95. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE: comparison

With two instances of NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER evaluation of GENERAL-CONTENT, this pattern is practically of no importance in shaping a general map of evaluation patterns in linguistics reviews.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CURRENCY	4	1.7	1	0.3	0	0.0
APPROACH	6	2.5	15	4.8	0	0.0
COVERAGE	9	3.8	7	2.2	0	0.0
CONTENT-QUALITY	9	3.8	6	1.9	1	2.9
NOVELTY	2	0.8	0	0.0	1	2.9
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	2	0.8	0	0.0	0	0.0
IMPLICATIONS	2	0.8	0	0.0	0	0.0
APPLICABILITY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**34**	**14.2%**	**29**	**9.2%**	**2**	**5.7%**

Table 96. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in EVALUATION OBJECT: comparison

With only seven POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER evaluations referring to SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT, the contribution of this pattern is very modest. Four of them are evaluations of LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE, which follows the same trend as in other positive patterns.

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
COHERENCE	1	0.1	3	0.8	0	0.0
INSIGHT	38	3.3	29	8.1	0	0.0
ARGUMENT-VALUE	44	3.8	24	6.7	1	2.4
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	121	10.6	58	16.1	4	9.8
MISSING-CONTENT	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0

METHOD	5	0.4	4	1.1	1	2.4
SCOPE	8	0.7	2	0.6	1	2.4
BIAS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TERMINOLOGY	2	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
utility	2	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**221**	**19.3%**	**120**	**33.3%**	**7**	**17.1%**

Table 97. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: comparison

Negative evaluations of SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT represent nearly 70% of all NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER evaluations. When contrasted with other negative evaluations, this indicates that its impact on the NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER category is most significant. However, when considering the overall frequency of negative evaluations in SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT, the count is relatively low, even though three times greater than that of the POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER counterpart (see Table 97 above).

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	**NEGATIVE-ALONE**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
COHERENCE	3	1.3	7	2.2	0	0.0
INSIGHT	4	1.7	2	0.6	0	0.0
ARGUMENT-VALUE	22	9.2	70	22.3	3	8.6
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	34	14.2	37	11.8	3	8.6
MISSING-CONTENT	54	22.6	67	21.3	16	45.7
METHOD	0	0.0	5	1.6	0	0.0
SCOPE	9	3.8	7	2.2	2	5.7
BIAS	1	0.4	3	1.0	0	0.0
TERMINOLOGY	0	0.0	2	0.6	0	0.0
UTILITY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**127**	**53.1%**	**200**	**63.7%**	**24**	**68.6%**

Table 98. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: comparison

When measured in terms of its share in the POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER patterns, STYLE appears to be an important parameter since the share is the highest of all positive parameters of evaluation. However, as can be seen from Table 99, the overall contribution of this result remains minimal, with a mere six instances observed, evenly distributed between the categories of CLARITY and ORGANIZATION.

STYLE-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CLARITY	52	4.5	3	0.8	3	7.3
ORGANISATION	36	3.1	8	2.2	3	7.3
CONCISENESS	6	0.5	0	0.0	0	0.0
DIFFICULTY	1	0.1	1	0.3	0	0.0
READABILITY	28	2.4	4	1.1	0	0.0
ATTRACTIVENESS	10	0.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
PRECISION	13	1.1	1	0.3	0	0.0
AUTHORITATIVE	4	0.3	1	0.3	0	0.0
CONSISTENCY	3	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
HUMOUR	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**154**	**13.5%**	**18**	**5.0%**	**6**	**14.6%**

Table 99. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in STYLE-TYPE: comparison

As shown in Table 100 the NEGATE-PLUS-OTHER pattern reveals a total of three evaluations, with two instances targeting CONCISENESS and one focusing on ORGANIZATION.

STYLE-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CLARITY	15	6.3	11	3.5	0	0.0
ORGANISATION	13	5.4	19	6.1	1	2.9
CONCISENESS	5	2.1	6	1.9	2	5.7
DIFFICULTY	2	0.8	1	0.3	0	0.0
READABILITY	6	2.5	8	2.5	0	0.0
ATTRACTIVENESS	3	1.3	1	0.3	0	0.0
PRECISION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
AUTHORITATIVE	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
CONSISTENCY	2	0.8	0	0.0	0	0.0
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	0	0.0	3	1.0	0	0.0
HUMOUR	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**46**	**19.2%**	**50**	**15.9%**	**3**	**8.6%**

Table 100. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in STYLE-TYPE: comparison

Once more, considering the percentage distribution of POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER pattern as it related to READERSHIP, the value is even higher for the two other positive types of evaluations. Nonetheless, due to the relatively small count of POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER evaluations, shown in Tables 101 and 102, it becomes evident that its overall contribution remains marginal. The highest number has been observed for READERSHIP and RELEVANCE.

READERSHIP-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
RELEVANCE-TYPE	129	11.3	47	13.1	6	14.6
TOTAL:	**129**	**11.3%**	**47**	**13.1%**	**6**	**14.6%**

Table 101. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in READERSHIP-TYPE: comparison

RELEVANCE-TYPE-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	28	2.4	10	2.8	1	2.4
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	23	2.0	7	1.9	0	0.0
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	78	6.8	30	8.3	5	12.2
TOTAL:	**129**	**11.3%**	**47**	**13.1%**	**6**	**14.6%**

Table 102. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in RELEVANCE-TYPE: comparison

The NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER pattern, as evidenced by Table 103 and Table 104 does not exhibit any correlation with readership or relevance.

READERSHIP-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
RELEVANCE-TYPE	5	2.1	6	1.9	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**5**	**2.1%**	**6**	**1.9%**	**0**	**0.0%**

Table 103. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in READERSHIP-TYPE: comparison

RELEVANCE-TYPE-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	2	0.8	3	1.0	0	0.0
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	3	1.3	3	1.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**5**	**2.1%**	**6**	**1.9%**	**0**	**0.0%**

Table 104. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in RELEVANCE-TYPE: comparison

Moving on to the next parameter, it can be confidently stated that the POSITIVE/NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER patterns do not demonstrate a distinct focus on text evaluation. Only once occurrence was found to reach of these polarities, as indicated in Table 105 and Table 106.

TEXT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
EXTENT	1	0.1	2	0.6	0	0.0
REFERENCES	17	1.5	2	0.6	0	0.0
DIAGRAMS	4	0.3	1	0.3	0	0.0
EXERCISES	12	1.0	8	2.2	0	0.0
INDEX	2	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
GLOSSARY	6	0.5	1	0.3	0	0.0
NOTATION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
APPENDIX	3	0.3	2	0.6	0	0.0
TRANSCRIPTS	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
EXAMPLES	25	2.2	4	1.1	0	0.0
DATA	2	0.2	1	0.3	0	0.0
RESOURCES	6	0.5	5	1.4	1	2.4
SUMMARY	4	0.3	1	0.3	0	0.0
TITLE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	3	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
AUXILIARY-DATA	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**88**	**7.7%**	**27**	**7.5%**	**1**	**2.4%**

Table 105. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in TEXT-TYPE: comparison

TEXT-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
EXTENT	5	2.1	4	1.3	1	2.9
REFERENCES	6	2.5	1	0.3	0	0.0
DIAGRAMS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EXERCISES	1	0.4	2	0.6	0	0.0
INDEX	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
GLOSSARY	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
NOTATION	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
APPENDIX	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
TRANSCRIPTS	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
EXAMPLES	2	0.8	1	0.3	0	0.0
DATA	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
RESOURCES	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SUMMARY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TITLE	1	0.4	2	0.6	0	0.0
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
AUXILIARY-DATA	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**15**	**6.3%**	**15**	**4.8%**	**1**	**2.9%**

Table 106. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in TEXT-TYPE: comparison

Similar to the preceding scenario and as anticipated from the analyses of POSITIVE-ALONE and POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON cases, favourable comments concerning author predominantly manifest in the form of POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations. Therefore, it comes as no surprise to note that there has been found no instances of positive evaluations within the POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER category, as shown in Table 107.

The situation remains the same regarding the use of NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER patter for author criticism. Notably, there have been no instances recorded within this category. Table 108 presents the results.

AUTHOR-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
EXPERIENCE	8	0.7	2	0.6	0	0.0
REPUTATION	6	0.5	2	0.6	0	0.0
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	6	0.5	6	1.7	0	0.0
TALENT	2	0.2	2	0.6	0	0.0
SELF-CRITICAL	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
KNOWLEDGE	5	0.4	1	0.3	0	0.0
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	2	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**30**	**2.6%**	**13**	**3.6%**	**0**	**0.0%**

Table 107. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in AUTHOR-TYPE: comparison

AUTHOR-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
EXPERIENCE	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
REPUTATION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
TALENT	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SELF-CRITICAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
KNOWLEDGE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**0**	**0.0%**	**3**	**1.0%**	**0**	**0.0%**

Table 108. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in AUTHOR-TYPE: comparison

A quick look at the data presented in Table 109 shows that positive remarks on PRODUCTIONS-STANDARDS are limited to the POSITIVE-ALONE pattern. These evaluations are not accompanied by any explanatory or descriptive element.

The opposite situation is encountered in the case of criticism where all the three negative patterns are employed. The NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER pattern was found in four cases, as illustrated by Table 110.

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
TYPOGRAPHY	3	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
PRICE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EDITING	7	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0
WRONG-TITLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SIZE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
PHYSICAL-QUALITY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**10**	**0.9%**	**0**	**0.0%**	**0**	**0.0%**

Table 109. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in PRODUCTION-STANDARDS TYPE: comparison

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
TYPOGRAPHY	4	1.7	8	2.5	1	2.9
PRICE	1	0.4	0	0.0	0	0.0
EDITING	6	2.5	1	0.3	3	8.6
WRONG-TITLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SIZE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
PHYSICAL-QUALITY	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**11**	**4.6%**	**10**	**3.2%**	**4**	**11.4%**

Table 110. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in PRODUCTION-STANDARDS TYPE: comparison

Equally "uninteresting", yet shedding light on preferred evaluation patterns, is the GENERAL parameter. Within this context, three instances of POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER evaluations contribute to the overall count of 63 positive evaluations. In contrast, only one occurrence of NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER has been recorded, which clearly shows that the polarity of "general" evaluative words is positive. The results are presented in Table 111 and Table 112.

GENERAL-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
INSPIRING	9	0.8	1	0.3	1	2.4
IMPORTANCE	5	0.4	1	0.3	1	2.4
EXCEPTIONALITY	4	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
IMPRESSIVE	20	1.7	1	0.3	0	0.0
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
CHALLENGING	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.4
AMBITIOUS	3	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
APPRECIATION	2	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
SUCCESSFUL	2	0.2	1	0.3	0	0.0
WELL-CRAFTED	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
RECOMMENDED	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
ENJOYABLE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
INTERESTING	3	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
VALUABLE	3	0.3	1	0.3	0	0.0
TERRIFIC	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
GRATITUDE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0

TOTAL:	54	4.7%	6	1.7%	3	7.3%

Table 111. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in GENERAL-TYPE: comparison

GENERAL-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
INSPIRING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
IMPORTANCE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EXCEPTIONALITY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
IMPRESSIVE	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.9
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
CHALLENGING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
AMBITIOUS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
APPRECIATION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SUCCESSFUL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
WELL-CRAFTED	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
RECOMMENDED	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
ENJOYABLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
INTERESTING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
VALUABLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TERRIFIC	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
GRATITUDE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**0**	**0.0%**	**0**	**0.0%**	**1**	**2.9%**

Table 112. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in GENERAL-TYPE: comparison

7.3. CHAINED-POSITIVE vs CHAINED-NEGATIVE

As mentioned earlier, the terms CHAINED-POSITIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE describe scenarios where two or more evaluations occur within a single grammatical unit. This can happen within one clause or involve multiple clauses within a single sentence. Depending on the polarity, the former case is termed as INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE or INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE, while the latter is known as INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE or INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE. For each of the types, the element of the number of evaluations is taken into account, which results in a further division into DOUBLE and MULTIPLE types.

It has been demonstrated that SIMPLE-POSITIVE evaluations (1544) outnumbers the CHAINED-POSITIVE (291) ones by a factor of five, as evidenced in Figure 42, which is provided here again for the sake of convenience.

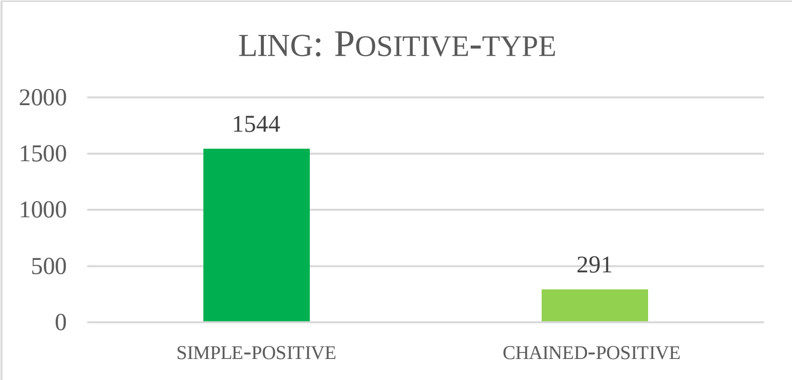


Fig. 42. The distribution of POSITIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

The examples of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE are provided below.

> (103)As with the rest of the book, rich descriptive insights are to be found here. [Linguistics/ESP_002_2011.txt]

> (104) The book contains seven chapters grouped in two parts - "describing workplace discourse" (Chapters 1-4) and "issues and applications in workplace discourse" (Chapters 5-7), which together make a rich and useful volume on both the theory and pedagogy of workplace discourse. [Linguistics/ESP_003_2012.txt]

Table 43, provided here for easy reference, shows that the gap between SIMPLE-NEGATIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE is even more pronounced. CHAINED-NEGATIVES occur almost 20 times less frequently in the corpus than SIMPLE-NEGATIVES.

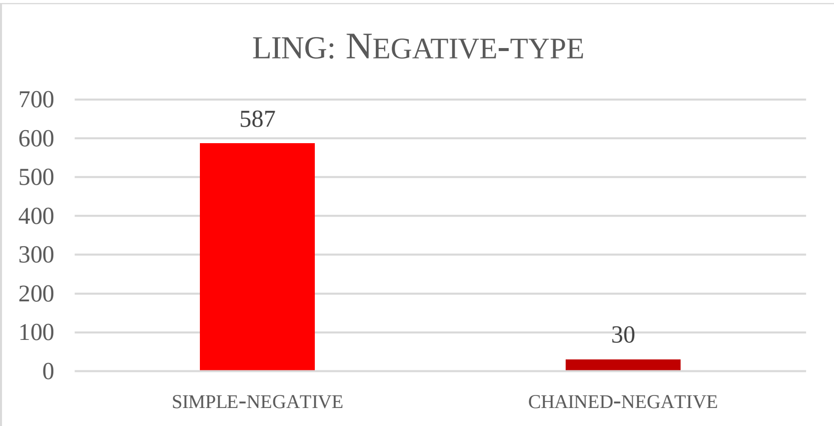


Figure 43. The distribution of NEGATIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

In the case of CHAINED-POSITIVE evaluations, the general division of the two categories into lower-order INTRACLAUSAL and INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE patterns, representing 176 and 115 instances, respectively, is shown in Figure 48 and Table 113 below. Figure 48 also shows the makeup of these categories in terms of POSITIVE DOUBLET and POSITIVE MULTIPLE patterns. Their percentage distribution indicated in Table 114 makes it evident that INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE evaluations are significantly more prevalent than their lengthier INTERCLAUSAL counterparts. So are positive doublet patterns when compared with POSITIVE-MULTIPLE patterns (see table 1) in both INTRACLAUSAL and INTERCLAUSAL patterns (see Table 114 and Table 115).

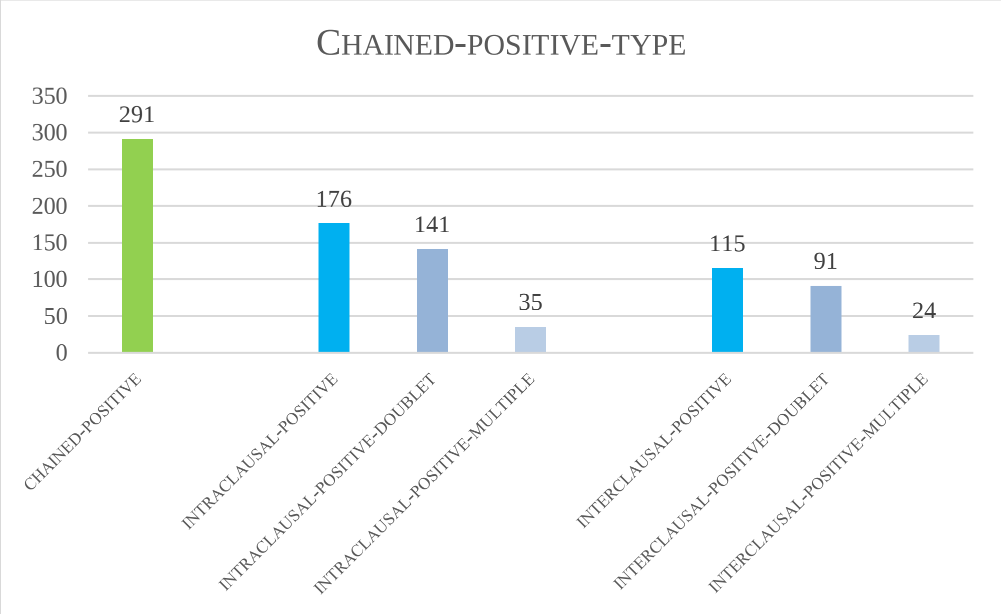


Figure 48. The distribution of CHAINED-POSITIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

CHAINED-POSITIVE-TYPE	N	%
INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE	176	60.3
INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE	115	39.7
TOTAL:	**291**	**100.0%**

Table 113. The distribution of CHAINED-POSITIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE	N	%
INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET	141	48.6
INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE	34	11.7
TOTAL:	**175**	**60.3%**

Table 114. The distribution of INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

The examples of CHAINED-POSITIVE TYPE are below.

(105) His discussion of types of matrices (pp. 129-132) for organizing and analyzing qualitative data **is very practical, as are his examples of computer software for analyzing NA corpora** [Linguistics/ESP_014_2017.txt]

(106) In a short review such as this, it is impossible to indicate all the linguistic highlights of **this informative and fact-heavy tome**. [Linguistics/JOL_005_2009.txt]

(107) Johnson **clearly and helpfully presents** concepts such as internalization (from the teacher manual to the teacher's own ideas, for example), mediation, and the zone of proximal development (ZPD). [Linguistics/LTR_005_2010.txt]

(108) It provides **remarkable guidelines** as well **as a great variety of examples** and **many health sciences students could benefit from its academic writing strategies**. [Linguistics/JOAP_016_2015.txt]

(109) Each chapter is **neatly accessible**, with **a useful introduction and conclusion** for students, **a substantial number of activities with example responses**, and **a list of further reading**. [Linguistics/jel_010_2016.txt]

INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE	N	%
INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET	91	31.4
INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE	24	8.3
TOTAL:	**115**	**39.7%**

Table 115. The distribution of INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE types are presented in the examples below.

(110) The evidence on the whole **is very convincing** and **the arguments are generally well-supported** by real examples from various corpora that Hyland has been investigating for many years. [Linguistics/JOAP_001_2008.txt]

(111) The book is **well-organized** and **provides a solid, well-rounded treatment** of the genres presented. [Linguistics/ESP_006_20173txt]

(112) Located **firmly** and **explicitly** within theories of discourse/language/literacy associated with new literacy studies, and drawing substantively on critical theories of globalization, ethnography, and world Englishes, Lillis and Curry's **study puts concepts drawn from these to insightful use**, **making the experience of reading the book an intellectual feast**. [Linguistics/WEN_003_2011.txt]

(113) In addition to **being indispensable to the scholarly community**, this book is **very accessible to the non-linguist**, **providing clear explanation** of linguistic concepts as they are introduced. [Linguistics/WEN_011_2015.txt]

In the case of CHAINED-NEGATIVE evaluations, a reversed proportion is noticeable between lower-level INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE patterns and those extending across different clauses, representing 10 and 20 instances, respectively, as shown in Figure 49 and Table 116. The distribution percentages, as presented in Table 118 make it clear that INTERCLAUSAL NEGATIVE evaluations, spanning different clauses are notably more frequent compared to intraclausal ones. This is true for both NEGATIVE-DOUBLET patterns and NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE patterns, as shown in Figure 117. The various sentence patterns are exemplified in sentences (114 –120)

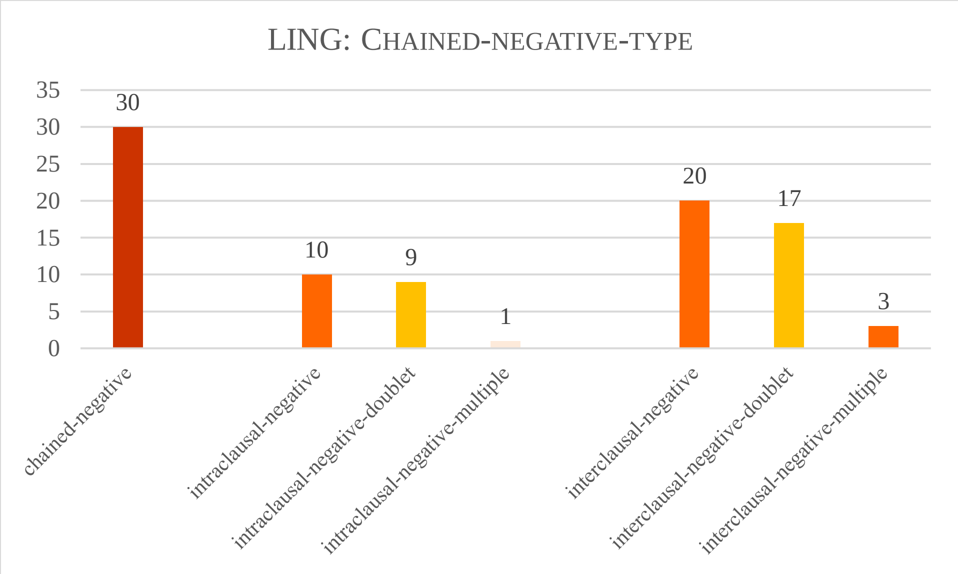


Figure 49. The distribution of CHAINED-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

CHAINED-NEGATIVE-TYPE	**N**	**%**
INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE	10	33.3
INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE	20	66.6
TOTAL:	**30**	**100.0%**

Table 116. The distribution of CHAINED-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE	**N**	**%**
INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET	9	33.7
INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE	1	3,8
TOTAL:	**12**	**37.5%**

Table 117. The distribution of INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

The examples of CHAINED-NEGATIVE-TYPE are provided below.

(114) Some may be disappointed by the focus in the analytic chapters on academic writings, and the lack of work on any of the mundane texts which are discussed in the introduction as performing so much social work. [Linguistics/DAN_008_2011.txt

(115) The chapter is both too long, in the context of the survey format, and too short, as an exegesis of a new approach to a complex issue. [Linguistics/JOL_002_2008.txt]

(116) Nevertheless, the collection would have benefited from a harmonization of the translation of the term sakprosa (non-fiction) into English (pp. 3, 40), as well as more precise editing, a more academic style and better consistency in its punctuation. [Linguistics/JOAP_004_2009.txt]

INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE	**N**	**%**
INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET	17	53.1
INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE	3	9.4
TOTAL:	**20**	**62.5%**

Table 118. The distribution of INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

(117) The rationale for including this is therefore confusing and seems a bit dated. [Linguistics/DAN_016_2015.txt]

(118) Nonetheless, Arbib fails to pay sufficient attention to some of these lampposts, and neglects others that can also shed important light on our understanding of language evolution. [Linguistics/LNG_010_2013.txt]

(119) There are of course inevitable limitations in the study's scope: the scholars considered are from locations arguably within the perimeter, if on the outskirts, of the geopolitical "centre" while also in the Kachruvian "Expanding Circle"; only two disciplines are represented by the scholars studied, albeit two that are useful to the study in having both "universal/theoretical" and "applied" dimensions; the focus is restricted to publication of research articles. [Linguistics/WEN_003_2011.txt]

(120) Bargiela-Chiappini and Haugh do the field a valuable service by putting together a diverse collection of papers that, while built upon these foundational authors, represent current trends and developments in research on face in social interaction. [Linguistics/JOS_008_2013.txt]

Due to the intricate and layered arrangement of CHAINED-POSITIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE patterns, a straightforward automated tally of their functions concerning EVALUATION-OBJECTS using the UAMCT method is unattainable. This difficulty arises from the inclusion of certain evaluation segments within larger segments across clauses. Only at the lowest level is the evaluation target chosen, as illustrated in Figure 53. If the analysis of the example in Figure 50 is relatively unproblematic as it does not lead to a double count of simpler parameters, the case shown in Figure 52 might lead to assigning the highlighted (in red) POSITIVE-ALONE to two upper-layer parameters.

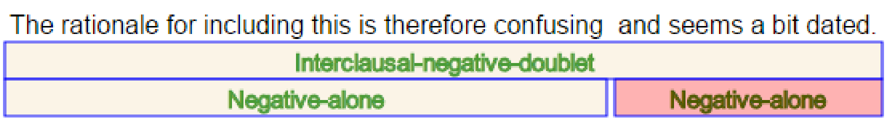


Fig. 50. Working with the UAMCT software: the analysis of the example (1)

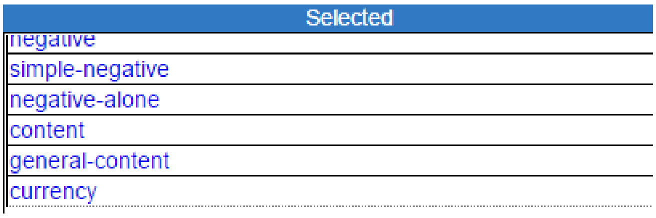


Fig. 51. Choosing the EVALUATION-OBJECT in the UAMCT software

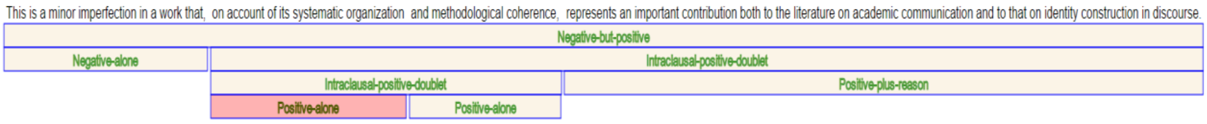


Fig. 52. Working with the UAMCT software: the analysis of the example (2)

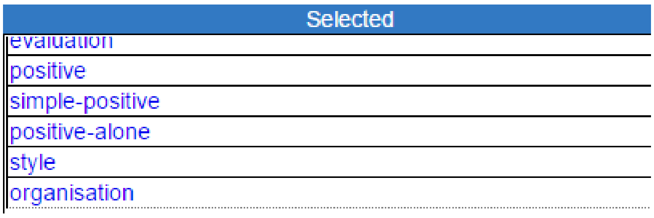


Fig. 53. Choosing the EVALUATION-OBJECT in the UAMCT software

As a result, it became necessary to conduct an assessment of both INTRACLAUSAL and INTERCLAUSAL evaluations individually in order to ascertain the prevalent sequences of evaluated objects. The most common patterns of EVALUATION-OBJECTS linked in the CHAINED patterns are presented in the sections below.

7.3.1. INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET

The analysis of evaluations within the INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET structure has revealed that CONTENT-QUALITY is the most commonly cited aspect, appearing in 46 doublets. Following this parameter is COVERAGE with a count of 25, READABILITY observed in 20 cases, and CLARITY with a score of 19. Figure 54 shows the leading eight parameters, irrespective of their position in the doublet.

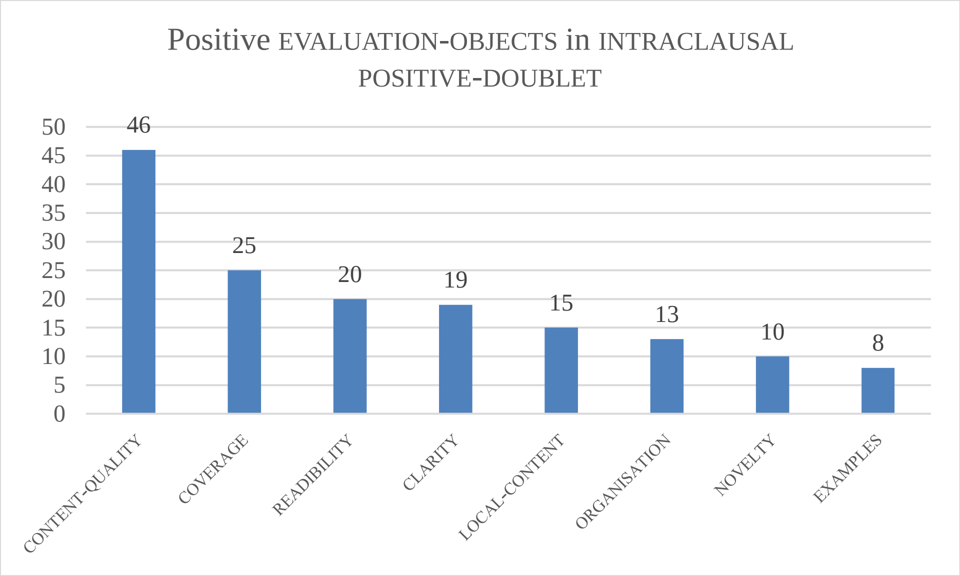


Figure 54. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET in the LING corpus

The results are slightly different if we consider the factor of the position of the evaluation in the doublets. Considering the first element of the doublet, CONTENT-QUALITY ranks first followed by COVERAGE, All results are shown in Figure 55.

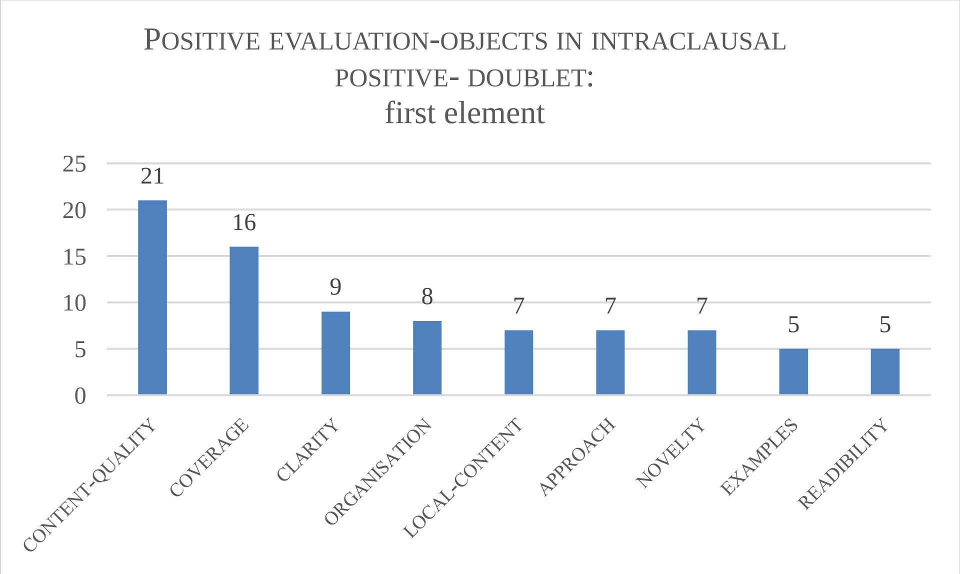


Fig. 55. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE DOUBLET: first element

If the focus is on the second parameter of a doublet, then, the top position of CONTENT-QUALITY remains unchallenged, while the score for COVERAGE is much lower. A parameter that has gained in importance is READABILITY coming second. The results are shown in Figure 56.

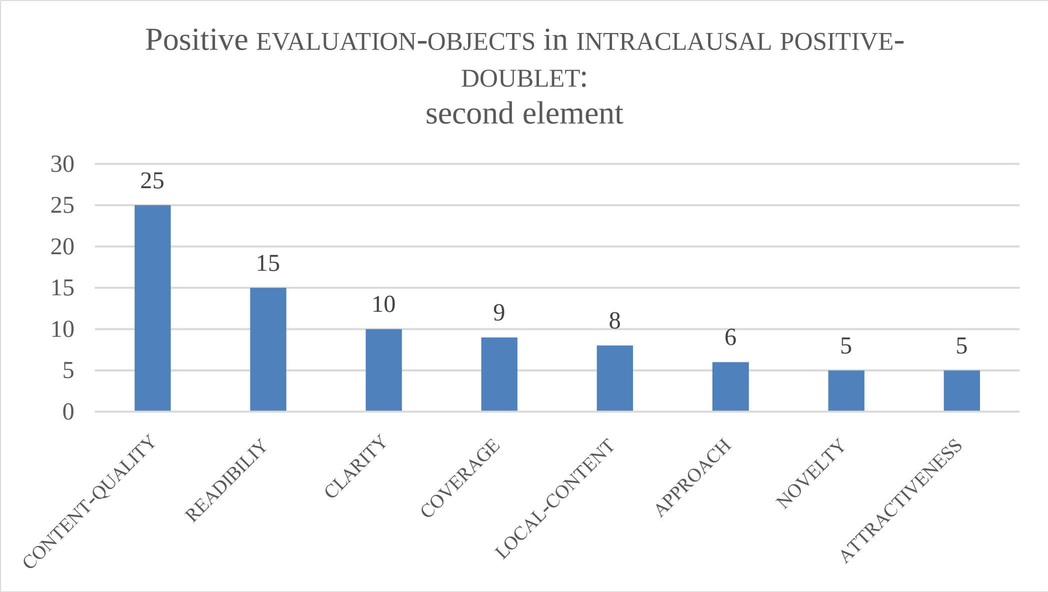


Fig. 56. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE DOUBLET: second element

Figure 57 below demonstrates the most common patterns of parameters in INTRACLAUSAL POSITIVE-DOUBLET. As can be seen, CONTENT-QUALITY keeps reappearing in them in different combinations.

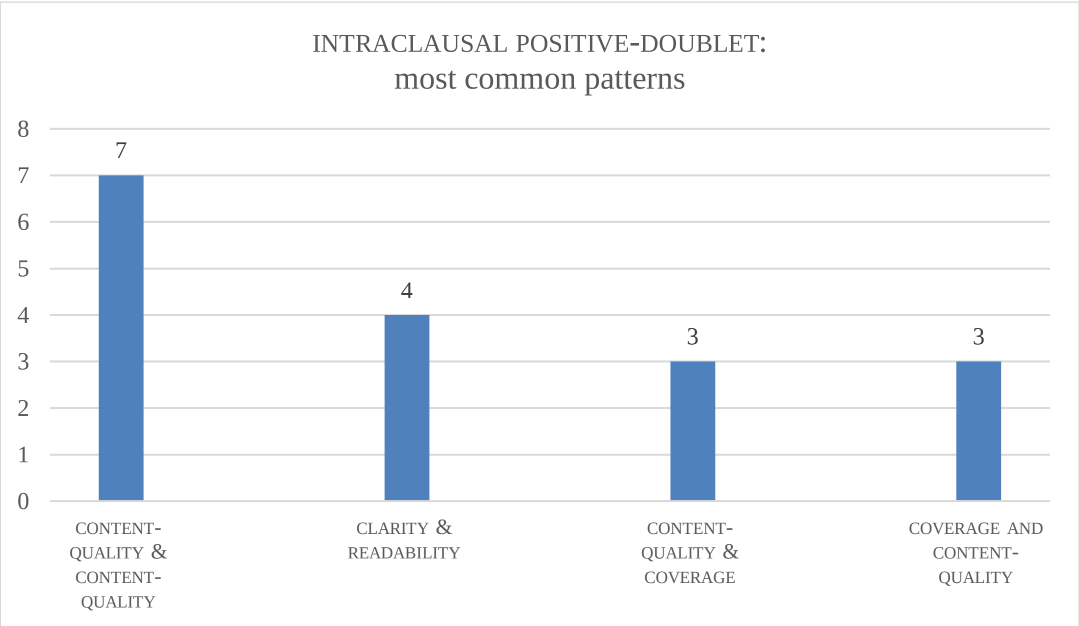


Figure 57. INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET: the most common patterns in the LING corpus

7.3.2. INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE

With only 34 occurrences in total, two of which are shown in the examples below, INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE is not richly represented in the corpus. As in the case of INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET, the most frequently referred to parameter is CONTENT-QUALITY, although high rank is RELEVANCE and COVERAGE. Their distribution is shown in Figure 58.

(121) The main strength of this book is its accessibility to teachers, with its personable language, illustrative examples, easily understood figures, tables and worksheets, and a practical model with a manageable number of constructs (PURPOSE-RELEVANCE; READABILITY; EXAMPLES; DIAGRAMS; RESOURCES)

(122) In seeking answers to these and myriad other questions through reading and engaging with Bell's book, students and researchers alike will find substantive knowledge, lofty wisdom, and inspiration to carry forward the tradition of study of the world's rich social and linguistic diversity in which Bell has long played a key part (CONTENT-QUALITY; NOVELTY; INSPIRING)

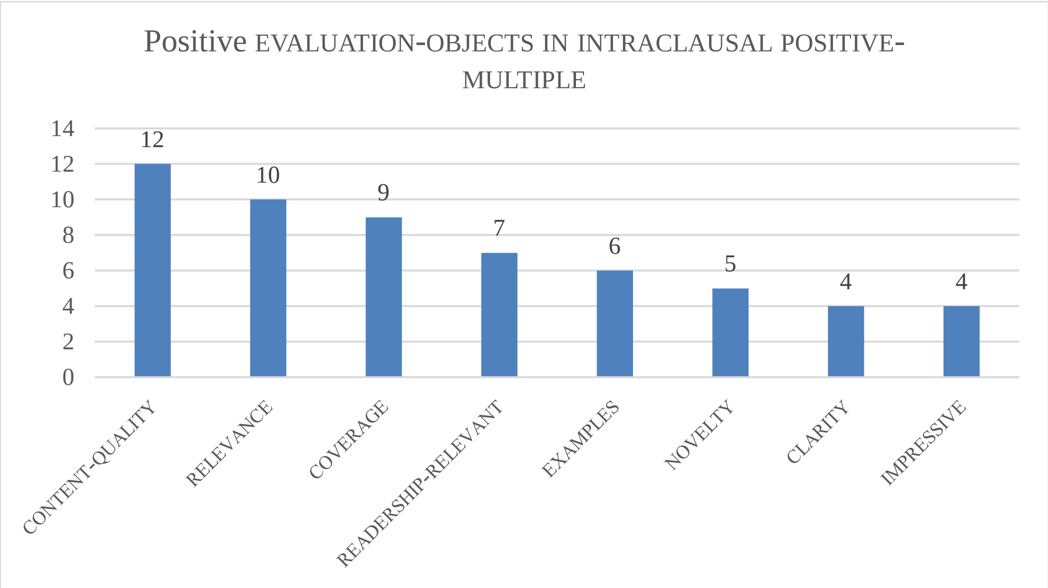
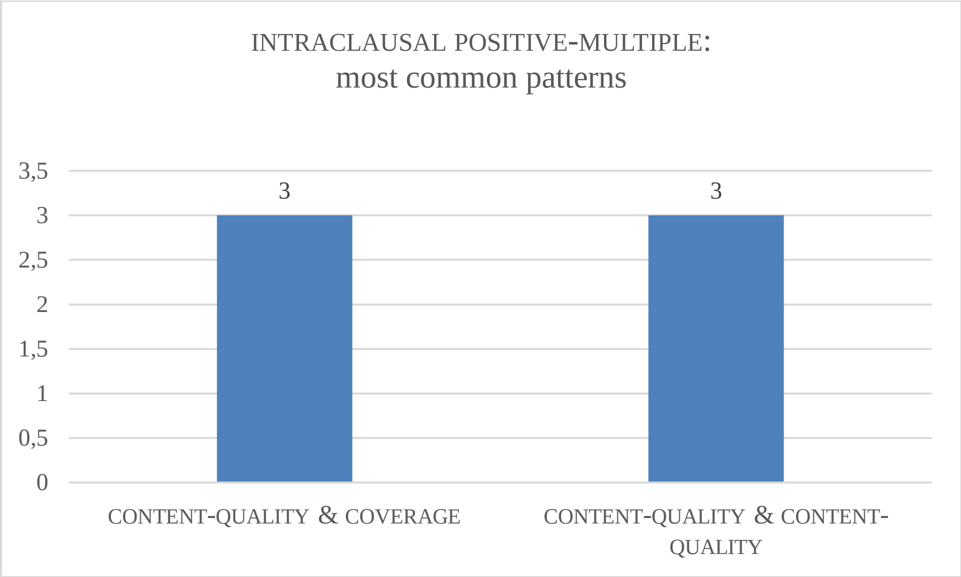


Fig. 58. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE in the LING corpus

Given a low number of instances of the pattern, it is not surprising that only two patterns have been identified as more common, shown in Figure 59 below.



Fig, 59. INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE: most common patterns in the LING corpus

7.3.3. INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET

INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET represents almost 32% of all CHAINED-POSITIVE pattern evaluations. Two examples from the corpus concordances are show below.

(123) The collection immerses the reader in diversity of views and succinctly captures the complex nature of advanced language capabilities. [Linguistics/LTR_002_2008.txt]

(124) This is their first venture into the area of mass media and popular culture, and it is an impressive one. [Linguistics/WEN_007_2013.txt]

As in the cases discussed above, the most common parameter of evaluation for this type is CONTENT-QUALITY followed by COVERAGE. It is also interesting to find that other parameters, previously unattested in the corpus, make a noticeable contribution. The results are shown in Figure 60.

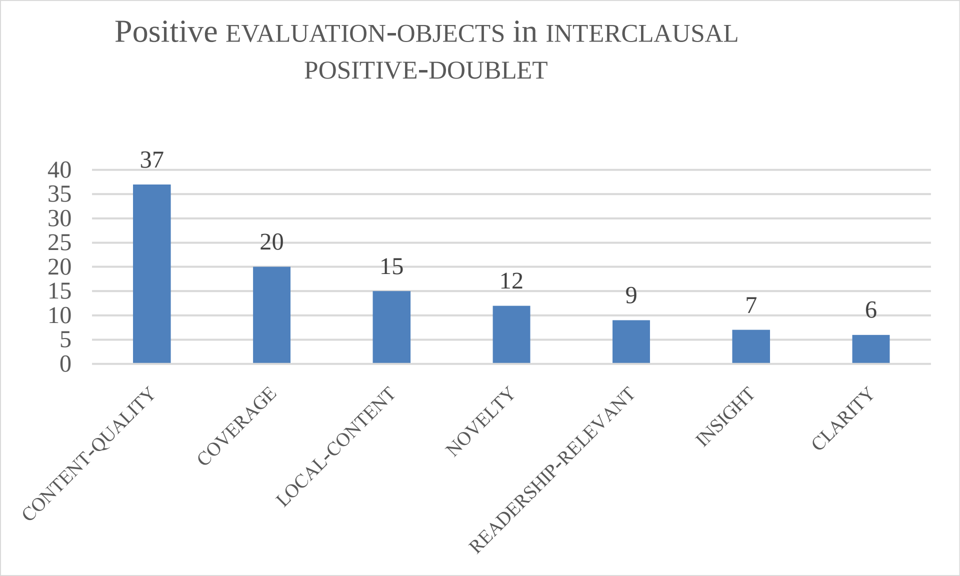


Fig. 60. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTERCLAUSAL POSITIVE-DOUBLET in the LING corpus

It has also been possible to identify more re-occurring combinations of features, most of them including CONTENT-QUALITY, as shown in Figure 61.

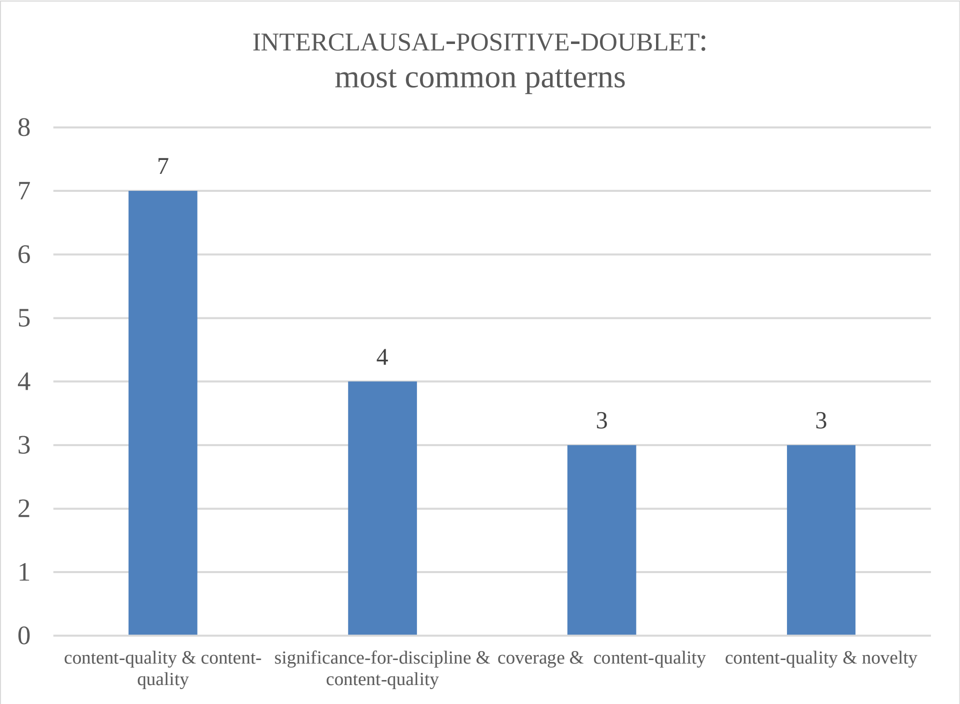


Fig. 61. INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET: most common patterns in the LING corpus

7.3.4. INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE

This pattern is the least represented in the LING corpus, as only 24 evaluations of this type were found. The longest INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE evaluation consisted of six evaluations acts: three evaluations were five-segment long, nine included four evaluations, and the remaining elven ones comprises three evaluations.

The most common parameter in the INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE is CONTENT-QUALITY (12 occurrences), followed by COVERAGE (7), ORGANIZATION (6), CURRENCY (5), APPROACH (5), READERSHIP-RELEVANCE (5), CLARITY (3), NOVELTY (3), and SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-DISCIPLINE. The examples (127 – 129) illustrate these patterns, while Figure 62 shows the findings in detail.

(125) For the most part, the analytic chapters are nicely bounded, can stand alone, and read rather fluidly for a seasoned scholar in the domain [Linguistics/DAN_004_2009.txt]

(126) An asset of this book is that it is an up-to-date review of current trends within the writing field that also provides concrete examples which are translatable across fields and professions for those who are interested in understanding this approach to learning and communicating [Linguistics/ESP_009_2015.txt]

(127) In addition to being indispensable to the scholarly community, this book is very accessible to the non-linguist, providing clear explanation of linguistic concepts as they are introduced [Linguistics/WEN_011_2015.txt]

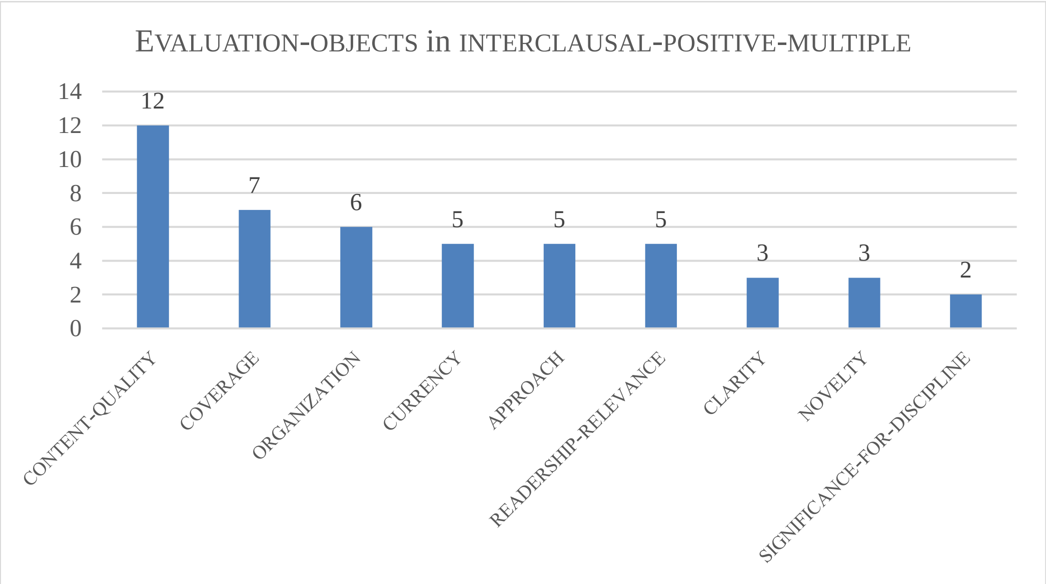


Fig. 62. EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE in the LING corpus

Figure 63 shows the most common combinations of parameters in the INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE pattern.

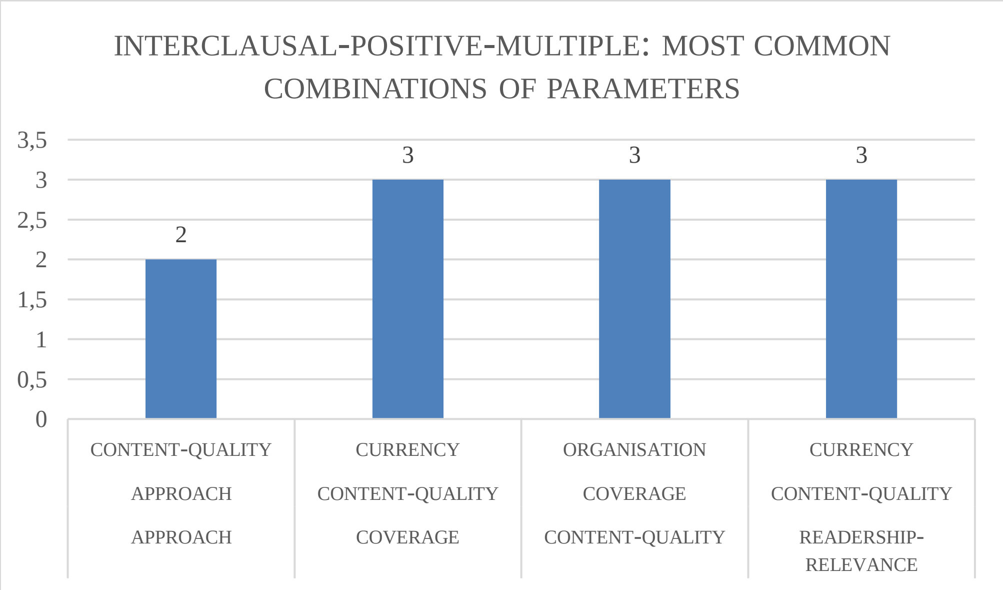


Fig. 63. INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE: most common combinations of patterns in the LING corpus

7.3.5. INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET and INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE MULTIPLE

The two patterns are represented by only 10 evaluations, of which nine are doublets (sentences 128 and 129 below) and only one exemplifies INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE (sentence 130).

(128) The chapter is both too long, in the context of the survey format, and too short, as an exegesis of a new approach to a complex issue.[Linguistics/JOL_002_2008.txt]

(129) The breadth and eclecticism the editors have attempted to reach have often left the focus of the work as a whole unclear and the research depth and applicability to the field of linguistics somewhat vague at times. [Linguistics/JOS_005_2012.txt]

(130) Nevertheless, the collection would have benefited from a harmonization of the translation of the term sakprosa (non-fiction) into English (pp. 3, 40), as well as more precise editing, a more academic style and better consistency in its punctuation. [Linguistics/JOAP_004_2009.txt]

The lower number of the evaluations does not allow a definite leader to emerge among the most common parameters, as shown in Figure 64.

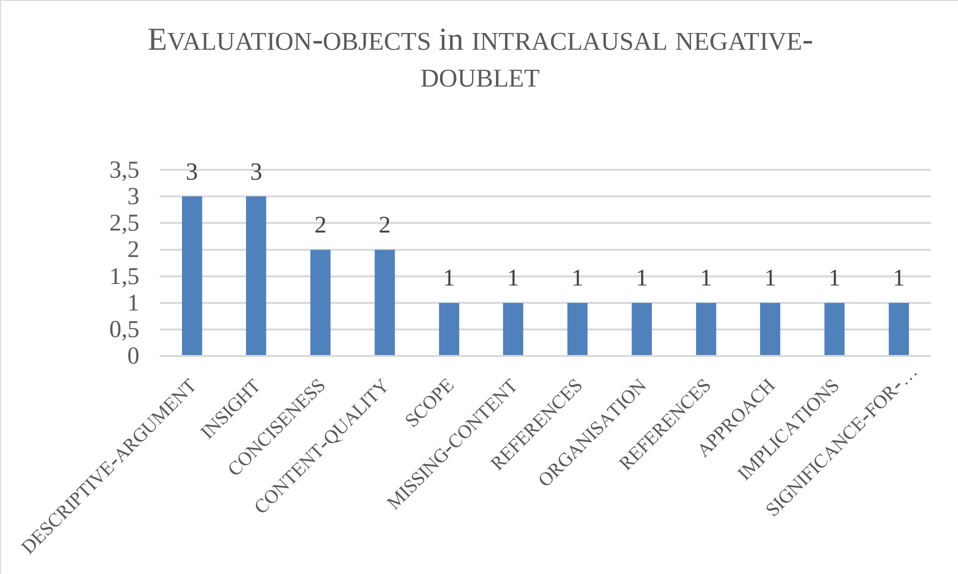


Fig. 64. EVALUATION OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL NEGATIVE-DOUBLET in the LING corpus

7.3.6. INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET and INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE MULTIPLE

The two final classes of CHAINED-NEGATIVE evaluations are INTERCLAUSAL NEGATIVE-DOUBLET (examples 131 and 132) and INTERCLAUSAL NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE (example 133), with 17 and 3 hits in the corpus, respectively.

(131) There is nothing new here, and some conclusions are clearly misguided: e.g., the author simply defines numerals in /-at/ as masculines c(p. 131; cf. p) [Linguistics/LNG_013_2015.txt]

(132) As such, it neither enlightens the reader greatly nor (one imagines) does justice to Erteschik-Shir & Rapoport's ideas. [Linguistics/JOL_002_2008.txt]

(133) There are of course inevitable limitations in the study's scope: the scholars considered are from locations arguably within the perimeter, if on the outskirts, of the geopolitical "centre" while also in the Kachruvian "Expanding Circle"; only two disciplines are represented by the scholars studied, albeit two that are useful to the study in having both "universal/theoretical" and "applied" dimensions; the focus is restricted to publication of research articles. [Linguistics/WEN_003_2011.txt]

As could be expected, the multiple evaluations are statistically significantly longer than doublets (Table 119). They are also less positive, acquiring the value -0.111.

Text Complexity	INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET	INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	33.71	47.33	400.61	0.0000	+++

Table 119. Text complexity in INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET and INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE

Subjectivity	INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET	INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE
Subjective Positivity	-0.009	-0.111

Table 120. Subjective positivity indices for INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET and INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE

The group of parameters to which evaluations refer in INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLETS includes only three with frequency of over one, shown in Figure 65 and only one pattern that repeats three times, namely, LOCAL-CONTENT and MISSING-CONTENT. INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE represents only three parameters: LOCAL-CONTENT (3 instances), COVERAGE (3 instances), and CONTENT-QUALITY (2 instances).

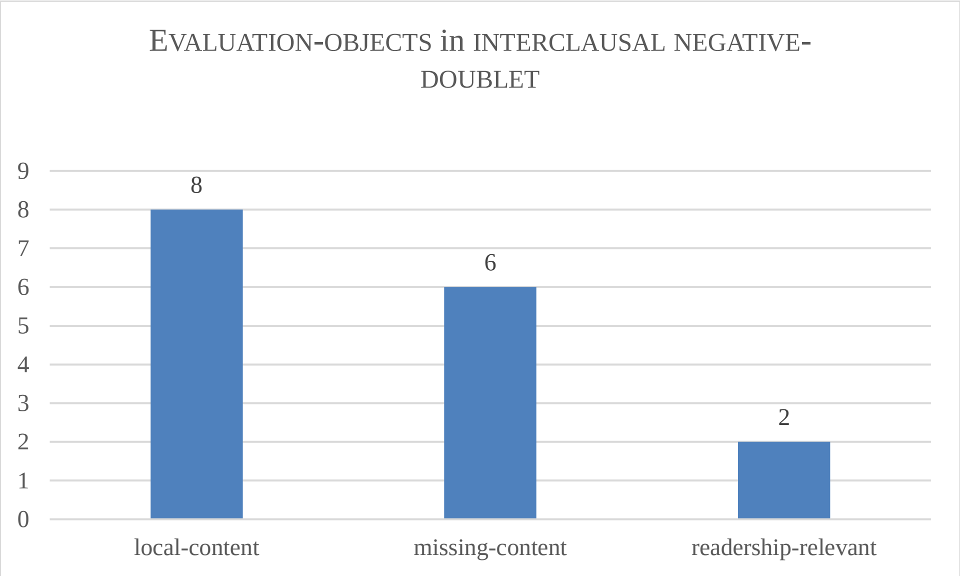


Fig. 65. EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTERCLAUSAL NEGATIVE-DOUBLET in the LING corpus

7.4. POSITIVE-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-POSITIVE

POSITIVE-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-POSITIVE represents the third instance of EVALUATION-TYPE identified in the annotation scheme (see page 193). For this pattern, two possible realizations have been proposed, POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE (as exemplified in sentence 133–136) and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE (137 – 139).

(133)Although he gives clear, simple explanations of how to calculate these, he doesn't always provide enough explanation of why one would want to do so.

(135) This may be an interesting argument, but it seems plainly disproportionate to give it a chapter-length exposition in a survey of IS literature.

(136) This book remains a good introduction to the subject, even if many articles on political rhetoric from journals like Rhetoric Society Quarterly are not cited.

(137) Although it is a brief treatment of these complex issues, the chapter successfully orients readers to the editors' perspectives and goals for the volume.

(138) The lack of sustained discussion of regional intonation patterns is disappointing in this otherwise very solid and data-heavy text.

(139) His arguments tend to be somewhat repetitious, but his occasional reiteration of main points helps readers clearly grasp critical concepts discussed in the book.

This pattern has been discussed in the literature from different theoretical perspectives. Golebiowski (2012) has identified two basic groups of such sentences/utterances that she refers to as Contrastive and Concessive, where the difference between them lies in the fact that in the former "both proportions can be of even textual prominence, [whereas] the very nature of Concession assumes a functional imbalance of two adversatively placed propositions" (Golebiowski, 2012:27). Łyda (2007:100) does not divide such sentences/utterances into any distinct subgroups but finds them self-contained types. Consequently, he identifies several contrastive relations, which he regards as discourse-rhetorical relations, for which

> the degree of incompatibility between two propositions cannot be assessed with any precision: in some cases it is an incompatibility between an entailment or an implicature of X on the one hand and the proposition expressed in Y, on the other one. In other cases, the contrast holds directly between X and Y or parts of these propositions or even various aspects of the same entity predicated.

In a similar vein, Barth-Weingarten (2003) identifies a general category of contrast that includes several types, partly overlapping, such as semantic opposition, the general category of adversativity with its subtypes, i.e., antithesis (e.g., *It is long. No, it is not long. It is short*), neutral contrast (*John has three cars and James has four cars*), negated causality (*You were wounded but you are in good health*), and, finally, concession, whose essence lies, according to Łyda (2008:141), in the presence of acknowledgement move and a counter "which claims the validity of some potentially incompatible statement or point": *It is long. Yes, it is long, but it is easy to read.*

As can be seen in the corpus sentences above (136, 137, 139 – 141), most of them are a realization of the relation of concession, or negated causality as in 138.

The POSITIVE-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-POSITIVE patterns as an enactment of concession is a particularly useful evaluative construction, which may perform different functions on the ideational, textual and interpersonal level. Of these, the most important seems to be the last one since any act of criticism is a potentially-threatening act (as already mentioned in Chapter Five). Ehen combined with an act of praise, the impact of a negative evaluation is softened and possible objections forestalled.

It is interesting to note that the distributions of POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE differ, with the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern prevailing, as shown in Table 121.

POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE-TYPE	**N**	**N**
POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE	60	0
NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE	0	35
TOTAL:	**60**	**35**

Table 121. The distribution of POSITIVE-NEGATIVE or NEGATIVE-POSITIVE-TYPE in the LING corpus

There has also been observed a statistically significant difference in the average length of a segment, where POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE segments tend to be longer (Table 122).

Text Complexity	**POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE**	**NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE**	**T-Stat**	**P-val**	**Signif.**
Av. Segment Length	32.25	31.66	149.70	0.0000	+++

Table 122. Text complexity in POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE in the LING corpus

Equally significant is the observation shown in Table 123 that the pattern with the final positive evaluation is subjectively "more" positive than the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern, which may indicate that face-threatening criticism is weakened by the positive segment.

Subjectivity	**POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE**	**NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE**
Subjective Positivity	0.184	0.216

Table 123. Subjective positivity in POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE

7.4.1. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE

The total number of positive and negative segments exceeds the number of POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVES since in a few cases the segments took a chained form. In terms of the major evaluation objects, the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern focuses mainly on the parameter of

CONTENT, as indicated in Figure 66. Interestingly, both positive and negative evaluations are most commonly used to refer to local ARGUMENT/CONTENT than the GENERAL-CONTENT, which has been found to be statistically significant, as shown in Table 124. This suggests that these evaluations would likely be incorporated within the main body of the review, rather than being positioned in the conclusions sections, where a broader assessment typically takes place.

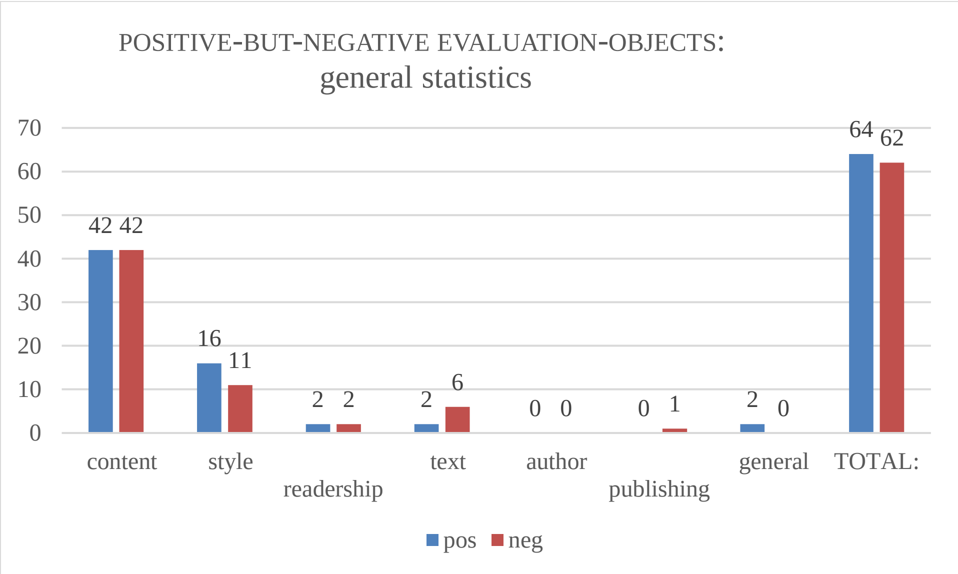


Fig. 66. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE EVALUATION-OBJECTS: general statistics in the LING corpus

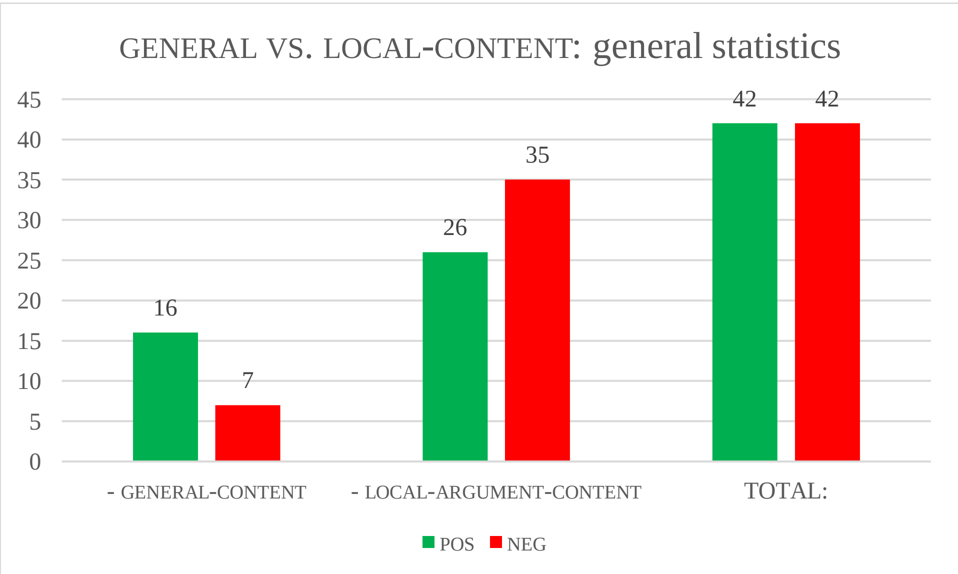


Fig. 67. GENERAL-CONTENT and LOCAL-CONTENT compared

CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
GENERAL-CONTENT	16		7			0.6876		0.083
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	26		35			0.0252	++	0.741
TOTAL:	42		42					

Table 124. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics

Among all evaluations related to GENERAL-CONTENT and those pertaining to SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT, it is noteworthy that both positive and negative evaluations predominantly focus on the categories of CONTENT-QUALITY and LOCAL-CONTENT-QUALITY. These two categories encompass over fifty percent of all evaluations, as illustrated in Table 125 and Table 126 provided below.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE	
	N	%	N	%
CURRENCY	1		0	
APPROACH	4		2	
COVERAGE	1		0	
CONTENT-QUALITY	8		3	
NOVELTY	1		0	
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	1		0	
IMPLICATIONS	0		2	
APPLICABILITY	0		0	
TOTAL:	16		7	

Table 125. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE in the LING corpus

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT -CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE	
COHERENCE	0		1	
INSIGHT	5	0	0	
ARGUMENT-VALUE	0		7	
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	20		16	
MISSING-CONTENT	0		10	
METHOD	0		0	
SCOPE	1		1	
BIAS	0		0	
TERMINOLOGY	0		0	
UTILITY	0		0	
TOTAL:	26		34	

Table 126. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE in the LING corpus

The parameter of STYLE comes in as the second most commonly assessed aspect, receiving 16 instances of positive evaluations and 11 instances of negative evaluation. Authors tend to receive the highest frequency of criticism and blame concerning the overall structure of their books, the ease of readability, and the clarity of their writing style. Other characteristics hold limited significance.

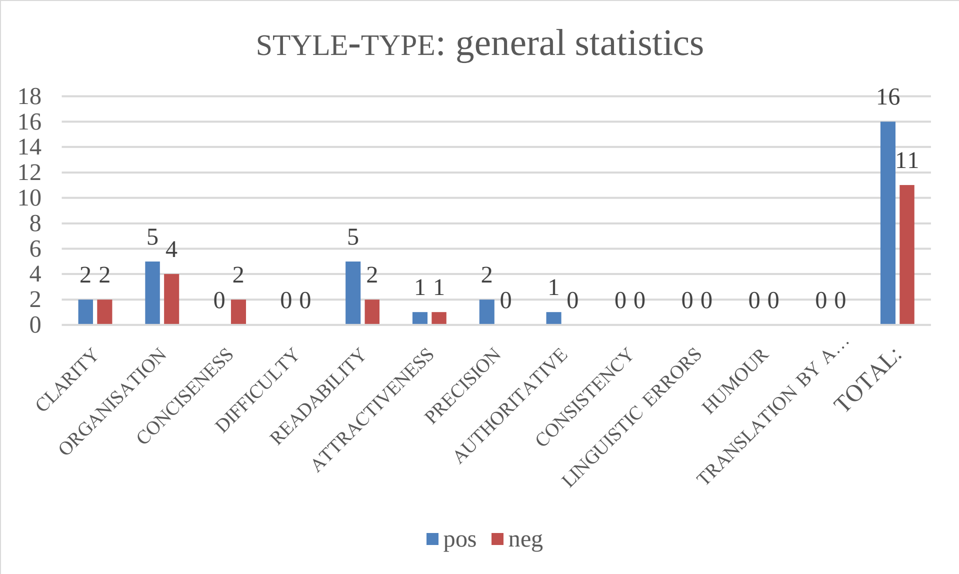


Fig. 68. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE STYLE-TYPE in the LING corpus

The third parameter, namely, TEXT, has been found to be an object of evalution in eight cases, of which six are negative evaluations. In these cases, authors are usually criticized for insufficient EXTENT (140), REFERENCES (141), and too few EXAMPLES (142).

(140) This may be an interesting argument, but it seems plainly disproportionate to give it a chapter-length exposition in a survey of IS literature.

(141) Another plus is the way in which similar topics are approached from different perspectives; in light of this, the volume as a unit would, perhaps, benefit from more comprehensive cross-referencing in relation to commonalities in the papers.

(142) It is an excellent and helpful ending for this book, although a wider variety of samples would have been valued by most readers.

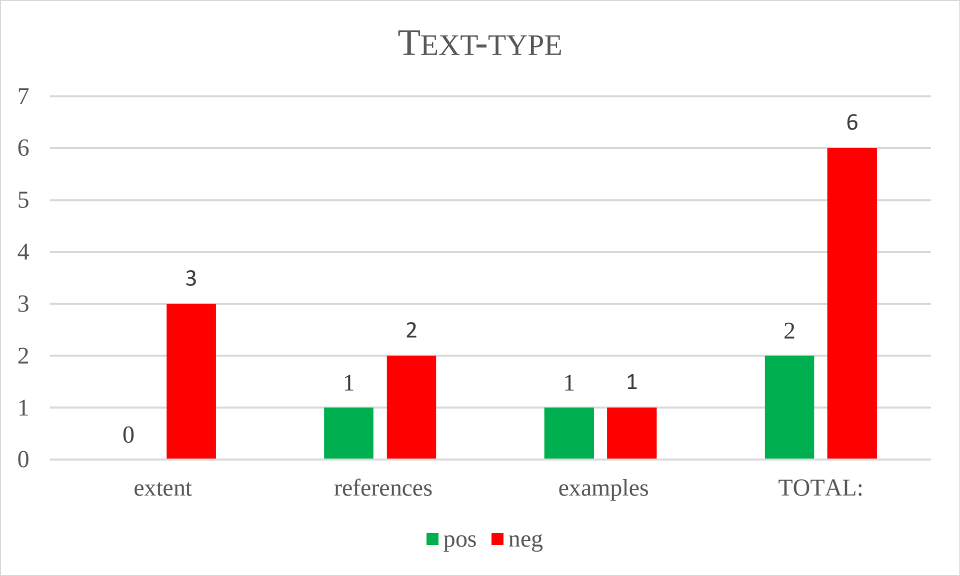


Fig.69. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE TEXT-TYPE in the LING corpus

Given the evident emphasis on the parameter of CONTENT, it should not be surprising that the most frequent pairings of positive and negative segments are connected to this aspect. The following combinations are comparatively the most prevalent:

LOCAL-CONTENT and LOCAL-CONTENT (8)

(143) For example, the introduction to Chapter 2 suggests interesting topics such as important cultural aspects of the internet as a place of multilingual and multicultural expression, the possibilities that the web offers to project

LOCAL-CONTENT and MISSING-CONTENT (5)

(144) Although the aforementioned dichotomy is problematised in chapter seven, acknowledgement of these issues is absent from the other chapters which deal specifically with negotiation of local and imported practices.

CONTENT-QUALITY and CONTENT-QUALITY (2)

(145) MacNeilage's attempt to work out a detailed biological perspective on speech makes this book worthwhile, even though both the book and MacNeilage's theory have their share of weaknesses.

DESCRIPTIVE-ARGUMENT and MISSING-CONTENT (2)

(146) Clearly, he recognizes that differences in frequency of the borrowing of different morpheme types (including lexical elements) indicate what he calls "contextual constraints" (183), but no details are provided.

INSIGHT and EXPLANATORY ARGUMENT (2)

(147) Matras's observation shows insight, but because it refers only to the surface level, it does not go far in explaining why certain types of inflectional morphology are rarely borrowed.

7.4.2. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE

NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE pattern can be observed in 35 evaluations. As before, the overall count of positive and negative segments surpasses the count of NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE segments due to the fact that in certain cases the segments appeared in a chained form. However, what is interesting is the very high number of positive segments reaching the value of 49, which means that the impact of negative evaluations is offset by more frequent positive segments.

Again, concerning the primary objects of evaluations, the NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE pattern focuses mainly on the parameter of CONTENT, as indicated in Figure 70. CONTENT is represented in 44.4% of negative segments and 55.1% of positive ones.

Similarly to the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern, style holds the position of the second most commonly employed factor, being insignificantly more common in the negative segments.

The remaining parameters are of marginal importance. The third parameter, lagging significantly behind the top two is TEXT represented by three positive and three negative evaluations. The rest of the parameters hold minimal significance.

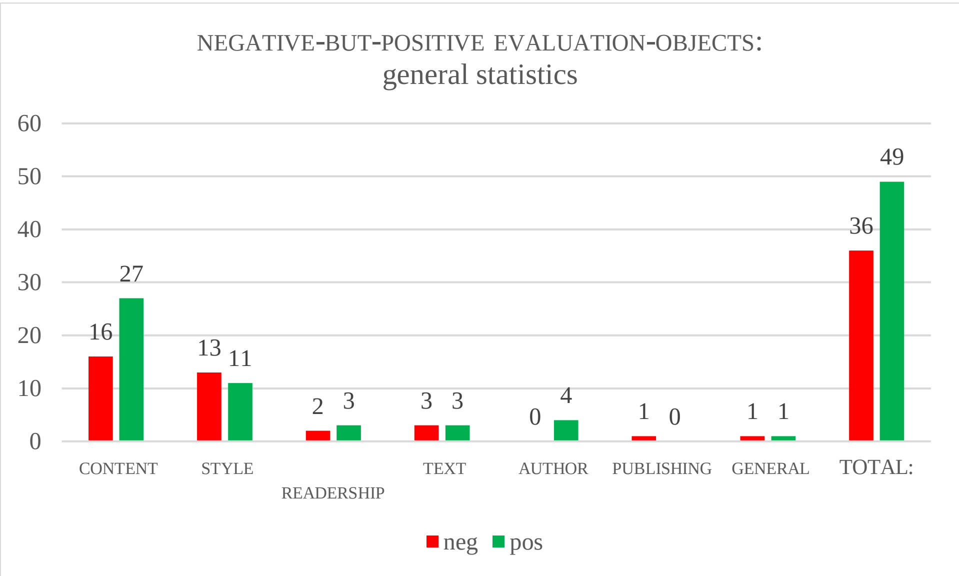


Fig. 70. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE EVALUATION-OBJECTS: general statistics in the LING corpus

Unlike the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern, GENERAL CONTENT is referred to more frequently than LOCAL-ARGUMENT CONTENT. Furthermore, this parameter occurs more often in positive segments than in negative ones, for both GENERAL-CONTENT and LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT.

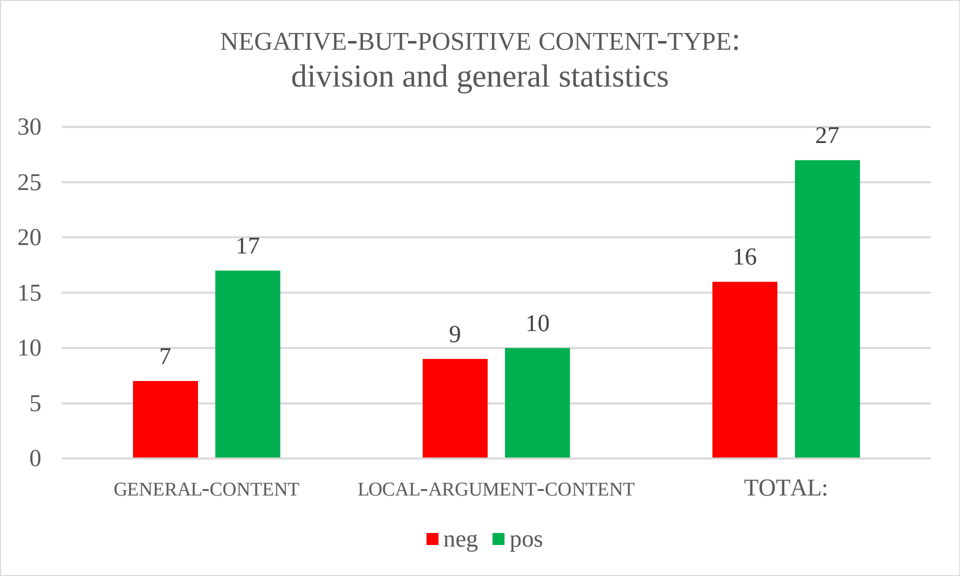


Fig. 71. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE CONTENT-TYPE: division and general statistics in the LING corpus

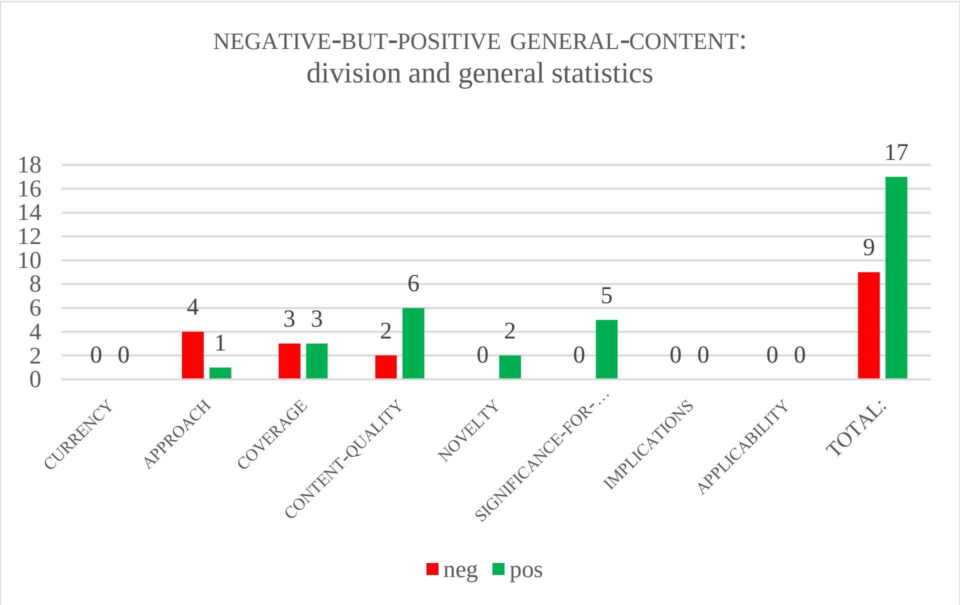


Fig. 72. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE: division and general statistics in the LING corpus

A brief glance at the distribution of the parameters of GENERAL-CONTENT presented in Figure 72 above shows that practically only four parameters are significantly noticeable, namely, CONTENT-QUALITY, APPROACH, COVERAGE, and SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE. However, it should be noted that only three parameters are present in evaluations of both polarities.

The distribution of the parameters of SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT, shown in Figure 73, is even more skewed, with the parameter of LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE being the dominant one.

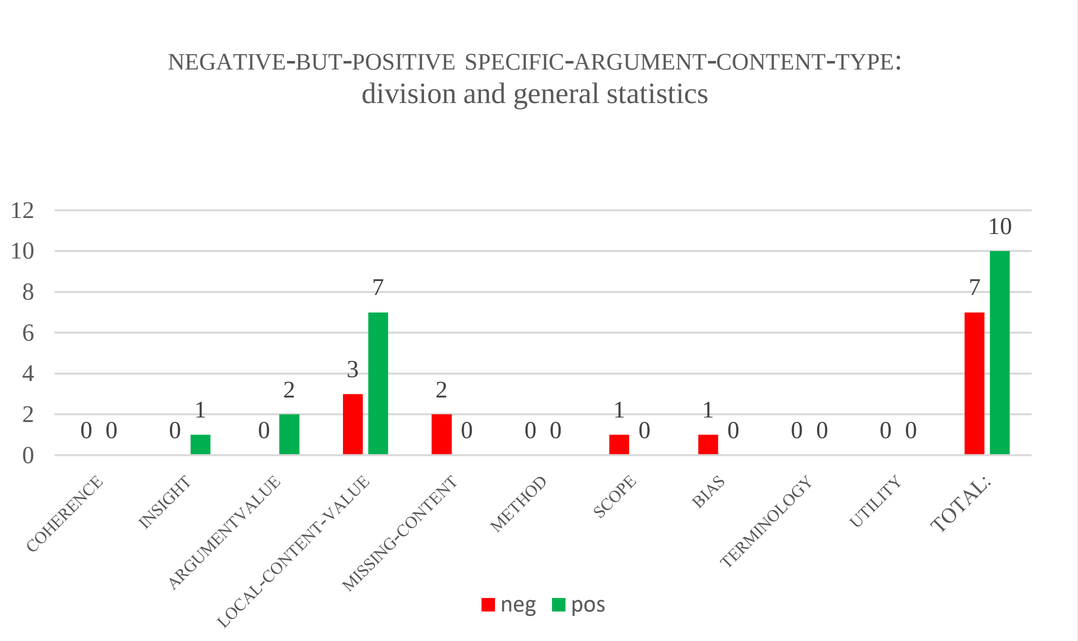


Fig. 73. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: division and general statistics in the LING corpus

Ranking second in terms of frequency, STYLE is an evaluation object that slightly leans towards negative evaluations as compared to positive ones, although the difference is not substantial. The distribution varies, for instance, CONCISENESS (sentence 148) and READABILITY (sentence 149) are the primary criteria for expressing negativity, whereas CLARITY (sentence 150) is most prevalent in positive evaluations. Figure 75 shows the results.

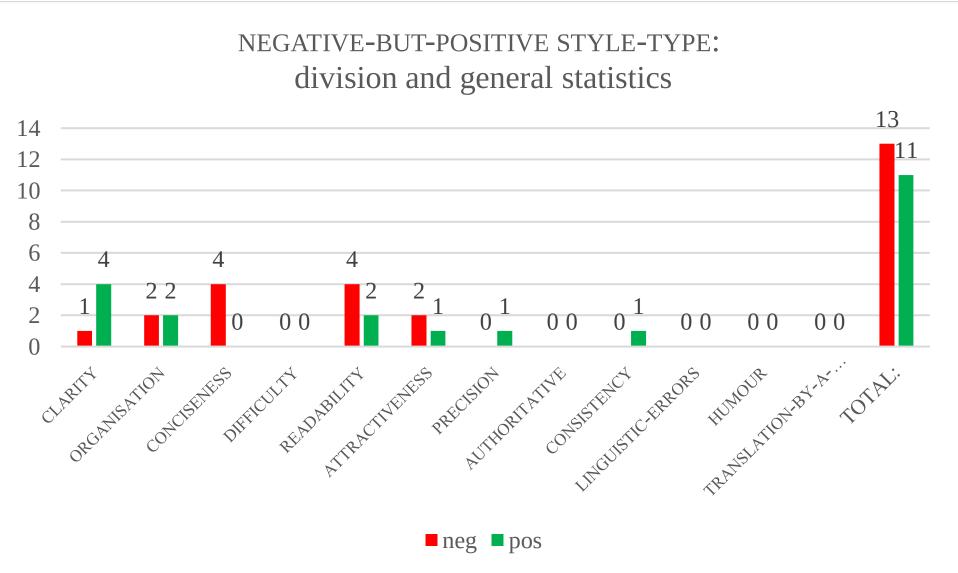


Fig. 74. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE STYLE-TYPE : division and general statistics in the LING corpus

(148) While some may see the brevity of each contribution as a drawback, it serves to whet the appetite of readers and offers an impressively diverse range of perspective to readers. [Linguistics/JOS_007_2013.txt

(149) While this may detract from the readability of the volume, it possibly adds value to it as a source of reference [Linguistics/LNG_009_2013.txt]

(150) Aside from the different feel of Chapter 10, the book is consistently clear and accessible throughout, even as it is possible to discern particular styles of the individual authors [Linguistics/JOL_001_2010.txt]

The impact of the remaining parameters of evaluation is minimal. READERSHIP is mentioned five times, comprising two negative comments and three positive ones. TEXT is evaluated six times, with three negative and three positive remarks. PRODUCTION-STANDARDS has gained only one positive evaluation, while GENERAL-TYPE has received one positive and one negative evaluation. The parameter that stands out the most in the context of the NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE pattern is AUTHOR, which is featured in four positive evaluations. As example of such an evaluation is shown below in sentence 151.

(151) This leaves one with a feeling of missed opportunity, as Erteschik-Shir undoubtedly has the depth of scholarship and the insight to have produced a more well-rounded work of either kind.

In this case, reducing the impact of criticism by appealing to the attributes of the author themselves, such as their talent and knowledge, may be regarded as mitigated criticism.

Just like in the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern, CONTENT continues to hold its position as the primary evaluation parameter, leading to the most frequent occurrences of both positive and negative segments. Nevertheless, a definite leader is nowhere to be found, and within the most prevalent combinations of attributes there are:

APPROACH and SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE DISCIPLINE (2)

(152) Although some of the chapters are less statistically-solid, they nonetheless report some interesting tendencies which deserve future investigation. [Linguistics/JOAP_017_2016.txt]

EXTENT and LOCAL-CONTENT-QUALITY (2)

(153) Thus, though the treatment in these three chapters is brief, the advice provided is potentially very useful [Linguistics/JOAP_010_2012.txt]

EXTENT and GENERAL-CONTENT (2)

(154) In this compact but comprehensive and highly readable volume, Lynda Mugglestone combines a critical account of former scholarship with new evidence from primary sources to produce a work which

will appeal to non-experts as well as to scholars in lexicography, the history of English, and eighteenth-century studies more broadly [Linguistics/JEL_011_2017.txt]

READABILITY and LOCAL-CONTENT-QUALITY (2)

(155) While this may detract from the readability of the volume, it possibly adds value to it as a source of reference [Linguistics/LNG_009_2013.txt]

Finally, attention should be drawn to the interesting aspect of this pattern consisting in using a strategy of weakening the overtones of negative evaluations by adding a few positive remarks to tone down the criticism, as in 156 and 157.

(156) Although the articles take different perspectives and approaches to the issue of dialogicity, they all remain interrelated and make a coherent contribution to the field of social interaction studies [Linguistics/JOAP_017_2016.txt]

(157) These two chapters are both quite short, but they do offer good general advice and numerous specific examples of it, along with useful exercises for application [Linguistics/JOAP_010_2012.txt]

Closing remarks

In her paper entitled "Agonism in academic discourse", Tannen (2002:1651) holds a strong belief that modern academic communications in the Western world is primarily shaped by what she terms, drawing from Ong (1981), an ideology of "agonism", which refers to ritualized adversarial behaviour. She contends that the core of this ideology is rooted in the confrontational nature of current academic discourse, emphasizing an inclination towards harsh criticism at any expense, rather than fostering a constructive dialogue among members of the academic community. According to Tannen (2002:1655), a clear illustration of this entrenched ideology is evident is the observed tendency within academic papers to: "(1) at best oversimplify, at worst distort or even misrepresent others' positions, (2) search for the most foolish statement and the weakest examples to make a generally reasonable treatise appear less so, and (3) ignore the facts that support the opponent's view and cite only those that support theirs". Although not the central genre of the academia, linguistics book reviews analyzed here are not part of the trend noticed by Tannen (2002). As could be seen in the analysis, positive evaluations outnumber negative ones by a factor of 3 and the general focus is on CONTENT, STYLE, READERSHIP and TEXT. While the answer to the questions whether the reviews distort or misrepresent the authors' position would require a careful dissecting of the reviewed book, there are legitimate reasons to believe in what is expressed elsewhere by Mauranen (2002:34):

> I have not seen much reason to change my earlier view that consensus is more foregrounded than conflict in academic speaking. It seems, though, that they operate simultaneously but at different levels. The surface consensus appears to work much as it has been described in many standard descriptions of face-to-face conversation, whereas conflict lies deeper.

The view is justified not only by the fact that positive evaluations by far dominate, but also by the fact that, as observed in the case of NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE, the negative overtones of criticism are weakened by increased praise. It should also be remembered that Mauranen's work is concerned with academic speech, whilst this thesis focuses on written book reviews. It is reasonable to assume, then, that both praise and criticism work differently than, for example, in an instance of spoken academic counterpart, be it a conference presentation or a plenary talk. The general differences between written and spoken modes of language have been addressed in Chapter Four and, to some extent, in Chapter Five. The analysis conducted in this part of the thesis proves that criticism in a written form tends to be mitigated and, therefore, conflict is less likely to occur, while praise and other forms of complementing the author and the author's work have been seen to be more straightforward .

By far the largest number of evaluations are made through SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE patterns. While the former are usually not justified or otherwise explained, negative evaluations are combined with a component of REASON.

Further evidence of the reviewers' preference for positive evaluations is the fact that in the case of CHAINED-POSITIVES and CHAINED-NEGATIVES, positive evaluations outnumber their negative counterparts.

The characteristics of linguistics book reviews described here represent only a small part of the regularities and trends described above, but are certainly the most striking. To ascertain their applicability across various disciplines, an analysis of book evaluations in psychology, the focus of the upcoming chapter, is necessary.

CHAPTER EIGHT: A Parametric Analysis of Psychology Book Reviews

Introduction

This chapter offers a parametric analysis of the psychology book reviews, the second part of the corpora gathered for this thesis. As has been the case in the linguistics analysis, a brief layout of the subsequent discussion will be presented in this introduction.

Yet again, the analysis follows the format suggested in the annotation scheme, focusing initially on the POSITIVE-TYPE and its associated variations, subsequently covering the NEGATIVE-TYPE along with its subcategories, and lastly, addressing instances of mixed POSITIVE-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-POSITIVE patterns.

Each of the EVALUATION-TYPES will be subjected to analysis in terms of its frequency, distribution, and the specific objects of evaluation that they align with. Whenever possible, statistical data pertaining to statistically significant results will be presented. Once again, the corpus sentences will be provided to serve as a point of reference.

To a degree, it is inevitable not to compare the two corpora under investigation; thus, some sections, as they unfold, will outline some of the areas of connection and contrast between the linguistics and psychology book reviews. It should be remembered, though, that the detailed comparative analysis of the two corpora will be presented in the final chapter.

8. General Statistics

The analysis conducted using WordSmith Tools 7.0 on the PSYCH corpus, which consisted of 120 reviews containing a total of 180,591 words, showed interesting findings. These reviews employed 14,646 different words, culminating in a type/token ration of 8.29. The shortest review, PID_003_2010, contained 401 words, whereas the longest one, PID_004_2010, exceeded this number by nearly 20 times, resulting in 8,018 words. In total, there were 8,198 sentences, with the shortest review containing 20 sentences and the most extensive one having as many as 308 sentences. On average, each review consisted of 64.63 sentences.

8.1. EVALUATION-TYPE: POSITIVE VS NEGATIVE polarity

This section in concerned with an overview of how positive and negative polarity evaluations are distributed within the reviews. The results gathered from the UAMCT analysis revealed that the PSYCH corpus contained 2,453 evaluations, representing three polarity types, as shown in Figure 75 and Table 127.

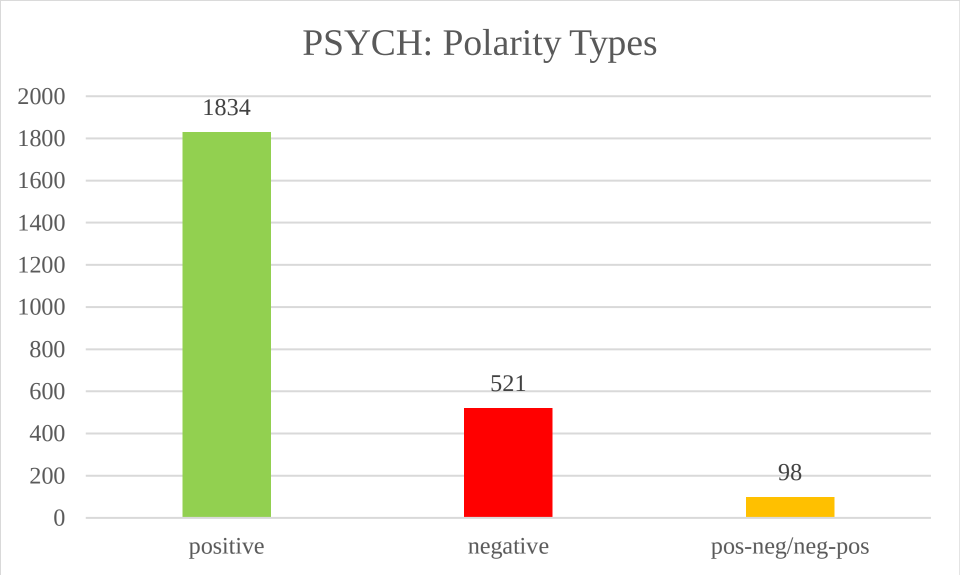


Fig. 75. The division of polarity types in PSYCH corpus

EVALUATION-TYPE	N	%
POSITIVE	1834	74.8
NEGATIVE	521	21.2
POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE	98	4.0
TOTAL:	**2453**	**100.0%**

Table 127. Polarity type statistics in the PSYCH corpus

These three types are illustrated below with two excerpts from the PSYCH corpus.

POSITIVE-TYPE

(1) In Chapter 1, David C. Stone and Kyle Brauer Boone provide interesting historical and contemporary references to feigning in art, literature, movies, and real-world criminal cases [Psychology/ACN_002_2008.txt]

(2) For instance, Babikian and Boone exhaustively review both simulated and known-group feigning of intellectual deficits (mostly on the WAIS-R and WAIS-III) [Psychology/ACN_002_2008.txt]

NEGATIVE-TYPE

(3) The most troubling entry of the book is Phelps' chapter on educational achievement testing, which comes across as more of an emotionally charged polemic than a dispassionate review of the literature. [Psychology/ACN_004_2009.txt]

(4) For example, some chapters are very long and contain more information than one would want to really know about certain diagnoses. [Psychology/ACN_010_2012.txt

POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE TYPE

(5) This encyclopedia series is a financial investment, but the wealth of information provided in these volumes is unmatched. [Psychology/ACN_012_2013.txt]

(6) Although this is very complete book, it should not be used as an introductory textbook, and it would be better suited as supplemental material. [Psychology/BRAIN_002_2008.txt]

Out of these, 1,834 segments were classified as having POSITIVE polarity, and 521 segments as NEGATIVE polarity. The occurrence of the POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE pattern were not very common, amounting to 98 instances. However, it is important to note that this pattern always involves at least one instance of each polarity, similar to what was observed in the LING corpus. When considering these evaluations as a combination, each representing a single segment, the total count of segments adds up to 323, as shown in Table 128.

Length	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE	POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE
Number of segments	1827	521	323

Table 128. The division of three polarity types in the PSYCH corpus

The same test of subjective positiveness (Wilson, Wiebe & Hoffmann, 2005) that was applied for the LING corpus has brought similar results, i.e., positive evaluations are more positive than negative evaluations with POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE placed between them, as can be seen in Table 129.

Subjectivity	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE	POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE
Subjective Positivity	0.381	0.018	0.241

Table 129. Subjective positivity indices for the three polarity types in the PSYCH corpus

The data presented in Figure 75 and Table 127 convincingly demonstrate that the prevailing polarity type identified in reviews of psychology academic books is positive, in which they resemble the distribution of positive and negative evaluations in the LING corpus discussed in the previous chapter. The frequency of occurrences displaying positive polarity in these reviews significantly surpasses those exhibiting negative polarity, with a computed value of 3.51, which is higher than in the LING corpus. However, it is not possible to assess the results in terms of their alignment with findings in earlier studies, as no such studies exist.

When focusing on general statistics concerning lexical patterns in the PSYCH corpus, there can be observed a property similar to the one identified in for the LING corpus concerning the difference in the length of the evaluation segment. As shown in Table 130, negative evaluations have been found to be longer, the difference being statistically significant.

Text Complexity	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	20.76	22.85	6399.67	0.0000	+++

Table 130. POSITIVE and NEGATIVE: text complexity in the PSYCH corpus

For POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE, the average length of a segment equals 19.7.

To complete the comparison between the two corpora, the Reference Density Index, indicating the first-person pronoun reference, has been calculated. It turns out to be slightly higher for both positive and negative polarity evaluations than in the case of the LING corpus, which is, however, weakly statistically significant. Evaluative segments with the first-person pronoun reference can be seen in the following examples:

(7) As an adult neuropsychologist, **I found** the pediatric chapters difficult to get through as I was not as familiar with all of the tests. [Psychology/ACN_010_2012.txt]

(8) **I believe** it would be useful to put equating methods in a general statistical model framework. [Psychology/APM_008_2013.txt]

Reference Density	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.57%	0.71%	2.96	0.0852	+

Table 131. The first-person reference index for POSITIVE and NEGATIVE polarities and T-stat results in the PSYCH corpus

What follows from Table 131 is that it is also the case of psychology book reviews that the strategy of presenting negative comments as individual viewpoints to lessen the effect of criticism is implemented by reviewers. However, an unexpected result of the Reference Density, as shown in Table 132, has been obtained for POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE. In this case, the density is the highest at the level of 0.76%, which indicates a relatively high presence of the first-person pronoun reference in both segments of the pattern, as in

(9) While **I appreciate** that the editors tried to obtain a mixture of common (i.e., TBI, dementia) and uncommon (i.e., childhood genetic disorders) conditions, some fairly common disorders (at least **in my own practice**) were inexplicably left out, such as alcoholic dementia, Parkinson's dementia, and infectious illnesses such as herpes simplex encephalitis and Lyme's encephalopathy.

Reference Density	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE	POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE
1p Reference	0.57%	0.71%	0.76%

Table 132. The first-person reference index for POSITIVE, NEGATIVE, and POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE polarities and T-stat results

Leaving POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE aside for a while, the first step in the analysis of polarity has been taken to assess how the two polarities are related to the EVALUATION-OBJECT. The general statistics are shown in Figure 76.

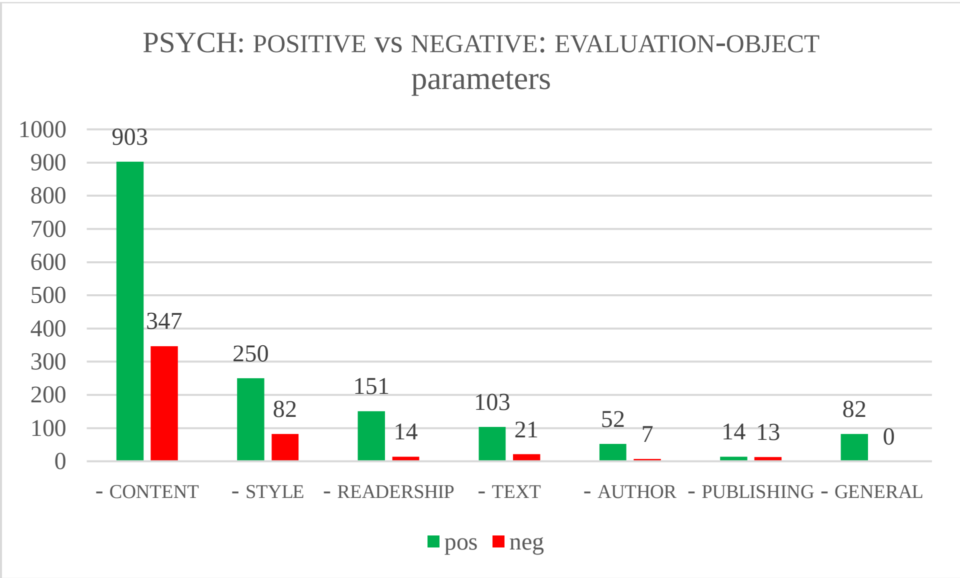


Fig. 76. The distribution of major EVALUATION-OBJECTS in terms of polarity: total number of evaluations in the PSYCH corpus

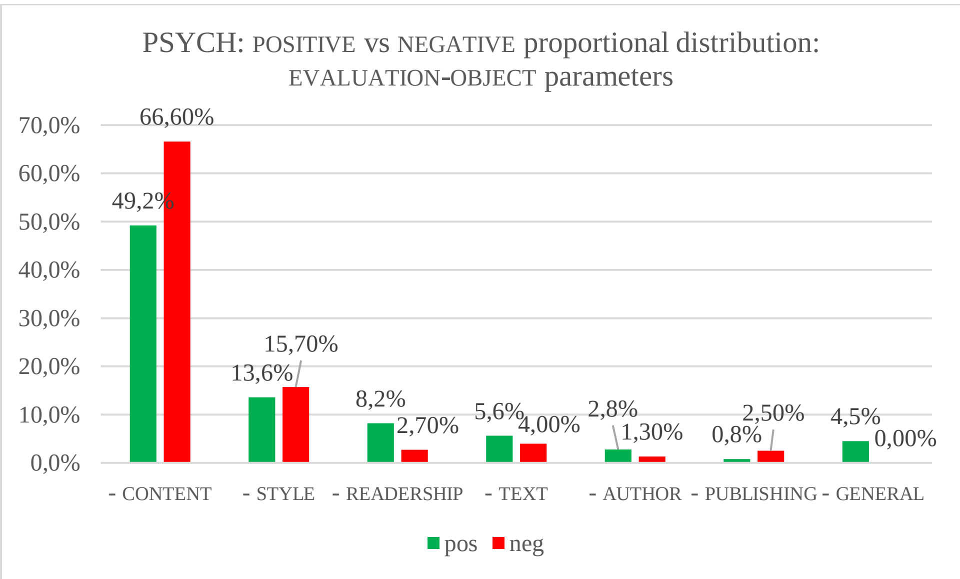


Fig. 77. The distribution of major EVALUATION-OBJECTS in terms of polarity: proportional distribution for POSITIVE and NEGATIVE polarity evaluations in the PSYCH corpus

The distribution of evaluation in the PSYCH corpus in terms of the major EVALUATION-OBJECTS largely resembles that observed for the LING corpus. Similarly, due to the number of cases found, the number of positive evaluations is significantly higher for all EVALUATION-OBJECTS, including publishing, for which a reversed proportion has been found in the LING corpus. However, when considering their proportions with the positive and negative categories, a more intricate situation comes into view. To illustrate it, when examined in terms of their share in POSITIVE-TYPE and NEGATIVE-TYPE, over 66% of negative comments refer to content, whereas the percentage of positive evaluations resources reaches the level of 49.2% Likewise, negative evaluations are also more likely to involve STYLE (15.7% compared to 13.6%), and PUBLISHING (2.5% vs. 0.8%). In contrast, aspects such as READERSHIP, TEXT, AUTHOR and GENERAL are more frequently in the focus of positive evaluations. Statistical significance has been noted for four evaluations objects, as shown in Table 133.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CONTENT	903	49.2	347	66.6	49.13	0.0000	+++	0.354
STYLE	250	13.6	82	15.7	1.49	0.2225		0.060
READERSHIP	151	8.2	14	2.7	19.16	0.0000	+++	0.253
TEXT	103	5.6	21	4.0	2.04	0.1528		0.074
AUTHOR	52	2.8	7	1.3	3.70	0.0545	+	0.106
PUBLISHING	14	0.8	13	2.5	10.74	0.0010	+++	0.142
GENERAL	82	4.5	0	0.0	24.13	0.0000	+++	0.426

Table 133. The division of EVALUATION-OBJECT in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Whichever type of distribution is applied, the dominant position of the parameter of CONTENT remains unchallenged. However, it is worth remembering in this context that CONTENT is implemented with regard to both GENERAL and more LOCAL CONTENT, e.g., at the chapter or section level, as in (160) and (161):

(10) More experienced interdisciplinary scientists will find it somewhat basic [Psychology/BRAIN_006_2011.txt].

(11) Further, the Preface does not offer an overarching framework which could help the reader properly consider this information in light of the book's goals. [Psychology/ACN_016_2015.txt]

Taking this division as the basis for the analysis, it is important to emphasize the fact that, as in the case of the LING corpus, in the PSYCH corpus there is a rather similar distribution of focus: GENERAL-CONTENT tends to receive relatively more positive evaluations. By contrast, LOCAL-CONTENT tends to be criticized more heavily, as evidenced in Table 134. It is worth highlighting that the distribution of positive evaluations in this respect is more balanced, whereas negative evaluations distinctly lean towards LOCAL-CONTENT.

CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
GENERAL-CONTENT	464	25.3	54	10.4	52.75	0.0000	+++	0.399
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	439	23.9	293	56.2	197.62	0.0000	+++	0.673
TOTAL:	**903**	**49.2%**	**347**	**66.6%**				

Table 134. CONTENT-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Similar to the situation with the LING corpus, positive evaluations related to GENERAL-CONTENT predominantly centre around CONTENT-QUALITY. This is followed by evaluations of coverage, APPROACH, NOVELTY, and SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE. By contrast, negative evaluations revolve mainly around the parameters of CONTENT-QUALITY, COVERAGE, and APPROACH.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CURRENCY	37	2.0	0	0.0	10.68	0.0011	+++	0.285
APPROACH	51	2.8	11	2.1	0.71	0.3996		0.043
COVERAGE	95	5.2	13	2.5	6.68	0.0097	+++	0.142
CONTENT-QUALITY	166	9.1	21	4.0	13.99	0.0002	+++	0.207
NOVELTY	33	1.8	4	0.8	2.79	0.0947	+	0.094
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	39	2.1	0	0.0	11.27	0.0008	+++	0.293
IMPLICATIONS	14	0.8	2	0.4	0.87	0.3521		0.051
APPLICABILITY	29	1.6	3	0.6	3.06	0.0802	+	0.100
TOTAL:	**464**	**25.3%**	**54**	**10.4%**				

Table 135. GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

As can be seen in Table 135, there is a statistically significant difference between four parameters, namely, COVERAGE (162), CONTENT-QUALITY (163), CURRENCY (164), and SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE (165), which are evaluated positively rather than negatively. There has also been observed a weak statistical significance ($p<0.1$) for the parameters of NOVELTY (166) and APPLICABILITY (167). No statistically significant difference between positive and negative evaluation types has been revealed for APPROACH (168) and IMPLICATIONS

(169). Notably, the results obtained for the PSYCH corpus differ from the findings in the LING corpus.

(12) The pieces of information provided in this book is not enough for those readers who need a deeper understanding of IRT and to apply those concepts in psychometric research. [Psychology/APM_009_2014.txt].

(13) The authors provide copious illustrations of assessment-driven outcomes in the voices of parents and children alike. [Psychology/ACN_011_2013.txt].

(14) From this perspective, A Psychodynamic Understanding of Modern Medicine is a timely k that addresses this very issue. [Psychology/PSS_003_2013.txt].

(15) In addition to Canfield's overall account of becoming human, his explication and critique of the traditional mentalist view and clear articulation of the alternative Wittgensteinian world view results in important challenges for the field of psychology [Psychology/INTEL_0011_2013.txt].

(16) The edited book Advancing Methodologies to Support Both Summative and Formative Assessments neatly fits in this gap [Psychology/APM_011_2015.txt].

(17) In this respect, Duckworth's book is most definitely not the mother of self-help books. [Psychology/JEP_011_2017.txt].

(18) The biggest strength of this book is that it has brought together many diverse methodologies [Psychology/APM_011_2015.txt].

(19) […] one hopes their radical vision will encourage debate amongst teachers and politicians rather than simply frightening the horses. [Psychology/INTEL_015_2015.txt].

Among ten different parameters in the category of SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT, the highest number of evaluations has been observed for LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE, with 255 positive evaluations. Although negative evaluations of LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE are not the most frequently represented group, almost every fifth negative evaluation concerned this parameter. The most common negative evaluations pertains to MISSING-CONTENT and ARGUMENT-VALUE. For parameters, namely, INSIGHT (20), ARGUMENT-VALUE (21), MISSING-CONTENT (22), and BIAS (23), there has been observed a statistical significance, as indicated in Table 136.

(20) Along the way, there are insights into the functional analysis of biological systems [Psychology/EHR_006_2010.txt].

(21) At any rate, the argument of eventual benefits is questionable[Psychology/EHR_005_2010.txt].

(22) I would have liked the addition of a comparison of their approach with the approach of using the weighted composite of abilities (e.g., "Weeks," Chapter 19 of this volume). [Psychology/APM_010_2015.txt].

(23) At best, the chapters are one-sided portrayals of multifaceted individuals (Chapman, 1988; Reed, 1987; Terman, 1930; Yerkes, 1930) [Psychology/INTEL_003_2008txt].

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
COHERENCE	2	0.1	1	0.2	0.22	0.6397		0.022
INSIGHT	76	4.1	9	1.7	6.81	0.0091	+++	0.146
ARGUMENT-VALUE	44	2.4	90	17.3	167.30	0.0000	+++	0.546
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	255	13.9	63	12.1	1.14	0.2856		0.054
MISSING-CONTENT	2	0.1	116	22.3	418.46	0.0000	+++	0.917
METHOD	15	0.8	3	0.6	0.31	0.5756		0.029
SCOPE	20	1.1	2	0.4	2.19	0.1390		0.085
BIAS	2	0.1	5	1.0	9.91	0.0017	+++	0.130
TERMINOLOGY	3	0.2	2	0.4	0.93	0.3350		0.043
UTILITY	20	1.1	2	0.4	2.19	0.1390		0.085

Table 136. SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Generally, the distribution of positive and negative evaluations of SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus differs from the distribution established for the LING corpus.

Given the huge difference in the number of positive and negative evaluations referring to ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE, it comes as no surprise that in the case of descriptive and explanatory arguments, critical remarks are observed more often in book reviews than positive ones, irrespective of the type of the arguments. The data are presented in Table 137.

ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DESCRIPTIVE	8	0.4	13	2.5	19.46	0.0000	+++	0.185
EXPLANATORY	36	2.0	77	14.8	145.90	0.0000	+++	0.508

Table 137. ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

STYLE is the second most commonly employed category in the PSYCH corpus of book reviews, in terms of both positive and negative evaluations. As in the previously discussed case, positive evaluations numerically far outnumber negative evaluations, but the percentage of STYLE evaluations in each of the two different polarity groups is about the same level, at around 15%.

Among the most frequent positively rated elements of STYLE are CLARITY, READABILITY, and ATTRACTIVENESS. Parameters such as CONCISENESS or CONSISTENCY are evaluated positively and negatively with a roughly similar frequency. Negative evaluations of organization are relatively more frequent, although in absolute terms, the number of positive and negative evaluations oscillates around 45 occurrences. As has been observed, there are statistically significant differences for a couple of parameters, as shown in Table 138. These are CLARITY (24 – 25), ORGANIZATION (26 –27), READABILITY (28 – 29), ATTRACTIVENESS (30–31), and CONSISTENCY (32–33). In this regard, differences between the LING and PSYCH corpora are noticeable.

(24) The chapter does well in explaining the strengths and weaknesses of each method so that the practitioner may make the best decision for his own test [Psychology/APM_011_2015.txt].

(25) […] it is not always clear why something warrants being in a box and how it fits with the rest of the chapter surrounding it. [Psychology/BRAIN_006_2011.txt].

(26) When they do, they will find that these chapters are laid out logically.[Psychology/ACN_011_2013.txt].

(27) the chapter on readiness for change would have been more effective if placed in the beginning [Psychology/CBP_006_2010.txt].

(28) This highly readable account uses the conceptual framework of inclusive fitness theory [Psychology/EHR_009_2012.txt].

(29) Although they are careful to indicate that the road is hard, and the going can be tough, the sense of optimism conveyed felt a little excessive to this reader [Psychology /ACN_011_2013.txt]

(30) All in all, I found this book to be enjoyable (37) It has an "authoritative" feel to it [Psychology/PSS_008_2011.txt].

(31) What makes the book unappealing as a read is its general antagonism: these authors are angry at not being taken more seriously by economists and others [Psychology/JEP_004_2013.txt]

(32) This interdisciplinary variety could have led to inconsistent terminology and other sorts of methodological confusion. [Psychology/APM_002_2009.txt].

(33) One is a lack of consistency[Psychology/ACN_010_2012.txt].

STYLE-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CLARITY	61	3.3	5	1.0	8.34	0.0039	+++	0.171
ORGANISATION	46	2.5	45	8.6	41.03	0.0000	+++	0.279
CONCISENESS	28	1.5	10	1.9	0.39	0.5302		0.030
DIFFICULTY	3	0.2	3	0.6	2.71	0.0995	+	0.071
READABILITY	65	3.5	5	1.0	9.40	0.0022	+++	0.183
ATTRACTIVENESS	25	1.4	1	0.2	5.10	0.0240	++	0.146
PRECISION	9	0.5	1	0.2	0.86	0.3547		0.053
AUTHORITATIVE	2	0.1	2	0.4	1.81	0.1788		0.058
CONSISTENCY	7	0.4	8	1.5	8.54	0.0035	+++	0.125
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	1	0.1	1	0.2	0.90	0.3420		0.041
HUMOUR	2	0.1	1	0.2	0.22	0.6397		0.022
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.28	0.5940		0.047

Table 138. STYLE-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The parameter of READERSHIP is predominantly linked to a positive polarity, as indicated in Table 139 and Table 140. Positive evaluations related to READERSHIP make up over 8% of all positive evaluations in the PSYCH corpus. By contrast, negative evaluations constitute a relatively small portion of negative polarity comments, accounting for only 2.7%. However, it should be noted that when compared with the results for the LING corpus, negative evaluations of READERSHIP in the PSYCH corpus are relatively more common.

READERSHIP-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
RELEVANCE-TYPE	151	8.2	14	2.7	19.16	0.0000	+++	0.253

Table 139. READERSHIP-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

RELEVANCE-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	64	3.5	4	0.8	10.72	0.0011	+++	0.200
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	31	1.7	4	0.8	2.36	0.1246		0.085
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	56	3.1	6	1.2	5.72	0.0167	+++	0.136
TOTAL:	**151**	**8.2%**	**14**	**2.7%**				

Table 140. RELEVANCE-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

For all three subtypes of RELEVANCE-TYPE, there can be observed a trend towards positive evaluations, as evident from the data linked with DISCIPLINE-related (34 –35) and READERSHIP-related RELEVANCE (36–37) in Table 140. However, this tendency shows a slightly reduced effectiveness in the case of PURPOSE-RELEVANCE (38 –39).

(34) The book is a valuable resource for neuropsychologists and other professionals interested in the assessment of ASD. [Psychology/ACN_003_2009.txt].

(35) The broad perspective on PNI, and the fact that the author largely ignores non-human animal research, potentially makes the book less interesting to established PNI researchers [Psychology/BRAIN_012_2014.txt].

(36) To summarize, this volume would be a great resource for anyone interested in applications of IRT models and methods to TPAs and inspire the readers to extend the existing theories and methods on the area. [Psychology/APM_010_2015.txt].

(37) The book assumes a familiarity with the complexities and dynamics of a psychiatric consultant, so it may be difficult to navigate for medical students or those early in training [Psychology/PSS_003_2013.txt].

(38) For students encountering the field for the first time, this primer is worth the price of the book alone. [Psychology/EHR_009_2012.txt].

(39) This book may not be the best option as a textbook for a thorough study of IRT [Psychology/APM_009_2014.txt].

Among the 18 parameters that make up the category of TEXT, five have not been utilized for positive evaluations. Conversely, negative evaluations have not been applied to seven of these parameters. Three other parameters – specifically INDEX, TRANSCRIPT, and SECTION NUMBERS – are missing from both positive and negative evaluations. Generally, there are four parameters that are more frequently evaluated compared to the rest. These include REFERENCES (40), DIAGRAMS (41), EXAMPLES (42), and RESOURCES (43).

(40) […] and the author provides relevant references to articles for an interested reader to follow up on [Psychology/JEP_008_2015.txt].

(41) He provides easy-to-read tables demonstrating the classificatory superiority of certain tests over others. [Psychology/ACN_002_2008.txt].

(42) […] and I would have liked more examples outside the social insects (in particular, more discussion of the work on cooperatively breeding vertebrates). [Psychology/EHR_009_2012.txt].

(43) When not busy in the clinic, the avid learner will find that the accompanying website will provide a stimulating and enjoyable adjunctive resource. [Psychology/ACN_015_2015.txt].

As can be seen from Table 141, positive comments surpass negative evaluations both in absolute terms (103 vs. 21) and in terms of their share in positive and negative polarity classes (5.6% vs.4 4.0%). However, statistical significance has been found only for three parameters, which is different from the results obtained for the LING corpus. What is particularly unexpected is that the parameter of EXTENT plays an insubstantial role in the PSYCH corpus.

TEXT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXTENT	1	0.1	2	0.4	3.46	0.0629	+	0.077
REFERENCES	23	1.3	5	1.0	0.30	0.5843		0.028
DIAGRAMS	20	1.1	2	0.4	2.19	0.1390		0.085
EXERCISES	2	0.1	1	0.2	0.22	0.6397		0.022
INDEX	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
GLOSSARY	4	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.093
NOTATION	1	0.1	3	0.6	6.50	0.0108	+++	0.105
APPENDIX	3	0.2	0	0.0	0.85	0.3556		0.081
TRANSCRIPTS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
EXAMPLES	22	1.2	1	0.2	4.26	0.0390	++	0.132
DATA	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.28	0.5940		0.047
RESOURCES	13	0.7	2	0.4	0.68	0.4106		0.045
SUMMARY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.28	0.5940		0.047
TITLE	0	0.0	3	0.6	10.57	0.0011	+++	0.152
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		

ADDITIONAL-READINGS	5	0.3	1	0.2	0.10	0.7471		0.017
AUXILIARY-DATA	7	0.4	0	0.0	1.99	0.1579		0.124
INTRODUCTION	0	0.0	1	0.2	3.52	0.0606	+	0.088
TOTAL:	**103**	**5.6%**	**21**	**4.0%**				

Table 141. TEXT -TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The role of AUTHOR in the PSYCH corpus as an evaluation object is not significant. When it does have an impact, it is more noticeable in positive evaluations than in negative ones. The parameter of AUTHOR is referred to critically only seven times, making it hard to consider it a dominant factor. Other factors such as EXPERIENCE, SELF-CRITICISM and IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE contribute to just 2.8% of negative evaluations. On the contrary, there are 52 instances of positive evaluations, making up a larger portion at 2.8%. However, only the parameter of REPUTATION exhibits a statistical significance at p<.0.5.

AUTHOR-TYPE	**POSITIVE**		**NEGATIVE**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
EXPERIENCE	12	0.7	2	0.4	0.50	0.4786		0.038
REPUTATION	22	1.2	0	0.0	6.31	0.0120	+++	0.219
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	7	0.4	0	0.0	1.99	0.1579		0.124
TALENT	4	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.093
SELF-CRITICAL	1	0.1	2	0.4	3.46	0.0629	+	0.077
KNOWLEDGE	4	0.2	1	0.2	0.01	0.9088		0.006
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	2	0.1	2	0.4	1.81	0.1788		0.058
TOTAL:	**52**	**2.8%**	**7**	**1.3%**				

Table 142. AUTHOR -TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The most frequently represented parameters, that is, EXPERIENCE (44), REPUTATION (45), and EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION (46) are shown in the examples below.

(44) The expertise of the authors is deep and collectively spans a range of disciplines: industrial and organizational psychology (my own discipline), educational psychology, statistics, epidemiology, and human medicine. [Psychology/APM_002_2009.txt].

(45) This is an edited book, with 50 chapters, written by many of the most noted experts in neuropsychology. [Psychology/ACN_019_2018.txt].

(46) Wim van der Linden has been and still is the heart of most ATA and OTD research - as a principal researcher and theorist, mentor, or consultant. [Psychology/APM_001_2009.txt].

The parameter of PRODUCTION-STANDARDS appears to be conspicuously under-addressed in both positive and negative evaluations. Despite receiving 14 favourable comments, it also attracts 13 instances of criticism, relegating it to the lowest position among the items under evaluation. The primary focus of reviewers typically centers around EDITING, with TYPOGRAPHY coming next in line. The rest of the evaluations seems to be uniform in nature. While the absolute count of positive comments on this parameter is higher (14 compared to 13), a closer examination of the proportional distribution of evaluations reveals a nuanced perspective. Approximately 2.5% of the comments carry a negative tone, in contrast to the 0.8% that are positive. This disparity to a certain extent influences the ranking of PRODUCTION-STANDARDS for both positive and negative evaluations, as shown in Table 143. Notably, a statistically significant difference has been identified for two parameters, namely, TYPOGRAPHY (47) and WRONG-TITLE (48).

(47) Two minor problems with this example are as follows: (a) It contains several small typographical errors on the "range" and "var" declarations [Psychology/APM_001_2009.txt].

(48) Another shortcoming is that the title infers an emphasis on resilience for which the text does not deliver [Psychology/APM_008_2013.txt].

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
TYPOGRAPHY	3	0.2	5	1.0	7.60	0.0059	+++	0.115
PRICE	1	0.1	2	0.4	3.46	0.0629	+	0.077
EDITING	8	0.4	4	0.8	0.88	0.3483		0.043
WRONG-TITLE	0	0.0	2	0.4	7.05	0.0079	+++	0.124
SIZE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.28	0.5940		0.047
PHYSICAL-QUALITY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.28	0.5940		0.047
TOTAL:	**14**	**0.8%**	**13**	**2.5%**				

Table 143. PRODUCTION-STANDARDS in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The last parameter in the annotation scheme (see page 205), i.e., GENERAL-TYPE, is realized by means of lexical expressions which are evaluatively distinct, yet do not have a clear positive or negative inclination. Hence, understanding them requires an analysis of the context. Such an analysis has demonstrated that GENERAL-TYPE evaluations are positive in all cases in the PSYCH corpus, as shown in Table 144. No negative comments of GENERAL-TYPE have been detected.

GENERAL-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
INSPIRING	4	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.093
IMPORTANCE	7	0.4	0	0.0	1.99	0.1579		0.124
EXCEPTIONALITY	4	0.2	0	0.0	1.14	0.2860		0.093
IMPRESSIVE	17	0.9	0	0.0	4.86	0.0274	++	0.193
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		

CHALLENGING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
AMBITIOUS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
APPRECIATION	8	0.4	0	0.0	2.28	0.1310		0.132
SUCCESSFUL	3	0.2	0	0.0	0.85	0.3556		0.081
WELL-CRAFTED	2	0.1	0	0.0	0.57	0.4508		0.066
RECOMMENDED	5	0.3	0	0.0	1.42	0.2328		0.104
ENJOYABLE	6	0.3	0	0.0	1.71	0.1911		0.114
INTERESTING	10	0.5	0	0.0	2.85	0.0912	+	0.148
VALUABLE	11	0.6	0	0.0	3.14	0.0764	+	0.155
TERRIFIC	5	0.3	0	0.0	1.42	0.2328		0.104

Table 144. GENERAL-TYPE in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Among the most common evaluations, there are those related to such parameters as IMPRESSIVE (49), VALUABLE (50), INTERESTING (51), APPRECIATION (52), and IMPORTANCE (53).

(49) In sum, Adolescents and adults with learning disabilities and ADHD: Assessment and accommodations is a gem of a book [Psychology/ACN_005_2010.txt].

(50) The third edition of Gates and Rowan's Nonepileptic Seizures is a worthy addition to this collection of texts [Psychology/PSS_006_2011.txt].

(51) This interesting book is a part of the "Guilford Practical Intervention in the Schools Series," which focuses on the psychosocial issues of at-risk youth [Psychology/PSS_001_2008.txt].

(52) I appreciated the chapter on self-help resources [Psychology/PSS_010_2012.txt].

(53) I personally found the book to be an important reading [Psychology/JEP_007_2015.txt].

8.2. POSITIVE vs. NEGATIVE-TYPE: syntactic complexity: SIMPLE vs. CHAINED

8.2.1. SIMPLE-POSITIVE vs. CHAINED-POSITIVE

As assumed in the annotation scheme (see page 193), evaluations of either polarity are further divided into a SIMPLE or a CHAINED type. The latter represents the case of multiple evaluations of the same polarity within a clause or a sentence.

In the PSYCH corpus, there have been identified 1,541 SIMPLE-POSITIVE cases (as shown in sentences 54 – 55), and 293 CHAINED ones (sentences 56 – 57), shown in Figure 78, which corresponds to a ratio of 5.30. It is interesting to note that the number and the proportion are almost identical to the results obtained for the LING corpus.

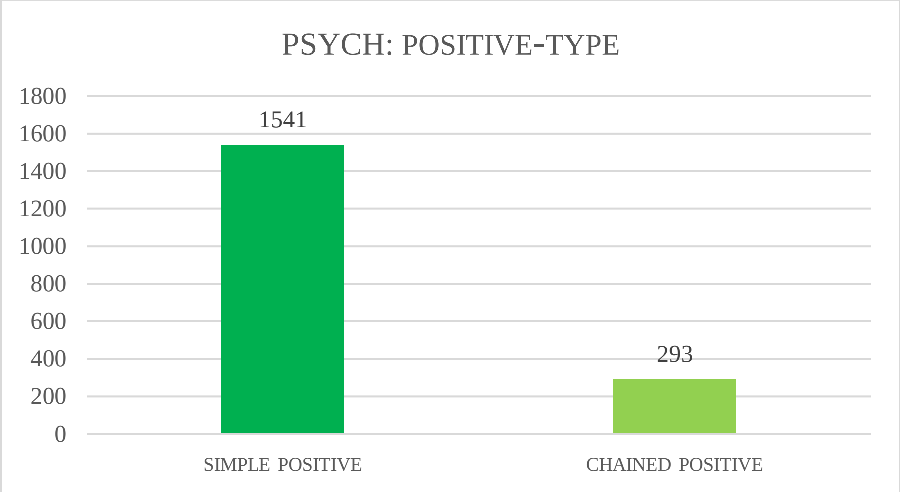


Fig. 78. The distribution of POSITIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

(54) Rizzo and Kellison's chapter on driving is representative of the useful information provided in this section. [Psychology/ACN_006_2010.txt].

(55) The author clearly states in her introduction and first few chapters that the ideal setting for such broad and deep interventions is in a team-driven neurorehabilitation program. [Psychology/ACN_008_2011.txt].

(56) Each expertly written volume covers the full spectrum of disease processes and syndromes, and is rounded out by entries on foundational concepts, such as neuroanatomy, test overviews, and biographies of notable figures [Psychology/ACN_012_20153txt].

(57) When they do, they will find that these chapters are laid out logically and consistently [Psychology/ACN_011_2013.txt].

A statistical test has confirmed the observable contrast in the distribution of simple-positive evaluations compared to chained-positive ones (https://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/chisquare/default2.aspx). This analysis demonstrated the chi-square statistic of 596,8683, yielding a p-value of less than 0.00001, which is statistically significant at a confidence level of p<.05. Furthermore, considering the Yates correction, the chi-square statistic becomes 595.4344, with a corresponding p-value of less than 0.00001, also indicating a statistical significance at a confidence level of p<.05.

One more distinction between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE pertains to the length of the evaluation segment. As anticipated, the segments have been found to be shorter for chained-positive evaluations. The T-test outcomes can be found in Table 145.

Text Complexity	**SIMPLE-POSITIVE**	**CHAINED-POSITIVE**	**T-Stat**	**P-val**	**Signif.**
Av. Segment Length	19.72	16.41	11720.61	0.0000	+++

Table 145. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE: text complexity in the PSYCH corpus

The final parameter examined is Subjective Positivity, which confirms the fact that multiple evaluations have a higher index than simple ones, as shown in Table 146.

Subjectivity	SIMPLE-POSITIVE	CHAINED-POSITIVE
Subjective Positivity	0.355	0.472

Table 146. Subjective positivity indices for SIMPLE-POSITIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE in the PSYCH corpus

8.2.2. SIMPLE-NEGATIVE VS. CHAINED-NEGATIVE

The proportion between SIMPLE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE evaluations, although not as sizeable as in the LING corpus, is very high, with the ratio of 14:1. The number of CHAINED-NEGATIVES is very low, with only 34 instances. The use of SIMPLE-NEGATIVES and CHAINED-NEGATIVES is shown in examples 58 – 61. The overall distribution is shown in Figure 79.

(58) Moreover, there is no mention of the "learning styles" movement, which attempts to assess students' preferred learning styles (e.g., visual, auditory) and match these styles to teachers' instructional styles. [Psychology/ACN_004_2009.txt]

(59) Future editions would benefit from more directed summaries in keeping with the title as very few chapters meet the expectation of a Handbook. [Psychology/ACN_009_2012.txt]

(60) At times this interferes with the flow of reading and does not always feel necessary to illustrate the author's point [Psychology/CBP_007_2010.txt]

(61) For example, some chapters are very long and contain more information than one would want to really know about certain diagnoses [Psychology/ACN_010_2012.txt]

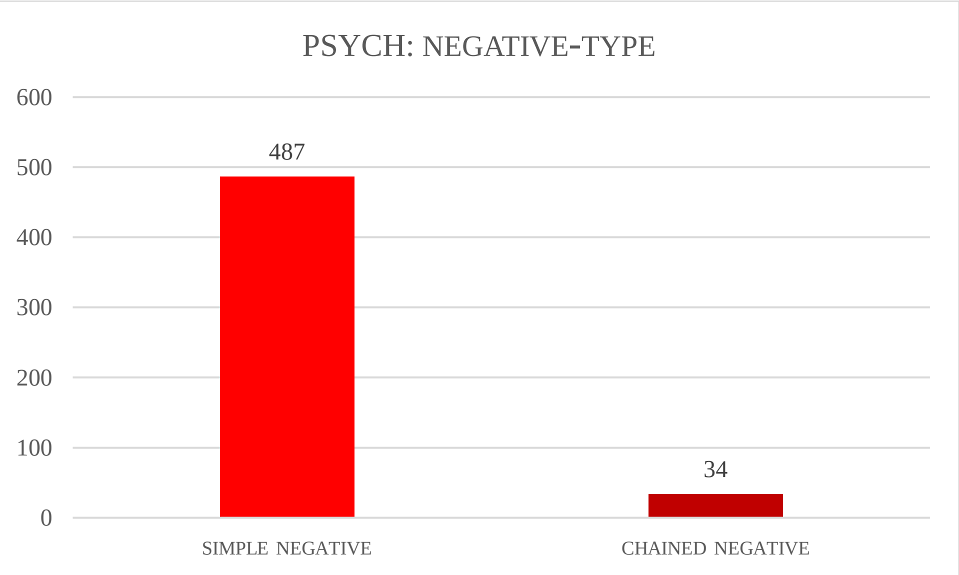


Fig. 79. The distribution of NEGATIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

It is evident that while combing positive evaluations in a single segment is a usual practice, combing negative evaluations is uncommon. One of the possible reasons is that when negative evaluations are chained, the overall subjective positivity of the chained negative evaluations is consistently lower compared to a SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations, as demonstrated in Table 147.

Subjectivity	simple-negative	chained-negative
Subjective Positivity	0.04	-0.039

Table 147. Subjective positivity indices for SIMPLE-NEGATIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE in the PSYCH corpus

8.2.2.1. SIMPLE-POSITIVE vs. SIMPLE-NEGATIVE compared

Out of total of 1,834 positive segments, 1,541 segments (84.00%) fall under the category of SIMPLE-POSITIVE. Similarly, out of 521 negative segments, 487 segments (93.4%) are classified as SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, as shown in Figure 80. These findings indicate that the evaluation pattern characterized BY SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE is the predominant trend.

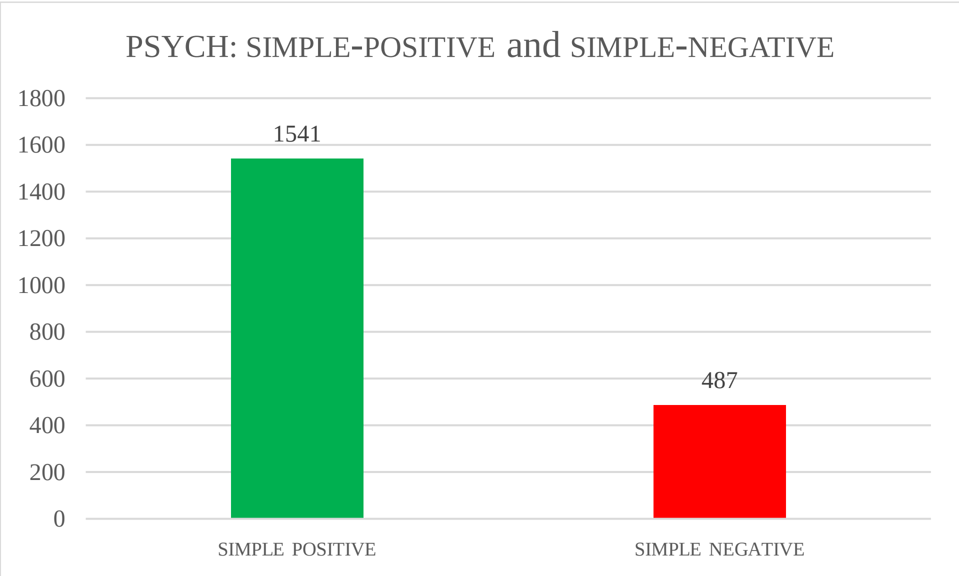


Fig. 80. The distribution of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE in the PSYCH corpus

SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations are shown in sentences 62 – 65 below.

(62) Wing and Potter provide compelling data that refutes the link between the measles, mumps, and rubella vaccine and autism [Psychology/ACN_013_2009.txt]

(63) In particular, the sections on treatment are a valuable resource for clinicians and caregivers wanting an introduction to evidenced-based treatment options for individuals with ASCs [Psychology/ACN_007_2011.txt]

(64) First, it is not a comprehensive reference for individual test descriptions and norms [Psychology/ACN_019_2018.txt]

(65) Unfortunately, however, Reckase does not append computer code at the end of this book [Psychology/APM_004_2010.txt]

Considering the average length of a segment, there is a statistically significant difference between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations, as shown in Table 148.

Text Complexity	SIMPLE-POSITIVE	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	19.72	22.43	7368.62	0.0000	+++

Table 148. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE: text complexity in the PSYCH corpus

As far as Subjective Positivity is concerned, the index for simple-negative evaluations is lower, although no statistical significance has been found. The results are shown in Table 149.

Subjectivity	SIMPLE-POSITIVE	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE
Subjective Positivity	0.355	0.019

Table 149. Subjective positivity indices for SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE in the PSYCH corpus

Again, on the level of this layer, there is a statistically significant difference between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE in Reference Density concerning the 1st person pronoun, as shown in Table 150.

Reference Density	SIMPLE-POSITIVE	SIMPLE-NEGATIVE	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.36%	0.5%	4.95	0.0260	++

Table 150. The first-person reference index for SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE polarities and T-stat results in the PSYCH corpus

Other differences between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE are related to the distribution of their subtypes. The descriptive statistics of both categories identified in the corpus are presented in Figure 81 and Figure 82.

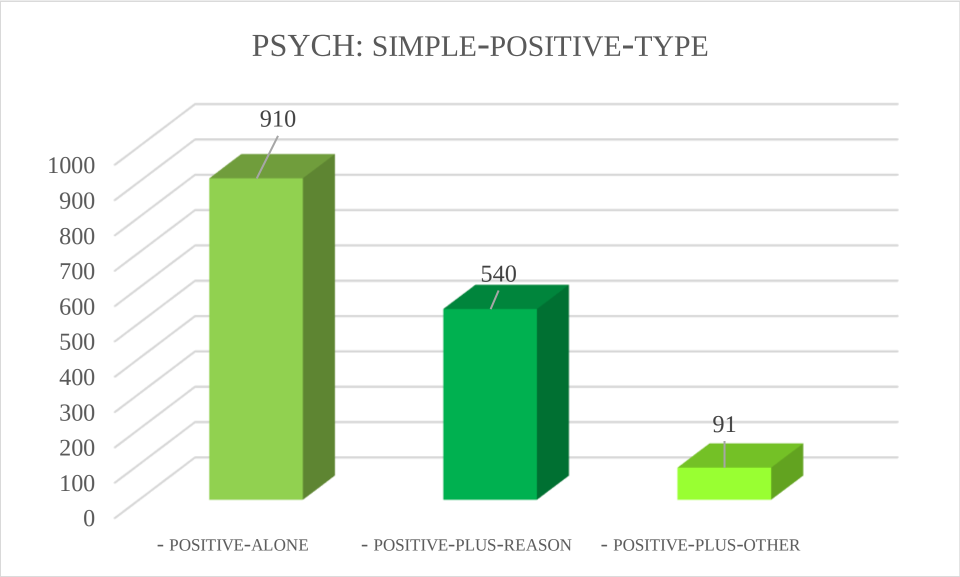


Figure 81. The distribution of SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

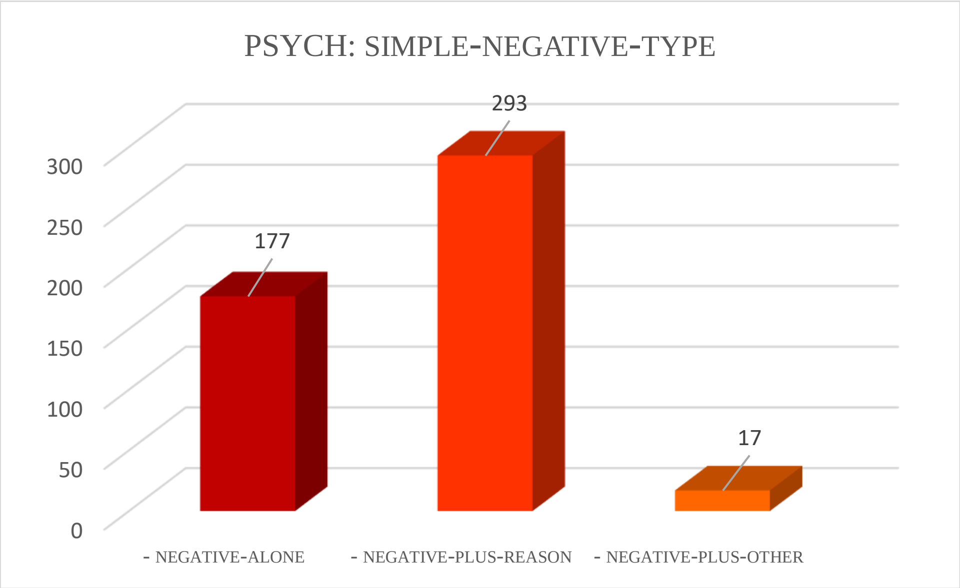


Fig. 82. The distribution of SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

Concerning the three subcategories, psychology book reviewers exhibit very distinct patterns of use of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations. As in the case of the LING corpus, reviewers show a similar lack of preference for conveying their evaluations using POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER resources. However, they differ in how they resort to the remaining "valuation" resources. Although both POSITIVE-ALONE and POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON resources have a relatively high share, POSITIVE-ALONE is significantly more frequently employed than POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON. Conversely, a contrasting trend can be observed when it comes to SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, with NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON cases outnumbering NEGATIVE-ALONE instances.

To test the statistical significance of the distribution, a chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between polarity and its patterns (https://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/chisquare2/default2.aspx). The chi-square statistic is 96.5094. The p-value is <0.00001. The results is significant at p<.05. This suggests a statistically significant association between the types within the SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE groups.

An analysis aimed to investigate the association between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE in terms of EVALUATION-OBJECT reveals numerous significant differences pointing to discipline-specific evaluation patterns.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	**SIMPLE-POSITIVE**		**SIMPLE-NEGATIVE**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
CONTENT	894	58.0	347	71.3	27.31	0.0000	+++	0.278
STYLE	248	16.1	81	16.6	0.08	0.7785		0.015
READERSHIP	148	9.6	14	2.9	22.80	0.0000	+++	0.289
TEXT	99	6.4	21	4.3	2.97	0.0850	+	0.094
AUTHOR	52	3.4	7	1.4	4.92	0.0266	++	0.129
PUBLISHING	14	0.9	13	2.7	8.73	0.0031	+++	0.137
GENERAL	82	5.3	0	0.0	27.01	0.0000	+++	0.466

Table 151. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE EVALUATION-OBJECT: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The most pronounced distinction pertains to the parameter of CONTENT. Although the overall count of SIMPLE-POSITIVE evaluations focusing on content exceeds that of SIMPLE-NEGATIVE by more than twofold, their relative presence diverges significantly. SIMPLE-NEGATIVE accounts for over 71% of all content evaluations, whereas the corresponding ratio for SIMPLE-POSITIVE is lower, standing at 58%. As shown in Table 151, this result was found to be statistically significant.

Contrary to what was found in the LING corpus, there has been no statistical significance for STYLE. Although in absolute terms, STYLE is the second most frequently evaluated parameter, both for SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE types, no statistically significant difference has been found for them.

The findings from the UAMCT analysis reveal a distinct contrast, particularly in terms of the parameter of READERSHIP, where negative evaluations are exceptionally infrequent. While positive evaluations pertaining to READERSHIP constitute 9.6%, the proportion of negative evaluations addressing READERSHIP is notably minimal, standing at 2.9%

Table 151 illustrates that the parameters of TEXT and AUTHOR also tend to be evaluated positively. In contrast, more criticism is made against the quality of PUBLISHING. The parameter of GENERAL remains consistently rated positively. Not a single unfavourable evaluation has been observed.

In summary, there is a discernible trend in the distribution of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE patterns concerning evaluation-object: reviewers tend to use the SIMPLE-POSITIVE patterns, which consist of shorter and less subjective segments, when assessing aspects such as READERSHIP and AUTHORSHIP. On the other hand, when employing the simple pattern, the evaluation of elements like STYLE and PUBLISHING often takes a more negative angle.

Moving towards more specific aspects of the distribution, a marked difference can be found in the focus put by SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE on types of CONTENT, shown in Table 152 below.

CONTENT-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
GENERAL-CONTENT	462	30.0	54	11.1	69.62	0.0000	+++	0.480
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	432	28.0	293	60.2	166.32	0.0000	+++	0.660

Table 152. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Table 152 demonstrates that while the distribution of SIMPLE-POSITIVE evaluation is more or less balanced and oscillates around 30%, SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations concerning LOCAL-CONTENT are over five times as frequent as those referring to the GENERAL-CONTENT. This difference is statistically significant.

As shown in Table 153, of all GENERAL-CONTENT parameters, two have not been referred to in any negative evaluation, i.e., CURRENCY and SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE, and understandably, it is here that the difference in the focus is most pronounced.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CURRENCY	37	2.4	0	0.0	11.91	0.0006	+++	0.311
APPROACH	51	3.3	11	2.3	1.38	0.2403		0.064
COVERAGE	95	6.2	13	2.7	8.97	0.0028	+++	0.174
CONTENT-QUALITY	165	10.7	21	4.3	18.17	0.0000	+++	0.248
NOVELTY	33	2.1	4	0.8	3.60	0.0578	+	0.112
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	39	2.5	0	0.0	12.57	0.0004	+++	0.320
IMPLICATIONS	14	0.9	2	0.4	1.17	0.2791		0.063
APPLICABILITY	28	1.8	3	0.6	3.55	0.0597	+	0.113
TOTAL:	**462**	**30.0%**	**54**	**11.1%**				

Table 153. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Other parameters with a strong inclination towards positive evaluations are CONTENT-QUALITY, followed by SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE, NOVELTY, and COVERAGE.

(66) The authors provide copious illustrations of assessment-driven outcomes in the voices of parents and children alike. [Psychology/APM_004_2010.txt]

(67) It will be incredibly useful in shaping the future of brain-related research. [Psychology/JEP_007_2015.txt]

(68) Nonetheless, the authors make a pioneering effort to reach this goal. [Psychology/ACB_016_2015.txt]

(69) I do not know of a more comprehensive text than this for practitioners of clinical neuropsychology [Psychology/ACN_019_2018.txt]

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations are relatively most frequent in relation to the parameters of APPROACH (70) and CONTENT-QUALITY (71).

(70) He does not explicitly develop this line of thinking. [Psychology/EHR_010_2012.txt]

(71) Buchanan's biography could have been much better, fairer to all sides, and to the way that science actually works. [Psychology/PID_006_2011.txt]

As indicated above, while GENERAL-CONTENT evaluations are generally positive, SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT is evaluated negatively almost twice as often (60.2% vs. 28.0%). For some parameters, the negative evaluation is attributable to the very nature of these parameters such as the case of MISSING-CONTENT (72), which, for obvious reasons, is dominated by criticism.

(72) The section could have benefited from further interactive exercises, step-by-step guidelines, and session-by-session approaches. [Psychology/CBP_006_2010.txt]

Other parameters, shown in Table 154, which tend to receive criticism are ARGUMENT-VALUE (73) and BIAS (74).

(73) At any rate, the argument of eventual benefits is questionable [Psychology/EHR_005_2010.txt]

(74) (…) and clearly colored by the guide's personal perspective. [Psychology/INTEL_016_2016.txt]

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	Chi Squ	P	Signif	Effect Size
COHERENCE	2	0.1	1	0.2	0.14	0.7053		0.019
INSIGHT	76	4.9	9	1.8	8.76	0.0031	+++	0.175
ARGUMENT-VALUE	42	2.7	90	18.5	150.95	0.0000	+++	0.557
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	251	16.2	63	12.9	3.06	0.0801	+	0.093
MISSING-CONTENT	0	0.0	116	23.8	378.96	0.0000	+++	0.948
METHOD	15	1.1	3	0.6	0.54	0.4636		0.041
SCOPE	20	1.3	2	0.4	2.71	0.0995	+	0.100
BIAS	2	0.1	5	1.0	8.65	0.0033	+++	0.131
TERMINOLOGY	3	0.2	2	0.4	0.70	0.4021		0.040
UTILITY	21	1.3	2	0.4	2.71	0.0995	+	0.100
TOTAL:	**432**	**28.0%**	**293**	**60.2%**				

Table 154. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

By contrast, parameters such as SCOPE (75), INSIGHT (76), UTILITY (77), and LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE (78) are far more often viewed in positive terms.

(75) The extent of reading that lies at some chapters' heart is noteworthy [Psychology/JEP_001_2012.txt]

(76) Also, an innovative optimal scaling method is introduced in the context of one-way analysis of variance and correlation approaches. [Psychology/APM_006_2011.txt.]

(77) Many practical suggestions are given in the chapter. [Psychology/APM_011_2015.txt]

(78) There is a useful discussion of causality, and definitions of moderators and mediators, with relevant examples. [Psychology/BRAIN_006_2011.txt].

Another interesting tendency resembling the one found in the LING corpus is that, whether positive or negative, evaluations focus on explanatory arguments rather than the descriptive ones, as shown in Table 155. It should be noted that both DESCRIPTIVE and EXPLANATORY arguments are evaluated negatively rather than positively, which has been found statistically significant.

ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DESCRIPTIVE	8	0.5	13	2.7	16.70	0.0000	+++	0.184
EXPLANATORY	34	2.2	77	15.8	132.38	0.0000	+++	0.520
TOTAL:	**42**	**2.7%**	**90**	**18.5%**				

Table 155. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

STYLE is well-represented in the PSYCH corpus. With a share of 16.1% and 16.6% for positive and negative evaluations enacted by means of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE patterns, respectively, it ranks seconds as an evaluation parameter. Out of 329 evaluations, as many as 90 concern ORGANIZATION, 70 – READABILITY, 65 – CLARITY, 38 – CONCISENESS, and 26 – ATTRACTIVENESS. Other parameters play a minor role, as demonstrated in Table 156.

STYLE-TYPE	**SIMPLE-POSITIVE**		**SIMPLE-NEGATIVE**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
CLARITY	60	3.9	5	1.0	9.80	0.0017	+++	0.194
ORGANISATION	46	3.0	44	9.0	31.94	0.0000	+++	0.263
CONCISENESS	28	1.8	10	2.1	0.11	0.7374		0.017
DIFFICULTY	3	0.2	3	0.6	2.23	0.1356		0.069
READABILITY	65	4.2	5	1.0	11.31	0.0008	+++	0.211
ATTRACTIVENESS	25	1.6	1	0.2	5.87	0.0154	+++	0.165
PRECISION	9	0.6	1	0.2	1.08	0.2983		0.062
AUTHORITATIVE	2	0.1	2	0.4	1.48	0.2233		0.056
CONSISTENCY	7	0.5	8	1.6	7.12	0.0076	+++	0.122
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	1	0.1	1	0.2	0.74	0.3894		0.040
HUMOUR	1	0.1	1	0.2	0.74	0.3894		0.040
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.32	0.5739		0.051
TOTAL:	**248**	**16.1%**	**81**	**16.6%**				

Table 156. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE STYLE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

A chi-square analysis indicates that for five parameters, there is a statistically significant difference in the use of the parameters for the evaluation of STYLE. Such parameters as CLARITY (79), READABILITY (80), and ATTRACTIVENESS (81) tend to appear in acts of praise, while ORGANIZATION (82) and CONSISTENCY (83) are related to criticism.

(79) At the onset of each chapter, an outline is provided of the topics to be covered that clearly sets the expectations for each session [Psychology/Brain_004_2009.txt]

(80) Final Comments To summarize, I found Linear Models for Optimal Test Design to be highly readable. [Psychology/APM_001_2009.txt]

(81) In many respects reading this book is similar to the experience of listening to an expert describe his or her field of expertise in a manner that captivates and stimulates the audience [Psychology/INTEL_016_2016.txt]

(82) The chapter could have also been placed in the second part of the book, because it introduces a specific family of statistical models, time-series models, to model a series of equated results [Psychology/APM_008_20013.txt]

(83) This chapter was troubling in the inconsistency of its writing style. [Psychology/Brain_005_2011.txt]

As in the case of the LING corpus, the evaluation of READERSHIP, which refers to the aspect of readership relevance in a review, is strongly positive. The outcomes of the UAMCT analysis consistently indicate that when readership is evaluated using a SIMPLE-POSITIVE or SIMPLE-NEGATIVE pattern, there is a clear inclination towards positive evaluations rather than negative ones, as shown in Table 157. Further, table 158 demonstrates that differences between positive and negative evaluations with respect to all three types of relevance are statistically significant, the weakest correlation being found for PURPOSE-RELEVANCE.

READERSHIP-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
RELEVANCE-TYPE	148	9.6	14	2.9	22.80	0.0000	+++	0.289
TOTAL:	**148**	**9.6%**	**14**	**2.9%**				

Table 157. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE READERSHIP-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

RELEVANCE-TYPE-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	63	4.1	4	0.8	12.36	0.0004	+++	0.226
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	31	2.0	4	0.8	3.09	0.0787	+	0.103
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	54	3.5	6	1.2	6.65	0.0099	+++	0.154
TOTAL:	**148**	**9.6%**	**14**	**2.9%**				

Table 158. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE RELEVANCE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

TEXT is a parameter in which negative evaluations in the PSYCH corpus are relatively rare. This is not to mean that it is dominated by positive comments. In fact, it is only in the case of a few parameters that the tendency towards positive evaluations can be observed. Although such parameters as REFERENCES, DIAGRAMS, EXAMPLES, and resources exhibit the highest number of occurrences, statistical significance has been found only for NOTATION and EXAMPLES. A weak statistical significance has also been observed for EXTENT and TILE. Generally, the parameter for which the number of negative evaluations is the highest is REFERENCES, followed by NOTATION and TITLE. Table 159 shows the results in detail.

TEXT-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXTENT	1	0.1	2	0.4	3.00	0.0835	+	0.077
REFERENCES	21	1.4	5	1.0	0.33	0.5655		0.031
DIAGRAMS	20	1.3	2	0.4	2.71	0.0995	+	0.100
EXERCISES	2	0.1	1	0.2	0.14	0.7053		0.019
INDEX	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
GLOSSARY	4	0.3	0	0.0	1.27	0.2604		0.102
NOTATION	1	0.1	3	0.6	5.71	0.0169	+++	0.106
APPENDIX	3	0.2	0	0.0	0.95	0.3298		0.088
TRANSCRIPTS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
EXAMPLES	21	1.4	1	0.2	4.62	0.0316	++	0.143
DATA	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.32	0.5739		0.051
RESOURCES	12	0.8	2	0.4	0.73	0.3925		0.048
SUMMARY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.32	0.5739		0.051
TITLE	0	0.0	3	0.6	9.51	0.0020	+++	0.157
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	5	0.3	1	0.2	0.18	0.6731		0.023
AUXILIARY-DATA	7	0.5	0	0.0	2.22	0.1362		0.135
INTRODUCTION	0	0.0	1	0.2	3.17	0.0752	+	0.091
TOTAL:	**99**	**6.4%**	**21**	**4.3%**				

Table 159. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE TEXT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

While the parameters of EXPERIENCE, REPUTATION, and EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION are the top three ones in the category of AUTHOR-TYPE, which resembles the distribution for the LING corpus, it is worth noting that in the PSYCH corpus, the most frequently referred to parameter is not EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION, but REPUTATION itself, as shown in Table 160. With 52 positive evaluations against seven negative ones, the category of AUTHOR-TYPE clearly shows that author-focused evaluations tend to be positive, and criticism levelled at the author is very rare in the PSYCH corpus when expressed by the SIMPLE-NEGATIVE pattern.

AUTHOR-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXPERIENCE	12	0.8	2	0.4	0.73	0.3925		0.048
REPUTATION	22	1.4	0	0.0	7.03	0.0080	+++	0.240
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	7	0.5	0	0.0	2.22	0.1362		0.135
TALENT	4	0.3	0	0.0	1.27	0.2604		0.102
SELF-CRITICAL	1	0.1	2	0.4	3.00	0.0835	+	0.077
KNOWLEDGE	4	0.3	1	0.2	0.04	0.8334		0.011
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	2	0.1	2	0.4	1.48	0.2233		0.056
TOTAL:	**52**	**3.4%**	**7**	**1.4%**				

Table 160. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE AUTHOR-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

In the case of PRODUCTION-STANDARDS, the highest number of evaluative comments concerns EDITING (84) and TYPOGRAPHY (85).

(84) The few criticisms I had reading this book pertain to format and editing. [Psychology/PSS_012_2013.txt]

(85) Two minor problems with this example are as follows: (a) It contains several small typographical errors on the "range" and "var" declarations. [Psychology/APM_001_2009..txt]

However, the number of evaluations is too low to find the parameter significant in the general panorama of psychology book reviews. For two parameters, there has been observed statistical significance: such parameters as TYPOGRAPHY and TITLE are likely to be evaluated negatively rather than positively. Table 161 shows the data.

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
TYPOGRAPHY	3	0.2	5	1.0	6.52	0.0107	+++	0.115
PRICE	1	0.1	2	0.4	3.00	0.0835	+	0.077
EDITING	8	0.5	4	0.8	0.57	0.4484		0.037
WRONG-TITLE	0	0.0	2	0.4	6.33	0.0118	+++	0.128
SIZE	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.32	0.5739		0.051
PHYSICAL-QUALITY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.32	0.5739		0.051
TOTAL:	**14**	**0.9%**	**13**	**2.7%**				

Table 161. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE PRODUCTION-STANDARDS: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Finally, as regards the GENERAL-TYPE (Table 162), a direct comparison between SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations reveals that criticism is absent, as all 82 evaluative comments are positive. Among the most common expressions are those referring to IMPRESSIVE, VALUABLE, and INTERESTING, which differs from the data obtained for the LING corpus.

GENERAL-TYPE	SIMPLE-POSITIVE		SIMPLE-NEGATIVE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
INSPIRING	4	0.3	0	0.0	1.27	0.2604		0.102
IMPORTANCE	7	0.5	0	0.0	2.22	0.1362		0.135
EXCEPTIONALITY	4	0.3	0	0.0	1.27	0.2604		0.102
IMPRESSIVE	17	1.1	0	0.0	5.42	0.0199	+++	0.210
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
CHALLENGING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
AMBITIOUS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
APPRECIATION	8	0.5	0	0.0	2.54	0.1111		0.144
SUCCESSFUL	3	0.2	0	0.0	0.95	0.3298		0.088
WELL-CRAFTED	2	0.1	0	0.0	0.63	0.4264		0.072
RECOMMENDED	5	0.3	0	0.0	1.58	0.2082		0.114
ENJOYABLE	6	0.4	0	0.0	1.90	0.1679		0.125
INTERESTING	10	0.6	0	0.0	3.18	0.0747	+	0.161
VALUABLE	11	0.7	0	0.0	3.50	0.0615	+	0.169
TERRIFIC	5	0.3	0	0.0	1.58	0.2082		0.114
TOTAL:	**82**	**5.3%**	**0**	**0.0%**				

Table 162. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE GENERAL-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

8.2.3. POSITIVE-ALONE VS. NEGATIVE-ALONE

As before, the parameters of POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE indicate an act of evaluation in a sentence such as in:

(86) The remaining chapters exhaustively cover the impact of psychiatric illness on cognitive effort, the roles of ethnic and cultural factors in effort testing, and effort testing in criminal cases [[Psychology/ACN_002_2008.txt]

(87) Both chapters have limited practical utility [Psychology/ACN_002_2008.txt]

Table 163 illustrates that the most common pattern for positive evaluations is POSITIVE-ALONE, whereas NEGATIVE-ALONE ranks second in terms of frequency for negative evaluations.

SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE	N	%
POSITIVE-ALONE	910	59.1
POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	540	35.0
POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	91	5.9
TOTAL:	**1541**	**100.0%**

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE	N	%
NEGATIVE-ALONE	177	36.3
NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	293	60.2
NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	17	3.5
TOTAL:	**487**	**100.0%**

Table 163. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPES: general statistics

Considering the average length of a segment, there is a statistically significant difference between POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE evaluations, shown in Table 164.

Text Complexity	POSITIVE-ALONE	NEGATIVE-ALONE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	15.3	15.55	225.52	0.0000	+++

Table 164. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE: text complexity in the PSYCH corpus

As in all other comparisons of negative and positive evaluations, the Subjective Positivity index is higher for positive evaluations than for negative ones, as shown in Table 165.

Subjectivity	POSITIVE-ALONE	NEGATIVE-ALONE
Subjective Positivity	0.41	0.036

Table 165. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE: subjective positivity

The final parameter of Reference Density indicates the same regularity as observed before, which consists of increased visibility of the first-person pronouns in the negative evaluations.

Reference Density	POSITIVE-ALONE	NEGATIVE-ALONE	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.59%	0.84%	2.29	0.1302	

Table 166. The first-person pronoun index for POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE and T-stats in the PSYCH corpus

In what follows, an account will be made primarily of parameters displaying differences between POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE, with particular attention paid to those whose distribution within the corpus differs from the patterns observed in the higher-order parameters of POSITIVE and NEGATIVE types.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CONTENT	465	51.1	113	63.8	9.66	0.0019	+++	0.259
STYLE	190	20.9	35	19.8	0.11	0.7399		0.027
READERSHIP	93	10.2	9	5.1	4.60	0.0321	++	0.196
TEXT	55	6.0	7	4.0	1.20	0.2728		0.096
AUTHOR	35	3.8	4	2.3	1.08	0.2992		0.093
PUBLISHING	8	0.9	8	4.5	13.54	0.0002	+++	0.241
GENERAL	62	6.8	0	0.0	12.79	0.0003	+++	0.528
TOTAL:	**908**	**99.9%**	**176**	**99.8%**				

Table 167. The division of EVALUATION-OBJECT in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Table 168 illustrates that there is no statistically significant difference in the distribution of the parameters of STYLE, TEXT, and AUTHOR across the EVALUATION-OBJECT category. This deviation from the typical trend of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE patterns is noteworthy. The other parameters, however, consistently follow the established pattern. To be more specific, references to CONTENT and PUBLISHING are more likely to appear in the NEGATIVE-ALONE category than in the POSITIVE-ALONE category when considering their proportional share. It is essential to highlight that POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations occur more than five times as often as NEGATIVE-ALONE ones in terms of absolute frequency.

Analogous to the distribution observed in the positive and negative types, a similar pattern of evaluations emerges within the parameter of CONTENT-TYPE. Notably, negative evaluations tend to focus on the LOCAL-ARGUMENT TYPE, as exemplified in Table 168.

CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
GENERAL-CONTENT	272	29.9	26	14.7	17.21	0.0000	+++	0.370
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	193	21.2	87	49.2	60.50	0.0000	+++	0.597
TOTAL:	**465**	**51.1%**	**113**	**63.8%**				

Table 168. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

An intriguing finding from the analysis pertains to the prevalence of POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations of CONTENT, which have been found to be more frequent for GENERAL-CONTENT than LOCAL-CONTENT. This stands in contrast to an even distribution of such comments for SIMPLE-POSITIVE evaluations.

A comparison of Table 169 with Table 153 (page 327) reveals a number of similarities related to the dominant position of positive comments concerning CONTENT-QUALITY, COVERAGE, APPROACH, SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE, and CURRENCY. Similarly, the distribution of negative evaluations resembles the one identified for SIMPLE-NEGATIVE. Generally, the number of GENERAL-CONTENT related to negative evaluations is very low and the major focus is placed on CONTENT-QUALITY and COVERAGE. However, it should be noted that the only statistically significant difference has been found for CONTENT-QUALITY (88) and, to a lesser degree, SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE (89).

(88) The information within this book has far greater depth than our standard textbooks [Psychology/PSS_004_2010.txt]

(89) It will be incredibly useful in shaping the future of brain-related research [Psychology/JEP_007_2015.txt]

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CURRENCY	19	2.1	0	0.0	3.76	0.0524	+	0.290
APPROACH	24	2.6	4	2.3	0.08	0.7718		0.024
COVERAGE	58	6.4	6	3.4	2.38	0.1228		0.140
CONTENT-QUALITY	104	11.4	11	6.2	4.26	0.0391	++	0.186
NOVELTY	18	2.0	3	1.7	0.06	0.8023		0.021
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	19	2.1	0	0.0	3.76	0.0524	+	0.290
IMPLICATIONS	10	1.1	1	0.6	0.42	0.5161		0.060
APPLICABILITY	20	2.2	1	0.6	2.09	0.1487		0.147
TOTAL:	**272**	**29.9%**	**26**	**14.7%**				

Table 169. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Out of the ten parameters identified for the SPECIFIC ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE, POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations exhibit a higher total occurrence for five parameters, excluding COHERENCE, ARGUMENT-VALUE, MISSING-CONTENT, and BIAS. However, their relative distributions within the POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE categories differ. The chi-square test results shown in Table 170 demonstrate a statistically significant difference for ARGUMENT-VALUE, MISSING-CONTENT, and BIAS.

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
COHERENCE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
INSIGHT	30	3.3	3	1.7	1.29	0.2558		0.104
ARGUMENT-VALUE	11	1.2	12	6.8	22.20	0.0000	+++	0.306
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	120	13.2	22	12.4	0.07	0.7844		0.023
MISSING-CONTENT	0	0.0	46	26.0	233.12	0.0000	+++	0.976
METHOD	5	0.5	0	0.0	0.98	0.3229		0.148
SCOPE	11	1.2	1	0.6	0.56	0.4532		0.070
BIAS	1	0.1	2	1.1	5.60	0.0179	+++	0.147
TERMINOLOGY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.19	0.6591		0.066
UTILITY	13	1.3	1	0.6	0.71	0.3987		0.080
TOTAL:	**193**	**21.2 %**	**87**	**49.2 %**				

Table 170. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The parameter of ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE is one of the parameters for which a statistically significant difference has been found. Even though the total number of positive evaluations is very close to the number of negative ones, the share of negative evaluations within its class is higher. It is also interesting to note that positive comments without providing a reason are relatively infrequent. The details are shown in Table 171.

ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DESCRIPTIVE	3	0.3	3	1.7	5.03	0.0249	++	0.146
EXPLANATORY	8	0.9	9	5.1	17.02	0.0000	+++	0.267
TOTAL:	**11**	**1.2%**	**12**	**6.8%**				

Table 171. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

While the total share of STYLE evaluations enacted by POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE patterns within their respective classes is similar (20.9% vs. 19.8%), the total number of positive evaluations is five times as high as the number of negative ones, which is indicated in Table 172. However, only differences related to the parameters of CLARITY, READABILITY, and

ATTRACTIVENESS in which positive evaluations outnumber the negative ones have been found statistically significant. By contrast, most negative evaluations concern ORGANIZATION and CONSISTENCY. This pattern of distribution is very different from the SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, which seems to suggest that more evaluative "burden" falls on other SIMPLE-POSITIVE types.

STYLE-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CLARITY	47	5.2	1	0.6	7.43	0.0064	+++	0.308
ORGANISATION	22	2.4	15	8.5	16.53	0.0000	+++	0.279
CONCISENESS	25	2.7	8	4.5	1.58	0.2085		0.095
DIFFICULTY	3	0.3	1	0.6	0.22	0.6362		0.036
READABILITY	57	6.3	3	1.7	5.93	0.0149	+++	0.245
ATTRACTIVENESS	20	2.2	0	0.0	3.96	0.0465	++	0.298
PRECISION	6	0.7	1	0.6	0.02	0.8858		0.012
AUTHORITATIVE	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.39	0.5324		0.094
CONSISTENCY	6	0.7	4	2.3	4.16	0.0413	++	0.139
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	1	0.1	1	0.6	1.67	0.1961		0.084
HUMOUR	1	0.1	1	0.6	1.67	0.1961		0.084
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**190**	**20.9%**	**35**	**19.8%**				

Table 172. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE STYLE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The parameter of READERSHIP is mostly marked by POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations (93 compared to 9), indicating that, as noted by reviewers, most book authors are skillful in addressing the readership expectations. This has been confirmed by the chi-square test results, shown in Table 173. However, on the level of READERSHIP-RELEVANCE types, there has been found only a weak statistical significance for DISCIPLINE-RELEVANCE, as demonstrated in Table 174.

READERSHIP-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
RELEVANCE-TYPE	93	10.2	9	5.1	4.60	0.0321	++	0.196
TOTAL:	**93**	**10.2%**	**9**	**5.1%**				

Table 173. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE READERSHIP-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

RELEVANCE-TYPE-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	42	4.6	3	1.7	3.18	0.0743	+	0.172
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	17	1.9	2	1.1	0.47	0.4929		0.061
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	34	3.7	4	2.3	0.96	0.3278		0.087
TOTAL:	**93**	**10.2%**	**9**	**5.1%**				

Table 174. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE RELEVANCE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The share of POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE in the general category of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE amounts to 55% and 33.3% respectively. This indicates that evaluations in which the reviewer abstained from providing a reason or making an additional comment are relatively more common for the POSITIVE type rather than the NEGATIVE one. The insignificant interest of the reviewer in the criticism of books using the parameter of TEXT is evident in the number of parameters that were completely omitted from the reviews. Among these are REFERENCES, INDEX, GLOSSARY, APPENDIX, TRANSCRIPTS, EXAMPLES, DATA, and SUMMARY, i.e., eight out of eighteen TEXT-TYPE parameters. Negative evaluations found in the corpus are singular in nature. Only for the parameter of EXTENT were two negative evaluations found. By contrast, TEXT is an important parameter of the reviewers' assessment as there have been identified 16 positive evaluations of REFERENCES, ten comments on DIAGRAMS, and nine on the quality of EXAMPLES. Table 175 shows the results.

TEXT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXTENT	1	0.1	2	1.1	5.60	0.0179	+++	0.147
REFERENCES	16	1.8	0	0.0	3.16	0.0755	+	0.266
DIAGRAMS	10	1.1	1	0.6	0.42	0.5161		0.060
EXERCISES	2	0.2	1	0.6	0.64	0.4232		0.057
INDEX	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
GLOSSARY	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.59	0.4443		0.115
NOTATION	1	0.1	1	0.6	1.67	0.1961		0.084
APPENDIX	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.19	0.6591		0.066
TRANSCRIPTS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
EXAMPLES	9	1.0	0	0.0	1.77	0.1840		0.199
DATA	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.19	0.6591		0.066
RESOURCES	5	0.5	1	0.6	0.00	0.9797		0.002
SUMMARY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.19	0.6591		0.066
TITLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	3	0.3	1	0.6	0.22	0.6362		0.036
AUXILIARY-DATA	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.39	0.5324		0.094
INTRODUCTION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		

TOTAL:	55	6.0%	7	4.0%

Table 175. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE TEXT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Almost 67% of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and 57% of SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations have been realized by means of POSITIVE/NEGATIVE-ALONE patterns, which implies that the evaluations of the persona of the author tend not to require any additional justification. On a regular basis, authors are evaluated positively in relation to their REPUTATION, experience, and EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION, that is, qualities that they have acquired in time. Criticism, on the other hand, refers to the features that are transient rather than permanent, that is, IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE or lack of self-criticism. The findings are presented in Table 176.

AUTHOR-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXPERIENCE	9	1.0	0	0.0	1.77	0.1840		0.199
REPUTATION	17	1.9	0	0.0	3.36	0.0668	+	0.274
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.39	0.5324		0.094
TALENT	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.59	0.4443		0.115
SELF-CRITICAL	1	0.1	2	1.1	5.60	0.0179	+++	0.147
KNOWLEDGE	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.39	0.5324		0.094
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	1	0.1	2	1.1	5.60	0.0179	+++	0.147
TOTAL:	**35**	**3.8%**	**4**	**2.3%**				

Table 176. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE AUTHOR-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Comment on PRODUCTION-STANDARDS are thin on the ground, as shown in Table 177. It is interesting to note that there is a higher occurrence of negative evaluations, particularly in areas where statistically significant differences exist, such as TYPOGRAPHY and PRICE. Overall, the proportion of comments related to PRODUCTION-STANDARDS is minimal. This observation suggests that either psychology book reviews are well-edited or that this particular aspect holds less significance for the reviewers and is usually ignored in their assessment.

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
TYPOGRAPHY	2	0.2	3	1.7	7.04	0.0080	+++	0.167
PRICE	0	0.0	2	1.1	10.30	0.0013	+++	0.213
EDITING	5	0.5	3	1.7	2.66	0.1028		0.113
WRONG-TITLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
SIZE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
PHYSICAL-QUALITY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0.19	0.6591		0.066
TOTAL:	**8**	**0.9%**	**8**	**4.5%**				

Table 177. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE PRODUCTION-STANDARDS: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Finally, in light of previous analyses, it is quite unsurprising to observe that the parameter of GENERAL-TYPE is primarily associated with exclusively positive evaluations. Table 178 shows the results.

GENERAL-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-ALONE		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
INSPIRING	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.39	0.5324		0.094
IMPORTANCE	6	0.7	0	0.0	1.17	0.2787		0.163
EXCEPTIONALITY	4	0.4	0	0.0	0.78	0.3769		0.133
IMPRESSIVE	14	1.5	0	0.0	2.76	0.0967	+	0.249
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
CHALLENGING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
AMBITIOUS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
APPRECIATION	6	0.7	0	0.0	1.17	0.2787		0.163
SUCCESSFUL	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.59	0.4443		0.115
WELL-CRAFTED	2	0.2	0	0.0	0.39	0.5324		0.094
RECOMMENDED	4	0.4	0	0.0	0.78	0.3769		0.133
ENJOYABLE	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.59	0.4443		0.115
INTERESTING	6	0.7	0	0.0	1.17	0.2787		0.163
VALUABLE	9	1.0	0	0.0	1.77	0.1840		0.199
TERRIFIC	3	0.3	0	0.0	0.59	0.4443		0.115
TOTAL:	**62**	**6.8%**	**0**	**0.0%**				

Table 178. POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE GENERAL-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

8.2.4. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON vs. NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON

As defined in Chapter Six, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON refer to evaluative acts where the reviewer's evaluation is explained in either the same segment or a neighbouring one. In essence, the inclusion of REASON aims to provide clarity regarding the rationale behind a particular assessment.

SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE	N	%
POSITIVE-ALONE	910	59.1
POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	540	35.0
POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	91	5.9
TOTAL:	**1541**	**100.0%**

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE	N	%
NEGATIVE-ALONE	177	36.3
NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	293	60.2
NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	17	3.5
TOTAL:	**487**	**100.0%**

Table 163. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE types: general statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Table 163 (p. 333), presented here again for ease of reference, demonstrates that within SIMPLE-POSITIVE patterns, the second most commonly used type of positive evaluations is when it is accompanied by a justification. On the other hand, among the three main categories of SIMPLE-

NEGATIVE evaluations, the combination of negative opinion with a related reason holds the highest rank.

Looking at the typical length of a segment, Table 179 demonstrates a statistically significant difference between the two types of evaluation. Comparing these findings with those for SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, it can be seen that the inclusion of an extra explanatory element leads to an extension of the segment length, which has already been the case in the LING corpus.

Text Complexity	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	25.92	26.44	891.36	0.0000	+++

Table 179. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON: text complexity

It is also interesting to note that although the inclusion of the reason segment results in the increased value of the first-person reference density in the case of NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON, no statistical significance has been found. Table 180 shows the results.

Reference Density	positive-plus-reason	negative-plus-reason	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.53%	0.66%	1.47	0.2248	

Table 180. The first-person reference index for POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON : polarities and T-stat results

While the overall count of positive evaluations is only half as much and the count of negative evaluations is considerably higher compared to the categories of POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE, the fundamental patterns observed for positive and negative evaluations remain consistent. In other words, CONTENT continues to be the element most frequently evaluated proportionally, as shown in Table 181. However, contrary to the distribution of CONTENT in SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE, only a weak statistically significant difference has been observed.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CONTENT	376	69.4	220	75.1	3.04	0.0813	+	0.128
STYLE	46	8.5	45	15.4	9.25	0.0024	+++	0.214
READERSHIP	48	8.9	5	1.7	16.35	0.0000	+++	0.342
TEXT	36	6.6	13	4.4	1.67	0.1957		0.097
AUTHOR	15	2.8	2	0.7	4.15	0.0418	++	0.169
PUBLISHING	5	0.9	5	1.7	0.99	0.3203		0.070
GENERAL	14	2.6	0	0.0	7.70	0.0055	+++	0.323

Table 181. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON EVALUATION-OBJECT: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Several minor differences have been noticed. Previously, STYLE was noted as one of the parameters frequently receiving positive comments, but not its absolute value has decreased to the point that there is a statistically significant difference between POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON evaluations. There have also been observed differences in STYLE as the number of POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON evaluations has dropped heavily. To answer the question of which parameters the reviewers consider to require the addition of a justification for evaluation, it is necessary to look again at Table 151 (page 326), which shows that the element of REASON is relatively more frequent in negative evaluations when compared with NEGATIVE-ALONE. This observation concerns mainly the parameters of CONTENT (75.1% vs. 71.3%) and TEXT (4.4% vs. 4.3%). Among positive evaluations with REASON, an increase has been noted only for CONTENT (66.4% vs. 58%).

Interestingly, the patterns observed in the distribution of positive and negative evaluations (as shown in Table 182) do remain consistent with the previously mentioned trend, wherein there was a relatively larger percentage of negative comments on LOCAL-CONTENT and a slightly greater number of positive evaluations of GENERAL-CONTENT as can be seen, both for POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON, especially in the case of the latter, where negative comments on LOCAL-CONTENT are almost seven times more frequent than those concerning GENERAL-CONTENT. These differences have been found statistically significant.

CONTENT-TYPE	**POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
GENERAL-CONTENT	166	30.6	27	9.2	49.07	0.0000	+++	0.556
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	210	38.7	193	65.9	56.04	0.0000	+++	0.550
TOTAL:	**376**	**69.4%**	**220**	**75.1%**				

Table 182. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Given the relatively low number of NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON evaluations of GENERAL-CONTENT, it is no surprise that certain parameters are represented in a minimal degree. For these parameters, namely, CONTENT-QUALITY, APPROACH, and COVERAGE, the number of negative comments exceeds five, with the remaining parameters represented marginally in the whole corpus. By contrast, the parameter of GENERAL-CONTENT is relatively high for almost all POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON evaluations. Among these parameters, the strongest inclination towards positivity has been identified for CURRENCY (90), SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE (91), NOVELTY (92), CONTENT-QUALITY (93), and COVERAGE (94), as shown in the examples below.

(90) Given the current public discussion on the importance of education and the role of teachers/coaches along with the recent high-profile match between AlphaGo and Lee Sedol (Nielsen, 2016), this book is timely. [Psychology/INTEL_017_2016.txt]

(91) As a psychiatrist and internist practicing palliative medicine, this book is a welcome addition to a rapidly expanding literature in a blossoming specialty. [Psychology/PSS_008_2011. txt]

(92) The edited book Advancing Methodologies to Support Both Summative and Formative Assessments neatly fits in this gap. [Psychology/APM_011_2015.txt]

(93) One of the strengths of this book is that it does not shy away from presenting the challenges and problems of RST alongside the supporting evidence. [Psychology/PID_001_2009.txt]

(94) Added chapters on special disorders, such as transplantation, substance abuse, critical care, and pain, add to the manual's comprehensiveness. [Psychology/PSS_012_2013.txt]

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	**POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
CURRENCY	18	3.3	0	0.0	9.95	0.0016	+++	0.367
APPROACH	25	4.6	7	2.4	2.55	0.1102		0.123
COVERAGE	31	5.7	6	2.0	6.05	0.0139	+++	0.196
CONTENT-QUALITY	51	9.4	10	3.4	10.10	0.0015	+++	0.252
NOVELTY	14	2.6	1	0.3	5.42	0.0199	+++	0.206
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	18	3.3	0	0.0	9.95	0.0016	+++	0.367
IMPLICATIONS	3	0.6	1	0.3	0.18	0.6717		0.032
APPLICABILITY	6	1.1	2	0.7	0.36	0.5479		0.045
TOTAL:	**166**	**30.6%**	**27**	**9.2%**				

Table 183. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

As indicated above, the trend observed earlier, consisting of a higher number of positive evaluations of GENERAL-CONTENT rather than LOCAL-CONTENT is not maintained as the number of positive evaluations of the latter type is significantly higher. This has implications for the distribution of individual parameters and their statistical significance, as shown in Table 184 below.

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	**POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**Comparison**			
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**ChiSqu**	**P**	**Signif**	**Effect Size**
COHERENCE	1	0.2	1	0.3	0.20	0.6582		0.031
INSIGHT	40	7.4	6	2.0	10.39	0.0013	+++	0.263
ARGUMENT-VALUE	29	5.4	75	25.6	71.50	0.0000	+++	0.594
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	114	21.0	37	12.6	9.07	0.0026	+++	0.226

MISSING-CONTENT	0	0.0	64	21.8	128.22	0.0000	+++	0.973
METHOD	10	1.8	3	1.0	0.84	0.3603		0.070
SCOPE	8	1.5	1	0.3	2.30	0.1297		0.127
BIAS	1	0.2	3	1.0	2.81	0.0936	+	0.117
TERMINOLOGY	1	0.2	2	0.7	1.32	0.2509		0.079
UTILITY	6	1.1	1	0.3	1.34	0.2468		0.094
TOTAL:	**210**	**38.7%**	**193**	**65.9%**				

Table 184. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

For four parameters, there has been observed statistical significance. INSIGHT (95) and local-CONTENT-VALUE (96) tend to receive praise, whereas ARGUMENT-VALUE (97) and, understandably, MISSING-CONTENT (98) are dominated by negative evaluations. A weak statistical significance has been found for BIAS (99), which is, again, quite unsurprisingly, viewed in negative terms.

(95) Even treatment elements that seem relatively self-explanatory-for example, the motivational role of focusing on valued living in ACT-gain a whole new perspective when their elaborated connections to basic verbal processes are elucidated. [Psychology/CBP_008_2012.txt]

(96) These chapters reviewing the relationship between cognitive skills and real-world behavior in specific populations are among the most interesting and reveal the areas of both convergence and discrepancy. [Psychology/ACN_006_2010.txt]

(97) This appears to be the real miracle in cooperative care, and Hrdy's attempt to address it by arguing for the manipulative abilities of hypersocial babies seems weak. [Psychology/EHR_005_2010.txt]

(98) Given Nisbett's extensive discussion of the later MTAS reports in his account of the black-white IQ difference, his failure to mention the longitudinal wipeout of the MTAS adoption effect is inexplicable. [Psychology/PID_004_2010.txt]

(99) First, the book has a strong lean toward the cognitive, rather than behavioral, elements of CBT [Psychology/CBP_010_2013.txt]

In the domain of ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE, a uniform trend of negative evaluations persists for both explanatory and descriptive arguments. Strikingly, a noticeable difference emerges when analyzing the cumulative evaluation frequency within this classification. Negative evaluations surpass positive ones by a factor of three, as shown in Table 185. These differences are statistically significant.

ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DESCRIPTIVE	5	0.9	10	3.4	6.69	0.0097	+++	0.179
EXPLANATORY	24	4.4	65	22.2	62.97	0.0000	+++	0.557
TOTAL:	**29**	**5.4%**	**75**	**25.6%**				

Table 185. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Interesting findings are reported in the analysis of the evaluation of STYLE. The frequency of use of the pattern with the component of reason is low. If for the POSITIVE-ALONE pattern, there have been observed 190 cases, the number of POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON drops to the level of 46. For negative evaluations, the number of NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON is 45, which again shows the need to justify criticism on the part of psychology book reviewers. As in the case of the LING corpus, these results imply that reviewers find stylistic excellence a coveted quality, which is commented upon only when it deviates from the expected norm.

STYLE-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CLARITY	10	1.8	4	1.4	0.27	0.6063		0.038
ORGANISATION	22	4.1	29	9.9	11.31	0.0008	+++	0.234
CONCISENESS	0	0.0	2	0.7	3.71	0.0541	+	0.165
DIFFICULTY	0	0.0	2	0.7	3.71	0.0541	+	0.165
READABILITY	6	1.1	1	0.3	1.34	0.2468		0.094
ATTRACTIVENESS	3	0.6	1	0.3	0.18	0.6717		0.032
PRECISION	3	0.6	0	0.0	1.63	0.2020		0.149
AUTHORITATIVE	0	0.0	2	0.7	3.71	0.0541	+	0.165
CONSISTENCY	1	0.2	4	1.4	4.45	0.0348	++	0.148
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
HUMOUR	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
TOTAL:	**46**	**8.5%**	**45**	**15.4%**				

Table 186. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON STYLE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Table 186 shows that the parameters that are most frequently referred to are ORGANIZATION (100) – more often criticized than praised; CLARITY (101) – praised rather than blamed; and READABILITY (102) – with more positive comments.

(100) The format is logical with a clear progression from disease to treatment [Psychology/BRAIN_002_2008. txt]

(101) As someone who is routinely baffled by the prolixity of economics texts, I found it hugely refreshing to read Jones's clear prose [Psychology/INTEL_018_2016.txt]

(102) This highly readable account uses the conceptual framework of inclusive fitness theory [Psychology/EHR_009_2012.txt]

The analysis of READERSHIP brings no surprises. As in all previous cases, positive evaluations dominate, and their distribution across the three relevance types is balanced. The fact that only five negative evaluations were recorded does not allow any speculation, except that READERSHIP is not an overly interesting parameter for reviewers. Table 187 and Table 188 show the results.

READERSHIP-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
RELEVANCE-TYPE	48	8.9	5	1.7	16.35	0.0000	+++	0.342
TOTAL:	**48**	**8.9%**	**5**	**1.7%**				

Table 187. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON READERSHIP-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

RELEVANCE-TYPE-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	16	3.0	1	0.3	6.50	0.0108	+++	0.228
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	14	2.6	2	0.7	3.65	0.0559	+	0.157
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	18	3.3	2	0.7	5.66	0.0173	+++	0.201
TOTAL:	**48**	**8.9%**	**5**	**1.7%**				

Table 188. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON RELEVANCE-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The share of POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON evaluations referring to TEXT in the general category of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE amounts to 6.6% and 4.4%, respectively, which indicates that evaluations in which the reviewer abstained from providing a REASON are relatively more common for the negative type than positive one. However, when measured in terms of the number of parameters omitted from the PSYCH reviews, there is not much difference between evaluations of both polarities as, in either case, 10 different parameters were not addressed in the reviews. Of greater interest are the parameters of DIAGRAMS, EXAMPLES, RESOURCES, and REFERENCES in the POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON category and the four mentions of references in the NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON group. Table 189 presents the data.

TEXT-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXTENT	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
REFERENCES	4	0.7	4	1.4	0.79	0.3746		0.062
DIAGRAMS	9	1.7	1	0.3	2.80	0.0944	+	0.142
EXERCISES	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
INDEX	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
GLOSSARY	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
NOTATION	0	0.0	2	0.7	3.71	0.0541	+	0.165
APPENDIX	2	0.4	0	0.0	1.08	0.2978		0.122
TRANSCRIPTS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
EXAMPLES	9	1.7	1	0.3	2.80	0.0944	+	0.142
DATA	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
RESOURCES	6	1.1	1	0.3	1.34	0.2468		0.094
SUMMARY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TITLE	0	0.0	3	1.0	5.57	0.0183	+++	0.203
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
AUXILIARY-DATA	4	0.7	0	0.0	2.17	0.1405		0.172
INTRODUCTION	0	0.0	1	0.3	1.85	0.1735		0.117
TOTAL:	**36**	**6.6%**	**13**	**4.4%**				

Table 189. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON TEXT-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

As indicated earlier, most of SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations of the author are realized by means of POSITIVE-ALONE and NEGATIVE-ALONE patterns. The share of the patterns with the component of REASON is not high, with 15 positive evaluations and only two negative ones. In general, authors are evaluated positively in relation to their EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION (103) and REPUTATION (104). Conversely, the acts of criticism focus on lack of experience and lack of knowledge in a specific field (105). The results are shown in Table 190.

(103) Pamela Klonoff, PhD, is a neuropsychologist who has worked as a clinician and researcher with several of the leading neuropsychologists over the last 30 years. [Psychology/ACN_008_2011. txt]

(104) Gladwell is a credible critic, he has a good track record for discussing social science topics. [Psychology/INTEL_004_2009.txt]

(105) Both authors are themselves steeped in the cognitive tradition and neither really understands work on cultural bases of and effects upon intelligence [Psychology/INTEL_010_2012.txt]

AUTHOR-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
EXPERIENCE	2	0.4	1	0.3	0.00	0.9491		0.005
REPUTATION	4	0.7	0	0.0	2.17	0.1405		0.172
EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION	5	0.9	0	0.0	2.72	0.0991	+	0.192
TALENT	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
SELF-CRITICAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
KNOWLEDGE	2	0.4	1	0.3	0.00	0.9491		0.005
IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
TOTAL:	**15**	**2.8%**	**2**	**0.7%**				

Table 190. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON AUTHOR-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

While patterns involving the component of REASON make up half of all PRODUCTION-STANDARDS evaluations, the limited occurrence of positive (five instances) and negative (six cases) patterns prevents drawing any broad conclusions. EDITING receives the most positive feedback, while two comments pertain to typography and an incorrect TITLE, with reviewers criticizing the publishers in each case. Table 191 shows the results.

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
TYPOGRAPHY	0	0.0	2	0.7	3.71	0.0541	+	0.165
PRICE	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
EDITING	3	0.6	1	0.3	0.18	0.6717		0.032
WRONG-TITLE	0	0.0	2	0.7	3.71	0.0541	+	0.165
SIZE	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
PHYSICAL-QUALITY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
TOTAL:	**5**	**0.9%**	**5**	**1.7%**				

Table 191. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON PRODUCTION-STANDARDS: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

The analysis of the last parameter of the general content does not bring any change in the picture since there are only 14 positive evaluations, which represents only 22.5% of all positive evaluations, and no negative comments have been detected. The results are presented in Table 192.

GENERAL-TYPE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
INSPIRING	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
IMPORTANCE	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
EXCEPTIONALITY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
IMPRESSIVE	2	0.4	0	0.0	1.08	0.2978		0.122
SURPRISING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
CHALLENGING	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
AMBITIOUS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
APPRECIATION	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
SUCCESSFUL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
WELL-CRAFTED	0	0.0	0	0.0	0.00	1.0000		
RECOMMENDED	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
ENJOYABLE	3	0.6	0	0.0	1.63	0.2020		0.149
INTERESTING	3	0.6	0	0.0	1.63	0.2020		0.149
VALUABLE	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
TERRIFIC	1	0.2	0	0.0	0.54	0.4619		0.086
TOTAL:	**14**	**2.6%**	**0**	**0.0%**				

Table 192. POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON GENERAL-TYPE: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

8.2.5. POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER VS. NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER

Similar to the LING corpus analysis, the final part of this chapter concerning the POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER parameters will be presented in a slightly modified structure. After providing general statistics on the length of a segment and subjective positivity, a comparative analysis of the three initially recognized patters (POSITIVE/NEGATIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE/NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON, and POSITIVE/NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER) will be conducted.

Table 163, presented again for convenience of reference, illustrates that the combination of positive/negative evaluations accompanied by other segments is infrequently found in the corpus. This combination constitutes only 5.9% of positive evaluations and merely 3.5% of negative ones.

SIMPLE-POSITIVE-TYPE	N	%
POSITIVE-ALONE	910	59.1
POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	540	35.0
POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	91	5.9
TOTAL:	**1541**	**100.0%**

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE-TYPE	N	%
NEGATIVE-ALONE	177	36.3
NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON	293	60.2
NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	17	3.5
TOTAL:	**487**	**100.0%**

Table 163. SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE types: general statistics

Contrary to all previous findings, as indicated in Table 193, the mean segment length for negative evaluations is smaller, and this difference is statistically significant.

Text Complexity	POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	26.67	24.94	215.29	0.0000	+++

Table 193. POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER: text complexity

As previously, NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER also exhibits a low positivity index, as shown in Table 194.

Subjectivity	POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER
Subjective Positivity	0.303	0.145

Table 194. POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER: subjective positivity index in the PSYCH corpus

Unexpectedly, the NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER pattern displays a diminished reference density, suggesting a higher number of occurrences of the first-person pronoun references in positive comments, as in (106):

(106) I appreciated the authors' treatment of the importance of carefully selecting self-report measures (i.e., there are many to choose from with varying degrees of psychometric strengths) [Psychology/CBP_009_2013. txt]

The following distribution of praise and criticism has been found for the top layer of EVALUATION-OBJECT, as shown in Table 195 and Figure 83.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER		Comparison			
	N	%	N	%	ChiSqu	P	Signif	Effect Size
CONTENT	54	59.3	14	82.4	3.25	0.0713	+	0.516
STYLE	13	14.3	1	5.9	0.90	0.3437		0.285
READERSHIP	7	7.7	0	0.0	1.40	0.2370		0.562
TEXT	8	8.8	1	5.9	0.16	0.6904		0.112
AUTHOR	2	2.2	1	5.9	0.72	0.3961		0.192
PUBLISHING	1	1.1	0	0.0	0.19	0.6641		0.210
GENERAL	6	6.6	0	0.0	1.19	0.2760		0.519
TOTAL:	**91**	**100.0%**	**17**	**100.0%**				

Table 195. The division of EVALUATION-OBJECT in terms of polarity: general and descriptive statistics in the PSYCH corpus

As demonstrated in Table 195 above, differences between POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER vs. NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER are not statistically significant. Only a weak significance has been found for content. It can be observed that POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER plays a very inconsequential role in positive evaluations, accounting for as little as 91 occurrences out of over 1500 positive evaluations. Most of them focus on CONTENT and are followed by positive evaluations of STYLE and TEXT.

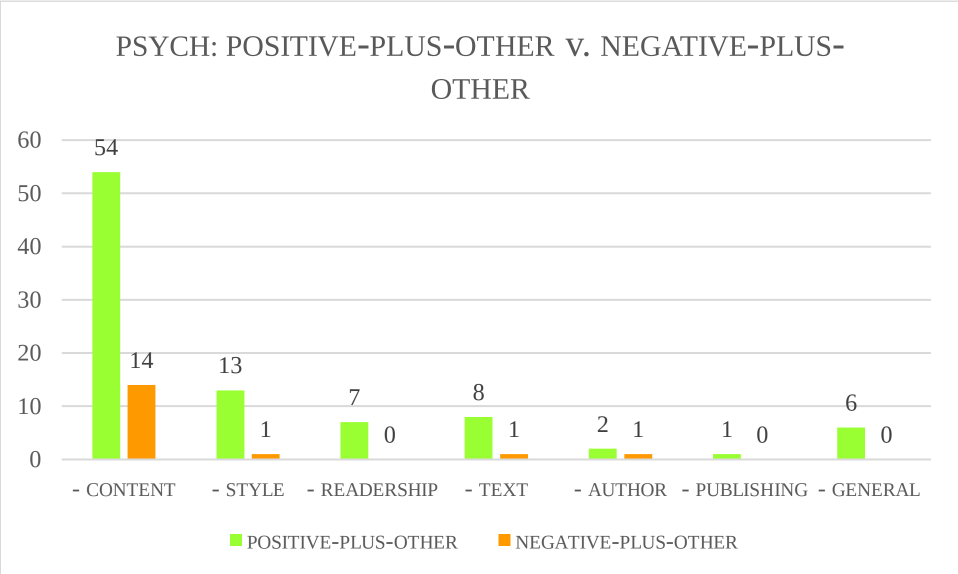


Fig. 83. The distribution of major EVALUATION-OBJECTS in terms of polarity: POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER VS NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in the PSYCH corpus

When the three categories of positive evaluations are analyzed, a distinct pattern emerges in terms of how each type is distributed and what proportion they represent. Just like the other two patterns, POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER primarily emphasizes CONTENT (59.3%), followed by STYLE (14.3%) and TEXT (8.8%). What sets POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER apart is its relatively lower emphasis on readership and an equally significant presence of general evaluations, as shown in Table 196.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	**POSITIVE-ALONE**		**POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
CONTENT	465	51.1	376	69.4	54	59.3
STYLE	190	20.9	46	8.5	13	14.3
READERSHIP	93	10.2	48	8.9	7	7.7
TEXT	55	6.0	36	6.6	8	8.8
AUTHOR	35	3.8	15	2.8	2	2.2
PUBLISHING	8	0.9	5	0.9	1	1.1
GENERAL	62	6.8	14	2.6	6	6.6

Table 196. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in EVALUATION OBJECT: comparison

A similar comparison of EVALUATION-OBJECT for the three types of negative evaluations presents a very different picture, in which the only reoccurring parameter is CONTENT (82.4%), with its 14 hits in the PSYCH corpus for NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER. Three other instances refer to STYLE, TEXT, and AUTHOR.

EVALUATION-OBJECT	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CONTENT	113	63.8	220	75.1	14	82.4
STYLE	35	19.8	45	15.4	1	5.9
READERSHIP	9	5.1	5	1.7	0	0.0
TEXT	7	4.0	13	4.4	1	5.9
AUTHOR	4	2.3	2	0.7	1	5.9
PUBLISHING	8	4.5	5	1.7	0	0.0
GENERAL	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**176**	**99.4%**	**290**	**99.0%**	**17**	**100.0%**

Table 197. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE -PLUS-OTHER in EVALUATION OBJECT: comparison

Just like in the cases mentioned earlier, the parameter of POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER is the least frequently encountered when examining GENERAL-CONTENT compared to other positive categories. Its various subcategories show a relatively uniform distribution, ranging from two to four instances each, with no instances found in the corpus for IMPLICATIONS and APPLICABILITY. Table 198 shows the results.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CURRENCY	19	2.1	18	3.3	0	0.0
APPROACH	24	2.6	25	4.6	2	2.2
COVERAGE	58	6.4	31	5.7	7	7.7
CONTENT-QUALITY	104	11.4	51	9.4	10	11.0
NOVELTY	18	2.0	14	2.6	1	1.1
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	19	2.1	18	3.3	2	2.2
IMPLICATIONS	10	1.1	3	0.6	1	1.1
APPLICABILITY	20	2.2	6	1.1	2	2.2
TOTAL:	**272**	**29.9%**	**166**	**30.6%**	**25**	**27.5%**

Table 198. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE: comparison

With just a single occurrence of NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER evaluation in GENERAL-CONTENT, as indicated in Table 199 below, this pattern hold little significance in influencing the overall understanding of evaluation trends in psychology book reviews.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CURRENCY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
APPROACH	4	2.3	7	2.4	0	0.0
COVERAGE	6	3.4	6	2.0	1	5.9
CONTENT-QUALITY	11	6.2	10	3.4	0	0.0
NOVELTY	3	1.7	1	0.3	0	0.0
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
IMPLICATIONS	1	0.6	1	0.3	0	0.0

APPLICABILITY	1	0.6	2	0.7	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**26**	**14.7%**	**27**	**9.2%**	**1**	**5.9%**

Table 199. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE -PLUS-OTHER in GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE: comparison

A comparison of general-content and local-argument-content shows that positive-plus-other has a balanced distribution with 25 and 29 evaluations, as shown in Table 200. By contrast, negative-plus-reason focuses predominantly on local-content, reaching the highest percentage (82.4%) among all negative-evaluations, as indicated in Table 201.

CONTENT-TYPE	**POSITIVE-ALONE**		**POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
GENERAL-CONTENT	272	29.9	166	30.6	25	27.5
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	193	21.2	210	38.7	29	31.9
TOTAL:	**465**	**51.1%**	**376**	**69.4%**	**54**	**59.3%**

Table 200. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in CONTENT-TYPE: comparison

CONTENT-TYPE	**NEGATIVE-ALONE**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
GENERAL-CONTENT	26	14.7	27	9.2	1	5.9
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	87	49.2	193	65.9	13	76.5
TOTAL:	**113**	**63.8%**	**220**	**75.1%**	**14**	**82.4%**

Table 201. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in CONTENT-TYPE: comparison

When comparing the results presented in Table 202 below with the corresponding results for the LING corpus (Table 97 on page 272), the share of POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER evaluations is relatively high. However, the total number of hits amounts to only 29. These evaluations concentrate mainly on two parameters, namely, LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE and INSIGHT, which resemble the other two SIMPLE-POSITIVE patterns.

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	**POSITIVE-ALONE**		**POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
COHERENCE	0	0.0	1	0.2	1	1.1
INSIGHT	30	3.3	40	7.4	6	6.6
ARGUMENT-VALUE	11	1.2	29	5.4	2	2.2
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	122	13.4	114	21.0	16	17.6
MISSING-CONTENT	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
METHOD	5	0.5	10	1.8	0	0.0

SCOPE	11	1.2	8	1.5	1	1.1
BIAS	1	0.1	1	0.2	0	0.0
TERMINOLOGY	1	0.1	1	0.2	1	1.1
UTILITY	12	1.3	6	1.1	2	2.2
TOTAL:	**193**	**21.2%**	**210**	**38.7%**	**29**	**31.9%**

Table 202. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: comparison

With as few as 13 NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHEr evaluations of SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT, shown in Table 203, this pattern is the least frequently employed among SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations. However, with 13 instances of this pattern out of 17, it proves to be almost exclusively centred on SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT evaluations, especially the parameters of MISSING-CONTENT, LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE, and EXPLANATORY ARGUMENT-VALUE (Table 204 below), which resembles the distribution found in the NEGATIVE-ALONE pattern.

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	**NEGATIVE-ALONE**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
COHERENCE	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
INSIGHT	3	1.7	6	2.0	0	0.0
ARGUMENT-VALUE	12	6.8	75	25.6	3	17.6
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	22	12.4	37	12.6	4	23.5
MISSING-CONTENT	46	26.0	64	21.8	6	35.3
METHOD	0	0.0	3	1.0	0	0.0
SCOPE	1	0.6	1	0.3	0	0.0
BIAS	2	1.1	3	1.0	0	0.0
TERMINOLOGY	0	0.0	2	0.7	0	0.0
UTILITY	1	0.6	1	0.3	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**87**	**49.2%**	**193**	**65.9%**	**13**	**76.5%**

Table 203. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE: comparison

ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE	**NEGATIVE-ALONE**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
DESCRIPTIVE	3	1.7	10	3.4	0	0.0
EXPLANATORY	9	5.1	65	22.2	3	17.6
TOTAL:	**12**	**6.8%**	**75**	**25.6%**	**3**	**17.6%**

Table 204. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in ARGUMENT-VALUE-TYPE: comparison

When considering its role within the POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER patterns, style seems to be a significant factor, as it has the second highest share among all positive patterns. Nonetheless, when we examine Table 205, it can be observed that the overall impact remains limited, with only 13 instances identified. These instances are split between the categories of CLARITY, CONCISENESS, READABILITY, and ATTRACTIVENESS.

STYLE-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CLARITY	47	5.2	10	1.8	4	4.4
ORGANISATION	22	2.4	22	4.1	2	2.2
CONCISENESS	25	2.7	0	0.0	3	3.3
DIFFICULTY	3	0.3	0	0.0	0	0.0
READABILITY	57	6.3	6	1.1	2	2.2
ATTRACTIVENESS	20	2.2	3	0.6	2	2.2
PRECISION	6	0.7	3	0.6	0	0.0
AUTHORITATIVE	2	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
CONSISTENCY	6	0.7	1	0.2	0	0.0
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
HUMOUR	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	0	0.0	1	0.2	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**190**	**20.9%**	**46**	**8.5%**	**13**	**14.3%**

Table 205. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in STYLE-TYPE: comparison

Table 206 also demonstrates that the NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER pattern used to assess STYLE is practically non-existent as it contains only one evaluation, which addresses READABILITY.

STYLE-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
CLARITY	1	0.6	4	1.4	0	0.0
ORGANISATION	15	8.5	29	9.9	0	0.0
CONCISENESS	8	4.5	2	0.7	0	0.0
DIFFICULTY	1	0.6	2	0.7	0	0.0
READABILITY	3	1.7	1	0.3	1	5.9
ATTRACTIVENESS	0	0.0	1	0.3	0	0.0
PRECISION	1	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0
AUTHORITATIVE	0	0.0	2	0.7	0	0.0
CONSISTENCY	4	2.3	4	1.4	0	0.0
LINGUISTIC-ERRORS	1	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0
HUMOUR	1	0.6	0	0.0	0	0.0
TRANSLATION-BY-A-THIRD-PARTY	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**35**	**19.8%**	**45**	**15.4%**	**1**	**5.9%**

Table 206. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in STYLE-TYPE: comparison

An equally uninteresting picture appears when analyzing the parameter of READERSHIP. Seven positive comments (see Table 207 and Table 208), of which five concern the parameter DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT and two focus on READERSHIP-RELEVANT are not accompanied by any negative evaluations (Table 209).

READERSHIP-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
RELEVANCE-TYPE	93	10.2	48	8.9	7	7.7
TOTAL:	**93**	**10.2%**	**48**	**8.9%**	**7**	**7.7%**

Table 207. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in READERSHIP-TYPE: comparison

RELEVANCE-TYPE-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT	42	4.6	16	3.0	5	5.5
PURPOSE-RELEVANT	17	1.9	14	2.6	0	0.0
READERSHIP-RELEVANT	34	3.7	18	3.3	2	2.2
TOTAL:	**93**	**10.2%**	**48**	**8.9%**	**7**	**7.7%**

Table 208. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in RELEVANCE-TYPE: comparison

READERSHIP-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
RELEVANCE-TYPE	9	5.1	5	1.7	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**9**	**5.1%**	**5**	**1.7%**	**0**	**0.0%**

Table 209. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in READERSHIP-TYPE: comparison

An analysis of the parameter of TEXT shows that the POSITIVE/NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER patterns do not exhibit a clear emphasis on text evaluation, with eight positive assessment and only one negative identified in the PSYCH corpus. The positive polarity can be found mainly in evaluations of EXAMPLES (three instances) provided in the books under review, and the only negative evaluation concerned imperfect REFERENCES, as shown in Tables 210 and Table 211.

TEXT-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
EXTENT	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
REFERENCES	16	1.8	4	0.7	1	1.1
DIAGRAMS	10	1.1	9	1.7	1	1.1
EXERCISES	2	0.2	0	0.0	0	0.0
INDEX	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
GLOSSARY	3	0.3	1	0.2	0	0.0
NOTATION	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
APPENDIX	1	0.1	2	0.4	0	0.0
TRANSCRIPTS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
EXAMPLES	9	1.0	9	1.7	3	3.3
DATA	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
RESOURCES	5	0.5	6	1.1	1	1.1

SUMMARY	1	0.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
TITLE	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
SECTION-NUMBERS	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
ADDITIONAL-READINGS	3	0.3	1	0.2	1	1.1
AUXILIARY-DATA	2	0.2	4	0.7	1	1.1
INTRODUCTION	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
TOTAL:	**55**	**6.0%**	**36**	**6.6%**	**8**	**8.8%**

Table 210. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in TEXT-TYPE: comparison

TEXT-TYPE	**NEGATIVE-ALONE**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
EXTENT	2	1.1	0	0.0	0	0.0
REFERENCES	0	0.0	4	1.4	1	5.9
TOTAL:	**7**	**4.0%**	**13**	**4.4%**	**1**	**5.9%**

Table 211. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in TEXT-TYPE: comparison

Likewise, in line with the previous situation and as expected from the examination of POSITIVE-ALONE and POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON instances, positive comments on the author primarily appear as POSITIVE-ALONE evaluations. Consequently, it is not surprising that only two occurrences of positive evaluations within the POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER category have been identified (Table 212) and no instances of the NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER pattern (Table 213).

AUTHOR-TYPE	**POSITIVE-ALONE**		**POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
EXPERIENCE	9	1.0	2	0.4	1	1.1
REPUTATION	17	1.9	4	0.7	1	1.1
TOTAL:	**35**	**3.8%**	**15**	**2.8%**	**2**	**2.2%**

Table 212. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in AUTHOR-TYPE: comparison

AUTHOR-TYPE	**NEGATIVE-ALONE**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON**		**NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER**	
	N	**%**	**N**	**%**	**N**	**%**
EXPERIENCE	0	0.0	1	0.3	1	5.9
TOTAL:	**4**	**2.3%**	**2**	**0.7%**	**1**	**5.9%**

Table 213. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in AUTHOR-TYPE: comparison

In the case of PRODUCTION-STANDARDS only one POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER comment had been identified and no negative ones (refer to “reduced” Table 214 and Table 215).

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
TYPOGRAPHY	2	0.2	0	0.0	1	1.1
TOTAL:	**8**	**0.9%**	**5**	**0.9%**	**1**	**1.1%**

Table 214. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in AUTHOR-TYPE: comparison

PRODUCTION-STANDARDS	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
TOTAL:	**8**	**4.5%**	**5**	**1.7%**	**0**	**0.0%**

Table 215. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in PRODUCTION-STANDARDS comparison

Finally, six instances of POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER evaluation of GENERAL-TYPE have been found in the PSYCH corpus. Similarly to other SIMPLE-NEGATIVE patterns focusing on GENERAL-TYPE, NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER is not represented in the corpus. Table 216 and Table 217 show the results.

GENERAL-TYPE	POSITIVE-ALONE		POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON		POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
INSPIRING	2	0.2	1	0.2	1	1.1
IMPRESSIVE	14	1.5	2	0.4	1	1.1
APPRECIATION	6	0.7	1	0.2	1	1.1
INTERESTING	6	0.7	3	0.6	1	1.1
VALUABLE	9	1.0	1	0.2	1	1.1
TERRIFIC	3	0.3	1	0.2	1	1.1
TOTAL:	**62**	**6.8%**	**14**	**2.6%**	**6**	**6.6%**

Table 216. POSITIVE-ALONE, POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON and POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER in GENERAL-TYPE: comparison

GENERAL-TYPE	NEGATIVE-ALONE		NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON		NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
TOTAL:	**0**	**0.0%**	**0**	**0.0%**	**0**	**0.0%**

Table 217. NEGATIVE-ALONE, NEGATIVE -PLUS-REASON and NEGATIVE-PLUS-OTHER in GENERAL-TYPE: comparison

8.3. CHAINED-POSITIVE VS. CHAINED-NEGATIVE

As in the analysis of the LING corpus, the examination of CHAINED-POSITIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE, that is, patterns in which two or more evaluations occur within a single grammatical unit, will concentrate on their subtypes. These subtypes have been identified on the basis of their polarity and the number of single evaluations within evaluative segments, i.e., so-called DOUBLET and MULTIPLE types.

As shown earlier, simple-positive evaluations (107) outnumber the chained positive (108) ones fivefold, as shown in Figure 78, provided here for the convenience of reference.

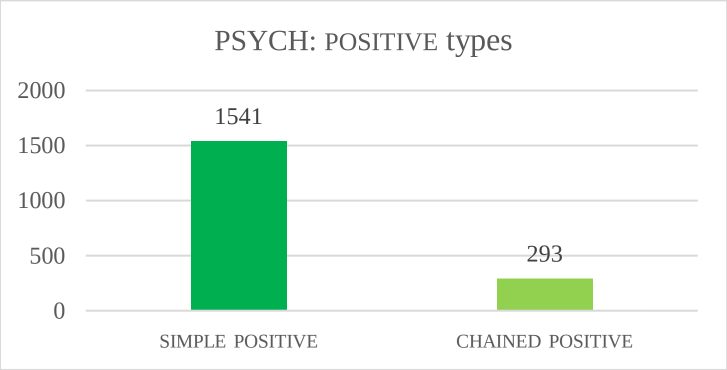


Fig. 78. The distribution of POSITIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

(107) A similarly nice contribution is the review of the effects of autoimmune disease on brain structure and metabolism in Chapter 19[Psychology/ACN_009_2012. txt]

(108) Written in straightforward, user-friendly language, the book is a valuable resource for neuropsychologists and other professionals interested in the assessment of ASD [Psychology/ACN_003_2009. txt]

Figure 79, provided here yet again, illustrates a significant disparity between SIMPLE-NEGATIVE (109) and CHAINED-NEGATIVE types (110), with CHAINED-NEGATIVES being less common in the PSYCH corpus than SIMPLE-NEGATIVES. They are nearly 15 times less frequent in the PSYCH corpus, marking a lower frequency compared to the LING corpus (see Figure 43 on page 242).

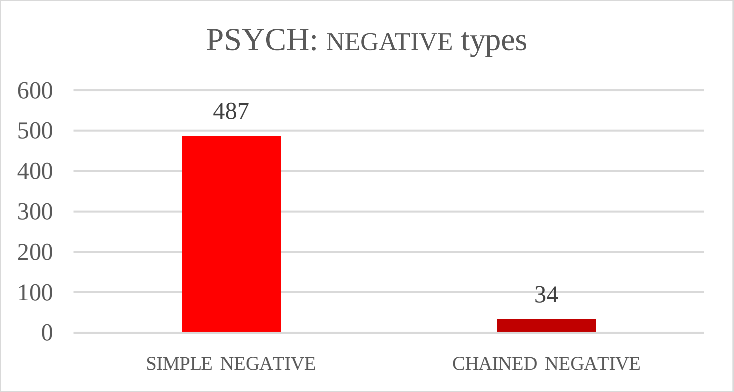


Fig. 79. The distribution of NEGATIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

(109) An entire chapter devoted to this topic would have enhanced the comprehensiveness of the text [Psychology/ACN_006_2010. txt]

(110) Compared to most personality textbooks on the market, this book falls short in terms of content coverage and in-depth treatment of research findings [Psychology/PID_009_2013. txt]

In the case of CHAINED-POSITIVE evaluations, Figure 83 and Table 218 reveal a clear distinction between the two categories: lower-order INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE patterns, which account for 164 instances and INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE patterns, totalling 129 instances. Additionally, Table 219 provides insights into the composition of these categories, specifically in terms of POSITIVE-DOUBLET and MULTIPLE patterns. The data show that INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE evaluations are noticeably more common than their lengthier INTERCLAUSAL counterparts. This pattern is also observed in POSITIVE-DOUBLET patterns when compared to POSITIVE-MULTIPLE patterns, as evident in tables for both INTRACLAUSAL and INTERCLAUSAL patterns.

CHAINED-POSITIVE-TYPE	CHAINED-POSITIVE	
	N	%
INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE	164	18.7
INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE	129	14.7
TOTAL:	**293**	**33.4%**

Table 218. The distribution of CHAINED-POSITIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

The corpus sentences of INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE (111) and INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE (112) are presented below:

(111) Supplemental references, suggested readings, and tables with related information are available for almost every chapter. [Psychology/ACN_015_2015. txt]

(112) Overall, the message of the book is important, and it is written in way that is very accessible, encouraging, and validating for parents who are coming to realize that their children require additional support in their educational environment. [Psychology/ACN_011_2013. txt]

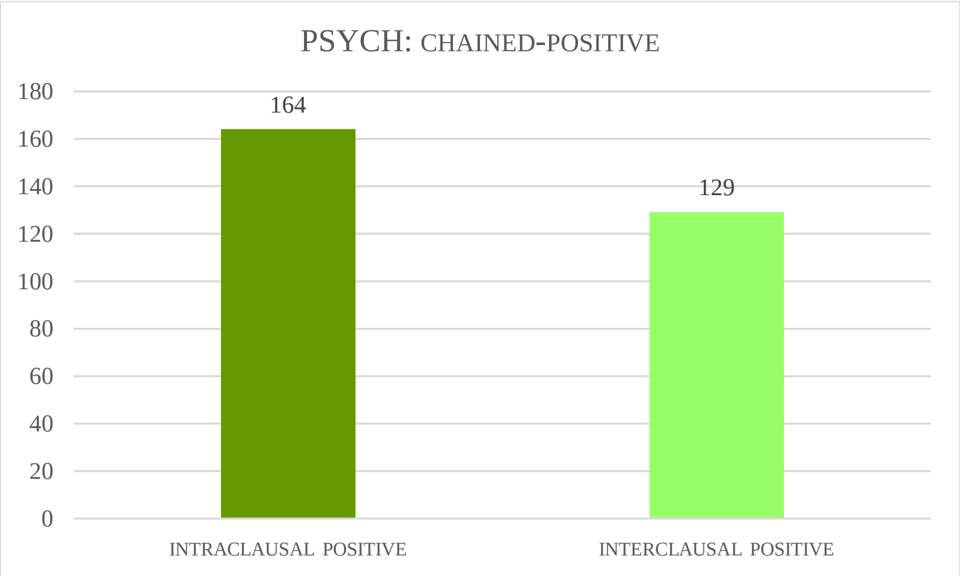


Fig. 84. The distribution of CHAINED-POSITIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

The examples of INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET and INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE are below and the detailed results are shown in Table219 and Figure 85.

(113) This book is certainly inspiring and a great resource for anyone interested in new research ideas pertaining to test equating. [Psychology/APM_008_2013. txt]

(114) I found these chapters superb, filled with plenty of up-to-date references and pointers, clear and convincing. [Psychology/JEP_008_2015. txt]

INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE	CHAINED-POSITIVE	
	N	%
INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET	129	14.7
INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE	35	4.0
TOTAL:	**164**	**18.7%**

Table 219. The distribution of INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

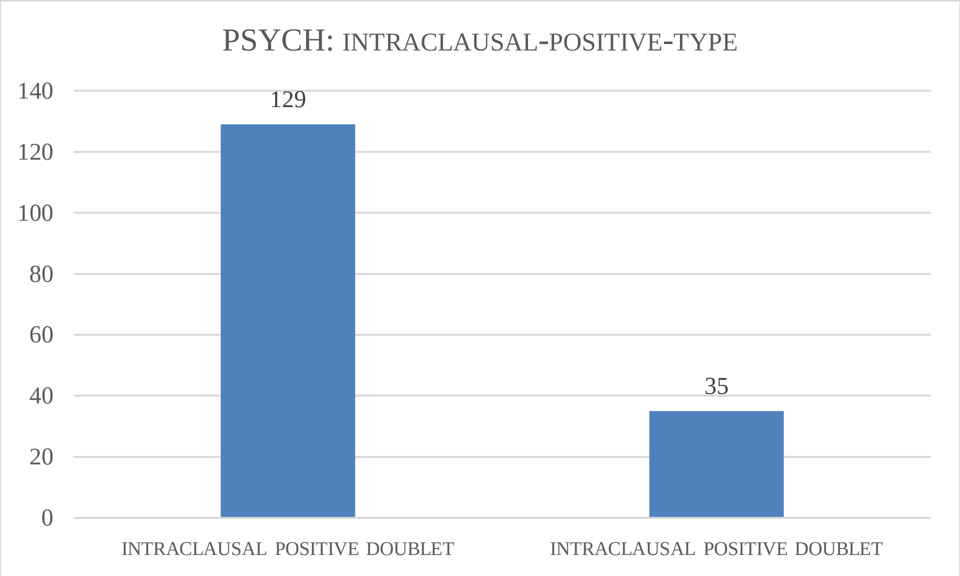


Fig. 85. The distribution of INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

The examples of INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET and INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE are below and the detailed results are shown in Table 220 and Figure 86.

(115) Second, each chapter has an overview of relevant empirical literature, and there are many references to published literature[Psychology/ACN_019_2018. txt]

(116) In Becoming Human: The development of language, self, and self-consciousness, John V. Canfield accessibly explicates this traditional world view, reveals its flaws, and provides an alternative Wittgensteinian world view. [Psychology/INTEL_011_2013. Txt]

INTERACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE	CHAINED-POSITIVE	
	N	%
INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET	115	13.1
INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE	14	1.6
TOTAL:	**129**	**14.7%**

TABLE 220. The distribution of INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

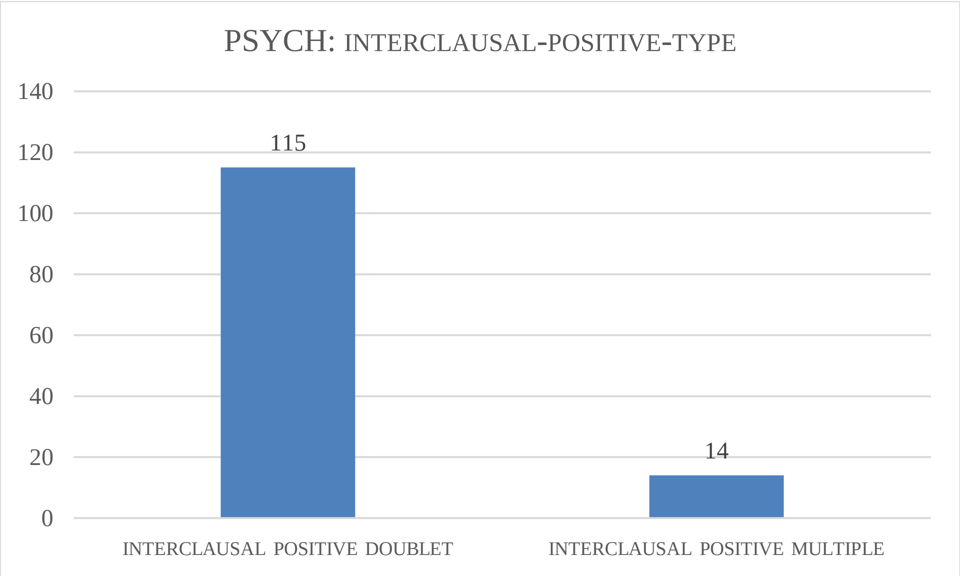


Fig. 86. The distribution of INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

In the case of CHAINED-NEGATIVE evaluations, there is a notable inverse ratio between lower-level INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE patterns and INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE ones. This difference is shown in Figure 84 and further in Table 221, with ten instances for INTRACLAUSAL patterns and 24 cases for INTERCLAUSAL ones. The percentage breakdown, as indicated in Table 221, clearly highlights that INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE evaluations, which span different clauses, are significantly more prevalent than INTRACLAUSAL ones. This holds true for both NEGATIVE-DOUBLET patterns and NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE patterns, as demonstrated in Figure 87 and Table 221. Examples of these variously structured sentences can be found in sentences (177 – 120).

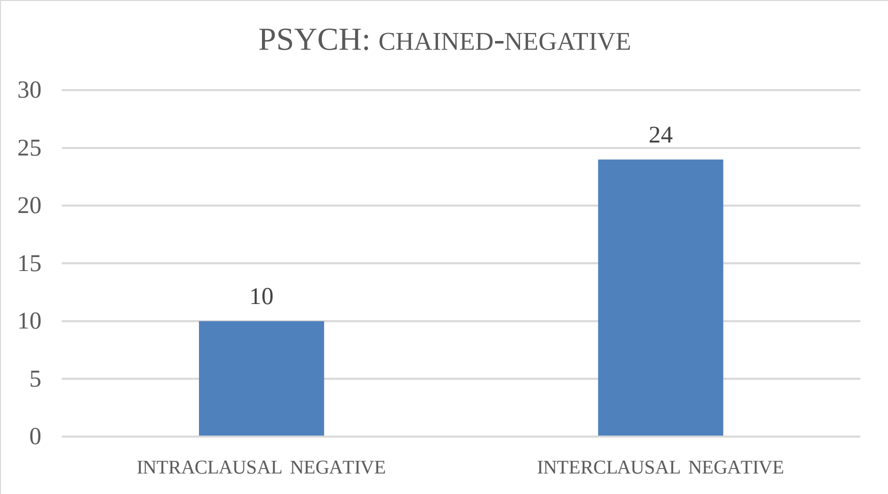


Fig. 87. The distribution of CHAINED-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

CHAINED-NEGATIVE-TYPE	CHAINED-NEGATIVE	
	N	%
INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE	10	9.5
INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE	24	22.9
TOTAL:	**34**	**32.4%**

Table 221. The distribution of CHAINED-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

The examples of INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE and INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE are below, and the detailed results are shown in Table 222 and Figure 85.

INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE	CHAINED-NEGATIVE	
	N	%
INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET	7	6.7
INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE	3	2.9
TOTAL:	**10**	**9.5%**

Table 222. The distribution of INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

INTERACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE	CHAINED-NEGATIVE	
	N	%
INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET	20	19.0
INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE	4	3.8
TOTAL:	**24**	**22.9%**

Table 223. The distribution of INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

(117) Finally, the reader may find specific book chapters a bit wordy and non-pragmatic [Psychology/ACN_011_2008. txt] INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET

(118) This lack of self-critique is a pity because in every chapter the reader is left with as many questions as answers. [Psychology/JEP_004_2013. txt] INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET

(119) (…) school that was able to implement a successful substance-abuse prevention and intervention program, rather than the smaller case-examples for each chapter [Psychology/PSS_001_2008. txt] INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE

(120) However, when not ill-informed, Murdoch's ideas are neither original nor perspicacious, and his historiography is very undisciplined, which ultimately leaves the reader questioning the purpose of this treatise. [Psychology/INTEL_003_2008. txt] INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE

Due to the intricate and layered arrangement of CHAINED-POSITIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE patterns described in the previous chapter, the same procedure of manual classification of evaluations had to be adopted.

8.3.1. INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET

When examining evaluations within the structure of INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET, the analysis indicates that similar to the LING corpus, CONTENT is the most frequently referred to aspect, occurring in 124 doublets. Following closely is STYLE. Less frequently are represented TEXT and GENERAL-CONTENT. In contrast, READERSHIP and AUTHOR are among the less frequently mentioned parameters, with publishing having no concordance hits. Figure 88 provides an overview of all parameters of EVALUATION-OBJECT.

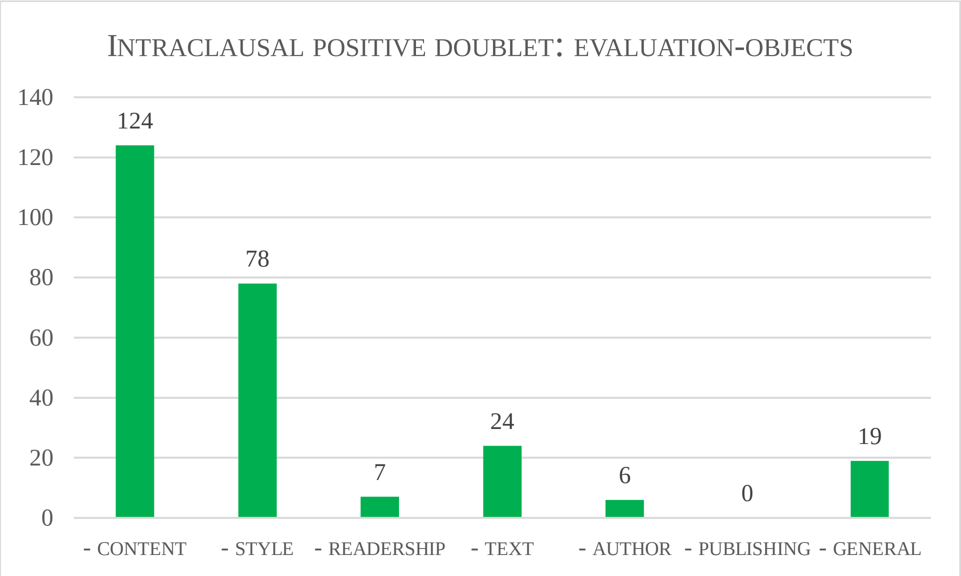


Fig. 88. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL POSITIVE-DOUBLET in the PSYCH corpus

The second most common EVALUATION-OBJECT is STYLE, and the distribution of parameters within this category is shown in Figure 89.

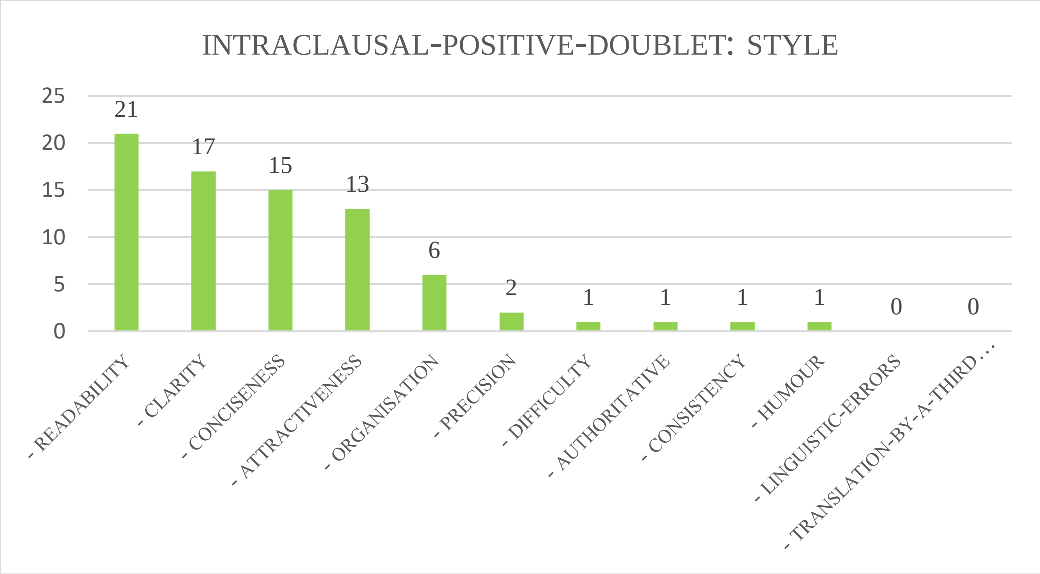


Fig. 89. STYLE-TYPE in INTRACLAUSAL POSITIVE DOUBLET in the PSYCH corpus

The third topmost EVALUTION-OBJECT is TEXT, and the distribution of its parameters is shown below in Figure 90.

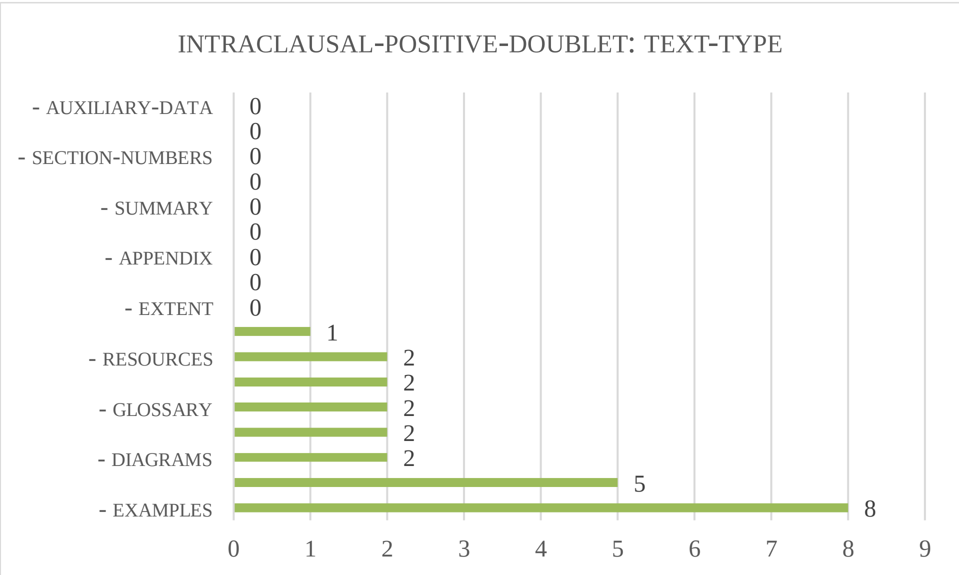


Fig. 90. TEXT-TYPE in INTRACLAUSAL POSITIVE DOUBLET in the PSYCH corpus

If the focus is on the first parameter of a doublet, then the top position is taken by CONTENT-QUALITY. It is followed by CONCISENESS and READABILITY. The results for the top parameters are shown in Figure 91.

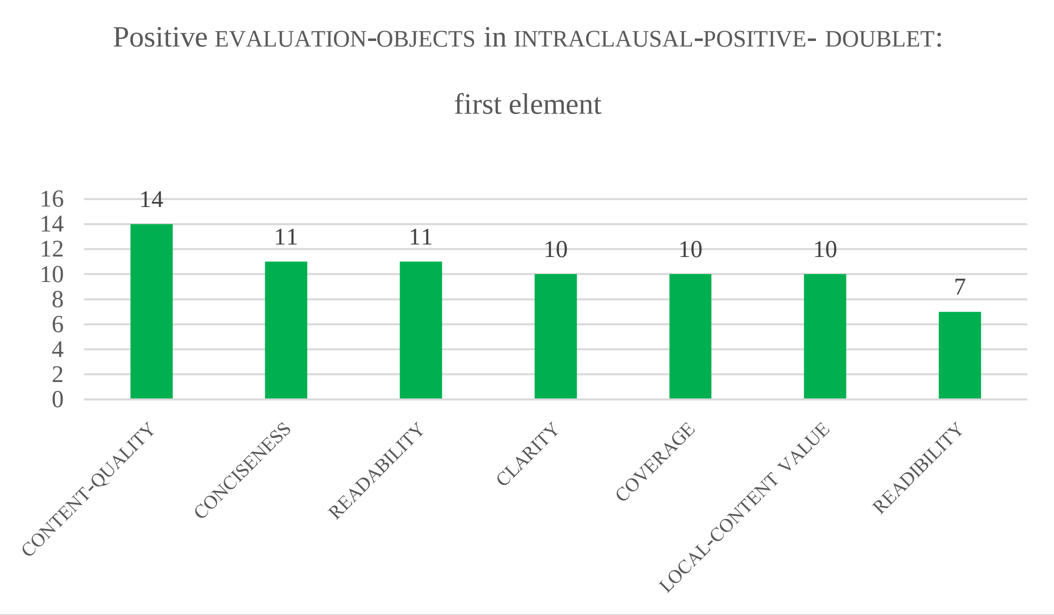


Fig. 91. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET: first element

If the focus is on the second parameter of a doublet, then the top position of CONTENT-QUALITY remains unchallenged, but the rating of CONCISENESS significantly lags behind. A parameter that has gained prominence is LOCAL-CONTENT-QUALITY, which ranks second. The results are shown in Figure 92.

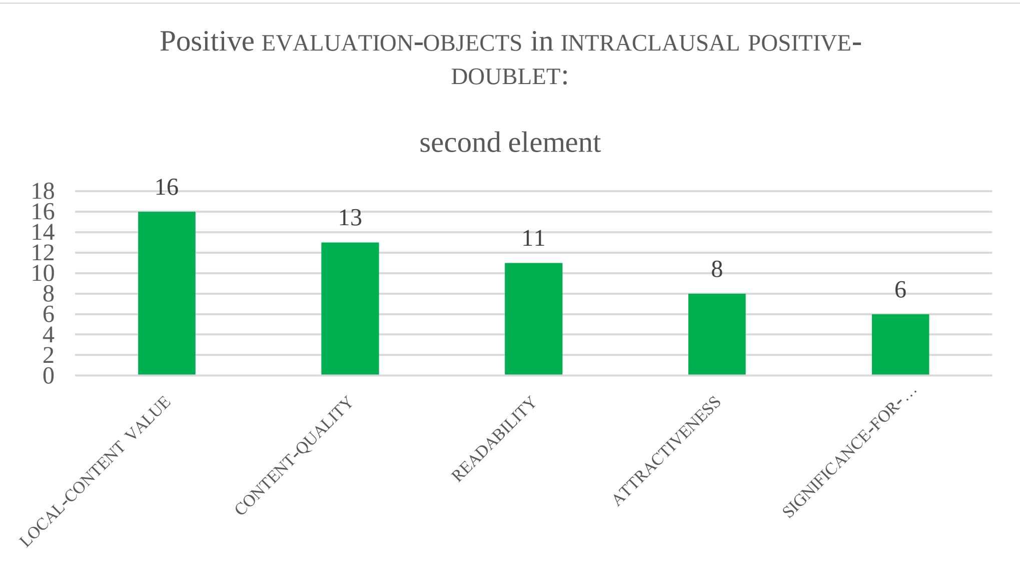


Fig. 92. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL POSITIVE-DOUBLET: second element

Figure 93 below demonstrates the most common patterns in INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLETS, most of which contain CONTENT-QUALITY and LOCAL-CONTENT-QUALITY.

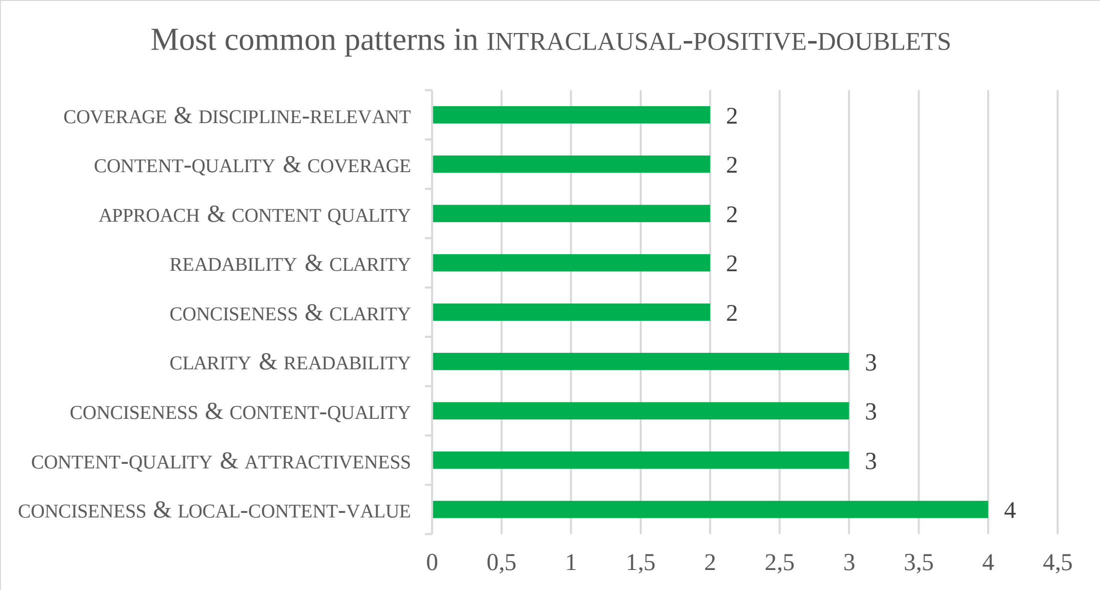


Fig. 93. Most common patterns in INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLETS in the PSYCH corpus

8.3.2. INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE

With only 35 occurrences in the corpus, two of which are shown in (121) and (122), intraclausal-positive-multiple is not richly represented in the corpus.

(121) Supplemental references, suggested readings, and tables with related information are available for almost every chapter[Psychology/ACN_015_2015. txt]

(122) I found these chapters superb, filled with plenty of up-to-date references and pointers, clear and convincing. [Psychology/JEP_008_2015. txt]

Their length varies from three to five and the number of such combinations is shown in Figure 94.

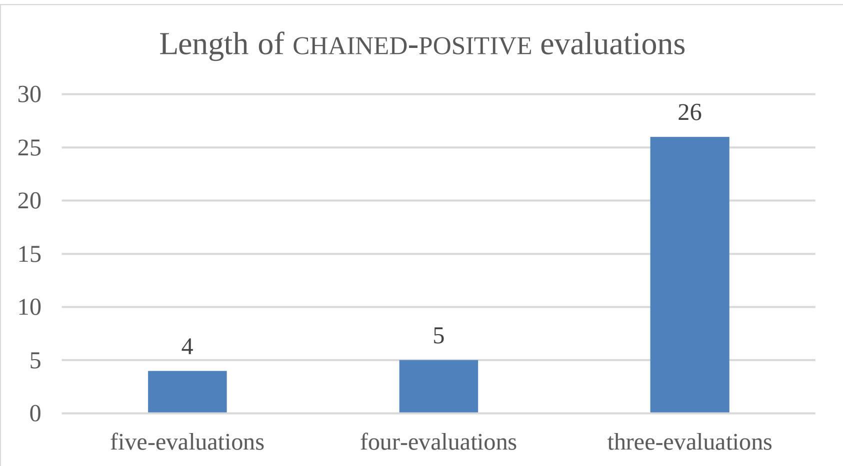


Fig. 94. The length of CHAINED-POSITIVE evaluations in the PSYCH corpus

Contrary to the previous findings, the parameter most frequently referred to is not CONTENT-QUALITY, but STYLE. The distribution of all EVALUATION-OBJECTS is shown in Figure 95. What follows from the data is that this pattern is focused mainly on the parameters of STYLE, CONTENT, and TEXT.

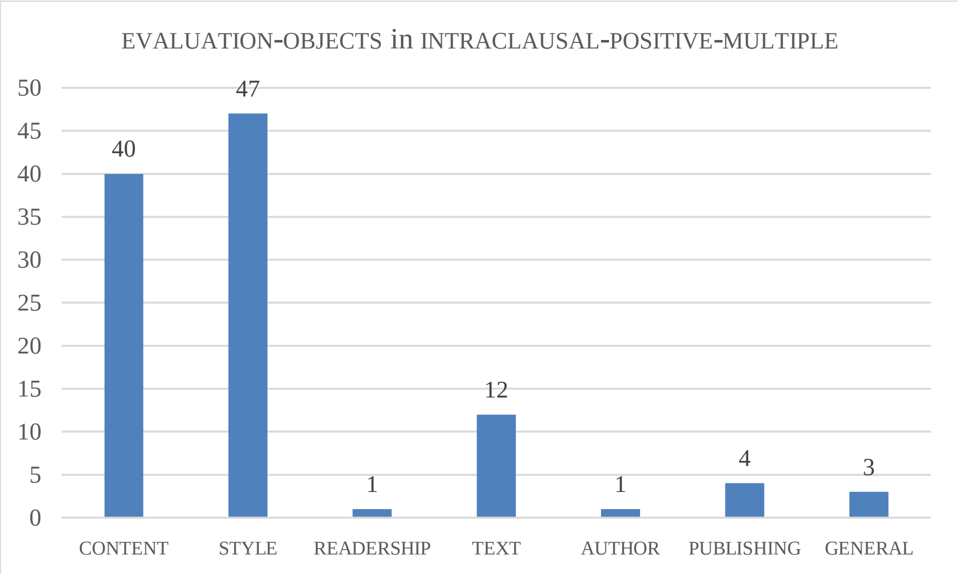


Fig. 95. EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE in the PSYCH corpus

An interesting aspect of the analysis is that next to CONTENT-QUALITY, a parameter ranking high in all previous patterns, in the PSYCH corpus equally high is APPLICABILITY and CURRENCY, two parameters that have not been conspicuous before.

In the positive INTRACLAUSAL-MULTIPLE pattern, the best-represented element in the initial position is CONCISENESS followed by COVERAGE and READABILITY. Obviously, such a choice may follow from the general rhetorical structure of the review.

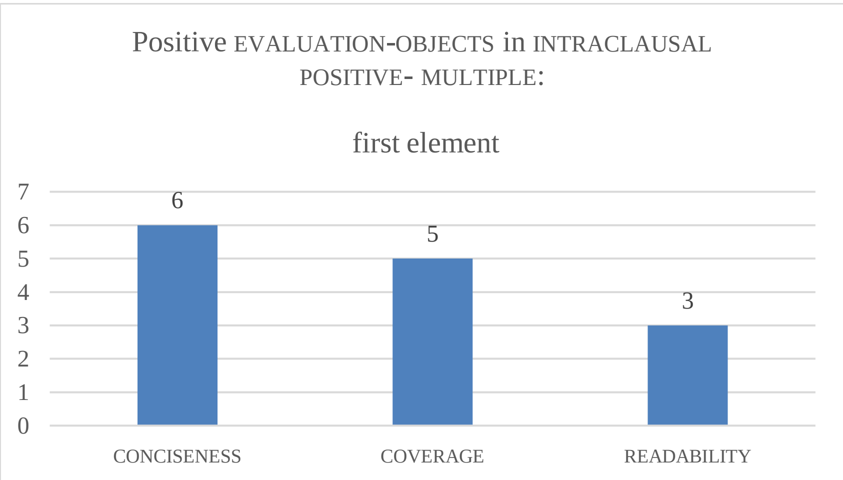


Fig. 96. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL POSITIVE-MULTIPLE: first element

READABILITY is also a parameter that tends to occur in the second position, as shown in Figure 97.

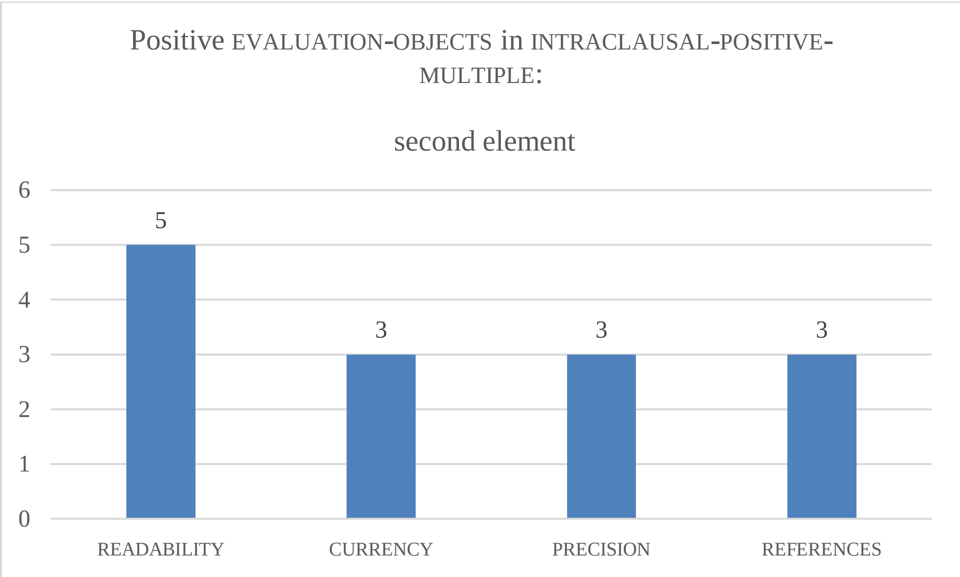


Fig. 97. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL POSITIVE-MULTIPLE: second element

Finally, as the third element of the CHAINED-POSITIVE evaluations, there has been found two parameters, namely, APPLICABILITY and READABILITY, as in Figure 98.

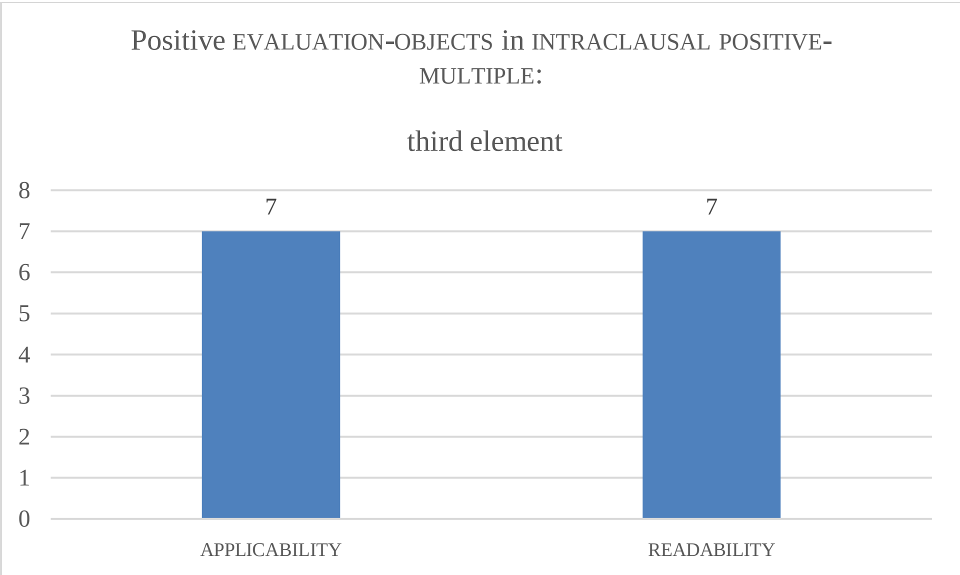


Fig. 98. Positive EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTRACLAUSAL POSITIVE-MULTIPLE: third element

To sum up, given the low number of instances of the pattern, it is not surprising that only one parameter has been identified as the most common, namely, CONCISENESS/READABILITY/APPLICABILITY.

8.3.3. INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET

INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET with 115 hits in the PSYCH corpus represents almost 39% of all CHAINED-POSITIVE pattern evaluations. Two examples from the corpus concordances are shown below.

(123) Written in straightforward, user-friendly language, the book is a valuable resource for neuropsychologists and other professionals interested in the assessment of ASD. [Psychology/ACN_003_2009.txt]

(124) Difficult-to understand concepts are explained to the clinician clearly, and adequate text is devoted to identifying and addressing potential complications.[Psychology/BRAIN_004_2009.txt]

Transparent as these two examples are, the overall picture of the INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET is more multifaceted as some of the clauses in which evaluative acts are enacted happen to have a complex structure, as in the example below illustrated in Figure 99, where the INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET does not consist of two simple evaluations, but contains an embedded INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET.

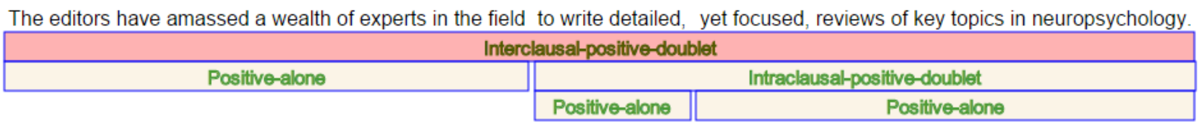


Fig. 99. The complexity of the INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET pattern

To prevent the inclusion of evaluations already analysed within the previously discussed patterns, only evaluations that are not part of other chained structures have been accounted for. As shown in Figure 100, CONTENT remains the most frequently assessed parameter, followed by STYLE and TEXT. By contrast, AUTHOR, READERSHIP and PUBLISHING are poorly represented in this pattern.

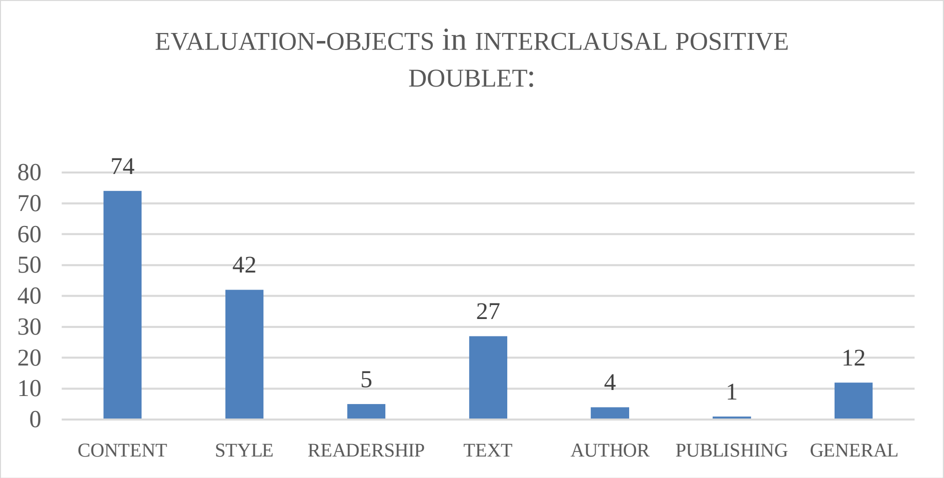


Fig. 100. EVALUATION-OBJECT in INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET in the PSYCH corpus

When concentrating on individual parameters of CONTENT, the distribution shown in Figure 101 has been found.

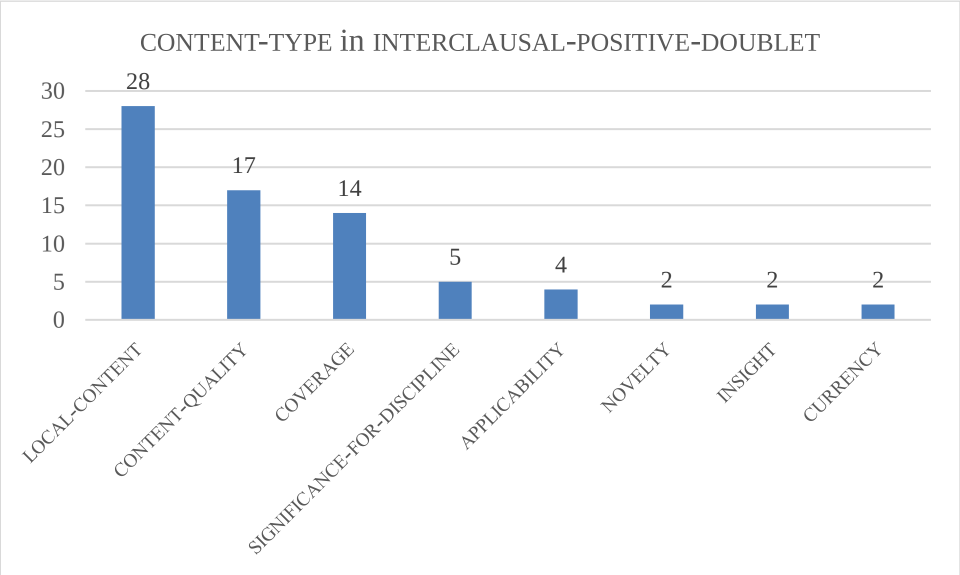


Fig. 101. CONTENT-TYPE in INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET in the PSYCH corpus

It has also been possible to identify more re-occurring combinations of features, most of them including CONTENT-QUALITY, as shown in Figure 101.

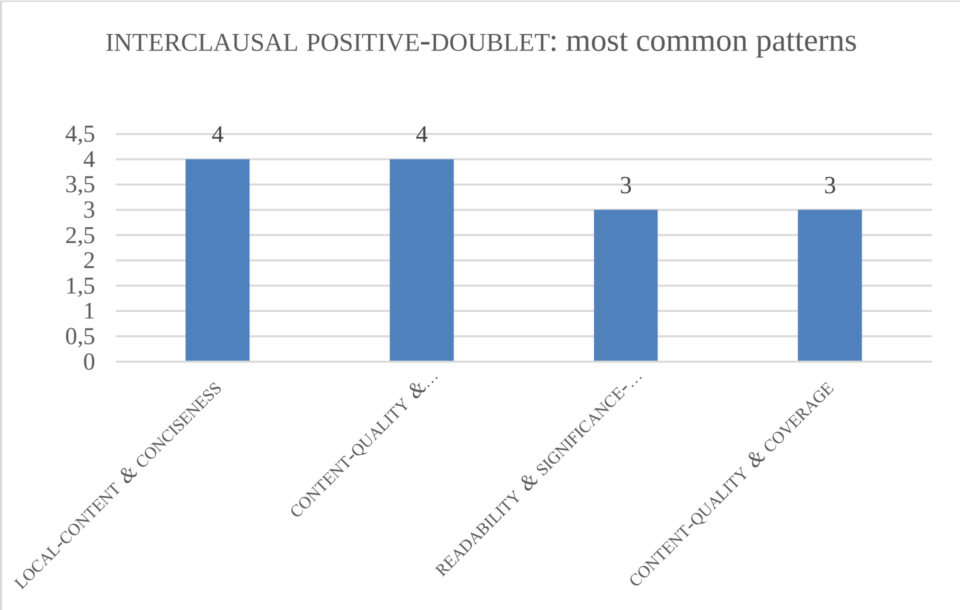


Fig. 102. Most common patterns IN INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-DOUBLET in the PSYCH corpus

8.3.4. INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE

This pattern is the least represented in the PSYCH corpus, with only 14 evaluations of this type. The longest INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE evaluations consisted of four evaluative acts (five cases) and the remaining ones of three evaluations, as shown in the examples below.

(125) Both volumes are rooted in evidence supported assessments and interventions, provide useful overviews of various legal issues and debates in the field of learning disabilities, discuss a variety of assistive technologies, and supply clinical useful case examples to illustrate commonly encountered assessment situations [Psychology/ACN_005_2010.txt.]

(126) These sections are wide-ranging, include contributions from internationally recognized experts, and summarize the most up-to-date research findings. [Psychology/ACN_007_2011.txt.]

The distribution of the evaluations in terms of evaluative-object has shown once again that content is the parameter most frequently referred to. It is followed b style. Other evaluation-objects are of marginal importance, as shown in Figure 103.

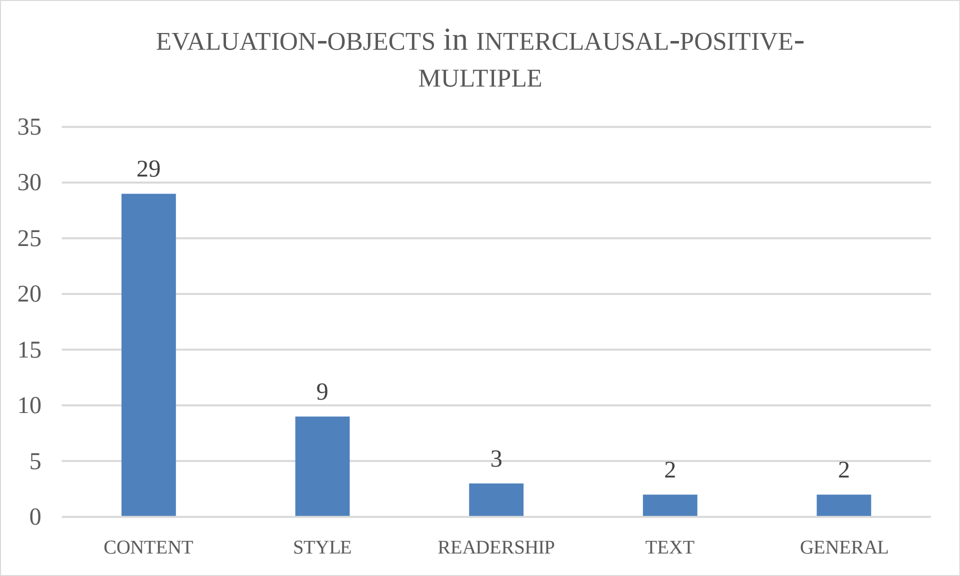


Fig. 103. EVALUATION-OBJECTS in INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE in the PSYCH corpus

Irrespective of the EVALUATION-OBJECT, the most common parameter in INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE patterns is CONTENT-QUALITY, with 17 occurrences, followed by READABILITY (four cases), CLARITY (four occurences), and COVERAGE (four instances). Figure 104 shows the results.

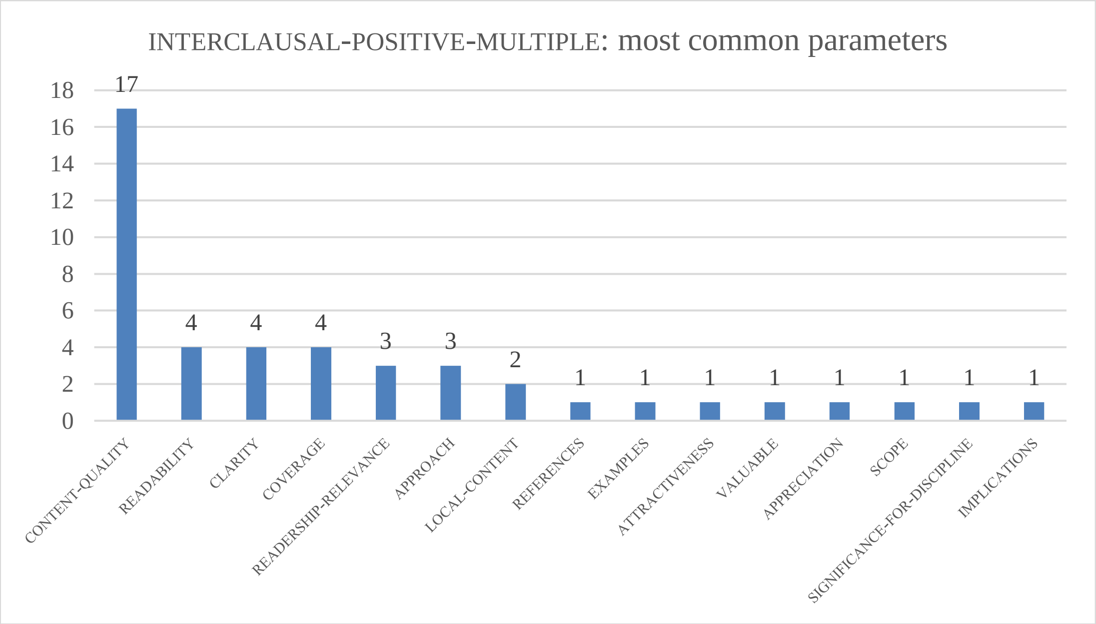


Fig. 104. Most common parameters in INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE in the PSYCH corpus

Generally, the INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE chains focus on different parameters, yet it is not uncommon that the same parameter is evaluated twice or even three times in a single INTERCLAUSAL-POSITIVE-MULTIPLE. The trend is shown in the examples below.

(127) Overall, the book is well worth reading, offering up a broad conception of the "stress response" and containing a wealth of background neuroscience information [Psychology/BRAIN_005_2011.txt.]

(128) The book is factually accurate, the economics is clearly and ingeniously explained, and the author provides relevant references to articles for an interested reader to follow up on [Psychology/JEP_008_2015.txt.]

8.3.5. INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET and INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE

Only ten evaluations are used to represent the two patterns, with seven of them being doublets (sentences 129 and 130), while only three illustrate INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE pattern (sentence 131).

(129) Compared to most personality textbooks on the market, this book falls short in terms of content coverage and in-depth treatment of research findings. [Psychology/PID_009_2013.txt.]

(130) Although not unique to this book, shortcomings of the book are the rather brief treatments of statistical power (Chapter 3) and missing data (Chapter 5). [Psychology/APM_005_2011.txt.]

(131) However, we would have liked to see a single, comprehensive, real-world case description of a school. [Psychology/PSS_001_2008.txt.]

The limited number of evaluations prevents making any valid generalizations. Instead, all parameters found in the pattern are shown in Figure 105. As can be seen, most of the parameters refer to CONTENT AND STYLE.

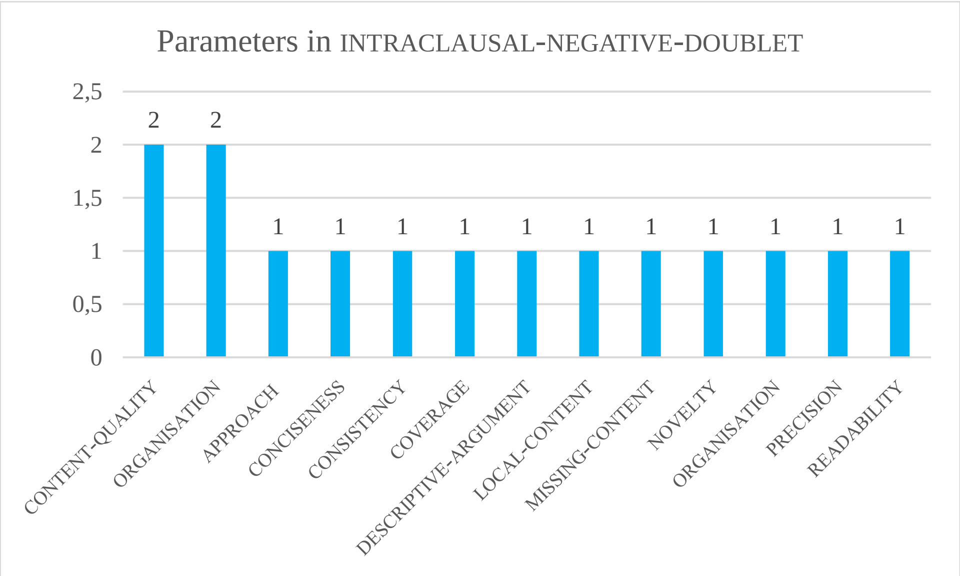


Fig. 105. The parameters in INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET in the PSYCH corpus

For the INTRACLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE, the three chains identified are EDITING/TYPOGRAPHY/TYPOGRAPHY and twice LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE/SCOPE/LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE.

8.3.6. INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET and INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE

The last two categories of chained-negative evaluations include INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET, demonstrated in the sentences below (132 – 133), and totaling 20 occurrences in the PSYCH corpus, and INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE, exemplified in 134, which has appeared four times in the corpus.

(132) For example, some chapters are very long and contain more information than one would want to really know about certain diagnoses [Psychology/ACN_010_2012.txt]

(133) At times this interferes with the flow of reading and does not always feel necessary to illustrate the author's point. [Psychology/CBP_007_2010.txt.]

(134) These chapters were not strong enough to warrant an entire section, especially given the lack of a chapter highlighting human clinical findings, and could have been integrated elsewhere. [Psychology/BRAIN_005_2011.txt.]

An interesting finding concerns the text complexity of the two parameters. Unexpectedly, INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE evaluations are shorter than DOUBLETS, which has been found statistically significant, as shown in Table 224.

Text Complexity	INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET	INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	31.1	28.8	95.11	0.0000	+++

Table 224. INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET and INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE: text complexity

Equally unexpectedly, multiple evaluations are less negative regarding the subjective positivity, as shown in Table 225. However, the difference is not statistically significant.

Subjectivity	INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET	INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE
Subjective Positivity	-0.112	0.182

Table 225. INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET and INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE: subjective positivity

The group of most common parameters to which evaluations refer in INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLETS includes only three with frequency over 2, i.e., LOCAL-CONTENT, ORGANIZATION, and MISSING-CONTENT, shown in Figure 106. For this type of evaluation, only one pattern that repeats twice, i.e., READABILITY and CONTENT-QUALITY has been identified.

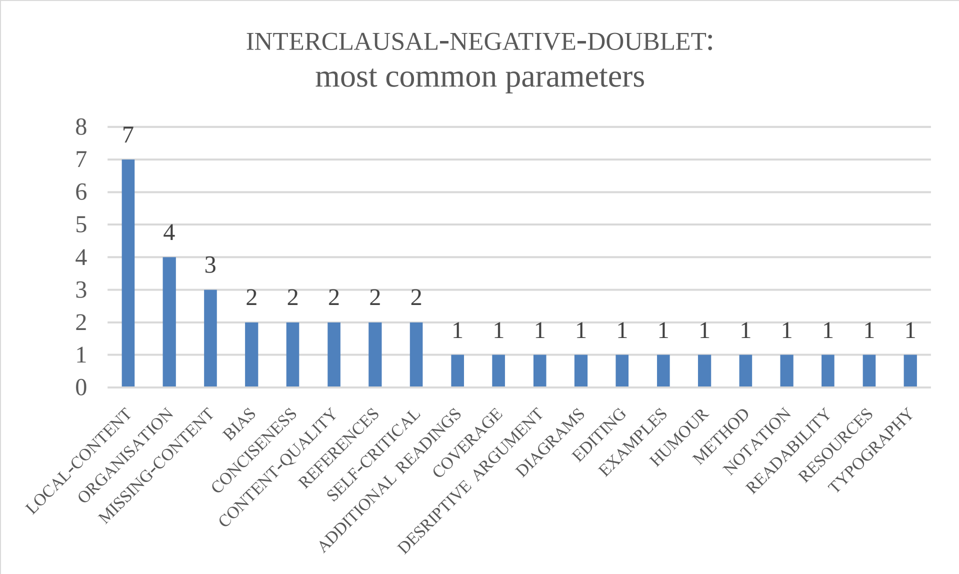


Fig. 106. Most common parameters in INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-DOUBLET in the PSYCH corpus

INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE-MULTIPLE represents as many as 10 parameters, with only three parameters with a frequency that equals two: CONTENT-QUALITY (2), MISSING-CONTENT (2), COVERAGE (2). The rest of the parameters have been identified one only. These are: DIFFICULTY (1), NOVELTY (1), ORGANIZATION (1), CONSISTENCY (1), READERSHIP-RELEVANT (1), and PURPOSE-RELEVANT (1). This allows an observation that in this pattern it is CONTENT that is most frequently represented.

8.4. POSITIVE-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-POSITIVE

The third instance of the EVALUATION-TYPE in the annotation scheme (page 205) is denoted as POSITIVE-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-POSITIVE. This pattern encompasses two potential realizations: POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE (135 – 137) and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE (138 – 140).

(135) While these different approaches are well described, there was little discussion of their efficacy to date in terms of modifying physiological variables. [Psychology/BRAIN_006_2011.txt.]

(136) While behavioural techniques are certainly addressed, they receive less attention [Psychology/CBP_010_2013.txt.]

(137) The information is thorough enough to allow for initiation of treatment for more straightforward presentations of psychiatric illness, but draws what many would consider to be a sensible line in advising referral to a psychiatrist for more complicated cases. [Psychology/PSS_002_2009.txt.]

(138) None are considered in depth, but useful further reading is provided. [Psychology/BRAIN_006_2011.txt.]

(139) C&H have not unchained us prisoners, leading us out of Plato's cave of shadows into the sunlight, but they have sprung a few of the locks. [Psychology/EHR_004_2009.txt.]

(140) This encyclopaedia series is a financial investment, but the wealth of information provided in these volumes is unmatched. [Psychology/ACN_012_2013.txt.]

It is worth mentioning that the distribution of POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE AND NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE vary, with the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern being more common, as indicated in Table 226.

POSITIVE-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-POSITIVE-TYPE	N
POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE	67
NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE	31
TOTAL:	**98**

Table 226. The distribution of POSITIVE-NEGATIVE or NEGATIVE-POSITIVE in the PSYCH corpus

There has also been observed a statistically significant difference in the average segment length. Contrary to what was found in the LING corpus, NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE segments tend to be longer, as shown in Table 227.

Text Complexity	POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE	NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE	T-Stat	P-val	Signif.
Av. Segment Length	30.89	31.88	246.11	0.0000	+++

Table 227. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE in the PSYCH corpus: text complexity

Equally noteworthy is the observation presented in Table 228, indicating that the pattern where the final evaluation is positive appears subjectively "more" positive than the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern. This suggests that the presence of a positive segment in the final position may mitigate the impact of face-threatening criticism.

Subjectivity	POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE	NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE
Subjective Positivity	0.218	0.237

Table 228. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE in the PSYCH corpus: subjective positivity

Finally, there has been observed a higher index of the 1st person references for positive-but-negative.

Reference Density	POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE	NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE	ChiSqu	P-val	Signif.
1p Reference	0.73%	0.59%	0.20	0.6544	

Table 229. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE in the PSYCH corpus: reference density

8.4.1. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE

The total count of POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE segments only slightly surpasses the number of POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVES, mainly due to a few instances where the segments formed a chained pattern. Concerning the primary evaluation aspects, the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern predominantly emphasizes the parameter of CONTENT, irrespective of the polarity of the evaluation, as illustrated in Figure 107 and Figure 108.

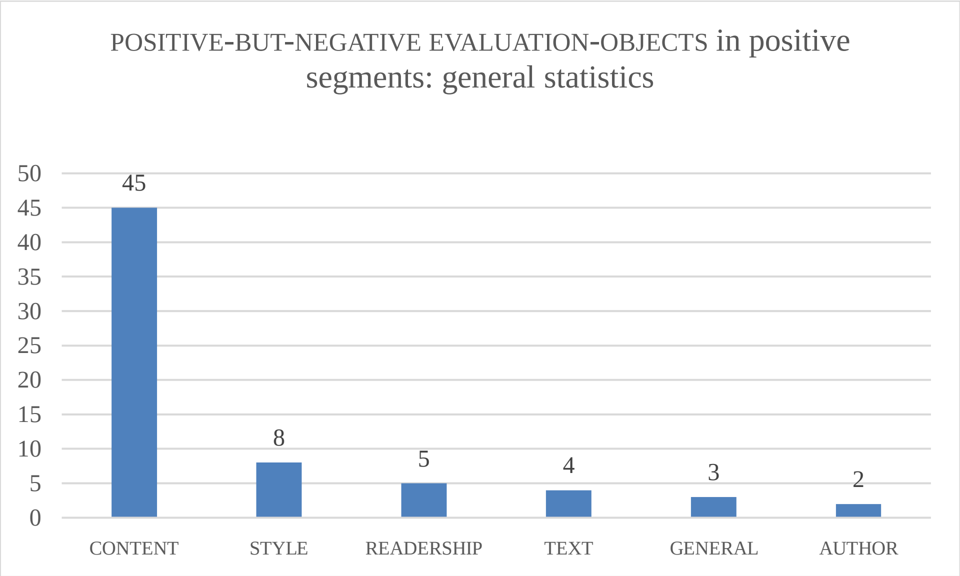


Fig. 107. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE EVALUATION-OBJECTS in positive segments: general statistics

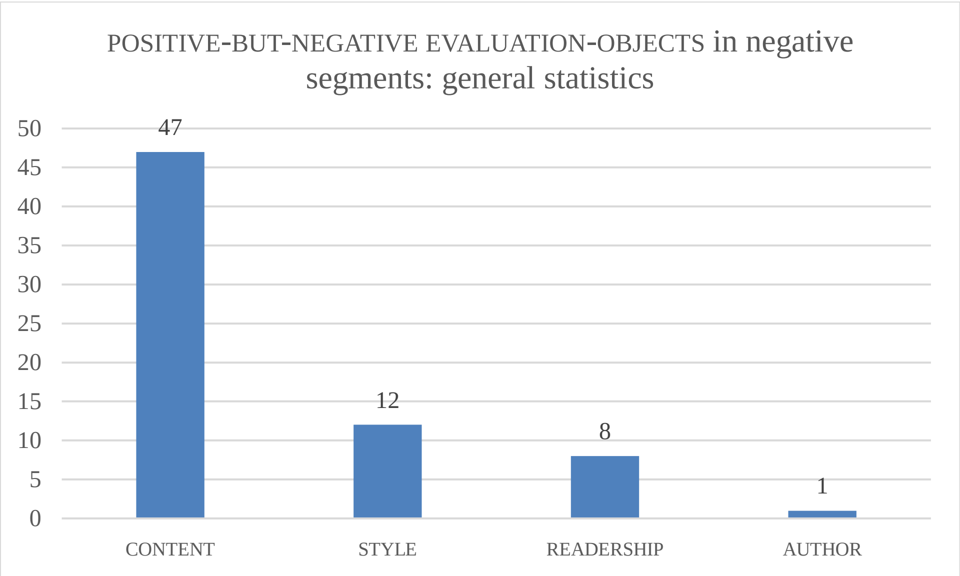


Fig. 108. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE EVALUATION-OBJECTS in negative segments: general statistics

Among all evaluations related to GENERAL-CONTENT and those of SPECIFIC ARGUMENT or CONTENT, it is noteworthy that both positive and negative evaluations predominantly focus on the categories of CONTENT-QUALITY and LOCAL-CONTENT-QUALITY. These two categories encompass a majority of all evaluations, as illustrated in Table 230 and Table 231.

CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE		NEGATIVE	
	N	%	N	%
GENERAL-CONTENT	7		5	
LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT	37		40	
TOTAL:	49		43	

Table 230. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE CONTENT-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

Among GENERAL-CONTENT type evaluations, only three parameters have been observed: CONTENT-QUALITY, COVERAGE, and SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE, with one hit in the PSYCH corpus.

GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE-
	N	%
CURRENCY	0	0
APPROACH	0	2
COVERAGE	3	3
CONTENT-QUALITY	3	0
NOVELTY	0	0
SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	1	0
IMPLICATIONS	0	0
APPLICABILITY	0	0
TOTAL:	7	5

Table 231. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT is represented by more parameters, of which LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE and argument-value rank highest, as shown in Table 232.

SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE	POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
COHERENCE	0	0
INSIGHT	2	2
ARGUMENT-VALUE	6	4
LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE	27	15
MISSING-CONTENT	0	19
METHOD	0	0
SCOPE	1	0
BIAS	0	0
TERMINOLOGY	0	0
UTILITY	1	0
TOTAL:	37	40

Table 232. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE in the PSYCH corpus

The distribution of all parameters in the positive segment of the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern is strongly dominated by local-content-value (27 instances), followed – rather surprisingly – by IDIOSYNCRATIC-STYLE of the author and EXPLANATORY-ARGUMENT, which provides a different picture than in the case of the pattern in the LING corpus. The results are presented in Figure 109.

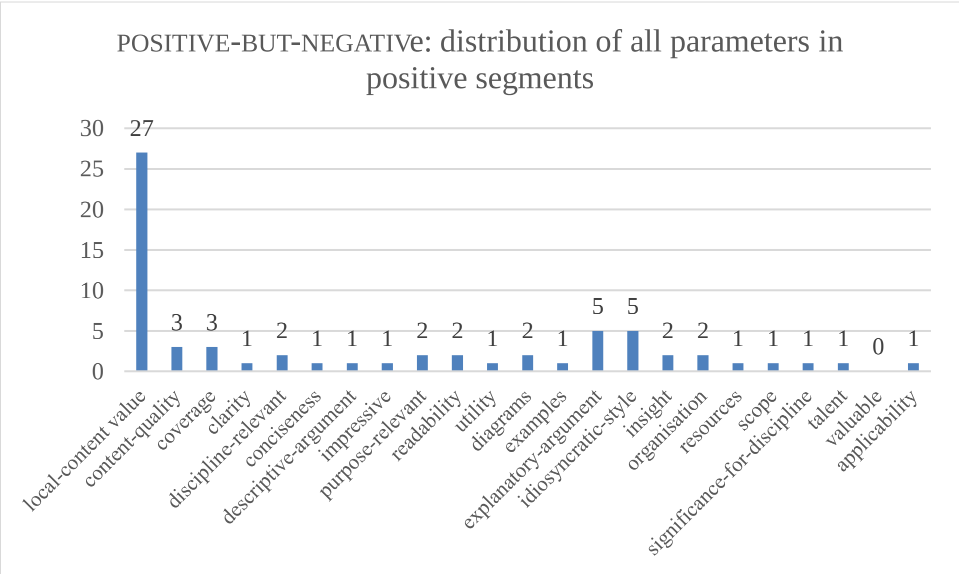


Fig. 109. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE: distribution of all parameters in positive segments

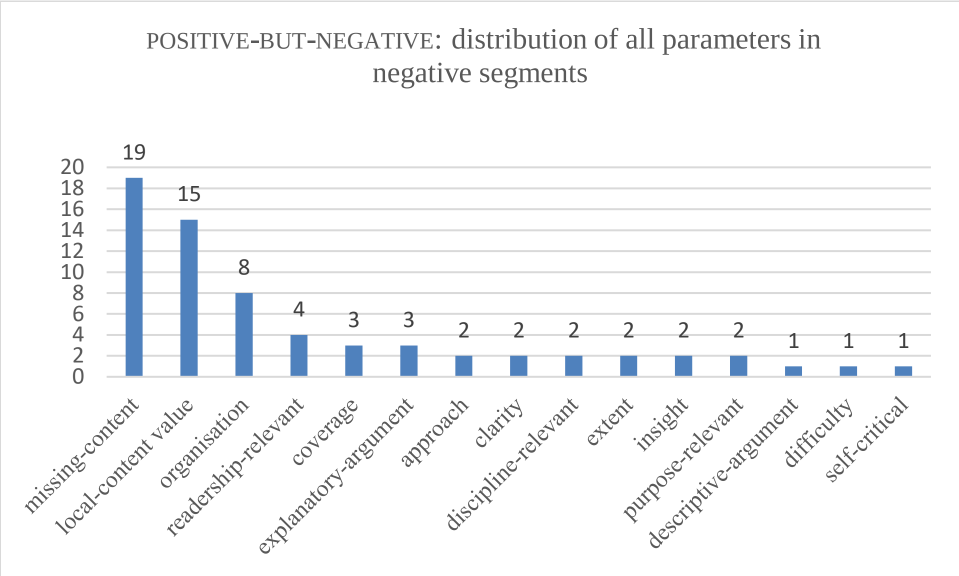


Fig. 110. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE: distribution of all parameters in negative segments in the PSYCH corpus

While LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE is still very high on the list of parameters present in negative segments of the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE type, the most common element is MISSING-CONTENT, which occurs more frequently in this pattern in the PSYCH corpus than in the LING corpus. Also, relatively much criticism is related to ORGANIZATION and READERSHIP-RELEVANCE.

The second most frequently evaluated aspect is the parameter of STYLE, with eight instances of positive evaluations and 12 cases of negative ones. Authors tend to face the most criticism and responsibility regarding the ORGANIZATION and READABILITY of their books, while other parameters have relatively little importance.

The third parameter, namely, READERSHIP, has been found to be an object of evaluation in eight cases, four of which are positive and eight are negative evaluations. Authors often receive criticism for the alignment of their books with the intended audience (READERSHIP-RELEVANCE) and their alignment with the relevant discipline (DISCIPLINE-RELEVANCE).

(141) Subsequent chapters dig into the histopathology and genetics of protein misfolding which, as with the chapter on architectonics, seemed useful but of lower relevance to the day-to-day practice of neuropsychology [Psychology/ACN_017_2018.txt]

(142) For example, chapters on topics such as weak central coherence and the continuous distribution of autism traits in the general population, though of great interest to researchers and clinicians, may be somewhat tangential to the interests of care-givers. [Psychology/ACN_007_2011.txt]

Considering the clear focus on the parameter of CONTENT, it should come as no surprise that the most common pairings of positive and negative segments are related to this particular aspect.

Figure 111 shows that combinations involving LOCAL-CONTENT and MISSING-CONTENT are relatively the most common.

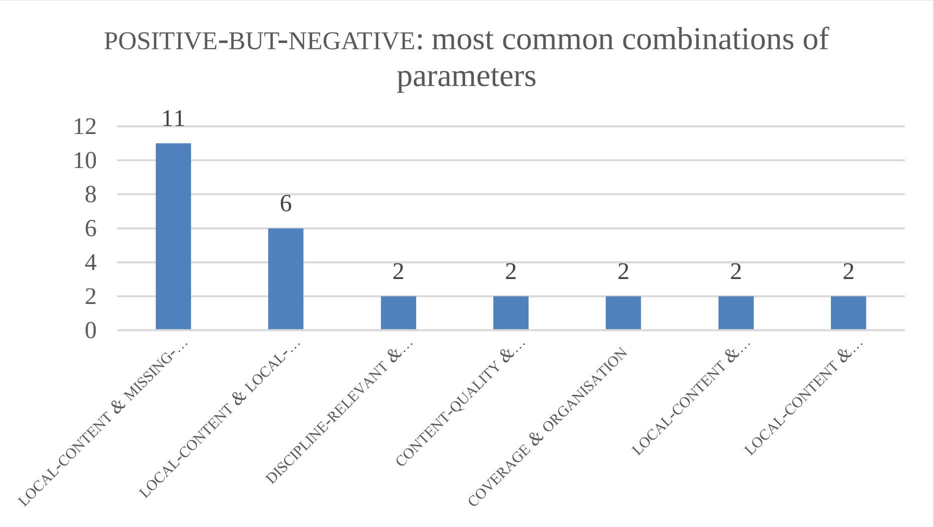


Fig. 111. POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE: the most common combinations of parameters

LOCAL-CONTENT and MISSING-CONTENT (11)

(143) Although there were a few mentions throughout the book of cognitive decline resulting from immunosenescence, this reviewer would have enjoyed a chapter dedicated to the effects of immunosenescence on cognitive functions [Texts/Brain_010_2014.txt]

LOCAL-CONTENT and LOCAL-CONTENT (6)

(144) It gives a reasonable summary of "what we have learned so far", but the discussion of future directions is rather less inspired [Texts/Brain_006_2011.txt]

DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT and READERSHIP-RELEVANT (2)

(145) For example, chapters on topics such as weak central coherence and the continuous distribution of autism traits in the general population, though of great interest to researchers and clinicians, may be somewhat tangential to the interests of care-givers [Texts/ACN_007_2011.txt]

CONTENT-QUALITY and COVERAGE (2)

(146) Although the book reviews the concepts behind every analysis, it does not cover the analyses in enough depth to instruct beginners [Texts/APM_003_2010.txt]

COVERAGE and ORGANISATION (2)

(147) Finally, although one strength of this edited volume is its breadth, it is also a weakness as the organization of this edited volume makes the content difficult to follow [Texts/ACN_009_2012.txt]

LOCAL-CONTENT and EXPLANATORY (2)

(148) Their chapter is a helpful guide to commonplace misunderstandings of diagnostic testing, although their assertion that "substantial evidence supports the treatment utility of assessments" (p. 73) is itself overstated [Texts/ACN_004_2009.txt]

LOCAL-CONTENT and ORGANISATION (2)

(149) Early on, the authors thoughtfully tackle typical obstacles to treatment, although it would have been helpful to incorporate motivational techniques earlier in the book [Texts/CBP_006_2010.txt

8.4.2. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE

The NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE pattern can be noticed in 31 evaluations. Just like in the previous cases, the total number of positive and negative segments exceeds the number of instances where the NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE appears, mainly because, in some cases, these segments appeared in a chained form. Nevertheless, in contrast to what was observed in the LING corpus, the count of positive segments has now reached 35, suggesting that the strategy of counterbalancing the impact of negative evaluations with more frequent positive segments might not be employed to the same extent.

All parameters for the negative and positive segments are demonstrated in Figure 112 and Figure 113.

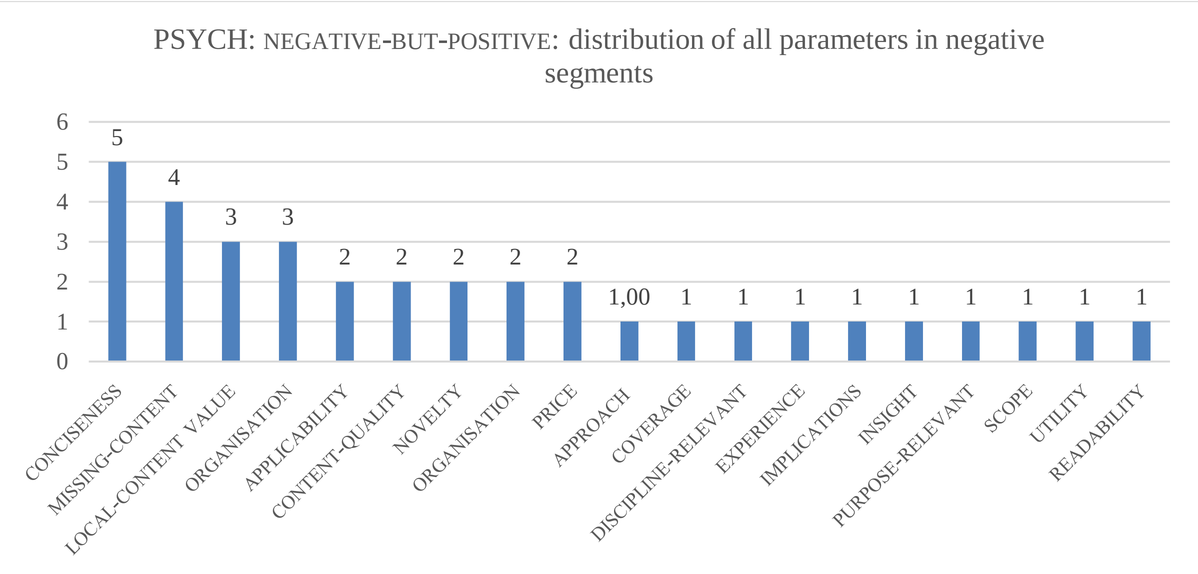


Fig. 112. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE: distribution of all parameters in negative segments in the PSYCH corpus

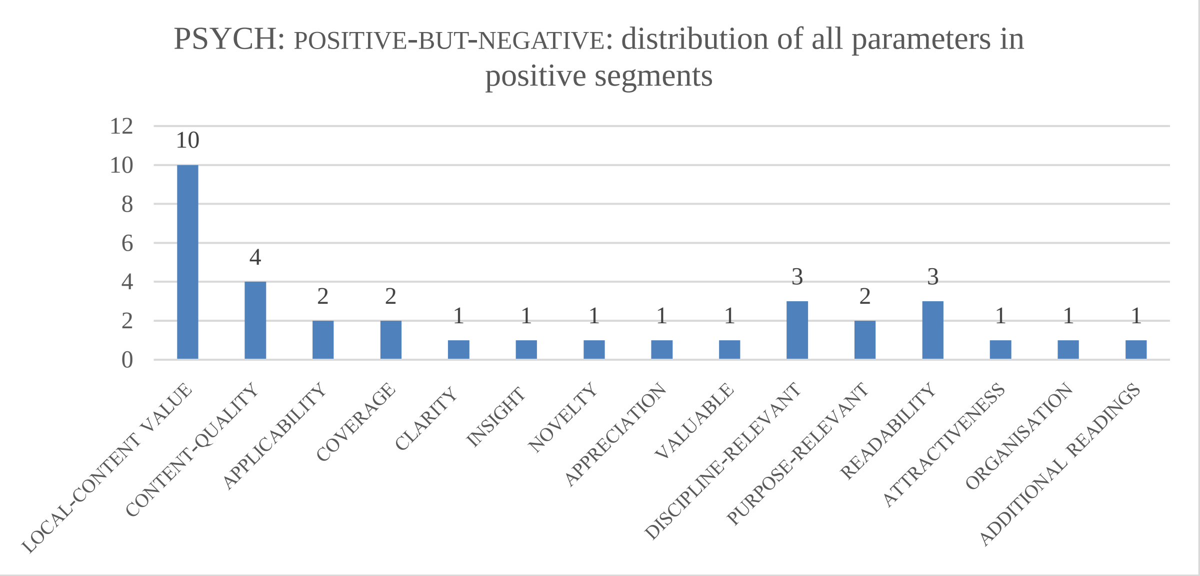


Fig. 113. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE: distribution of all parameters in positive segments in the PSYCH corpus

Once more, with regard to the primary EVALUATION-OBJECTS, the NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE pattern predominantly centers on the parameter of CONTENT, as exemplified in Figure 114. CONTENT is referred to in 57% of negative segments and 60% of positive ones.

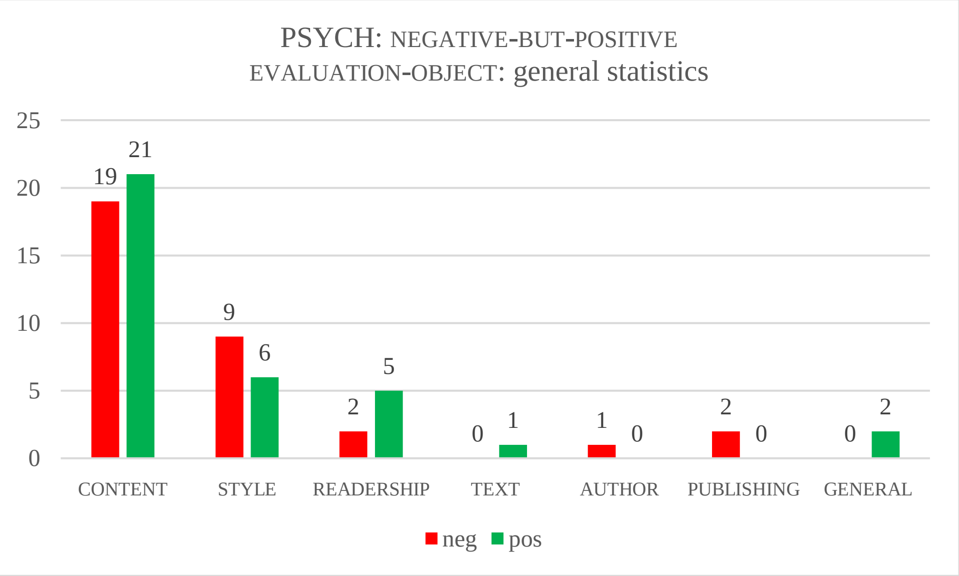


Fig. 114. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE EVALUATION-OBJECT: general statistics in the PSYCH corpus

It is noteworthy that general-content is referred to more frequently than LOCAL ARGUMENT-CONTENT. Additionally, this parameter is slightly more prevalent in positive segments than in negative ones for both GENERAL-CONTENT and LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT. The results are shown in Figure 115.

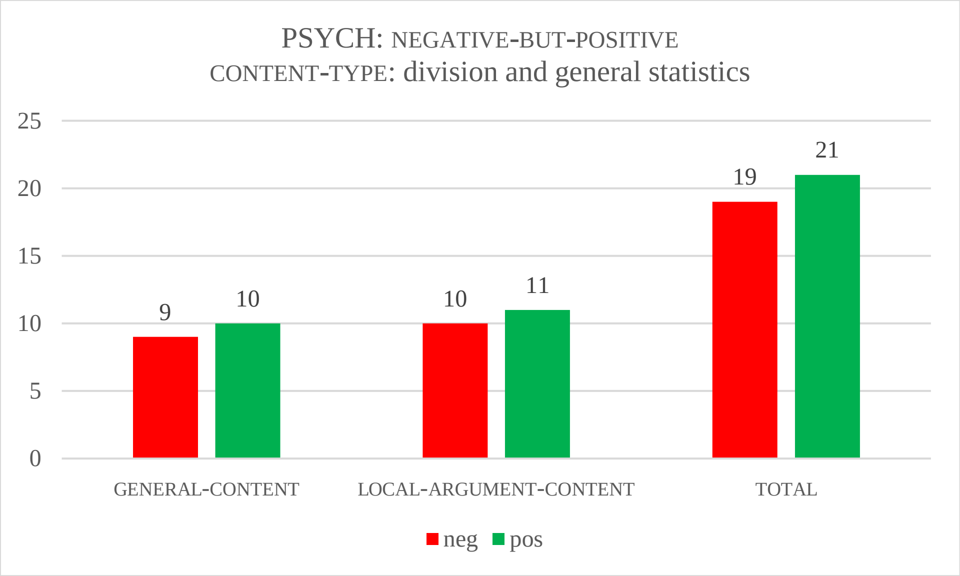


Fig. 115. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE CONTENT-TYPE: division and general statistics in the PSYCH corpus

Just like in the positive-BUT-NEGATIVE PATTERN, the parameter of STYLE occupies the position of the second most frequently used parameter among EVALUATION-OBJECTS, with a higher frequency in the negative segments. The explanation for this lies in the fact that, even though negative evaluations have only three parameters compared to the four positive ones, their overall count is greater. For instance, it reaches the value of five for CONCISENESS (300). In positive segments, the most commonly occurring parameter of STYLE is READABILITY (301), as shown in Figure 116.

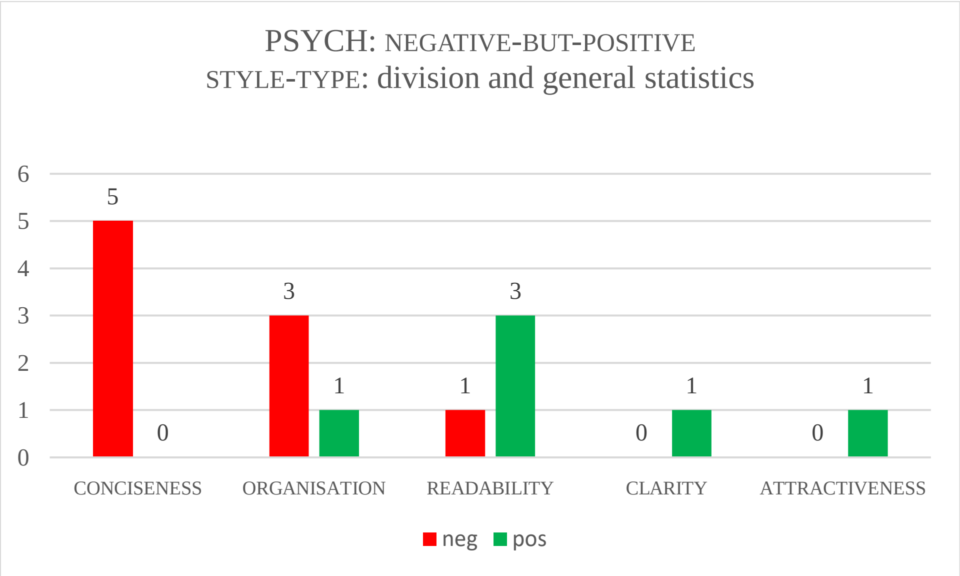


Fig. 116. NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE STYLE-TYPE: division and general statistics in the PSYCH corpus

(150) These are large topics to be condensed to single chapters; yet both chapters provide sufficient background information for readers new to the topic [Psychology/Brain_013_2015.txt]

(151) Both chapters have limited practical utility but are thought-provoking and quite enjoyable [Psychology/ACN_002_2008.txt]

The other parameters carry little significance. The third one, falling far behind the top two, is READABILITY, with five positive evaluations and two negative ones. The remaining parameters have minimal importance, with publishing and general mentioned twice each, while text and author ate only referenced once each.

Similar to what has been observed in the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE pattern, CONTENT, or more specifically, LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE, remains the key parameter of evaluation, resulting in the most common combinations of both negative and positive segments, shown below.

CONCISENESS AND LOCAL-CONTENT VALUE (4)

(152) Despite the brevity of the book's chapters, material is presented with targeted references to the empirical literature and appropriate caveats for topics without clear resolution [Psychology/ACN_007_2011.txt]

CONTENT-QUALITY and LOCAL-CONTENT-QUALITY (2)

(153) More experienced interdisciplinary scientists will find it somewhat basic, but even they may bene.t from having one book that gives a neat summary of most of the major theories of our field [Psychology/BRAIN_006_2011.txt]

MISSING-CONTENT and LOCAL-CONTENT VALUE (2)

(154) but information as to how parents might approach the process of implementing plans, common roadblocks, and what to expect along the way are absent, despite careful attention to these details for the middle chapters of the book. [Psychology/EHR_001_2008.txt]

The mitigation strategy observed in the LING corpus and consisting of closing a NEGATIVE-PLUS-POSITIVE evaluation with two or more positive acts is not used in the PSYCH corpus to the same degree. Although three such evaluations have been identified, a bit more common pattern is grouping negative evaluations in the first segment to close with a SIMPLE-POSITIVE assessment, as in sentence (155) below:

(155) Though clearly not a textbook, and undeniably chatty at times, this is a volume that neuropsychologists at all levels of training and experience, and particularly those with interests in the history of medicine, will enjoy reading and remembering for a long time [Psychology/ACN_018_2017.txt]

Closing remarks

The analysis of psychology book reviews based on the PSYCH corpus has revealed a number of specific characteristics whose status at this point cannot be conclusively determined. Proposing more clearly formulated conclusions will require a direct comparative analysis of the results obtained for both corpora, which will be undertaken in the next chapter.

Without a doubt, at this stage of the analysis, it can be concluded that the observations presented in the Closing Remarks in the previous chapter also apply to psychology book reviews.

In the most general sense, an analysis of the PSYCH corpus suggests that academic discourse expressed through book reviews aligns closely with Mauranen's (2003) and Tannen's (2002) observations. Specifically, consensus tends to be emphasized over conflict, and there is a notable prevalence of positive evaluations compared to negative ones. Furthermore, within the PSYCH corpus, there has been a significant decrease in negative evaluations, leading to a corresponding reduction in negativity across various parameters of evaluation. Also, there is a noticeable increase in the use of strategies to soften the negative tone of evaluations.

Similar to what was observed in the LING corpus, by far the largest number of evaluations are made through SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE patterns. While positive evaluations often lack justification, negative ones include a component of REASON.

These linguistic characteristics observed in book reviews in the field of linguistics represent just a fraction of the broader regularizes and trends mentioned earlier but are undeniably the most prominent. A comparative analysis of book evaluations in linguistics and psychology is required to determine their applicability in different disciplines.

CHAPTER NINE: A Comparative Analysis of Linguistics and Psychology Book Reviews

Introduction

In the preceding two chapters, the analysis primarily focused on presenting a number of descriptive and inferential statistics for individual corpora. Occasionally, fragmentary and preliminary observations on the qualitative and quantitative aspects of evaluations made by the reviewers were presented for several parameters to demonstrate that the variances noticed were probable contributors to their distribution in alternative evaluative patterns and for diverse evaluations objects.

This chapter will concentrate on highlighting major differences between the LING and the PSYCH reviews, discussing aspects of their general statistics, the parameter of polarity in relation to EVALUATION-TYPE and, finally, EVALUATION-OBJECTS. Once completed, the chapter will address the research questions formulated in Chapter Six.

9. General Statistics

The two corpora consisted of 120 book reviews, each of roughly 200,000 words in size, with the LING corpus being 1.2 times larger in terms of word count. The length of these reviews varied depending on the journal. The longest review in the PSYCH corpus was nearly 20 times longer than the shortest one. However, in the LING corpus, there was not as much variation in the length of the reviews, with the longest review being only about nine times longer than the shortest one. When measured in terms of the number of sentences used, linguistics reviews were found to be longer by 3.37 sentences than psychological book reviews. However, in terms of the degree of lexical variation measured by the type-token ratio, the PSYCH reviews exhibited a higher degree of lexical variation, which is indicative of their higher lexical richness.

9.1. Polarity

As observed by Gea Valor (2000:86), the genre of book review is “a highly-threatening act since is basically involves the assessment of the work of a fellow researcher”. Whether this type of assessment takes the form of criticism or complimenting, according to face theory, both types of statements are face-threatening acts, requiring the use of appropriate strategies. Without attempting to establish whether the degree of face-threatening resulting from negative reviews is significantly higher than in the case of praise, one can only surmise that in the case of evaluations in book reviews, reviewees tend to anticipate a predominantly positive reception of their work, although they do acknowledge the potential negative feedback for the sake of the author themselves and for the sake of the benefit of the discipline they represent or the benefit of their readers. What can be then expected is that positive comments should outnumber negative remarks. And this is precisely the case with the two corpora of evaluations analyzed in this work.

The total number of evaluations found in the two corpora is very similar, with 2,545 and 2, 453 hits in the PSYCH and LING corpus respectively, of which as many as 1835 and 1834, respectively, are instances of positive evaluations, which indicates that positive assessments in the PSYCH book reviews are relatively as common as in the LING corpus. What follows is that the share of negative evaluations in the PSYCH corpus is lower. In the LING corpus, there have been identified 615 negative assessments, whereas this figure for the PSYCH corpus amounts to 521, which is 15.3% lower. The difference between negative evaluations in the two corpora has been shown to be statistically significant when analyzed by Ch-Square calculator (https://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/chisquare2/default2.aspx). This analysis demonstrated a chi-square statistic of 5.9025, yielding a p-value of less than .015119, which is statistically significant at a confidence level of $p<.05$. Furthermore, considering the Yates correction, the chi-square statistic becomes 5.7386, with a corresponding p-value of less than .016596, also indicating statistical significance at a confidence level of $p<.05$.

Regarding the third type of evaluation, specifically, POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE, 95 instances of this pattern were identified in the PSYCH corpus and 98 instances in the LING corpus. Since these patterns may encompass more than one simple evaluation, regardless of their polarity, a count of all basic, simple evaluations was conducted. This aspect revealed that the total number of positive evaluations in the LING corpus was 100, while in the PSYCH corpus it was 102. In contrast, negative evaluations were more prevalent in the LING corpus, with 111 instances compared to 103 in the PSYCH corpus, following the trend identified before. However, no statistically significant differences were found this time, as indicated by a chi-square statistic of .2324 and a p-value of .629767 at $p<.05$. Nevertheless, the result, close to the p-value threshold, suggests that the POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE structure is useful in introducing a greater number of critical comments, which can be softened by the immediate presence of positive remarks.

An interesting insight comes from the comparison of the quantitative data concerning the number of the positive and negative evaluations in the two corpora with the subjective positivity index, which is a measure of positiveness of words in the text. Although evaluation cannot be reduced solely to the sentiment of words, it is interesting to note that in the PSYCH corpus in which the total number of critical remarks is lower than in the LING corpus, the subjective positive index for both polarities is lower, which means that the comments are lexically more critical than in the PSYCH corpus, as shown in Table 233.

Subjectivity in PSYCH	**POSITIVE**	**NEGATIVE**	**POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE**
Subjective Positivity	0.381	0.018	0.241
Subjectivity in LING	**POSITIVE**	**NEGATIVE**	**POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE**
Subjective Positivity	0.419	0.035	0.221

Table 233. Subjectivity in the two corpora

Another aspect in which the evaluations in both corpora differ concerns the parameter of the average length of the segment of evaluation (Table 234). While for both corpora the average evaluation segment length is greater for negative evaluations, which may follow from the very presence of a negative lexical unit, the fact that a critical comment may be mitigated by a modality marker, or the increased number of the first-person pronouns, generally the length of evaluations in the LING corpus exceeds that of PSYCH evaluations, a finding an explanation of which goes probably beyond the scope of this dissertation.

Text Complexity in PSYCH	**POSITIVE**	**NEGATIVE**	**T-Stat**	**P-val**	**Signif.**
Av. Segment Length	20.76	22.85	6399.67	0.0000	+++
Text Complexity in LING	**POSITIVE**	**NEGATIVE**	**T-Stat**	**P-val**	**Signif.**
Av. Segment Length	22.37	25.64	12070.67	0.0000	+++

Table 234. Text complexity in the two corpora

A comparison of the results obtained for the general positive and negative categories with the results produced for the patterns in the lower layer, i.e., SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE and CHAINED-POSITIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE, shows far-reaching similarities. For both the LING and PSYCH corpora, the total number of positive evaluations outnumber the negative ones. In the PSYCH corpus, there have been identified 1,551 SIMPLE-POSITIVE cases and 293 CHAINED-POSITIVE ones, which corresponds to the ratio 5.30. The proportion between

SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations and CHAINED-NEGATIVE ones is also substantial, with 487 cases of the former and only 34 of the latter.

For the LING corpus, 1, 544 SIMPLE-POSITIVE evaluation contrast with 291 CHAINED-POSITIVE ones. At the same time, simple-negative evaluations amount to 585 and CHAINED-NEGATIVE ones as few as 30. Although for each of the corpora there has been found a statistically significant difference in the distribution of the patterns, no difference has been observed in this respect for the two corpora, as the chi-square statistic is 7.3433; the p-value is .061723 and the result is not significant at p<.05. However, the overall trend of positive polarity outnumbering negative polarity has remained consistent.

This trend is subject to certain distortions when the analysis shifts to the lowest level of the annotation scheme, which recognizes there subtypes for each polarity: -ALONE, -PLUS REASON, and -PLUS OTHER. Although the course of this trend remains constant and for each of the aforementioned types of SIMPLE pattern, each sub-type is still characterized by more positive evaluations than negative ones, a certain variation is observable. It can be assumed with a high degree of probability that the number of individual positive and negative evaluations for each sub-type is related to the presence or absence of accompanying segments.

Regarding the three subcategories, psychology book reviewers display unique tendencies in employing SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE assessments. Similar to what is observed in the LING corpus, reviewers in this field exhibit a somewhat less pronounced inclination to express their evaluations using POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER RESOURCES. Conversely, while NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON instances surpass NEGATIVE-ALONE cases in both corpora, the PSYCH corpus contains nearly twice as many evaluations with an accompanying justification compared to those that are "simply negative".

	POSITIVE-ALONE	POSITIVE-PLUS-REASON	NEGATIVE-ALONE	NEGATIVE-PLUS-REASON
PSYCH	910	540	177	293
LING	1143	360	239	314

Table 235. The distribution of evalution in simple-positive and simple-negative patterns

A chi-square test of independence was performed to examine the relation between discipline and the evaluation patterns. The PLUS-OTHER pattern has been excluded die to a comparable number of cases in the corpora. The chi-square statistic is 67.8383. The p-value is <.0.00001. The result is significant at p<.05, which shows that there is a relation between the discipline and SIMPLE-POSITIVE and SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluation patterns.

What follows from the analysis is that next to the strategy of reducing unflattering assessments, yet reinforced by their overall negativity, reviewers of books in the field of psychology find it appropriate to give reasons for their evaluations, above all in the case of negative evaluations, which is not apparent to the same extent in the reviews of books in the field of linguistics.

The analysis of the remaining pattern of CHAINED-POSITIVE and CHAINED-NEGATIVE in both corpora yields some very interesting results. Judging by the number of occurrences of these patterns in both corpora under analysis, chained patterns consisting of two or more evaluations of the same polarity are relatively infrequent, although, taking into account the generally lower number of negative evaluations in the PSYCH corpus, they are textually more prominent (487 SIMPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations vs. 34 CHAINED-NEGATIVE ones) than in the LING corpus (585 SIMPLE-NEGATIVE comments vs. 30 CHAINED-NEGATIVE ones). What the two corpora share is also preference given to INTRACLAUSAL-POSITIVE patterns rather than the INTERCLAUSAL ones, which involve combining two or more clauses. Thus, evaluations taking the form of *this informative and fact-heavy tome* are more frequent than *The book is well-organized and provides a solid treatment of the genres*. However, in the case of CHAINED-NEGATIVE evaluations in both corpora, the proportion between INTRACLAUSAL and INTERCLAUSAL evaluations is reversed, with INTERCLAUSAL-NEGATIVE assessments, rare as they are, being prevalent by the factor of 2.

It may be argued that this situation arises from two interrelated reasons: text organizations and politeness. Firstly, as has been observed before, while the accumulation of positive remarks without providing a reason within a single clause or sentence is quite common, a similar sequential accumulation of critical remarks makes it more difficult for the reviewer to include justification for each criticism within the same sentence. Consequently, such "bare" negative evaluations may have a much stronger effect. Such an effect may pose a threat to the face of the reviewee, which is why reviewers may decide to "dilute" the negative tone by using longer and informationally richer interclausal patterns that allow combining critical remarks addressed at different EVALUATION-OBJECTS, as in:

> **These chapters were not strong enough to warrant an entire section** [CONTENT-QUALITY], especially **given the lack of a chapter highlighting human clinical findings** [MISSING-CONTENT], and **could have been integrated elsewhere** [ORGANISATION] [Psychology_Brains_005_2011.txt.]

This tendency to avoid critical remarks within a relatively short space is also visible in the fact that the NEGATIVE-DOUBLETS are more common than cases of MULTIPLE-NEGATIVE evaluations.

The last pattern identified in the annotation scheme is POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVe, whose frequency in the two corpora is almost identical, namely, 60 vs. 35 in the LING corpus, and 67 vs. 32 in the PSYCH reviews. Further, what the two corpora also share is that the POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE patten is more common.

However, there have been observed a few differences in the way this type of evaluation is structured, especially in terms of the length of a segment. If in the LING corpus, the NEGATIVE-PLUS-POSITIVE evaluations are shorter than POSITIVE-PLUS-NEGATIVE, what can be found in the PSYCH corpus is that NEGATIVE-PLUS-POSITIVE segments are longer. In both cases, these differences have been found statistically significant. While it is practically impossible to say what factor leads to the increased length of NEGATIVE-PLUS-POSITIVE evaluations, it could be expected that following the already observed tendency to weaken the force of criticism, the PSYCH reviewers would try to counterbalance the initial unfavourable tone with a more extensive positive evaluations.

This may find an additional support in the increased subjective "positivity" of NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE evaluations. This observation should be treated with caution because, in this respect the PSYCH reviews resemble the LING ones, for which the positivity index is also common for this pattern.

9.2. The parameters of evaluation

It follows from the analyses in Chapters Seven and Eight that both in the case of the LING corpus and the PSYCH corpus, the same four EVALUATION-OBJECTS occupy the top positions. These are CONTENT, STYLE, READERSHIP, and TEXT. It is also a common feature of both corpora that in respect of these four EVALUATION-OBJECTS, positive evaluations outnumber negative ones. However, this observation probably exhaust the number of similarities observed for the two corpora as similarities at the level of the individual parameters involved are no longer visible.

The category of CONTENT as an EVALUATION-OBJECT is one of the most frequently referred to in the two corpora, irrespective of the polarity of the evaluations. With as many as 956 positive evaluations against 903 in the PSYCH corpus, CONTENT in the LING corpus exceeds the level of 52% of all positive evaluations, which is higher than in the PSYCH corpus by almost 3%. A similar tendency can be observed in the case of negative evaluations. Again, the

LING corpus presents more negative evaluations than the PSYCH. However, given the lower total number of negative assessments in the PSYCH corpus, this result translates into a difference of only 2%, yet sizeable enough to be statistically significant. Generally, while CONTENT is the key element of evaluation in both book review corpora, there is more emphasis laid on it in the LING than the PSYCH.

It has already been said that the parameter of CONTENT refers either to the content of the whole volume reviewed or its local manifestations such as chapters, paragraphs, and smaller stretches of text. When viewed in terms of this dichotomy, there can be observed a marked preference given to LOCAL-CONTENT, especially in the case of multi-authored publications. However, a close-up of the distribution of positive and negative evaluations shows that the picture is more intricate. If for the LING corpus positive remarks on the GENERAL CONTENT-TYPE are 1.7 times more frequent than remarks on the LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE, this index drops to as little as 1.1. in the case of the PSYCH corpus. By contrast, in the LING corpus, negative evaluations of the local-argument-content are 5.22 times more common than criticism of general-content. The same index rises to 5.43 in the PSYCH corpus. Thus, it would be more accurate to claim that while book reviews in linguistics and psychology are content-centred, the realizations of the review genres exhibit different discipline-related patterns: while in both corpora positive evaluations are more numerous than negative ones, relatively more negative evaluations of the LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE is the primary object of negative evaluations, with the psychology book reviews being even more critical in this respect than linguistic book reviews.

The broad category of CONTENT consists of a number of more specific parameters identified for GENERAL-CONTENT and LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT. Although not all of them have proved to be disciplinary specific, a number of them have.

The general panorama of the distribution of the parameters of general-content revealed by this analysis is dominated by an unquestionable prevalence of positive evaluations in both corpora. Although many of these have been found statistically significant for each of the corpora, a comparison of the results obtained points to different weighing of these parameters in an interdisciplinary perspective.

One parameter that dominates the category of GENERAL-CONTENT is CONTENT-QUALITY. This dominance is evident for both corpora, although there are slight variations in the distribution of positive and negative assessments related to CONTENT-QUALITY between the two databases. Notably, in terms of quantitative distribution, the LING corpus stands out with a total of 196 positive evaluations, which is 30 more than is observed for the PSYCH dataset.

This difference is clearly reflected in the percentage of these evaluations within the overall category of CONTENT, with LING scoring 10.2% compared to 9.1% in the PSYCH corpus. It is, therefore, legitimate to argue that the LING corpus accentuates the positive aspects of CONTENT-QUALITY more prominently than the PSYCH corpus.

Nevertheless, it is important to observe than, in contrast to the prevalence of positive comments regarding CONTENT-QUALITY, negative comments in this regard are less common in the LING corpus compared to the PSYCH one. In the former corpus, a negative evaluation is likely to occur every thirteenth time, while in the PSYCH corpus, an unfavourable assessment of content-quality is encountered every eighth time content-quality is evaluated. This allows to state that psychology book reviews do not tend towards an almost unbounded enthusiasm for positive features of CONTENT-QUALITY.

The second parameter most frequently used in both corpora to assess GENERAL-CONTENT is the parameter of COVERAGE referring to the range of information provided, which should be sufficient to enable the reader a comprehensive understanding of the topic in hand. Coverage accounts for the total of 131 evaluations in the LING corpus (114 positive and 17 negative ones) and 108 assessments in the PSYCH corpus (95 positive and 13 negative ones), which represents 5.1% and 4.4% of all evaluation acts, respectively. While in quantitative terms, the difference does not seem to be wide, given an almost identical number of positive evaluations for both corpora, the difference of 19 evaluations would tentatively indicate that linguistics book reviewers pay more attention to this aspect of the book than it is the case of psychology reviews. This claim would have been justified, were it not for POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE patterns in which COVERAGE is more highlighted in the PSYCH corpus than in the LING one.

Approach is the third topmost parameter in both corpora and it is an important one as its distribution reveals much about disciplinary preferences. First, approach enjoys more attention in the LING corpus than in the PSYCH one as it appears in 115 evaluation segments in the former and only 54 in the latter. In both corpora, the evaluations are positive rather than negative (94:21 vs. 51:2, respectively), yet the small number of negative assessments indicates that either the quality of approach taken in psychology book reviews is unquestionable or the approach taken by authors is of lesser importance to the reviewers. The observable contrast in the distribution has been verified through a statistical examination (https://www.socscistatistics.com/tests/chisquare2/default2.aspx). This analysis demonstrated a chi-square statistic of 4.8682. The p-value was set at .027356 and the result was significant at $p<.05$. the chi-square statistic with Yates correction is 3.8813. The p-value was .048827, which shows that the results is significant at $p<.05$. The results obtained strongly indicate that there is a relation between the discipline and the distribution of the parameter of APPROACH as an EVALUATION-OBJECT. Psychology book reviews seem to resort to APPROACH only when the assessment is positive.

The parameter that ranks fourth is difficult to establish. Judging by the number of evaluations irrespective of their polarity, it could be NOVELTY or SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE DISCIPLINE. The former is decidedly well-represented in the LING corpus, with 75 hits; the latter being high in the PSYCH corpus, with 39 occurrences followed by NOVELTY appearing in 37 evaluative comments.

NOVELTY is almost exclusively referred to in a positive context. Of 75 hits in the LING corpus, 72 represent praise. Similarly, 33 out of 37 comments focusing in novelty in the PSYCH corpus are positive. It is evident from the data that the issue of originality and innovation as aspects of NOVELTY plays a prominent role in linguistics book reviews as its share in the total of positive evaluations is twice as big as in the PSYCH corpus. Although not ignored by psychology book reviewers, NOVELTY is rarely acknowledged in this field. When it is, though, the comments usually stress “filling a gap” or uniqueness of the work.

An interesting aspect of NOVELTY is the low number of negative comments observed in both corpora. In this respect, both corpora show a far-reaching similarity in the way criticism is formulated. Rather than define the authors’ attempt as unoriginal or uninventive, reviewers resort to mitigating strategies in which such phrases as *little will be new* or *not entirely new* lessen the impact of criticism.

SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE DISCIPLINE is another CONTENT-related parameter, which appears relatively high among the parameters of content in both corpora. It is directly related to the parameter of novelty since it implies that the book under review has a substantial impact on the discipline by advancing knowledge. It is not surprising, then, that the values obtained in the analysis of the two corpora are very similar to the ones found for NOVELTY. In the LING corpus, there have been observed 69 evaluations, of which only two were negative. By contrast, the number of evaluations in the PSYCH corpus is much lower, totalling 39 evaluations. Interestingly, all of them were found to be positive. This quantitative difference between the two corpora is also reflected in the share of such evaluations: SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE DISCIPLINE comments account for 2.7% of all evaluations in the LING corpus and only 1.5% in the PSYCH. It strongly indicates that the importance of scholarly contribution to the field in more accentuated in the LING.

Closely related to NOVELTY is the parameter of CURRENCY, which refers to timeliness or topicality of the information in the reviewed book. The number of comments of both polarities is similar and oscillates around 40. However, their distribution in the two corpora varies. While all 37 evaluations in the PSYCH corpus are positive, 6 out of 45 evaluations in the LING are negative, indicating that research is “outdated”, “bit dated”, “reflecting the state-of-the-art of the late 1990s”. More common are positive evaluations in which reviewers point to CURRENCY by describing the book as “up-to-date”, “welcome”, “much-needed”. Given a similar number of comments on CURRENCY, there is no significant difference in the interest paid to this parameter in the two corpora, the only difference lying in the absence of negative evaluations in the PSYCH dataset.

Likewise, the parameter of IMPLICATIONS seems to receive a similar limited attention of the reviewers in both fields. The total number of evaluations ranges from 16 in the PSYCH corpus to 20 in the LING, a solid majority of which are positive. In each of the corpora only two instances of negative evaluations have been observed. Generally, the contribution of IMPLICATIONS-focused evaluations in either corpus is insignificant and approximates the value of 1%.

The analysis of the last parameter in GENERAL-CONTENT as an object of evaluation reveals the most relevant finding and perhaps also the most significant one. The parameter of APPLICABILITY defined as the possibility of implementing knowledge in practice, has been found to be more strongly associated with psychology book reviews than linguistics ones. This possibility has already been pointed to in Chapter Six on potential differences between the two disciplines, where the issue of the value of practical applications of psychological research for the betterment of society has been raised.

The parameter of APPLICABILITY is represented in 29 positive evaluations and three negative ones in the PSYCH corpus and only three positive assessments in the LING one, which clearly indicates the singularity of this value in the realm of psychology. While the parameter of SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE mentioned earlier undoubtedly unites the two disciplines, the emphasis on the practical applicability of research is a unique characteristic of psychology, well reflected in the genre of book review:

> Sport psychology practitioners can easily implement this protocol to evaluate the success of interventions in their own practice [Psychology_ACN_014_2014.txt]

> This book is not only a 'must read' but a 'must do' [Psychology_EHR_001_2008.txt]

> The result is a concise, readable text with great practical value, particularly for trainees and clinicians new to CBT [Psychology_CBP_010_2013.txt]

The second type of content as an EVALUATION-OBJECT is represented by SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT-TYPE. This category has a complex structure consisting od ten parameters partly corresponding to the parameters specified for the GENERAL-CONTENT-TYPE.

As in the case of GENERAL-CONTENT, SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT evaluations concentrate primarily on the parameter of LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE, which accounts for 43.5% of all SPECIFIC ARGUMENT-CONTENT assessments in the PSYCH and 37.2 in the LING corpus. Although LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE predominates for this evaluation-object, a difference of more than 6%, which translates into about 30 assessments more in the PSYCH corpus, makes this parameter to be seen as more typical of psychology book reviews than of reviews of linguistics publications. The difference between the two disciplines becomes particularly apparent in the case of positive evaluations – typical of the PSYCH. Conversely, the number of negative evaluations is almost identical for both corpora. The above claim regarding the greater visibility of remarks on the LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE should, therefore, be clarified and rephrased as follows: the greater share of LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE in the PSYCH corpus is primarily attributable to the greater number of positive evaluations.

The second most common parameter used to assess specific-argument-content is argument-value, which has been found in 133 evaluations in the PSYCH and 164 ones in the LING one. The distribution of positive and negative evaluations prevail slightly in the LING corpus and the negative ones are more typical of the PSYCH corpus. What the two corpora share in this respect is the fact that both positive and negative evaluations of explanatory arguments are more frequent than evaluations of descriptive arguments, partly because evaluations of the latter type are not numerous in the PSYCH corpus. Generally, the analysis shows that positive assessments of descriptive arguments are typical of the LING corpus and negative ones of the PSYCH.

MISSING-CONTENT is also among the favourite parameters employed for the assessments of SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT. The very nature of this parameter, indicating the absence of significant information or perspectives, leads to the expectation that it will only appear as a reference point for negative evaluations. Indeed, except for instance described earlier, this is precisely the case. In the LING corpus, this parameter appears in 137 negative evaluations, which is as much as 22.1% of all negative evaluations. Thus, it can be seen that one in five criticisms is related to the absence of something that the LING reviewer considers essential in the book. This index is even slightly higher, yet not statistically significant, for the PSYCH corpus, where it reaches the value of 22.3%.

It would also be of interest to note that comments on missing-content usually take the form of the third conditional clause or subjunctive mood following the verb *wish*:

> The section **could have benefited** from further interactive exercises, step-by-step guidelines, and session-by-session approaches.[Psychology/CBP_006_2010.txt]

> **I wished that** Carlstedt had more thoroughly discussed a few important points, which, in my opinion, are relevant to his model.[Psychology/ACN_014_2014.txt]

The parameter of insight, which on the level of specific-argument-content corresponds to NOVELTY, represents around 5.8% of all evaluations in the PSYCH and 4.7% of all evaluations in the LING, which testifies to its greater role in the evaluation of minor sections of psychology books reviewed rather than the whole volumes. It is worth noting that the number of positive evaluations far exceeds the number of negative assessments in both corpora. Furthermore, despite the fact that negative evaluations are relatively rare, their contribution in the case of the PSYCH is almost twice as high as in the LING database.

The distribution of the parameter of SCOPE, which can be seen as a local equivalent of COVERAGE, differs significantly from the latter. While there is no difference in terms of how often the parameter is mentioned in reviews, as it appears in 4.7 % of all linguistics (LING) evaluations and only 1.4% of psychological (PSYCH) reviews, confirming a trend similar to coverage, there is an intriguing shift in the polarity of the assessments. Although positive reviews outnumber negative ones in both corpora, there is a noticeable reversal in SCOPE in the LING corpus, where negative evaluations occur twice as frequently as positive ones.

Except for the parameter of UTILITY, a discussion of which will follow at the end of this section devoted to SPECIFIC-ARGUMENT-CONTENT, the other parameters appear relatively infrequently. However, this does not mean that a discussion of them can be omitted altogether. For example, the parameter of COHERENCE, which specifies the logical integrity of the book, occurs only three times in the PSYCH corpus and as many as 14 times in the LING. The fact that it appears in as many as ten cases out of fourteen in negative evaluations clearly indicates the value of this parameter in the field of linguistics and its marginality in the evaluation of psychology books.

The parameter of METHOD does not provide too many examples for in-depth analysis: it appears in both corpora with a similar frequency, i.e., 15 in the LING and 18 in the PSYCH. The vast majority of evaluations are positive, although their contribution to the total number of evaluations for each corpus somewhat varies. In the LING one, they represent a total od 1.3% of all evaluations and in the PSYCH, 1.4%, which is not a statistically significant difference.

BIAS is among the least represented parameters in both corpora, with seven hits in the PSYCH corpus and only four negative ones in the LING. Interestingly, BIAS has also received positive evaluations in the PSYCH corpus, highlighting the balanced nature of the claims made in the reviewed book. For linguistics, BIAS expressed in the book reviews remains a negative feature representing the one-sidedness of argumentation.

Equally low are the figures for the parameter of TERMINOLOGY, which has been found in 5 cases in each of the corpora, which amounts to 0.6% of all evaluations. Remarks on TERMINOLOGY do not appear to be part of some pre-conceived scheme for book review writing and seem to be merely the product of a sudden reaction to the accuracy or gross inaccuracy of TERMINOLOGY.

Finally, the parameter of UTILITY, corresponding to the previously discussed APPLICABILITY, once again confirms the conclusions drawn when discussing general-content, namely that APPLICABILITY is a highly significant value in the field of psychology. While in most cases, the results of linguistic research are intended primarily for the field of linguistics itself and serve as a driving force for the development of various theories and concepts, a distinct feature of psychology, as evident from book reviews, is the translatability of research into practice. In the case of UTILITY, this parameter is mentioned in 22 evaluation segments, with as many as 20 instances where reviewers express a positive viewpoint, while only in two instances do they question the utility of research. These 22 evaluations constitute 1.5% of all evaluations within the PSYCH corpus. In stark contrast to these findings, there are only two positive evaluations within the LING corpus, which accounts for as little as 0.1% of all evaluations.

Another important parameter of evaluation IS STYLE. Comments evaluating this aspect account for 29.3% of all evaluations in the PSYCH corpus and 25.4% of all assessments in the LING one, with the majority being of a negative nature. In the case of the PSYCH corpus, the difference between positive and negative polarity is not significant, with only a 2.1% advantage in favour of negative assessments. In the case of the LING corpus, though, a substantial discrepancy can be observed, as negative evaluations (15.7%) are nearly twice as numerous as positive ones, with aligns with a certain stereotype suggesting that linguistics should be more sensitive to issues of linguistic correctness.

The category of STYLE as an EVALUATION-OBJECT consists of twelve parameters, of which CLARITY and ORGANIZATION are unquestionable leaders, yet not in the same order in the two corpora.

CLARITY is the object of evaluation in 83 segments in the LING corpus and in 66 in the PSYCH one, which represents 7.3% and 4.3% of the total of evaluations, respectively. While the number of positive evaluations is roughly the same for the two corpora, the issue of clarity is more frequently raised and questioned in linguistic book reviews, reaching the value of 4.2% contrasted with as little as 1.0% of such evaluations in the PSYCH corpus. This observation has been found to be a statistically significant difference. Once again, this difference demonstrates the issue of linguistic correctness in not irrelevant to linguists.

The parameter of ORGANIZATION finds its place in 83 reviews in the LING and 91 ones in the PSYCH. However, even if the total number of such evaluations remains similar, their distribution in each corpora is not uniform. In the PSYCH corpus, the total number of positive and negative evaluations is almost identical and amounts to 45 and 46 cases, respectively. Given the lower number of negative evaluations, the share of ORGANIZATION-related criticism in the PSYCH corpus is more substantial and reaches the value of 8.6%, which contrasts sharply with the share of positive evaluations of 2.5%. The proportion of praise and criticism observed in the LING diverges from the one found in the PSYCH, as positive evaluations represent 2.7%but negative ones are relatively less common than in the PSYCH at 5.2%. Generalizing these findings, it could be concluded that the issue of well-designed arrangement of content plays a greater role in the case of psychology book reviews.

A prominent parameter related to STYLE as an EVALUATION-OBJECT is READABILITY. As far as the LING corpus is concerned, this parameter appears in 4.1% of all evaluations. For the PSYCH, its overall share is slightly higher at 4.5%. The most significant feature of using this parameter is the very dissimilar distribution of positive and negative evaluations. While in the case of the LING corpus, the share of critical remarks exceeds positive remarks, in the case of the PSYCH, one is confronted almost exclusively with positive evaluations of the readability of the book under review (65 positive assessments and five negative ones). In this respect, the reviews included in the LING show a much higher degree of criticism, which may be related, yet again, to the greater sensitivity to language on the part of the linguists, if not to the higher degree of abstractness of the theories presented in linguistics and more technical description of linguistic mechanisms. The latter explanation, however, does not find support in the conceptually similar parameter of DIFFICULTY, as for both the LING and PSYCH, there were only about six evaluations involving DIFFICULTY with an unskewed distribution in terms of polarity.

CONCISENESS is among a few parameters whose contribution in the two corpora exceeds 2% of all evaluations. The value is higher for the PSYCH, as evaluations involving CONCISENESS represent 3.4% of all evaluations. The index is lower for the LING corpus at the value of 2.2%. Again, as with the previously mentioned parameters of STYLE, linguistics book reviewers are more critical than positive in their assessment of CONCISENESS. Reviewers tend to focus on verbosity or, on the contrary, unsuccessful attempts to condense voluminous material. By contrast, the PSYCH reviewers praise authors for their ability to write non-voluminous yet informatively sufficient texts.

CONSISTENCY as a parameter denoting uniformity in terms of STYLE belongs to the group of parameters with a very low frequency in the corpora. The frequency is higher for the PSYCH corpus, and this parameter is present in 1.9% of all evaluations, of which 1.5% are negative ones. Reviewers in the LING corpus express remarkably little interest in this parameter, which is evident in the fact that is appears in only five evaluations of both polarities. One possible reason for this situation may lie in the prevalence of multi-authored psychology books under review. The expectation of consistency of style in this type of publication is, therefore, mainly evident in the PSYCH corpus.

No significant difference was observed between the two corpora with regard to the parameter of PRECISION. When this evaluation concerning this parameter appears, it is invariably used in positive evaluations, 14 in the LING and 9 in the PSYCH. However, the share of this parameter in the total evaluations does not exceed 1% and, as such, cannot form the basis for any claims about differences in the creation of book reviews.

In this comparative analysis, the parameters of authoritative style, linguistic errors, humor and translation-by-a-third party can also be omitted due to their very low level of occurrence in both corpora. Their combined contribution to the total of evaluations is 1.2% in the PSYCH and 1.1% in the LING.

On the other hand, it is impossible to ignore a parameter that plays a special role in the PSYCH corpus, namely, the parameter of ATTRACTIVENESS, denoting an engaging writing style that captivates the reader. Phrases such as “enjoyable style”, “enjoyable read”, “engaging prose”, or “a pleasure to read” appear in as many as 25 positive assessments in the psychology book reviews. In the case of linguistics, the number is considerably lower, breaking down into nine positive evaluations and four negative ones. Undoubtedly, attractiveness can, therefore, be regarded as a parameter characteristic of psychology book reviews, which values not only the aforementioned readability, usually assessed positively, but also expects that reading a book, apart from its undoubted cognitive worth, should also contribute to the reader’s well-being. It also seems that the tone of the positive evaluations in the LING is somewhat subdued, as phrases such as “manages to avoid a dry style” or “manages to give a flavor” can be found alongside phrases such as “enjoyable read” or “enjoyable compilation”.

The third EVALUTION-OBJECT distinguished is READERSHIP, understood as relevance to different groups of readers and purposes of the author. Three minor parameters have been identified for this EVALUATION-OBJECT: DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT, PURPOSE-RELEVANT and READERSHIP-RELEVANT, as defined in Chapter Six. It is clear that the positive and negative nature of the evaluation is partly due to the assessment of the author's compatibility with the type of reader and partly due to the reviewer's attempt to determine appropriate readership.

In general, the significance of READERSHIP as an EVALUATION-OBJECT in the overall evaluation picture cannot be overlooked. This is primarily attributable to the total number of evaluations, which in the case of the LING is 192 and in the case of the PSYCH is 165. Translating these figures into the share of readership in the total of evaluative segments, it can be seen that these figures amount to 11.7% and 10.9% for the LING and the PSYCH, respectively, a difference of 0.8% not found statistically significant. What is statistically significant is the difference between positive and negative evaluations. The former are more than three times as frequent in the PSYCH and as much as more than five times as frequent in the LING. These figures suggest that a certain incompatibility between the assumed readership and the reviewer's assessment of the appropriateness of the book can be expected in reviews of psychology books. Both the PSYCH and the LING had the highest number of positive evaluations of READERSHIP-RELEVANCE, with positive evaluations in the LING being twice as numerous as in the PSYCH. In contrast, evaluations referring to the parameter of DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT, the vast majority of which were positive, are more typical of the PSYCH. Finally, the results obtained from the purpose-relevance analysis are very similar, with this parameter being referred to the least frequently in both corpora. The above discussion allows the following conclusions: the importance of readership appears to be greater within linguistics than psychology. This is especially noticeable when considering how relevant the content is to a broad audience, encompassing people with a general interest in the topic addressed in the book.

The next EVALUATION-OBJECT worth considering is TEXT, which has been defined as "the medium through which the content is communicated" (p. 223). As such, it includes the whole written material as well as graphical representations of data, which leads to a long list of possible parameters of evaluation. The parameter of TEXT finds its place in 147 evaluations in the LING and 124 ones in the PSYCH corpus, which represent 11.3% and 9.6% of all evaluations, respectively. In both cases, the prevailing polarity of evaluations is positive, yet the share of negative evaluations in the PSYCH is relatively higher than in the LING. Of 17 parameters identified for TEXT, only a few reach the value of 1% as their share in the total number of evaluations. It is crucial to acknowledge, however, that parameters considered typical in one corpus may not hold the same status in the other. A good illustration of this situation is the parameter of EXTENT, referring to the volume of the text. It represents almost 2& of all evaluations in the LING corpus, while its presence in the PSYCH is limited to only 3 cases. By contrast, the parameter of DIAGRAMS is present in more than 20 evaluations in the PSYCH corpus, while evaluations in the LING only refer to this parameter in 5 cases. The same is true for the frequency of evaluations using the parameters of AUXILIARY DATA and ADDITIONAL READINGS, which seem to be typical of the PSYCH corpus rather than the LING. Generally, it is possible to conclude that certain textual elements are regarded as conventional in the disciplines discussed here. On the other hand, it cannot be ignored that certain textual parameters ae common to both fields. Certainly, EXAMPLES, REFERENCES, and RESOURCES belong to this group; all three are relatively frequently used in constructing evaluations. For example, the contribution of the parameter of REFERENCES in both LING and PSYCH exceeds the level of 2%, and their distribution due to polarity is similar with an apparent domination of positive assessments. The results for EXAMPLES are similar, with slightly more evaluations for the LING. The third parameter mentioned, namely, RESOURCES, whose share approaches to the 1% level, has a slightly higher representation in the PSYCH.

The above discussion implies that distinct textual parameters bear discipline-specific significance, potentially reflecting differing concepts of the "prototypical" scientific text within each of these two disciplines.

In the case of AUTHOR as an EVALUATION-OBJECT, interesting differences were observed between the two corpora. Firstly, even if considering the relatively low frequency of evaluations related to this parameter in both corpora, it is important to emphasize the greater share of this category in the total evaluations in the PSYCH, irrespective of their polarities. AUTHOR is referred to in 4.1% of all evaluations in the PSYCH corpus and only 2.9% in the LING one. In both corpora, positive comments outnumber acts of criticism, yet the number of negative assessments is higher in the PSYCH database.

The most significant difference between the two corpora is related to the use of the parameter of REPUTATION, which in the PSYCH corpus is three times as common as in the LING. By contrast, the LING reviewers more often resort to the parameter of KNOWLEDGE and EXPERIENCE-AND-REPUTATION of the author and very rarely question the author's expertise. Therefore, it seems that reviewers in the field of psychology consider the role of the authors, particularly their standing within the discipline, to be a notably important factor.

The parameter of PRODUCTION-STANDARDS is poorly represented in the two corpora, with the total share of evaluations reaching the values of 4.5% in the LING and 3.3% in the PSYCH.

In terms of the proportional distribution, reviews in both corpora carry a negative tone observable in 25 negative evaluations in the LING and 13 ones in the PSYCH. Positive remarks are clearly less frequent: in the LING by a factor of 8 and in the PSYCH by a factor of 3.

As could be expected on the basis of the analysis of STYLE and TEXT, the LING reviewers pay more attention to issues of linguistic correctness (typography) and layout as well as editing, usually in the form of criticism, although in both corpora editing has also been praised on numerous occasions.

Interesting differences between evaluations in the two corpora concern the prize of a publication, which the PSYCH reviewers tend to consider exorbitant, and its physical quality. This suggests an underlying anticipation of practicality and applicability of the evaluated publication, which extends also the physical attributes, such as the apt size for a textbook.

The last EVALUATION-OBJECT in the annotation scheme, GENERAL-TYPE, achieves results similar to those observed for production-standards, i.e., oscillating around 4%. However, it differs from the previous category in the unambiguously positive tone of the evaluations. Interestingly, the PSYCH corpus contains almost 20 more such evaluations, which translates into a difference of 1.1%. As noted before, the textual realizations of these evaluations should be classified as APPRECIATION in the sense of Martin & White (2000). Given the three major subtypes of APPRECIATION, the LING tends to resort to the "reaction type" as INSPIRING, IMPRESSIVE, and, to a lesser degree, their "value" as in IMPORTANCE. However, these evaluations are not unique to the LING since it is also in the PSYCH corpus that we can observe "reaction type" assessments such as "enjoyable", "quasi-intellectual", "interesting", and "important". It should be noted that these parameters are used with a different frequency in the two corpora.
The most common in the LING are IMPRESSIVE, INSPIRING and IMPORTANT. In the PSYCH, on the other hand, these are IMPRESSIVE, VALUABLE, INTERESTING, IMPORTANT and TERRIFIC. Furthermore, what seems to be a unique feature of the PSYCH corpus is the fact that reviewers introduce a kind of personal tone when they express APPRECIATION, often within a sentence containing the first-person singular pronoun. For example:

> I appreciated the chapters on self-help resources.
> In conclusion, I highly recommend Oyer's book.

Another striking feature of the PSYCH reviews would be the stress given to the parameter of ENJOYABLE (seven cases vs. one case in the LING), which again tends to imply that a well-written psychology book should be a source of enjoyment and intellectual pleasure.

9.3. Research questions

It has been hypothesized in Section 6.4 that given the close connection between the two disciplines, categorized as “soft sciences”, and observable variations in their research objects and scope, there may exist differences in the way reviewers in both disciplines prioritize particular parameters of evaluation over others and use distinct structural and rhetorical means of assessment the same evaluation objects. This hypothesis led to the formulation of five research questions, which guided the present study.

The overarching question that this thesis attempted to answer was whether there are differences in the way book reviews are formulated in disciplines such as linguistics and psychology. On the basis of the above discussion, which concentrated on pinpointing major differences between the LING and the PSYCH corpora, this overarching research question should receive a positive answer: yes, there do exist differences between the reviews of linguistics and psychology book reviews. However, they key to understanding the main differences in evaluation between linguistics and psychology book reviews lies in the answers to the subsidiary questions asked in the same section, which are addressed in what follows.

The first of the subordinate questions took the following form:

- Are there disciplinary differences in the frequency and distribution of positive (praise) and negative (criticism) acts in book reviews?

The answer to this question is definitely positive. Yes, there have been identified marked differences in both the frequency and the distribution of evaluative acts of either polarity. While the total number of positive evaluations is very similar in the two corpora, negative evaluations in the PSYCH corpus are definitely rarer than in the LING one, which implies that in the discipline of psychology, reviewers tend towards consensus rather than conflict.

This quantitative difference on the most general level of POSITIVE/NEGATIVE-EVALUATION-TYPE entails a number of consequences that can be observed at the level of the individual syntactic types in which these evaluations have been enacted. However, it is essential to clarify that the statement above should not be interpreted in terms of a simple mapping of the distribution of both polarities to lower levels, such as SIMPLE-TYPE or CHAINED-TYPE, or even to POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE-TYPE, since, as observed, the distribution of polarities for each type mentioned is unique. Nevertheless, the lower frequency of negative polarity is partly reflected at the lower levels but not as a simple replication of the overall pattern.

The case of POSITIVE-NEGATIVE-OR-NEGATIVE-POSITIVE-TYPE, in which theoretically the basic patterns of POSITIVE-BUT-NEGATIVE and NEGATIVE-BUT-POSITIVE should be realized with an identical number of evaluations of both polarities, can serve as a good example of such a unique distribution of positive and negative evaluations. In fact, in the case of this pattern in the LING, the number of positive evaluations outnumbers the negative ones, not so much reflecting the overall preponderance of positive remarks but rather serving the function of mitigating the negative overtones of criticism. By contrast, in the case of the PSYCH corpus, the differences between the number of evaluative segments of both polarities are no longer so pronounced.

Another example of the differences in the distribution of positive and negative evaluations is their distribution for the three simple-type subtypes. In this case, an even distribution of evaluations can hardly be found, as for the negative-plus-reason pattern, the number of negative evaluations rises sharply, which is particularly evident in the collected psychology book reviews.

The difference in the distribution of positive and negative evaluations is most clearly visible in relation to the individual evaluation-objects, which will be addressed in the answer to the third research question.

The second research question formulated in Chapter Six concerned disciplinary differences in the structural realizations of evaluative acts. To this question, too, the answer must be positive.

As shown in the analyses conducted in Chapters Seven and Eight, evaluations in both corpora are realized through the same patterns called EVALUATION-TYPES in this thesis. Three main types were distinguished due to the polarity of evaluations and a number of sub-types that took into account the presence of the evaluative segment only, its co-occurrence with the REASON element and its co-occurrence with the OTHER element. Another parameter included in this analysis concerned the occurrence of SIMPLE evaluations and so-called CHAINED evaluations, which comprised sequences of evaluative acts of the same polarity at the level of phrase and of clause. This multitude of proposed evaluation-types has proven to be effective for demonstrating differences in the structural realization of evaluations in the two corpora.

Figure 117 presents the distribution of all EVALUATION-TYPES in the two corpora. While the simple-type remains the most common in the two corpora under discussion, it is immediately clear that the pattern POSITIVE-/NEGATIVE-PLUS REASON stands out as particularly common in the PSYCH corpus. An equally high score for the PSYCH corpus can be observed for the POSITIVE-PLUS-OTHER. The third major difference concerns chained-negative-type, in which in spite of the lower total number of negative evaluations, the negative polarity is more common in the PSYCH. These two findings indicate that reviewers in the discipline of psychology, to a greater extent than reviewers of linguistics books, find it necessary to justify their negative assessments or to group critical remarks in one place in the review text within the same syntactic unit. In so doing, they achieve a “local” effect rather than disperse them in different parts of the review.

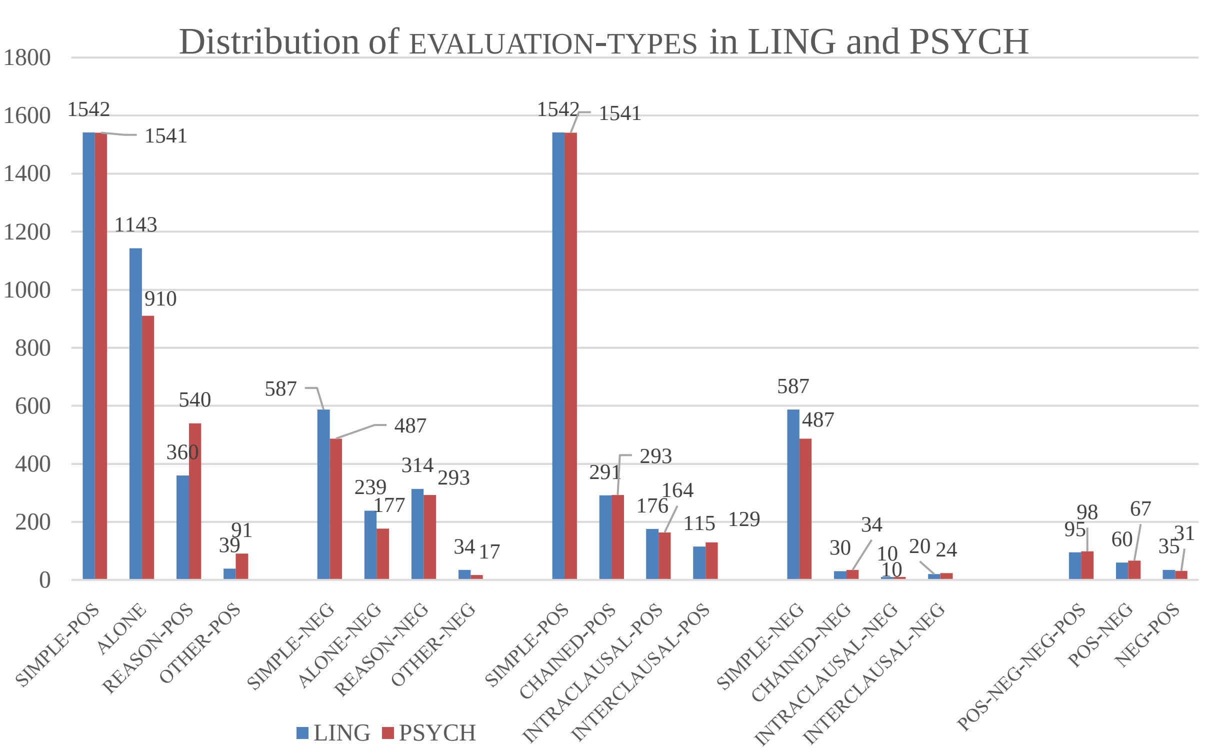


Fig. 117. The distribution of EVALUATION-TYPES in the LING and PSYCH corpora

The third auxiliary research question concerned the objects of evaluation and, more specifically, **the question of whether reviews in linguistics and psychology addressed the same evaluation objects**. What follows from the discussion above and the analyses in Chapters Seven and Eight is, as before, that the answer to this question is also affirmative. At the highest level of the annotation scheme, seven cardinal categories were distinguished, and all these categories became the reference point for the evaluations made in the two analyzed corpora, albeit to different extents. However, when the individual parameters included in the overarching categories are analyzed, it becomes apparent that in several cases, some of the parameters did not form the basis for positive or negative evaluations, nor did they form the basis for any evaluation at all. Regarding the LING corpus, the following have not been evaluated: TRANSLATION-BY-THE-THIRD-PARTY, WRONG-TITLE, SIZE, PHYSICAL-QUALITY, TERRIFIC and SURPRISING. For the PSYCH party, the list of ignored parameters includes INDEX, TRANSCRIPTS, SECTION-NUMBERS, SURPRISING, CHALLENGING and AMBITIOUS. All the parameters listed are of marginal importance for both corpora and are usually realized by not more than two segments of evaluation.

It should be emphasized that of paramount importance is the extent to which the EVALUATION-OBJECTS and their parameters are represented in the two corpora. The discussion above has revealed a number of differences between them, summarized in Table 236.

	LING	**PSYCH**
CONTENT	more emphasis laid on CONTENT	fewer negative evaluations of CONTENT
		more negative evaluations targeting the LOCAL-ARGUMENT-CONTENT
	more positive evaluations of CONTENT-QUALITY	more negative evaluations of CONTENT-QUALITy
	more evaluations of COVERAGE	
	more evaluations of APPROACH	APPROACH evaluated when positive
	more emphasis laid on NOVELTY	
	more emphasis laid ON SIGNIFICANCE-FOR-THE-DISCIPLINE	
		no negative evaluations of CURRENCY
		strong emphasis on APPLICABILITY
		more positive evaluations of LOCAL-CONTENT-VALUE
	more positive assessments of DESCRIPTIVE ARGUMENTS	more negative assessments OF DESCRIPTIVE ARGUMENTS
		more negative evaluations of MISSING-CONTENT
		more negative evaluations of INSIGHT
	more negative evaluations of SCOPE	
		strong emphasis on UTILITY
STYLE	more negative evaluations of STYLE	
	more emphasis laid on CLARITY	
	more negative evaluations of CLARITY	
		more emphasis laid on ORGANIZATION
		READABILITY evaluated almost always positively
	more critical than positive evaluations of CONCISENESS	CONCISENESS evaluated almost always positively
		more emphasis on CONSISTENCY
		more emphasis laid on ATTRACTIVENESS, evaluated positively
READERSHIP	more emphasis laid on READERSHIP	

	more positive evaluations than in the PSYCH	more positive evaluations of DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT
TEXT	more emphasis on EXTENT	more emphasis on DIAGRAMS
AUTHOR		more evaluations of AUTHOR more emphasis laid on REPUTATION
PUBLISHING	more emphasis on linguistic correctness	
GENERAL		more evaluations more emphasis on ENJOYABLE

Table 236. The EVALUATION-OBJECTS preferences in the two corpora

In conclusion, on the basis of the data presented above, one cannot but conclude that the book reviews obtained in the two corpora indicate the existence of differences within the review genre represented in the LING and the PSYCH corpora. As expected, these differences are not drastic, but they are nevertheless pronounced enough to be described as disciplinary differences.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

This dissertation attempts to describe and analyze a small fragment of written academic discourse delineated through one of the review genres, namely, the book review. The fragmentary nature of this investigation is further underscored by the fact that the analysis covered book reviews in only two disciplines: linguistics and psychology. Some would call it rather a modest task; others may even call it unambitious, considering the fact that many previous analyses of book reviews have covered several disciplines, ranging from two or three to as many as ten. However, for a smooth and seemingly uncomplicated task as the one taken in this work, it soon became clear that the analysis had taken shape and proportions that came as a surprise even to the present author. Several factors could be listed as responsible for this situation.

First, as indicated in Chapter Six (see Section 6.2.2.), psychology book reviews have received virtually no analysis unless one counts the eleven-page paper by Nicolaisen (2002) and the ten-page analysis by Junqueira & Cortes (2014), which focuses on aspects of the rhetorical organizations of reviews and the role of gender in the structure of the book review. Neither of these works considered the relationship between the type of evaluation and its object. Nor did they address the question of potential relationship between the polarity of evaluations and their structural implementation. It should be emphasized that these factors are included in the present dissertation.

Second, few works on book reviews were based on such rich and diverse research material as that analyzed in this thesis. For example, Hyland (2000) included in his study 160 reviews representing as many as eight disciplines, Bal-Gezegin (2015) analyzed 150 reviews from 10 disciplines, and Junqueira & Cortes (2014) focused on 180 reviews from three research areas. It is, thus, apparent that the individual disciplines were represented by a relatively unrepresentative sample ranging from 16 to 60 reviews per discipline. Exceptions include the research conducted by Römer (2010), who dealt with 1,500 linguistics book reviews and the diachronic research by Groom (2004), who focused on 4702 reviews from history and literary criticism. It should be remembered, however, that Römer's work was limited to the identification of recurrent central phraseological items and Groom's analysis to selected phraseological constructions, targets easily achieved with concordancers. By contrast, the present analysis was based on two corpora of 120 book reviews each, the reviews having been derived from 18 academic journals published between 2008 – 2018. In the author's opinion, the material collected in this way guaranteed a multiplicity of review styles, on the one hand, often resulting from the specificity of an academic journal, and temporal integrity on the other, resulting from the fact that the time span covered only a period of 10 years.

Third, the system of describing research material for the two corpora proposed in this work, presented in the so-called annotation scheme, included a large number of description parameters relating to EVALUTION-TYPE and EVALUATION-OBJECT. EVALUATION-TYPE ultimately consisted of 16 parameters relating to the positive and negative polarities of evaluations. The evaluation-objects, on the other hand, consisted of 7 main categories, which, in turn, were broken down into 78 individual parameters. Given that each of these 78 parameters could potentially occur in each of the 16 types of evaluation, the description thus covered more than 1,200 theoretically possible combinations for each corpus. As a result, it became extremely precise, while also extensive, thorough, and, at times, overwhelming.

The fourth reason why the shape and volume of this dissertation have taken the author herself by surprise follows from some initial doubts as to whether an analysis of book reviews in two disciplines that are separated by only a thin line (and often cross this line) would show a striking similarity in most cases analyzed. Naturally, from the point of view of an unbiased researcher, the demonstration of similarity should be of as much value as the demonstration of difference. Such results, however, would not make it possible to give an answer to the question of whether linguistics and psychology are or are not two closely related areas of knowledge. However, having obtained the results presented at length in the previous chapters, it must be firmly stated that the picture of values prevailing in linguistics and psychology is different. In other words, in light of the gathered evidence from the book reviews in the two disciplines, we can speak of the existence of disciplinary variation between linguistics and psychology.

Disciplinary differences in book reviews have been shown repeatedly in previous studies. For example, Bal-Gezegin (2015), who analyzed book reviews in ten disciplines, identified recurring patterns in certain disciplines such as a low number of negative evaluations in literature, educational sciences, and sociology. A similar, yet not identical conclusions, can be found in Hyland (2000), whose comparison of the humanities and soft sciences with hard sciences has demonstrated that the latter are even less critical than the former. These, as well as many other findings related to the distribution of praise and criticism, have led Hyland (2000:62) to the following conclusions, in which he stresses the role of criticism as a marker of disciplinary differences:

> Reviewers and their reviews are shaped by the expectation and practices of their disciplines, and part of a reviewer's competence lies in the appropriate expression of criticism, attending to disciplinary practices which embody values of collegial respect and scholastic fairness. In these ways the book review noy only

> draws on readers' familiarity with the research networks and disciplinary knowledge of the field, but also on an interpretative framework which includes an understanding of appropriate social interactions.

The questions that the above statement raises for this analysis concerns precisely expectations and practices within linguistics and psychology and the strategies for expressing criticism. Thus, if we delineate disciplinary differences by Hyland's (2000) proposed index of management of criticism, in the case of the corpora analyzed here, it can be concluded that the strategy of psychology book reviews is based on several measures:

(1) refraining from criticism, which is reflected in the lower number of evaluations;
(2) the tendency not to question the value of the book as a whole, but rather to question the value of the more local elements, chapters, and individual arguments;
(3) grouping negative evaluations as doublets only to mitigate the strength of criticism with a positive comment;
(4) expressing negative comments as personal opinions and not categorical statements.

While not denying the validity of Hyland's proposal to measure disciplinary differences by way of using negative evaluations, the role of *all* evaluations, regardless of their polarity cannot be ignored. Thus, Hyland's view should be treated with caution. It is because avoiding negative assessments or diminishing their impact in the ways listed above is not *the only* factor defining the uniqueness of a discipline measured in the genre of a book review. Instead, taking a bird's eye view of the disciplinary identity, it may be argued that shaping the identity may also involve recognizing positive evaluations and their management as a conscious tactic for handling criticism. Such a view does not undermine Hyland's thesis but, on the contrary, can be seen as a form of extension of it. In other words, the management of criticism as well as the management of praise are two sides of the coin. If we agree with the thesis that the increased number of positive evaluations is, in a sense, a tactic employed to undermine face-threatening effects brought about by negative evaluations in reviews, then, from this perspective, psychology appears to be a discipline functioning in a slightly different interpretative paradigm, which Hyland (2000) refers to in the above quotation.

Elsewhere, Hyland (2007:99) offers another important perspective on disciplinary practices in which he argues that natural scientists "tend to see their goal as producing public knowledge able to withstand the rigors of falsifiability", while the soft-knowledge domains produces discourses which often recast knowledge as sympathetic understanding, promoting tolerance in readers through an ethical rather than cognitive progression".

In this context, it is, therefore, worth taking a look at the differences identified in the analysis of the two corpora, which can be measured either in terms of a higher number of positive evaluations or a lower number of negative evaluations. For we are dealing with only two corpora representing only two disciplines and, in the absence of a reliable *tertium comparationis*, it remains to resort to statistical tools, which is exactly what this analysis has offered. Focusing only on statistically significant differences, it can be concluded that reviewers of linguistics books place more emphasis on evaluating the content of the book as a whole tan on its minor elements such as, for example, chapters. This strategy sharply contrasts with the practices discovered in psychology. The distribution of GENERAL-CONTENT and LOCAL-CONTENT evaluations raises the questions of whether this is a deliberate tactic used by linguistics book reviewers to avoid increasing the number of negative assessments at a local level, where such criticism is obviously easier to target. And such questions will probably have to remain unanswered for the time being, at least until comparably sized research is undertaken in other disciplines.

Thus, limiting this discussion to other differences that appear to be disciplinary in nature and involve a greater number of evaluative acts or a greater number of positive acts in general, at least a few should be highlighted:

(1) in spite of a somewhat lesser focus on CONTENT, some of the parameters constituting content have reached a greater number of evaluations, including positive evaluations in the PSYCH than in the LING: APPLICABILITY and UTILITY, indicating a pragmatic approach to the results of research in psychology;

(2) STYLE as an EVALUATION-OBJECT has been evaluated more frequently in the PSYCH, with most evaluations being positive, in contrast to the LING corpus;

(3) for READERSHIP as an EVALUATION-OBJECT, there was a preponderance of positive evaluations of the parameter of DISCIPLINE-RELEVANT in the PSYCH, which contrasts with the top rank of READERSHIP-RELEVANCE;

(4) in the LING, TEXT was clearly a more frequent object of evaluation;

(5) in the PSYCH, the focus on REPUTATION of the author as opposed to EXPERIENCE, which comes to the fore in the LING, indicates the existence of a different "interpretative framework", using Hyland's words, which includes an understanding of appropriate social interactions in the two disciplines.

The above examples were intended to illustrate the point made earlier and in no case do they exhaust all possibilities of indicating other differences between the two corpora.

In this section summarizing the results of the analysis, it is also worth examining the degree of concordance between them and those reported in studies within other academic disciplines.

First, as already noted above, the results obtained indicate the much greater emphasis that reviewers in both disciplines place on the evaluation of the content. The results obtained for the LING and for the PSYCH averaged around 62%, being slightly higher for the PSYCH (64.6%) than the LING (59.9%). It is, however, below that obtained by Hyland (2000) for the combined category of soft sciences (philosophy, sociology, applied linguistics and marketing) amounting to 74.6%. The results achieved are closer to those in hard sciences, where CONTENT score reached 59.9%.

The second more frequent object of evaluation in Hyland's (2000) study was 'Audience', which in the annotation scheme used here corresponds to READERSHIP. The results obtained here differ from those of Hyland (2000), both in terms of the place of this parameter occupies in the two rankings and the percentages. In the present analysis, READERSHIP is only ranked third and is preceded by STYLE. As in the previous case, READERSHIP differs in terms of the percentage distribution of Hyland's 'Audience'. Hyland (2000) found that this category accounts for 13% for the hard sciences and 7.6% for the soft sciences, which this time places the LING (5.85%) and especially the PSYCH corpus (6.25%) closer to the soft sciences.

Hyland's (2000) results indicate that TEXT is ranked third for which the percentage index for hard sciences and soft sciences were 10.7% and 3.1% respectively. These results differ from those obtained in this study. Firstly, text ranks only fourth in this respect and achieves 5.7% for the LING corpus and 5.35% for the PSYCH one. It is, therefore, once again closer to soft sciences.

The second most common object of evaluation is this study, which is STYLE, is only ranked fourth by Hyland (2000), where it scores 7.9% (hard sciences) and 10.5% (soft sciences). In the present study, the percentage indices are slightly higher for the LING (12.8%) and especially for the PSYCH (16.3%), which clearly indicates the soft science nature of the two disciplines.

The two studies do not differ in terms of ranking the AUTHOR as an object of evaluation, as it ranks fifth. Nevertheless, a difference in percentage share is evident. While the respective indices for the hard sciences and the soft sciences are 4.4% and 3.2%, respectively, the same indices for the LING and for the PSYCH corpora are almost halved at 1.45% and 2.4%, respectively. These results testify to the soft science character of linguistics and psychology.

Finally, at least in Hyland's (2000) study, the category of PUBLISHING is represented by 4.1% of evaluations in the hard fields and as little as 0.9% in the soft fields. The results obtained for the LING and the PSYCH are about halfway between the soft-hard divide, as the former achieved 2.3% and the latter 1.8%.

The last category, GENERAL-TYPE, was absent from Hyland's parameters.

Drawing a very general comparison between the two studies, it should be stated that the present study confirms the soft-science-like status of linguistics and psychology.

Without going into the details of Bal-Gezegin's (2015) examination of book reviews, which involved the analysis of 150 reviews written between 1990-2015 and spanning ten different field, it can be observed that the outcomes observed in the present research, specifically in the fields of linguistics, notably diverge from Bal-Gezegin's (2015) findings. This disparity can be, in part, attributed to her approach, which involved compiling a corpus of only 15 reviews per discipline coming from as many as 12 journals and employing slightly different analytical criteria.

Focusing on the general categories distinguished by Bal-Gezegin (2015), it should be noted that the results obtained differ only partly resemble Hyland's (2000) results and those presented in this thesis. Thus, for example, the distribution percentage for CONTENT was found to be at the level of 39.53%, much lower than in either of the studies mentioned here.

The index for TEXT was similar to that observed by Hyland (2000). Similarly, the score obtained for STYLE (4.26%) falls between Hyland's results and the ones observed in this study. In contrast, an unusually high index (25.19%) was recorded by Bal-Gezegin for AUTHOR, which is many times higher than the results gathered in this study and Hyland's analysis.

The above comparison of the three analyses of academic book reviews show significant differences and similarities with regard to the different categories of evaluation. On the one hand, there are many parallels between the present study and Hyland's analysis. The differences, on the other hand, become more pronounced when Bal-Gezegin's work (2015) is included in this comparison. This situation may be due to various reasons, although they are mainly methodological. A sample of 15 reviews drawn from 12 journals can hardly be considered representative (see Sinclair 2004b). Hyland's (2000) results based on a corpus of 30 book reviews may be regarded more representative, although he does not provide data on the journals in which they were published, nor does he give information on the time span in which the book reviews were produced. I am convinced that much more comprehensive and reliable results have been offered in the present thesis, based on a corpus satisfying Sinclairian methodological recommendations concerning the nature of the text, the domain and language of the reviews, the temporal context, and, last but not least, the very size of the corpora. Naturally, more data does not necessarily mean better data, but I believe that the less random data is, the better the data it is.

An attractive and important thread that could be taken up in these Concluding Remarks might involve the identification of the potential avenues for future research, such as investigating more extensive corpora. While this vision is undoubtedly attractive, it seems it could be far from being realized. This steers the final stages of the current discussion towards the limitations of the present study and recommendation for future investigations.

These two aspects are closely related. In Section 6.3, dedicated to the research material analysed in this thesis, I acknowledged that the final composition of the corpora deviated slightly from the shape I had initially planned for them. Instead of a shorter and more recent time span for the originally planned corpus of 20 reviews drawn from 10 journals and covering a five-year span, I had to come to terms with the idea that not all journal would be represented to the same extent and the time span would expand to 10 years. As I tried to explain, this state of affairs is linked to a dramatic change in the market for scientific publications triggered mainly by political decisions that are not fully justified by studies on the circulation and impact of scientific publications. As a result, these decisions have proved to counteract disciplinary practices.

In Section 6.3 I outlined the workings of this mechanism: since politically ‘more valuable’ articles are published in journals, the number of book publications has declined, which, in turn, has contributed to the collapse in the market for publishing book reviews. The final nail in the coffin has been the denial of any measurable value to book reviews, with the exception of book review articles. This, in turn, has resulted in a decline in interest in producing such reviews. It is now clear that what had initially been targeted at popularizing shorter, more concise, and more readable academic publications, i.e., the research articles, was, in fact, the thin edge of the wedge that pushed the genre of academic book to the sidelines of the academic centre.

Unfortunately, what I have presented above as a kind of limitation of the present study is an obstacle that neither I nor future researchers can overcome. The number of book reviews is shrinking just as the number of journals, especially the more prestigious ones, still willing to publish book reviews, is shrinking, too. Moreover, book reviews appear to have been relegated to non-mainstream journals, thus, not getting full academic attention. Sadly, they seem to have ceased to be regarded as a basis or valuable anchor for scientific discussion. Consequently, when a genre dies out, it is very difficult to suggest new directions for further research.

However, life is a cycle, and whatever now appears to be on the verge of extinction may soon revive or transform into something new. The above gloomy remarks on the estrangement of the book review genre should, therefore, not blind us to the possibility of further investigation into it. One of these is certainly the “book-review-of-the-future”, the term with which I would like to refer to Pérez-Llantada (2013), who analyzes the genre of the research article in an online environment and finds it to be a “stabilized-for-no or stabilized-enough” site for social interaction. We might expect that the academic books and manuscripts, together with the book review, will transition into the digital environment and find their place there.

Another possibility is to look at book reviews in a diachronic perspective, as Shaw (2004, 2009) has already attempted by comparing reviews that are a century apart. Investigating writing practices diachronically could bring beneficial effects to the academic communities in general and individual academics in particular.

At the end of the day, it is difficult to overestimate the research opportunities, probably already perceived more as the past than the present, offered by corpora such as the one used in the current study. From among the dozen of parameters that could be analyzed, I have selected a few, leaving a number of other variables unmentioned. Among them are the gender of the author of the review, the gender of the author of the paper, the qualification of the reviewed book as a single-authored or multi-authored, the nationality of the reviewers, to mention only a few.

Another possible avenue of research is to study corpora larger than the one analyzed here, in order to see that the size and representativeness of the corpus has an impact on the results obtained.

Having presented the possibilities of book review research, I would like to focus on other limitations of this dissertation. By limitation I do not mean weak points of this work, but only indicate some lessons learnt at the stage of writing, which may prove useful to anyone undertaking the task of analyzing academic genres.

Given a second chance to write this dissertation, I would certainly consider using a program other than UAMCT. Undoubtedly, the strength of this program is its statistical module, which, in the vast majority of cases, relieves the user from the cumbersome use of other statistical software. On the other hand, the graphs generated by this program are practically useless due to their poo quality and incomplete description. This obstacle made me convert vast amounts of data into a different program, which was enormously time-consuming and came with a technical burden.

Secondly, having gained insight into how often certain parameters occur, particularly in the category of text, I would reduce them by grouping them within less numerous parameters as it proved impossible to draw any conclusions from the fact that a certain parameter was used once or twice only.

Finally, I would include the parameter of single-authored and multi-authored books as an important parameter allowing the measurement of evaluations on the level of GENERAL-CONTENT vs. LOCAL-CONTENT.

Summing up, a few comments on the implications of this study in order. These implications may be divided into two types. The first one is of the theoretical nature. The evaluation systems proposed in previous studies were limited to indicating the main evaluation criteria, ignoring the relationship between the syntactic type and its polarity and evaluation-object. In the present study, this type of relationship has been analyzed in depth. Secondly, it has been proposed to include the category of GENERAL, which, due to its generality, does not allow for a clear definition of EVALUATION-OBJECT.

The second and the final group of implications are of pedagogical nature. Although the genre of the book reviews is not an academic genre to which a significant amount of time is devoted in EAP or academic writing classes, the results of this analysis may prove useful in teaching the crafting of academic texts in linguistics and psychology.

Having reached the final stage of what has undoubtedly been a journey of great experience and learning, I can express my hope that the presented dissertation has shed some more light on the ways in which evaluation in book reviews functions in two seemingly similar yet ultimately different scientific disciplines. It is also my hope that this dissertation will help other researchers delve into the widths and depths of academic discourse and see how values and academia weave together and coalesce into a unique communicative identity.

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Summary

The presented doctoral dissertation, entitled *Evaluation in Academic Discourse: An Analysis of Academic Book Reviews in Linguistics and Psychology*, is a corpus-based study concerned with the phenomenon of evaluation identified in the realm of academic review genres, specifically book reviews. The thesis is made up with two main parts: theoretical, which comprises six chapters, and practical, which includes three chapters, with Introduction and Concluding Remarks coming at the beginning and at the end of the work, respectively. Each chapter is also completed with Concluding Remarks, which serve the purpose of summarizing what has been said to date and introducing another aspect of the discussion.

In Chapter One, the author deals with the usages of the words *value*, *values*, and *valuation*, as well as the very concept of *value* presented and discussed from the philosophical perspectives. What follows is the discussion of the concept of *good* in philosophy and the many questions surrounding it, all of which have been uppermost in philosophical thought across the centuries.

Chapter Two looks at different ways of expressing opinions and personal assessments in language and investigates how these meanings are linguistically realized and produced across written and spoken contexts. The first part of the chapter presents major strands of research on evaluation in academic discourse that comprises *stance*, *APPRAISAL theory*, *metadiscourse*, and *voice*. The author adheres to Thompson & Hunston's (2000) definition of *evaluation* and treats it as the overarching point of reference for discussing the value-laden meanings in language. Importantly, this chapter, as well as the whole work, views lexis and syntax as equal partners in the successful expression of evaluative meanings.

Chapter Three opens up a discussion on values in an academic setting. First, it presents the many definitions of *academic discourse* that serve as a springboard for further elaboration on values defining academia. The different interpretations of academic discourse enable the author to propose the view that the essence of academic discourse lies in searching for truth and knowledge. Academic discourse is, therefore, seen as the ultimate deliverer of science whose primary goal is to bring truth and knowledge about the world. From there, the chapter shifts to the defining qualities of science, which help dissect the relationship between academia and its values.

Chapter Four focuses on academic communication and, following Becher & Trowler (2001), sees communication as "the lifeblood of academia". Discussed at length is the trio of

important yet linguistically elusive concepts: *discourse*, *discourse community* and *genre*. The chapter also addresses both theoretical and practical intricacies associated with each one, for example, various faces and dimensions of discourse, the understanding of what discourse community has been taken to be and what communicative goal(s) it has, and, finally, different linguistic interpretations of the concept of *genre*. A vital contribution to the chapter is the discussion of typologies of academic genres, with closer attention given to the genre of the research article and the Ph.D. dissertation whose relevance to the work should not be overlooked.

Chapter Five looks in depth at the book review as a review genre. First, it briefly focuses on the other review genres, namely, the review article, the book review article, the book blurb and the review of literature in a Ph.D. dissertation. Second, the chapter presents a historical overview of the evolution of the book review genre, whose origins date back to as early as antiquity but whose proper status as an academic genre was formally acknowledged in the 1990s. What the turbulent evolution of the book review genre shows is that the review has gone through at least three different stages in its history. Originally opinion-free and purely descriptive in nature, the book review transformed into a highly opinionated and thus confrontational academic production capable of damaging reputations, and finally, unwillingly transitioning into a vastly unappreciated piece of academic writing.

Third, the chapter attends to the structure of the book review, originally proposed by Motta-Roth (1995) and re-visited by many other researchers ever since. Fourth, parameters of evaluation in book reviews are discussed together with the two frameworks for investigating evaluative meanings (Hyland, 2000; Shaw, 2009) that served as a vital point of reference in the present work. Finally, the chapter ends with presenting some of the reviewer guidelines used in journals that may affect the formulation of evaluative statements concerning the book under review.

Chapter Six, the last of the theoretical ones, presents the research objectives, materials collected for the study, and methods and tools used throughout. In the first part of the chapter, the author elaborates on the nature and status of the two disciplines under investigation, presenting how they have been classified over the centuries and how they are now categorized into the humanities and the social sciences, respectively. Of special importance is the discussion on the points of connection and areas of divergence between linguistics and psychology. Then, the chapter presents previous research on academic book reviews whose time span covers the last thirty years. In so doing, the author attempts to demonstrate that what is visibly missing in the previous research on the book review genre is a one-to-one analysis of evaluation in linguistics and psychology corpora only.

In the second part of the chapter, the author presents the main assumptions of the work, the research questions and the aims of the study, as well as the details of the materials used in the analysis (i.e. two sets of corpora, each of which consisting of 120 book reviews). Then, the methods and tools are presented, with particular attention given to the primary analytical tool, the UAMCT annotation scheme (O'Donnell, 2008) used in the work. Each of the parameters of the annotation scheme is described at length and illustrated with the aid of the auxiliary corpus obtained from the *System* journal.

Chapter Seven, the first of the analytical chapters in the work, presents a parametric analysis of linguistics book reviews. By going through the parameters of the annotation scheme, the author shows how evaluation has been expressed by linguistics reviewers in terms of EVALUATION-TYPE and EVALUATION-OBJECT. The chapter ends with Closing Remarks that summarize the results gathered and observations made at this stage of the analysis.

Chapter Eight, which constitutes the second part of the analysis of the two corpora, deals with a parametric analysis of the psychology book reviews. Similar to the previous chapter, this one presents and discusses the results of the qualitative and quantitative analysis performed on the corpus of psychology book reviews. The chapter is likewise concluded by Closing Remarks that point out the necessity of undertaking the comparative analysis of the two corpora.

In Chapter Nine, the final chapter of the work, the two corpora are compared and contrasted with the overall aim of identifying points where the results of the analysis overlap and where they visibly differ. This chapter is also concerned with answering the research questions formulated in the previous part of the work and pointing out preferences in both corpora.

The thesis is completed by Concluding Remarks, a list of references used throughout the work, a list of tables and figures presented in the work, and a summary in English and Polish.

Streszczenie

Nieniejsza rozprawa doktorska pt. „Evaluation in Academic Discourse: An Analysis of Academic Book Reviews in Linguistics and Psychology" to praca oparta na korpusie recenzji książek naukowych z dziedziny językoznawstwa i psychologii, której celem jest analiza językowych środków mechanizmu ewaluacji.

Praca składa się z dwóch części: teoretycznej, która obejmuje sześć rozdziałów i praktycznej, która obejmuje trzy rozdziały. Pracę rozpoczyna Wstęp, a kończą Uwagi Końcowe oraz streszczenia w języku angielskim i polskim. Każdy z rozdziałów kończy się krótkim podsumowaniem.

Rozdział pierwszy zajmuje się problematyką pojęć *wartość, wartości* oraz *wartościowanie* oraz konceptem *wartości* przedstawionym w ujęciu myśli filozoficznej. Ważną część rozdziału stanowi również omówienie pojęcia *dobra* („the concept of *good"*), który stanowi trzon rozważań filozoficznych ilekroć mowa o wartościach ważnych dla człowieka. Rozważania nad źródłem wartości nieuchronnie prowadzą do rozważań nad językowym sposobem ich wyrażania, dlatego też ostatnia sekcja rozdziału pierwszego jest wprowadzeniem do kolejnego.

Rozdział drugi omawia różne sposoby wyrażania opinii i osobistych ocen w języku oraz bada, w jaki sposób są one językowo realizowane i wytwarzane w kontekstach języka pisanego i mówionego. Pierwsza część rozdziału przedstawia główne nurty badań nad ewaluacją w dyskursie akademickim, które obejmują *stance*, teorię APPRAISAL, metadyskurs i głos (*voice*). Rozdział traktuje definicję ewaluacji Thompsona i Hunston (2000) jako nadrzędny punkt odniesienia do dyskusji nad znaczeniami wartości w języku. Co ważne, rozdział ten, podobnie jak cała praca, postrzega leksykę i składnię jako równorzędnych partnerów w skutecznym wyrażaniu znaczeń ewaluacyjnych.

Rozdział trzeci otwiera dyskusję na temat wartości w społeczności akademickiej. Najpierw omawia kilka różnych definicji dyskursu akademickiego, które służą jako punkt wyjścia do dalszego opracowania wartości definiujących społeczność akademicką. Różne interpretacje dyskursu akademickiego pozwalają autorce zaproponować pogląd, iż istotą dyskursu akademickiego jest poszukiwanie prawdy i wiedzy. Dyskurs akademicki jest zatem postrzegany jako ostateczne narzędzie nauki, którego głównym celem jest dostarczanie prawdy i wiedzy o świecie. W dalszej części, rozdział przechodzi do omówienia cech nauki, które pomagają przeanalizować związek między społecznością akademicką a jej wartościami.

Rozdział czwarty skupia się na komunikacji akademickiej i, podobnie jak Becher i Trowler (2001), postrzega komunikację jako "fundament społeczności akademickiej". W tym

rozdziale omówione zostały trzy ważne choć trudne do precyzyjnego uchwycenia pojęcia: „dyskurs", „społeczność dyskursu" oraz „gatunek". W rozdziale omówiono zarówno teoretyczną, jak i praktyczną złożoność tych pojęć, np. oblicza i wymiary dyskursu, definicję wspólnoty dyskursu i jej celów komunikacyjnych, a także trzy główne perspektywy językoznawcze badań nad gatunkiem. Istotną częścią rozdziału jest omówienie typologii gatunków akademickich, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem gatunku artykułu badawczego i rozprawy doktorskiej.

Rozdział piąty szczegółowo analizuje recenzję książki jako gatunku recenzyjnego. Najpierw krótko przedstawia pozostałe gatunki recenzyjne, a mianowicie artykuł recenzyjny, artykuł recenzyjny książki, notkę wydawniczą oraz recenzję literatury w rozprawie doktorskiej. Następnie, rozdział ten dokonuje historycznego przeglądu ewolucji gatunku recenzji książki, którego początki sięgają już starożytności, ale którego właściwy status jako gatunku akademickiego został formalnie uznany w latach 90. ubiegłego wieku. Burzliwa ewolucja gatunku recenzji książkowej pokazuje, iż recenzja przeszła przez co najmniej trzy różne etapy w swojej historii. Swych początków może szukać w obiektywnym streszczeniu, które miało charakter bardziej opisowy niż opiniujący. W kolejnym etapie, recenzja przekształciła się w mocno subiektywny i autorski opis książki, którego konfrontacyjny charakter mógł podważyć reputację autora książki. Na koniec, recenzja jaką znamy dziś wydaje się nie stanowić już zagrożenia dla autora czy recenzenta, a jej wartość akademicka jest niewielka.

W dalszej części rozdziału piątego omówiona została struktura recenzji, której badanie zapoczątkowała Motta-Roth (1995) i które od tego czasu zostało wielokrotnie badane przez innych autorów. Następnie omówiono parametry oceny w recenzjach książek oraz zaprezentowano dwa schematy ewaluacyjne (Hyland, 2000; Shaw, 2009), które posłużyły za pierwotny wzór schematu stworzonego na potrzeby tej rozprawy. Rozdział kończy się omówieniem przykładowych wytycznych dla recenzentów stosowanych w czasopismach, które mogą wpływać na formułowanie ewaluacji w recenzji.

Ostatni z rozdziałów teoretycznych, rozdział szósty, przedstawia cele badawcze, materiały i narzędzia zastosowane w części analitycznej niniejszej rozprawy. W pierwszej części rozdziału autorka omawia charakter i status dyscypliny językoznawstwo i psychologia, przedstawiając różne sposoby ich klasyfikacji na przestrzeni wieków oraz obecnie stosowaną klasyfikację, która zalicza językoznawstwo do nauk humanistycznych, a psychologię do nauk społecznych. Szczególne ważne w rozdziale jest omówienie podobieństw i różnic między dwoma dyscyplinami. W dalszej części rozdziału zostają przedstawione wcześniejsze badania nad recenzjami książek akademickich, które obejmują okres ostatnich trzech dekad. Poprzez prezentację stanu badań autorka stara się pokazać że to, czego wyraźnie brakuje w dotychczasowych badaniach nad gatunkiem recenzji książek, to analiza ewaluacji skoncentrowana na korpusach recenzji językoznawczych i psychologicznych.

W drugiej części rozdziału autorka przedstawia główne założenia pracy, pytania badawcze i cele analizy, a także szczegóły dotyczące materiałów wykorzystanych w badaniu (tj. dwa zestawy korpusów, z których każdy składa się ze 120 recenzji książek). Następnie przedstawiono metody i narzędzia, ze szczególnym uwzględnieniem głównego narzędzia analitycznego UAMCT (O'Donnell, 2008) wykorzystanego w pracy, który pozwolił na opracowanie własnego schematu anotacji. Każdy z parametrów schematu anotacji został wstępnie szczegółowo opisany i zilustrowany za pomocą korpusu pomocniczego uzyskanego z czasopisma „System".

Rozdział siódmy to pierwszy z rozdziałów analitycznych w pracy. Przedstawia analizę parametryczną recenzji książek językoznawczych. Omawiając parametry schematu anotacji, autorka pokazuje, w jaki sposób ocena została wyrażona przez recenzentów językoznawczych w kategoriach EVALUATION-TYPE i EVALUATION-OBJECT. Rozdział kończy się Uwagami Końcowymi, które podsumowują zebrane wyniki i obserwacje poczynione na tym etapie analizy.

Rozdział ósmy, stanowiący drugą część analizy obu korpusów, dotyczy analizy parametrycznej recenzji książek psychologicznych. Podobnie jak poprzedni rozdział, ten również przedstawia i omawia wyniki analizy jakościowej i ilościowej przeprowadzonej na korpusie recenzji książek psychologicznych. Rozdział kończą również Uwagi Końcowe, które wskazują na konieczność przeprowadzenia analizy porównawczej obu korpusów.

W rozdziale dziewiątym, ostatnim rozdziale pracy, wyniki badań nad oboma korpusami są porównane i zestawiane z ogólnym celem identyfikacji obszarów, w których wyniki analizy pokrywają się i gdzie wyraźnie się różnią. Rozdział ten przedstawia również odpowiedzi na pytania badawcze sformułowane we wcześniejszej części pracy.

Rozprawę doktorską kończą Uwagi Końcowe, lista źródeł wykorzystanych w pracy, lista tabel i figur przedstawionych w pracy oraz streszczenie w języku polskim i angielskim.